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GRAMMAR

OF THE

# HINDI LANGUAGE:

IN WHICH ARE TREATED

THE STANDARD HINDE, BRAJ, AND THE

EASTERN HINDI OF THE RAMAYAN

OF TULSI DAS,

ALSO

THE COLLOQUIAL DIALECTS OF MARWAR, KUMAON, Avadh, Baghelkhand, Bhojpur, etc.; with

COPIOUS PHILOLOGICAL NOTES.

BY THR



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PRINTED AT THE AM. PRES. MISSION PRESS, ALLAHABAD:

AND SOLD BY

THACKER, SPINK & Co., CALCUTTA.

TRÜBNER & Co., 57 & 59 LUDGATE HILL: LONDON.

1876.

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OF the two hundred and fifty million inhabitants of India, speaking a score or more of different languages, fully one fourth, or between sixty and seventy millions, own the Hindí as their vernacular. In all the great centres of Hindú faith in North India, alike in populous Benares, Allahabad and Mathurá, and in the mountains about the sacred shrines of Gangotrí, Kídárnáth, and Badrínáth, among the Himalayas; in many of the most powerful independent native states of India, as in the dominions of the Mahárájá Sindhia, and the extensive territories under the Mahárájá of Jaipúr and other Rájpút chiefs; in short, throughout an area of more than 248,000 square miles, Hindí is the language of the great mass of the population. Only where Mohammedan influence has long prevailed, as in the large cities, and on account of the almost exclusive currency of Mohammedan speech in Government offices, have many Hindús learned to contemn their native tongue and affect the Persianized Hindí known as 'Urdú'.

Of the importance, especially to those who have been called to places of authority in North India, of thoroughly knowing a language so widely diffused, and of the need of a grammar which shall exhibit its chief phenomena, one would think that no doubt could be entertained. But chiefly because Urdú has been adopted by government as the official language, it has come to pass that although this dialect represents grammatically only a single western form of speech, and is the vernacular only of the Mohammadans of North India, it has been read and studied by foreigners in India, to the great neglect, even almost to the exclusion of the living Aryan speech which is the actual vernacular of the great mass of the Hindú population. Many, indeed, have even been led to believe that the Urdú with which they are themselves familiar, is essentially the vernacular of the Hindús as well as of the Mohammedans of North India; that the only difference between Urdú and Hindí consists in the use of a different alphabet; and that such a language as Hindí, apart and distinct from Urdú, exists only in name and not in reality. The refutation of such a theory needs no other argument than that which is afforded in the declensional and conjugational tables of this grammar.

Others, again, while rightly asserting for Hindí an individual existence, have still erred in their apprehension of the relation between it and Urdú. Thus when I first entered India, I was repeatedly assured that the main difference between Hindí and Urdú was one of vocabulary. And this statement, indeed, was quite correct, if it be understood to apply only to that special form of Hindí which is exhibited in those religious and educational works which owe their origin, directly or indirectly, to the foreigner in India. Many foreigners who have written books in Hindí, seem to have imagined that by merely substituting Sanskrit for the Arabic and Persian terms which are found in Urdú, that familiar dialect might be at once transformed into boná fide Hindí. Hence, apparently, has arisen the strange but popular notion, that the 'purity' of Hindí is to be measured by the degree to which a writer may have succeeded in excluding from his pages words of Arabic or Persian origin; a standard of purity, according to which the author of the Rámáyan has failed, and the gifted Kabir, with his free use of Arabic and Persian words, must renounce his claim to be considered a Hindí poet. But the early delusion on this subject was soon dispelled. When we fancied that we were speaking something like 'pure Hindi', the villagers stared confounded at our sonorous Sanskrit terms, many of which were evidently less familiar to them than even the Arabic and Persian of the Urdú. Still it was equally plain that, although often using Arabic and Persian words, they themselves did not speak Urdú, except, perhaps, in condescension to our ignorance. Their Hindí, indeed, was scarcely more intelligible to us than was ours to them; but it soon became quite plain that the speech of the people differed from Urdú much more notably in grammatical forms than in vocabulary. Similarly. in literature, the difference between the Hindí, e.g., of Tulsí Dás, Súr Dás or Kabír, and modern Urdú, is not by any means merely in their choice of words; it is not that they scrupulously exclude Arabic and Persian terms, for they do not. The special difficulties and peculiar-

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ities, for instance, of the *Rámáyan*, are of a much more radical and serious nature. They concern, not mere vocabulary, but the very grammatical forms and syntax of the language.

Regarding these distinctive peculiarities of Hindí, the student hitherto has had no adequate help. No grammar, indeed, has hitherto even attempted or professed to exhibit, with any approach to thoroughness or completeness, the actual colloquial and literary language of the Hindús of North India. Mr. Etherington in his grammar has confined his attention to that single modification of Hindí which agrees in grammatical form with the Urdú dialect; only giving, in his last edition, a brief synopsis of the Braj declensions and conjuga-On the other hand, Dr. Ballantyne in his brief Braj Grammar, tions. as also Prof. De Tassy in his 'Grammaire de la Langue Hindoui', passing by the Urdú dialect, gave only the forms of the Braj; which, indeed, had been previously exhibited in an old Hindí Grammar published by Government in connexion with the College of Fort William. All grammarians of the Hindí hitherto, have alike entirely ignored the eastern type of Hindí, as represented, e.g., with some admixture, in the Rámáyan of Tulsí Dás. Indeed, it is a remarkable fact that although of all Hindí books, the writings of Kabír excepted, none compare with the Rámáyan in universal popularity and general influence upon the people, and although this eastern Hindí, even more than the western Braj, may be regarded as par excellence the classic dialect of Hindí, yet not a Hindí grammar hitherto published, nor a Hindí dictionary, previous to the late valuable work of Mr. Bate, so much as hints the existence of any grammatical form or construction, peculiar to Tulsí Dás or any similar writer. What grammarian, for example, has ever noted the future in b, so common not only in the Rámáyan, but in all the modern eastern Hindí dialects? Or where has the fact been noted in any grammar, that one chief distinguishing characteristic of the Urdú and other western Hindí dialects, viz., the passive construction of the perfects of transitive verbs with the case of the agent in ne, does not exist in eastern Hindí? and that this ne is never used by Tulsí Dás, even when he employs the passive construction?

This absence of the assistance needed by the Hindí student, has doubtless been the occasion of increasing the prevailing indifference

of Europeans to classic Hindí, and of turning many to the special study of the more fashionable Urdú, for which helps have become so Very many civilians in India, instead of seeking the reabundant. wards and honors offered by Government to the thorough student of the great Hindí poem of Tulsí Dás, have preferred to compete for the prizes which are offered for high proficiency in Arabic and Persian, languages utterly alien to all but the Mohammedan population of India. Too many missionaries, seeking to influence the religious thought of the people, have omitted to make themselves familiar with the one poem, which, more than any other, is exerting a present, living influence, direct or indirect, upon the religious thought of the Hindús of North India. And one chief reason of this neglect of their great vernacular epic is to be found in the utter absence of any work which might aid the student in its interpretation. For, as I know by a vexatious experience, it is by no means so easy as might be imagined, to obtain in a small station in India, a trustworthy pundit, really competent to guide the student to a thorough critical knowledge of the Rámáyan or any similar poetry. No less difficulties have hitherto met him who would acquaint himself with the actual speech of the Hindús in the district where he might be stationed. Most of these dialects have no literature; and whatever the intrinsic merits of some of them may be, the attempt to force any one of them into the field already preoccupied by the Urdú dialect as the lingua franca of North India, would doubtless be both unwise and futile. Still it is evidently very desirable that the magistrate in his court, should be able to understand the rustic witness, and the missionary disputing in the bazar, his adversaries, without the aid of a third and not always disinterested party. But no effort whatever has yet been made to indicate the actual nature and extent of those dialectic variations, which always perplex, and sometimes discourage him, who really desires a knowledge of the spoken language of the people, as well as that of their books.

Thus it was, that, embarrassed by these difficulties, I was led to take up the Hindí, with such pundits as might be procured, and note and arrange, primarily for my own use, and with no thought of writing a book, facts of the class above referred to. In this way, in the course of several years, gradually grew up a considerable body of

notes on Hindí, which has finally developed into this grammar. My aim has accordingly been, not merely to reproduce, under a new arrangement, the matter of grammars previously existing, but rather to supply their omissions and supplement their defects. All existing Hindí and Urdú grammars have been carefully studied, with this particular point in view. Thus, in addition to the fundamental matter pertaining especially to modern standard Hindí, or common to that with other Hindí dialects, the grammar now offered to the public will be found to contain a large amount of matter not to be found in any Hindí grammar hitherto published. I may be allowed to mention the following particulars.

i. For practical reasons, that variety of Hindí which agrees in grammatical form with the Urdú has been taken as the basis of the grammar. It is to this form of Hindí, for various reasons, that the student commonly first directs his attention; and, moreover, in virtue of the position of this dialect as a lingua franca throughout the whole Hindí area of North India, and its adoption by the educational authorities as the medium of vernacular instruction in all Hindí schools, it has a special claim to our primary consideration; and, for such reasons only, may be justly termed the 'standard dialect' of Hindí.\* But while thus yielding to this 'standard Hindí' a priority in certain respects. I have endeavoured to treat with equal thoroughness. the two great dialects of classic Hindí literature, as of no less importance to the Hindí scholar. Of these dialects, the Braj and the old Púrbí, the former represents the western, as the latter represents the eastern type of Hindí. The very numerous and marked peculiarities of these two typical dialects, in declension, conjugation and

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<sup>\*</sup> This form of Hindí has also often been termed *kharí boli*, or the 'pure speech'; and also, by some European scholars, after the analogy of the German, 'High Hindí'. Both the phrases 'standard Hindí' and 'High Hindí', have been employed in this grammar; though indeed it may be admitted that both are open to objection. In particular, to avoid a misapprehension, it should be carefully noted that by the phrase 'standard Hindi', it is not intended to suggest that all other dialectic forms are corruptions of forms of this 'standard dialect'. On the contrary, they are, very commonly, collateral branches of the old Aryan speech of India, and in most instances are older and less divergent from the ancient original, than those of 'standard' or 'High Hindí'.

syntax, have been for the first time collected, classified, and compared. It is not indeed claimed that all the various forms of these types which may occur in Hindí, will be found in these pages; nor will this be expected by any one at all familiar with the almost endless vagaries of Hindí writers. It is hoped, however, that the student of the *Prem Ságar*, the *Rájníti*, or the *Rámáyan* will rarely be disappointed in consulting this work.<sup>\*</sup> Outside of these books any variations not noted in this grammar, will probably be found but slight and unimportant deviations from some central type herein exhibited.

ii. In addition to the various forms of literary Hindí, the declension and conjugation of nine or ten less important colloquial dialects have been exhibited in these pages. This is, I believe, the first attempt to set forth with any approach to completeness the actual living speech of the Hindí-speaking population of North India, It is indeed true that local variations may be adduced almost without number, which have not been mentioned in this grammar; but the dialects which have been exhibited, it is hoped, will be found to represent all of the leading varieties of speech from Bengal in the east to Gujarát and Sindh in the west. Moreover, all these numerous dialects may be readily assigned to two or three general types, so that excessive detail might embarrass rather than aid the student. I trust that in this respect this grammar may prove a valuable aid to the foreigner in India, who would learn to understand the special vernacular of the district where he may reside. For although colloquial speech cannot be learned from books alone, yet a grammar, if it indicate the forms for which we are to listen, may assist us in acquiring a knowledge of colloquial speech. Nor are these rude dialects without value in a literary point of view. For very often some unusual form in literature may be explicated by a reference to the colloquial of some rustic district; while for the purposes of the philologist, it is such wild, unpruned dialects

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<sup>•</sup> A few passages in the Rámáyan, however, chiefly in the Lanká Kánd and Uttar Kánd have been written in pure Sanskrit. It scarcely needs to be said that we have regarded the explication of such passages as belonging to Sanskrit rather than to Hindí grammar.

as these, which of all others promise and yield the richest harvest of valuable fruit.\*

iii. Especial attention has been given to the matter of illustration. In grammar, particularly, mere assertion, unsupported by example, is extremely unsatisfactory. And when one undertakes to write a grammar of any language not his own, examples constructed by the author himself to fit his rules, however correct they may be, can hardly inspire a student with perfect confidence in his guide. I have accordingly made it a rule to support every statement of any consequence in etymology or syntax, by one or more illustrations, which, with no exception of any importance, have been culled from native books. or taken down fresh from the lips of the people. Nor have I allowed myself to draw an illustration from any Hindí book written by a foreigner; for even those European scholars who have most thoroughly mastered an Oriental language cannot be regarded as models so trustworthy as native authors, who write in their own vernacular. Very few, if any, Hindí books have been written by Europeans, which in some casual turn of expression, or occasional peculiarity of idiom, do not betray their foreign origin; while the great majority of such books would prove in many important respects quite misleading to him who should trust them implicitly as guides to a knowledge of Hindí. While the abundant illustration characteristic of this grammar, as will be evident at a glance, has very materially increased the size and expense of the book, it is believed that its practical value to the student has thereby been much enhanced. The illustrations of literary Hindí have been drawn chiefly from the Prem Ságar and the Rámáyan. To this special use of these works, I have been led, partly by the fact that these books have been chosen by Government, for the examination of candidates in connexion with

<sup>•</sup> I have ventured for practical reasons to deviate in some cases from the common nomenclature of these dialects, and have preferred generally to indicate them by names indicative of the modern names of the province in which they are used. Thus, Avadhí. of course, denotes the dialect of Oude; Riwáí, that of the state of Ríwá; etc., etc. It may be noted here, that the Rájpútáná dialect of Mewár, is also essentially that of the Mairs, and might, perhaps with equal propriety, be designated either Mairwárí or Mewárí. I have used the term Old Púrbí to denote the dialect of the Rámáyay.

the civil and military services of India, so that the illustration of their grammar and idiom is especially demanded. And I may venture to express the hope, that by all applicants for admission to the Indian services, or contestants in the competitive examinations which are held for Indian civilians, this grammar, with its copious illustrations from the Prem Ságar and Rámáyan, may be found to meet a real need. A second consideration which has seemed to justify a prominent reference to these books, is found in their undeniable popularity and influence among all classes of the Hindú population. For, however much may have been said against the Hindí of the Prem Ságar, and even of the Rámáyan, by critics commonly familiar only with Urdú, and therefore judging every thing in Hindí, either by English standards of taste, or from a Mohammedan point of view, the fact remains that the Hindús, from the highest to the lowest, learned and unlearned, greatly admire their Crowds, even of the most illiterate rustics, may often be seen style. listening eagerly to some Brahman intoning the measured rhyming prose of the Prem Ságar. And although much has been said of the unintelligibility of the Rámáyan, it is the experience of every missionary, at least everywhere in the Ganges valley, that a happy quotation from the Rámáyan in preaching or in conversation, is sure to awaken a look of intelligent appreciation from even the rudest villagers. No civilian, and especially no missionary, can well afford to remain ignorant of a book so popular and influential with the people; and if this grammar shall serve in any degree to aid and stimulate the study of the great poem of Tulsi Dás, one great aim of my work will have been accomplished. But while, for the reasons indicated, a large proportion of my quotations have been taken from the Prem Ságar and the Rámáyan, other books have not been ignored. In particular, I have now and then drawn, from the sententious Braj prose of the Rájníti, the western Hindí of Kabír, the Sukh Bilás, and the Shat Darsan Darpan of Pundit Nilkanth Gore Shástri. Márwárí can scarcely be called a literary dialect; the only work accessible to me, has been the Márwárí 'Plays,' edited by Rev. Mr. Robson of the Scotch Presbyterian Mission, Beawr.

iv. Another feature peculiar to this grammar will be found in the philological notes, occupying in all about fifty pages, in which I

have attempted to indicate the probable origin and derivation of the forms of the Hindí language, and the relation of various dialectic forms to one another, and to the Sanskrit and old Prákrit dialects of India. In a field where, until the late researches of scholars like Mr. Beames and Dr. Hoernle, so little had been done, I cannot venture to hope that I have always succeeded in reducing apparent chaos to order, and in correctly pointing out the lines of derivation. I have only endeavored, with no little diffidence, to indicate the conclusions to which facts, so far as known, would seem to guide us. And while I have not been able to follow implicitly the guidance of any one individual, it has on several occasions been a satisfaction to find that authorities like the learned scholars mentioned, had been independently led to the same conclusions with myself.

v. Besides the above, much else will be found in this grammar which is strictly new, both in matter and in arrangement. In the sections, for instance, on pronunciation, I have aimed at more precision and accuracy than has been previously attempted. If some may deem that I have sometimes erred in the way of an over-refinement, I am still glad to know that some of the best practical masters of Hindí have recognised the chief distinctions which I have made in treating of this subject. A nomenclature of the tenses has been presented which is believed to be more uniform and philosophical than any which has been hitherto employed, and which, it is hoped, may commend itself to Hindí scholars. The chapter on Derivation, again, will be found more than a mere arbitrary list of terminations; I have endeavored rather to group them according to their probable mutual relations and affinities. In the section on Compound words, all, it is believed, is quite new. Strange to say, no Hindí grammar that I remember, has dealt with this most characteristic feature of the language, although an understanding of the subject is indispensable to the interpretation of almost any page of Hindí poetry. In the Syntax, attention has everywhere been given to those constructions which are characteristic of poetry, especially in archaic Hindí; and the construction of Compound Sentences, for the first time, has been separately and distinctly treated. The chapter on Prosody, it is hoped, will be found in completeness and accuracy, all that, for any practical purpose, the student of Hindí can desire.

The Prosody of Hindí deserves and will repay far more study than is commonly bestowed upon it. In no western language is an understanding of the laws of its prosody so essential to the interpretation and comprehension of its literature, as in Hindí; where, indeed, a purely native work in prose is a rare exception. Unfortunately, however, until very lately, there has been no English work on Hindí prosody; and the native works upon the subject, are so laden with technicalities and an enigmatical symbolism, as without the aid of a rare native prosodian, quite to baffle the student. I shall be glad if I have so cleared away the thorns which have obstructed the entrance, as to tempt my fellow missionaries and others to labour in this attractive field.

Finally, it should be remarked, that as this grammar is intended alike for the beginner and for the advanced student, I have endeavoured to indicate by the use of a large type those important fundamental matters to which chiefly the beginner will do well to confine his attention. Matter less fundamental, and intended rather for the advanced scholar, as, *e.g.*, in all the sections upon dialectic Hindí, has been uniformly printed in smaller type.

It gives me pleasure to express my grateful appreciation of the assistance and encouragement which I have received from many missionaries and members of the civil service, during the years that this grammar has been in progress. In particular, I would express my hearty thanks to the Rev. W. Robb of the Scotch Presbyterian Mission, Todgarh, Rájpútáná, for his invaluable assistance in the compilation of the sections on the Márwárí and other Rájpútáná dialects, and afterwards in the correction of the proofs of the same. Indeed, it is only due to this gentleman to say, that whatever of value those sections may be found to possess, the merit is chiefly due to him. My thanks are also due to Mr. Beames, c.s., of Cuttack, Orissa, for valuable hints and constant encouragement in the work ; and to the Rev. J. D. Bate, of the Baptist Mission, Allahabad, for many a useful suggestion, and for his very kind revision of the proof sheets during many months of my absence from Allahabad.

In conclusion, I desire to record my special obligations and thanks to the Rev. J. J. Caleb, of the Mission Press, Allahabad, for the great labour and patience which he has bestowed upon the printing

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of this book. For many years this press has been sustained solely by the capital and enterprise of members of the Hindustání Christian community in Allahabad, and the creditable style in which Mr. Caleb has brought out this volume, affords a gratifying indication of their substantial progress and prosperity.

S. H. KELLOGG.

ALLAHABAD: December, 1875.

NOTE.

In a field much of which has been quite untrodden hitherto, I have frequently found myself without a guide or help. But I have derived valuable assistance from the first volume of Mr. Beames' Comparative Grammar of the Aryan Languages of India; and regret that I could not have had the advantage of consulting the remaining volumes. I also owe much to Prof. Lassen's Institutiones Lingua Prakritica, and Prof. Cowell's edition of the Prákrita Prakásha of Vararuchi. In some parts of the grammar I have consulted with advantage, Prof. Monier Williams' Sanskrit Grammar (4th Ed.) Dr. Trumpp's learned Grammar of the Sindhí, came to hand too late to help me as it might have done. In the Prosody I am chiefly indebted to the Chhandárnava, the Chhandodipaka, (a small but useful compendium issued by the Government of the N. W. P., now unfortunately out of print,) and especially to the Shripingaádarsha of Kavi Hírá Chand Kánjí, an exhaustive treatise on Prosody in the Braj dialect, with a Gujarátí commentary. Besides these native authorities, the admirable chapter on Prosody by John Christian, Esq. of Manghír, in the 1st edition of Mr. Etherington's Hindí Grammar has been of essential service.

On the general topics of the Grammar the following works have been consulted, viz.: the Hindustání Grammar of Prof. Forbes; the Introduction to Hindustání, by Prof. Williams; the Hindustání Grammars of Mr. Platt and Prof. Dowson; Prof. De Tassy's Grammaire de la Langue Hindouí; Shápurjí Edaljí's Gujarátí Grammar, the Maráthí Grammars of Mr. Stevenson and of Messrs. Bellairs and Askhedar; the Panjábí Grammar of Mr. Newton, and the Bangálí Grammar of Sháma Charan Sarkár.

The following abbreviations have been used :

Ar., Arabic; Av., Avadhí; Br., Braj; Bh., Bhojpúrí; Bú., Búndelkhandí; G., Garhwálí; H. H., High Hindí, *i.e.*, the standard dialect; K., Kanaují; Kum., Kumáoní; O. P., Old Púrbí, *i.e.*, the dialect of the Rámáyan; Pr., Prákrit B., Biwáí; Sh., Sanskrit; T., Tirhutí.

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# HINDÍ GRAMMAR.

# CHAPTER I.

# OF THE LETTERS.

1. THE Hindí language is commonly written, like the Sanskrit, in the Devanágarí alphabet.\* This alphabet, as used in Hindí, has eleven vowels and thirty-three simple consonants. To these we must add the nasal symbols, Anusvár and Anunásik, and the symbol for a weak aspiration, Visarg. The latter of these, however, is of very rare occurrence in Hindí. The letters are given below, with their equivalents in the Roman character. It will be observed that all the vowels but the short a, have two forms. Of these, the form first given is used as initial in a word or syllable; the second, as medial or final. It will aid the memory to observe that the alphabetical order of each class of letters, vowels, mutes, semi-vowels, and sibilants, is the order of the organs of utterance, beginning with the throat, and ending with the lips. The first five classes of consonants are technically known as the five varge.

**VOWELS.** 

स्न स्नां द िं दीं उ u ऊ ú मू/ri ve रि ai स्ना∏o सी िau

\* More commonly called Nágarí. † Sansk. an, 'a class.'

Nasal symbols, Anunásik , Anusvár . n. Symbol of the weak final aspirate, Visarg, : h.

CONSONANTS.

| Gutturals,  | <b>än</b> k      | स्त kh      | <b>ग</b> g   | घ gh        | <b>§</b> ñ |
|-------------|------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| Palatals,   | च ch             | 👿 chh       | ज्र <i>j</i> | <b>H</b> jh | ञ्च n      |
| Cerebrals,  | <u>t</u> 3       | ₹ th        | <b>ह</b> व़ं | <b>द</b> dh | U ņ        |
| Dentals,    | त t              | <b>U</b> th | द् d         | <b>U</b> dh | <b>न</b> n |
| Labials,    | $\mathbf{q}_{p}$ | <b>Կ</b> ph | <b>a</b> b   | H bh        | Ħm         |
| Semivowels, | य y              | र <i>r</i>  | ल ।          | <b>व</b> v  |            |
| Sibilants,  | भ sh             | ष <u>sh</u> | स् ।         |             |            |
| Aspirate,   | E h              |             |              |             |            |

a. Besides the above, classical Sanskrit had three additional vowels,  $r_i$ ,  $r_i$ ,

b. In addition to the above vowels, a short  $\check{e}$ , nearly like  $\check{e}$  in 'met', exists in the colloquial of some districts. It is heard, for example, in the local dialect about Ayodhyá, chiefly in certain verbal forms; as, e.g., in the subst. verb,  $ah\check{e}nug$ , 'I am,'  $ah\check{e}s$ , 'thou art,' etc." It may also be heard in some words in the Doáb, where it has arisen from the shortening of a previous long e; as, e. g., in  $b\check{e}tiy\acute{a}$  for  $bitiy\acute{a}$ , dim. from  $bet\acute{a}$ , 'a son.' This sound is also said to be common in the N. W. Himalayas. It may be noticed, as further indicating the existence of this short e, that  $\mathbf{v}$ , which, according to some books on Prosody, should be

<sup>\*</sup> For further illustrations, see the tables of Declension and Conjugation.

## LEITERS.

uniformly long, in the Rámáyan is sometimes reckoned prosodially short. In these cases, it commonly appears as a substitute, either for short *i*, as in *jëhi*, for *jihi*; or for a short *a*, as in *rákhěu*, for *rákhäu*.\*

Lassen has noted the fact that this same letter also represented a long and a short sound in the literary Prákrit.<sup>+</sup>

2. The consonants are all vocalized by the short vowel a, which is theoretically inherent in each consonant. Thus, aproperly represents, not k, but ka; u, pa; etc. The letters are indicated by adding the word and kár; as, uant akár, 'the letter a;' mant, 'the letter t;' etc.  $\tau$ , when first in a compound consonant, as a rk, is indicated as  $\tau reph$ . When no particular letter is intended, the term use akshar, often corrupted into user achehhar, is used; as in the phrase, as and user achehhar, hai, 'what letter is that.'

# MODE OF WRITING THE DEVANÁGARI.

an ka, an ká, an ki, an kí, an ku, an kú, an kri, an ke, an kai, an ko, an hau.

<sup>\*</sup> Abundant illustrations of this statement will be found in the Bámáyau. Vid. chap. xiv, On Prosody.

<sup>†</sup> Inst. Ling. Pracr. § 19. 4.

## LETTERS.

a. When initial, the vowels are all written as pronounced, before the following consonant; as, we at, we ud, with or, etc. Instead of  $\vec{e}$  ai initial, we sometimes find, in Hindí books, the combination  $\vec{e}$ ; but this is not correct, and should never be imitated.

4. The consonants have but one invariable form. Excepting the cerebrals, they all have one perpendicular, with one horizontal stroke; which latter, again, is broken in three letters, viz.,  $\mathbf{w} dh$ ,  $\mathbf{w} bh$ ,  $\mathbf{w} jh$ .

a. But  $\mathbf{x}$  jh has two additional forms,  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}$ . The former is found in English and native prints; the latter is the regular form in Márwárí. These forms, like  $\mathbf{x}$ , and all the other consonants, are used both as initial and as non-initial.

b. In Márwárí, b and v are distinguished merely by a diacritical point; thus,  $\mathbf{a}$  b,  $\mathbf{a}$  v. The character  $\mathbf{a}$  is not commonly used; its place is regularly taken by  $\mathbf{a}$ . No sibilant is used but  $\mathbf{a}$  s.

5. In addition to the above simple consonants, a great number of compound letters are used. The compound form is used to denote the non-intervention between its elements of the inherent a. Thus, un is sata, but un is sta; use, tava, but use, tva. In certain cases, however, to be hereafter mentioned, the elementary forms are regularly used, even though no vowel sound intervene; as, used, 'doing,' pronounced karta'; but the Sk. kartta, 'a doer,' is written used. \*

a. It may be remarked, for the guidance of the student, that the use of the compound consonants is chiefly confined to the pure Sanskrit words in the language; in words of Prákrit origin, the elementary letters are commonly preferred.

b. Consonants are compounded in three ways: viz., 1st, by writing one above the other, as,  $\mathbf{x}, kk, \mathbf{z}, \underline{t}$ ; 2dly, by writing one after the other, omitting in all but the last the perpendicular stroke, and uniting the remainder of the character to that next following; as,  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b}d$ ,  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}th, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}y$ ; 3dly, some letters, when in combination, partially or wholly change their form; thus,  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}$  becomes  $\mathbf{x}$  ksh;  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}$  jn.

(1) **takes two different forms, according as it is the first or last** 

## LETTERS.

letter of a compound. Thus, when initial in a conjunct, it is written as a semicircle above the second consonant, as in  $\overline{\operatorname{sup}}$  sarp; but when non-initial, it takes the form of a short stroke below the preceding consonant, as in  $\overline{\operatorname{sup}}$  grahan.

(2) When a conjunct of which  $\mathbf{z} r$  is the first member, consists of more than two consonants, the semicircle *reph* is written over the last letter, as in **user** *dharmm*, **used** *sarve*. When a conjunct with r initial is vocalized by  $\mathbf{f}$   $i, \mathbf{f}$   $i, \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}$   $ai, \mathbf{f}$   $o, \mathbf{f}$  au, or followed by Anusvár, then *reph* is written to the right of them all; thus, **user** *dharmmi*, **used** *sarveam*, etc.

6. Conjuncts are classified as strong, weak, or mixed, according to the character of the letters composing them.\* Conjuncts formed of strong letters only, are termed *strong*, and those formed of weak letters only, *weak* conjuncts. Combinations of strong and weak letters, are called *mixed* conjuncts. The following list will be found to comprise all the more common combinations, arranged in these three classes.

# STRONG CONJUNCTS.

 $g_{\mathbf{n}}$  kk, area kkh,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  kt, su gdh,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  chch,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  g,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  jj,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  jjh,  $g_{\mathbf{n}}$  kk,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  kk,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  kt,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  tt,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  tth,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  tp,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  dg,  $g_{\mathbf{n}}$  dd,  $g_{\mathbf{n}}$  ddh,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  gdh,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  pt,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  pp,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  pph,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  bj,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  bd,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  bdh,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  bb,  $r_{\mathbf{n}}$  bbh.

## WEAK CONJUNCTS.

रव १९११, क्य १९५९, झू १११, त्म ११९, त्य १९, त्व ११९, त्य ११७, त्म ११९, सू १९९, तम १९९९, क्य १९५९, सू १९९, त्म १९९, त्य ९५९, क्य १९९, त्म १९९, र्घ त्र १९, क्ये १८९९, क्य १९९, क्य १९९, त्य १५, ज्य १५, त्व १९, त्य १५, त्व १९, त्य १९९, रव १४४, रव १९९, रव १९९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १४४, क्य १९७, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १४४, क्य १९७, क्य १९९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव १९, रव

# MIXED CONJUNCTS.

कम km, क्य ky, का kr, का kl, क्व kv, च ksh, क्य khy, ग्र gn, मा gm, म्य gy, ग्र gr, ग्र gl, ग्व gv, घ ghn, घ्य ghy, घ ghr, झू ñk, इ. ñkh, क्व ñg, ड्व ñgh, च्य chy, क्र chhr, च jn, उस jm, उत्य jy, च jr, च्र jv, ठ्व nich, ठक nichh, ठ्व nij, ठक nijh, इ. dr, बट nit, बड nith, बड nid,

<sup>\*</sup> By the strong letters are intended, all the five classes of mute letters, both smooth and aspirated; by weak letters, all other consonants.

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कड ndh, च tn, रम tm, रूप ty, च tr, रख tv, रूप ts, च्य thy, दू dn, च्य dhy, घू dhr, घ्य dhv, स्त nt, स्व nth, स्त nd, स्व ndh, घू pn, च्म pm, च्य py, घ pr, घू pl, च्य ps, ड्य by, झ br, स्व bhy, स bhr, क rk, खे rkh, गे rg, घे rgh, चे rch, के rchh, चे rj, रो rt, घे rth, दे rd, घे rdh, घे rp, चे rb, भे rbh, स्व ld, स्प lp, स्व lb, रख shch, इस shk, ष्ट sht, ष्ट shth, च्य shp, घ्म shm, घ्य shy, स्वा sk, स्त st, स्व sth, स्य sp, स्फ sph.

7. Anunásik  $\checkmark$  simply denotes the nasalization of a preceding vowel, and can therefore never begin a syllable. It is written directly over, or to the right of the vowel thus nasalized; thus, **max** kahán, **a** kaun. In books edited by foreigners, Anusvár is always written instead of Anunásik.

Anusvár, which, in strict accuracy, denotes a stronger nasalization than the above, is written, like Anunásik, over, or to the right of the preceding vowel; as,  $\frac{1}{433}$  ansh,  $\frac{1}{433}$  bánh,  $\frac{1}{433}$  son.

Visarg, meaning 'rejection,' (*i.e.*, of  $\overline{\mathbf{q}}$  or  $\overline{\mathbf{\zeta}}$ ,) indicates a weak aspiration, which has euphonically taken the place of those letters. It is only found in pure Sanskrit words, and even then, though occuring in the original, is very commonly omitted in Hindí. It is written thus, :; as, e. g., in  $\overline{\mathbf{g}}$ :  $\mathbf{d}uhkh$ , more commonly written and pronounced  $\overline{\mathbf{g}}$  and dukh,  $=\overline{\mathbf{g}}\mathbf{q} + \mathbf{a}t$  dus + kha.

8. Besides these, there are several other signs used in Sanskrit, which, as they occasionally appear in Hindí, may here be explained.

Virám, 'pause,' is written under a consonant, thus,  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{k}$ , and denotes the absence of the inherent a by which the consonant is vocalized.

Avagrah, s indicates the elision of an initial  $\mathbf{w}$  a after a final  $\mathbf{v}$  e or  $\mathbf{w}_1$  o, as,  $\mathbf{w}_2\mathbf{w}_1\mathbf{x}$  sum trinsho'dhyáya, for  $\mathbf{w}_2\mathbf{w}_2\mathbf{w}_2\mathbf{w}_2\mathbf{x}$  It is therefore analogous to the English apostrophe. The half pause **a** is written at the end of the first line of a couplet; the full pause **a** at the end of the second. These marks are only prosodial, and, besides these, there are no other marks of punctuation. But in a few books issued by English publishers, the English marks have been introduced. In native works, space is not even left between the words.

9. The symbol  $\gtrsim$  between two words, indicates that the former of the two is repeated, as, as an and  $\gtrsim$  and  $\sim$  and

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## LETTERS.

a. The mark o is used, like the period in English, to indicate the abbreviation of a word; as, रामायब खाo Rámáyan Bá. for रामायब खाल्काबड Rámáyan Bál Kánd.

b. The orthography of Hindí is as yet in a very unsettled state.  $\blacksquare$ is constantly substituted for  $\blacksquare$ , even in Sanskrit words, where rule or usage would demand it; as in  $\boxed{\blacksquare, \blacksquare}$ , for  $\boxed{\blacksquare, \blacksquare}$ ,  $\boxed{\blacksquare, \blacksquare}$ , for  $\boxed{\blacksquare, \blacksquare}$ , etc. The same confusion exists with reference to the characters  $\blacksquare$  and  $\blacksquare$ , and also the sibilants  $\blacksquare, \blacksquare$ ; the tendency is to substitute  $\blacksquare$  for the other sibilants. The Sanskrit rules of orthography are the only recognized standard at present; but these rules, it should be remembered, apply only, as has been remarked, to the spelling of such Sanskrit words as exist in the language in an unaltered and uncorrupted form.

# PRONUNCIATION OF LETTERS.

10. The vowels, in Hindí, are pronounced, for the most part, nearly as in the continental languages of Europe.  $\blacksquare a$ has no exact counterpart in English, though the last a in such words as 'total,' 'America,' very nearly represents it. It is said to correspond exactly to the short a in German. Many foreigners in India pronounce this  $\blacksquare a$  as a in 'cat,' but the correct sound is entirely different.

a. In conversation and in reading prose,  $\mathbf{w}$  a final, after a consonant, as a general rule, is silent; as in  $\mathbf{m}$ , pronounced gun, not guna;  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{n}$ ,  $\mathbf{$ 

(1)  $\blacksquare a$  final is, of necessity, always distinctly pronounced in a few monosyllables; as,  $\blacksquare na$ ,  $\blacksquare ta$ ,  $\blacksquare chha$ .

(3) When, in prose and in conversation,  $\mathbf{a}$  ya final is preceded by  $\mathbf{a}$ , this aya is not to be distinguished in sound from  $\mathbf{a}$  ai, which is

<sup>\*</sup> It should be noted, that while the Pandits give this pronunciation of these conjuncts with z, yet the common people usually separate the letters, and pronounce, shdstar, bipar, etc.

## LETTERS.

even occasionally, though inaccurately, written for it; as, una samaya, always pronounced, and sometimes written,  $\overline{a}$  samai;  $\overline{a}$  chhaya, also pronounced, and sometimes written,  $\overline{a}$  chhai. Conversely, it may here be noted, that una aya is sometimes inaccurately written for  $\overline{a}$  a; as often in the Rám. una bayar, for  $\overline{a}$  bair, etc.

b. Observe, that when, in the formation of compound words, a silent final **u** a becomes medial, it still remains silent, though in the middle of a word; as, **ugain**, pronounced anndátá, not annadátá; **ugain**, *phaldáyak*, not *phaladáyak*.

It should be noted that the above remarks refer only to ज a as inherent in a consonant. When non-inherent, it is always pronounced, whether medial or final; as, तुज tua, इरुज harua.

c. The inherent a, when final in roots or primitive words, in reading prose and in conversation, is always silent before all added terminations. Thus, in verbal forms, **aren**, root **ar**, is pronounced karná, not karaná; **aren**, chaltá, not chalatá; **aren**, boltí, etc. So, also, in all derivatives; as, **gran** purrá, dim. from **gr** púr; **aren**, kuárpan, from **aren**, kuár; **gran** múrakhpan, from **gran** múrakh. It also becomes silent, when medial in the final syllable of dissyllabic verbal roots, before all terminations beginning with vowels; as, **fraren** niklá, from the root **fraren** nikal: but, in the same root, when the termination begins with a consonant, it is pronounced, as, e. g., **frarenn**, nikaltá.

(1) This rule holds good without exception, in the standard dialect. But in the Braj and other dialects, where the verbal terminations, in several instances, consist of a consonantal sound only, the inherent a final in the root is necessarily pronounced. Thus, e. g., although we pronounce  $\overline{\operatorname{unert}}$ , jántá, root  $\overline{\operatorname{uner}}$  jána; in the Kanaují dialect, the corresponding  $\overline{\operatorname{unert}}$  is pronounced jánat; so, also,  $\overline{\operatorname{uere}}$ , root  $\overline{\operatorname{uere}}$  chala, chalan, etc.

(2) The pronominal gen. **WURT** is pronounced, sometimes apad, and sometimes apand. The latter is most commonly used by the mass of the people. It is to be noticed that although the regular nom. of this pronoun is **WIU** dp, yet the **P** does not belong to the termination, but represents the **P** of the original **WIRNP**. After the analogy of the language, therefore, the pronunciation apand, is the more defensible. The pronunciation, apud, has possibly arisen from a popular misapprehension, regarding **WIU** or **WIU** as the radical element, instead of **WIUP**; in which case, following the analogy of verbal roots, the *a* of **U** pa would be silent.

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# PRONUNCIATION.

d. The final a inherent of the Denominative numerals, चौक, तोन, जनम, is always pronounced, thus, chauka, tina, namma; तोन तोन, pronounced tin tina nau, lit., 'three threes nine.'

e. In poetry, the inherent a is always pronounced, even when final, as in the following half stanza; समरच कई नॉर्ड देख गुसाई; which is read, samarutha kahan nahin dosha gusáín. But when it falls on the metrical pause, it is commonly silent; thus, अूलत पलना रघुवर पुलकित माई, jhúlata palaná Raghurar pulakita máí.

11.  $\operatorname{str} d$  is pronounced like a in 'father';  $\operatorname{st} i$ , like i in 'pin';  $\operatorname{st} i$ , as i in 'machine';  $\operatorname{st} u$ , like u in 'pull';  $\operatorname{st} i$ , like oo in 'tool';  $\operatorname{st} ri$ , as ri in 'brink'.

a.  $\mathbf{\pi}$  i and  $\mathbf{\pi}$  u final, though, like a final, always sounded in poetry, in the colloquial are but very faintly, if at all pronounced; as मौत, pronounced mati or mat; परन्त, pronounced parantu or parant.

(1) But some of the dialects, on the other hand, often lengthen a final i; as in Kanaují, matí, for mati; Kamáoní, well de chalí ver, for well are chali kar.

b. Theoretically,  $\frac{1}{2}$  differs from  $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ , in that the tongue vibrating, is not allowed to touch the gums, as in the consonant  $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ . But this distinction is never regarded.

12.  $\forall e, \forall ai$ , and  $\forall n o, \forall n au$ , are diphthongs:  $\forall e$  and  $\forall ai$  are the diphthongs of  $\forall i; \forall n o$  and  $\forall n au$ , of  $\forall u. \forall e$ is pronounced nearly like e in 'they'. Its elements are  $\forall +\forall a+i$ .  $\forall ai$  is not quite the English i in 'time'. Like this English i, a diphthong, it differs from it, in that the short i, instead of the long i, is the latter element of the diphthong;  $i. e., \forall = a + i$ , but i in time = a + i. Thus, e.g., the common word,  $\forall hai$ , 'is', is not correctly pronounced exactly like the English word 'high'.  $\forall n o$  corresponds to the English o in 'go': it never has the sound of the English o in 'top'. Its elements are  $\forall +\forall a + u$ .  $\forall n au$  differs from the English ou in 'our', in the same way that  $\forall ai$  differs from i in 'fine'. It is composed of  $\forall n + \forall, a + u$ ; the English ou, of a + u.

13. Anunásik ( $\checkmark$ ), as has been remarked, simply indicates the nasalization of the preceding vowel. The sound is

heard in the proper pronunciation of such French words as bon, enfant, etc. But in many Hindí books, especially those published by foreigners, this sound is represented by the symbol Anusvár (\*).

14. Anusvár properly represents a nasal sound stronger than that of Anunásik: it is best heard before the sibilants, as in un ansh, an bansh.

b. But in the case of words much corrupted from the Sanskrit, after a long vowel, Anusvár, even before a mute consonant, denotes, not a consonant, but a nasalization; as, e.g., dis, pronounced sonth, not sonth, uia, chánd, uia, sánr, etc.

(1) In the cases referred to, Anusvár stands in the place of an original nasal consonant, preceded by a short vowel; as, e.g., in **shier**, for **aneron**. The question has been raised, whether the Anusvár in such cases denotes a consonant or merely a nasalization. But all the Pundits that I have been able to consult, insist on the inorganic character of the nasal, and I notice that Mr. Beames, in his Comparative Grammar, takes the same view. As he justly remarks, the lengthening of the preceding vowel, according to all the analogies of the language, argues the loss of a letter from the original conjunct.\*

c. Occasionally in poetry, Anusvár, in Sanskrit words, following a final consonant in the end of a line, represents the letter **H**, and must be so pronounced; as, e.g., **गुवम**यं, gunamayam; **W**, ayam.

15.  $\pi k$  and  $\pi g$  are pronounced, respectively, as k in 'key', and g in 'give':  $\pi g$  never has the sound of g in 'gin'.

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16.  $\blacksquare$  ch and  $\blacksquare$  j are pronounced nearly as j in 'just', and as ch in 'church', but slightly more dental.

17. z t and z d, though often compared to the English t and d, have no precise equivalents in English. In pronouncing them, the tongue should be thrown well back, so as to strike, not the gums, as in the English t and d, but the roof of the mouth.

a.  $\blacksquare$  is often written with a diacritical point ( $\blacksquare$ ), and is then represented in the Roman character by r. To utter this correctly, place the tongue in the same position as for  $\blacksquare d$ , and try to pronounce the English r; the proper sound will then be given. The corresponding aspirate  $\blacksquare$  has also the same double sound, which is represented by  $\blacksquare rh$ .

(1) Great care should be taken to acquire the correct pronunciation of this letter, which is, undoubtedly, for western organs, the most difficult of all the Hindí sounds: very few Europeans ever give it correctly. The learner should carefully observe that this is equally distinct from the English r, and the Hindí  $\mathbf{x}$ . The sound, when correctly given, much more resembles the cerebral  $\mathbf{x}$ , with which, indeed, it is constantly interchanged; many words being written and pronounced indifferently with  $\mathbf{x} d$ ,  $\mathbf{z} dh$ , or  $\mathbf{x} r$ ,  $\mathbf{z} rh$ ; as  $\mathbf{g}\mathbf{z}\mathbf{r}$ burhá or  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}\mathbf{z}$  budhá. The Panjábí distinguishes these two sounds by two separate characters.

18. The sounds of  $\pi t$  and  $\overline{\tau} d$  do not exist in English. In pronouncing them, press the tongue, not against the gums, as in the English t and d, but against the front teeth.

19.  $\P p$  is pronounced like the English p.  $\P b$  differs from the English b, only in that the contact of the lips is less firm. Many words thus fluctuate, in orthography and pronunciation, between  $\P b$  and  $\exists v$ .

20. Each of the above consonants has its aspirate; *i.e.*, it is combined with the *spiritus asper* so as to form but one vocal utterance. The same direction applies to the

pronunciation of all the aspirates, viz., utter the smooth consonant with a forcible expiration; the corresponding aspirates will then be given. In the English phrases, 'uphill,' 'brick-house,' pronounced so that the p and k shall be closely joined to the following h, we have the correct sound. Especial care should be taken that no vowel-sound be interpolated between the smooth consonant and the aspiration; thus, we is pronounced *phal*, not *pahal*; even, *khdná*, not *kahánd*, which has a very different meaning.

a. The greatest pains should be taken by the learner to master the pronunciation of these aspirates. A native, however illiterate, never confounds the smooth and aspirated consonants; and, except in the case of  $\mathbf{w}$  ph, which is often by the uneducated corruptly pronounced as f. never fails to give the aspirate its correct pronunciation. He never separates the smooth consonant from the following aspiration.

21.  $\forall \tilde{n}$  has the sound of ng in 'sing'; it is only found immediately before a guttural consonant, and never begins a word or syllable.

 $\mathbf{v}$   $\dot{\mathbf{n}}$  has the sharp sound of n in 'pinch.' Like  $\mathbf{v}$ , it is never initial, and is only found before a consonant of its own class.

 $\blacksquare$  *n*, like the other letters of the class to which it belongs, has no equivalent in any European language. It is pronounced after the analogy of the other cerebrals; *i. e.*, the tongue should be turned back, as for z and  $\overline{z}$ , so as to strike the roof of the mouth; in that position, endeavour to pronounce *n*.

a. This nasal, while the only nasal admissible before a consonant of its own order, is not, like the former two, confined in use to such a position, but may occur separately, as, e. g., in the common words, सुच gun and खर्चन barnan. It never occurs as initial in a word.

b. The common people in the valley of the Ganges, as well as most foreigners in India, make no distinction between this and the dental = n, which is often aubstituted for it, even in writing. Educated Hindoos, however, carefully distinguish the two letters, and the correct sound should be acquired.

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 $\neg n$  is slightly more dental than the English n, being pronounced, like the foregoing nasals, after the analogy of the class to which it belongs; *i. e.*, with the tip of the tongue against the front teeth.

 $\pi$  m is sounded like the corresponding English letter.

22.  $\forall y$  is generally pronounced like y in English.

a. But sometimes it is pronounced like ज j, especially when initial in Sanskrit words; as, e.g., युग yug, pronounced जुग jug; याग्य yogya, pronounced jog. So also it is pronounced as j, when doubled and final; as सूच्ये, pronounced and occasionally written सूरज súraj. As above remarked,\* य final, preceded by short a, blends with it so as to give the diphthongal sound र ai; as समय samaya, pronounced समै samai, etc.

r has no precise equivalent in English; it has a rolling sound like the German r, but much softer.

 $rac{l}$  is not quite identical in sound with the English *l*. In its utterance the tip of the tongue touches the front teeth, instead of the gums. The resulting sound is distinctly softer and more dental than the English *l*.

 $\mathbf{z} v$  has a sound intermediate between the English v and w, but more like v, which letter is therefore chosen as the usual Roman equivalent.

a. But in a conjunct, after any consonant but  $\forall r$  or  $\forall t$ , it has a softer sound, like the English w; as, e.g.,  $\frac{1}{2}$  hwai,  $\overline{\forall x}$  swarg. In the common conjunct,  $\overline{\forall x}$  sr, the common people usually soften  $\exists$  still further to its cognate vowel,  $\exists u$ ; pronouncing, e.g.,  $\overline{\forall x}$  swar, as if it were written  $\overline{\forall x}$  sur, etc. Similarly, in some parts of the country, people say  $\overline{\forall y}$  isur, for  $\overline{\forall x}$  at ishwar.  $\exists$  initial in the pronoun  $\exists z$ wah generally receives the softer sound. Examples of the harder sound, in the conjuncts  $\overline{a}$  rv and  $\overline{\forall a}$  tv, are  $\overline{\forall x}$  tuttra,  $\overline{\forall x}$  mahatva;  $\underline{v}$  a púrv,  $\overline{\forall a}$  sarv.  $\dagger$  In these conjuncts with  $\overline{\lor}$ ,  $\overline{ھ}$  is often hardened to  $\overline{\bullet}$ , so that many pronounce púrb, sarb.

23.  $\pi$  sh is pronounced like sh in 'shut'; the palatal  $\pi$  sh differs little from  $\pi$ ; the lingual contact is slightly further back, as in the cerebral mutes.

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. § 10 a. (1). † The inherent a of a is never pronounced.

 $\mathbf{z}$  s is the dental sibilant, and, like the other letters of its class, differs from the corresponding English letter, in that the tongue, in its utterance, touches the teeth instead of the gums.

**T** h does not differ from the English h.

a. घ is very often pronounced exactly like च kh; e.g., देख dosh is pronounced either dosh or dokh. Accordingly, u is often inaccurately written for च; as दुध for दुख; राया for राखा, etc. This is the uniform usage in Márwárí, as also in much old Hindí.

24. In pronouncing compound letters, each element should be distinctly articulated, whether the letters be different or the same; e.g., कुता is kut-tá, not kut-á; una pat-thar, not path-ar. But this should not be exaggerated.

25. The following peculiarities of pronunciation occur in Márwár and Mairwárá. The vowel-sound in the plural termination with dn is pronounced very nearly as a in 'all', but a little less open. The sound of  $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{i}}$  au also closely resembles that of with in with with  $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{i}}$  and  $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{i}}$  ch h are both pronounced like  $\mathbf{w}$ ; thus, with is pronounced sakki, and  $\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{i}}$ , sás. with is pronounced lightly, and often entirely dropped. The cerebral  $\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{i}}$  is common, and is pronounced by rolling the upturned tongue along the palate. It is sometimes indicated by a diacritical point under  $\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{i}}$ .

26. The grammarians of the Indian languages have not, for the most part, indicated so many distinctions between the pronunciation of the Indian and English letters as have been made in the above sections. But we are none the less confident that a large part of the Hindí letters do differ slightly from their nearest English equivalents. Let the reader, if in India, ask some native who is learning English, to read an English sentence, and it will soon appear to the attentive listener, that he pronounces very few of the English letters quite correctly. Perhaps there is no better way than this to train the ear to catch the nice distinctions of pronunciation to which we have adverted. So long as both words and sounds are foreign, the sounds are not so closely noticed; but when the native pronunciation of the vowels and consonants is applied to English words, the difference is instantly apparent.

27. It should be observed, before leaving the subject of pronunciation, that Accent, although unquestionably existing in Hindí, is much less strongly marked than in English, and is quite subordinate in importance to Quantity. Even in conversation, the native habitually observes the quantity of each syllable. In the enunciation of sentences, therefore, the student should be careful to avoid that strongly accentuated style, which is so characteristic of English speech, and give to every long vowel in an unaccented syllable, its full quantity.

28. It will be apparent from the above sections, that, with the two exceptions of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$ , which each represent two sounds, the Devanágarí alphabet is strictly phonetic. As the pronunciation of words in which  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  occur, varies, even in the same locality, they will be uniformly represented in the present work by the Roman letters *sh* and *y*.

The same ambiguity attaches to the Bangálí y; but the Bangálís distinguish the two sounds by a diacritical point. So also in the Mahájaní or script alphabet, used in business, b and v are distinguished in the same way, merely by a dot.

To these two exceptions may be added the compound character,  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{w}$ ,  $j + \dot{n}$ , which is invariably pronounced in Hindí as if it were gy. This conjunct will therefore be represented in this book by the Roman letters gy; as  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}, gy \dot{a}n$ , not juán.

29. As above remarked, it is extremely important that the student accurately discriminate in pronunciation between closely related letters. Because the undisciplined ear at first detects little or no difference between, e.g., a smooth and an aspirated consonant, or between the cerebral and dental letters, it is often imagined that a failure to distinguish them in pronunciation cannot be a very serious matter. No mistake could be greater or more fatal to one who wishes to understand the people, and be understood by them. As a matter of fact, multitudes of words of different meaning, differ only in these similar letters; so that by the neglect of an aspirate, the substitution of our English t for the Hindí dental, or converting the hard r into the Hindí r or English r, we may say something so foreign to our intention, if not worse, as to make our speech, if understood at all, a matter only of ridicule.

a. The foreigner is most apt to blunder in the following particulars, viz.: a smooth consonant is substituted for an aspirate; the cerebral t and d, or the English t and d, which have a somewhat similar sound, are substituted for the corresponding Hindí dentals; and, especially, the cerebral  $\overline{\Psi} r$  is pronounced like the Hindí  $\overline{\tau} r$ , or the English r; doubled consonants are indistinctly pronounced. To these common mistakes may be added an English tendency to shorten a final unaccented long vowel; so that, e. g., कारता kartá is mispronounced karta; पानी pání, pány; माली málí, mály, etc.

30. As the best means of impressing the above remarks upon the mind, we subjoin a list of common words similar in sound, but differing in meaning.

# LIST OF SIMILAR WORDS.

| स्ताना kháná, ' dinner, food, to eat'.                                                                   | miei gárí, 'a carriage'.                                                                                              |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| कहाना kaháná, 'to cause to say'.                                                                         | गारी gárí, 'abuse'.                                                                                                   |
| काना káná, 'a one eyed man'.                                                                             |                                                                                                                       |
| جاتا kháná, 'a room'.                                                                                    | æरो chhuri, 'a knife'.                                                                                                |
| कीड़ा kirá, 'a worm'.                                                                                    | चूड़ो chúrí, 'a bangle'.                                                                                              |
| angi khírá, 'a cucumber'.                                                                                | कुना chhúná, ' to touch'.                                                                                             |
| and Antra, a cucumber.                                                                                   | 6\                                                                                                                    |
| काटना káțná, 'to cut'.                                                                                   | चूना chúná, ' to leak'.                                                                                               |
| कालना kútná, 'to spin'.                                                                                  | जाड़ा járá, ' cold'.                                                                                                  |
| खड़ा (द्वाना) khará (honá,) 'to stand'.                                                                  | men jhárá, 'sens. obscœn'.                                                                                            |
| anet kará, 'hard'.                                                                                       | भास jhál, ' spice, pungency'.                                                                                         |
| angi khará, 'pure'.                                                                                      | जाल jál, 'a net'.                                                                                                     |
| •                                                                                                        |                                                                                                                       |
| an kharrá, 'a curry comb'.                                                                               | Elan tika, 'inoculation; a sectarial                                                                                  |
| खट्टा khattá, ' sour'.                                                                                   | mark'.                                                                                                                |
| agr kattá, 'a large louse'.                                                                              | Slan thíká, 'hire'.                                                                                                   |
| <b>G</b>                                                                                                 | Sign interes, mile.                                                                                                   |
| aner kațá, 'cut'.                                                                                        | दाल dál, ' a split pulse'.                                                                                            |
| खापरा khaprá, 'a tile'.                                                                                  | बाल dúl, 'throw'. (imperat.)                                                                                          |
| aust kappá, 'a cloth'.                                                                                   | ठाल dhál, 'a declivity'.                                                                                              |
| aduşi kapia, a biota .                                                                                   |                                                                                                                       |
| गाच्चा gáo, 'a cow'.                                                                                     | भो dho, ' wash'. (imperat.)                                                                                           |
|                                                                                                          |                                                                                                                       |
|                                                                                                          |                                                                                                                       |
| घान्नो gháo, 'a bruise'.                                                                                 | दो do, 'give'. (imperat.)                                                                                             |
|                                                                                                          | दो do, 'give'. (imperat.)                                                                                             |
| घान्नो gháo, 'a bruise'.                                                                                 | देा do, 'give'. (imperat.)<br>भ्रोबी dhobí, 'a washerman'.                                                            |
| घाग्री gháo, 'a bruise'.<br>छड़ा ghará, 'a water-jar'.                                                   | दो do, 'give'. (imperat.)                                                                                             |
| घान्नो gháo, 'a bruise'.<br>घड़ा ghará, 'a water-jar'.<br>गड़ा gará, 'buried'.<br>गढ़ा garhá, 'a ditch'. | देा do, 'give'. (imperat.)<br>भोषो dhobi, 'a washerman'.<br>देखो dobi, 'a Brahmanical title'.                         |
| घान्नी gháo, 'a bruise'.<br>छड़ा ghará, 'a water-jar'.<br>गड़ा gará, 'buried'.                           | देा do, 'give'. (imperat.)<br>भोषो dhobi, 'a washerman'.<br>देखो dobi, 'a Brahmanical title'.                         |
| घान्नो gháo, 'a bruise'.<br>घड़ा ghará, 'a water-jar'.<br>गड़ा gará, 'buried'.<br>गढ़ा garhá, 'a ditch'. | दे do, 'give'. (imperat.)<br>घोखो dhobi, 'a washerman'.<br>देखो dobi, 'a Brahmanical title'.<br>बकरी bakri, 'a goat'. |

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| सासा tálá, 'a lock'.                                                                                | खुकिया burhiyá, 'an old woman'.                              |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------|
| टासा țálá, 'a quagmire'.                                                                            | खुड़िया buriyá, 'sens. obscæn.'                              |
| पढ़ना <i>paṛhná</i> , 'to read'.                                                                    | बूठा búrhá, 'old'.                                           |
| पड़ना <i>paṛná</i> , 'to fall'.                                                                     | बुरा burá, 'bad'.                                            |
| पानी pání, 'water'.                                                                                 | भाई bháí, 'brother'.                                         |
| पार्षि páni, 'hand'.                                                                                | बाई báí, 'rheumatism'.                                       |
| षुड़िया puriyá, 'a powder'.                                                                         | भई bhai, 'became'. (Fem.)                                    |
| फुडिया phuriyá, 'a boil'.                                                                           | माटी moți, 'fat, thick'. (Fem.)                              |
| फुरिया, phuriyá, 'true'.                                                                            | माती moti, 'a pearl'.                                        |
| फल phal, 'fruit'.                                                                                   | रोसी roti, 'crying'. (Fem. part.)                            |
| पल pal, 'an instant'.                                                                               | राष्टी roti, 'bread'.                                        |
| वाल bát, 'a word, a thing'.<br>बाट bát, 'a road'.<br>भास bhát, 'boiled rice'.<br>भाट bát, 'a bard'. | सात sát, 'seven'.<br>साथ sáth, 'with'.<br>साठ sáth, 'sixty'. |

31. Besides the Devanágarí, Hindí is written in two other alphabets, the Káyathí or Kaithí, and the Mahájaní or Sarráfí. The word Káyathí is from Káyath or Káyath, the name of the writer caste among the Hindoos; and the character is so called because certain slight alterations better adapt it to the purpose of rapid writing. Books are printed in this character, but it is by no means so common as the Devanágarí, and is not much used west of Allahabad. The Mahájaní, (from the Hindí mahájan, 'a banker',) also called Sarráfí, (from the corresponding Ar.  $(\sigma_i)$ ) is only used in business, and is the character in which receipts, drafts, etc., are commonly written. These alphabets will be found opposite p. 18.

a. It will be observed that the Mahájaní is derived directly from the Káyathí; most of the characters differ from it chiefly by the omission of the horizontal or perpendicular stroke or both. Some, however, have assumed a form widely differing from both the Káyathí and Nágarí. It will be observed also that in the Mahájaní, one sign is made to represent both the long and short sounds of any vowel, whether initial or non-initial. Similarly, no distinction is made between  $\pi g$  and  $\tau$ , or  $\pi$  and  $\pi g$ . Anusvár is never written in the Mahájaní character. It will be also noticed that the Káyathí form of  $\tau$  is identical with the form which this letter assumes in Devanágarí, when it is the last member of a conjunct.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

32. An attempt has been made to indicate in the Devanágarí character, by means of diacritical points, the various letters peculiar to the Arabic and Persian alphabets as used in Urdú. A few common Hindí books, as the Baitál Pachísí, and Sinhásan Battísí, contain a large admixture of Persian and Arabic words, and are sometimes met with printed in this pointed Nágarí. The various pointed letters are given below. A point written under any of the vowels, indicates that the vowel is followed or preceded by ¿ Ayin; w, when it occurs alone, represents the consonant  $\xi$ .

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## CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

33. All the letters, both vowels and consonants, may be classified according to the organ by which they are pronounced, as in the following table.

| I.               | II.                                        | III.                                                          | IV.                                                                     | <b>V</b> .                                                                      | VI.                                                                                  |
|------------------|--------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| द्य का           | ধ্ব হা                                     | য ঘ                                                           |                                                                         |                                                                                 | Ŧ                                                                                    |
| इ ई र रे         | च इ                                        | অ স                                                           | ন্স                                                                     | य                                                                               | ম                                                                                    |
| ऋ (ऋ)            | ट ठ                                        | र ठ                                                           | व                                                                       | र                                                                               | व                                                                                    |
| (खृ) (खू)        | त च                                        | ব ঘ                                                           | न                                                                       | स                                                                               | म                                                                                    |
| उ छ <b>को की</b> | पफ                                         | ब भ                                                           | म                                                                       | व                                                                               |                                                                                      |
|                  | म्म मा<br>द ई र रे<br>म्म (ऋ)<br>(लृ) (लू) | भाभा क ख<br><b>द ई</b> र रे च इ<br>ऋ (ऋ) ट ठ<br>(लु) (लु) त घ | भाषा क क ग ग घ<br>द ई र रे च क ज क<br>ऋ (ऋ) टठ ड ठ<br>(लु) (लु) त घ द घ | भाभा कर गाघ ड<br>इ. ई. र रे घड ज क छ<br>म्र (म्रृ) टठ डठ ब<br>(सृ) (सू) तथ दध न | मामा कर गाघ ड<br>इ. ई. र रे च इ. ज क छ य<br>म्र (ऋ) टठ डढ ब र<br>(सृ) (सू) तप दघ न स |

a. In Col. I,  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $\mathbf{w}$ , are classified according to their second diphthongal element, as respectively palatal and labial; but they are also related to the guttural sounds, by their initial element,  $\mathbf{w}$  or  $\mathbf{w}$ . Letters of the same organ are said to be *cognate* to each other.

34. The letters may again be classified according to the nature of the vocal effort made in their utterance. If, in the utterance of a letter, the breath be completely arrested, the resulting sound is reckoned *hard*; if the breath be but partially arrested, or be allowed to escape freely, the resulting letter is called *soft*. Thus, in the above table, the consonants in Col. II, together with the sibilants, are called hard; all the other letters, whether vowels or consonants, are reckoned soft.

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| Năgari.                                                | <b>Ks</b> ithí.        | Mahájank   | Nágarí.                           | Ksitbí.         | Mahájaní.              |
|--------------------------------------------------------|------------------------|------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| স্ম                                                    | ल्ल                    | ŝ          | ठ                                 | 8               | 6                      |
| म्पा र                                                 | ल्ना <u>ा</u>          | ŝ          | ব্র                               | 3               | .5 5                   |
| हू रि                                                  | <b>इ</b> रि            | 6          | ढ                                 | 5               | 3                      |
| ई नि                                                   | e to t                 | 6          | ए                                 | র<br>ন          | 6 V                    |
| , ৬                                                    | 2.                     | 6          | त                                 | त               | ~                      |
| · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·                  | ب لو                   | 660        | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | म               | न्मथ                   |
| ポレカイ                                                   | -                      | -          | द                                 |                 | र<br>म्<br>द           |
| ए े                                                    | ح A                    | 4          | च                                 | য               | -181                   |
| Ð À                                                    | रे रे                  | ע          | न                                 | ব               | 6                      |
| <b>फ़ी</b> ]                                           | ए ~<br>ऐ के<br>ल्लो रे | 200        | प                                 | प               | Ч                      |
| ग्री ौ                                                 | ल्गी नै                | 202        | দা                                | भ र भ भ भ म र म | ५<br>२ २<br>२ २<br>२ २ |
| क                                                      | ি কা                   | 3          | ब                                 | वं              | વ                      |
| ख                                                      | व्य                    | 3<br>4     | ਮ                                 | সি              |                        |
| ग                                                      | ग                      | 3          | म                                 | म               | 20                     |
| घ                                                      | म<br>च<br>ि            | 6<br>41 80 | य                                 | य ज<br>न<br>ल   | n di<br>9<br>7         |
| ड,                                                     | ด                      | 6          | र                                 | 7               | フ                      |
| च                                                      | वय                     | 4100       | ल                                 | ল               | no                     |
| प्रौ<br>म<br>क<br>क<br>म<br>च<br>ज<br>च<br>छ<br>च<br>छ | ह्य                    | હ્યુ       | व                                 | व्र             | 9                      |
| ज़े ज़े                                                |                        |            |                                   |                 | S                      |
| জ<br>দ<br>স                                            | দ শিল্প দ্             | 9 X 6 V    | प्र<br>घ म<br>स्र                 | प्र<br>प<br>रू  | S y S 5                |
| স                                                      | สี                     | 6          | स                                 | स               | 5                      |
| ट                                                      | S                      | 5          | ह                                 | र               | = 5                    |

To face page 18.

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a. The following relations between the letters should be carefully noted. Each hard consonant in Col. II, has its cognate soft consonant in Col. III, and *vice versa*. Thus, to the hard  $\mathbf{x}$  in Col. II, corresponds the soft  $\mathbf{\pi}$  in Col. III; and to the soft aspirate,  $\mathbf{x}$ , in Col. III, corresponds the hard aspirate  $\mathbf{x}$  in Col. II. Each soft consonant in Col. III and each vowel, except the gutturals, has its cognate semivowel in Col. V. Thus, the labial semivowel,  $\mathbf{x}$ , corresponds to the soft labial consonant  $\mathbf{x}$ , in Col. V, and to the labial vowels,  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ , in Col. I. So also, cognate to the vowels  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}$ , are the soft mute  $\mathbf{x}$ and the palatal semivowel  $\mathbf{x}$ .  $\mathbf{x}$ , strictly speaking, is a guttural sibilation, so that it is written in Col. VI, with the sibilants. Each of the consonants, therefore, except the labials, has its corresponding sibilation. The student is now prepared to understand the principles of Sandhi.

# CHAPTER II.

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# SANDHI.\*

35. By the term 'Sandhi' ('union') is technically denoted the euphonic combination of concurrent letters. Its laws apply uniformly to the Sanskritic element in Hindí, in respect of the correct orthography of pure Sanskrit (Tatsama) words, and the formation of compounds from such single words.

a. In the Prakritic element of Hindí, the laws of Sandhi are constantly disregarded. Still we may observe, even in Prakritic words, the operation of these laws at a former period, in producing many modern forms; and a knowledge of the principles of Sandhi will thus often enable the student to recognize, without a tedious and perhaps fruitless search in the Dictionary, the various peculiar and corrupted words with which Hindí poetry, especially, abounds.

# GUN AND VRIDDHI.

36. In treating of Sandhi, we have first to notice the subject of Gun and Vriddhi. Gun essentially consists in the prefixing of a short a to the several simple vowel sounds; so that  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ ;  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}$ ;  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}$ . By Gun, therefore, is denoted this change of  $\mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{v}$  to  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{v}$  to  $\mathbf{u}$ , and  $\mathbf{v}$  to  $\mathbf{u}$ .

<sup>\*</sup> This chapter and the following may be omitted by the beginner.

37. Vriddhi consists in the prefixing of a long  $\acute{a}$  to these same simple vowels; or, which is the same thing, prefixing a short a to the Gun of those vowels. Thus, by Vriddhi,  $\overline{u}_1 + \overline{u} = \overline{v}$ ;  $\overline{u}_1 + \overline{v} = \overline{u}_1$ ;  $\overline{u}_1 + \overline{v}_2 = \overline{u}_1$ ;  $\overline{u}_1 + \overline{v}_2 = \overline{u}_1$ .

By *Vriddhi*, therefore, is denoted the change of  $\mathbf{x}$  or  $\mathbf{\hat{x}}$  to  $\mathbf{\hat{v}}$ ,  $\mathbf{s}$  or  $\mathbf{s}$  to  $\mathbf{\hat{n}}$ , and  $\mathbf{m}$  to  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{x}$ .  $\mathbf{w}$  is technically regarded as itself a Gun vowel, and is therefore susceptible of the Vriddhi modification only.

38. Observe, further, that vowels of the same organ, whether simple or diphthongal, are said to be similar to each other. Thus,  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{$ 

39. Observe, finally, that, according to § 34, *a.*, the vowels of each organ, except the gutturals  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$  and  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , have their cognate semivowel. Thus, the cognate semivowel of  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , and  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ , is  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ; of  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , and  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , the cognate semivowel is  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ; and of  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ . The following table will present this whole matter at a glance.

Primitive short vowel.	Similar Long vowel.	Guņ.	Vriddhi.	Cognate Semirowel.
च	मा	द्य	मा	
<b>.</b>	÷	<b>ب</b>	रे	q
र	đ	च्चा	न्मी	व
ক্ষ্	(मृ)	म्मर	मार	र

The following common rules of Sandhi will be now readily understood.

#### SANDHI OF VOWELS.

40. Any simple vowel, long or short, followed by a similar simple vowel, long or short, coalesces with it into its own long. In the application of this, and all succeeding rules of Sandhi, the inherent *a* is never regarded as silent. Thus, कल्प+ सन्त becomes कल्पान्त; पाप+ सात्मा, पापात्मा; कृपा+ सायतन, कृपायतन; साह+ देश, सहोश्च; भानु+ उदय, भानूदय.

41. आ or आ, followed by a dissimilar simple vowel, long or short, blend with it into the Gun of that vowel; and when followed by a Gun or Vriddhi vowel, blend with it into the corresponding Vriddhi. Thus परम+ईश्वर becomes परमेश्वर; न+हांत, नेति; मदा+ईश, महेश; हिम+डपल, हिमोपल; सैल+ऊपरि, सैलोपरि; स्क+स्क, स्केक; सदा+स्व, सदैव; देव+ऋषि, देवीधे; समित+सोलस, समितीलस; महा+स्नोषधि, महीषधि.

42. The simple vowels, **स**, **ई**, ड, ऊ, ऋ, followed by any dissimilar vowel, are changed into their cognate semivowels. Thus, दाँस+आदि becomes दरपादि; सु+सल्य, स्वल्य; सनु+रवी. सन्वेयी; etc.

43. The Gun diphthongs, ₹ and য়n, followed by any vowel, are changeable, respectively, to आग and आग्र; and the Vriddhi diphthongs, ₹ and য়n, under the same conditions, are changeable to आग and आग्र.

a. This is, in fact, only a special application of the foregoing rule, according to which, the i and u, which are, respectively, the second elements in the above diphthongs, harden into y and v, leaving the first element, a or a unchanged.

b. This rule will chiefly be of service to the Hindí scholar, in enabling him to recognize the roots of those Sanskrit words with which Hindí abounds. Thus, by Gun of the radical vowel, we have, from the root in, 'to conquer',  $\bar{n} + \bar{n} = \bar{n} u$ , 'victory'; similarly, from  $\bar{n}$ , 'to be',  $\bar{n} + \bar{n} = \bar{n} u$ , 'existence'. So also, by *Vriddhi* of the radical vowel, and addition of the termination una, we have, from the root  $\bar{n}$ , 'to guide',  $\bar{n} + \bar{n} u \bar{n} = \bar{n} u \bar{n}$ , 'a leader'; similarly from  $\bar{u}$ , 'to purify',  $\bar{u} + \bar{u} \bar{n} = \bar{u} \bar{u} \bar{n}$ , 'fre'.

44. Sometimes, in a few Sanskrit phrases, rarely met, w initial, following र or भो, is elided, and र or भो remain unchanged. Thus, in the Rámáyan we find तोप for ते आपि and तोति for ते आति. But these in Sanskrit, would be written with Avagrah,\* thus; तोऽ पि, तोऽ ति.

## SANDHI OF CONSONANTS.

45. A hard consonant, + before any soft letter, must be changed to its own unaspirated soft. Thus, जगल + अस्वा becomes जगदस्वा; बनुमल + आदि, बनुमदादि; भविष्यत + वक्ता, भविष्यदुक्ता. In Sanskrit, it is also true that a soft consonant before a hard consonant, must be changed to its own unaspirated hard. But Hindí scarcely affords examples of the operation of this rule.

46. If the second consonant be a nasal, the first is changed into the nasal of its own class. Thus, सद+साम becomes सन्माम; खिल+सय, चिनमय.

47. स or द final, followed by च or च are changed to that following letter. Thus, न before the resulting conjunct being dropped, we have, from सन्त+चित, सद्धित; from सन्त+चन. सज्जन.

48.  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ . before any vowel-sound, or one of the consonants  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ .  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ , or  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ , in all pure Sanskrit words, is changed to  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ , when following either of the three cerebral letters,  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ . This rule operates, even though a guttural or labial mute, a semivowel, a nasal, or a vowel, Anusvár or  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ , or any combination of these, intervene between  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$  and the above cerebral letters. Thus, we correctly write  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$  for  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ , we correctly write  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$  and the above cerebral letters. Thus, we correctly write  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$  and  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ ,

a. This rule is especially to be remembered in order to the correct spelling of pure Sanskrit words in Hindí. But it must be no less carefully observed, that the rule applies to such words only. In all other words,  $\neg$  under the above circumstances, in the standard dialect, remains unchanged. Thus, although we must write **ance**, and not **ance**, it would not be correct to write **ancer**, for **ance**, because **ance**, unlike **ance**, is not an uncorrupted Sanskrit word. In some of the dialects, indeed, 98, e.g., Márwárí, Garhwálí, etc.,  $\neg$  often appears even in these corrupted Prákritic words; but this is to be attributed, not at all to the operation of the above principle of euphony, but to a preference for the cerebral nasal, which those dialects everywhere exhibit, dragging it in constantly, in the most unexpected places.

49. स, before any mute consonant, is changeable to the nasal of that class, which may be always written as Anusvár.\* Before all other consonants it becomes Anusvár. The operation of this rule is especially to be noticed in the numerous Sanskrit compounds in which सम् 'with', 'together', is the first element. Thus, e.g., सम्+कल्प= सङ्ख्य or संकल्प; सम्+चित=सडिचत; सम्+ताप, सन्ताप; सम्+भाय=संधय.

50. Final च, in composition, becomes र, before all soft letters except र, when preceded by any vowel other than च or चा. Instances of this change are common in Sanskrit compounds; as, e.g., चाशोच+ वाद=चाशोधीव; दुच+चन=दुर्जन. When र follows, च is dropped, and the preceding vowel is lengthened; as in नोराग, from निच+राग. 51. चो is substituted for चय (or च:) before short च, or a soft consonant; च following, is then elided, and the elision marked by Avagrah. This rule is illustrated by such compounds as मनाइर, from मनच + इर; रवोगुब, from रवय + गुब; also in the headings of chapters, as मचनो; ध्याय: for मचमय चाध्यायय. So likewise, such Sanskrit phrases in the Rámáyan as सोपि, योचि, सोपि, are to be explained; यय (य:) and यय (य:), before चापि and चापि, have first become से and ये by the above rule, and then the following initial च has been elided. Avagrah, in these instances, is inaccurately omitted.

52. In all Sanskrit words, च must be written for च, not final, after any vowel but च or चा and after either क or र. Thus we write, correctly, भोवस्य, not भोवस्य. But Hindí yields few examples under this rule.

53. च final, in Sanskrit compounds, is changed to Visarg or च, before क, च, च, and फ. This rule is illustrated by numerous compounds with the negative prefix निर, and a few other words; as, निष्प्रमाब for निप्रमाब; निष्कलंक or निःकलंक, for निकलंक; प्रातःकाल, for प्रातस्काल.

54. In Sanskrit, the number of these euphonic rules is much greater, but those that we have given will be found sufficient to indicate and explain the correct writing of nearly every Sanskrit word ever used in Hindí.

# CHAPTER III.

#### OF THE CONSTITUENT ELEMENTS OF HINDÍ.

55. When, long before the Christian era, the Aryan, Sanskritspeaking people entered what is now called Hindusthán, they found it inhabited by people of another race and another tongue. This inferior race, as the tide of Aryan invasion rolled on eastward, retreated before it, falling away, some into the mountains on the north, more into the jungles and hills of Central and Southern India, where, under various names, preserving still their ancient dialects, and superstitious demon-worship, they are found to-day. Many, however, doubtless remained in their ancient homes, where the stream of Aryan immigration and Aryan speech soon swept over them, and they became the servants of the invading race. Although the aboriginal speech must thus soon have disappeared from Northern and Western India, it is scarcely conceivable that it should not, before its disappearance from the scene, have influenced, to some extent, the language of the Aryan invaders. To this external, Turanian influence, we shall probably not err in attributing many peculiarities of those ancient Indian dialects known as Prákrit, 'common, vulgar', which for centuries co-existed with the Sanskrit, much as, in ancient Italy, the various provincial dialects co-existed with the Latin of the court and of the forum.

56. Out of these Prákrit dialects, rather than from the classic Sanskrit, arose the Hindí, as well as the other modern Arvan languages Their relation to the primitive Sanskrit finds an almost of India. exact parallel, in the relation of the modern Romance languages of Europe to the classic Latin.\* But the Hindí, almost from its very birth, about 1000 A.D., has been subjected to foreign influence. The successive invasions and final occupation of the country by the Muhammadans, gave rise to the so-called Urdú or Hindustání. This is, essentially, merely a dialect of Hindí, in the broader sense of the term; in which, to a large extent, the vocabulary, and in a less degree, the grammar of the Hindí has been modified by a substitution of Arabic and Persian, for Sanskrit and Prákrit words and con-But besides this, there is probably no dialect of Hindí, structions. however pure, which has not received at least a few Arabic and Persian words from the Muhammadan conquerors of India.

57. From the above brief sketch of the origin and history of modern Hindí, it is apparent that Hindí, though essentially as truly an Aryan tongue as Sanskrit, contains, besides the Aryan,<sup>†</sup> which constitutes its form and most of its substance, a Turanian and a Shemitic element.

As to the Turanian or aboriginal element preserved in Hindí, little that is satisfactory can be said. We are not aware that any such thorough and systematic comparison of Hindí with the modern

<sup>\*</sup>An interesting and suggestive note on this subject will be found in Muir's Sanskrit Texts, Vol. II, pp. 146-149.

<sup>†</sup> Most Aryan words in Hindí are of Sanskrit or Prákrit origin. But a few, brought in by the Muhammadan invasions, have come from the old Zand through the modern Persian.

aboriginal and Dravidian dialects of India, has been made, which might cast light upon this question. It would be difficult, probably, to find many scholars competent for such an investigation. But, if we mistake not, modern researches would seem to indicate that the Turanian influence in the Hindí and other Indo-Aryan dialects, has often been unduly exaggerated.

a. Some have thought that they could trace this influence almost through. out the entire Hindi grammatical system. The indication of the case-relation by certain appended particles, rather than by inflection, or organic additions to the word; the conjugation of the verb chiefly by means of auxiliaries, instead of by tense and modal inflections,-these, among other deviations from the Sanskrit and Prákrit dialects, and corresponding agreements with the Dravidian languages of S. India, have been attributed to extra-Aryan influence. But all these analogies are probably more fancied and apparent, than real and significant. The relation of the postposition to the Hindí substantive, is, in fact, quite another thing from the 'agglutination' of words in the Turanian languages. It has been abundantly demonstrated that the Hindí particles indicative of case-relation, are, in reality, bonâ fide Sanskrit words, greatly corrupted, which were originally apprehended, not as 'agglutinated' to the noun. but as in some sort of grammatical construction with it. The striking correspondence, pointed out by Dr. Caldwell in his Comparative Grammar, between the Dravidian dat. sign, ko or ku, and the Hindí dat postposition, ko, is now regarded by the best scholars as probably only a casual coincidence; and, in view of the Sanskrit origin, which may be clearly demonstrated in the case of the other Hindí postpositions, the Turanian origin of this one particle becomes highly improbable. As to the difference noted between the Sanskrit and the Hindí conjugation, it is only precisely similar to what we observe, to a greater or less extent, in every European language, where, in consequence of the abrasion and loss of the terminations and inflections which characterized the synthetic languages from which they severally arose, the use of auxiliaries became a simple necessity of speech. As to vocabulary, it is, in the first place, a notable fact, that as the various Indo-Aryan dialects become better known, and their phonetic laws better understood, many words, which at first resisted all attempts to prove their Aryan origin, and therefore might have been imagined to be aboriginal, have finally been satisfactorily identified or connected with classic Sanskrit terms. Still there can be little reason to doubt that, more especially among the vulgar words of various local dialects, investigation will finally leave a residuum of words unquestionably Turanian. Prof. Williams has suggested, in his Sanskrit Grammar, that the cerebral letters, which the Hindí has received from Sanskrit, are probably derived from the aboriginal dialects. It is, at least, a fact worth noticing in this connection, that, of those Hindí words which begin with a cerebral, much the 4

larger part belong to the Prákritic, rather than the pure Sanskrit element of Hindí. For example, of 89 words in the *Prem-Ságar* beginning with one of the cerebral letters, t, th, d, dh, only 21 are pure Sanskrit, to 68 Prákritic words; whereas, of 128 words beginning with k. we find 21 of Prákritic origin to 107 pure Sanskrit words; *i. e.*, in the case of words with initial cerebrals, over three-fourths are Prákritic; while of words with an initial k, five-sixths are Sanskrit. And it may be further observed, that the cerebral letters prevail most in those sections of the Hindí country where, as in the Himálayas and the wastes of Rájputáná, the aborigines. if not still remaining. may be supposed to have held the ground the longest.

58. In brief, the Turanian element in Hindí must be regarded as, in any case, of minor prominence and importance. In grammar and in vocabulary alike, Hindí is emphatically an Aryan language. But some foreigners have gone to the extreme of denying that Hindí, properly so called, contains any other than Sanskrit and Prákrit words; and, in their zeal for what they term 'pure Hindí', scrupulously exclude from their writing, if not from their speech, all Arabic and Persian words.\* But it should not be forgotten that, in such a matter as this, we have to do, not with theories, but with facts. Now we are free to assert that if we take classic Hindí works, such as, in prose, the *Prem-Sáyar*, and in poetry, the *Rámáyan*, we do not find, in point of fact, that the language which the people of the country call Hindí, is thus free from any Arabic and Persian admixture.

a. In proof of this assertion, the student may note the following list of Arabic and Persian words occurring in the Rámáyan. We follow the Hindí spelling. **ग**रीखन निवाज, साईख, जहाज, बराबरी, अस्वार, बकसीस, बजार, लायक, खाग, दाल, फीज, सेर, बन्दीखान:, इवाले, खजाज, सराफ, हुनर, सक्क, गुमान, खबर, तरवार, दरखार, गर्द, ताज, जोर, कागद, गनी, गरीख, जिनिस, दाम, जहाज, खाद, लगाम. जोन, etc. In other Hindí writers, as, e.g., Kabír, they are much more numerous. Nor, if we attend to the colloquial of the people, shall we fail to hear, even in the most secluded districts, and from Hindoos living quite apart from the Muhammadans, such Arabic and Persian words, as hukm, sarkár, yá, bandobast, sáhib, bakhshish, majúrí (for mazdúrí), jamíndár (for zamíndár), etc., etc.

b. It may be noted here, with regard to the character and extent of this Arabic and Persian admixture, that in the case of all words having any special reference to government and law, the conquering Muhammadans have succeeded in imposing their own words upon

<sup>\*</sup> Vide, e.g., Etherington's Hindi Grammar, Preface, pp. iv, v.

the colloquial Hindí to the exclusion of the Sanskrit. And if any one, in his zeal for 'pure Hindí', will attempt to use, instead of these, the corresponding Sanskrit words, he will probably find that none but a few Pundits will understand him. As to Arabic and Persian words of other sorts, the proportion found in Hindí varies, as might be expected. in different parts of the country; being greatest in the extreme N. W., and gradually diminishing toward the E. and S.

59. Inasmuch as the Arabic and Persian alphabets differ widely from the Devanágarí, all words from those languages containing letters not represented in those alphabets, when received into Hindí, undergo certain modifications. These are, in brief, as follows :--

a. Both ه and ت are represented by त; as, طلب, तत्तव, 'wages'; مطلب, तत्तवार, 'contention'.

b. The three sibilants, س, and س, all become च; as رثابت, चांबिल, 'proved'; سنيس, चर्चच, 'a groom'; ساحب, चांडिव, 'sir, master'. ض often becomes w; but in many sections of the country (as, for example, through the central Doáb and in Márwár) it is regularly sounded as च; thus, شروع, 'yes or सुड, 'beginning'; شروع, war or सुड, 'doubt'.

c. The letters ن, ن, ن, all pronounced in Urdú as s, become च j in Hindí, as نامن ;, जरा, 'a little'; نامن, जामिन, 'and'; ضامن, जामिन, 'a surety'; ضامن, जाहिर, 'manifest'. But in Márwárí and some other forms of Hindí, i final becomes द, as in कागद, for كافز, 'paper'.

d. c and i both become  $\overline{u}$ ; as حال,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{v}$ ,  $\overline{v$ 

e. The sound of imay be regarded as fairly naturalized in most Hindí dialects. Not only is its pronunciation retained in Arabic

and Persian words when introduced into Hindí, where it is represented by  $\mathbf{w}_{i}$ , as in **utum**, 'a banker', for  $\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{i}$ ; but, to a great extent, the common people substitute the foreign sound of f for ph even in Indian words; pronouncing, *e.g.*, **use** ('fruit') *fal*, instead of *phal*; **fus** ('again') *fir*, etc.

f. Arabic and Persian words not containing any of the above letters, for the most part enter Hindí without change, the Devanágarí furnishing the equivalents of all the other Arabic letters. Occasional changes and corruptions indeed occur which can scarcely be reduced to rule. There seems to be at least a tendency in some parts of the country to reject a consonant following any sibilant; thus we hear, in the Doáb, मलूर. 'a laborer', for any sibilant; thus we hear, in the Márwárí, मसोस, 'a mosque', for as in निमक, 'salt', for 'siter'; and tendency to substitute *i* for *a* as in निमक, 'salt', for 'siter'; an agent', for 'site'.

60. But we may now pass to the consideration of words of Sanskrit origin, which make up not less than nine-tenths of the language. These have been divided by native writers into *Tatsama* and *Tadbhara* words. The word *Tatsama*, **REWA**, meaning 'the same as that', appropriately denotes all purely Sanskrit words; *i.e.*, all such as have entered Hindí with no alteration save the loss of the ancient affixes of declension. The word *Tadbhara*, 'of the nature of that', denotes, on the other hand, all corrupted Sanskrit words, which, by the addition, loss, or change of certain letters, have come to appear in Hindí in a form more or less modified, and often greatly disguised.

# OF TATSAMA WORDS.

61. Tatsama words, as is evident from the above description, appear in every dialect under one and the same form. But inasmuch as pure Sanskrit words in Hindí, like most words of Latin and Greek origin in English, are especially appropriated to the expression of higher or scientific thought, it is evident, that the proportion of these Tatsamas actually found in the various Hindí dialects, must needs vary greatly, in proportion to their literary cultivation. Moreover, it must not be forgotten that, to a limited extent everywhere, but more especially in Western Hindí, Arabic and Persian words have often usurped the place of the Sanskrit Tatsamas. And so it has

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come to pass, that, speaking in a general way, the proportion of Tatsamas current in Hindí, regularly increases as we go eastward, till we reach the Bangálí, in which they reach a maximum. The following remarks will help to indicate the nature and extent of this Tatsama element.

62. In very many cases, the Tatsama and Tadbhava forms of the same word coëxist in the language. Thus, e.g., we have दर्शन, Tatsama, and देखना, Tadbhava; क्रोध, Tatsama, कोइ, Tadbhava. In some cases, the two forms retain the same meaning ; thus, mit and mit both signify 'anger'; याग्य and जाग, 'fit, worthy'. In such cases, one form is often dialectic. Thus Tadbhava forms, with a for an aspirated mute, are especially characteristic of the old Púrbí of the Rámáyan, as, e.g., लाह, साझ, काह, for लाभ, साभा, क्रोध. But where Tatsamas and Tadbhavas coëxist in the same dialect, it often happens that, with the difference in form, we find a difference also in signification : thus. मेच. Tatsama, is 'a rain-cloud'; but the corresponding Tadbhava. He. is always, 'rain, a shower'. Often, the Tatsama is the general term, and the Tadbhava, the more specific one; as स्थान, 'a place', in general; but ठाना, 'a police-station'. Where the words will admit it, the Tatsama word is often appropriated to a higher sense, and the Tadbhava is restricted to a lower signification. Thus, the Tadbhava देखना is, 'to see, seeing', in general; but the Tatsama दर्भन, is 'beholding', in a higher sense, as of a superior in rank, an idol, or a deity. Thus. people say, जगताय का दर्शन करना, 'to behold Jagannáth', but never चात्राचा को देखना, 'to see Jagannáth'.

a. The careful regard to etiquette for which the Hindoos are noted, is manifest, not only (as will hereafter appear) in the appropriation of certain pronominal forms and verbal inflections for the indication of various degrees of respect, but also, and very often, in the choice of a Tatsama or Tadbhava word.

63. Of purely Sanskrit nouns and adjectives, the case-terminations have been lost, and they regularly appear in Hindí, under the form which they assume in the Sk. nom. sing., minus the nom. case termination. Thus, the bases यस, रच्छा, सांग्र, धेनु, दातृ, मातृ, सरित, धनवत, नामन, मंहिमन, तेसस्थिन, respectively appear in Hindí as यस. रच्छा, सांग्र, खेनु, दाता, माता, सरित, धनवान, नाम, मंहिमा, and तेसस्थी.

a. The only nouns exempted from the operation of this law are crude bases in सम and उस, as, e.g., मनस, चसुस, which, in Hindí, have lost, not only, as in Sanskrit itself, the nom. sing. termination, but also the final radical  $\mathbf{u}$ , as found in the Sansk. nom. sing., so that the above words appear in Hindí as  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{y}$ . But, in a single instance in the *Rámáyan*, Tulsí Dás has written (doubtless for the sake of the metre) the root of the strong Sanskrit cases, **GIAUA** for **GIAUA**, 'a giver'.

b. Sansk. adjectives in वस, occurring in Hindí, frequently substitute for the nom. sing., the base in वन्स, of the strong cases, as, e.g., दयावन्स, 'merciful', पापवन्स, 'sinful'; so also, कुदावन्स for जुदावन्स, 'hungry'.

c. As has been remarked, Hindí nouus exhibit, in their declension, only the scanty remainder of the Sanskrit case-terminations, so corrupted and modified as to be recognized only with difficulty. The unchanged Sanskrit forms are, however, occasionally met with, but are no more organically connected with the Hindí, than such Latin phrases as '*id est*', '*et cetera*', are thus connected with English. Examples are, सट्टोस्स, gen. sing. of सट्टी, 'all'; सप्राप्त = vis., abl. sing. of सप्रो; रिप्तरेग, 'parents', nom. dual of पिन्; ट्योग:, 'the rains', nom. plur. from ट्यो; सुरोल, 'with pleasure', instr. sing. of सुरझ. But the most of these are very rare; and, with few exceptions, are only found in poetry.

64. Sanskrit comparatives and superlatives occur in Hindí, with the usual loss of their case-terminations, but are by no means common, and, with a few exceptions, they belong rather to literature than to the colloquial. Examples are, of superlatives, we, 'most excellent', from wi; interest', from inter. Comparatives are yet more uncommon; we have noted means, 'slower', from mea; generatives, 'more holy', from gen. It may be remarked that these Sanskrit comparatives, when they occur in Hindí, very commonly lose the comparative sense and are, in effect, superlatives.

65. The numerals and pronouns appear in Hindí (as might be expected of words in such incessant use by all classes) in an extremely mutilated and corrupted form. But the unchanged Sanskrit numerals are occasionally found in Hindí literature, especially in the headings of chapters. So also, we occasionally meet certain cases of the Sanskrit pronouns; more especially, the gen. sing. of the 1st and 2nd personal pronouns, **HH** and **HH**.

66. The Hindí verbs, without an exception, are Tadbhava words. Still, in poetry, parts of Sanskrit tenses are occasionally found; thus,

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from the root नम, we have नमामि, 'I salute', 1st sing. pres. Parasmai. But such forms as this have no organic connexion with the language. The Hindí, however, besides the regular Tadbhava participles of its verbal conjugation, admits, even in the colloquial, various Sanskrit participles in an unaltered form. Thus, we have the pres. part. Atmane in मान; as, from the root वृत, वर्तमान, 'existing, present', and, very rarely, the indeel, past part, in ran as, in the Rámáyan, चित्वा. Much more common is the past part. in स or न (ब); as, e.g., from कु, कुस, 'done, made'; from वच, उक्त, 'spoken, said'; from ए, पूर्व, 'filled'; from मुह, मोहिल, 'fascinated'. Not uncommon are fut. pass. participles ; whether those in त्रव्य, as from क, कर्त्तव्य, 'worthy to be done'; or अनीय, as ग्रहवीय, 'to be received', from us; or in u, as and, from qu, 'to be seen, visible'. Very rare is the 2nd fut. part. Parasmai in 🖽; as, from H, 'to be', the final consonant a having been rejected, Haw, 'future.' Sanskrit also contributes to Hindí many adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions, in an unaltered form. A list of these will be given in the appropriate place.

## OF TADBHAVA WORDS.

67. The plan of this work will not allow the space necessary to an exhaustive discussion of the Tadbhava words of Hindí; but a brief exhibition of the processes by which they have been formed, will be found of service in the study of the Hindí dialects, and aid the student to an intelligent acquaintance with the language. Accordingly, referring the student elsewhere for a full discussion of this matter,\* we propose to notice, as briefly as may be, the more important of those phonetic laws which have operated and are still operating in the Hindí dialects of N. India.

# Of Vowel Changes.

68. As has already appeared,  $\dagger$  Hindí exhibits a decided tendency to the omission of the short vowels. The inherent *a* is constantly

<sup>\*</sup> Little has as yet been written on the subject; the student, will however, find Mr. Beames' Comparative Grammar of great value. The "Essays in aid of a Comparative Grammar of the Gaurian languages", by Dr. Hoernle, are well worth careful study. Vid. Journ. As. Soc. Beng. Part I, No. II, 1872, and Part I, No. II, of 1873. † Vid. §§ 10, 11.

dropped from unaccented syllables, even though its omission be not marked by the use of a conjunct consonant.  $\blacksquare$  and  $\exists$  are very commonly silent when final; in other positions they usually remain.

a. But Mr. Beames has noted the frequent elision of च and ड initial, in Sanskrit compounds in which one of the inseparable prepositions चांध, चांघ, चांघ, चांध, etc., is the first member. Among his illustrations are mineri, 'to peep', from Sk. चाध्यच, 'overlooking'; भोगना, 'to be wet', from Sk. चाम्पंज; बेठा, 'seated', from Sk. डपविष्ठ; to which may be added others, as पुरोहिस, 'a family priest', from डपरोहिस; and पठावना or पठावन, 'to send', from the Sk. causal base, डपस्याप. च initial is sometimes omitted in simple words also; as, e.g., in साव, 'a pumpkin', for Sk. चासाब.

b. The Sk. fem. term. चा is often elided; as in वास, 'a thing, word', Sk. वास्ता; नोंद, 'sleep', Sk. निद्रा. So also ई final in feminines in चनी, whence come Hindí feminines in न; as मालिन, 'a gardener's wife', from माली, for मालिनी; सेठन, the wife of a सेठ.

c. र final is dropped in many words now used as adverbs or prepositions, but originally Sk. locatives sing.; as समीप, 'near', for Sansk. समीपे; संग, ' with', for संग, etc.

69. जा is often changed to ज in unaccented syllables, especially in Western Hindí. Thus, स्मरज, 'remembrance', becomes सुमिरन; पहला 'first', is constantly pronounced and often written, पहिला.\* ज is changed to ए in नेवला, 'a weasel', Sk. नक्तुला.

a. The vowels **q** and **d** often supersede **q** in a preceding syllable, or cause it to be exchanged for the cognate gun diphthong. Illustrations of the substitution of the simple vowel are **q** स्त्री, 'a tamarind tree', for Sk. बांस् ज़ा, 'a finger', for Sk. बंस् लो. In बंध, 'a hole dug by burglars', Sk. बांध, and चांच, 'the beak of a bird', Sk. चचुं, the gun diphthong is the substitute.

b. Very often in Sk. words, च, when followed by the semivowels च or च, coälesces with them into the cognate diphthong, commonly the *criddhi*. Thus, the Sk. नयन, 'eye', becomes नैन: समय, 'time', समे or समे; स्वार, 'salt', सोन. but also सून; स्वपर, 'another', by the previous substitution of च for प, खीर.

c. Here may best be noticed the operation of a law by which wir was regularly substituted in Prákrit for the Sanskrit declensional

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<sup>\*</sup> For further illustrations, see the section on Dialectic Changes.

termination **uu** (**u**:).\* Although, in most Tadbhava words, the corruption of this termination in the standard dialect, has proceeded still further, till only **u** or **s** final is left, yet many illustrations still remain, as in the pronouns, where, *e.g.*, the rel. **u** and the (Braj) interr. **u**, stand respectively for the Sk. **u**: and **u**:. Similarly, we have, from the Sk. **uuuuuti**, 'the second day before or after the present'.

d. Quite anomalous is a tendency, exhibited chiefly in the numerals, by which आ becomes रे, as, e.g., in पैंतीस, 'thirty-five', for Sk. पंचविंग्रत्; सैंतासीस, 'forty-seven', for Sk. समुखत्वार्गिंग्रत्. The same tendency is illustrated in बैंगन, 'egg-plant', for Sk. संगन, and a few other words. These cases, it will be observed, are quite distinct from the similar change of आ to W, already noticed, which is evidently due to the epenthesis of W.

70.  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $\mathbf{x}$  present few instances of change. But  $\mathbf{x}$  is changed to  $\mathbf{x}$ , in  $\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{z}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ , 'to smell', from Sk.  $\mathbf{\overline{u}}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{\overline{g}}$ ; and  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\mathbf{u}$ , in  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ , 'testing', for Sk.  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{u}$ .  $\mathbf{z}$  has become  $\mathbf{u}$  in the common word  $\mathbf{\overline{u}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{\overline{n}}$ , 'lightning', for Sk.  $\mathbf{\overline{u}}\mathbf{z}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{\overline{n}}$ . In  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{\overline{n}}$ , 'rheumatism', for Sk.  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{\overline{n}}$ , I am inclined to regard the  $\mathbf{x}$  final as having arisen from the cognate  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{z}$  final having been dropped, and  $\mathbf{u}$  ( $\mathbf{x}$ ) length-ened in compensation. In  $\mathbf{\overline{u}}\mathbf{\overline{n}}\mathbf{\overline{n}}$ , 'a dot', from Sk.  $\mathbf{\overline{u}}\mathbf{\overline{a}}\mathbf{\overline{g}}$ , we have apparently a real change of  $\mathbf{z}$  to  $\mathbf{x}$ ; unless, indeed, after the analogy of many other Tadbhavas in  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  represents, in this instance, the  $\mathbf{x}$  of a Prákrit form,  $\mathbf{\overline{u}}\mathbf{\overline{l}}\mathbf{\overline{a}}\mathbf{\overline{q}}$  (?).

71. ऋ undergoes various changes. When initial it always appears in Tadbhava words as रि, as in रिषि for ऋषि. When non-initial, the most common substitution is **u**, as in सिंह, 'a vulture', for गुभ्र; खच्छ, 'a scorpion', for वृषिषक. It may be changed to **u**, as in सेंग, 'a horn', for घुंग, and मोच for मृत्यु, 'death'; or even **u**, as in सेंग, 'a house', for गुप्र. It often becomes **u**, commonly under the influence of a contiguous labial; as in सुरस, 'remembrance', for स्मृति ; or **u**, as in मुधा, 'dead', for मृत:. Less frequently it appears as **u**, as in मट्टो, 'earth', Sk. मृत्तिका; **uावय**, 'the rainy season', Sk. प्रावृष. In many cases, even when non-initial, it is represented by the consonant **t**, in combination with one or more vowels; most commonly **i**t, as in **uियब्य**, 'a householder', for मृ**u**स्य; or even **ui**t, as in **uua**, 'a tree', for Sk. वृष.

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<sup>\*</sup>Cf. Vararuchi Prákr. Prak. V, (1).

72. w. w. and w. in the penult of Sanskrit or Prákrit words, regularly appear as long in Hindí, in all cases where the original ultimate syllable has been dropped. This is most of all to be noted in a large class of Sanskrit and Prákrit words formed by the suffix a. This includes a few Sanskrit nouns of agency, but especially, a very large number of words, chiefly Prákrit, formed by the addition of an inorganic on to the original Sanskrit base.\* This law will be found to cover most Tadbhava masc. nouns in w final, and fem. nouns in \$, as also many nouns in \$, denoting trades. Examples are, चीता, 'a leopard', Sk. चित्रक:; (Prákrit चित्तचेा ?); घोड़ा. 'a horse', Sk. Bizan:, (Prák. Bistin?); Haren, 'a fly', Sk. Huran; ang, 'sand', Sk. बालुका; घी, 'clarified butter', Sk. घुत: ; नाई, 'a barber', Sk. नापित:. The and a of these words have probably arisen directly from intermediate forms, qui, gai, + u and a having been euphonically inserted after the elision of a. ‡

73. When, in the process of phonetic decay, a Sanskrit conjunct has been reduced in Hindí to a simple consonant, a short vowel, preceding such a conjunct, is regularly lengthened. Thus, the Sk. इस्स, 'hand', becomes, in Hindí, हाथ; चालि, 'fire', जाता; रजु, 'sugarcane', ईस्व; मिष्ट: (मिष्ट्रक:), मोठा; दिंग्रांस, 'twenty', बोय.

a. Sometimes, instead of the long vowel, the cognate gun diphthong is the substitute; as in कोठो, 'a leper', Sk. कुछो; सेंड, 'ginger', Sk. शुबिट. ऋ under such circumstances commonly becomes दें, as in पोठ, 'back', from पूछ; दोठ, 'sight', from ट्रांष्ट्र.

b. But in some such cases, chiefly Sanskrit compounds with various prefixes, in which the accent rests on the radical syllable, the accent has prevented the lengthening of the vowel, as in derivatives from the Sk.  $\pi$ ,  $(\pi + \pi n)$ , 'rising', where H. has  $\pi$  and not  $\pi$  and not  $\pi$  and not  $\pi$  and  $\pi$ .

74. Long vowels are almost invariably changed to their own short, when any long or heavy appendage is added to a word. This occurs especially in the first member of compounds; as in बटमार, 'a highwayman', where बट is for बाट, 'a road'; पनहारा, 'a water-carrier', for पानोहारा; फुलवारी, 'a flower-garden', for फुलवारी; जिसकाल, 'winter',

<sup>Concerning this Prákrit suffix, see Lass. Inst. Ling. Prac. §§ 89, 1; 164, 19; et passim. † Vid. § 77, b, (1). ‡ Vid. § 78.</sup> 

for घोतकाल. So also where heavy terminations have been added; as in खुढ़ापा, 'old age', from खूढ़ा; मिठाई, 'sweetmeats', from मोठा, 'sweet', Sk. मिष्टक:. For the diphthongs the corresponding simple vowel is the substitute, as in खिटिया, dim. from खेटा, 'a son'; डुटका, 'a younger son', from होटा, 'little', Sk. जुद्र:, (जुद्रका:).

75. Diphthongs final in Prákrit and Sanskrit are in Hindí regularly reduced to their simple vowel. Thus the Prák. nom. sing. term.  $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$ , for Sk.  $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$ :, in archaic Hindí, and among the moderns, in Naipálí, and often in other Himalayan dialects, regularly becomes  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ . Thus Sk.  $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$ :, 'an arrow', Prák.  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ , is in the Rámáyan,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ ;  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , 'affection', Prák.  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ , is in the Rámáyan,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ ;  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , 'affection', Prák.  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ ,  $\overline{\mathbf{v$ 

a. But where, in Prákrit, after elision of a final consonant, we have बाबो, बाबो, उसो final, the standard Hindí presents आ, दे, and ज. In the western and Himalayan dialects, जो and जी appear for the Prák. बाबो † जो medial becomes ज in कूलन, for दोलन ; and जी medial, जो in नासो, for Sk. मोक्तिक.

b. Most changes of **v** and **ui** to **v** and **ui** are dialectic. The reverse process is exhibited in पाता, 'a grandson', for Sk. पीत्र, and केवट, 'a pilot', for Sk. जेवर्त.

76. The modern Hindoos, in the colloquial, constantly prefix a short च to words beginning with a conjunct in which च is the first letter; thus, e.g., स्त्रो, 'a woman', becomes चस्त्रो, or, with some, चस्त्रो; स्वान, 'a place', चस्वान, etc. Such forms are occasionally found in literature; as, e.g., in the Rámáyan, चास्त्रोंस, for स्त्रोंस, 'praise', and चस्त्रान. for स्त्रान, 'bathing'.

77. When, by the elision of a medial consonant, two vowels have been brought into contact, Hindí, instead of allowing the hiatus to remain, as in Prákrit, very often, though by no means always, seeks to avoid it, either, where the rules of *Sandhi* will permit, by uniting the concurrent vowels; or, in other cases, by inserting a consonant, usually  $\mathbf{a}$  or  $\mathbf{a}$ . Thus, the Sk.  $\mathbf{a}$  the walks',  $\mathbf{a}$  being elided,

<sup>•</sup> Vid. § 68. + Vid. §§ 101...103.

becomes, in old Hindí, खलब, and in many modern dialects, चले or चले. The Sk. पिपाचित:, 'thirsty', प and स being elided, and u inserted, becomes पियाया; बातुल:, 'orazy', स being elided, and u inserted, becomes बावला, but sometimes बाउला or बाउरा. Occasionally, as in यूद, 'a needle', Sk. यूची, and कावल, 'the cuckoo', Sk. काकिल, the hiatus is suffered to remain.

a. While these combinations often take place in accordance with the Sanskrit rules of *Sandhi*, this is by no means always the case. The following exceptions may be especially noted.

(1) A short vowel after a long often disappears; as in रोना, 'to cry', where रान is for राखन, from रादन. The short vowel, however, sometimes maintains its ground, as, e.g., above, in कोर्यल, for Sk. कोवित्स.

(2) The simple vowels,  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ , sometimes coalesce into the *criddhi*, instead of the *gun*, which the Sanskrit law would require; but this often is dialectic. Examples frequently occur in the conjugation of verbs; as, *e.g.*,  $\mathbf{t}\mathbf{d}$ , 'he laughs', from  $\mathbf{t}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}$ , Sk.  $\mathbf{t}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{t}$ ; and probably  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{t}$ , 2nd plur. imperat., 'walk', from the old H.  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{g}$ .

b. The semivowels **u** and **a**, after **u** or their cognate vowels, **u** and **a**, are often treated as vowels, so that **u**+**u**, like **u**+**u**, becomes **v** or **v**; **u**+**u**, like **u**+**s**,= **u** or **u**; **u**+**u**, like **u**+**u**,=**x**, and **u**+**a**, like **u**+**s**,=**u**. Thus, as before noted, **u**+**u**, 'time', becomes **u**+**i**; **ua**, 'existence', भी; **u**, 'the senses', **u**,\*

(1) This principle apparently leads to the explanation of those nouns in and a referred to in § 72. The a of the ultimate being rejected, a or a was inserted to fill the hiatus, giving us, e.g., for the Sk. alican, 'a mare', Prák. alieun, first a form alieun, from which would successively come the forms alieu, and finally, a becoming a, alien. By a similar process, from the Sk. alieun, Prák. alieun, we should have the successive forms, alieun, alieu, are becoming a, alien. By a similar process, from the Sk. alieun, Prák. alieun, we should have the successive forms, alieun, alieu, alieu, It may be noted here, that in the colloquial throughout Oude and the Doáb, the intermediate forms thus postulated as the original of nouns fem. in a, still exist. In the dialect of W. Oude, e.g., we have alieun, (as if from a Sk. form alieun) for aid, 'a buffalo-cow'; alieun, Sk. alican, 'a mare', etc., etc. †

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<sup>•</sup>Vid § 79. † It is to be remembered, in investigating words of this class, that this suffix **a** was in Prákrit added indifferently to almost any word. Lassen's words are 'omnibus thematis'. Vid. Lass. Inst. Ling. Prác. passim.

#### OF CONSONANTAL CHANGES.

# Simple Consonants.

78. Any smooth mute, except ट or र, also म, य, य, य, स, स, and इ, when single and non-initial, may be elided. The vowels thus brought together, combine, if similar; if otherwise, the hiatus often remains, as in Prákrit; but in the modern dialects, य or य is preferably inserted. Examples are, Sk. मेलका:, 'an assembly', Prák. मेलका, H. मेला, for the older Már. मेला; Sk. भगिनो, 'sister', H. बाइन, where the medial aspirate, n being rejected, has arisen from the aspiration of भ; Sk. युचो, 'a needle', H. युई; Sk. रजान, 'night', H. रेन; Sk. चसुप्र, 'fourth', H. चांचा; Sk. इटय, 'the heart', H. चिय; Sk. उदय, 'rising of the sun', Old H. उप; Sk. क्रुप, 'a well', H. क्रुका; Sk. दीप, 'a lamp', H. दिया; Sk. पूर्विमा, 'the day of new moon', H. पून्या; Sk. वालका, 'marriage', H. ट्याइ, for विश्वाइ. नाका, 'the nose', for Sk. नाचिका, has probably arisen from a collateral form नाचका.

a. च, when elided, would seem in most cases to have first passed into w. The older Hindí generally preserves the form in w, and, rarely, even those in च. Thus, in the futures, we have करोड, 'thou wilt do', for करोच, 2nd sing. fut.; but in पढ़लेडोंच, 'thou wilt regret', 2nd sing. fut., the च is preserved. After करोड, comes next कर and finally करे. In चादर, 'a twin brother', for Sk. चहादर, we have an example of the less common elision of w in nouns. The irregular Sandhi, च + चा = चा, instead of चा, may be noted. In the case of verbs, the elision of w medial is much more common. Additional examples are चाहे for चहाइ, 'is', करो, 'do, make', for करपु, etc.

79. The labials, **प**, **ख**. **म**, **ख**, when medial after á or a, very commonly soften into the cognate vowel **उ**, which then combines with the preceding a into the diphthong चो or चौ. Thus the Sk. चायर, 'another', becomes in Hindí, first चायर, and then चौर; स्वय, 'salt', becomes सोन; गमन, 'going', गौना, 'the going home of a bride'; खामन, 'a dwarf', खाना; प्रभाव, 'excellency', प्रभा. In such cases, the nasal element of **म** is often retained, in the form of an *Anusvár* attached to the diphthong, as in H. चौरो, 'a whisk', for Sk. चमर. So also, the palatal **य**, under similar conditions, passes into the cognate vowel **द**, whence, by Sandhi, arises the diphthong, **र** or **रे**; as, e.g., in सैन, 'sleeping', for Sk. श्रयन; समे or समे, 'time', for समय. When **द** precedes **u**, the **u** combines with it into the cognate long vowel, as in **दं**द्रो, 'an organ of sense', for **द**ंद्रिय.

80. A final consonant is usually rejected. Thus, यञ्चस्, 'renown', becomes जस; सारमन, 'self', becomes साप. By the same law, न final is dropped in all numerals; as, e.g., in साठ, 'eight', दस, 'ten', for सष्टन्, दशन्.

81. Initial consonants commonly remain unchanged. The exceptions occur, for the most part, in the case of the sibilant **u**, initial in a conjunct;\* or if in other letters, they may be traced to the disturbing influence of a neighboring sibilant or aspirate. Thus the Sk. विभूलि, 'superhuman power', becomes मलूल; जुस, 'chaff', भूसा; पास, 'a noose', फांस; वाट्प, 'vapor', भाफ.

82. When medial, hard mutes, as in other Aryan languages, are frequently softened. Examples are काग, 'a crow', Sk. काक; सूची, 'a small awl', Sk. स्वो. The change is especially common with the cerebrals, as, e.g., in घोड़ा, a 'horse', Sk. घोटक; पठन, 'reading', for use. u more commonly passes through a or a into the cognate vowel **3**, and thus loses its consonantal character entirely. But occasionally it stops at a; as in ताव, 'heat', for Sk. ताप, and in the fifties; as, e.g., बावन, 'fifty-two'; चौधन, 'fifty-four'; सत्तावन. 'fiftyseven', etc., where a is for the u of uia, which remains in some other numbers of the same series; as, e.y., त्तिरपन. 'fifty-three'. I should therefore suppose that such forms as arun. चौपन, etc. must have preceded the forms now in use, but hitherto I have not met with them Maráthí preserves the form चापन; but the other forms in Hindí. agree with Hindí. Rarely, a nasal is substituted for a cognate mute, as in पसीना, 'sweat', for Sk. प्रस्वेद.

83. Letters of one organ are often substituted for those of another. Thus, palatals are exchanged for cerebrals or dentals. The most familiar illustration is found in the case of the numerals, 41, 43, 45, 47, 48, where त is the substitute for च; as, e.g., in चकतालोच, 'fortyone', for चकवालोच, Sk. एकवत्यारिंग्रत्. Mr. Beames has noted a large number of examples, involving the apparently cognate roots, चप, डप, टप, दब, etc., from the Sk. रेक †

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. § 97. + Vid. Comp. Gram. § 57.

a. The cognate languages present numerous instances of the change of the palatals to the sibilants, but this is scarcely found in Hindí outside of the Rájputáná and Himalayan dialects. In the Márwárí dialect, the rule is universal, in respect to  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$ , which, although still written, are always pronounced as s.

84. Very common is the substitution of the cerebrals, whether initial or medial, for the dentals. Examples are numerous; as, e.g., दिग, 'side', Sk. दिक्; डर, 'fear', Sk. दर; डाइ, 'burning, envy', from Sk. दइ; पड़ना. 'to fall', from Sk. पत्; टोका, 'a sectarial mark', for तिसका, which is also used; बुद्दा, 'old', for Sk. दुट्ट. In this case, however, the cerebral is probably due to the absorption of the जृ. Here may be noted a large class of words from the Sk. root, स्था; as डt, 'a place', for Sk. स्थान; डाना, 'a police-station', as if from a form स्थानक:, etc.

a. But in some cases a Sanskrit cerebral is changed to a dental, as in the Hindí, दखना, 'to be pressed down', from Sk. डप्, etc.

85. In the standard Hindí, the Sanskrit cerebral nasal is regularly changed to the dental nasal in all Tadbhava words, as, e.g., in जुन, 'virtue', for गुच; पुन, 'merit', for पुचu; and universally in the infin. termination of verbs, wherever the laws of *Sandhi* would require **a**; as in **a**, 'to do, make', instead of **a**, **a**, 'to die', for **a**, **a**, But in the Himalayan and Rájputáná dialects the reverse tendency is exhibited, the cerebral nasal being constantly preferred to the dental. 86. य initial is regularly changed to ज in all Tadbhavas, as in जुग, 'an age', for युग. It is also hardened when doubled and final, as in युरज, 'the sun', for युग्य. र is changed to ज in चांचलता, 'a river', Sk. चांग्ल, ; as also in जाज, 'hair', if from जृ. 'to cover'. But this is far less common than the reverse change of ज to र, which is very frequent throughout the Hindí country.

87. The sibilants are all prone to change. w is constantly pronounced, throughout the Doab, as च; as, e.g., in दिया, 'region', for दिशा, etc., etc. व very commonly becomes व, as in मनुव, 'a man', for सनुष्य; दोखा, 'a fault', for दोख, etc. But in writing, ब is generally retained, and in some districts, as in Márwár, has usurped the character an in all words whatever. a becomes a in a, 'six', and arean, 'sixth', for Sk. षष, षष्ट. स becomes स or क in सालस, 'covetousness', for लालसा. Similarly we find केंग्रेग, 'beauty', for Sk. भ्रोग. The tendency of the sibilants to pass into the pure aspirate, of which the cognate languages afford so many examples, is abundantly illustrated in Hindí. Thus the w of any is changed to w in all the numerals from eleven to eighteen inclusive, as also the a of ania in the seventies throughout, except in चलर, 'seventy', and उनासी 'seventy-nine' which is from another root. Thus the Sk. त्रयोदधन, 'thirteen', becomes तरह; रकस्प्रांत, 'seventy-one', becomes दकहत्तर, etc., etc. This change, as regards these numerals, is found in all dialects alike; but, except in some of the Rájputáná and Himalayan dialects, it is rarely met with in other words. Certain pronominal and verbal forms of extensive or universal use, are, however, to be explained by reference to this These, however, will be noted in another place. principle.

88. Very common is the substitution of the pure aspirate **w** for any of the asiprated mutes **w**, **w**, **w**, or **w**. Examples are, **सुंस**, 'mouth, face', for सुख; मेंड, 'rain', from मेख; कडना, 'to speak', from the root क**w**; **ब**डो, 'curdled milk', for बांध; खडरा, 'deaf', for बांधर. If initial, however, the letter commonly remains unchanged. I have only found instances of such a change of an initial aspirate in the case of **w**. A notable example is found in the verb **चे**(ना, 'to be', from the Sk. **w**. To this may be added **w**ist, 'a pot', and **y**st, 'a cheque', for Sk. **मांड**, **मुंड**. This change of these aspirated letters is more common in the old Púrbí than in modern literature; additional examples will be found in the section on the dialects. 89. Before leaving this subject of the changes of single letters, it may be well to refer to an old Prákrit habit of adding to various words the affix  $\mathbf{a}$ . This Prákritic  $\mathbf{a}$  is not to be confounded with the Sanskrit affix  $\mathbf{a}$ , which is added to roots to form adjectives and nouns of agency. Unlike that, this Prákrit  $\mathbf{a}$  is wholly unmeaning.\* Although, in modern Hindí, this affix has commonly disappeared, yet its former existence is to be noted, as having influenced the form of a great number of modern words. And even so late a writer as Tulsí Dás, *cir*. 1600 A. D., frequently uses nouns, pronouns, and numerals, with this old Prákrit affix.† We shall have frequent occasion hereafter to refer to this usage.

90. The Hindús have an odd habit of inverting syllables, which should be remembered in the investigation of obscure words. Thus, in the west, people say मसखल for मसलख, 'object'; in the Doáb, नहान, 'bathing', for इनान, Sk. सान, and खोराम for खोमार, 'sick'; in Tirhut and Gaihwál, चट्टंपना, for पहुचना, 'to arrive', etc., etc.

#### OF CONJUNCT CONSONANTS.

91. This subject of the treatment of conjunct consonants in Hindí, is so extensive and complicated, that the limits of this work will not allow us more than to indicate the general principles which have operated in the case. We shall enter into detail only so far as may be necessary briefly to illustrate these general laws, and refer the student for a full discussion of the subject to Mr. Beames' Comparative Grammar.<sup>‡</sup>

<sup>\*</sup> Even Sanskrit contains many words thus formed; as, e.g., चोटक, 'a horse, **कटटक**, 'a thorn'; मेसक, 'an assemblage', etc. But in Prákrit the use of this affix was greatly extended. On this subject, which is of some etymological importance, the student may consult Vararuchi, Prákr. Prak. iv, (25); Lassen, Inst. Ling. Prac. pp. 288, 460, 461, 475.

<sup>+</sup> Vid. § 105, h.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>‡</sup> It is proper that I should here express my indebtedness to Mr. Beames for much in this chapter, more especially in the present section. Although the substance of this chapter was written prior to the appearance of Mr. Beames' work, I have derived from him many additional examples, and have remodeled this section, with a view to greater brevity and clearness, somewhat after the plan of his chapter on 'Compound Consonants'.

92. The general principles which regulate the treatment of conjunct consonants in Tadbhava words, may be briefly summed up under two heads, *viz*.:

(1) Where the members of the conjunct are of equal or nearly equal strength, the Hindí, in older words, rejects the first of the two consonants; in those of later formation, it separates them by a vowel.

(2) Where the members of the conjunct are of unequal strength, as a general rule, the stronger remains, and the weaker is dropped. In some cases, however, the remaining consonant, under the influence of the vanishing letter, is itself modified, and often transferred to another order.

a. Prior to the rejection of one element of a conjunct, there was, in the Prákrit period, an assimilation, in the case of strong conjuncts, of the first to the second consonant; and, in the case of mixed conjuncts, of the weaker to the stronger. Not a few examples of this earliest process are preserved in Hindí; as, e.g., in ucert, 'a stone', Harth, 'a fly', and the old form,  $\pi cert$ , 'hand', for the Sk.  $\mu cert$ ,  $\pi i cert$ , and  $\pi cert$ . Further illustrations will be found below.

b. When, under the application of these rules, a conjunct has been reduced to a simple consonant, a short vowel, originally preceding the conjunct, is usually lengthened in compensation. But when long and heavy syllables follow, and in a few other cases, this compensatory lengthening of the vowel is sometimes neglected.

c. For the interpretation of these general principles, it is to be remembered that the first four letters of the five '*vargs*' are called *strong*, and all the others *weak* letters.\* It is further to be noted, that in the practical application of these principles, the strong letters are regarded as of equal strength, but the weak letters vary in strength among themselves.<sup>†</sup>

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. § 6.

<sup>†</sup> Mr. Beames arranges the weak consonants in the order of their strength, as follows, viz.: first the nasals, then the sibilants, and, last of all, the semivowels. The nasals and the sibilants he regards as of equal strength. The semivowels he arranges in the following order, beginning with the strongest; viz.,  $\mathbf{a}$  (with the power of  $\mathbf{a}$ ),  $\mathbf{a}$  (with the power of  $\mathbf{a}$ ),  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{a}$  (softened to  $\mathbf{a}$ ),  $\mathbf{a}$  (softened to  $\mathbf{a}$ ). Vid. Comp. Gramm. p. 360.

93. The following examples and remarks will illustrate the above rules. In the following strong conjuncts, the first consonant is rejected; मोलो, 'a pearl', for Sk. मोलिका; दूध, 'milk', Sk. दुग्ध; साल, 'seven', Sk. सान. The vowel remains short in युल, 'connected', for युक्त ; and generally when an accented syllable has in Sanskrit followed the conjunct; as in उठना, 'rising', from Sk. उल+स्था. Most strong conjuncts, in words written as Tatsamas, are by the common people among the modern Hindús, divided in pronunciation. Thus, शब्द, 'a word', becomes सबद ; दिय, 'satisfied', लिरपल; करम, 'work', करम, etc.

94. In the following conjuncts, the elements being of unequal strength, the weaker is rejected; viz., स्रातन, 'fire', H. साग; सर्व, 'wool', H. सन; गार्भेंच, 'pregnant', H. गाभिन; ज्यांतिस, 'astrology', H. कातिस; प्राव्यूब, 'the rains', H. पावस; सूल्य, 'price', H. मोल; स्नेह, H. नेह; स्त्री, 'a woman', H. तिया.

a. र following u in a conjunct is very often separated from it by a; as in परकाई, 'shade', Sk. प्रतिकाया; प्रकाश, 'brightness', H. परतास, प्रशास, 'favor', परसाद, etc.

b. The root च्चा, 'to know', becomes जा, as in जानना, 'to know'; this is further weakened to य, in चियाना, 'wise', and चायान, 'foolish', for सचान, सच्चान.

95. A nasal initial in a conjunct with a mute usually vanishes, leaving *Anusvár*, and lengthening a preceding short vowel. This class of words is very numerous. Examples are कांटा, 'a thorn, Sk. कांटटक; चांद, 'the moon', Sk. चन्द्र; तांखा, 'copper', Sk. तस, etc.

96. य, र, and च, in a conjunct with a dental, disappear, transferring the dental to their own organ. Thus the conjunct त्य becomes च in सच, 'true', for Sk. सत्य, and मोच, 'death', Sk. मृत्यु. दा becomes च in सात, 'to-day', Sk. सत्य, and मोच, 'death', Sk. मृत्यु. दा becomes च in सात, 'to-day', Sk. सदा; ध्य becomes क in सांक, 'twilight', Sk. सन्ध्य. र very often modifies the dental, if first, and more rarely, if second in the conjunct. Examples aro, चाट, 'a road', Sk. वर्त्तन; खुद्र, 'old', from Prák. बधेक, for Sk. वृद्ध; पाट, 'cloth', Sk. पद्य; क्वाटा, 'little', Sk., सुट्र. This assimilation, in the case of a labial, is much more rare. The chief examples are afforded by the numerals, in the combinations of द्वि, 'two', as बारइ, 'twelve', for Sk. द्वादधन; खाईस, 'twenty-two', Sk. द्वादिधाति, etc. Analogous is the derivation of साप, 'self', from the Sk. सारमन.

97. A sibilant, in a conjunct with a stronger letter, disappears,

commonly aspirating the remaining consonant. Thus, we have हाधी, from Sk. हस्तिन, 'an elephant'; पॉच्डम, 'west', Sk. परिचम; धन, 'an udder', Sk. स्वन; सुरका, 'dry', Sk. गुष्ठ, 'बाठ, 'eight', Sk. बहुन्. In some cases the aspirate assumes a separate existence, and is even transferred to the beginning of a syllable; as in हड्डी, 'a bone', Sk. चारिय; हनान, 'bathing', Sk. सान; पुद्रुप, 'a flower', Sk. पुष्प. For a conjunct formed by ज. स, or प preceding a sibilant, the regular substitute is . Thus खय, 'destruction', becomes क्य; याखर, 'a letter', पहर; सतस्य, 'a fish', सह; ईप्रियत, 'desired', इच्छित.

a. But, in conjunction with क, the sibilant often merely leaves an aspiration, without changing the letter, as, in old Hindí, आखर, 'a letter', for Sk. आखर, and मकस्शी, or मान्सी, 'a fly', for Sk. मन्दिका.

b. In a large class of words beginning with we, chiefly derivatives of the root were, 'to stand', the dental has been transferred to the cerebral *carg*. Such are, *e.g.*, the words, **ci**, 'a place', **ci**, 'a police station'; **ci**, 'erect', Mar. **mci**, 'where', etc., etc. With a weaker letter the sibilant remains, as in words, 'necessary', for Sk. weaker, etc.

98. While the foregoing exposition of the phonetic laws which have operated in the development of the Hindí, is necessarily but brief and incomplete, it is hoped that it may at least indicate the path of research to the student; and aid him in interpreting the various strange and irregular forms which one often encounters in old Hindí books, and in the diverse local dialects of modern Hindí.

#### OF DIALECTIC PECULIARITIES.

99. Before leaving this general subject, it will be advisable, as a preliminary to the subject of declension and conjugation, to notice briefly the peculiar characteristics of the chief dialects exhibited in this grammar. These peculiarities are both lexical and etymological. Notable differences often obtain in words chosen to convey the most common ideas. Thus, 'to send', in the standard dialect, is **Numeration**, in Márwárí, **Herdin**; in the E. **USIER**. 'To call', in the standard dialect, is **gener**, in **E**. Hindí, S. of Allahabad, **insular**. But the indication of these lexical differences, belongs to a dictionary rather than a grammar.

100. As to differences in the forms of words, these respect, in some instances, merely individual letters; the word, both in its root and termination, remaining essentially the same. Some dialects, again, in some cases, present us with an inflectional system, so different from that prevailing elsewhere, as to compel us to postulate for it a separate origin. Thus, in such different forms as, e.g., eastern H. बर, High Hindí, बड़ा, K. बड़ा, B. बड़ेा, 'great', we have nothing which is not explicable by the laws of phonetic change. But, on the other hand, in the case of the futures चल्ंगा, E. Hindi, चलब, B. and K. wiet, 'I will go', we have differences inexplicable by any phonetic law, and must therefore assign each of these variant forms to a different origin. Differences of this latter sort, can only be exhibited in detail, when we come to treat of declension and conjugation. It will suffice at present to indicate briefly a few distinguishing peculiarities of the various dialects.

101. In the Braj, the inflectible आ final of the standard dialect, (for Prák. आ, Sk. आ:,) in adjectives, and verbs, commonly appears as आ; but in nouns, the Prákritic आ has become आ. Often in verbs, and more rarely in nouns, र final is *vriddhied* to र. Anusrár is used much more freely than in High Hindí. Short a in close roots is very often lengthened; as, e.g., in राखनेंग for रखना, 'to keep'; चालनेंग, 'to walk', for चलना; सांच, 'true', for सच.

102. The Kanaují is related closely to the Braj. Where the Braj, as above, has  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ , the Kanaují retains the Prákrit  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ .  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  final remains unaltered. Anusrár is used in season and out of season.

103. The Márwárí and Mairwárí agree with the Kanaují in presenting क्या instead of the inflected क्या, and extend this usage so as to include nouns, saying, e.g., चोड़ो, instead of चोड़ा, 'a horse', etc. क्या is preferred to a medial a, as in Braj, as in लागाना 'to adhere', for लगना, माटी, for मट्टी, 'earth', etc. These dialects, and, it is said, the Rájputáná dialects generally, agree in that, unlike those of the Ganges valley, they constantly prefer the cerebral nasal क to the dental न. Thus, the standard forms, क्याना, 'own', हाना, 'to be', are, in Marwárí, जायना, होनो. Quite peculiar, again, is the aversion of these dialects to the letter ह; which, when medial, is very commonly dropped; the concurrent vowel-sounds then coalesce, according to the rules of Sandhi. Thus, कहना, 'to say', becomes, in Már., केना, for कदवो, from कांद्रवेग; चाहिये, 'ought', चैये; साहिव, 'sir', becomes साख;" श्रहर, Ar. شهر, 'a city', सैर; पहिला, 'first', पैलेग; कहरो, 'said', कयो, etc. But in S. Rájputáná, इ is very commonly substituted for स, as, e.g., in इसम, 'understanding', for समम, etc. The Ar. تخت", 'a throne', becomes लगाल; the Persian المناب, 'a king', खाहेग. स initial becomes न in नानल, 'a curse', for Ar. لعنت; and नन्दन, 'London'. The Sk. सदभुल, 'wonderful', is transformed into उदयुख.

a. As appears from the above examples, in the Rájputáná dialects  $\mathbf{T}$  is very commonly preferred to  $\mathbf{T}$  in unaccented syllables. I have obtained no written examples, but it is evident that the Sandhi  $\mathbf{T}$ , in the above cases, must have arisen, not from  $\mathbf{T} + \mathbf{T}$ , but  $\mathbf{T} + \mathbf{T}$ . Occasionally,  $\mathbf{T}$  or  $\mathbf{T}$  is inserted between the concurrent vowels, as in aranal, for  $\mathbf{T}$  at  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{T}$  is a sine for  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{T$ 

104. Inasmuch as the Kumáoní and Garhwálí, so far as we know, possess no literature, our materials for the illustration of these dialects are comparatively scanty. But it will be abundantly evident from the sequel, that their affinities are not with the contiguous dialects of the valley of the Ganges, but with those of Rájputáná. We note, especially, the preference of the cerebral to the dental nasal, as in भएखा, 'own', for अपना; खखायो, 'made', for खनाया, and in infinitives generally, as राग्रो, 'to cry', for राना. There are also indications of the same aversion to z, that we have noted in the Rájputáná dialects. Thus, in Garhwall we hear wien, 'he will be', for हादला, H. H. हाता. In Kumáoní, ani, and ui, 'where', 'here' stand for ansi, usi ; and ana, for ment, 'to say'. The Sandhi in this last case indicates a previous substitution of  $\exists$  for the unaccented  $\blacksquare$ , instead of  $\blacksquare$ , as in W. Hindí. स becomes इ in इांखिला, 'a honey-comb', for सांखिला; and च becomes स in निस्सा, 'under', for नीचे. Very many nouns terminate in उ or स as in archaic Hindí, as, e.g., खाडू. 'a sheep'. These dialects are marked in general by great abbreviation, especially of verbal forms, but this will be illustrated in the tables of conjugation.

105. Coming to the eastern dialects, that of the *Rámáyan* claims special attention. It should be observed, however, that Tulsí Dás has allowed himself the utmost freedom in drawing grammatical forms from various Hindí dialects, and even from the old Prákrit, as the exigencies of the metre, or his personal fancy might suggest.

<sup>\*</sup> For this Sandhi, Vid. § 77, a, (1).

The student should of course carefully discriminate between such foreign elements, and those which are distinctive of that form of Hindí in which the poet wrote. Although, *e.g.*, the Braj perf. part. in **a**, and the K. in **a** are often found in the *Rámáyan*, as also the Bhoj. perf. in **a**, neither of these are to be regarded as belonging to the old Púrbí, in which the poem is written.

a. The Prákritio term. भो, which elsewhere appears as आ, भो, or भो, is, in the Rámáyan, regularly reduced to आ. Thus दूल्दा, 'a bridegroom', becomes दूलाइ; सोसरा, 'third', तोसर; जोता, perf. part., 'conquered', जोत; बड़ा, 'large', खर, etc. Many nouns which in High Hindí end in the silent a, in the Rámáyan terminate in उ. Examples are numerous, as सड, 'an arrow', सिड, 'the head', सुंड, 'the face', for the modern standard forms, सर, सिर, मुंड.\*

b. Diphthongs are often resolved into their elements, especially in the conjugation of verbs, as, e.g., करद, for करे; भयउ, for भया. These forms have frequently been referred to a careless style of writing; but we think that investigation will show that they are, in most instances, *boná fide* grammatical forms. The diceresis of the vowels will, in most cases, be found to indicate the elision of an original consonant. Thus करद, 'he does', stands for a Prákrit form, करोल, for Sk. करोलि, where त has been elided. But we shall have occasion to notice this matter again hereafter.

c. For ई, इय is sometimes written, as in जियव, for जोव. Some words are written indifferently with आव, आव, or जी; thus we find रावरे, रावरे, and रारे, all signifying 'your excellency'. रे is sometimes written for जाय as in रेन, for जायन, 'a place'.

d. **ए** is very often substituted for **फ** or **ए**, before affixes and suffixes. Thus, we have खारेक, 'a child', for खालक; भयेड, 'was', for भयड; कहेडु, 'say', for कहडु, etc. This change never occurs in roots, except in the final vowel. This **ए**, thus derived, is prosodially common, but more often short than long.

e. Quite characteristic is the frequent allowance of an hiatus,

\* This final u is the characteristic vowel of the final diphthong o of the Prák. nom. sing. This termination represents a stage of the language immediately preceding the modern forms, in which, the u being no longer sounded, it is no longer written, so that all this class of words are reduced to the form of nouns ending in a silent a. where both Sanskrit and modern Hindí would avoid it, either by Saudhi, or by the retention or insertion of a consonant. Thus we have पिन्न, 'husband', for Sk. ग्रिय, modern Hindí, पिय; सुसान, 'a son', for सुखन; जिन्नास, 'living', for जियस, etc. The semivowels य and ज are often softened to द and उ, producing a hiatus, which is suffered to remain; as, e.g., पिन्नार, 'love', for प्यार; दुसारे, 'at the door', for द्वारे.

f. Quite characteristic is the very frequent substitution of the simple aspirate द for an aspirated mute.\* Thus we find, लाइ, 'gain', for लाभ ; कोइ, 'anger', for कोध ; नाइ, 'lord', for नाघ, etc., etc. Instances of this change occur in every dialect, but it is especially common in the Rámáyan.

g. The cerebral इ? does not occur. Its place is usually taken by र, 'as in uर, 'they fell', for पड़े; लरकिन, obl. plur., 'girls', for लड़कियें. But sometimes an original ट for a modern इ is retained; as in घट, 'an earthen jar', for the modern घड़ा. र is also very commonly preferred to ल as in लरे, 'under', for लले; टूखरि, 'thin, lean', for दुखली; दिखरायें, 'showed', for दिखलाया. न is regularly substituted for ब, as in गुन, 'virtue', for गुख; and स, for श, as in सोक, 'grief', for शोक.

h. The unmeaning Prákritic suffix क is of frequent occurrence.† The following instances may be noted: of nouns; दारिका, 'a wife', मुटिका, 'the fist', नाका, 'a ship', for दारा, मुट्ठो, and ना; of numerals, चारिक, 'four', पचासक, 'fifty', कोटिक, 'a crore'; of pronominals, etc., किसिक, 'how much', ककुक, 'some', बहुतक and बहुतेक, 'much', कबहुंक, 'ever'.

106. The modern eastern dialects exhibited in this work, are exclusively colloquial, and their peculiarities need be only briefly noticed. The Avadhí, or dialect of Oude, $\ddagger$  as well as the Riváí, bordering it on the S., are both characterized by the existence of the same short **v** which we find in the *Rámáyan*. Abundant illustrations will be found in the tables of conjugation. In the Avadhí, all masculine nouns are commonly made to terminate in **e** or **en** in the nom. sing. Thus, ताता, 'a parrot', is in Av. ताताना, or तातावा ; **ev**, 'house', **etin** or **evcn**, etc. || Feminine nouns commonly terminate in **e** or **erai**. A final vowel, long in High Hindí, is shortened before **en**, but remains long before **en**. Thus **eci**, 'a river', becomes **efeui** or **ecan**, **ec**.

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. § 88. † Vid. § 89. ‡ Sometimes called Kosalí. || Observe that, by Sandhi, a or  $\dot{a} + u = au$ .

a. These forms in  $\mathbf{u}$ , it may be observed, occur commonly in the Kanaují dialect also. The forms in  $\mathbf{u}$  I have heard often on the frontiers of Rívá, and should suppose that they were as common there as in Oude.

107. Mr. Beames has indicated, in the Journ. R. A. Soc.,\* the following peculiarities of the Bhojpuri dialect. The gun and eriddhi vowels are preferably left uncombined, so that, e.g., for  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ we have  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ . The final inflected  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , is often shortened to a. Soft are preferred to hard mutes, as, e.g., in भोगाना 'to throw', for  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ .  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$  commonly becomes  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ .  $\mathbf{v}$  is substituted for  $\mathbf{v}$ , as in the Rámáyan; thus  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , 'a horse', becomes  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ . For the inflected  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$  of substantives in High Hindí,  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , 'a son', for  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{c}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , for  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , 'a son', for  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , 'a son', for  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ .

## CHAPTER IV.

## OF SUBSTANTIVES.

## Gender.

108. Hindí substantives are affected by gender, number and case. We have first to consider the subject of gender. Only two genders, masculine and feminine, are recognized. The neuter of Sanskrit, (which has been retained in the Maráthí,) the Hindí, as well as the closely related Panjábí, has lost, so that the gender of many nouns is of necessity ambiguous, being apparently determined solely by popular usage.

109. As a general principle, Sanskrit nouns, introduced into Hindí, if masculine or feminine, retain their original

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. III, Part 2.

<sup>+</sup> I judge that the hiatus here marks the place of an original Prákritic k; the forms are therefore older than those in  $\dot{a}$  or o, or even those found elsewhere in  $iy\dot{a}$  and  $uy\dot{a}$ .

gender; or if neuter, become masculine in Hindi. But there are many exceptions to this principle.

a. Among the most common exceptions may be noted the following words, which, although masculine in Sanskrit, have become feminine in Hindí, *ciz.* : आग (Sk. आरेन), 'fire'; सांख (Sk. सार्च), 'flame'; साम (Sk. सन्मे), 'heat of the sun'; अंस्तार, 'a tinkling'; घूप, 'incense'; सास (Sk. सारू), 'odor'. स्वयार, 'a strong wind', if derived, as some say, from the Sk. masculine, सामु, is another common illustration; but the original identity of the two words is not certain.

b. The following Sanskrit masc. nouns, are in Hindí commonly reckoned fem., though occasionally masc., viz.; जय or जै, 'victory'; सान, 'a tune'; दाइ, 'burning', and, from the same Sanskrit root, दाइ, 'envy', 'malice'. जांच, 'the eye', बस्तु, 'a thing', and जात, 'the body', from the Sk. neuters, जांच, वस्तु and जात्र, have become fem. So also देह, 'the body', and पुस्तक, 'a book', in Sanskrit, masc. or neut., are fem. in Hindí. जृत्यु, 'death', masc. or fem. in Sanskrit, in Hindí is always fem., as also is the derived Tadbhava, मोच.

c. Of the contrary change from a Sanskrit fem., to a Hindí masc., I have noted only one common example, viz., मोलो, 'a pearl', from Sk. मोलिक.

d. In some cases, the reason of the change of gender may perhaps be found in the influence of coexisting Urdú equivalents. Thus, e.g., the words aurt, बस्त, पुस्तक, may have become fem. through the influence of the Urdú, عيز , هرا. In the case of some Tadbhavas, the words may possibly not be, in fact, descended directly from the Sanskrit, but from similar Prákrit words, which have not been preserved in literature.

110. Although, as thus appears, the gender of a Hindí word is often apparently quite arbitrary, yet there are certain rules by which the gender of most nouns may be known. These rules respect, either the signification of nouns, or their terminations. As respects their signification, we have the following principles to guide us.

111. The following are masculine, viz. :---

(1) All names of males.

(2) Names of large, or coarse and roughly made objects, as contrasted with small, or more finely made objects of the .

same kind; as mạn gdrá, 'a cart', in contrast with mạn gdri, 'a carriage', fem.; रस्ला rassá, 'a heavy rope', drun pothá, 'a tome'; in contrast, respectively, with रस्ली rassí, 'a small rope', and drun pothí, a book'.

(3) Names of metals, alloys, precious stones, and rocks generally; as साना soná, 'gold'; बपा rúpá, 'silver'; जस्ता jastá, 'pewter'; द्वीरा hírá, 'a diamond'; कंकर kaņkar, 'nodular limestone.'

Exc. The following are feminine, vis.; चांदी chándí, 'silver'; and compounds in which मृत्तिका or मक्स्सी (मचिका) is the last member, as पांहुमृत्तिका pándumrittiká, 'opal'; चानामकसी sonámakkhí, 'goldstone'.

(4) Names of the year, of the months, of the days of the week, and of the astrological *Karans*; \* as tian samuat, 'a year'; and budh, 'Wednesday'.

(5) Names of mountains and seas, whether common or proper; as using pahár, 'a mountain'; unit ságar, 'the ocean'; fait giri, 'a mountain'; fait vindhya, 'the Vindhya range'.

(6) Names of the heavenly bodies, as सूर्या, pronounced súraj, रांच ravi, etc., 'the sun'; मुझ shukr, 'the planet Venus'; कोस ketu, 'a comet'.

(7) Most words denoting affections of the mind; as ग्रेम prem, 'love'; कोप kop, 'anger'; साम lobh, 'avarice'.

Exc. All Sanskrit nouns of this class in wit a final are feminine; as real ichchha, 'desire'; also the three following, viz., with arainch, 'enmity'; mu krudh, and occasionally, anu krodh, 'anger'.

(8) All nouns denoting agency or relationship. This includes the following:

a. Many nouns in  $\overline{\alpha}$  tá, from Sanskrit bases in  $\overline{\alpha}$  tri; as  $\overline{\alpha}$  taid dátá, 'a giver';  $\overline{\alpha}$  gry yoddhá, 'a warrior', from  $\overline{a}$  yu, 'to fight'; where the final  $\overline{\alpha}$  tá, for the sake of euphony, has been changed to  $\overline{\alpha}$  dhá.

b. Some nouns in **\*** i, from Sanskrit bases in **\***, as **\***, for *kari*, **\*** a doer', and its compounds.

<sup>\*</sup> The Pundits reckon eleven Karans, seven moveable, and four fixed, of which two equal a lunar day.

c. A large class of Sanskrit nouns in **a** k; as **sugar** upadeshak, 'an instructor'; **usa** rachak, 'a maker'.

d. Another large class of Sanskrit nouns in  $\neg n$  ( $\neg n$ ), especially common in poetry, as the last member of compound words; as  $\neg n$ haran, 'a remover';  $\neg n$  dukhbhanjan, 'a destroyer of grief'; under patitpáwan, 'purifier of the guilty'.

e. A large class of compounds, in which the last member is a Sanskrit root, either unchanged, or affected with gun; as **current** rajnichar, 'a demon', lit. 'night-walker', **ucrituc** dharnidhar, 'supporter of the earth; **uruse** páphar, 'remover of sin'.

f. A numerous class of Tadbhava substantives in या yá (चया iyá, चव्या and रेया); as गवैया gawaiyá, 'a singer'; सेवैया lewaiyá, 'a taker'; ढंढोरिया qhandhoriyá, 'a crier'.

112. The following are feminine, viz.:

(1) All names of females.

(2) Names of the lunar days; as  $\frac{1}{2}$  a dij, 'the second'; upph ashtami, 'the eighth'; unraw amávas, 'the day of new moon'.

(3) Most names of rivers; as गंगा gangá, 'the Ganges'; स्वना lavaná, 'a river in Tirhut'.

Exc. सेान son, 'the Sone', सिंधु sindhu, 'the Indus', and झझपुत्र, 'the Brahmaputra', are masculine.

113. As to the gender of trees, plants and flowers, no general rule can be given, further than this, that the majority of names, especially of large trees, are masculine. The many various names of the lotus, as *jalaj*, *saroruh*, *kamal*, etc., are all masculine. But the names of a large number of plants and fruits are feminine. As the most of these are rarely used, it is not necessary to enter into further detail here.

114. It would not be easy to assign a reason for these rules in every case. In some instances, doubtless, the gender of the prevailing common term, has determined the gender of the individuals included under it. Thus, names of mountains are probably masc., because the generic terms, parbat, giri, etc., signifying 'mountain', are masc. So, probably, names of metals, etc., are masc., because the common terms, dhátu, 'a metal', patthar, pásház, etc., 'a stone', ratn, 'a jewel', are masc. In the case of the exceptions, chándí, and the compounds of mrittiká and makshiká, the fem. terminations á and i have occasioned the deviation from the rule. So also, the days of the week are reckoned masc., because the words, din, divas, etc., 'a solar day', are masc.; but the names of the days of the month are fem., as following the gender of *lithi*, 'a lunar day'. Still, at last, the ultimate reason for these rules must be found in the imagination of the people, which assigned the gender of inanimate objects, according as masculine or feminine attributes were supposed to be predominant in them.

115. The following rules have respect to the terminations of nouns.

Nouns having the following terminations are masculine, viz. :--

(1) Most Tadbhava nouns in जा á or जा án final; as घड़ा ghará, 'an earthen jar'; देरा derá, 'a tent'; कोला jholá, 'a wallet'; धूज्या dhúán, 'smoke'.

Exc. Diminutives ending in **द्या** are feminine, as, e.g., घीलिया thailiyá, 'a small bag'; चिड़िया chiriyá, 'a small bird'; फुड़िया phuriyá, 'a boil'. The following are also fem., viz.: ग्रुवा gúá, 'betel nut'; कोंगा jhíngá, 'a shrimp'; टावा toá, 'the act of feeling'; चिरियां biriyán, 'time'. ठां thán, 'a place', is maso. or fem.

N. B. Tadbhava masc. nouns in d may be recognized as such, by their uniform inflection of d to e in the oblique cases of the singular.

(2) Most nouns in च u or च ú, in their diphthongs, चो o or चो au, or in the cognate semivowel च v, whether with or without Anusvár; as मधु madhu, 'honey'; कलेच kaleú, 'a luncheon'; चढ़ाओ charháo, 'an ascent'; मही mahyau, 'buttermilk'; माच bháv, 'an emotion'; गांव gánw, 'a village'.

The following lists comprise all common exceptions.

a. Nouns fem. in **u**.

बाचचु achakshu, 'spectacles'.	सर्क tarku,* 'a spindle'.
चायु <i>áyu</i> , ' age'.	बस्तु bastu,* 'a thing'.
Ta ikshu, 'sugarcane'.	मृत्यु mrityu,* 'death'.
to chanchu, the 'beak of a bird'.	रेनु renu, 'sand'.
ig jambu,* ' the rose-apple'.	
b. Nouns fcm.	in a ú, a ún.
चाफू áphú, 'opium'. [grass'.	ສູ້ <i>jún</i> , 'a louse'.
उल् or ऊल ulú or úlú, 'a kind of	दाब dárú, 'ardent spirits'.
<b>n</b> gú, ' excrement'.	बालू or बाब bálú or bárú, 'sand'.

\*Also rarely masculine.

चमाद chamáú, 'shoes fixed to pat-	ਸੂ bhú, ' the earth'.
चसू chamú, 'an army'. [tens'.	रेडू पेडू rchú pchú, ' abundance'.
ty champú, 'a work in alternate	लावू /árú, 'a pumpkin'.
prose and verse'.	लू lú, ' the hot wind'.
जागू jágú, 'a place'.	चाब sárú, ' a starling'.

c. Nouns fem. in with o, with on.

काखों chháon, 'shade'. जेखों jokhon, 'risk'. खाखो báo, 'wind'. भेगे bhon,\* 'the eyebrow'. [wan'. सलनो salno, 'the full moon in Sá-सरसें। sarson, 'a kind of mustard'. सें। son, 'an oath'.

d. Nouns fem. in all au, all aun.

il gaun, + ' opportunity'.	चे <i>pau</i> , 'the one in dice'.		
at daun, 'flame'.	en law, 'the flame of a candle'		

e. The following in a v, are feminine, viz. : नेव nev, 'a foundation'; टेव tev, habit, custom'; राव चाव váv cháv, 'merriment'.

f. The following are of either gender, viz. : खराडं kharáún,; 'wooden sandals'; ठाखों tháon, 'a place'; सहाऊ saháú, 'help'.

Rem. Many words are written indifferently with one or another of these cognate letters; as, e.g., वाक्रो or बाव; भाव or भाऊ; से or सूं; भी or भी. etc.; but as this does not affect their gender, it has not been thought necessary to repeat them under each list.

(3) Abstract nouns in ra tva and u ya final are all masculine; as ξχατεα ishvaratva, 'godhead', from ξχατ ishvar, 'God'; τισυ rájya, 'a kingdom', from the base τιπα rájan.

a. These are all Tatsamas and are all derived from concrete nouns. When, in any case, a Tadbhava form exists, derived from such a Tatsama, its gender is commonly determined by that of the Tatsama, according to § 109; as, e.g., rdj, for rdjya, masc.

(4) Nouns formed with the suffixes  $a_j$ , 'born of', un pan, un paná, or un pá, English, 'hood', 'ness', are all masc.; as and jalaj, 'a lotus', from and jal, 'water', and the suffix  $a_j$ , lit. 'the water-born'; estant larakpan, 'childhood'; ganun burhápá, 'old age';  $a_i$  and  $a_i$  murakhpan, 'foolishness'.

<sup>\*</sup>Also bhaup. † Occasionally masc. ‡ In the E. always fem.

Rem. The anomalous form लुच्छपनी luchchhpani is fem.

(5) Nouns in  $\neg n$  ( $\neg n$ ) are both masc. and fem.; but the majority are masc. Among masculines in  $\neg n$  may be particularly noted the following, *viz*.:

a. All nouns of agency; as दहन duhan, 'a consumer'; गंजन ganjan, 'a destroyer'; etc.

b. A large class of Tatsamas, (Sanskrit neuters,) as आयन ayan, 'a place'; दान dán, 'a gift, alms'; दपेंब darpan, 'a mirror'; चान, gyán, 'knowledge'.

c. A few abstract nouns from Sanskrit nouns in n final in a conjunct; as **u** yatn, commonly pronounced and often written as a Tadbhava, **unter** jatan, 'labor'; **unter** yatn, 'sleep'.

d. Add to these a large class of verbal nouns in न n (Tadbhavas); as चलन chalan, 'going, walk'; करन karan, 'action, deed'; मारन máran, 'slaughter'.

*Exc.* The following list comprehends most common fem. nouns in  $\exists n$ :

बदवान adrán, ' braces for tighten-	धरन dharan, 'a beam', 'accont'.
[ing a bedstead'.	धुन dhun, 'propensity', 'ardor'.
चानवान ánrán, 'spirit, proper pride'.	फूटन phúțan, 'a quarrel'. [tree'.
सावनसावन áranáran, 'tidings of	aanun bakáyan, 'the name of a
[arrival'.	रइन rahan, 'method'.
चत्रन utran, ' fragments', ' cast-off	रैन rain, 'night'.
डन ún, 'wool'. [clothes'.	सुटकुन sutkun, 'a rod'.
कान kán, ' shame'.	द्वंघन súnghan, 'act of smelling'.
कैन kain, 'a bamboo twig'.	सूचन súthan, ' drawers'.
स्विरकिन khirkin, 'a window'.	रीन sain, 'a hint', 'a wink'.
fun ghin, 'disgust'. [thatch'.	हुन hun, 'name of a coin'.
and chhán, ' a bamboo frame for a	-

116. Nouns which have the following terminations are feminine, viz. :

(1) Pure Sanskrit nouns in war a final. Under this head, we may note especially :—

b. Abstracts in सा tá, derived from nouns and adjectives; as, from नम्, 'courteous', नम्ता namratá, 'courtesy'; प्रभु, 'lord', प्रभुता prabhutá, 'lordship'. These are very numerous.

Exc. A few Tatsama nouns in wit á, from bases in wie an, are masculine, according to § 109. The principal of these are wien animá, 'the faculty of becoming invisible'; मुद्धा múrddhá, 'the head'; uwn yakshmá, 'pulmonary consumption'; gwn shleshmá, 'the phlegmatic humor'.

Rem. But the following, from bases in चन an, have become fem. in Hindí; viz., प्रोहा plíhá, 'the spleen'; महिमा mahimá, 'majesty'. सारा tárá, 'a star', is both masc. and fem.

(2) Many nouns in  $\mathbf{x}$  *i* final are feminine.

a. Under this head are to be noted, especially, all abstract nouns in सि ti and नि ni; as मसि mati, 'the mind'; चंग्रांस sañgati, 'intercourse'; उत्तानि gláni, 'weariness. Under this class come also such nouns as वृद्धि vriddhi, 'increase'; खुद्धि buddhi, 'wisdom'; where the final affix सि ti has become bu dhi by sandhi.

*Exc.* But the following nouns in  $\mathbf{x}$  *i* are mass., *riz.*:

a. Names of animals, as aniu kapi, 'a monkey'; aniw krimi, 'a worm'.

b. All compounds with it dhi; as uitit paridhi, 'circumference'; initia nidhi, 'a treasure'; anitis váridhi, 'the ocean'.

c. To these add all nouns in the following list, viz.:

स्रतिचि atithi, 'a guest'.	पांचि páņi,* ' the hand'.
म्बीच akshi, ' the eye'.	मंचि maņi,* 'a jewel'.
म्रारेम agni, ' fire'.	ug yashti, 'a stick'.
चांच ani, ' edge of a weapon'.	राशि ráshi, ' a heap quantity'.
द्यांचे archi, 'flame'.	वहींन vahni, ' fire'.
षांस asi, 'a sword'.	वारि vári or बारि bári, 'water'.
आस्थि asthi, ' a bone'.	व्रीहि vríhi, ' rice'.
ज्जाराति áráti, ' an enemy'.	श्रालि sháli, ' rice'.
दांध dadhi, ' curd'.	र्सोच sachi, ' intimacy'.
ध्वान dhvani, 'sound'.	सुरांभ surabhi ' nutmeg'.

(3) Most nouns in ई i final are feminine, as राटी roți, 'bread'; बिन्ती binti, 'supplication'; गासी gáli, 'abuse'.

<sup>\*</sup> Sometimes masc.

a. Except those included unde	r § 111, (8) $b$ ., and the following:
यमो amí, ' nectar'.	दही dahi, ' curdled milk'.
चारी ari, ' an enemy'.	पानी pání, ' water'.
al ghi, ' clarified butter'.	माती moti, 'a pearl'.
ची jí, 'life', 'soul'.	हाची háthí, 'an elephant'.

Rem. These exceptions can all be explained as corruptions of Sanskrit mase. or neut. nouns. Thus, जामी and घो are corruptions of जामुलं and घुलं; जारो and दही, of जारे (जारिक:) and दाँध (दाँधकं); जी and पानी, of जित्रं and पानियं; माली, of माक्तिकं. They thus all come under the general principle laid down at the beginning of this chapter.

(4) All nouns in इट hat, वट wat, or वस wat, are feminine; as चनचनाइट chanchanáhat, 'a throbbing'; बुलाइट buláhat, 'a calling'; बनावट banáwat, 'a fabrication'; चगावल sagáwat, 'relationship'.

*Rem.* It may be observed (1) that these nouns in *hat* are all derived from verbal roots in  $\dot{a}$  final, and are, for the most part, alliterative, and imitative words: and (2) that the  $\Xi$  and the  $\Xi$  are in some dialects frequently dropped.

117. It is to be observed; in the application of the above rules, that each rule is to be regarded as limited by all that has gone before, even though words thus excepted be not expressly mentioned. Thus, e.g., dhobi, 'a washerman', is masc., though not explicitly excepted from § 116 (3), because it is alrendy included under § 111 (8) b.

117. The above rules have especial reference to those words of Sanskrit origin, which make up the chief part of the Hindí language. With regard to the gender of such Arabic and Persian words as occasionally appear in Hindí, the following principles will enable the student, in most cases, to determine their gender.

(1) Most Arabic and Persian words in war a' or r h (Ar. ) or  $s_{\zeta}$ ), are masc.; as rar darya' ( $c_{\zeta}$ ,  $c_{\zeta}$ ), 'a river'; war: khánah  $h(z_{\zeta})$ ,  $\eta = rar gunáh$  ( $s_{\zeta}$ ), 'sin'.

Exc. The following common words are fem., viz.: खत्सा khatá (خطا), 'a fault'; तरह tarah (عرا), 'manner'; दवा dawá (اعر), 'medicine'; दुआ duá (مار عن), 'a prayer'; दुनया dunyá (دنيا), 'the world'; खला balá ( الا), 'a calamity'; बह rúh (رر)), 'spirit'; सलाह saláh (ملح), 'counsel'; सुबह (مبح), 'morning'.

:

(2) A large class of Arabic trisyllables, in which  $\pi$  ta is the first syllable, and  $\pi$  u, the vowel of the last syllable, and which have the final consonant doubled, or the final vowel lengthened, in the second syllable, are masc.; as तपासुक taalluq ( تعلق ), 'connexion'; तासावल taláwat ( تعلق ), 'reading'. The word तावज्जुक 'tawajjuh' (  $\bar{c}, \bar{c}$ ), is an exception. But words of this form, though common in Urdu, are quite rare in Hindí.

(3) Most Arabic and Persian words in स t = and s sh
 ش are fem., as हुकूमस hukúmat (حكرمت), 'government';
 नातिश nálish (نانش).

Exc. The most common exceptions to the above rule are the following, viz.: ग्रोग्रस gosht (کرشت), 'meat'; तख्स takht, Már. सगस (تخت), 'a throne'; दरख्स durakht (درخت), often mispronounced darakhat, and even durkhat, 'a tree'; दस्स dast (دست), 'a hand'; देगस्स dost (درست), 'a friend'; नच naksh (نقش), 'a pioture', 'a print'; खुस but (نت), 'an idol'; वस्स wakt (رقت), often mispronounced wakat, and even wakht: ग्रावेस sharbat (مربت), 'a drink'.

(4) Arabic dissyllables (infinitives) with स ta for the first syllable, and it is as the vowel of the last syllable, are generally fem.; as तद्वार tadbir (تدبير), 'an expedient'; तच्चोच tajwij (تجريز), 'a plan'. तावोच táwij (تجريز), 'an amulet', is masc., but will scarcely be met with in Hindí, except, possibly, in the extreme west.

118. Most compound words follow the gender of the last word; as fraction ishwarechehhá, fem., 'the will of God'; indiana gopináth, masc., 'lord of the milk-maids'.

*Exc.* But the following Tadbhava copulatives, most frequently take the gender of the first word, *viz.*: चालचलन, चालव्यवहार, fem., 'walk', 'behaviour'.

#### FORMATION OF FEMININE NOUNS.

119. Tadbhava masc. nouns in  $\operatorname{sm} \acute{a}$  final\* usually form their feminines by the substitution of  $\stackrel{\bullet}{\ast} \acute{i}$  for  $\operatorname{sm} \acute{a}$ .  $\stackrel{\bullet}{\ast}$  Thus

\* Vid. § 115 (1) N. B. †Always, where the a represents an original akaly.

घोड़ा ghorá, 'a horse', makes घोड़ी ghorí, 'a mare'; खेटा belá, 'a son', खेटी belí, 'a daughter'.

a. A few such nouns, chiefly names of occupations or trades, make the fem. in इन in; as, e.g., कसेरा kaserá, 'a brazier', fem., कसेरिन kaserin; दूल्हा dúlhá, 'a bridegroom', fem., दुल्हिन dulhin, 'a bride'. उठेरा thatherá, 'a brazier', makes the fem., उठेरी thatherí. भटियारा bhatiyárá, 'an inn-keeper', makes its fem., भटियारी bhatiyárí or भटियारिन bhatiyárin.

120. Many nouns ending in a consonant, both Tatsamas and Tadbhavas, also form their feminine by adding the termination i *i*. Examples are, of Tatsamas; i and devi, a goddess', from i a dev; u and putri, 'a daughter', from uputra; anenal bráhmaní, 'a Bráhman woman', etc.: of Tadbhavas, i a i bheri, 'a ewe', from i a bher; i and ari, 'a female monkey', from i at bandar, etc.

121. Masc. nouns in  $\bigstar$  *i* commonly form their feminine by adding = n, the final vowel being previously shortened; as  $\image$  as  $\Huge$  and *dhobi*, 'a washerman', fem.,  $\Huge$  and *máli*, 'a gardener', fem.,  $\blacksquare$  *málin*;  $= n \bigstar$  *nái*, 'a barber', fem.,  $= n \bigstar$ *náin*. Nouns of this class are all Tadbhavas, and commonly denote professions and occupations.

122. Masc. nouns denoting occupations or trades, if ending in a consonant, form the fem. by the suffix इन in or नो ní; as, e.g., सानार sonár, 'a goldsmith', fem., सुनारिन sunárin or सुनारनो sunární; कलार kalár, 'a distiller', fem., कलारिन kalárin or कलारनो kalární.

a. So also, many pure Sanskrit masc. nouns form their fem. in नो ní. These include, especially, many names of animals; as चिंहनो sinhaní, 'a lioness', from चिंह sinh; हिरनो hirní, 'a doe', from हिरन hiran.

Rem. In some cases, i takes the place of a before the termination; as from min 'a serpent', the fem., **minine**. **u**R, 'a husband', makes its fem., **u**R.

a. In like manner is formed (a final vowel being shortened) the fem. of Tatsama nouns of agency in ई i; as दिलकारी hitkárí, 'a friend', fem., दिलकारिको hitkáriní. 123. The suffix बानो dni, is added to Sanskrit nouns, to denote 'the wife of'; as, e.g., पंडिसानो pauditáni, 'the wife of a pundit', from पंडिस paudit; संद्राखो indráni, 'the wife of Indra'. This usage is extended to a very few Persian words; as, especially, निहसरानो militarání, 'the wife of a sweeper', from निहसर ( $j^{2}t^{*}$ ).

124. A few family and class names, much corrupted, form their fem. by adding the suffix আছন *áin*, a final long vowel being rejected. Thus, दाबो dobí, 'a class of Bráhmans', makes its fem., दुखाइन dubáin; **ui**इ pánye, 'a brahmanical title', fem., **पड़ाइन** paráin.

125. As in other languages, the feminine noun is, in many instances, quite a different word from the corresponding mase. term. Examples are, सांड sáur, 'a bull', fem., गायो gáo, 'a cow'; पुरुष purush, 'a man', fem., स्त्री strí, 'a woman'; भाई bhái, 'a brother', fem., बांइन bahin, 'a sister'; पिसा pitá, 'a father', fem., मासा mátá, 'a mother'.

126. Nouns of agency in या retain the same form in either gender; as, e.g., गवेया gauaiyá, 'a singor', सपातिया lapatiyá, 'a liar', masc. or fem.

127. In the fem. term., *i*, as found in Tatsama nouns, we have simply the regular Sanskrit fem. termination. But the same terminations in the fem. of Tadbhava nouns in *á* will be found to represent the Sanskrit fem. term., *iká*. Thus, as, e.g.; ghorá, 'a horse', is for the Sanskrit ghoțakah; so ghorí, 'a mare', is for the Sanskrit ghoțakah; so ghorí, 'a mare', is for the Sanskrit ghoțiká, through an intermediate form, ghoriyá. Similarly, ahírí, 'a cowherdess', from ahír, Sk. ábhírah, has arisen from a Prakritic form abhíriká, whence ahíriá, ahíriyá, ahírí. Tadbhava feminines in n, *in*, ní, have probably all arisen from Sanskrit masc. bases in *in*, fem., *ini*. Thus, *e.g.* málini; dhobin, 'a washerman', masc., dhobí, for a form, dháviní; sunárin or sunární, 'a goldsmith's wife', points to a Sk. masc. base, svarnakárin, (fem. svarnakáriní, for the more common svarnakára.

#### DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

128. Declension respects those modifications of the noun by which are expressed the relations of number and case.

a. Hindí, in common with all the Indo-Aryan languages, has lost the dual, and only recognizes a singular and plural. If, very rarely, we meet a Sanskrit dual form, as, e.g., und pitran, 'parents', from ing, 'father', such forms have no organic connection with the language. 129. The distinctions of number and case are marked, in part, and in a limited and imperfect degree, by certain inflectional changes; and in part, and more precisely, by the addition of certain particles to the base. Practically, Hindí has but one declension, from which certain classes of nouns exhibit slight variations, to be noted below. The following four rules cover all the inflectional changes to which substantives are subject in the standard dialect.

(1) Most Tadbhava masc. nouns in  $\mathbf{w}$   $\mathbf{a}$ , inflect the final vowel to  $\mathbf{v}$  e, and those in  $\mathbf{sit}$   $\acute{an}$ , to  $\mathbf{v}$  en or  $\mathbf{v}$  e, throughout the oblique singular; all other nouns, masc. or fem., are uninflected in the singular. Examples of inflected nouns are the following: कुत्ता kuttá, 'a dog', obl. sing., कुत्ते kutte; ans ghorá, 'a horse', obl. sing., and ghore; nian tánbá, 'copper', obl. sing., nia tánbe; afrai baniyán, 'a shopkeeper', obl. sing., afra baniyen or afra baniye; yan dhúán, 'smoke', obl. sing., घर dhúen. Examples of uninflected nouns are मासी málí, 'a gardener', ut ghar, 'a house', estañ larkí, 'a girl', माता mátá, 'a mother', बिरियां biriyán, 'time', रात rát, 'night', etc., all which, as to form, may be either in the nom. or obl. Similarly all Tatsama masc. nouns in  $\pi$  as use sing. rájá, 'a king'; micen átmá, 'spirit', fucu pitá, 'father', etc., retain the same form unchanged throughout the singular.

*E.rc.* The following Tadbhava mase. nouns remain unchanged in the sing., *viz.*: काका káká, 'a paternal uncle', चचा chachá, 'a maternal uncle', जासा lálá, 'a school-master', 'a title of respect', and a few other nouns expressive of relationship.

a. A few Persian nouns, ending in the obscure  $\circ h$ , follow the analogy of inflected Tadbhavas and make the obl. sing. in  $\mathbf{v} e$ , as, c.g., are: bandah, 'a servant', obl. sing., are bandae.

b. Occasionally the voc. sing., even of inflected Tadbhava masc. nouns, remains uninflected. Thus, 'son !', is either at bete, or at beta.

c. It is difficult to give any rule or rules, by which the beginner,

unacquainted with Sanskrit, may be able infallibly to distinguish Tadbhava masc. nouns in **un**, from Tatsama nouns having the same termination. It will however be of service to observe, that

1st, All nouns of agency and relationship in m, and

2nd, All abstract nouns in आ, including especially a large number of common fem. nouns in सा, and a few in ना (आ), are pure Sanskrit and are never inflected.

On the contrary, most common concrete terms in **un** are Tadbhava and masc., and are inflected as above to **u** throughout the obl. sing. For example, the following, viz.: **and**  $ddt \dot{a}$ , 'a giver', **dimen** *komalt*  $\dot{a}$ , 'softness', **u** *ichchh*  $\dot{a}$ , 'desire', **guan** *trishn*  $\dot{a}$ , 'thirst', are thus indicated as Tatsama nouns and uninflected. But, on the contrary, the concrete terms, **u** *ghar*  $\dot{a}$ , 'a earthen jar', **u** *g an lark*  $\dot{a}$ , 'a boy', **u** *contrary*, the knee', are Tadbhavas, and are inflected to **u** in the obl. sing.

(2) All such masc. nouns as are inflected by the above rule to  $\mathbf{v} \ e \ or \ \mathbf{v} \ en \ \mathbf{n}$  in the obl. sing., retain the same inflection in the nom. plur. In all other masculine nouns the nom. sing. and plur. are alike. Thus  $\mathbf{eqen} \ larka, \ \mathbf{c} \ a \ boy', \ obl.$ sing.,  $\mathbf{eqen} \ larke$ , makes its nom. plur. also  $\mathbf{eqen} \ larke$ , 'boys';  $\mathbf{ne} \ garha'$ , 'a ditch', obl. sing.,  $\mathbf{ne} \ garhe$ , nom. plur.,  $\mathbf{ne} \ garhe$ , 'ditches'.  $\mathbf{singurupaye}$ , or  $\mathbf{suv} \ rupae$ . On the other hand,  $\mathbf{sut} \ ghar$ , 'a house',  $\mathbf{ne} \ yoddha'$ , 'a warrior',  $\mathbf{ne} \ bha'$ , 'a brother', have in the nom. plur., also,  $\mathbf{sut} \ ghar$ , 'houses',  $\mathbf{ne} \ yoddha'$ , 'warriors',  $\mathbf{sut} \ bha'$ , 'brothers'.

a. Although, thus, in many nouns the number is not apparent from the termination, yet practically this will be found to occasion no ambiguity. As in the use of such English words as 'deer', 'sheep', etc., the number is generally quite evident from the context.

(3) All fem. nouns in  $\forall i, \forall i, \exists u, \exists u'$ , make the nom. plur. in  $\forall t u'$ ; all other fem. nouns, in  $\forall cu$ .

a. Observe, that fem. nouns in  $\overline{u}$  a, occasionally, and those in  $\overline{u}$  i, or  $\overline{u}$  i, always, insert a suphonic  $\overline{u}$  y before all such added terminations,  $\overline{u}$  i final before  $\overline{u}$  being regularly shortened. Examples are लड़को larkí, 'a girl', nom. plur., लड़किया larkiyán; विधि vidhi, 'a divine law', nom. plur., विधिया vidhiyán; बस्तु bastu, 'a thing', nom. plur., बस्तुवा bastuán; बाद jorú, 'a wife', nom. plur., चादवा joruán. But बात bát, 'a word', भेड़ bher, 'a sheep', make the nom. plur., बाते báten, भेई bheren.

a. ऋचा richá, 'a sacred ode', and घटा ghațá, 'a heavy cloud', make the nom. plur. either ऋचार richáen, घटार ghatáen, or ऋचाये richáyen, घटार्य ghatáyen.

b. a v is rarely inserted as the euphonic letter instead of u y; chiefly after a labial vowel, as in h a bhauwen, 'eyebrows', nom. plur. of h bhaun; and in one instance, after k i, as in yearent putliwin, for yearent putliyin, 'dolls', 'puppets', from yearent putli.

c. A number of fem. nouns in war iyá, chiefly diminutives, form the plur. by the addition of Anusvár only; as दिलिया țiliyá, 'a young hen', nom. plur., दिलिया țiliyán; दिखिया dibiyá, 'a small box', nom. plur., दिखिया dibiyán; चिडिया chiriyá, 'a bird', nom. plur., चिडिया, chiriyán. Similarly, चिधवा vidhvá, 'a widow', makes the nom. plur., चिधवा vidhván.

d. तार gáe or तासो gáo, 'a cow', and राम rom, 'fine hair', 'down', both reject the final letter before the plur. terminations; as in the nom. plur., तार gácu, रोर rocn.

e. The numerals, when used collectively, either as substantives or adjectives, make the nom. plur. in भो; otherwise, the nom. plur. remains unchanged, as चारो cháron, nom. plur., 'the four', or चारों छोड़े cháron ghore, 'the four horses'; but चार छोड़े chár ghore, 'four horses'.

(4) All nouns whatever, masc. and fem., terminate in  $\overline{w}i$ on, throughout the oblique plural; Anusvár being dropped in the vocative only.

a. In the case of nouns inflected to  $\mathbf{v} \ e$  in the obl. sing., this termination  $\mathbf{v} \ o \ v$  is substituted for the final vowel. If the noun end in  $\mathbf{v} \ i$  or  $\mathbf{v} \ i$ , the vowel, if long, is shortened, and a euphonic  $\mathbf{v} \ y$  is inserted before the termination. A final long  $\mathbf{v} \ u$  is shortened. In all other cases the termination is simply added to the nom. sing. Examples are, of nouns inflected to e in the sing., ener ghorá, 'a horse', obl. plur., ener ghoron, voc. plur., ener ghoro; egen kuttá, 'a dog', obl. plur., egen kutton, voc. plur., egen kutto: of nouns in e and e, fergi billí, 'a cat', obl. plur., fergit billiyon, voc. plur., fergit ; ener dhobí, 'a washerman', obl. plur., ener dhobiyon; fere vidhi, 'a law', obl. plur., fereit vidhiyon: of other nouns, years pustak, 'a book', obl. plur., yearent pustakon; un rát, 'night', obl. plur., unt ráton; ener jorú, 'a wife', obl. plur. ener jorúon; fuen pitá, 'a father', obl. plur., fuenent pitáon.

a. Occasionally we meet with the obl. plurals, देवलों derton, राजों rájon, आरसी átmon, from देवला dertá, 'a deity', राजा rájá, 'a king', आरसा átmá, 'the spirit'; but these forms are incorrect, and have not the sanction of good usage. They correctly follow the usage of all Tatsama nouns, and for the obl. plur. add the termination to the nom. sing., making देवलाओं dertáon, राजाओं rájáon, आरमाओं átmáon.

b. The following nouns, riz.,  $\pi v gác$ , 'a cow',  $\bar{v}\pi rom$ , 'down',  $\pi a gánw$ , 'a village',  $\pi a nánw$ , 'a name',  $\pi a dánw$ , 'a time',  $\pi a panw$ , 'the foot', drop the final letter before the obl. plur. termination. In the last four the Anusvár before the final consonant is also often dropped, so that the obl. plur. of these nouns, becomes  $\pi v \bar{u} gáon$ ,  $\bar{v} \bar{v} \bar{v}$ roon,  $\pi v \bar{u} gáon$ ,  $\pi v \bar{v} \bar{v}$ ,  $\pi v \bar{v} \bar{v}$ ,  $\pi v \bar{v} \bar{v}$ 

130. In the Braj dialect,  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$  is rarely substituted for  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$  in the obl. sing. of Tadbhava nouns in खा, as in मेले for मेले; but more commonly the inflection remains as in High Hindí. A voc. sing. in चा from masc. nouns in  $\mathbf{\dot{s}}$ , is occasionally found, as मालिक्सा, 'O gardener'; स्वामिक्सा, 'O Lord', from माला, स्वामी. In the nom. plur. of fem. nouns,  $\mathbf{\dot{v}}$  is often substituted for  $\mathbf{\dot{v}}$ , as in  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{\dot{n}}$  for  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{\dot{n}}$ , 'nights'. The nom. plur. of fem. nouns in  $\mathbf{\dot{s}}$  is often formed by the addition of Anusvár, as in  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{\dot{u}}$ , for  $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}$ , 'books'; चली, for चलिया, 'friends'. An irregular masc. nom. plur., मरदानया, 'a class of servants', is found in the Prem Ságar. In the obl. plur., क्यों is occasionally criddhied to चौt, as in **uu**t for **uu**t, 'houses'; but, more commonly, the obl. plur. is formed by the termination **न** or **iन**. A final long vowel is shortened before these letters, and **u** sometimes inserted after a final **u**. Examples are, uiui, 'a sinner', obl. plur., uiua, uiua, or uiuua; नारो, 'a woman', obl. plur., नारिन or नारियन; पेड्, 'a tree', obl. plur., पेड्न; uie, 'a foot', obl. plur., uiua.\*

131. In the dialect of the Rámáyan, as in many modern eastern dialects, a final long vowel in nouns is regularly shortened throughout. Thus, for दूल्झा, 'a bridegroom', we have दूलझ; for घड़ा, 'an earthen jar', घट; for नारो, 'a woman', नारे, etc., etc.

a. All nouns whatever, in this dialect, are declined in precisely the same way. The class of (High Hindí) Tadbhava substantives in un does not exist, and all nouns are unchanged in the sing., except that for the acc. or dat., the termination is or is is often added to the uninflected base; thus, that or that, 'Rám', or 'to Rám', giais or giais, 'the sage', or 'to the sage'. In the following, this form is apparently used as an abl.; gais us, and againful tran, 'the king, having made inquiry of his Guru and performed the family rites'. Occasionally, at the end of a line, in old Hindí poetry, we find the termination u, commonly represented by *Anuscár*. It may be added (1) to a nom. sing.; as, ung a duù, 'to-day there is no doubt', in which case it is to be regarded as a neuter termination ; or (2) to an acc. sing., as und guid, 'together with Sugrív'. The voc. sing. is regularly like the nom.

b. The nom. plur. of all nouns, masc. and fem., is like the nom. sing.; the obl. plur. is formed by adding ज, न्द or न्दि, to the nom. sing.; as, from सुनि, 'a sage', obl. plur., सुनिन्द ; सुर, 'a god'; obl. plur., सुरन्दि ; जारि, 'a woman', obl. plur., जारिज. In some instances, आन्द is added after a vowel-termination, the euphonic य being characteristically omitted ; as in कोस्तुक्सिजन्द, dat., 'to the eager', from कोस्तुकि.

c. In a single instance, we find in the Rámáyan a fem. nom. plur. in र, ois., सीई, 'eyebrows', † from सैं. इ is here to be regarded as merely euphonic, in place of the more common य or व. Also we have a single instance of a masc. nom. plur. in आ, in खज्ञानिया, 'musicians'. ‡

d. The following Sanskrit case-forms occur, viz.; masc. instr. sing., खरेन, 'with an arrow'; also सुखेन, used adverbially, 'joyfully'; neut. acc.

‡ सेवक सकल वर्जानयां माना । पूरन किये दान सनमाना, 'the servants all, and the different musicians, he loaded with gifts and honor'.

<sup>\*</sup> For the rejection of  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ , Vid. § 130, (4) b.

<sup>†</sup> मासे सबन कुटिल भई मैडिं, 'angry grew Lakshman, knitted were his eyebrows'.

sing., क्रार्ड, 'Brahma'; masc. abl. sing., पदाद, 'from (their) rank'; neut. loc. sing., मनचि, 'in the heart'; masc. nom. plur., नरा, 'men'; masc. voc. sing., राखन, 'O king !'; fem. voc. sing., चोसे, 'O Sitá !'.

e. In many instances, we find in the Rámáyan the termination जो, added to substantives and words used substantively; as आधामे, जेवे, बजे, etc. This, however, is not a case-ending, but serves merely to emphasize the noun, and is therefore equivalent to the High Hindí emphatic particle, दो; \* e.g., जेवे। जाधिर न जस कहाइ, 'even one blind or deaf would not speak thus'.

132. The Márwárí, as also the other Rájputaná dialects, and the Kumáoní and Garhwálí, exhibits  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\mathbf{1}}$ , instead of  $\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{1}}$ , as the sign of the nom. sing. of all Tadbhava masc. nouns; which, again, is inflected in the obl. sing. to  $\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{1}}$ , instead of  $\mathbf{v}$ , in all the dialects in question. Thus, e.g., for the High Hindí,  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{1}}$ , 'a horse', we have  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{1}}$ , obl. sing.,  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\mathbf{1}}$ . All other nouns agree with the High Hindí throughout the singular.

a. But the case of the agent, in Márwárí nouns of this class, ends in  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ , and to this form no postposition is affixed. Thus we have  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \overline{\mathbf{v}} = \overline{\mathbf{u}}, \overline{\mathbf{v}}, \overline{\mathbf{v}}$ . In all other nouns, the case of the agent sing., is like the nom. All Márwárí nouns have also an inflected loc. sing. in  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ , as, e.g.,  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \mathbf{v}$ , in the house',  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \mathbf{v}$ , on the horse'.

b. The nom. plur. of all Márwárí Tadbhava masc. nouns in चोर, ends in चा. Thus, from चोरड़ा, 'a horse', we have the nom. plur., चोड़ा, 'horses'. Mewárí, Garhwálí, and Kumáoní all follow the same rule. Other Márwárí masc. nouns are unchanged in the nom. plural. All Márwárí fem. nouns make the nom. plur. in चा; ई final, before this termination, is hardened to च. Examples are, चोड़ो, 'a mare', nom. plur., चोड़ग; खास, 'a word', nom. plur., खासा. The obl. plur. form of all Márwárí nouns terminates in चा. The above rules for Márwárí declension apply to all the Rájputáná dialects.

133. The peculiarities of the remaining dialects will be sufficiently clear from the tables of declension. As they have no literature, it is unnecessary to enter into further detail.

134. In strict truth, the rules above given cover the whole subject of the declension of nouns. And it is to be noted, that to a

<sup>\*</sup> This form has apparently arisen from the Braj form,  $h\dot{u}$ , of this particle, by the elision of h, and sandhi of the then concurrent vowels, so that, e.g., ekau is for  $ekah\dot{u}$ .

very limited extent in High Hindí, more freely in Braj poetry and almost constantly in all archaic Hindí, the oblique form of the noun may of itself, without the aid of any additional word, express any of the relations denoted by the seven oblique cases of the Sanskrit. But inasmuch as this scanty declensional system, almost denuded of the ancient Sanskrit case-endings, was found inadequate to express without ambiguity the various relations of the noun in a sentence, certain particles are in the modern dialects regularly appended to the oblique form of the noun. These particles are, most of them, similar to prepositions in English, but as they invariably follow the noun, are accurately termed *post*positions.

135. Although the relation of the noun to these postpositions is certainly less intimate than that of the Latin or Sanskrit caseterminations to the stem, still, reasons of practical convenience have led most grammarians to arrange the declension of the noun after the Sanskrit model in eight cases, as follows; Nominative, Accusative, Dative, Agent, Ablative, Genitive, Locative, and Vocative.

a. What we have termed the case of the Agent, has usually been called, after the terminology of Sanskrit grammars, the Instrumental case. But as, in Hindí, this case never denotes the instrument, but the agent only, it seems better to drop a term which can only mislead.

136. The following table exhibits the postpositions, as they are usually assigned to express the functions of the several cases.

#### TABLE I:

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		High Hindi.	Kanatyi.	Braj.	Márvárí.	Mewdri.
	Acc. Dat.	को, सर्चे.	केा.	कों.	ने.	चे.
	Ag.	ने.	ने.	ने.		•••
bu. with	АЫ.	<b>चे</b> .	चे, चेती.	चें.	ਚ. ਫ	र्च.
	<b>))</b>		ત્તં, તે.	त्ते.	•••	•••
	<b>&gt;</b> >	•••	करि, करके.			•••
2	Gen.	का, infl. को,की.	कोा, infl. को, को.	न्ता, infl. ने, नो.	रेा, infl. रा, रो, रे.	को, infl. <b>का</b> , को, के. †
	<b>3</b> 3	•••			तवा, तवूं, fem. तवा,pl. तवां.	के, infl. का, को, कै.
	»				इंदो, f. इंदी.	•••
W.	Loc.	में.	में, में.	में.	माहे, मार्ड, मांव.	मारे.
n orwin-	<b>&gt;&gt;</b>	पर, प.	पर.	चे.	खपरे.	छपरे.
Þ	>>	तक, तलक.	लेां.	स्ती.	सूघी, साईं.	सूघी, तार्थ.

\* Also, in the Bhatti dialect of Chand, ang. † Among the Mairs, also S Also, among the moderns, ET.

## POSTPOSITIONS.

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Garhwálí.	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Aradhí.	Riváí.	Bhojpúrt.
र्षाब.	र्साब, हुबि, कवि.	कहं,कंह,काहु,* कु,कुं.	क.	कंड.	का, के.
<b>न</b> .	से.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
•••	<b>ર</b> .	सन, सु.	चे,चेनी,चेन.	· • •	ষা.
त्ते.	<b>₫</b> , <b>₽</b> .	त्ते.		तन, ते.	ची.
•••	चे.		 		
<b>का,</b> infl. <b>का, की</b> .	का, infl. का, (को ?)	केर, केरा. केरेा, infl. केर, केरे, केरि.	कर,infl.के.	कर.	कि.
•••		कर, infl. fem. करि.			
•••		<b>क</b> , infl. fem. <b>के</b> .			•••
मां.	में, में.	) मह, मई, माहि, माहि, मांभ, मुई, सुडु, मफारी‡	र्म.	म.	<b>म</b> .
षर.	घर.	पै, परि, उपरि.	पर.	पर.	र्षार.
तलक.	से.	प्रयन्त, लोग. §			

जो, ता, etc. ‡ Also, in Chand, मंस, नंसं, नस, नसं, नदि and मध्य.

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137. Besides the postpositions enumerated in the table, the following may be noted. को, in the acc. sing., is found occasionally in eastern Hindí; it is evidently identical with the termination of the accusative in Bangálí. सेद and सन are sometimes found for the abl. postposition से. से is sometimes colloquially added to से in the Doáb, thus, से से; it emphasizes the idea of 'source', 'beginning'; thus, पहाड़ से से नदी सक, 'quite from the mountain to the river'. दा, (दे, दो,) is the genitive sign in Panjábí; it is, however, occasionally found in books written in western Hindí, as also न (Panj.), acc., for को.

138. The postposition an may be expressed by the English preposion 'to', when indicating the dative case. When it is the sign of the accusative, it is incapable of any separate translation, but gives a certain definiteness to the noun with which it is con-It may be here remarked that the accusative appears in nected. Hindí under two forms, the one being identical with the nominative, the other consisting of the noun, inflected where possible, with the addition of the postposition an. As the sign of the accusative after verbs of motion, को must be translated by 'to', as घर को चलो, 'go to the house'. तर्द is used, in the standard dialect, only with the reflexive pronoun wire, in the form, wird at a state of the state o the sign of the direct object of a verb. Strictly speaking, a is the Engl., 'by', but in rendering into English idiom, it will be found necessary to translate the case of the agent precisely as the nomi-The full explanation of the use of this case is necessarily native. deferred to the chapter on verbs. The abl. postposition, a, is sometimes to be translated 'from' or 'by', and sometimes, 'with'.

139. The gen. postposition, an  $k\dot{a}$ , is, accurately speaking, an adjective particle, equivalent to such English phrases as 'pertaining to', 'belonging to', etc. The noun, by the addition of this particle, is in reality converted into a possessive adjective;\* which, as will hereafter appear, follows the

Inst. Ling. Prac. p. 54.

<sup>\*</sup> The following remarks by Prof. Lassen, well illustrate this point. He speaks of the corresponding Maráthí gen. in *chá*, but his remarks apply equally to the Hindí: 'Mabratthí nimirum non dicunt, '*patris cquum*', '*oppidi cives*', sed '*paternum equum*', '*oppidanos cives*'. Adjectivum autem quum sit, facile apparet cur terminatio pro vario regiminis genere varietur'.

regular rules for the inflection of adjectives, and is made to agree with the noun it defines in gender, number and case.

140. The following rules regulate the use of the three forms of the genitive postposition.

(1) an  $k\dot{a}$  is used before all masc. nouns in the nom. sing., or in that form of the acc. which is the same as the nom. sing.

(2)  $\overrightarrow{\ast}$  ke is used before all masc. nouns when in any case but the nom. sing. The only exception has been stated under rule (1).

(3) and ki is used before all fem. nouns in any case whatever, singular or plural. The following examples will make the matter clear. Thus we say ;—

घोवो का बेटा dhobi ká be!á, 'the washerman's son'. मासो के बेटे máli ke bețe, 'the gardener's sons'.

बरुई के लड़के पर barhaí ke larke par, 'on the carpenter's child'.

रावा के गाओं में rájá ke gáon men, ' in the king's villages'.

पोंडलों का घर panditon ká ghar, ' the house of the pundits'.

कास्वय की पांची bráhman kí pothí, 'the Bráhman's book'.

राजा की साचा पर rájá kí ágyá par, 'on the king's command'.

ईस्टार की खासे ishwar ki báten, 'the words of God'.

यहाड़ों को चाटियों पर paháron kí chotion par, 'on the peaks of the mountains'.

**N.B.** The student will carefully observe that the gender or number of the noun to which the gen. particle is attached, has nothing whatever to do with the inflection of the particle. It is determined solely by the gender, number and case of the *following* noun.

141. Of the various postpositions commonly assigned to the loc. case,  $\vec{\pi}$  is the English 'in'; ut is 'on'; that and there alike denote the limit to which, 'up to', 'as far as'.

a. It should be observed, that, in fact, the locative, like the accusative, has two forms, the one consisting of the oblique form of the noun, singular or plural, with one of the locative postpositions attached; and the other form consisting of such oblique form only, the postpositions being omitted. In the case of uninflected sing. nouns, the latter form will of course be identical with the nom. sing. Thus we may say, उस समय में, or उस समय, 'at that time'; नगर के खोच, or नगर के बोच में, 'in the middle of the city'.

b. That this is a true locative case, is plain from the fact that the d final of the gen. postpositions and of adjectives, is always inflected to e before the form in question, even when it is similar to the nom. sing. Nor is it correct to regard the postposition as in this case arbitrarily omitted. In reality, we have here simply a trace of the ancient inflectional system of declension. The inflectional ending has, indeed, in the majority of nouns. entirely disappeared, leaving the noun, if singular, in form like the nominative, but the real character of the word is discernible from its power to occasion the inflection of any attributive adjunct.

142. The remarks made above as to the meaning and use of the postpositions, apply, for the most part, equally to the corresponding dialectic postpositions. The obl. postposition,  $\vec{n}$ , or  $\vec{n}$ , used in the Braj and other dialects, must always be translated 'from' or 'by', never, 'with'. The Braj form,  $\vec{n}$ , is almost always rendered 'on', but rarely is used in the sense of 'by', where, in High Hindí, we would have  $\vec{a}$ .

143. The gen. postposition appears in the Rámáyan under three different forms, viz., कोर or कोरा, obl. masc., कोरे, fem., कोरि;† कर, inflected, before fem. nouns only, to ant; a, to which we may assign the fem. inflected form, a. As these are apt to confuse the beginner, we give the following examples of the use of each form : un as are an चिंग केंस, 'the Lord said, It is the poison of the moon, brother'; मिटे न जीवन्द केर कलेसा, 'the pain of the creatures is not removed'; परहिलहानि लाभ जिन्द कोरे, 'whose gain is the injury of others' well-being'; स्रोता कोरे करड़ रखवारी, 'guard Sitá', or 'keep a watch of Sitá'; प्रचम भोक्त संतन कर संगा, 'the first (form of) devotion is association with the good.' and is also used before masc. nouns in an oblique case ; इस काइ कर मरहिं न मारे, 'I may not be killed by any one', lit., 'die, killed by any one'; जाकरि तैं दासी से पांचनासी, 'that immortal One, whose handmaid thou art '; नीको सुलसी क, 'the welfare of Tulsi'; उमा संत के सहस बहाई, 'Umá, this is the greatness of the good'. Besides these the regular inflections, and and, are also found in the Rámáyan; so also, rarely, the Kanaují gen. sign, को, and the Braj, को. The numerous

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Syntax. + Also, metri gratiâ, केरी.

forms of the loc. postposition scarcely require illustration, as they are not likely to be confounded with other words. The Sanskrit प्रयंस, often corrupted to प्रजंस, in the sense of लक, 'up to', is rarely met; an example is योजन एक प्रजंस, 'for as far as a yojan'.

144. The Márwárí forms call for little remark. The gen. postpositions, रो, रा, रो, correspond in usage respectively to का, को, को, in the standard dialect ; with the single exception, that when the gen. denotes possession or duty, t is used before masc. nouns in the obl. sing., instead of रा. The same remarks apply to the use of को, का, को, etc., in Mewarí. Examples are, खठाठ रेा सिरदार डूंग जो है, 'the ruler of Bathoth is Dung Ji'; a ज़ाझवा रे घर गोया, 'he went to the Brahman's house'; दश इजार रो रेक्सड, 'ten thousand of treasure'. क. for की. (=का,) is occasionally found, as देवन कं देव, 'the god of gods'. The gen. postpositions, त्रवो and इंदो (=का,) so far as we are aware, are used only in poetry. Examples are, ध्रवां इंदी जास=ध्ररं का जहाज, 'a steamer'; दिल्ली तबा नवाब, 'the Nawab of Delhi'. तने। (for तबा) occurs, in one instance only, in the Prem Ságar, with the 2nd pers. pron., ma-तनी, 'your', for लुम्हारा. माहि, often माई. (=में,) 'in', in Már. is regularly used as a postposition, as use uneil mile, 'dust on the turban'; but it more rarely occurs in its primitive sense as a substantive, in construction with a preceding genitive, as Heran an Hile, 'in the country', for सुलक माहि=सुलू में; कैद रे माहि, 'in captivity',=कैद में. The same usage with the dialectic equivalents of a occasionally occurs in the Rámáyan and other archaic Hindi poetry. In the colloquial, gui is often treated as a predicative adjective, and is then made to agree with the subject of the sentence in gender and number. Thus they say, बाबयो गाम मुखो गये।, 'the shopkeeper went as far as the village'; घोखिन ताल मुधी गयी, 'the washerwoman went as far as the lake'. The following sentences illustrate the remaining Már. postpositions : इंगर सिंगने पकड़ लेगया, 'he has seized and carried off Dúngar Sing'; चढ़ि किला जपरे, 'having climbed upon the fort'. जपरे is sometimes construed with the genitive, like माहि, as घोड़ा के जपरे, 'on the horse'. षुं is used like से, as अनग्रेज सुं करी लड़ाई, 'he fought with the English'.

145. In western Hindí, I have met an acc. and dat. postposition ना, =का. It is evidently connected with the corresponding Már. ने, Panj. नूं. दा as the gen. postposition, is the regular substitute for का in Panjábí; it is found very rarely in western Hindí. करको, though 10 really a participle from करना, 'to do', or 'make', is colloquially used as a postposition with the inflected forms of both nouns and pronouns, throughout the Ganges valley. It is equivalent to से in the sense of 'from' or 'by'; it is never to be rendered 'with'. Thus we may say, und करको रोइस, 'free from sin', for und से रोइस or und रोइस. But in the following from the *Rámáyan*, it is equivalent to में, 'in'; सर सम स्तो मासु सरको, 'fastened like arrows in (his) mother's breast'. तोड़ी very rarely occurs as a dialectic substitute for सक.

146. The word  $\overline{\operatorname{enn}} \log$ , Sk. and Garh.,  $\overline{\operatorname{ens}}$ , is appended to plural nouns when it is intended to denote the plural as a class. The plural inflection is then added, not to the noun itself, but to the appended  $\overline{\operatorname{enn}}$ . In the case of inflected Tadbhavas in  $\overline{\operatorname{enn}}$ , the noun is inflected to  $\overline{\operatorname{e}} e$  before the word  $\overline{\operatorname{enn}}$ , whether in the nom. or obl. plur. In all other cases, the noun in connection with  $\overline{\operatorname{enn}}$  remains uninflected.

Examples are, nom. plur., राजा लोग rájá log, 'kings', as a class; धोबो लोगों में dhobí logon men, 'among washermen'; कांव लोगों का kavi logon ko, 'to poets'. Thus, such a phrase as 'ten kings came', we must translate, दस राजा खार das rájá áe, as there is no reference to kings as a class; but the phrase, 'kings are wealthy', as referring to the class, 'kings', must be translated, राजा लोग धनो देाले दें rájá log dhaní hote hain.

a. This usage of the word सोग is properly confined to nouns denoting persons, though it is occasionally used, perhaps jocosely, in reference to animals, by the common people, who might say, e.g., बंदर सोग bandar log, much as we would say, 'the monkey folk'. It has indeed been strenuously denied that सोग is ever used except in reference to persons, but the word occurs with सृग in the following phrase from the Rámáyan; सृग सोग सरेन हिर, 'they killed deer with the arrow'.

b. The word लोग is often used alone where in English we have 'they', in the sense of 'people, in general'; as लोग कहते हैं, 'they say', =French, 'on dit'. लोग has also a feminine form, लुगाई, 'woman', but this is never appended as a sign of plurality to other nouns.

c. Besides साम, the word **गय**, 'host', is also occasionally added to nouns to denote plurality, but its use in prose is rare, and is restricted

to a few nouns, as, e.g., देवला गय, 'the gods', लारा गय, 'the stars', etc. The word सख, 'all', is also colloquially added as a sign of plurality, instead of लोग, in some eastern dialects.

147. In poetry, besides गव, many other words also are appended to nouns as indicative of plurality or multitude. The most common are the following, viz. : युंद, as भूधर युंद, 'mountains'; जन, as भक्त जन, 'worshippers'; निकर, as रविकर निकर, 'sunbeams'; संकुल, as तंतु संकुल, 'animals'; ज्ञाल, as ऋषि ज्ञाल, 'sages'; समूह, as पाप समूह, 'sins', i.e., 'the whole of my sins'; समाज, as संत समाज, 'the good', i.e., 'the assemblage of the good'; सदय, as भट खदय, 'warriors'; समुदाई, as वटु समुदाई. 'young Brahmins'; ठाल, as कांप ठाल, 'the monkeys'; साख, as 's कांघ सोख, 'sins'. The word सावली is added to a few nouns to denote order in a line; as रामावली, 'the line of hair along the breast bone'; बलकावली, 'a flock of cranes', as always flying in a line. Two nouns of plurality are occasionally appended to a word, as निसचर निकर खदय, 'a multitude of demons'.

a. In many cases the noun of plurality may be translated, 'assemblage', 'multitude', 'flock', etc., but very often it will be found that English idiom will only admit the translation of the noun as a simple plural. The above words are by no means all equivalent to ena, nor are they all used interchangeably among themselves.

148. As Hindí has no article, the distinction indicated in English by the definite and indefinite article, cannot always be expressed in Hindí. चाड़ा may be either 'a horse' or 'the horse'; स्विया may be 'women' or 'the women'. The indefinite article may be sometimes rendered by the numeral एक, 'one', or the indefinite pronoun, कोई, 'some', 'any'; but it is oftener incapable of translation. The definite article, occasionally, when strongly demonstrative, may be expressed by the remote demonstrative pronoun, वह. In the case of nouns in the accusative, the force of the definite article may be often expressed by the use of the form with का, as चाड़े का, which may mean, 'the horse'. But the student must not therefore understand that the acc. with का is always to be rendered with the definite article.

149. In exhibiting the declension of nouns according to the foregoing rules, it will be convenient to classify them according to gender in two declensions, each of which has two varieties.

The first declension will comprise all masculines. Of this declension the first variety will include all Tadbhava\* nouns in an or at which are inflected in the obl. sing. to  $\mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{v}$ , and the second variety, all other masculine nouns. Nouns of the first variety are declined like

### Elsi ghorá, 'a horse'.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

N. चार ghore, 'horses'. N. **Dist** ghorá, 'a horse'. Ac. घोडा ghorá or घोड़े की ghore ko, Ac. Bis ghore or Bisi an ghoron ko. 'horses' or 'to horses'. 'a horse', or 'to a horse'. D. Elis an ghore ko, ' to a horse'. D. Bisi an ghoron ko, 'to horses'. Ag. चोडे ने ghore ne, 'by a horse'. Ab. घोडे से ghore se, ' from a horse'. घोडे का (के or की) ahore ká (ke G. or ki,) 'of a horse', 'horse's'. L. घोडे में, पर, तक, तलक, ahore men, par, tak, talak, etc., 'in, on, to a horse'. 'in. on. to horses'. V. E Bie he ghore, 'O horse'. V. E Eler he ghoro, 'O horses'.

a. The second variety of masculine declension includes all other masculine nouns of whatever termination, and may be represented by an ghar, 'a house'. It differs from the above, only in that the inflection of the noun is confined to the oblique plural. As the postpositions are the same with all nouns, it will be unnecessary to give the remaining paradigms in detail. It will be remembered that the second form of the loc. is like the nom.

	घर	ghar.	' &	house	'.
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SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N. Ex ghar, 'houses'. N. Ex ghar, 'a house'. Ac. घर ghar or घर को ghar ko, Ac. घर ghar or घरों को gharon ko, 'a house' or 'to a house'. ' houses' or ' to the houses'.

\* Vid. § 60.

- Ag. घोडों ने ghoron ne, 'by horses'.
- Ab. Bisit & ghoron se, 'from horses'.
- G. Bisian (man or man) ghoron ká (ke or ki), 'horses' or 'of horses'.
- L. घोडों में, पर, तक, तलक ghoron men, par, tak, talak, etc.,

So also is declined the Tatsama noun,

राजा rájá, 'a king'.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N. राजा rájá, 'the king'. N. राजा rájá, 'kings'.

Ac. राजा rájá or राजा को rájá ko, Ac. राजा rájá or राजाओं को rájáon 'the king'. ko, 'the kings'.

So also decline masc. nouns ending in any other vowel, as the following:

माली málí, 'a gardener'.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N. माली málí, 'a gardener'. N. माली málí, 'gardeners'.

Ac. माली máli or माली को máli ko, Ac. माली máli or मालियों को máliyon 'a gardener'. ko, 'gardeners'.

चिच्छ bichchhú, 'a scorpion'.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N. ang bichchhú, 'a scorpion'. N. ang bichchhú, 'scorpions'. Ac. बिच्छ bichchhú or बिच्छ की bich- Ac. बिच्छ bichchhú or बिच्छुयों की chhú ko, 'a scorpion'. bichchhuon ko, 'scorpions'.

150. The second declension comprises all feminine The first variety includes all feminines in **w** i. nouns.  $\frac{1}{2}i$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}u$  or  $\frac{1}{2}u$ ; the second variety, all other feminines.

As an example of the first variety, we may take

पोची pothí, 'a book'.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N. पाची pothí, 'a book'.

N. **unut** pothiyán, ' books'.

PLURAL.

Ac. dist pothi or dist an pothi ko, Ac. dissui pothiyan or dist an 'a book'. pothiyon ko, 'books'.

Like **druf** is declined

N. wie ánsú, 'a tear'.

wig ánsú, 'a tear'.

SINGULAR.

N. migmi ánsuán, 'tears'.

Ac. सांसू ánsú or सांसू को ánsú ko, Ac. सांसुमा ánsuán or सांसुमों को 'a tear'. ánsuon ko, 'tears'.

a. The second variety of fem. declension may be illustrated by the word

रात rát, ' night'.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
N. रास rát, 'night'.	N. रासे ráten, ' nights'.
Ac. रास rát or रास को rát ko,	Ac. रासें ráten or रातों को ráton ko,
'night'.	'nights'.

As an example of fem. nouns in an we take

माला mátá, 'a mother'.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL. ['mothers'.
N.	माला mátá, ' a mother'.	N. मासारं mátáen or मासा mátá, *
Ac.	माला mátá or माला को mátá	Ao. मातारं mátáen or माताचों को
	ko, 'a mother'.	mátáon ko, 'mothers'.

151. The following tables present the chief forms of dialectic declension. It will be noticed that the case of the Agent is wanting in the modern eastern dialects given, vis., the Avadhí, Riwáí and Bhojpurí. The peculiar construction with  $\bar{a}$ , elsewhere referred to, is distinctively a western idiom, and is not found in the local speech much east of Cawnpore. In the column representing the Old Púrbí of the Rámáyan, the word **uz**, (for the regular form, **uṣ**, 'an earthen jar',) is taken as a representative of the declension instead of  $\bar{a}$ r, which, though universally employed in the modern dialects, does not occur in the Rámáyan.

152. It is to be observed that not only in the old Púrbí, as indicated in the tables, but in most Hindí poetry, the postpositions, though sometimes used, are as often omitted, and the oblique form of the noun, if there be such, or if not, the nom. form, may represent any one of the cases. The same peculiarity appears, though to a much more limited extent, in some Braj prose. This omission of the postpositions is not to be regarded as mere poetic license. The classic poetry, which is still held as the model for poetical composition, presents the language at a much earlier stage than the modern Hindí. Tulsí Dás, whose *Rámáyan* is held as the standard of poetical excellence, wrote in the latter half of the l6th century. Kabír, whose writings are also highly esteemed, wrote over a hundred years before Tulsí Dás. In this old Hindí poetry we see the Prákrit speech just at, or rather just past, a transition

<sup>\*</sup> The more common form.

period. In its last stage of decay the ancient case-terminations had been almost all lost, so that one form, very often the ancient genitive, had to express all the various relations formerly distributed among six cases. It was out of this state of things that the modern system of declension by postpositions, not all-at once, but gradually arose, as it was felt to be demanded by the utterly decayed state of the language. The ancient Hindí poetry exhibits the language just at the beginning of this period of grammatical reform. Postpositions are indeed used, but sparingly as compared with modern Hindí prose, and the Prákrit system of declension still largely prevails. But this ancient declension, so abraded and worn out as scarcely to deserve the name, is accurately represented not by eight, but by two, or, if we count a vocative which now and then appears, three cases only. The recognition of this is essential to the grammatical understanding of ancient Hindí verse.

153. As the various forms of declension, except the first, agree in all cases but the nom. plur., we give only one paradigm in full. The dialectic declension of nouns belonging to the second variety of High Hindí declension, differs from that of other masc. nouns, only in the omission of the inflection in the obl. sing. and nom. plur., as in the standard dialect. It is therefore unnecessary to give any separate paradigm of nouns of this class. The few forms in brackets are supplied from analogy.

#### DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

#### TABLE II:

घोड़ा, 'a horse';

		High Hindí.	Kanauji.	Braj.	Márvárí.	Mewart.
		High		B	W	·
	N.	चेाड़ा.	चोड़ा.	घोड़ा.	घोड़ा.	घोड़ेा.
	Ac.	घोड़े का.	घोड़े का.	घोड़े की.	घोड़ा नै.	घोड़ा रे.
	D.	घोड़े की.	घोड़े को.	घोड़े की.	घोड़ा नै.	घोड़ा रे.
AR.	Ag.	घोड़े ने.	घोड़े ने.	घोड़े नें.	घोड़े.	घोड़े.
SINGULAR.	Ab.	घोड़े से.	घोड़े तें.	घोड़े } से. त.	घोड़ा र्यू.	घोड़ा जं.
	G.	घोड़े का.	घोड़े का.	घोड़े की.	घोड़ा रो.	घोड़ा)को, गो, को.
	L.	घोड़े (में. पर.	घोड़े (में. पर.	घोड़े}में. परि.	(घोड़ा)माई. (घोड़ा, )जपरे.	) घोड़ा मारे. ) घोड़े.
	<b>V</b> .	घोड़े.	घोड़े.	घोड़े.	घोड़ा.	घोड़ा.
	N.	घोड़े.	घोड़े.	घोड़े.	घोड़ा.	घोड़ा.
	Ac.	घोड़ों का.	घोड़न को.	घोड़ीं ) घोड़ीन) कीं.	। घोड़ां नै.	घोड़ां रे.
	D.	घोड़ों का.	घोड़न का.	घोड़ीं ) घोड़ीन) की.	घोड़ां नै.	घोड़ां रे.
Plural.	Ag.	घोड़ों ने.	घोड्न ने.	घोड़ीं घोड़ान) ने.	घोड़ा.	घोड्रां.
	Ab.	घोड़ों से.	घेाड़न से.		घोड़ा सूं.	घोड़ा चं.
	G.	घोड़ी का.	घोड़न को.	घोड़ीं) घोड़नि)	घोड़ां रेा.	 घोड़ां¦का, गा,   की.
	L.	धोड़ों)में. घोड़ों )पर.	घोड़न}र्म. घाड़न{पर.	घोड़ी ∂में. घोड़नि) परि.	(घोड़ां (माहे. (घोड़ां, (जपरे	(घोड़ां मारे. (घोड़ां.
	<b>v</b> .	घोड़ा.	घोड़ेा.	घोड़े.	घोड़ां.	घोड़ां.

\*Although, in this dialect, the postpositions are regularly and commonly But nc, the postposition of the agent, is never used.  $\dagger$  Besides the word sab, to n or nt.  $\ddagger$  Either of these forms may be declined throughout. In the

## DIALECTIC MASCULINE DECLENSION. Púr. uz=H. H., uz, 'a jar'.

		<u> </u>			
Garhwall.	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Aradhí.	Riváí.	Bhojpúrí.
धोड़ा.	घोद्रा.	घट.	(घोड्वा. घोड्‡ (घोड्राना,	ध्वाड़.	घोर, घोरा.‡
घोड़ा सबि.	घोड़ा कवी.	घटहि.	घोड्वा क.	ध्वाड़ कंई.	घोर }को. के.
घोड़ा रवि.	घोड़ा कवी.	घटाइ.	घोड्वा क.	घ्वाड़ कंइं.	घोर }को. को.
घोड़ा ने.	घोड़ा ले.	घट. *	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
घोड़ा ते.	घोड़ा <b>है,</b> etc.	घट.	घोड़वा से.	घ्वाड़ ते.	घोर}ेची. घोर, घो.
घोड़ा का.	घोड़ा को.	घट.	घोड़वा कर.	ध्वाड़ कर.	घोर <b>क</b> .
घोड़ा मा.	घोड़ा मा.	घट.	घोड़वा } म. मा.	ध्वाड़ म.	घोर }में. परि.
(घोड़ा).	(घोड़ा).	घट.	घोड्वा, etc.	च्याड्.	घोर.
<b>घोड़ा</b> .	( <b>घ्रोड़ा</b> ).	घट.	) घोड्यन, ) घोड्रानन.	घ्वांड्.	घोर सब.
घोड़ैां संबि.	घोड़ां कयी.	(घटन्हि, घटन. (घटन्ह,	घोड़वन क.	घ्वांड़न कंइं	घोर सब को.
घोड़ें। संबि.	घोड़ां कयी.	(घटन्हि, घटन. (घटन्ह,	घोड़वन क.	घ्वांड़न कंइं	घोर खब को.
घोड़ें। न.	घोड़ां से.	घटन्डि, घटन. घटन्ड,	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
घोड़ें। ते.		)घटन्हि, घटन. (घटन्ह,	घोड़वन से.	घ्वांड़न ते	घोर सब}रों. घोर
घोड़ें। का.		)घटन्हि, घटन. (घटन्ह,	घोड़वन कर.	घ्वांड्न कर	घोर सब क.
घोहैं। मा.	घ्रोड़ा }मा. पर.	घटन्दि, घटन. घटन्द,	घोड़वन } मा. म.	घ्वांड्न म.	घोर सब)में. प्रार
(घोड़ा).	(घोड़ा).	(घटन).	घोड्वन.	घ्वांड़े.	घोर सब.

omitted, yet they are occasionally added to the base, as in the other dialects. log is also added to denote plurality; rarely the noun is inflected in the plural Avadhí plural, ghorěn is also used.

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	Rivát.	नारी.	नारी कंइं.		Riváí.	नारी.	नारियन }क. नारिनि कॅंडे. नारित श्रैक. नारिनि कॅंडे.
	Avadhí.	(नारिया. (नारीवा.	नारिया) नारीवा)	•	Avadhí.	नारियन. नारित.	नारियन ( <del>य</del> . नारित <sup>(क.</sup>
	Old Purbl.	नार्.	नारिह.		Old Purbi.	मार्ग.	नारित. नारित्ह. नारित्ह.
	Kumáoní.	नारी.	नारी कथी.		Kumáoní.	नारियां.	नारिन कथो.
.R.	Garhvoâls.	बारी.	नारी सचि.	Ŀ	Garhwâlt.	नाती.	 नारियो सन्ति, नारिन कर्खा.
SINGULAR.	Mewárt.	बारी.	नारी हे.	PLURAL.	Mewdri.	नार्वा.	नायी रे.
	Márwárí.	नारी.	नारी है.		Márwárí.	नार्वो.	नार्था ने.
	Braj.	नारी.	नारी कीं.		Braj.	(नारी. (नारियां.	नारियों। नारियान नारियान नारित
	Kananji.	नाती.	नारी के।.		Kanaují.	नारी.	नारिन क्षे।
	High Hindh.	नारी.	नेगरी की।.		High Hindí.	नारिया.	मारियों की।.
		'n.	Ac.			N.	Ac.

1st Variety; नारी, 'a woman'.

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## **DIALECTIC FEMININE DECLENSION.**

# 2nd Variety; and, 'a thing'.

					SINGULAR.	AR.				
	High Hindí.	Kanuuji.	Braj.	Márwárí.	Mewdrí.	Garhwálí.	Kumáoní.	Kumáoní. Old Púrbí.	Ava dhí.	Biwáś.
	बात.	बात.	बात.	ब्रात.	ब्राप्त.	बात.	बात.	बात.	बात.	
	बात को.	बात को.	बात की.	खात मे.	बात थे.	बाल सींच.	बात कची.	बातीडु.	बात क.	<b>वा</b> ल कंई.
					PLURAL.	AL.				
	High Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	Márwârí.	Mewárí.	Garhwálí.	Kumáoní. Old Púrbí.	Old Púrbí.	Avadhí.	Riwáł.
	बाते.	बार्त.	खार्त्र.	बालां.	बात्तां.	बात.*	बात.†	बात.	बात.	बात.
	बाते का.	बातन को। 	बासन (क्रो. बासनि (क्रो.	बातां ने.	बातां रे.	बात सीच.	बासन क्षेची.	बालन. बालनि. बालन्ह.	बातन क.	बात कंई.
	inherent h a final a í, that it v	a of the ulti . + So in t rould be pr	The inherent $a$ of the ultimate is sounded; pronounce, $bdta$ . such a final $a$ . $+$ So in the only book I have seen; I should wálí, that it would be pronounced $bdta$ .	nded; pron ok I have se ita.	ounce, <i>báta.</i> en ; I shoul		The inherent $a$ of the ultimate is sounded; pronounce, $bdta$ . A special character is used in Garhwalf to denote such a final $a$ . $+$ So in the only book I have seen; I should suppose, from the analogy of the contiguous Garhwalf, that it would be pronounced $bdta$ .	used in Ga gy of the	srhwálí to contiguous	denote Gaŗh-

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#### DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

### Origin of the Declensional forms.

154. In all Tatsama nouns and many Tadbhavas, the distinctive termination of the Sanskrit nom. sing., has entirely disappeared in modern High Hindí. In archaic and poetic Hindí, as also in Naipálí and other Himalayan dialects, u final often remains in masc. nouns, where it represents the Prák. termination o, for the Sk. ah; as, e.g., in desu, for Prák. deso, Sk. deshah, H. H. desh; and láhu, Prák. láho, Sk. lábhah, H. H. lábh.\*

a. Tadbhava masc. nouns in  $\dot{a}$ , inflected to e in the sing., always represent Sanskrit or Prákrit nouns formed by adding the affix ka to bases in a. This added k was first rejected by § 78, and then the concurrent vowels were combined. Thus, e.g., for the Sk. ghafa, we have a Prák. theme, ghafaka, nom. sing., ghafakab, whence, by §§ 78, 69, c., k being rejected, and the final akchanged to o, we have a form gharao, which by Sandhi, yields first a form in au, the common Braj termination; which, again, is softened to o in gharo, as in most western dialects, and is finally reduced to  $\dot{a}$  in the High Hindí form, ghará. By a similar process, we obtain in succession from the Sk. melakah, for melab, the forms, melao, Már. melo, H. H. melá.

b. Tadbhava nouns fem. in i commonly stand for Sanskrit or Prákrit nouns ending in the fem. affix  $ik\acute{a}$ , whence have arisen, successively, forms in  $i\acute{a}$  and  $iy\acute{a}$ ,  $\dagger$  By a similar process are explained the Avadhí fem. nouns in  $iv\acute{a}$ ; as, e.g., nadivá, (H. H. nadí,) which presupposes a Prák. theme, nadiká. After the same analogy are derived fem. nouns in i, as, e.g., bálúi, for Sk. báluká, whence, Prák. báluá, Av. báluyá, H. H. bálú. Similarly we explain a few Tadbhava masc. nouns in i and i; as, e.g., from Sk. dhávikah, H. H. dhobí, through intermediate forms, dhávio, dhobiyá, and also, H. H. bichchhú, for a Prák. form, vinchhuo, for vulgar Sk. vrishchukah, for vrishchikah.

155. Except in the case of inflected Tadbhava masc. nouns in  $\dot{a}$ , the Hindí has retained, in the sing., no trace of the old Sanskrit or Prákrit declensional system. In the case of these nouns in  $\dot{a}$ , the original addition of the affix ka, has served so far to retard the process of phonetic decay, as to preserve in the obl. sing. termination e, the remainder of the Sk. gen. sing. Thus, e.g., the gen. sing. of the Sk. ghotakab, has successively passed through the following changes, all of which are explicable by principles laid down in Chap III, viz.; Sk. gen. sing. ghotakasya, Prák. ghodakassa, ghodaassa, ghodaáha, ghodaá, and, y being euphonically inserted, ghoraya, whence H. H. obl. sing. ghore.  $\ddagger$  In the Márwárí and some other dialects, y apparently was not inserted, so that

\* Vid. §§ 63, 75, 75, a. In Bhagelkhandí, as represented in the Baptist translation of the N. T., Serampore, 1821, this u is added, from analogy, even to Arabic and Persian nouns, as, e.g., shaksu, shahru, for shakhs, shahr.

<sup>+</sup> Vid. §§ 77, b. (1), 127. ‡ Vid. §§ 77, 77 b.

from the sandhi of the concurrent vowels,  $a\dot{a}$ , we have the obl. sing., ghorá. In such eastern forms as ghoravá, v, instead of y, has apparently been inserted in the place of the lost k.

b. I am inclined to think that the hi or hin which we find in the obl. sing., in archaic Hindí, is to be identified with the same termination which occurs in the loc. sing. of certain Prákrit dialects, as, e.g., in aggihin, for Sk. agnes, H. H. *dg men.* It is thus to be derived, through the intermediate form, *mhin*, from the Sk. loc. sing. term., *smin*, which, although in Sauskrit found only in pronominal declension, in some forms of Prákrit is assumed by substantives also. I have indeed noted no example of the use of this termination in the objective construction of nouns in Prákrit; but as such instances do occur in the case of the pronouns, we are justified in assuming such an extension of the use of the loc. in the case of nouns also. The only other hypothesis of the origin of this termination, which would connect it with the Sk. gen. sing. term., *sya*, fails to account for the final *Anusvár*; nor, so far as I have observed. does the Hindí form in question ever occur, like the termination *e*, in a genitive construction with the postpositions.

156. The nom. plur. in e, of Tadbhava nouns in a, might possibly have arisen from the Sk. nom. sing. neut. term. ani, which was often assumed in Prákrit by masc. nouns.\* On this supposition, we must refer the dialectio nom. plur. in d to the Sk. masc. nom. plur. term. ds. But, on the whole, I am inclined to prefer Dr. Hoernle's suggestion, that the inflected nom. plur. of the nouns in question is, in fact, identical with the obl. sing.; *i. e.*, it is originally a gen. sing., so that we are to understand this as really an elliptical expression, leaving *log*, *vrind*, or some such noun of multitude to be supplied. This hypothesis explains both forms of the masc. nom. plur. inflection, as also such rare and now vulgar idioms as *kutte log*, *etc.* In the Bhagelkhandi N. T. we find the modern gen. plur. *tihágre*, of the 2nd personal pronoun, similarly assumed into the nom.

a. The fem. nom. plur. in *áy*, stands for the Prák. term. *á*, Sk. *ás*. Thus makkhiyáy, is for the Prák. makkhiá, Sk. makshikás. The inserted y evidently marks the place of the lost k, all trace of which has disappeared from the sing.

b. The origin of the fem. nom. plur. in ep, is more obscure. It may possibly have arisen from the Sk. neut. nom. plur. term. in *ání*, which, according to Prof. Lassen, was sometimes assumed in Prákrit, even by fem. nouns. From the Prákrit form of this termination, *áip*, *ep* and *aip* might easily have arisen by contraction.<sup>+</sup> But this is not certain. The Garhwálí fem. nom. plur. in *a* is evidently derived immediately from the corresponding Prákrit termination, *á*.

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Lassen Inst. Ling. Prac. § 164, 17; 175, 7.

<sup>+</sup> Vid. Lassen Inst. Ling. Prac. § 95, 1.

157. The various forms of the obl. plur. in on, aun, dn, an, ani, are all to be explained as different corruptions of the Sanskrit gen. plur. termination in *dm*. In the forms in op and *aup*, the *m*, as often, has been, as it were, separated into its labial and nasal elements, whence the labial diphthong. The n which appears in various dialectic forms, is identical with the n which in Sanskrit was regularly inserted before the gen. plur. termination, after all bases ending in vowels. The final i in the Braj plur. is probably due to a weakening of a final a, so that, e.g., putrani is for putrana, for Sk. putránám (Prák. Similarly, from syár, Prák. siálo, Sk. shrigálah, we have the gen. pudánap). plur. forms, Prák. sidlánap, H. siyárop, syáraup and syáran; and from nadí, nadiuon, as if for a form nadikánám (Prák. náinan), whence, k being dropped, as above, we may derive the various forms, nadiyon, nadiyan, etc. The Braj and Kan. obl. plur. forms in n, as pápin, for pápiyon or pápiyan, have probably arisen from the simple base, as those longer forms, from the increased base in ka; so that, e.g., pápin stands for an original pápinám, but pápiyon, etc. for an original pápikánám.

a. The origin of the obl. plur. forms in nh and nhi, is obscure. Mr. Beames suggests that they have arisen from a confusion between the common plural in n, and the Prák. plur. term. hin, said to be still preserved in Maráthí. The student is referred to Vol. II. of Mr. B's. Comparative Grammar, where he will find the question fully discussed.

## Origin of the Postpositions of declension.

158. The explanation of the genitive postpositions will best precede that of the dat. and acc. postposition, *ko*. The origin of these genitive postpositions has long been one of the vexed questions of Hindí philology; but Dr. Hoernle of Benarcs, in a late able essay, may be regarded as having at last reached a solution of the problem. For the exhibition of his conclusive argument, we refer the reader to the essay in question,\* and here briefly note the results of his investigation.

The various forms of the Hindí gen. postposition, viz. ká, kau, ko, ka, kar, kero, kerá, ker, dá, go, ro, lo, are all corruptions of Prákrit modifications of krita, the Sk. past part. of krí, 'to do'.

This participle received in Prákrit the addition of the common affix ka, so that by the elision of t, and change of ri to er, it assumed the form keraka or kerika. In Prákrit, this participle was often used after a gen. noun, with which it was made to agree, but without any modification of the sense. Thus it came at last to supplant the gen. termination, and became itself a sign of the gen. case, as it is to-day in Hindí. From kerakah, we obtain the Hindí postpositions kero, kerá, ker, precisely as we have ghoro, ghorá, and ghor, from ghotakah:

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Journ. As. Soc. of Bengal, Part. I; No. II, 1872.

and, ar instead of er being substituted for the ri of krita, from karakah, we derive the forms kara, kar. These are therefore the oldest forms of the Hindí postposition. In the case of the 1st and 2nd personal pronouns in High Hindí, and in Márwárí universally, the initial k and the final k of karakah, or kerakah having both been elided, the forms ro and rá remained. The Braj, Kanaují and High Hindí forms, kau, ko, ká may have arisen, either from the forms above given, cr from another Prák. form of krita, viz, kidah or kadah which would yield, by the elision of d, kau, ko, vid, or by the elision of the initial k, as in the case of the Márwárí gen sign., dd, which is the form in Panjábí. The Márwárí postposition, lo, may be compared with another Prákritie form of this same word, kelaka, for keraka. This theory of the origin of these postpositions accounts for all the forms that I have met, except the very rare old Márwárí forms, tanau, and hundo, regarding which I have no satisfactory suggestion to make.

159. The analogy of the gen. postpositions will lead us to a probable theory as to the dat. postpositions, kaup, kop, ko, kup, ku, kai. The same Prákrit participle, keraka, which came to be the sign of the gen., was also used in the forms kerakam and kerake, (kritam, krite.) as the sign of the dative. And if these forms were so used, it is as likely that the Prákrit equivalents, kadam or kade, might have been so used. From the former of these, by elision of d, I would derive the Braj dat. sign, kaun,\* whence we have the High Hindí, ko, just as in the infinitive, we have the Kan. karno, for the Braj, karnaup. The eastern form ke has probably arisen from kade. By a similar process, may also probably be derived the Már. dat. and acc. sign nai, from another Prákrit form, kinne, of the same participle, krite, the initial k being rejected, just as, in this same dialect, in deriving ro from kerakah. The corresponding Mew. postposition, ai, is apparently a still further reduction of the same affix, by the elision of n.

a. The dat. and acc. postpositions, with a medial aspirate, viz., kahúy, káhú, kahay, kayh, may perhaps, as Dr. Hoernle suggests, have arisen from a different origin, as the Sk. sakúshe,† which was sometimes used as a sign of the dat. and acc. But it is quite possible that they, like the foregoing, may have arisen from the same kerakam, kerake, h having been euphonically inserted, after the elision of t, as before the nom. plur. termination in bhaughaig, for bhaugvaig.

b. On the derivation of the apparently related Himalayan dative and accusative case-signs, viz kani, sani, huni, I have obtained no light.

160. It has been common to compare the postposition *ne*, denoting the agent, with the termination of the instr. sing. of the 1st decl. of Sk. nouns, as, *e.g.* the Hindí, *Rám ne*, with the Sk. *Rámena*. It may perhaps also be connected with the Sanskrit termination of nouns of agency, in *ana*. But the origin of this postposition has not yet been demonstrated; and if we regard the analogy

\* Vid. § 79. † Vid. Benfey's Sansk. Dict., sub voc.

of the postpositions already considered, it seems more reasonable to seek its original in some single word. The Sk. instr. affix, *ina*, could scarcely have separated itself from its noun, as the common theory supposes.

161. The postposition se with its variations, son, sún, san, sen, hai, etc., is probably to be connected with the Sk. preposition, sam, 'with', or, more accurately, with 'sa', of which sam is the acc. sing. Se is probably a genitive from the same stem, for sasya, as mele is for melasya.

a. Ten, te and tan, are evidently related to the Sanskrit adverbial affix, tas, which is added to any noun in Sanskrit with an ablative sense. It is to be noticed that, under the form to, this affix had become the regular abl. termination in Prákrit. Compare the Sk. pitritas, with the Braj pitá ten.

162. The various forms of the loc. postposition, mey, are all referable to the Sk. madhya, 'middle', generally to its loc. sing., madhye. The various forms, madhya, madhi, mahi, máhi, mah, all exhibit successive processes of derivation, dh becoming h, and y, by § 88, first becoming i and then disappearing. In the forms mánjh, majhi, jh is substituted for the conjunct dhy (§ 96). The long form máhai suggests an increased Prákritic form, madhyake. The various forms with Anusvár, máhin, mahan, men, mon, majjham, are possibly to be referred to the acc. form, madhyam. Men or main has arisen from máhin, and mán from mahan, by rejection of h, and Sandhi of the concurrent vowels.

a. The other loc. postposition, par, in all its variations, is derived from the Sk. upari, 'on'. The Márwárí, always tenacious of old forms, has retained the initial vowel to the present day. From this original have proceeded in succession, the Bhoj. pari, H. H. par, Braj pai and Urdú pa.

b. The postposition tak is connected by Prof. Williams \* with the Sanskrit affix daghna, used in the same sense; thus, we may compare the Hindí, ghuine tak, 'up to the knee', with the Sk. jánu-daghna, of the same meaning. With the same affix, through the operation of a few common changes, may also be connected the postposition talak, which has the same meaning. The elements of the conjunct ghn in daghna being separated and then transposed, as is often the case in Hindí, we would have a form danagh, whence by the substitution of the cognate hard smooth mute, for the soft mutes, d and gh, and change of n to l, we reach talak, the form in question.

c. The postposition lagi or lági, having the same meaning as the above, is to be identified with the Sk. indecl. past part., lagya, Prák. lagia, from the root lag, 'to be attached'. The forms log and laug, are to be derived from the other Prákrit form of the same participle, viz., lagitúna, or lagiúna, for the Sk. lagitvá, whence, by the rejection of the medial g, and Sandhi of the vowels, n final passing into Anusvár, we have the forms laug and log.

\* Sansk. Grammar, § 80 XX.

## CHAPTER V.

## ADJECTIVES.

163. The Hindí adjective is exceedingly simple, and presents little requiring special explanation. Adjectives fall into two classes, *viz.*, *uninflected* and *inflected*. Uninflected adjectives, as the term implies, remain unchanged before all nouns and under all circumstances, like the English adjective, and require no explanation. Inflected adjectives all terminate in  $\pi a$ , and correspond in all respects to Tadbhava nouns of the same termination, inflected to  $\pi e$  in the oblique cases. The rules for the inflection of such adjectives are the same as those given for the inflection of the genitive postposition,  $\pi n$ , *viz*. :—

(1) Before a masc. noun in the nom. sing.,  $\mathbf{w} \mathbf{a}$  final is unchanged.

(2) Before a masc. noun in any other case, with  $\dot{a}$  final is changed to  $\mathbf{v} \mathbf{e}$ .

(3) Before a fem. noun in any case, sing. or plur.,  $\overline{an} \dot{a}$  final is changed to  $\overline{a} \dot{i}$ .

The following examples will illustrate the construction of adjectives:

## UNINFLECTED ADJECTIVES.

सुंदर फूल sundar phúl, 'a beautiful flower', or 'beautiful flowers'. सुंदर फूल पर sundar phúl par, 'on a beautiful flower'. सुंदर फूलों का sundar phúlon ká, 'of beautiful flowers'. सुंदर लड़की sundar larkí 'a beautiful girl'. सुंदर लड़की का sundar larkíyán, 'beautiful girls'. सुंदर लड़की का sundar larkí ká, 'the beautiful girl's'. सुंदर लड़की का sundar larkí ká, 'the beautiful girl's'. धर्मी पुच्च dharmmí purush, 'a virtuous man', or 'virtuous men'. धर्मी पुच्च का dharmmí purush ká, 'a virtuous man's. धर्मी पुच्चों मे dharmmí purushon men, 'among virtuous men'.

धर्म्मी स्त्री dharmmi stri, ' a virtuous woman'. धर्म्मी स्त्रिया dharmmi striyan, ' virtuous women'. धर्म्मी स्त्री को dharmmi stri ko, ' to a virtuous woman'. धर्म्मी स्त्रिया को dharmmi striyon ko, ' to virtuous women'.

INFLECTED ADJECTIVES.

काला घोड़ा kálá ghorá, 'a black horse'. काले घोड़े kále ghore, 'black horses'. काले घोड़े का kále ghore ká, 'the black horse's'. काले घोड़ों पर kále ghoron par, 'on black horses'. काली बिद्धी kálí billí, 'a black cat'. काली बिद्धिया kálí billiyán, 'black cats'. काली बिद्धिया t kálí billí par, 'on a black cat'. काली बिद्धियां की kálí billiyon ko, 'to black cats'.

164. A very few adjectives in ut  $\acute{an}$  follow the analogy of Tadbhava masc. nouns of the same termination, and are inflected to ien, obl. masc., and iin, fem., according to the rules above given for adjectives in un  $\acute{a}$ . The same rule applies to all ordinal numeral adjectives ending in at wán. Examples are, und uneral adjectives ending in thand'; even us, daswin ghari par, 'at the tenth hour'; alua asim mahine men, 'in the twentieth month'.

Rem. Adjectives do not, as a rule, assume the plural terminations, **i**, **ui**, **ui**. When the adjective comes last, in the poetic style, they are very rarely added. The perfect and imperfect participles of verbs, when used adjectively, are subject to the same rules as inflected adjectives.

165. The affix  $\mathbf{u} s \mathbf{a}$  is added to adjectives to express resemblance, with the accessory idea of a lesser degree of the quality.

a. This affix is inflected to  $\overline{\mathbf{v}} e$  and  $\mathbf{\hat{\mathbf{v}}} i$  according to the rules for the inflection of Tadbhava adjectives in  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ . The adjective preceding  $\overline{\mathbf{u}} s a$ , if capable of inflection, must also be inflected. Examples are,

\* Vid. § 160, (1, 2, 3.)

सास सा फूल lál sá phúl, 'a reddish flower'; नीलो सी चिड़ियां nílí sí chiriyán, 'blueish birds'; घोले दे पत्ते píle se patte, 'yellowish leaves'.

b. The same particle may also be added to a noun or pronoun, converting it into an adjective expressing likeness; the pronoun must be put in the oblique form. Thus, e.g., we may say, सड्गा सा स्प्रयार kharag sá hathyár, 'a sword-like weapon', सुम सा पायो mujh sá pápí, 'a sinner like me', तुम सा मित्र tum sá mitr, 'a friend like you'.\*

c.  $\operatorname{\operatorname{stars}} a$  is also added to the genitive both of nouns and pronouns, when the likeness intended is not, as in the previous case, to the person or thing itself, but to something pertaining to the person or thing. Both the genitive and the appended  $\operatorname{stars}$  are then inflected to agree with the following noun.

Thus we say, **uisn** को सो बोलो *paṇḍit ki si boli*, 'speech like that of a pundit'; हाधी का सा सुंह háthi ká sá munh, 'a face like an elephant's'; खाछ को से दांस bágh ke se dánt, 'teeth like those of a tiger'.

d. This idiom is to be explained by supposing an ellipsis of the substantive after the genitive. Thus, háthí ká sá mugh is for háthí ká mugh sá mugh; as we say in English, 'a face like an elephant's', for 'a face like an elephant's face'.

e. Sometimes the noun qualified is omitted, as in the following; 'parbat ké kundalá sí dikháí partí hai', 'something like a mountain cave appears'. Here we must evidently supply some feminine noun, as, eg., bastu.

166. Identical in form, but of different origin and meaning, is the particle  $\mathbf{u} s \mathbf{a}$ , which is added in like manner to adjectives to denote intensity or excess.

Examples of this usage are, बहुत सा साटा bahut sá átá, 'a great deal of flour'; चोड़ी सी रोटी thori si roii, 'a very little bread'; उंचा सा पहाड़ inchá sá pahár, 'a very high mountain'; बड़े से चोड़े bare se ghore, 'very large horses'.

a. Sá, as used in this sense, is derived from the Sanskrit affix shas, '-fold', through the Braj so. Sá, the affix denoting likeness, has come from the Sanskrit sama, 'like', through the intermediate (Braj) form, saun, as the H. H. inf. karná has come through the Braj karnaun.

<sup>\*</sup> With such expressions as the above, compare such English colloquial forms as 'sick-like', 'weak-like', etc.

167. The dialectic forms of adjectives present no new peculiarity. Tadbhava High Hindí adjectives in आ, inflected, in Braj take the termination औ, and in Márwárí and other western and the Himalayan dialects, आ. The inflection of such adjectives in each of these dialects is the same as that of the corresponding class of nouns. Occasionally Anusrár is added to the Braj obl. masc. inflection. Examples are the following: for H. H., भोड़ा, Braj, मोड़ें, Már., Mew., Kan., etc., घोड़ो, 'little'; Braj, मोडे बचन से or मोडे वचन से, 'with a pleasant word', for H. H., मोडे बचन से; Már., बड़ो घोड़ो, 'a large horse'; बड़ी घोड़ो, 'a large mare'; बड़ा घोड़ा, 'large horses'; बड़ा चाढ़ो से साल, 'the throne of the great king'. Kanaují forms of the adjective occasionally occur in poetry, as, in the Rámáyan, संवरो, for H. H., staten, 'sallow'.

a. In the dialect of the Rámáyan, the class of Tadbhava adjectives in un is wanting, and all adjectives alike are uninflected; except that as noted below, they occasionally assume the Sanskrit fem. nom. sing. terminations. But sometimes  $\mathbf{x}$  is added for the fem. Thus, we have at the trans, 'a great king', and at the or and the fem.), 'a great injury'. Use is the usual substitute for un; as, e.g., दसरम सम राज, 'a king like Dasarath'.

168. Occasionally, in poetry, some adjectives, chiefly Tatsamas, assume certain Sanskrit terminations, indicative of case and gender. Thus we often meet adjectives with the Sanskrit fem. terminations, t (after bases in सन् or सन्,) and सा. Such forms occur most frequently in the latter part of compound words. The final t is often shortened for the sake of the metre. Examples are कामिनो..... रतिसदमाचनो ' beautiful women, destroyers of the pride of Rati'; भगति कांस पार्वान, ' devotion most holy'; सीसा पुनीसा, 'Sitá, the pure'; गुरुद् के गिरा विनोसा, ' the modest speech of Gurur'. More rarely, we meet with the termination  $\pi(\cdot)$  of the Sk. acc. sing., masc. or neut., as, e.g., क्रत्वं नित राम नमामि, ' Raim, the unborn, I ever adore'; निकंदय द्वंद छनं, ' destroy all my doubt'.

## Comparison.

169. The Hindí adjective has no separate form to express the degrees of comparison. The comparative degree is

expressed by simply putting the noun or pronoun with which comparison is made, in the ablative case, thus; यह घर उस से खड़ा है yah ghar us se bará hai, 'this house is larger than that'; यह वृत्त आग के पेड़ से देखा है wah vriksh ám ke per se únchá hai, 'that tree is higher than a mango tree'; यहद से मोठा shahad se míthá, 'sweeter than honey'.

a. The superlative degree is expressed by using with the adjective, the abl. of सख sab, 'all'; thus, सख से खड़ा sab se bará, 'the greatest'; *i.e.*, 'great with all'; सख से नीच sab se ních, 'the lowest'; यह मक्ली सब मक्लियों से सुंदर है, yah machhlí sab machhliyon se sundar hai, 'this is the most beautiful of all fishes'.

b. Comparison may also be expressed by prefixing the words की aur and काधिक adhik, 'more', and sometimes, with the same signification, the Persian *siyádah*, corrupted in Hindí to जियाद: *jiyáda*, or, colloquially, in the Doáb, जास्ती *jástí*.

c. Where no comparison is intended, a high degree of any quality is expressed by prefixing various words to the adjective, as in English and other languages. Most commonly, the word **aga** bahut, 'much', 'very', is prefixed, as **aga netit** at bahut gahri nadi, 'a very deep river'. Sometimes, colloquially, **agi** bará, 'great', is used instead of **aga**; as **agi niti** ucat bará bhári patthar, 'a very heavy stone'; but this use of **agi** is not considered elegant. The intensive affix, **u** sá, (§ 166) has the same force. Other words, used especially in literary Hindí, are **un** ati, 'very', **ucura** atyant, 'extremely'; as **un if if if i** sundar, 'very beautiful'; **ucura** numera atyant bhayának, 'exceedingly terrible'. The word **ut** param, (cf. Lat. primus) is often prefixed to Tatsama adjectives in the same sense as the above, as, c.g., **uta ua ua paramadbhut**, 'very wonderful'; **ut ua paramshuddh**, very holy'.

d. Sometimes the superlative degree of comparison is elegantly expressed by placing the noun or pronoun with which comparison is made, in the loc. case with # men, either with or without सब sab prefixed; as, c.g., बह सब खुद्धिमानों में खुद्धिमान मा wah sab buddhimánon men buddhimán thá, 'he was the wisest of the wise'; सन पेड़ो में खड़ा यही दे

in peron men bará yahí hai, 'of these trees this is the greatest'. Compare the similar English idiom, ' brave among the brave.'

170. A few Sanskrit comparatives and superlatives occur, the former often in a superlative sense; as, e.g., पुड्यसर punyatar from पुड्य punya, 'more holy', or 'very holy'. But superlative forms are much more common, as उत्तम uttam, 'best'; चेष्ठ shresht. 'most excellent', from चो; प्रियसम priyatam, 'dearest', from प्रिय; पापिष्ठ pápisht, 'most sinful', from पापी pápí.

a. Persian comparatives and superlatives have found no place in Hindí, unless we except the word विद्यसर ( بهتر), which one occasionally hears from Hindoos who are in the habit of using much Urdú.

171. The same general principles of derivation which have been indicated (§§ 54—157) in explanation of substantive forms, apply equally in regard to adjectives. Thus Tadbhava adjectives in d have always arisen from Prakritic bases increased by the addition of a consonant, usually k; and all Tatsamas ending in the silent a, from the simple Sanskrit base. Thus the adjective kdla, 'black', must be derived, not directly from the Sk. kdla, but from an increased Prakritic base, kdlaka. On the other hand the Tatsama, sundar, 'beautiful', has arisen directly from the Sk. sundara, with only the loss of the case-termination. Tatsamas in i commonly represent Sk. bases in *in*, as *dhani*, from the base *dhanin*.\*

## CHAPTER VI.

## NUMERALS.

172. The Hindí numerals are quite irregular in their formation, and it will be necessary for the student to commit them all to memory as far as 100. The Sanskrit numerals are also in common use in books, especially in numbering chapters and sections.

Both the Hindí and Sanskrit numerals are given in the following table, with the figures corresponding.

\* Vid. §§ 63, 127.

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		Hindí.		Sanskrit.	
1	٩	रक	ek.	रक	ek.
2	R	दे।	do.	द्वि	dıci.
3	Ę	तीन	tín.	সি	tri.
4	8	चार	chár.	चतुर्	chatur.
5	ų	ঘাঁহ	pánch.	पंचन्	panchan.
6	ŧ	æ	chha.	षष्	<u>shash</u> .
7	9	যান	sát.	ষমশ্	saptan.
8	ξ	चाठ	áțh.	चष्टन्	a <u>sht</u> an.
9	۴	नैा	nau.	नवन्	nacan.
10	90	दस	das.	दणग्	dashan.
11	99	स्यारह	gyárah.	<b>स्कद ग्रन्</b>	ekadashan.
12	૧૨	वारइ	bárah.	द्वावणम्	dwádashan.
13	93	तेरइ	terah.	त्रयोदश्चन्	trayodashan.
14	98	चौदद्य	chaudah.	चतुर्दश्रन्	chaturdashan.
15	૧પ્ર	पम्द्रइ	· pandrah.	पंचदयन्	panchadashan.
16	૧ર્થ	सेल्ह	solah.	बोदणग्	<u>sh</u> odashan.
17	૧૭	ধগ্ৰহ	satrah.	समदश्चम्	saptadashan,
18	१८	चठारइ	aṭhárah.	षष्टादशन्	ashtádashan.
19	१९	उनीस	unís.	<b>जनविं</b> शति	únavi <u>n</u> shati.
20	20	बीस	bís.	विंग्रति	vinshati.
21	29	दक्कीस	ikkís.	रकविंशति	ekavi <u>n</u> shati.
22	<b>२२</b>	वाईस	báís.	द्वाविंशति	dvári <u>n</u> shati.
<b>2</b> 3	<b>२</b> इ	तेईस	teís.	त्रयोविंग्रति	trayovi <u>n</u> shati.

·.

		н	indí.	Sa	nskrit.
24	28	चौवीस	chaubís.	चतुर्विंशति	chaturvinshati.
25	24	पचीस	pachís.	पंचविंशति	panchavinshati.
26	25	इच्चीस	chhabbis.	पद्विंशति	shadrinshati.
27	29	सताईस	satáis.	सप्तविंशति	saptavinshati.
28	25	ਕਰਤਾਵੰਚ	atháis.	ग्रष्टाविंशति	ashtárinshati.
29	35	उन्तीस	untis.	ऊनत्रिंग्रत्	únatrinshat.
30	50	तोस	tis.	বিঁযন্	trinshat.
31	29	इकतीस	iktís.	रकत्रिंशत्	ekatrinshat.
32	-	वतीस	batis.	द्वात्रिंशत्	dwátrinshat.
33		तंतीस	tentís.	त्रयस्तिंशत्	trayastri <u>n</u> shat.
34	28	चैांतीस	chauntis.	चतुस्त्रिंशत्	chatustrinshat.
35	34	पैंतीस	paintis.	पंचत्रिंशत्	panchatrinshat.
36	34	क्तीस	chhattis.	षट्त्रिंशत्	shattrinshat.
37	39	सैंतीस	saintís.	सप्तत्रिंशन्	saptatrinshat.
38	54	ग्रड्तोस	artis.	अष्टात्रिंशत्	ashtátrinshat.
39	35	उन्तालीस	untális.	जनचत्वारिंशत्	[shat. únachatvárin-
40	80	चालीस	chális.	चत्वारिंशत्	chatvárinshat.
41	89	इकतालीस	iktális.	रकचत्वारिंग्रत्	[shat. ekachatvárin-
42	82	वयालीस	bayálís.	द्विचत्वारिंशत्	[shat. dwichatvárin-
43	83	त्तंतालीम	tentális.	त्रिचत्वारिंशत्	[shat. trichatvárin-
44	88	चैास्रालोस	chauálís.	चतुःश्वत्वारिंशत्	[rinshat. chatushchatvá-
45	84	चैंतालीस	paintális.	पंचचत्वाग्रिंशत्	[rinshat. panchchatvá-
46	84	क्रियालीस	chhiyálís.	षट्चत्वारिशत्	[shat.

		Hi	ndí.	Sanskrit.	
47	89	र्सैतालीम	saintálís.	सप्तचत्वारिंशत्	[shat saptachatrári [shat
48	8⊂	ञ्रड़तालीस	artális.	अष्टचत्वारिंशत्	
49	85	उनचास	unchás.	जनपंचाश्रत्	únapancháshai
50	ЯQ	पचास	pachás.	पंचाशत्	pancháshat.
51	۶ų	दकावन	ikáwan.	रकपंचाशत्	ekapancháshat
52	ÄS	वावन	báncan.	द्वापंचाशस्	dwápańchásha
53	¥ŝ	तिरपन	tirpan.	ন্মিন্বায়ন্	tripancháshat
54	88	चैावन	chauwan.	चतुःपंचाशत्	[shat chatuhpanchá
55	AA	पचपन	pachpan.	पंचपंचाशत्	[shat panchapanchá
56	र्भ	कृष्पन	chhappan.	षट्पंचाशत्	shatpancháshat
57	Яð	सतावन	satáwan.	सप्तपंचाशत्	[shat saptapaichá-
58	ñc	ग्रठावन	ațhâwan.	अष्टापंचाशत्	[shat a <u>sh</u> tápanchá-
59	44	उनसठ	unsath.	जनवष्टि	úna <u>shash</u> ți.
60	Ęo	साठ	sáth.	पष्टि	shashti.
61	ą.	दक्सठ	iksath.	रक्षाष्ट्र	eka <u>shash</u> ti.
62	<b>4</b> 2	वासठ	básath.	द्वार्षाष्ट्र	dwá <u>shasht</u> i.
63	<b>6</b> 3	तिरसठ	tirsath.	त्रिवष्टि	trishashți.
64	<b></b>	चैंासठ	chaunsath.	चतुःर्घाष्ट	chatuhshashti.
65	ĘŃ	র্ষনত	painsath.	पंचयष्टि	paùcha <u>sh</u> a <u>sh</u> fi
66	44	कियासठ	chhiyásath.	षट्षष्टि	shatshashti.
67	ęş	सरसठ	sarsath.	समयष्टि	saptashashti.
68	ąc.	ग्रड्सठ	arsath.	ग्रष्ट्रपष्टि	ashtashashti.
69	41	उनहत्तर	unhattar.	जनसम्रति	únasaptati.

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		Hindí.		Sanskrit.		
70	90	सत्तर	sattar.	स्प्रति	saptati.	
<b>7</b> 1	98	दकइत्तर	ikhattar.	रकस्प्रति	ekasaptati.	
72	୭၃	बहत्तर	bahattar.	हासप्तति	dwásaptati.	
73	ÐĘ	तिहत्तर	tihattar.	त्रिसमूति	trisaptati.	
74	88	चैाइतर	chauhattar.	चतुःस्प्रति	chatuķsaptati.	
75	છપ્ર	पचहत्तर	pachhattar.	पंचसप्रति	panchasaptati.	
76	અર્	ভিহলৰ	chhihattar.	बट्सप्रति	<u>sh</u> ațsaptati.	
77	<b>89</b>	<b>सतहत्त</b> र	sathattar.	ষমযমি	saptasaptati.	
78	95	चठइत्तर	ațhhattar.	च्छरुस्प्रति	a <u>sh</u> tasaptati.	
79	<b>9</b> 6	उनासी	unásí.	उजाशीति	únáshíti.	
80	50	ब्रस्सी	assí.	त्रश्चीति	ashíti.	
81	۳۵	दकासी	ikásí.	रकाग्रीति	ekáshíti.	
82	۲۵	बयासी	bayásí.	द्वगाशीलि	dvyashítí.	
83	ĘZ	तिराम्री	tirásí.	त्र्यचीति	tryashíti.	
84	58	चैारासी	chaurásí.	चतुर्ग्राति	chaturshíti.	
85	٣Y	पचासी	pachásí.	पंचाश्रीति	pancháshíti.	
86	드뤽	क्रियासी	chhiyásí.	बर्श्योति	<u>sh</u> adshíti.	
87	63	यतायी	satásí.	ব্যাহ্যীনি	saptáshíti.	
88	55	चठासी	ațhásí.	बष्टाचीति	a <u>sh</u> táshíti.	
89	22	नवासी	navásí.	नवाशीति	naváshíti.	
90	९०	नठ्ये	navve.	नवति	navati.	
91	د٩	दकानवे	ikánave.	रकनवत्ति	ekanavati.	
92	৫২	बानवे	bánare.	द्वानवति	dwánavati.	

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		Hindí.		Sanskrit.		
93	<b>٤</b> ٦	तिरानवे	tiránare.	त्रिनवति	trinacati.	
94	6,8	चौरानवे	chauránave.	चतुर्नवति	chaturnavati.	
95	৫২	पचानवे	pachánave.	पंचनवति	panchanavati.	
96	<b>त्द</b>	कियानवे	chhiyánave.	षट्नवति	<u>sh</u> aţnavati.	
97	ભ્ર	सतानवे	salánare.	समनवति	saptanavat <b>i.</b>	
98	لأح	षाठानवे	ațhánave.	च्छानवति	a <u>sh</u> tánavati.	
99	१९	निनानवे	ninánare.	नवनवति	naunarati.	
100	900	सै।	sau.	যন	shata.	
1000	9000	(सहस )हजार*	sahasra. hajár.	सहस	sahasra.	
100000	900000	ला <b>व</b>	lákh.	लच	lak <u>sh</u> a.	
<b>1 00</b> 00C0	9000000	नियुत	niyut.	नियुत	niyuta.	
<b>100000</b> 00	90000000	<b>क</b> रेा <i>ड्</i>	karor.	कोटि	koți.	

a. The following are of less frequent occurrence, viz. : सार्व arb, 'one hundred karor',='one billion'; सार्व kharb, 'one hundred arb',='one hundred billion'; नोस níl, 'one hundred kharb',='ten trillion'; पद्म padm, 'one hundred níl',='one quadrillion'; संस sankh, 'one hundred padm',='one hundred quadrillion'.

173. Many of the above numerals have slightly different forms. We subjoin the most common variations.

1,	( दक.† ( रेक.	8,	( तीनि. ( त्रय.†	9,	नव.
	् (वोज.‡	4	( चारि.‡   चारिक.†   ची. §	11,	रुग्यारह. ह्यारह.
2,	(दोक.‡ ) है:‡ ) ही:‡ ( सुच.†		-		
	(दुंच.+	6,	<b>ð</b> :	14,	चारिदस.†

\* This is a Persian word; but it is in common use in Hindí. Etymologically it is identical with the Sanskrit form, sahasra.

† In Rámáyan.	‡ Braj.	§ Kanaují.
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		Hindí.		Sanskrit.		
70	90	য়ল্বব	sattar.	संप्रति	saptati.	
<b>7</b> 1	છ૧	दकहत्तर	ikhattar.	रकस्प्रति	ekasaptati.	
72	50	बहत्तर	bahattar.	हासप्रति	dwásaptati.	
73	ĐĘ	तिहत्तर	tihattar.	সিষমূলি	trisaptati.	
74	98	चैाइत्तर	chauhattar.	चतुःस्प्रति	chatuḥsaptati.	
75	છપ્ર	पचइत्तर	pachhattar.	पंचसप्रति	pańchasaptati.	
76	અર્થ	किश्लर	chhihattar.	बट्सप्रति	<u>sh</u> atsaptati.	
77	<b>89</b>	<b>सतदत्त</b> र	sathattar.	ষমৰমূলি	saptasaptati.	
78	92	बठइत्तर	aṭhhattar.	च्छरुस्प्रति	a <u>sh</u> tasaptati.	
79	૭૮	उनासी	unásí.	उनाशीति	únáshíti.	
80	50	बस्त्री	ass <b>í</b> .	व्यश्चीति	ashíti.	
81	દવ	दकासी	ikásí.	रकाग्रीति	ekáshíti.	
82	<b>د</b> ې	वयाची	bayásí.	द्व्याश्रीति	dvyashít <b>í</b> .	
83	۲Ş	तिराची	tirásí.	त्र्यश्रीति	tryashíti.	
84	28	चैारासी	chaurásí.	चतुर्ग्राति	chaturshíti.	
85	دي	पचासी	pachásí.	पंचाशीति	pancháshíti.	
86	حؤ	हियासी	chhiyásí.	बद्यीति	<u>sh</u> aḍshíti.	
87	63	यतायी	satásí.	समाधीति	saptáshíti.	
88	22	चठासी	ațhásí.	ब्रष्टाञ्चीति	a <u>sh</u> táshíti.	
89	حد	नवासी	navásí.	नवामीति	naváshíti.	
90	९०	नठवे	navre.	नवति	navati.	
91	९१	दकानवे	ikánave.	रकमवत्ति	ekanarati.	
92	ぐマ	बानवे	bánare.	द्वानवति	dwánarati.	

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NUMERALS.

		Hindí.		Sanskrit.		
93	E)	तिरानवे	tiránare.	त्रिनवति	trinavati.	
94	8>	चैारानवे	chauránave.	चतुर्नवति	chaturnavati.	
95	<i>र</i> भ	पचानवे	pachánave.	पंचनवति	panchanavati	
96	त्द	कियानवे	chhiyánave.	षट्नवति	<u>sh</u> ațnavati.	
97	e7	सतानवे	salánare.	समनवति	saptanavat <b>i.</b>	
98	رد	बठानवे	ațhánave.	ष्मष्टानवति	a <u>sh</u> tánavati.	
99	<b>.</b>	निनानवे	ninánare.	नवनवति	nauna <del>v</del> ati.	
100	900	सै।	sau.	যন	shata.	
1000	9000	(सहस (हजार*	sahasra. hajár.	सहस	sahasra.	
100000	<b>40</b> 0000	ला <b>ख</b>	lákh.	लच	lak <u>sh</u> a.	
<b>10000C</b> 0	9000000	नियुत	niyut.	नियुत	niyuta.	
<b>1000000</b> 0	90000000	करोड़	karor.	कोटि	koți.	

a. The following are of less frequent occurrence, viz. : सार्व arb, 'one hundred karor',='one billion'; सार्व kharb, 'one hundred arb',='one hundred billion'; नोस níl, 'one hundred kharb',=' ten trillion'; पद्म padm, 'one hundred níl',='one quadrillion'; संस sankh, 'one hundred padm',='one hundred quadrillion'.

173. Many of the above numerals have slightly different forms. We subjoin the most common variations.

1,	( चक.† ( रेक.	8,	( तोनि. ( त्रय.†	9,	नव.
	े ( दोज.‡ हे ±	4,	( चारि.‡ ( चारिक.† ( चीर. §	11,	( रुग्धारह. ( रुगारह.
2,	(दोक.‡ ) द्व.‡ ) द्वा.‡ (दुष.†		( चेा. § इ:		्रारिदय.†

\* This is a Persian word; but it is in common use in Hindí. Etymologically it is identical with the Sanskrit form, sahasra.

† In Rámáyaņ.

‡ Braj.

§ Kanaují.

• •	(सेारइ.* ) वाडश.*	46,	कतालीस.	82,	बासी.
16,	(वाडध.*	48,	म्रठतालीस.	87,	सत्तासी.
	( उनईस †	51	( रकावन. ) दुक्यावन.	88,	ब्रट्टासी.
19,	( उनईस † ) उन्नोस.		• • • •	90.	नवे.
	્ય	53,	त्रेपन.		
01	{ स्कोस. रे <b>दकई</b> स †	54.	चैापन.	<b></b>	्दक्यानवे. स्व्यानवे. स्कानवे.
21,	(दकईस.†			91,	रक्यानवे.
	<b>^</b>		पंचावन.		रकानवे.
	पचवीस.*	57,	सत्तावन.		पंचानवे.
27,	सत्ताईस.	58,	बट्टावन.	95, -	पंचानवे. पञ्चानवे.
3i.	रकतीय.		रकसठ.		
	वलीय.	-			कानवे.
-		-	ঈষত.	97,	सत्तानवे.
33,	तैतीय.	68,	ষ্মতবত.		निन्धानवे.
38,	ष्ट्रतीय.	71,	रकहत्तर.		निन्यानवे. नित्तानवे.
89,	उनचालीस.	73,	तिरहत्तर.		′ सै.†
41,	रकतालीस.	75,	पर्वतर.	100,	मल.‡
43,	र्तैतालीय.	76,	ब्हलर.		स. स. स.
44,	चवालीस.	81,	दव्यासी.		सहस.*

a. To the above list may be added the anomalous form from the Rámáyan, नवस्त्र, lit., 'nine-seven', 'sixteen'. दह is occasionally substituted for दस, 'ten', as in the phrase, दहाँदाँस, 'the ten points of the compass'. Many of the above forms merely present differences of orthography.

174. The numbers above one hundred proceed as in English, except that the copulative conjunction is omitted. Thus, एक से एक ek sau ek, 'one hundred and one'; तीन से साठ tin sau súth, 'three hundred and sixty'; एक इवार कीस ek hujúr bis, 'one thousand and twenty'.

a. But the copulative is sometimes inserted in poetry, even in the lower numbers, as बोते कल्प सात खर बोसा, 'seven and twenty kalpas passed.'

b. The numbers between 100 and 200 are sometimes expressed by writing the smaller number first, with the affix *á*, as *e.g.*, चालोवा सैंग, 'a hundred and forty'. Other modes of expression will be noticed in the sections concerning fractional and denominative numerals.

100

175. The numeral एक is added to other numerals in the sense of. the English 'about'; as, e.g., चालोस एक, 'about forty'; से एक, 'about' a hundred',—not एक से एक, which is 'one hundred and one'. मिंग to एक the word आद (Sk. आदि) is added in the same sense, as स्वे आद से आदा, 'a seer or so of flour'.

176. Ordinarily the numerals are not used in the inflected plural form. But when they are used to denote a totality or aggregation, they may take, both in the noin. and obl. cases, the termination at Thus, and as *chár per* is 'four trees', but and as *cháron per*, 'the four trees'; so also and any bis áe is 'twenty came', but and any bison áe, 'the twenty came'.

a. This termination जो on added to the numbers 'one hundred', 'one thousand', etc., always denotes an indefinite number of these aggregates. In this idiom, चैकड़ा saikrá is always substituted for चा sau, 'one hundred'. Examples are, चैकड़ो पेड़ saikron per, 'hundreds of trees'; इजारो hajáron, 'thousands'; साखो चपर lákhon rupae, 'lákhs of rupees'.

b. Dialectic forms are, for दोनों, 'both, the two', B., दूनों, दोन्यों, दुहुं;
 Old Púrbí, द्वे, दुहुनि, दुस्रों: for तोनों, 'the three', B., तोन्यों, तिहुं; for चारों,
 the four', B., चहुं. चारों, etc.

c. **ven** exceptionally takes the obl. plur. form **ven**- $\mathbf{z}$ , in a few places in the *Rámáyan*.

177. The Hindí idiom in such indefinite expressions as 'one or two', 'four or five', differs slightly from the English. The numbers, except in the case of 'one' and 'two', are rarely taken consecutively, and the larger very often precedes the smaller. The disjunctive conjunction is always omitted. Thus we say, दा एक, 'one or two'; दा चार, 'two four',=' two or three'; दय बोस, 'ten or twenty'.

<sup>\*</sup> I doubt if this is, in reality, identical with the plur. term. on, as has been commonly assumed. It is probably to be connected with the Sanskrit aggregatives formed by the affix yam, so that, e.g., chdron, 'the four', is really a corruption of the Sk. chatushiayam, and bison pre-supposes a form vinshatayam. This, it will be observed, accounts for the appearance of the termination on in the nom., as th common theory does not.

# Ordinals.

178. The Ordinals, up to 'sixth', are as follows, viz :---عدسة، ستعدس pahlá, pahilá, 'first'. تاست chauthá, 'fourth'. عرض منابعة pánchwán, fifth'. رابعت دانهم، 'third'. عرض منابعة المعالية الم

The ordinals above 'sixth' are all formed by adding at wan to the cardinal numbers. Both the an a and at anfinal of the ordinals are inflected, like Tadbhava adjectives of the same terminations, to a and a for the obl. masc., and a *i* and *i* in for the fem. Thus, from an das 'ten' is formed and daswan; 'tenth'; usual pachas, 'fifty', usual pachaswan, 'fiftieth', etc.

a. Further examples of the use of the ordinals are पहिली पुस्तक pahili pustak, 'the first book', सालवें पड्ये में sátwen parbb men, 'in the seventh chapter'; दखवां मझीना daswán mahiná, 'the tenth month'.

b. The following dialectic variations occur in the Rámáyan, viz., सालव, 'seventh', चठव, 'eighth', नवस, ninth'.

179. When referring to the lunar days, another set of ordinals is used. The month is reckoned as consisting of two parts, each of 15 lunar days, corresponding to the waxing and waning half of the moon. The waning half is commonly called कृष्टवपद्य or वरो; the waxing half, मुझपद or सुदी. The month is reckoned to begin with the full moon, and the lunar days are counted twice in a month from one to fifteen. Although the names of these days are, strictly speaking, numeral adjectives in the feminine gender, agreeing with init, 'a lunar day', this noun is rarely written, and they are practically used as nouns. They are as follows :—

## तिषि.

## तिषि.

1st,	ultan pariwá.	4th,	चैाच chauth.
2nd,	दूच dúj.	5th,	पंचमी panchami.
ard.	तोच <i>tij</i> .	6th,	ez chhatth.

### NUMBRALS.

7th, सत्तमो sattami.	11th, रकादमी ekádasí.
8th, चष्टमी ashtami.	12th, द्वादसी duádasí.
9th, नामी naumin.	13th, तेरस teras.
10th, दसमी dasmin.	14th, चौदम chaudas.

## 15th, बमावस amávas.

a. The days of the second fortnight are reckoned in the same way, except that the fifteenth, or day of full moon, is called पूर्वमासी or पूर्ण्या.

b. The following are dialectic variations, viz.: 7th, सासे; 8th, भाउँ; 15th, समाहस, मावस.

c. Sometimes the lunar days are denoted by the Sanskrit ordinals throughout. In so far as these differ from the above, they are as follows :---

1st, प्रथमा prathamá.	7th, चल्लमी saptamí.
2nd, द्वितिया, dwitiyá.	9th, नवमी navamí.
3rd, सृत्तिया, tritiyá.	10th, दश्यमी dashami.
4th, unui, chaturthi.	13th, त्रयोदश्री trayodashi.
6th, up shashti.	14th, चतुर्दशी chaturdashí.

## Fractional Numbers.

180. The fractional numbers are very irregular. The more common are the following :---

, (	पाचो páo.	$-\frac{1}{4}$ ,	ीतवा'. पीने paune, lit., 'a quarter less
‡, {	पाक्षा páo. चौापाई chautháí.	11,	सवा sará.
<del>]</del> ,	तिषार्ष tihái.	1 <del>1</del> ,	<b>ਵੇਨ</b> , derh.
<del>]</del> ,	चाधा ádhá.	2 <del>1</del> ,	बढ़ाई arháí.
<del>3</del> 4,	पीन paun.	$+\frac{1}{2}$ ,	साहे sárhe.

181. Observe, that चैने *paune*, prefixed to any number, or noun of measure, denotes a quarter less than that number or measure; सवा *savá*, similarly prefixed, denotes a quarter more than that number

a. The following examples will illustrate the use of these fractional numbers :---

$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8},$	साध पास्रो ádh páo.	250, सठाई से। arháí sau.
$1\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{5}{16},$	सवा पाओ sará páo.	375, पाने चार सा paune chár sau.
$1\frac{1}{2}\times\frac{1}{4}=\frac{3}{8},$	डेक् पास्रो derh páo.	450, साढ़े चार से। sárhe chár sau.
$2\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{6} = \frac{5}{8},$	बठाई पाचा arhái páo.	1225, सवा इजार savá hajár.
2 <u>1</u> ,	सवा दो sará do.	1500, डेढ़ इजार derh hajár.
5 <del>]</del> ,	साढ़े पांच sárhe pánch.	1725, प्रैाने दा इजार paune do hajár.
7 <u>3</u> ,	पैाने साठ paune áṭh.	2500, खढ़ाई इजार arhái hajár.
75,	पीने से paune sau.	3500, साढ़े तीन इजार sárhe tín hajár.
150,	<b>डेठ़ से।</b> derh sau. 15	50000, <b>डेड़ लाख</b> derh lákh.

b. They are used with nouns of measure, quantity, etc., as follows : so, and a half'; unit at an an a solution of the soluti

# Proportionals.

182. To express proportion, non guná or no gun is added to the numerals, some of which then assume forms slightly abbreviated. Illustrations are the following : दुगुना duguná, 'two-fold'; चौगुना chauguná, 'four-fold'; तिगुना tiguná, 'three-fold'; चतगुना satguná, seven-fold'; दसगुना dasguná, 'ten-fold'; चैगुना sauguná, 'a hundredfold'.

a. Besides तुना the affix हरा is also sometimes added to a few numerals, in a similar sense, as दाइरा, ' double '; लिहरा, ' three-fold'.

b. When, either in a literal or metaphorical sense, the idea of a string or cord is involved, खड़ा may be similarly added, as सिलड़ा, 'triple'; चीलड़ा, 'quadruple'.

## Denominatives.

183. Multiplicatives, such as the English 'twice', and 'thrice', are not found in Hindí. The Hindí idiom is illustrated in such phrases as the following, viz.; स्वारह सात सतस्तर gyárah sát sathattar, lit., 'eleven sevens seventy seven'; इ तोन सटारह chha tín athárah, 'six threes eighteen'; which correspond to the English idioms, 'seven times eleven', and 'three times six'. Numbers thus used may be termed Denominative numerals. They have, in many cases, a form slightly different from that of the Cardinals. These special forms are as follows:—

1,	{ एकं ekam. कं kam.	4,	<b>चोक</b> chauka. चोका chauk <b>á</b> .
1 <u>1</u> ,	सम sama.	4 <u>1</u> ,	ठोंचा dhonchá.
	( डेंग्रिंग daurhá. ( डेग्रोका deorhá.	5,	पंजे panje.
1 <del>1</del> ,	रियोका deorhá.	5 <del>1</del> ,	पोंचा ponchá.
2,	दूना dúná.	6,	ægn chhakká.
	(ठाम dháma.	6 <u>1</u> ,	स्रोचा khonchá.
2 <u>1</u> ,	हाम dháma. हामा dhámá.	7,	सत्ते satte.
	{ तो tí. तोन tína.	7 <u>1</u> ,	सतोंचा sato <u>n</u> chá.
3,	(तीन tina.	8,	ष्मद्वे atthe.
3 <u>1</u> ,	{ <b>ġcı</b> hú <u>n</u> țá. <b>Tri ho<u>n</u>țá.</b>	9,	{ नम nama.   नम्मा nammá.

10, दहाम dahám. 14

184. The above are the only numbers which present peculiar forms, and even these forms are not substituted in every case. The only way to master their idiomatic use, is to commit the multiplicationtable to memory. Meantime the following remarks will suffice. कम, commonly written at, is substituted for ea, in the series of 'one' only; as चार कं चार, lit., 'four ones four', i.e., 'once four is four'. In the first of the series, however, we have simply vanue and, 'once one is one'; probably a contraction for van an van. In all other places in the table रक्त is the substitute, as, e.g., दस रक्त दस, 'ten times one is ten'. From the series of two onwards, gen is used as the Denominative numeral for at; it seems to be a modification of the Maráthí form of the numeral, दोन. From twos to tens, the fem. form, दूनी, is used ; from tens onward, the mase. Thus, चात दूनी चौदह,  $7 \times 2 = 14$ , but बारइ दूना चौबीस,  $12 \times 2 = 24$ . सी is substituted for सीन from threes to tens only ; in all other cases, तीन is used. Thus, चार सी खारह, 4×3=12; स्थारह तीन तेंसीस, 11×3=33. From threes onward, चौक, (pronounced chauka before consonants,) is the substitute for चार; in the twos, the longer form, चौका, is preferred. Thus, पांच चौक वीस,  $5 \times 4 = 20$ ; दो चौका आठ,  $2 \times 4 = 8$ . पंचे is the substitute for पांच throughout, as दस पंजे पचास, 10×5=50. The sing. form, ढक्का, 'six', is used from elevens on ; from twos to elevens, the plur., we have no plur. ferred; as चार इक्के चौखोस,  $4 \times 6 = 24$ ; बारह इक्का बहतर,  $12 \times 6 = 72$ . सते, 'sevens', (as if plur. of सता,) is used throughout, except in the elevens, where सात is employed; e.g., इ सत्ते वयासीस,  $6 \times 7 = 42$ ; but म्यारह साल सलहतर, 11×7=77. Similarly बहु is used for 'eight', except in the elevens, where we have wits; e.g., uta wig anende, 5×8=40; स्यारह खाठ घठासी, 11×8=88. नम्म is used for nine in the twos only; नम्मा, from the threes to the tens; ने। is retained in the elevens; नम is used from the twelves onward. Thus, देा नम्म बठारह,  $2 \times 9 = 18$ ; चार नम्मा क्लीस,  $4 \times 9 = 36$ ; म्यारह नै। निनानवे,  $11 \times 9 = 99$ ; खारह नम रक से बाठ,  $12 \times 9 = 108$ . दहाम is substituted for दस in every instance. Above ten the cardinal numbers are employed as Denominatives.

a. In the multiplication table the word utar, 'over', is sometimes added to the smaller number in the numerals from 100 to 200. In this case the word sau always comes last, as, e.g., bisotar sau, 120. Observe that bisotar=bisa+utar.

b. The fractional Denominatives from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  to  $7\frac{1}{2}$  are chiefly used in surveying.

c. In numeration the words स्कार्भ, दशार्भ and सैकड़े are used respectively for 'units', 'tens', 'hundreds'. Of a similar nature are the words, सवाया, 1<sup>1</sup>/<sub>4</sub>, ठार्भ and सदेया, 2<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>, which are used in the headings of the multiplication-table.

# Collectives.

185. The terminations आ á and ई i are added to some of the cardinals, to denote collective numbers; as बोसा bisá, 'a score'; वत्तीसे battisi, 'a thirty two'; चालोसा chálisá, 'a forty'. Besides these, the following words are used as collective numbers, viz. :--

चादा jorá,)	गाही gáhí,)
बोड़ा jorá,) बोड़ी jorí, ( a pair '.	गाही gáhí,) पंजा pañjá,) a fivo'.
iter gandá, 'a four' (chiefly of	कोड़ी kori, 'a score'.
cowries).	चैकड़ा saikrá, 'a hundred'.

a. The cardinal numbers are often used as collectives, without any change of form.

## Derivation of the Numerals.

186. The Hindí numerals are all derived from the Sanskrit, through intermediate Prakrit forms; and by referring to the general principles set forth in Chapter III, the student will be able himself to domonstrate their derivation. We only note a few of the more obscure forms.

a. The numbers of the series unis, 19, untis, 29, untális, 39, etc., have arisen from the combination of the Sk. úna, 'lessened', with the next higher number. The full form of the profix was ekona=eka+úna. Thus, even in Sanskrit, we have, e.g., for navatrigshat, 39, the alternative form, ekonachatvárigshat, H. untális, lit., 'forty less one'. The ek was early dropped, even in Sanskrit, giving, e.g., únavigshat for navadashan, 19, whence by regular processes we have the H. unais or unis. The instability of the labial mutes is illustrated by their disappearance in the numbers unis, 19, unchás, 49, for únavis, and únapachás. A regard for euphony has probably led to the preference for the form navásí, 89, instead of unnave after the analogy of other similar numerals.

b. The student will note the peculiar change of d to r or l, in the series from 11 to 18, as, e.g., in the H. bárah, 12, for Sk. dwádashon, etc. Similarly, the final t of the Sk. saptati becomes r in the seventies, as in sattar, 70, for saptati. The initial w of the last syllable in certain of the fifties represents the p of the Sk. pancháshat; as, e.g., in *ikáwan*, 51, for the Sk. ekapancháshat. Sau or sai, 100, has arisen ultimately from the Sk. shat, but immediately from Prakritic forms, sataka, satika, nom. sing., satakah, satikah, whence, satao, satio, and finally, t being elided, sau, sai.

187. The irregular fractional numbers are derived as follows, viz:-

Páo, '1', from the Sk. páda, nom. sing., pádah, whence by §§ 69, c., 78, páo. Or possibly it may have arisen by a similar process from an increased form, pádaka. Paun,  $\frac{3}{4}$ , and paune, '- $\frac{1}{4}$ ', come from the Sk. pádona=páda+úna, 'a quarter less'. Adhá, '}', is from arddhaka, secondary form of Sk. arddha: savá. '12', or, as a prefix,  $+\frac{1}{4}$ , from the Sk. sapáda, (sa+páda) 'with a quarter': derh, from the Prák. divaddhe, Sk. dwi+arddhu; the labial is preserved in the Denominative fractional forms, daurhá, deorhá. Mr. Beames happily illustrates this form by the German idiom, 'halbswei', 13. (Can arhái, 23, be similarly connected with a Sk. compound trayo + 'rddha?) Sárhe, '+  $\frac{1}{2}$ ', is from the Sk. sa+arddha, (sárddhaka,) 'with one half'. In the rare forms, dhonchá, '41', poncha, '51', khonchá, '61', satonchá, '71', we evidently have as the last member the Sk. uchcha, (uchchaka,) 'superior', H. únchá: dhonchá apparently stands for chatur + uchchaka, the initial dh representing the final r of chatur, 'four'. Initial consonants were freely elided in Prakrit. The kh of khonchá is evidently for the sh of the Sk shash, 'six'.

188. The ordinals are derived from the Sanskrit ordinals, through intermediate Prakrit forms. Thus pahlá, daswán, pacháswán have respectively arisen from the Sk. prathama, dashama, and pancháshattama.

## CHAPTER VII.

### PRONOUNS.

189. The pronouns in Hindí, as in all other languages, exhibit many irregularities in their forms of declension. Old inflectional case-endings which have quite vanished from the noun, except in certain dialects, here appear in the regular system of declension; although, indeed, the analytical forms, even in pronominal declension, largely prevail over the inflectional. The Hindí pronoun, except in some of the Rájputáná dialects, has quite lost the distinction of gender, which was still retained in the Prakrit. There is no distinctive pronoun for the third person; the demonstratives,  $\pi yah$ , 'this',  $\pi wah$ , 'that', and, after a relative PRONOUNS.

pronoun, expressed or implied, the correlative pronoun, er so, supply its place.

190. In the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons,  $\ddot{\pi}$  main and  $\eta \pi$  turn,  $\tau$  rá appears as the sign of the genitive, instead of  $\pi n$  ká, and is appended to a stem different from that which we find in any other case. The reflexive pronoun,  $\pi n u$  áp, is peculiar in retaining a purely inflectional gen.,  $\pi u \sigma n n a n n a$ , for the Sk.  $\pi n \sigma n \sigma$ . In none of the pronouns, except in the case of the ag. sing. of the 1st and 2nd persons, is the base in the oblique cases identical in form with the nom. sing.

191. It will aid the memory to observe the close analogy in the declension of the different pronouns. In both demonstratives, the relative, correlative and interrogative pronouns, T appears as the inflective sign of the oblique singular throughout; and  $\neg$  *n*, or, in the longer forms, = nh, as the sign of the oblique plural. A similar analogy will be found to run through each of the dialectic systems of declension. Observe, further, that throughout all the varieties of declension, an initial palatal, viz., **x**, (rarely **x**,) its long vowel, **x**, or its gun diphthong,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ , or the cognate semivowel,  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , marks the proximate demonstrative; an initial lubial, viz., J, its long vowel, ज, its gun diphthong, चा, or its cognate semivowel, व, marks the remote demonstrative; ज initial marks the relative; च or त initial, the correlative; and a, the interrogative pronoun. Thus the declension of any one of these five pronouns may be transformed into that of any other, by simply substituting the proper pronominal initial. Thus, to tabulate the above, we have, in standard Hindí, the following pronominal bases :---

	Prow. Dem.	Rem. Dem.	Rel.	Correl.	Interr.
Nom.	य	a	ব	स	क
Obl.	T	च	লি	নি	कि

• •	(सेारइ.* ) बाडग्र.*	46,	कतालीय.	82,	वासी.
16,	(वाडश.*	48,	ग्रठतालीस.	87,	सत्तासी.
	( उनईस †	51	( रकावन. ( दक्यावन.	88,	ब्रट्टासी.
19,	{ उनईस † रेड्वीस.			90.	નવે.
	C 1	53,	त्रेपन.	-	
01	{ स्कीस. रे चकईस.†	54,	चैापन.	01	( इक्यानवे. रक्यानवे. रकानवे.
<i>z</i> 1,	(दकईस:†		पचावन.	91,	( स्वयानवा.
95	पचवीस.*				( रकानवे.
•			सत्तावन.		पंचानवे.
-	सत्ताईस.		ब्रट्टावन.	95, 1	पंचानवे. पत्तानवे.
3i,	रकतीस.	61,	रकसठ.		्रुव क्वानवे.
32,	वत्तीस.	63,	ন্স্বিম্বত.		सत्तानवे.
33.	त्तॅलीच.	68.	बठसठ.		_
•	म्राटतीय.	•	रकहत्तर.	99,	निन्यानवे. नित्तानवे.
					-
•	उनचालीस.	73,	तिरइत्तर.		( से.†
41,	रकतालीस.	75,	पक्तर.	100,	( से.† सल.‡ मत
43,	र्तैतालीच.	76,	कहत्तर.		सत.
	चवालीस.	81,	द्रव्यासी.	1000.	सहस.*
,		,	-	,	

a. To the above list may be added the anomalous form from the Rámáyan, नवचप्र, lit., 'nine-seven', 'sixteen'. दह is occasionally substituted for दस, 'ten', as in the phrase, दहाँदाँस, 'the ten points of the compass'. Many of the above forms merely present differences of orthography.

174. The numbers above one hundred proceed as in English, except that the copulative conjunction is omitted. Thus, एक से एक ek sau ek, 'one hundred and one'; तीन से साठ tin sau súth, 'three hundred and sixty'; एक इजार कोस ek hujúr bis, 'one thousand and twenty'.

a. But the copulative is sometimes inserted in poetry, even in the lower numbers, as वीते कल्प यात आव बीया, 'seven and twenty kalpas passed.'

b. The numbers between 100 and 200 are sometimes expressed by writing the smaller number first, with the affix *á*, as *e.g.*, बालोबा बैा, 'a hundred and forty'. Other modes of expression will be noticed in the sections concerning fractional and denominative numerals.

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175. The numeral एक is added to other numerals in the sense of. the English 'about'; as, e.g., चालोस एक, 'about forty'; से एक, 'about' a hundred',—not एक से एक, which is 'one hundred and one'. मिंग to एक the word आद (Sk. आदि) is added in the same sense, as इंद्रों आद सेर आदा, 'a seer or so of flour'.

176. Ordinarily the numerals are not used in the inflected plural form. But when they are used to denote a totality or aggregation, they may take, both in the noin. and obl. cases, the termination wit. Thus, wat de char per is 'four trees', but with de charon per, 'the four trees'; so also when we bis de is 'twenty came', but whet bison de, 'the twenty came'.

a. This termination जो on added to the numbers 'one hundred', 'one thousand', etc., always denotes an indefinite number of these aggregates. In this idiom, चैकड़ा saikrá is always substituted for चा sau, 'one hundred'. Examples are, चैकड़ों पेड़ saikron per, 'hundreds of trees'; इजारों hajáron, 'thousands'; साखों चपर lákhon rupae, 'lákhs of rupees'.

b. Dialectic forms are, for दोनो, 'both, the two', B., दूनो, दोन्यो, दुडु;
 Old Púrbí, द्वा, दुडुनि, दुग्रा: for तोनो, 'the three', B., तोन्या, तिडु; for चारो,
 the four', B., चढुं. चारों, etc.

c. एक exceptionally takes the obl. plur. form एकन्द, in a few places in the Rámáyan.

177. The Hindí idiom in such indefinite expressions as 'one or two', 'four or five', differs slightly from the English. The numbers, except in the case of 'one' and 'two', are rarely taken consecutively, and the larger very often precedes the smaller. The disjunctive conjunction is always omitted. Thus we say, दा रक, 'one or two'; दा चार, 'two four',=' two or three'; दय बोस, 'ten or twenty'.

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<sup>\*</sup> I doubt if this is, in reality, identical with the plur. term. on, as has been commonly assumed. It is probably to be connected with the Sanskrit aggregatives formed by the affix yam, so that, e.g., cháron, 'the four', is really a corruption of the Sk. chatushtayam, and bison pre-supposes a form vinshatayam. This, it will be observed, accounts for the appearance of the termination on in the nom., as th common theory does not.

## Ordinals.

178. The Ordinals, up to 'sixth', are as follows, viz :---عدهم، بواتعهم pahlá, pahilá, 'first'. تاس chauthá, 'fourth'. يوعد المعنية به (first'، تاس chauthá, 'fourth'.

The ordinals above 'sixth' are all formed by adding at wán to the cardinal numbers. Both the un  $\dot{a}$  and ut  $\dot{an}$ final of the ordinals are inflected, like Tadbhava adjectives of the same terminations, to u and t for the obl. masc., and u i and u in for the fem. Thus, from u das 'ten' is formed u and daswan; 'tenth'; unu pachás, 'fifty', unuan pacháswán, 'fiftieth', etc.

a. Further examples of the use of the ordinals are पहिली पुस्तक pahili pustak, 'the first book', सासवें पठके में sátuen parbb men, 'in the seventh chapter'; दसवां मझीमा daswán mahíná, 'the tenth month'.

b. The following dialectic variations occur in the Rámáyan, viz., सालव, 'seventh', सठव, 'eighth', नवम, ninth'.

179. When referring to the lunar days, another set of ordinals is used. The month is reckoned as consisting of two parts, each of 15 lunar days, corresponding to the waxing and waning half of the moon. The waning half is commonly called **greater** or **art**; the waxing half, **great** or **gr**. The month is reckoned to begin with the full moon, and the lunar days are counted twice in a month from one to fifteen. Although the names of these days are, strictly speaking, numeral adjectives in the feminine gender, agreeing with **irits**, 'a lunar day', this noun is rarely written, and they are practically used as nouns. They are as follows :---

## লিছি.

লিমি.

1st,	ultan pariwá.	4th,	चैाच chauth.
2nd,	दूच dúj.	5th,	पंचमी panchami.
3rd.	तोज <i>tij</i> .	6th,	ez chhatth.

7th, until sattami.	11th, रकादसी ekádasí.
8th, चष्टमी ashtami.	12th, द्वादसी duádasí.
9th, नैामी naumin.	13th, तेरस teras.
10th, दसमी dasmín.	14th, चौदस chaudas.

### 15th, चमावस amávas.

a. The days of the second fortnight are reckoned in the same way, except that the fifteenth, or day of full moon, is called पूर्वमायी or पून्वी.

b. The following are dialectic variations, viz.: 7th, सासे; 8th, भाठे; 15th, समारम, मायम.

c. Sometimes the lunar days are denoted by the Sanskrit ordinals throughout. In so far as these differ from the above, they are as follows :---

lst, प्रचमा prathamá.	7th, सप्तमी saptamí.
2nd, द्विसिया, dwitiyá.	9th, नवमी navamí.
3rd, तृत्तिया, tritiyá.	10th, दश्ममी dashamí.
4th, ungui, chaturthí.	13th, अयोदशी trayodashi.
6th, up shashti.	14th, चतुर्देशो chaturdashí.

# Fractional Numbers.

180. The fractional numbers are very irregular. The more common are the following :---

t, { पास्रोा páo. ط. طالعالة chauthái.	_1, पैाने paune, lit., 'a quarter less
रे, देवाचाई chauthái.	14, <b>सवा</b> savá.
i, तिहाई tiháí.	11, <b>ਫੋਨ</b> derh.
र्डे, बाधा ádhá.	24, <b>સરુાર્ક</b> arhái.
<u>३</u> , पीन paun.	+ 1/2, साढ़े sárhe.

181. Observe, that une, prefixed to any number, or noun of measure, denotes a quarter less than that number or measure; were savá, similarly prefixed, denotes a quarter more than that number

or measure.  $\overline{\epsilon} \overline{\phi} \, derh$  is similarly used, to denote one and a half times such number or measure. When either of these three stand alone, unity is to be understood; but in this case  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}}$  paun is the substitute for  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}}$ ; it is used with units only.  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{k}}$  arhái, used alone, is  $2\frac{1}{3}$ ; prefixed to any numeral or noun of measure, it denotes two and a half times that number or measure.  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{j}\mathbf{j}}$  sárhe is never used alone. Prefixed, as above, to a noun or number, it denotes one half more than the following number or measure. It is never used with 'one' or 'two', where  $\overline{\epsilon}\overline{\phi}$  and  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}\mathbf{k}}$  take its place.  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}}$  ádhá, 'half', is very commonly shortened to  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{k}}$  is sometimes used.

a. The following examples will illustrate the use of these fractional numbers :---

$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8},$	स्राध पास्री adh pao.	250, खठाई से arhái sau.
$1\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{5}{16},$	सवा पासे। sará páo.	375, पीने चार से। paune chár sau.
$1\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{8},$	डेक पाचो derh páo.	450, साढ़े चार से। sárhe chár sau.
$2\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{6} = \frac{5}{8},$	सकाई पास्रो arhái páo.	1225, सवा इत्तार sará hajár.
21,	सवा दो sará do.	1500, <b>डेठ् इचार</b> derh hajár.
5 <del>]</del> ,	साठ़े पांच sárhe pánch.	1725, पैाने दा इजार paune do hajár.
7 <u>3</u> ,	पैाने चाठ paune áth.	2500, <b>खठाई इजार</b> arhái hajár.
75,	पौने सा paune sau.	3500, साठ़े तीन इजार sárhe tín hajár.
150,	<b>बेठ़ से।</b> derh sau. 18	50000, डेठ् लाख derh lákh.

b. They are used with nouns of measure, quantity, etc., as follows : हेठ् कोस derh kos, 'a kos and a half'; पीने दस गांव paune das gaj, '9<sup>3</sup> yards'; सठाई मन arháí man, '2<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> mans'; पासो चिसाक páo chitták, '<sup>1</sup>/<sub>4</sub> chitták'; साठ़े खारह हाथ sárhe bárah háth, '12<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> cubits'; सठा खरस sará baras, 'a year and a quarter'.

# Proportionals.

182. To express proportion, non guná or no gun is added to the numerals, some of which then assume forms slightly abbreviated.

Illustrations are the following : दुगुना duguná, 'two-fold'; चौगुना chauguná, 'four-fold'; तिगुना tiguná, 'three-fold'; चतगुना satguná, seven-fold'; चसगुना dasguná, 'ten-fold'; चैगुना sauguná, 'a hundred-fold'.

a. Besides गुना the affix इरा is also sometimes added to a few numerals, in a similar sense, as दाइरा, 'double'; लिइरा, 'three-fold'.

b. When, either in a literal or metaphorical sense, the idea of a string or cord is involved, सड़ा may be similarly added, as तिसड़ा, 'triple '; चालड़ा, 'quadruple'.

## Denominatives.

183. Multiplicatives, such as the English 'twice', and 'thrice', are not found in Hindí. The Hindí idiom is illustrated in such phrases as the following, viz.; स्वारह सात सतस्तर gyárah sát sathattar, lit., 'eleven sevens seventy seven'; इ तोन सटारह chha tín athárah, 'six threes eighteen'; which correspond to the English idioms, 'seven times eleven', and 'three times six'. Numbers thus used may be termed Denominative numerals. They have, in many cases, a form slightly different from that of the Cardinals. These special forms are as follows:—

l, {रकं ekam. to an ekam.	र्योक chauka. 4, चोका chauká.
11, सम sama.	41, ठांचा dhonchá.
(डोका daurhá.	5, पंचे panje.
1 है, { डोंक़ा daurhá. 1 है, { डेखोक़ा deorhá.	51, पोंचा ponchá.
2, दूना dúná.	6, æg chhakká.
(ठाम dháma.	6‡, स्रोचा khonchá.
21, रामा dháma.	7, <del>un</del> satte.
(तो tí. 3, तोन tína.	7 🚽, सतोंचा satonchá.
<sup>3</sup> , {तोन tína.	8, <b>ug</b> a <u>t</u> the.
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub> , { <b>‡ci</b> hú <u>n</u> țá. 3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub> , { <b>tici</b> ho <u>n</u> țá.	9, {नम nama. नम्मा nammá.

10, दहाम dahám. 14

184. The above are the only numbers which present peculiar forms, and even these forms are not substituted in every case. The only way to master their idiomatic use, is to commit the multiplicationtable to memory. Meantime the following remarks will suffice. कम, commonly written at, is substituted for van, in the series of 'one' only; as चार कं चार, lit., 'four ones four', i.e., 'once four is four'. In the first of the series, however, we have simply रक्तम रक, 'once one is one'; probably a contraction for ven en ven. In all other places in the table रक्त is the substitute, as, e.g., दस रक्त दस, 'ten times one is ten'. From the series of two onwards, दूना is used as the Denominative numeral for दा; it seems to be a modification of the Maráthí form of the numeral, दोन. From twos to tens, the fem. form, दूनी, is used ; from tens onward, the masc. Thus, सात दूनी चौदह,  $7 \times 2 = 14$ , but बारह दुना चौबोस,  $12 \times 2 = 24$ . सी is substituted for सीन from threes to tens only; in all other cases, तीन is used. Thus, चार ती खारह, 4×3=12; स्थारइ तीन तेंतीस, 11×3=33. From threes onward, चौक, (pronounced chauka before consonants,) is the substitute for चार; in the twos, the longer form, चौका, is preferred. Thus, पांच चौक खोस,  $5 \times 4 = 20$ ; दो चौका बाठ,  $2 \times 4 = 8$ . पंचे is the substitute for पांच throughout, as दस पंजे पचास, 10×5=50. The sing. form, æger, 'six', is used from elevens on ; from twos to elevens, the plur., we have a preferred; as चार कक्क चौबोस,  $4 \times 6 = 24$ ; बारह कक्का बहतर,  $12 \times 6 = 72$ . सते, 'sevens', (as if plur. of सता,) is used throughout, except in the elevens, where सात is employed ; e.g., क सत्ते वयासीस,  $6 \times 7 = 42$ ; but स्यारह साल सतहतर,  $11 \times 7 = 77$ . Similarly बद्धे is used for 'eight', except in the elevens, where we have wits; e.g., uta wig unented, 5×8=40; स्यारइ आठ अठासी, 11×8=88. नम्म is used for nine in the twos only; नम्मा, from the threes to the tens; ने। is retained in the elevens; नम is used from the twelves onward. Thus, देा नम्म बाठारह,  $2 \times 9 = 18$ ; चार नम्मा इसीस,  $4 \times 9 = 36$ ; म्यारह नै। निनानवे,  $11 \times 9 = 99$ ; खारह नम रक से आठ,  $12 \times 9 = 108$ . दहाम is substituted for **दर** in every instance. Above ten the cardinal numbers are employed as Denominatives.

a. In the multiplication table the word utar, 'over', is sometimes added to the smaller number in the numerals from 100 to 200. In this case the word sau always comes last, as, c.g., bisotar sau, 120. Observe that bisotar=bisa+utar.

b. The fractional Denominatives from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  to  $7\frac{1}{2}$  are chiefly used in surveying.

c. In numeration the words स्काई, दहाई and सेकड़े are used respectively for 'units', 'tens', 'hundreds'. Of a similar nature are the words, सवाया, 1<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>, ठाई and सङ्ग्रेया, 2<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>, which are used in the headings of the multiplication-table.

## Collectives.

185. The terminations आ á and ई i are added to some of the cardinals, to denote collective numbers; as कोसा bisá, 'a score'; बत्तीसो battisi, 'a thirty two'; चालीसा chálisá, 'a forty'. Besides these, the following words are used as collective numbers, viz. :--

चादा jorá,)	गाही gáhí,)
aişi jorá,) aişi jorí, 'a pair'.	गाही gákí,) पंजा panjá, 'a five'.
iter gandá, 'a four' (chiefly of	कोड़ी kori, 'a score'.
cowries).	सैकड़ा saikrá, 'a hundred'.

a. The cardinal numbers are often used as collectives, without any change of form.

# Derivation of the Numerals.

186. The Hindí numerals are all derived from the Sanskrit, through intermediate Prakrit forms; and by referring to the general principles set forth in Chapter III, the student will be able himself to demonstrate their derivation. We only note a few of the more obscure forms.

a. The numbers of the series unis, 19, untis, 29, untális, 39, etc., have arisen from the combination of the Sk. úna, 'lessened', with the next higher number. The full form of the prefix was ekona=eka+úna. Thus, even in Sanskrit, we have, e.g., for navatriyshat, 39, the alternative form, ekonachatváriyshat, H. untális, lit., 'forty less one'. The ek was early dropped, even in Sanskrit, giving, e.g., únaviyshat for navadashan, 19, whence by regular processes we have the H. unais or unis. The instability of the labial mutes is illustrated by their disappearance in the numbers unis, 19, unchás, 49, for únavís, and únapachás. A regard for euphony has probably led to the preference for the form navásí, 89, instead of unnave after the analogy of other similar numerals.

b. The student will note the peculiar change of d to r or l, in the series from 11 to 18, as, e.g., in the H. bárah, 12, for Sk. dwádashon, etc. Similarly, the final t of the Sk. saptati becomes r in the seventies, as in sattar, 70, for saptati. The initial w of the last syllable in certain of the fifties represents the p of the Sk. pancháshat; as, e.g., in *ikáwan*, 51, for the Sk. ckapancháshat. Sau or sai, 100, has arisen ultimately from the Sk. shat, but immediately from Prakritic forms, sataka, satika, nom. sing., satakah, satikah, whence, satao, satio, and finally, t being elided, sau, sai.

187. The irregular fractional numbers are derived as follows, viz:-

Páo, '1', from the Sk. páda, nom. sing., pádah, whence by §§ 69, c., 78, páo. Or possibly it may have arisen by a similar process from an increased form, pádaka. Paun,  $\frac{3}{4}$ , and paune, '- $\frac{1}{4}$ ', come from the Sk. pádona=páda+úna, 'a quarter less'. Adhá, '{', is from arddhaka, secondary form of Sk. arddha: savá, '11', or, as a prefix, '+1', from the Sk. sapáda, (sa+páda) 'with a quarter': derh, from the Prák. divaddhe, Sk. dwi+arddha; the labial is preserved in the Denominative fractional forms, daurhá, deorhá. Mr. Beames happily illustrates this form by the German idiom, 'halbswei', 13. (Can arhái, 23, be similarly connected with a Sk. compound trayo + 'rddha ?) Sárhe, '+  $\frac{1}{2}$ ', is from the Sk. sa + arddha, (sárddhaka,) ' with one half'. In the rare forms, dhonchá, '41', poncha, '51', khonchá, '61', satonchá, '71', we evidently have as the last member the Sk. uchcha, (uchchaka,) 'superior', H. únchá: dhonchá apparently stands for chatur + uchchaka, the initial dh representing the final r of chatur, 'four'. Initial consonants were freely elided in Prakrit. The kh of khonchá is evidently for the sh of the Sk shash, 'six'.

188. The ordinals are derived from the Sanskrit ordinals, through intermediate Prakrit forms. Thus pahlá, daswán, pacháswán have respectively arisen from the Sk. prathama, dashama, and pancháshattama.

#### CHAPTER VII.

#### PRONOUNS.

189. The pronouns in Hindí, as in all other languages, exhibit many irregularities in their forms of declension. Old inflectional case-endings which have quite vanished from the noun, except in certain dialects, here appear in the regular system of declension; although, indeed, the analytical forms, even in pronominal declension, largely prevail over the inflectional. The Hindí pronoun, except in some of the Rájputáná dialects, has quite lost the distinction of gender, which was still retained in the Prakrit. There is no distinctive pronoun for the third person; the demonstratives, uz yah, 'this', uz wah, 'that', and, after a relative

pronoun, expressed or implied, the correlative pronoun, an so, supply its place.

190. In the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons,  $\ddot{H}$  main and  $\ddot{H}H$  turn,  $\Pi$  rá appears as the sign of the genitive, instead of  $\ddot{H}H$  ká, and is appended to a stem different from that which we find in any other case. The reflexive pronoun,  $\Pi \Pi \dot{A}p$ , is peculiar in retaining a purely inflectional gen.,  $\Pi \Pi \dot{A}p$ , is peculiar in retaining a purely inflectional gen.,  $\Pi \Pi \dot{A}p$ , is peculiar in retaining a purely inflectional gen.,  $\Pi \Pi \dot{A}p$ , is the sk.  $\Pi \Pi \Pi \dot{A}p$ . In none of the pronouns, except in the case of the ag. sing. of the 1st and 2nd persons, is the base in the oblique cases identical in form with the nom. sing.

191. It will aid the memory to observe the close analogy in the declension of the different pronouns. In both demonstratives, the relative, correlative and interrogative pronouns, *v* appears as the inflective sign of the oblique singular throughout; and  $\overline{a}$  *n*, or, in the longer forms, = nh, as the sign of the oblique plural. A similar analogy will be found to run through each of the dialectic systems of declension. Observe, further, that throughout all the varieties of declension, an initial palatal, viz., **x**, (rarely **x**,) its long vowel, **x**, or its gun diphthong,  $\mathbf{v}$ , or the cognate semivowel,  $\mathbf{v}$ , marks the proximate demonstrative; an initial lubial, viz., J, its long vowel, s, its gun diphthong, चेंग, or its cognate semivowel, व, marks the remote demonstrative; ज initial marks the relative; च or त initial, the correlative; and an, the interrogative pronoun. Thus the declension of any one of these five pronouns may be transformed into that of any other, by simply substituting the proper pronominal initial. Thus, to tabulate the above, we have, in standard Hindí, the following pronominal bases :---

	Prox. Dem.	Rem. Dem.	Rel.	Correl.	Interr.
Nom.	य	व	অ	स	ন্দ
Obl.	T	च	যি	নি	वित

a. The idea of indefiniteness is expressed by adding to the interrogative inflected base, in standard Hindí,  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , in other dialects,  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{z}$ , or  $\mathbf{x}$ , or with the aspirate,  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ , or  $\mathbf{x}$ .

b. After the same analogy are formed from these pronominal bases six classes of adverbs, which will be noticed in Chapter X.

192. The first personal pronoun is declined as follows :----

में main, 'I'.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N.	में	mai <u>n</u> ,	<b>'I'</b> .	इम	ham,	'we'.
Ac. D.	)सुभे (सुभा की	mujhe, mujh ko,	me', 'to me'.	इमें इम } इमें }का	hamen, ham or hamon ko,	'us', 'to us .
-	में ने	mai <u>n</u> ne,	'by me'.	इम इमेर्रे ने	ham or hamo <u>n</u> ne,	'by us'.
<b>A</b> b.	मुभ से	mujh se,	' from me'.	इम इमेर्। इमेर्र	ham or hamo <u>n</u> se,	'from us'.
			'my', 'mine'.			'our', 'ours'.
L.	मुक्त हेमें, प्र	mujh me , or par	<u>»,</u> 'in'or r, 'on me'.	इम ∤र्मे, इमेां)पर,	ham, hamo <u>n</u> men, or par,	'in' or 'on us'.

193. After the same model is declined the second personal pronoun,

Ttú, 'thou'.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N.	নু	tú,	• thou '.			'you'.
	•	иул ко,	hee', 'to thee'	तुम्दे तुम्द्र तुम्द्रो)	tumhen tum or tumhon ko,	'you', 'to you'.
Ag.	तू ने	tú ne,	' by thee'.	तुम् ) तुम्हो)	tum or tumho <u>n</u> ne,	'by you'.
Ab.	तुम से	tujh se,	'from thee'.	तुम् ) से तुम्हों) से	tum or tumho <u>n</u> se,	'from you'.
G.	त्तेरा (-रे,-री	terá, ,)(-re, <b>-rí</b> ,)	'thy', 'thine'.	तुम्हारा (-रे,-री,)	tumhárá, (-re,-rí,)	your', 'yours'.
L.	तुम् हे में, पर्	tujh men , or par,	, 'in' or , 'on thee'.	तुम )में, तुम्हों)पर,	tum, tumho men, or pa	on 'in' or r, 'on you'.

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a. In the dat. and acc. sing., we occasionally find the forms, मेरे तरें, तरे तरें ; but these are archaic, and have about disappeared from standard Hindí.

194. In the above pronouns, the plural forms,  $\forall H$  and  $\forall H$ , as in the corresponding English pronouns, are often used for the singular. The sing. of the 2nd personal pronoun, is only used, in the standard dialect, to express either extreme familiarity, or, more commonly, aversion and contempt. It is however used, at least by Christians, in addressing the Deity. The singular of the 1st person is to be preferred to the plural used in a singular sense.

195. The longer forms, इमेर, सुम्हो, are restricted to a plural signification. They are not, however, extensively employed, but instead of these, when a plural is intended, the word सेगा log, duly inflected for the several cases, is added to the bases इस and सुम. Thus, in a plural sense, instead of the forms given in the paradigms, in standard Hindí we preferably have, N., इस सोग, सुम सोग; Ac., इस सोगों को, सुम सोगों का, सुम सोगों का, etc., etc.

196. When these pronouns are used appositively with any noun or adjective in the gen. case, instead of the gen. forms given above, the base of the oblique cases must be used, and the postposition, an, and, or and, be appended to the following noun only. Thus we must translate, 'of unlucky me', मुझ सामागी का; 'of us carpenters', इस बठ्दयो का; 'of you wise men', तुम बुद्धिमानों का, etc. इमारे बठ्दयो का would mean, 'of our carpenters'; तुम्हारे बुद्धिमानों का, 'of your wise men'.

197. The genitives of the personal pronouns are occasionally used substantively, with the obl. plur. inflection, in which case the objects denoted must be determined from the context. The following example is from the *Bhágavat Purán*; আন देशों में तुम्हारों से बड़े सुर बोर हुए दें, 'in other countries there have been heroes and braves greater than yours'.

198. The close analogy between the next six pronouns will best appear by exhibiting their declension in a tabulated form, as follows:—

# TABLE IV : STANDARD

		PROX. ]	Demonst.	<b>Вем</b> .	Demonst.	Re	LATIVE.
		यह yal	, 'this'.	वह १८	ah, 'that'.	चेा <i>jo</i> , 'w	'ho', 'which'.
	N.	यह यिष्ट	yah, yih.	वह वुह	wah, wuh.	चेग	jo.
	Ac.	यद्य	yah,	1	acah,		jo,
		दसे	ise. or	उसे	<i>118e</i> , or	विसे	jise, or
AR.	D.	दस की	is ko.	उस को।	us ko.	जिस की	jis ko.
SINGULAR.	Ag.	इस ने	is ne.	। उस ने	us ne.	जिस ने	jis ne.
20	Ab.	इस से	is sc.	उस से	us se.	जिस से	jis se.
	G.	दर्स का *	is ká.	चस का <sup>1</sup>	us ká.	चिस का	* jis ká.
	L.	बस}में पर is	me <u>n</u> , par.	डस) मे उस}पर	us me <u>n</u> , par.	जिस में पर	jis me <u>n,</u> par.
	N.	ये यह	ye, yah.	वे वह	we, wah.	वेग	
		दन्हें इन् )्र	inhen,	उन्हें	unhe <u>n</u> ,	जिन्हें	jinhen,
	D.	दन (का	in or inho <u>n</u> ko.	उन ( जन्म) की	un or unho <u>n</u> ko.	जिन   चिन्नी (को	jin or jinho <u>n</u> ko.
		1.e.)		-			
LL.	Ag.	दन (ने दन्हें)	in or inho <u>n</u> ne.	उन् ( ने उन्हें) ने	un or unho <u>n</u> ne.	ाजन ( ने जिन्हें)	jin 0 <b>r</b> jinho <u>n</u> ne.
PLURAL.	ł .				un or unho <u>n</u> sc.		
	G.	इन् ) इन्हों) <sup>का*</sup>	in or inho <u>n</u> ká.	उन् ) उन्हां) <sup>का</sup>	un or unho <u>n</u> ká.	जिन्हो) जिन्हो)	jin o <b>r</b> jinho <u>n</u> ká.
	L.	दन्) में दन्हें) पर	in or inhon men, par.	उन् ) में उन्हां) प	un or unho <u>n</u> <b>men, par</b> .	जिन (में जिन्हें) पर	jin or jinhon men, par.

• का is of course inflected to के or की according to § 140. † कीन is often

### **PRONOMINAL DECLENSION.**

Corr	ELATIVE.	Inter	ROGATIVE.	INI	DEFINITB.
से। 80	, ' that '.	कौन ka	un, 'who'.	कोई koi	, 'any one'.
से।	80.	कौान	kaun.	कोई	koi.
स्रो तिसे	80, tisc or	किसे	kise, or kis ko.	किसी को।†	kisí ko.
तिस को तिस ने		किस ने			kisi ne.
तिस से	tis se.	किस से	kis se.	कसी से	kisí se.
तिस का *	tis ká.	किस का*	kis ká.	किसी का*	kisí ká.
तिम पिम पर	tis me <u>n</u> , par.	किस) में पिर	kis me <u>n</u> , par.	किसी (में )पर	kisí me <u>n</u> , par.
चे।	80.	कौान	kaun.		
तिन्दे तिन् )का तिन्द्री)का	tinhe <u>n,</u> tin or tinho <u>n</u> ko.	किन्हें किन् ) किन्हे।)	kinhen, kin or kinhon ko.		
तिन् ) तिन्हो)					Plural Wanting.
तिन ) से तिन्हों) से	tin or tinho <u>n</u> se.	किन ) से किन्हों) से	kin or kinho <u>n</u> se.		Plural
तिन )का '	tin or tinho <u>n</u> ká.	किन (का किन्हों)	<ul> <li>kin or</li> <li>kinhon ká.</li> </ul>		-
तिन् ) में तिन्हों) पर	tin or tinhon men, par.	किन ) में किन्हों) पर	kin or kinho <u>n</u> mc <u>n</u> , par.		

colloquially used for किस, and कोई, for किसी, but the forms are inaccurate.

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199. Observe, that the relative pronoun, जो, does not precisely correspond to the English relative, 'who', 'which'. It is rather 'the one who' or 'which', 'that which'. Thus, जो सादमी साया 'the man who came'; में ने जो कहा से। किया, 'what I said, that I have done'.

200. The plural of the indefinite pronoun, कोर्फ, is often expressed by repeating the pronoun; thus, कोर्फ कोर्फ कार्य, 'some (persons) came'; में ने किसी किसी को देखा, 'I saw some, (or several) persons'. This often has an intensive force, *i.e.*, 'some few'. Or किसने may be the substitute, as किसने कहरो थे, 'some (a number) were saying '.

201. कौन, as also, still more rarely, कोर्फ, is occasionally uninflected in the oblique singular, as in the following from the *Prem Ságar*, कौन रोसि वे कृष्य उपने, 'in what manner Krishna was born'.

202. The emphatic particle i or i hi is sometimes added to all the above pronouns. In the oblique plural, i in is substituted for the final i on.

Examples are, यही yahí, 'this very'; में हो main hí, 'I myself'; उसी की usí ko, 'to that very person'; उन्हों ने कहा unhín ne kahá, 'those same persons said'. But, rarely, हो also follows the plur. inflection; as, e.g., उन्हों हो से unhon hí se, 'from those very persons' or 'that very person'.

203. When any of the pronouns are used substantively, they take the proper postpositions as given in the tables. When they are used adjectively, *i.e.*, with a noun, if in any oblique case, the inflected form of the pronoun, sing. or plur., is placed before the noun, and the postposition is added to the noun only.

Thus we say, उस ut us par, 'on that', or 'on him'; but उस छोड़े ut us ghore par, 'on that horse'; किस के घर को गया kis ke ghar ko gayá, 'to whose house did he go'; but किस घर को kis ghar ko, 'to what house'; उस के देश के लोग us ke desh ke log, 'the people of his country'; but उस देश के लोग us desh ke log, 'the people of that country'; जिन का jin ká, 'of whom'; but जिन खोनेयों का jin baniyon ká, 'the shop-keepers whose'; सिन कवियो की tin kaviyon ko, 'to those poets'.

204. Observe, that the longer plural forms, in  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ , can only be used in a substantive sense; the shorter forms may

be used either adjectively or substantively. Thus, 'of those horses', is उन चोड़ों का,—never उन्हें। चोड़ों का; but, on the other hand, we may say either उन ने कहा, or उन्हें। ने कहा, 'he' or 'they said '.

205. The plural forms of these pronouns are used for the singular, whenever it is intended to express respect. The longer forms are considered more respectful than the shorter. Since, thus, ambiguity might sometimes arise, the word that is preferably added to the pronoun, to denote plurality. In the oblique cases, this word, with the plural inflection, is inserted between the shorter form of the inflected base and the postposition. Thus, 'they' is at that; 'in their village', an that is, 'those who came', in that way, etc.

206. It will be observed that all the pronouns hitherto considered, except the indefinite, present two forms of the acc. and dat. in both the sing. and plur.; the one, purely inflectional, in  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$  (sing.) or  $\mathbf{v}$  (plur.); the other, analytic, consisting of the base of the oblique cases with  $\overline{\mathbf{vn}}$ . These may both be used as either dative or accusative; but the forms with  $\overline{\mathbf{vn}}$  are preferred for the accusative, and the others, for the dative. Sometimes the employment of one or the other is determined merely by a regard to euphony, as, *e.g.*,  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$   $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$   $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$   $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$   $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$  under the immediate repetition of  $\overline{\mathbf{vn}}$  would have been unpleasant to the ear.

207. All the above pronouns, when used adjectively, may take the nom. form, with a noun in the acc.

Thus, we may say, बा घर में देखता हूं, 'the house which I see'; यह बात कहकर, 'saying this thing'. So also when used substantively, the nom. form of the accusative may be employed, but of things only, as में यह कहता हूं, 'I say this'; वा हम सुनते हें साई कहते हें, 'we say those very (things) which we hear'. But with कौन and कोई this usage is not considered elegant.

208. Besides the interrogative and kaun, 'who', and the indefinite pronoun and koi, 'any one', 'some one', etc.,

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another interrogative pronoun, an ky a, 'what', and another indefinite pronoun, an ky a, 'some', 'any', 'something', 'anything', is employed. The following principles regulate the usage of the two *Interrogative* pronouns.

(1) कोन kaun may be applied both to persons and to things; का kyá, to things only, except in expressions denoting surprise, as, e.g., का मुरस kyá múrakh, 'what a fool!' More commonly, in such a case, the emphatic particle,  $\frac{1}{2}hi$ , is added to the pronoun, as का हो बड़ा राजा kyá hí bará rájá, 'what a great king!'

(2) कोन kaun is used both substantively and adjectively, in both the nom. and obl. cases, but when used substantively, it refers to persons only.

Examples are, कौन है kaun hai, 'who is it ?'; तुम ने किस को खुलाया tum ne kis ko buláyá, 'whom did you call ?'; किस का है kis ká hai, 'whose is it ?'; किस लड्को का kis larke ká, 'what boy's ?'; तुम ने किस महाजन से पूछा tum ne kis mahájan se púchhá, 'of what banker did you inquire ?'; किस घर में kis ghar men, 'in what house?'.

(3) an kyá can be used adjectively in the nom. only: in the oblique cases it is always used substantively.

a. The acc., कारे को káhe ko, 'for what', is commonly used as the equivalent for the English 'why'. The gen., कारे का káhe ká, 'of what', usually denotes the material. Examples are, सुम कारे का बार tum káhe ko áe, 'why have you come?'; यह का दे yah kyá hai, 'what is this ?'; यह कारे का खना है yah káhe ká baná hai, 'of what is this made?'.

209. The two *Indefinite* pronouns, and *koi* and *so kuchh*, are both used either substantively or adjectively, and of both persons and things. But when used substantively, and *koi*, like and, refers to persons only, and *so kuchh*, to things only. When used adjectively, either may be used to denote both persons and things.

a. The distinction between these two pronouns, when used adjectively, appears to be this; that as kuchh always conveys, more or

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less distinctly, a partitive sense. Examples of their use are, कार्ब दे koi hai, 'is there any one ?', or 'there is some one'; but कुछ दे kuchh hai, 'there is some'; में ने किसी का देखा main ne kisi ko dekhá, 'I saw some one'; कुछ सड़के आप kuchh larke áe, 'some boys came'.

210.  $aan ky \dot{a}$  is declined in the singular only; aaa ba kuchh is indeclinable.

a. The obl. form kiew, which many grammarians have assigned to kuchh, is properly a dialectic variation of the obl. form of koé. It will be found in the tables of dialectic declension. Prof. De Tassy similarly assigns to kuchh, obl. plur. forms, kinhúy, kinúy, \* but these are to be regarded as mere variations of kinhoy, the obl. plur. of koé.

an kyá is declined as follows :---

au kyá, 'what?'

SINGULAR.

N. هست kyá, 'what?'. Ab. काहे से káhe ke, 'from what?'. Ac. (काहे को káhe ko, 'for what?'. G. काहे का káhe ká, 'of what?'. D. (काहे को káhe ko, 'for what?'. G. काहे का káhe ká, 'of what?'. Ag. Wanting. L. काहे, 'ut or par, 'on what?'.

211. The *Honorific* pronoun, with  $\alpha p$ , is used instead of the 2nd personal pronoun,  $\mathbf{x}$  th or  $\mathbf{x}$  tum, whenever it is intended to show respect to the person addressed. In the singular it is declined exactly like a masculine noun of the second variety of declension; *i.e.*, Nom., with  $\alpha p$ , Acc. Dat., with  $\mathbf{x}$   $\mathbf{x}$ 

a. But when more than one person is addressed, the plural is denoted by affixing the word लेगा log, which is then regularly declined throughout the plural, the word आप remaining unchanged; as, आप लेगा देखिये áp log dekhiye, 'your excellencies will please to see'; में आप लोगों से कहता हूं main áp logon se kahtá hún, 'I say to your excellencies'.

b. The honorific pronoun unu is also, much more rarely, used for the person spoken of, when that person is present, so that the reference will be evident. But in such cases it is better to use, instead of unu, the proper title of the person addressed, as unitan, disn, enen, etc.

<sup>\*</sup> Rudiments de la Langue Hindouí, p. 35.

212. The *Reflexive* pronoun, with dp, 'self', although, like the foregoing, derived from the Sanskrit with  $\eta$ , is differently declined. The singular number is declined as follows:—

#### SINGULAR.

N.	भाष	áp.	Ab	. चाप से	áp se.
<b>A</b> o. D.	म्राप) म्रापने) म्रापने तर्दे	áp ko, apne ko o <b>r</b> apne taí <u>n</u> .	G.	चपना (-ने,-नो,)	apná, (-ne,-ní.)
	म्राप ने	áp ne.	L.	श्वाय ∤में श्वपने ∫पर	áp or apne me <u>n</u> , par.

a. The plural forms are the same as the singular, with the exception of the Gen., where  $\hat{m}$  and  $\hat{m}$  and the Loc., where  $\hat{m}$  and  $\hat{m}$  as men, 'among themselves'.

Examples of their use are, आपस की बातचीत ápas kí bátchít, 'mutual conversation'; वे आपस में आगड़ा करते हैं we ápas men jhagrá karte hain, 'they are quarreling among themselves'.

213. The genitive of the reflexive pronoun must always be substituted for the genitive of the other pronouns, when the pronoun refers to the subject of the verb, and also in certain other cases, which will be duly noted in the chapter on Syntax. For the present one or two examples will suffice.

Thus, **यह आपने घर को जाता है** wah apne ghar ko játá hai, 'he is going to his own house'; but **यह उस के घर को जाता है** wah us ke ghar ko játá hai, 'he is going to his house', *i.e.*, the house of another person. Similarly, **स्यार आपने जिल में हिपा रहा** syár apne bil men chhipá rahá, 'the jackal remained hid in his hole'.

214. It will be noticed that all the shorter forms of the reflexive pronoun are identical with those of the honorific pronoun, आप. Thus, उस ने आप को मारा may mean, 'he struck you', (honorific form,) or 'he struck himself'. Whenever, therefore, the sense might be ambiguous, the longer form of the reflexive is to be preferred; thus, उस ने आपने की। मारा can only mean, 'he struck himself'.

215. The genitive auar sometimes assumes the plural termination

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चेते, and is then used as a noun, in the sense 'one's own people'. Thus, वह चायने के पास चाया, 'he came to his own (people').

#### DIALECTIC PRONOMINAL DECLENSION.

216. The tables annexed to this section exhibit the pronominal declension of ten dialects. Preliminary to the tables, the following remarks and illustrations of the forms current in the more important dialects may be found of service. The Braj forms are so uniform and regular as scarcely to demand illustration. The tables exhibit all the common Márwárí colloquial forms. The remarks in the following paragraphs refer especially to the Márwárí of the 'Plays'.

217. The aspirated and unaspirated bases of the 1st personal pronoun are indifferently employed; thus, म्हारो चारज सुन् 'hear my supplication'; सुव मारो खास 'hear my word'. में is used alone, as ag. sing. in the following, गुड को चार्सा में पाई, 'I have received the command of my Gurú'. Instead of the regular base, च, of the Mar. obl. sing. of the 2nd personal pronoun, ती (Braj, ता) is sometimes used, as ता ने गोरब नाच भरमयो, 'Gorakh Náth has led thee astray'.

218. दें and को are the common nom. sing. forms of the two demonstratives, यह and वह. Thus we read, को कड्वो लिख, 'he, writing a note'; दें दगो कियो कंगरेज, 'this treachery has the Englishman committed'. But या is found for दें (यह) and वेग for को (वह), as येग तेगगी बब कायेग, 'this jogi has come into the jungle'; वाई नाथ रावो, 'that same lord, O queen!' Besides the forms given in the tables, the 'Plays' often use the Braj वा (H. H. दस) in the obl. sing., as, e.g., वा नु पायेग, '(he) has found that'; where नु is for नै (H. H. को). The base वुब also occurs in the ag. (plur. of respect) in the following; जमर किया बुब, 'he has made (me) immortal'. वे occurs in the same case, as in वे क्रह्म स्थान सुबायेग मा नै, 'he declared to me the knowledge of Brahma'. Finally,  $\tau$  also is used as a base in the obl. sing., as in पींगला ररी लुगाई, '*Pingalá* his wife'.

219. Besides ज्यो, जो and जे are also used for the relative. The most common sing. inflection is ज्यां, as वाद्दी घावंद सेरो ज्यां में बचे, 'in whom dwells that lord of thine'. This inflection alone expresses the case of the agent, but ने is occasionally borrowed from the Braj,

in this and other cases; as, ज्यां नै धर्या सीस पर हाल, 'he who placed (his) hand upon (my) head'.

220. Besides the forms of the interrogative given in the tables, किंग and कान are found in the obl. sing.; thus, in the case of the ag., किंग पापी भरमाया, 'what sinner has led (him) astray?'; कान राज त्याग तपस्या कोनो, 'who, leaving his kingdom, has practiced austerities?'. So also the regular form, कीन, occurs in the case of the agent, as, कोन उस्साद ने ग्यान दिया, 'what teacher hath given (thee) knowledge?'. काहा, for क्या, 'what?', occurs in the 'Plays', but this is Braj. The regular Már. form काई occurs in the following; म्हारे काई घराय मुं काम, 'what business of mine in the saráe?'. का (for क्या or काई) is used in the following, merely as a sign of a question; विना पटन का पावा, 'is there rain without wind?'.

221. Mewárí, it will be observed, is distinguished from all other Hindí dialects in retaining separate forms for the masc. and fem., in all except the two personal pronouns. It should be further observed, that the Mewárí pronominal genitives in and are less common than those in an. The longer plural forms of the personal pronouns, in at and art, are preferred to the shorter for the true plural. In the colloquial of both Márwár and Mewár, the reflexive genitive, auan, is rarely used. The genitive of the several pronouns commonly takes its place, even when referring to the subject of the sentence. Thus the Márwárís would usually say, म्ह क्योर काम करह, =में अपना काम करंगा, 'I shall do my work'; क वो के गाम गोया.=वह अपने गांव गया, 'he went to his village'; वे वा का बाड़ा वरुया,=वे अपने घोड़ो पर चढ़े, 'they mounted their horses', etc.

2:22. In the Old Púrbí of the Rámáyan all the postpositions, excepting that of the agent, which has no existence in this dialect, are often employed with the pronouns as in standard Hindí. But they are much more frequently omitted, and the inflected base of the pronoun, sing. or plur., may then represent any oblique case whatever. This is indicated in the tables by placing the postpositions in a parenthesis.

a. This remark as to the use of the oblique forms of the pronouns, applies not only to the old eastern Hindí, but, more or less, to all archaic Hindí poetry, as, e.g., to the writings of the Rájpút bard, Chand, Kabír and others. Abundant illustrations will be found in the Syntax.

223. In the Rámáyan H is used, instead of HI or HIE, in the case

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of the agent; as, जो में पूछा नोंद द्याई, 'that which I may not have asked'. The same remark applies to सू or तै.\*

224. Observe. that while the longer oblique forms, माहि, ताहि, of the personal pronouns, are constantly used in the Rámáyan, both with and without the postpositions, on the other hand, the shorter oblique forms. मेा and सा, always take the postpositions.

a. But in the archaic Hindí of Chand, according to Mr. Beames, even मा and तो are used for all cases more frequently without than with the postpositions. Among his examples are, किम उधार मेा होद. 'how shall there be salvation for me?'; नाथ मेा नाम चंद, 'lord, my name is Chand'; सुनिय बाल सा लाल, 'hearing this word, thy father'.+

b. SH is occasionally used in the gen. plur., for SHITI, as in the following from the Rámáyan; ते पुन्यपुंज इम लेखे, 'in my esteem, they are treasuries of merit'.

c. Besides the more common oblique forms of the 1st pers. pron., given in the tables, a form मइ, in the compound, मह सम, (= सुक सा,) 'like me', occurs in one place only in the Rámáyan. Quite analogous to this, is an obl. sing. form, तड, of the 2nd pers. pron., noted by Prof. De Tassy in his Hindouí Grammar.

d. The Sanskrit genitives sing. of the personal pronouns, मम, तव, 'my', 'thy', frequently occur in the Rámáyan, as in other Hindí poetry, but they cannot be accounted Hindí, and are therefore omitted from the tables.

225. The regular Old Púrbí forms of the Demonstrative provouns, are दह, देइ, or रह, 'this', and खो, 'that'. But for रह, a form येडू also occurs; as राम भक्त कर लच्छन येडू, 'this is a mark of devotion to Rám'. In the obl. sing., the proximate demonstrative is inflected to wire or रहि; the remote, to स्रोहि, or rarely. वाहि. Examples are, द्विं विधि भरत मज्जन करि, 'in this manner Bharat, bathing'; पुनि पुनि पूर्वति चोडि, 'again and again she asks him'; मार सभाग्य जिस्रावत वाही, 'my evil fortune keeps him alive'; रांद के इदय, 'in the heart of this (demon)'. इंडिं मइ रघ्रपति नाम, ' in this, the name of the lord of Raghu'.

a. In the plural, we most commonly meet the inflected forms, we उन्ह, which, like the obl. sing. forms, are used, after the manner of the dialect, either with or without the postpositions. Thus, राखिय

<sup>\*</sup> It should be observed. however, that the Rámáyan exhibits great confusion in the use of the direct and passive construction. † Vide Journal As. Soc. of Bengal, Part I, No. II, 1873.

इन्ह आखिन माही, ' keep these (two) in your eyes'. For the dat. and acc. plur., forms उनाई and इनाई exist; as खगदीय इनाई बन दीन्हा, ' the lord of the world gave a wilderness to these'. For these, इहे and उहें also occur.

b. In the Rámáyan we meet a form जोस of the Remote demonstrative pronoun. The final द is not an essential part of the word, but an emphatic particle,=Br. इ. H. H., दो. But sometimes it seems to be added merely metri gratiá, as, e.g., in the following; साखन सबस जोगरे कर दोस । प्रमु सन कड़ कोइ सकस न ग्रोस । 'his eyes full of tears, joining both hands, to the lord nothing could he say'.

c. Similarly, in old Hindí, we find the emphatic nom. sing. forms, **at**, **at**, (for **ut**), of the Prox. demons. pronoun, **at** (**ut**). Thus, **fa disafit fat a nu dara at fuant**, '*Brahmá*, having delivered this instruction to the gods, went to his own world '; **at atat**, 'saying just this'. The final **t** or **wi** has arisen from the *sandhi* of the final inherent **w** of **tu** with the emphatic particle **t** or **s**, = H. H., **ti**. In the forms **vu**, **vu**, of the same pronoun, the final vowel is simply lengthened *metri gratid*.

d. In the Rámáyan and other Hindí poetry, we occasionally meet the Sanskrit demonstrative चापं, 'this', as पायेग्रासय तथ तनु चापं, 'pervaded by sin and impurity is this body of thine'.

226. The most common forms of the obl. sing. of the Relative and Correlative pronouns in the Rámáyan and similar poetry, are mis or mis and mis and mis also occur, but are to be assigned, not to eastern Hindí, but to the Braj. All these forms, as above remarked, are used in any case, either with or without the postpositions; as, e.g., mis fau and mis also, 'in what quarter Nárad was seated'; init init ut az intern, 'on that mountain was a large fig-tree'. Instead of these longer forms, the Braj obl. forms, an and an, are often used, but generally with the postpositions. Like an and an, however, these are also sometimes used substantively without the postpositions, as in the following line; an uz hat an ad an uz ang Hana, 'in whose body love dwells not, regard his body as a burning-ground (of the dead)'. S.B.

a. The genitive is thus commonly expressed in the Rámáyan by जिइ, जेहि, and लिहि, लेहि, or जाकर, etc., as जेहि सुमिरल, 'by remembering (of) whom'; जा कारे तैं दासी, 'whose handmaid thou art'. But the Braj inflected genitives, जासु, लासु, occasionally occur, and, still more rarely, जास, as, e.g., यह संखाद जास मन बावा, 'into whose heart this conversation enters'. A form लाहु, for लिहि, is found in a few

places, as चरन गये प्रभु लाहु न त्यागा, 'the lord hath not forsaken him (who) hath taken refuge with him', *lit.*, 'gone to his feet'.

b. सेह is found in the obl. sing. for सेहि; as सेह मालु कीन्ही आवरी, 'who hath made (his) mother crazy'. In the phrase सेड मन समुकि (Ram. L. K.), 'thinking this in his mind', सेड is an emphatic form of the acc. sing.,=H.H., साही. Very rarely, the correlative से is treated as if indeclinable, as, e.g., राम परायन से परि होई, 'over him, Rám is chief'.

c. Instead of the longer forms, जिन्द and लिन्द, जे and ले also sometimes occur in the obl. plur.; as, e.g., धन्य जे जाये, 'blessed are they who bore (them)'; ते देखे दोड माला, 'they beheld the two brothers.'

d. The Sanskrit forms of the relative and correlative pronouns, are occasionally used in the Rámáyan, thus, निरखंति तखानन सादर ये, 'who behold thy face with reverence'; प्रश्नंति ये योगी, 'whom ascetic saints behold'.

227. The most common form of the first Interrogative pronoun, कोल, in the Rámáyan, is कवल. To this, द is sometimes added, as in the following, before a fem. noun, कवानि वस्तु आदि प्रिय मेगीई लागी, 'what thing has been so dear to me?'. The Braj को is also occasionally used, as बेब बर्गालस को गनै, 'who can enumerate (their) countless disguises?'.

a. In the obl. sing. the regular forms, mis, are preferred to others when the pronoun is used substantively, as कोई सन करोई विरोध "with whom do they cherish enmity?". The medial T is sometimes dropped, as, धनुब केद तारा, 'who broke the bow ?'. But when the pronoun is used adjectively, the nom. more commonly remains unchanged, as fuel and fails aren, 'in what way may I obtain the maiden ?'; or the nom. form in T may be used ; as, atin main all all ma, 'in what way can (all the wonders) be recounted?'. A third obl. sing. form, main, also occurs; thus, winter yea main, 'of what use is pleasure to one destitute of religion?'. This may be contracted to कौने, as आवे कौने काज, 'of what use can it be?'. The Braj obl. sing., anie, is also found in the Rámáyan, as usu anie, 'whom wouldst thou serve?'. The plur. forms, nom. and obl. fare, farefie, etc., call for no special remark or illustration.

228. For the second Interrogative, क्या, when used substantively, काइ (काहा) is the usual substitute in the Rámáyaņ. The Braj forms, का and कहा, also occur. काहा is also found in the obl. sing. ; as दू यन काहा, 'for what fault?'. कि or कि is used for क्या as a mere sign of interrogation ; thus, होहि निरामिय कबड़े कि कागा, 'will a crow ever live without meat?'.

229. For the first Indefinite pronoun, कोई, कोड, कवानेड, कौनै and कवनड are the common substitutes in the Rámáyan. Thus, कवानेड सिद्ध कि बिनु विस्वासा, 'was there ever any saint without faith?'. I should suppose a nom. कवनिष्ठु or कवनडु must exist, but have not noticed it. The s of s is however certainly preserved in the obl. form, कवनेडु, for कवनेड, which is also used, as in कवनेडु काल, 'at any time'. Besides the above nom. forms, केडू and कोडि also occur, as in the following; सनुचित कडस न पंडिल केडी, 'no wise man will call it wrong'; जानि न पाव बाल यह केडू, 'let no one know this thing'. We also find केड and केये.

a. In the obl. sing. a variety of forms exist. कवानेह occurs in the following; कवानेह भांति बाध नाई बावा, 'in no way did he comprehend'. काह, (in the dat. and acc. काहाहि, ) is also used; as काहाहि दोय जाने देह, ' do not impute blame to any one'. In the following we have कोई; काहि न जात विधि कोहों, 'it cannot in any way be told'; द is lengthened metri gratiá. An obl. plur. form, काहुन, exists; thus यान सब काहुन पाये, 'every one received pán'.

230. The second Indefinite pronoun, कुछ, is used in old Púrbí poetry, but कड़ is preferred, often in the augmented Prakritic form, कड़क. It is always indeclinable, as in standard Hindí. Thus, राम .... कड़क दिन बास करोइंगे साइ, '(after) some days *Rám* will come and dwell (here)'.

231. The Reflexive pronoun commonly appears in old Púrbí as suy or suy of suy is a suy if it is a suy if it is a suy of the same himself is not; and suy ages, 'the lord of men himself mounted'. The genitive of the reflexive in the same dialect is sure, as in the following, where sure 'one's own', is contrasted with ut, 'another's; sure ut as g and a anis, 'no one heard his own (or) another's (voice)'. The fem. form is surufa, as surufa fat, 'toward myself'. The penultimate vowel is sometimes lengthened metri gratiá, thus, surura, surufa.

a. Frequently, in the Rámáyan and other poetry, the Sanskrit indeclinable reflexive pronoun, स्वयं, is substituted for आप. Thus. दछन पायक हरि स्वयं, 'Hari, himself a consuming fire'. Similarly. for the possessive, आपन, the Sanskrit inseparable possessive particle, स्व, is often prefixed to a word; as स्वकर काटि सीस, 'cutting off (his) head with his own hand'.

232. For आप का, the gen. of the Honorific pronoun, आप. the usual substitute in old Púrbí poetry is राडर; as भरत कि राडर पूल न होहों, 'is not Bharat your majesty's son?'.

233. The remaining colloquial dialects call for little remark.

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Observe, that in the Bhojpurí and Riwáí dialects the medial र is always pronounced short, thus, जेन, jen, फोन्ड, kenh, etc.

a. In the modern eastern colloquial dialects, as, e.g., the Avadhí and Bhojpúrí, the word सज. uninflected, is commonly added to the base of the obl. plur., instead of लोग. whenever a true plural is intended. Thus, Bh., इस सज मं=H. H., इस लोगो मं; A., सुम सज कर=H. H., सुम लोगों का, etc.

b. In some districts in the east, the final consonant क. of मुक and सुक, is changed by the rustics to च, giving such forms as मुचे, तुचे, मुच चे, तुच को. etc.

c. In the Bhojpúrí dialect. the longer plural forms, as उनकरा से, दनकरा के, etc., are used in preference to the shorter forms, when emphasis is intended. To the forms given in the tables, Mr. Beames adds सारा and ताइरा, for तुइरा (तुम्हारा), and, in Sháhábád, में।इ से, for इमरा से (मुक्स से). For the plur. of केडू (=कोई), कितेक is commonly employed; as कितेक घर जलत या, 'some houses are burning'.

234. The Honorific pronoun, wire, is in use throughout the Ganges valley, and, so far as I have noticed, is declined as in the standard dialect, except, of course, that the postpositions peculiar to each locality are appended to the stem. But, in the dialect of Riwá, the nom. sing. is wire. This is inflected to  $\mathbf{v}$ , as in wire  $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{H}$ . H., wire  $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{v}}$ ; but sometimes the inflection is neglected, as in wire  $\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{H}$ . H. wire  $\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{v}}$ .

a. Further east, as in Bhojpúr, and elsewhere, the word रोरा or रचरा, plur. रचरन्द्र, is the substitute for the honorific pronoun आप. It follows the declension of substantives. Instead of रचरा, रवा is also sometimes heard.

b. In the Panjáb and the Himalayas the common people are not so particular about using the honorific pronoun, and frequently address their superiors with tum, when no disrespect is intended. Indeed, so far as the writer's observation has gone, dp is rarely heard from the mountaineers of the Himalayas, except from individuals who may have mingled much with the people of the plains. So also the singular,  $t\hat{u}$ , is freely used among the same people, when in the Ganges valley we would only hear the plural, tum.

235. In the following paradigms, the inflected form of the genitives is not given, but may be readily learned from the rules for the dialectic inflection of adjectives and substantive genitives.

N. B. For the plural, the word entry, or, in the eastern dialects, eta, may be added to the nom. and then declined throughout.

# TABLE V: DIALECTIC 1st personal

		High Hindí.	Kanavji.	Braj.	Márucárí.	Neudi'i.
	N.	में.	में.	ਸੈਂ, ਵੈੀ, ਵੀ.	-10- 10-	<b>7</b>
	Ac. D.	मुभे. मुभ को.	माहि. मा का.	मेर्डि, मुडि.* मा (को. मुज)	म्ह) <sub>ने.</sub> म ५	म्हो रे.
SINGULAR.	Ag.	में ने.	में ने.	में ने. हैां.	म्हे. में.	म्ह.
SING	Ab.	मुक से.	मे।{से. ति.	मा ∤ैसैा. मुज) ते.	म्हें में }र्न	म्हेा ऊं.
	G.	मेरा.	मेरो.	मेरी.	मारेा. म्हारा.	म्हा (की. क्वी.
	L.	मुक(में. पुर,	मे। मा{पर.	मेा ∫में. मुख∤ परि, पै.	म्हें (माई. में (जपरे.	म्हो मारे.
	N.	इम.	इम.	इस.	म्हे.	रे.
	Ac. D.	इमे. इम की.	इमें. इम को.	इमें. इम. इमी )की. इमन, इमान)	मां / म्हां )	म्हां, म्हांयां) म्हांवरां ) रे.
RAL.	D. Ag. Ab.	इस ने.	इम ने.	इम, इमैां इमन, इर्मान }ेने.	म्हां.	म्हां.
Pro	Ab.	इम से.	इम्स् त.	इम, इमीं )र्से. इमन, इमीन )ते.	मा ) म्हा ) यूं.	म्हां, म्हांयां) म्हांवरां ) चं.
	G.	इमारा.	इमारेा.	इमारी.	मारी. म्हारी.	म्हां, म्हांयां)का. म्हांवरां )का.
	L.	इम <sup>(में.</sup> पर.	इम{ में. पर.	इस, इमीं मिं. इमन,इमनि)परि,पै	मां ) माई. म्हां ) जपरे.	म्हां.म्हांयां) म्हांवरां. )मारे

\* These forms are also used, more rarely, with the postpositions. A either of the postpositions may be added to either of the forms covered by

# PRONOMINAL DECLENSION. PRONOUN; $\ddot{\star}$ etc., '*I*'.

·			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	······································	1
Garhwáll.	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	A radhí.	Riváí.	Bhojpúrí.
में.	में.	में.	ਸੇਂ.	मंग्रं.	इम.
में. में सबि.	मैं <b>}क</b> ्वी. इंबि.	मे। मोडि(कई). मुडि	मेा का.	म्वाइ म्वाइ) म्वा) म्वा)	इमरा कि
में ने.	में से.	મેં.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
में तें.	नं{ <b>रे</b> . मं{च.	मा मोहि (सन). मुहि )	मे।∕चे. मे )ते, तन	स्वंदि से. स्वार्तन.	इमरा चेा.
मेरेा.	मेरेा.	मेार.	मेार.	म्वार.	इसर. इसरा.
में भा. पर.	में मां.	मा मोहि (माहि). मुहि )	मेर <b>(म.</b> पर.	म्वारे म.	इमरा में.
इम.	इस.	इस, इसन.	इम.	इस्ट.	इमनी.
इमुं. इम्) इमुं)	इमन(कृत्वी हुवि.	इमहिं. इस (कहं).	इम का.	इम्ह कंइं.	इमनी ∤को इमरा ∫कि.
इम}न. इमुं}	इमन ले.	इम.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
इम् ) इमुं )	इमन् थे.	इस (सन).	इम(से. हम(ते, तन.	इम्ह (स. (तन.	इमनी सो. इमरा )
इमारो.	इमरेा.	इम. इमार.	धमार.	इम्हार.	इमर. इमनो का.
इस् ) मां. इसुं ) पर.	     	इस (माडि).	इमरे म.	इम्ह म.	इमरा में.

bracket between the pronominal bases and the postpositions indicates that the bracket.

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# TABLE VI: DIALECTIC

### 2ND PERSONAL

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		High Ilindí.	Kananji.	Braj.	Márvárí.	Mevári.
	N.	तू.	तू.	तू. ते ते.	त्तं. चं.	च. a
	Ac. D.	लुके. तुक को.	त्ताइि. ता का.	सेर्गांच. सा की.	त ) ने. च ) ने.	घेा रे.
LAR.	Ag.	तू ने.	सू ने.	त्त्र) इत्	ते. च.	<b>1</b> .
SINGULAR.	Ab.	तुभ से.	ते। ते। ति.	ते। ते। ति.	ते ) च }रं.	घे। उत्तं.
	G.	त्तेरा.	त्तेरा.	तेरी.	धारा.	धा{की. का.
	L.	तुक) में पर.	से।{में. पर.	त्तो{में. यर, पै.	र्ते) माई. चैं) उपरे.	घो मारे
	N.	तुम.	तुम.	तुम.	च.	 चे.
	Ac. D.	तुम्हे. तुम की.	तुम्हें. तुम को.	तुम्दे. तुम् तुम्दा }की.	र्घा ने.	र्धा र्धायां र्धावरां)
AL.	Ag.	तुम ने.	तुम ने.	तम् ) न. तुम्हा )	र्था.	र्चा.
PLURAL.	Ab	तुम से.	तुम चे.	तुम् ) मैं।. तुम्हें ) ते.	चां सूं.	र्षा षांयां षांवरां)
	G.	तुम्हारा.	सुम्हारो.	तुम्हारी. तिहारी.	चांरेा.	र्षा षांयां षांवरां) <sup>को.</sup>
	L.	तुम( में. तुम) पर.	तुम <sup>(</sup> मैं. तुम <sub>(</sub> घर.	लुम् )में. तुम्हा) पर,पें.	र्था ( माहै. ) उपरे.	र्धा धायां घांवरां)

# PRONOMINAL DECLENSION.

# PRONOUN; R, etc., 'thou'.

(	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	,		
Garhucálí.	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Avadhí.	Riveáí.	Bhojpurí.
तू. तुद्दन, तिन.	तू, तुं.	तू, तूं, तें.	त्तयं.	र्त्तयं.	तुंह, ते.
तोई (कू. ताई) चंबि.	त्वे कुछी. हुबि.	सा कइं. साहि सुहि }(कइं).	तेा का.	त्वां त्वहि केंह.	तुंइरा के.
तोई न.	त्वी) ले. त्वै ) चे.	तू. त.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
तेाई ते.	त्वे{दे. चै.	तेा चन. ताहि तुहि (चन).	ते। ते। तन.	त्वा ) त्वाइ) तन	सुंबरा चें.
त्तेरेा.	सेरेा.	त्तार.	सेार.	त्त्वार.	तुझर. तुझ्रा.
त्ताई मां.	त्वै में.	ते। माहि. ताहि तुहि (माहि).	तारे {म. पर.	त्वारे) त्वाइ) म.	तुहरा में.
तुमू. तुमन	तुम.	तुम, तुम्ह. तुमह.	स्राच.	तुम्ह.	ते।इनी. तुइनी.
तुमुं. तुम् तुम् } रखि.	तुमन. तुम ∂कसी. तुमन) डुबि.	तुमर्डि. तुम्द (कई).	तुम चब) स्राप ) का.	तुम्ह कंई.	तुइनी }के. तुइरा }के.
तुम्) तुमुं) न.	तुम तुमन }ेले.	सुम्ह.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
तुम (त. तुमुं (त.	तुम <b>) है</b> . तुमन ) थैं.	तुम्ह सन.	तुम सब) से. ब्राप ∫तन.	तुम्द तन.	तुइनो }ेची. तुइरा }ेची.
तुमारेा.	तुमारेा. तुमरेा.	तुम्हार. तुमर.	लुमार. स्राप कर.	तुम्हार.	सुइनी का. सुद्दार.
तुम् ) तुम् ) मां.	तुम तुमन हे.	तुम्ह {माहिं. उपरि.	तुम सब) में. स्राप ) घर.	तुम्हारे म.	तुइनी) तुइरा ) में.
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# TABLE VII: DIALECTIC PROXIMATE DEMONSTRATIVE

		H. Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	Máruárí.	Mewárí.
	N.	यब.	यिषु, द्रषु.	यब.	च्चा, या. m. चा, या. f.	च्चा <i>m</i> . च्चा. <i>f</i> .
SINGULAR.	Ac.	द्वसे. दूस की.	ददि) या }को.	याहि. या को.	दब दबी पार्वी {नै. द्व	बाबी दखी) रे. ई
B1	Ag.	इस ने.	द्ददि) वा }ने.	या नें.	दब, दवी. चर्ची. द्रं.	बांगी, दयी. द्व.
	N.	यच्च, ये.	चै.	<b>ये</b> , <b>यै</b> .	रे, र.	रे.
PLURAL.	Ac.	दन्दें. दन्) दन्हों) <sup>की.</sup>	दन्हें. दन् ) दन्हें। को.	दन्हें. दहें. दनि ) दन्हें। कीं	दवां भवां } ने. यां सां }	म्पर्का) मां }रे.
Ð	Ag.	चन चन्देर्। इन्देर्ग }ने.	चन चन्हों }ने.	इनि इन्हें इन्हें	<b>द</b> र्खा, चर्चा. यां, द्यां.	षा <b>ना.</b> या.
			REM	IOTE DEMO	NSTRATIVE	PRONOUN
	N.	वइ, वुइ.	वुद्दि, उद्दि.	वेा, वइ.	<b>च</b> . <i>m</i> . वा. <u>f</u> .	च, व. m. वा. f.
SINGULAR.	Ac.	उसे. उस को.	उंडि) वा }	वाहि, विसे. वा (को विस)	उब उगी) ने. वबी वीं }	वन) वॉं}रे.
<b>a</b> 2	Ag.	<b>उस ने</b> .	उहि) वा }	वा ) <sub>ने.</sub> विष)	उब उबी. वबी वीं.	वकी. वॉ.
	N.	वइ, वा, वे.	वे.	ਕੇ, ਹੈ.	वे.	वे.
PLURAL.	Ac.	उन्हें. उन् ) उन्हों) की.	उन्हें. उन्हें) उन्हों)	उन्ह, विन्हें. उनि, विन ) उन्हों,विन्हों)	<b>उखां वर्षा )</b> वां व्यां ) <sup>ने.</sup>	वर्का) वा ) <sup>रू.</sup>
	Ag.	उन उन्हें। }ने.	उन्हो) उन्हो)	र्डान विन् <i>ो</i> ने. उन्हेां विन्हों)	उखां, वर्षा. वां, व्यां.	वर्षा. वां.

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# **PRONOMINAL** DECLENSION.

PRONOUN; 44, etc., 'this'.

1

Garhwálí.	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Avadhí.	Riwáí.	Bhojpur
या, या.	या, यां.	चह, र्दह. रह, येहु.	<b>ų</b> .	या.	रइ, दे, ई
रद. रद संबि.	ये र}कची.	दहि, रहि (कई).	र का.	या ) यहि) कंह.	दकरा) र }के
रद्द न.	मे } ले. र }	चडि, रहि.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wantin
<b>ये</b> .	ये.	ये.	द्दन, र.	र, रन्द.	दहे.
यू. यू म <b>वि.</b>	युन बन बना कस्वी. बना हे	दर्नाई, दई. दन (कई). दन्द्र)	चन का.	यन ) यन्द्र) कंई.	<b>र</b> नकरा) <sub>।</sub> रन )
यू न.	युनू) इन् ले. इना)	इन. इन्ह.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wantin
वर, etc.,	'that', 'h	ne', 'she', '	it '.		
वह.	वो.	चो.	च, ठेकनवा. फलनवा.	वह.	खो, हो, र
वे. वे समि.	वी) वि) <sup>का</sup> बी.	चाहि) वाहि) (कर्ष).	य्यो का.	वहि कंइं.	उकारा) खो }के.
वेन.	वो) वि)	ग्रोहि. वाहि.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wantin
चे.	वूं, वे, जं, वो.	म्रो.	द्या. यो सब फलाने,ठेकाने.	उन्ह.	उच्चे.
ন্ত. ত যৰি.	उनन) उनू कियो. उना )	उनइि, उँहैं. उन (कहं). उन्ह)	ग्रोन ) ग्रोन सब)	उन्द कंइं.	उनकरा) उन ) <sup>क</sup>
छंन.	उनन) उनूले. उना)	उन. उन्द.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting

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# TABLE VIII: DIALECTIC RELATIVE PRONOUN;

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		H. Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	Máŗwá <b>ŗí</b> .	Mewárí.
LAR.	—– N.	चेा.	चैाम.	चा, जीन.	ज्यो.जिको.जको. <i>m.</i> जिका,जका. <i>f</i> .	चा, जिको. <i>m.</i> जका. <i>f</i> .
	Ac. D.	विसे. विस की.	वेइि) जा}को.	र्चाहि. जा ) जाहि) की.	লিকৰ তিৰ তথ তৰা ? বা	जम्बी) जों }रे.
BINGULAR.	Ag.	जिस ने.	चेहि) जा }	चा }न. चाहि)	বিকৰ, বিকী. বিৰা, অৰা, বৰ্ষা. বা.	वर्षी. वॉ.
	G.	चिस का.	चेहि) जा ) <sup>कोा.</sup>	वासु. चा) चाहि)को.	जिकब जिब जब जखी रा. जी	ज्रमी/को. जो )को.
	N.	चे.	 जैान.	चैा.	ज्यो, जिकै, जकै	चा, जकै.
PLURAL.	Ac. D.	जिन्हें. जिन जिन्हें  की.	जिन् ) जिन्हों)	जिन्हें. जिनि )को. जिन्हों)	जिबा चर्का /न जा ज्या जिकां)	जमां) जां रे. रुपां )
I	Ag.	चिन जिन्हें।) ने.	जिन ने.	विनि )नं चिन्हों)	বিৰা, অৰা. জা, জ্যা.	चर्मा. च1. ज्यां.
				C	ORRELATIVE	PRONOUN;
	N.	स्रा.	स्रे।.	से.	चेा. तिको. m. तिका. f.	चो, तिको. m. तिका. f.
SINGULAR.	<b>A</b> c. D.	तिचे. तिच की.	तिदि) ता ्रको.	ताइि. ता ) ताइि)की.	तिब)त्रे. तिबी	तवी रे.
SING	Ag.	त्तिस ने.	तिहि)न. ता	ता ने.	तिब. तिबी.	सबी.
	G.	तिस का.	तिइ) ता }को.	तामु. ता ) ताडि)	तिब) रो. तिबी	त्तबी <mark>की</mark> . का.
	N.	स्री.	चेा.	<b>से</b> ा, <b>ते</b> .	स्रो, लिके.	चेा.
PLURAL.	<b>A</b> c. D.	तिन्दे. तिन् तिन्देतिको.	तिन्दे। तिन्दे।	तिन्दे. तिनि (को. तिन्दी)	तिबा ने.	त्त्रणां) तां चि. त्यां )
	Ag.	तिन तिन्हो)ने.	तिन ) तिन्द्रों)	तिनि ) तिन्हों)	तिवा.	মৰা. না. ন্যা.

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### PRONOMINAL DECLENSION.

an, etc., 'who', 'which'.

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Garhwálí.	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Aradhí.	Riwáí.	Bhojpurí.
चेा.	वा, चै.	वा, वू, जवन.	चे,जवन, जैांन.	जऊनंयं.	चे.
লহু. অহু ঘৰি.	चै कयो.	जिहि, जेहि) जेहि. ) <sup>(कंह)</sup>	वे का.	जउनै) ज्या कंइं. ज्याइ	जिकरा) जे के
অহ ন.	चै से.	जिहि, जेद. जेहि.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
जद्द की.	चै को.	विहि, वेहि. वा कर. वासु, जास.	वे कर.	चउनै) ज्या कोर. ज्याहि)	(जिकर.)
चेा.	वेा, चै.	चे.	चे.	जेन्द्र.	जिहे.
ज्यं. ज्यूं संबि.	जनन) जनू (कबी.	चे, जिनहिं. जिनहहिं. जिन जिन्द्द(कहं).	चेन ) चेन्द्र) <sup>का.</sup>	खेन्ह ज्यन ज्यन्ह	जिनकर) जिन ) <sup>को.</sup>
ज्यं न.	जनन) <sub>ले.</sub> जनू )	जिन, जिन्ह. जे.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.
चेा, etc.,	'that', 't	he same'.			
से.	सेा.	षेा,सु,से,तवन.	से, तवन, तैान.	_	(ते.)
মন্থ. মন্থ হাৰি.	त्तै कर्या.	तिहि, तेहि) ताहि, ताहु) <sup>(कहं)</sup>	ते का.	तजने त्या कंइं. त्याइ)	तिकरा) ते वे.
<b>तद् न</b> .	सै ले.	तिहि. तेहि.	Wanting.	Wantiug.	Wanting.
तद को. 	रौ को. 	तिदि, तेदि. ता कर. तासु, तास.	ते कर. 	तजने) त्या किर. त्याइ)	तिकर.
त्ते.	त्ते.	ते.	ते.	सेन्द्र.	तिचे.
ন্যু. ন্যু ঘাৰা.	 सन् कर्मा. सनू कर्मा.	ते, तिनाइं. तिनइइं. तिन तिन्द(कइं).	तेन } तेन्द्र)का.	तेन्द् त्यन त्यन्द्	तिनकर) तिन को.
त्त्यूं न.	तनन) ले. तनू )	तिन, तिन्द. ते.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting.

# TABLE IX : DIALECTIC

1st interrogative pronoun;

$\left[ \right]$		H. Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	Márwári.	Mewárí.
-	N.	कौान.	को.	को, की.	क्व, कव. कान.	কৰ.
SINGULAR.	Ac. D.	किसे. किस कीा.	किहि) का )	काडि. का की.	कुब कुबी) कुब कबी नै. की	काकी <b>ऐ.</b> कीं ऐ
8	Ag.	किस ने.	किहि) का )	का ने.	कुब कुबी कोन. कुब कबी. को.	क्रुबी. कॉ.
	N.	कौान.	का.	कोा, कीैा.	कुब, कब.	कब.
PLURAL.	Ac. D.	किन्हें. किन्हें)को. किन्हें)को.	किन को.	किन्हें. किन्नि <b>की</b> . किन्ही)	कर्बा ) कुबा ) ने.	कबा रे.
-	Ag.	किन्) किन्हें।	किन ने.	किनि )ने. किन्हों)	कर्खा. कुर्खा.	   कर्बा.
	·	·		<b>1</b> ST	INDEFINITE	pronoun;
	N.	कोई.	कार, काैनेा.	कोऊ, कोइ. कोय.	कोद्र.	काइ, कवा.
SINGULAR.	Ac. D.	किसी की.	कौने।) किंसू )	काडू की.	कुयाी रे.	क्तूबी रे. कॉरे.
ŝ	Ag.	किसी ने.	कौने।) किरू )	काडू नें.	कुखी.	क्सूबी. कॉ.
			2nd inth	ERROGATIV	E and 2nd in	DEFINITE
AL.	N.	क्या.	कदा.	कद्दा, का.	कंईं, काईं.	कांई.
PLURAL.	Ao. D.	काद्वेको.	काद्ये की.	काच्चे की.	कुखी नै.	स्ता रे.
	Indecl.	मुङ्	ककु.	ঙ্গন্তু.	कंर्च, कार्चि.	कांचें.

# PRONOMINAL DECLENSION

कौन, etc., 'who', 'what'.

Garhwáli	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Avadhí.	Riwáí.	Bhojpuri.
को.	का, का.	का. कवन, कवनि.	के.	कडन.	के.
कइ सरिय.	कौ कर्खी.	किहि.केहि.केइ. कवन, कवनि. कवने, काने.	कें का.	कोइि क्या वर्याह)	किकरा)के
कद् न.	की ले.	किहि, केहि. कंवन, कोइ.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting
को.	को.	कवन.	के.	कजन.	
क्यूं संखि.	कनन) कनू किखो	किनहिं. किनइहिं. किन किन्द (कहं).	केन{क. का.	कोन्ह वयन क्यन्ह	
व्यूचं न.	कनन) ले. कनू	किन. किन्ह.	Wanting.	Wanting.	
काई, etc	., 'any',	'any one', etc			
कोई.	का, कै.	केज.काैनी.कवनिड काहु,केहु.केज,कैयै	केंहू, केंज. कोना,कवना.	कोज, कौन्हे।	केंद्र.
कई संखि.	कै कर्या.	कौने. कवनिउ. काहुहिं. कोहि काहु (कहं).	केड) केहू)क	कोाज कौन्हे।}क.	केंहू के.
कई न.	कै ले.	काहू.	Wanting.	Wanting.	Wanting
PRONOU	NS; क्या, e	tc., 'what?' कु	<b>5</b> , 'any, so	me'.	
वया.	क्या.	कहा, काइ, का. कि, किं.	का, काव.	काइ.	का.
	1 C	1000	काय) कइ	कई (कई.	
	च्चा.	काहा.	कइ)	कया)	

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236. Observe, that whenever, in the above tables, we have a final short vowel, in poetry this vowel may, *metri gratia*, be optionally lengthened, so that we may have, *e.g.*, such forms as with, केहो, काह, for with, केह, काह.

237. Observe further that Anusvár is freely inserted or omitted in all the above pronouns, both in the terminations and, less frequently, in the pronominal base. Thus, e.g., we have **diff**. **diff**, **diff**,

238. Occasionally, for the acc. postposition, को, the postposition सई, (also written साई, ताई, साई and साई), is used in construction with the genitive. Thus we find मेरे सई, उस के सई, for the acc., सुझ को, उस को. साई is also sometimes added, like को, directly to the inflected base. Thus in the Márwárí play of *Híra* and *Ranjá*, we have देंगे भेद.... सुम साई, '(they) will give thee the secret'.

a. The postpositions में and पर are occasionally found, even in standard Hindí, in construction with the genitive of the pronouns, thus मेरे मे, तेरे पर, ला के पर, etc.\*

239. In the gen. sing. of the 1st and 2nd pers. pronouns, besides the forms given in the tables, the Mairs use  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$  and  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + Also observe, that in both *colloquial* Márwárí and Mewárí,  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . and  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + Also observe, that in both *colloquial* Márwárí and Mewárí,  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + Also observe, that in both *colloquial* Márwárí and Mewárí,  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + Also observe, that in both *colloquial* Márwárí and Mewárí,  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + Also  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + this', and  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + and  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$ . + the distinction of gender is preserved in the nom. sing. only. Of the former pronoun, the regular obl. sing. is  $\overline{\operatorname{vers}}$  in both these dialects. In the colloquial of Márwár and Mewár the relative is very commonly used for the correlative pronoun.  $\pm$ 

240. To the forms given in the above table, may be added the following; some of which I am unable to assign to any specific time or locality. Many of these are no doubt to be regarded as mere variations in spelling.

<sup>\*</sup> Compare the Márwárí idiom noticed in § 144.

<sup>+</sup> For the pronunciation of the first diphthong, at, in these forms, see § 25.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>‡</sup> The student will note the difference here indicated between the colloquial of Márwár and the Márwárí of the plays. (§ 216.)

a. डुं, = में, 'I', is evidently a shortened form of the Márwárí डुं." An abbreviated form, सुझ, for the obl. sing., मेरिंड, is sometimes used by Chand. इसन very rarely occurs as a nom. plur. for इस or इस लोग. Chand makes the obl. plur. of the 1st and 2nd personal pronouns इसोंड and सुमोंड. But इस and सुम with the postpositions, are also employed.

b. तैन and तें are sometimes substituted for तें or तू, 'thou'. In western Hindí, I have met with a gen. sing. of this pronoun, तेंड्रा, for तेरा; as, e.g., पकड़े मुगलाबी तेंड्रा हाथ, 'let the wife of the Mogul take thy hand'. A Prakritic gen. sing., तुझ, (for Sk. तत्व,) is now and then used in archaio Hindí.

d. In the declension of the remote demonstrative, वह, तंद occurs in the nom. sing., and, in the obl. sing., वा is sometimes found for वा, and वाडु, for वाहि. For the obl. sing., उस, rustic Mohammedans sometimes substitute वुस. It occurs also in the following from the Már. Play of Gopí Chand; धरो वुसी के ध्यान, 'fix (your) thoughts on him'. In the obl. plur., उने, वुने and उनवों are found for the dat., उन्हें; and उने, in the case of the agent, for उन ने.

e. Variant forms of the correlative pronoun are, in the nom. sing., सेख, सेप and सैंग्र, for से. The latter two are emphatic forms. In the obl. sing., ति and तिडु occur, for तिडिंग, I have also met with a gen. sing., तातनी, = तिस का, which evidently belongs to the S.W. ता alone is used as gen. sing. in the following; कहा नाम ता साहि, 'what is his name ?'. (P. S. Ch. IX.) A nom. plur. से, for H.H., से, is used colloquially between Allahabad and Benares. जिननि is found for the

<sup>\*</sup> हूं is said by Prof. Eastwick, (Vocabulary to Prem Ságar. sub voc.), to be used in the obl. sing. with the postposition की. in the following Arrdh Chaupáí; क्यों हूं की परि रही इसारी. But हूं, in this place, is in fact the Braj emphatic particle. = ही; and की is a Braj form of the conjunctive participle, कर (from the verb करना), which is in High Hindí added directly to क्यों, making क्योंकर. We therefore render,—'how (then) remained my honor?' Krishna to Rukmini, P. S.—Ch. LXI.

obl. plur., जिन्हों, of the relative. सिने, for सिन्हें, and सान, for the obl. plur., सिन, of the correlative, also occur in literary Hindí.

f. For the nom. sing. of the interrogative, कौन, we find in the 'Chrestomathie' of Prof. De Tassy, कौन, कौने and कौने. An obl. sing. and plur., काय. for किस. is found in western Hindí. कोइय and कास occur. for the indefinite, कोई, and कडुव, कोई and कहु, for कुछ. कोई and कहु belong to the west. For the Braj interrogative, कहा,=क्या, we sometimes have कही, and in the obl. sing., काहे, for काहे.

g. As the nom. sing. of the reflexive pronoun, wire, I have met with wird. With this same pronoun, is evidently to be connected a Már. nom. plur. form, wiret. In the only place, however, where I have met with it, we would have been used in standard Hindí. In the obl. forms of this pronoun, u is often substituted for a after p, as, e.g., in wiret, obl. plur., for wiret.

241. In the translation of the N. T. into Bhagelkhandí Hindí,\* the following peculiar pronominal forms occur. The nom. plur. of the 1st personal pronoun is इमारे, and the obl. plur., इमनु. Of the 2nd personal pronoun, the nom. plur. is तिवार, and the obl. plur., तिहारेलु. ये and यहे are both found in both the nom. and obl. plur. of the proximate demonstrative. यह also occurs as nom. sing. The plural of this and other pronouns, is sometimes formed with war, 'all', as in other eastern dialects; thus, ये सबरेनु तें. H.H., इन लोगों से. The nom. plur. of the remote demonstrative, at (at ), is a, and the obl. plur., always anger. The relative and correlative make the obl. plur., चिनन, तिनन The interrogative is कोन; the nom. and obl. sing. are alike. The remaining pronominal forms correspond closely to the Braj. All the obl. forms above given, are used with the postpositions, which for the most part are the same as in Braj. But #t is used for #.

#### PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

242. Besides the above pronouns many pronominal adjectives occur. They may nearly all be used either as adjectives or as pronouns. Two series, the one expressive of quantity, the other of kind, are formed from the five pronominal elements noted in §191. When used substan-

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<sup>\*</sup> Baptist Mission Press, Serampore, 1821.

tively, they all follow, in standard Hindí, the first variety of masculine declension; when used adjectively, they follow the laws for the inflection of Tadbhava adjectives in  $\mathbf{w}$ , and are thus inflected to  $\mathbf{v}$ . masc., and  $\mathbf{v}$ , fem. The following tables exhibit, first the standard forms, and then the dialectic forms of each series :—

	TABLE X : PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.						
Pron. Base.	Adjectives	OF QUANTITY.	Adjectives of Kind.				
द य	दत्तना itná, दत्ता ittá,	'this much'.	रेमा aisá, 'such', 'like this'.				
र व	उतना utná, उत्ता uttá,	'that much'.	वैसा waisá, 'such', 'like that'.				
লি	जितना jitná, जित्ता jittá,)	'as much'.	जैसा jaisá, 'like which', 'as'.				
તિ	सितना titná, तित्ता tittá,)	'so much'.	तैया taisá, 'like that', 'so'.				
ষি ক	कितना kitná, ) किता kittá, )	'how much?'.	कैसा kaisá, 'like what?', 'how?'.				

243. Besides the forms given in Table XI, the following additional modifications of some of these pronominals occur, viz. :— for उसना, वितना, वेसना, वेसना, वेसना, देसता, कित्ता, क्या, कित्ता, क्या, क्या,

a. The Sanskrit forms, ईदृश. एसादृश, = ऐसा, यादृश. = जैसा. सादृश.= तैसा. and कोदृश, = कैसा, are occasionally used in poetry. For ईदृश and कोदृश we also find स्दृश and कादृश.

#### PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

### TABLE XI: DIALECTIC FORMS

	H. Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	Márwári.	Mewárí.
	दतना. दत्ता.	द्रतनेा.	चलना.* चला.	च्रतरो.	चलरो. चलरड्रो.
UANTITY.	उत्तना. उत्ता.	उत्तना.	उत्तनैा.	उत्तरेा.	उत्तरेा. उत्तरड़ो.
ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.	विलना. विला.	<b>चित्तना</b> .	विसना.	चलरो.	जलरो. जलरड़ेा.
ADJECTIV	तितना. तित्ता.	तितना.	तिलने.	त्तत्तरेा.	सतरो. सतरड़ो.
	कितना. कित्ता.	किलने.	कितने.	कलरो.	कलरो. कलरड़ो.
	रेसा.	रेसेा.	रेसैा.	द्रस्यो. रेरो.	रेड्रा.
Kind.	वैसा.	वैसेा.	वैसेा.	उस्येा. वैरो.	वैद्रेा.
ADJECTIVES OF KIND.	जैसा.	वैसेा.	चैसेा.	जिस्ये।. जैरो.	चैड़ेा.
ADJECT	तैसा.	तैचेा.	तैचेा.	तिस्या. तैरा.	रीड़े।.
	) कैसा.	कैसे.	केसेा.	किस्यो. केरा.	कैंड्रेा.

<sup>\*</sup> Anusvár optionally added.  $\dagger$  I am unable to assign these forms with to belong to the east.

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### OF THE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

Garhwáli.	Old Púrbí.	Avadhí.	Rincáí.	Bhojpurí.	Miscellane- ous eastern forms.†
रतका.	दता. र्वता. रता.	रसना. रतत. रतिक.	यतना, यत्तान. रातक.	यातेक.	द्वतेक, रतेक. दतक.
खोतका.	जुता. स्राता.	भ्रोतना,श्रोतस. भ्रोतिक.	वलना. वत्तान. वातिक	उत्तेक.	र्चातक.
चतका.	चेता.	चेतना, चेतत. चेतिक.	ज्यतना. ज्यलान. ज्यातिकः	चतेक.	चितेक.
ततका.	तेता.	तेतमा, तेतत. तेतिक.	स्यतना, त्यत्तान. त्यातिक.	त्ततेक (?).	तितेक.
कतका.	केता.	कंतना, केतत. कोतिक.	क्यतना, क्यत्तान. क्यातिक.	कसेक. किसेक.	विक्तिम, वित्तवा केत्तक.
रुनेा, रुनू. ग्रनू.	थ्रस.	ग्रस, यस.	रेखन, रेस.	रेसन.	
वना. वनू.	-	थ्रोस.	चैसन, चैस.	वैसन.	
जना. यनू.	चस.	जस.	चैसन, चैस.	चैसन.	
तना. तनू.	तम.	त्तच.	तैयन, तैय.	त्तैसन.	
कना. कनू.	कर्स.	कर.	कैरन, कैस.	कैसन.	

certainty to any particular time or locality; but, from analogy, they appear

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244. Besides the above, the following words also are used as pronominal adjectives. Those which terminate in  $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$  follow the declension of Tadbhava nouns or adjectives inflected to  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ . The others, when used substantively, are declined like the second variety of masc. nouns; when used adjectively, they are indeclinable.

হল	ek,	'one'.	बीर '	'aur,	'other', 'more'.	
दूसरा	dúsrá,	'another', 'the other'.	बहुत	bahut,	'much', 'many'.	
दोनी	dono <u>n</u> ,	' both'.	কৰ্হ	kaí,]	several', 'how many?'.	
सारा	sárá,	'all', 'the whole'.	and kai,		everal, now many?.	
सब	sab,	'all', 'the whole'.	निज	nij,	'self', 'own'.	
हर	har,	'every'.	परार्ष	paráí,	'another person'.	

245. एक ek, strictly speaking, is a cardinal numeral, and दूचरा dúsrá, an ordinal. एक, 'one', when used pronominally, is usually followed by दूचरा, 'the other', in the succeeding clause; as एक इंचला दूचरा रोला चा 'ek hanstá, dúsrá rotá thá, 'one was laughing, the other was crying'.

a. Sometimes ver itself follows in the second clause, when the first ver should be rendered 'one', the second, 'another'. Thus, ver ver ver at error ur ek yah, ek wah kahtá thá, 'one was saying this, another that'.

b. When दूसरा follows एक in the same clause, the two have a reciprocal force; as वे एक दूसरे की मारते हे we ek dúsre ko márte hain, 'they are beating one another'. एक is indeclinable in the plural.

246. दोनेंt donon, 'both', is declinable in the plur. only, thus Nom. दोनेंt donon, Acc. दोनें की donon ko, etc.

247. wa sab, 'all', 'every', commonly aspirates the final a in the oblique plural; thus, Acc. with an sabhon ko, Gen. with an sabhon ká, etc. But wat, also, rarely occurs.

a. When used in the singular, as **use** an sab ko, 'to all', it denotes 'all' considered as a unity, 'the whole'; in the plural, it represents 'all' as a plurality, 'every', 'every one'.

248. The Persian adjective  $\underline{\underline{w}}$  har, 'every', though not very common in classic Hindí, is found even in the *Prem* Ságar, and is freely used in the colloquial. It may therefore be fairly regarded as belonging to the language. It is never used substantively. Compounded with  $\underline{\underline{w}}$  ek, it means 'every one' or 'every single', and is used either as a substantive or adjective, thus,  $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$  is used either as a substantive or adjective, thus,  $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$  is used either as a substantive or adjective, thus,  $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{w}$   $\underline{\underline{w}}$   $\underline{w}$   $\underline{w$ 

249. The aur, when used substantively, and followed by no other pronominal in the next clause, always signifies 'more'; as मुझे चीर दे *mujhe aur do*, 'give me more'. But when used adjectively, it may mean either 'more' or 'another', as the context may determine. Thus मुझे चीर याना दे *mujhe aur anáj do*, 'give me more grain'; but यह चीर खास है yah aur bát hai, 'this is another matter'.

a. When the is repeated in two successive clauses, the first is to be rendered 'one', and the second, 'another'. Thus us and the second, 'another'. Thus us and the second aur hai, 'this is one thing, that is another'.

250. Besides बहुत, 'much', we meet the intensive forms, बहुतेरा bahuterá, and बहुत सा bahut sá, 'very much', 'very many'.

a. Colloquially, सारा is also added to बहुत, 'many', with an intensive force; thus बहुत सारा is equivalent to the colloquial English idiom, 'a great deal'. This use of सारा is only colloquial. In Panjábí it is employed much more extensively.

251. **an** kai or **a** kai as an adjective means 'several'; when used as a pronoun, it must be rendered 'how many?'. It cannot take the postpositions. Thus, **an** you are kai purush áe, 'several men came'; **a** are kai áe, 'how many came?'. Where in English 'several' has a pronominal force, it must be rendered in Hindí by **an** was kai ek or कितने एक kitne ek; as कई एक हे kai ek hain, 'there are several'. But कई हे kai hain, would be interrogative,—'how many are there ?'. कई एक kai ek, and कितने एक kitne ek, however, may also be used adjectively in the same sense; as कितने एक पेड हे kitne ek per hain, 'there are several trees'.

a. The pronominal adjective किसने kitne is also used in the sense of 'some', 'several', both substantively and adjectively. Thus, वहां किसने भाट भी खाए wahán kitne bhát bhí áe, 'several bards also came'; किसनों का मस हे kitnon ká mat hai, 'it is the opinion of some'.

252. चिस nij, 'own', may be used as a pronoun, the person referred to being determined by the context; as चिस का घर दे nij ká ghar hai, 'it is (my, his, etc.) own house', चिस बुद्धि भरेख मोदि नाहो nij buddhi bharosa mohi náhí, 'I have no confidence in my own wisdom'. Or it may be added to possessive genitives of both nouns and pronouns, in the sense of the English 'own', as बह राजा का चिस पुत्र दे wah rájá ká nij putra hai, 'he is the king's own son'; यह मेरी चिस पुस्तक दे yah merí nij pustak hai, 'this is my own book'; वह अपने चिस घर गया wah apne nij ghar gayá, 'he went to his own house'.

253. पराई paráí, 'another's', is properly a possessive adjective. It may be used either with or without a noun; thus, पर पराई का दे yah paráí ká hai, 'this is another's'; पराई स्त्री paráí strí, 'another's wife'.

254. The words चकल sakal (Sk. च+कल), and चमस्त samast both signify 'all'. They are rarely, if ever, used as nouns.

255. The following dialectic variations of the above pronominals occur, viz.: for एक, इक and यक; for दूसरा, Br. दूसरा, K. दूसरा, Old Púr. दूसर, दूख; for दोनी, Br. दोनी, M. दान्युं, Old Púr. दुई, दूनी. दुस्रो; for सारा, Br. सारा, K. सारा; for सब, Br. सबै, सबरे, Old Púr. सवार; for स्रोर, Old Púr. सवर; for बहुत, Br. बहैाल, Old Púr. बहुतेक. बहूत; in Garhwal मिंडो, and in Márwár खात, खादी, खाला, खाहोत्त, and माकलो are the substitutes for बहुत. For कई, Már. has केई. For सकल, Br. gives सिग्री, and the Rámáyan, सगर (nom. plur.). For किलने एक, the Márwárí has किलीक.

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256. The following pronouns are Sanskrit. The most of them, as compared with the foregoing, are of rare occurrence in the colloquial, but are more frequent in literature, especially in poetry.

<b>uru</b> anya,	'other'.	बहु	bahu, )	<i>,</i>
भाषर apar,	'another'.			'much'.
चमुक amuk,	'a certain one'.	युग	yug,	
उभय ubhaya,	'both'.	युगल	yugal, }	'both'.
किमपि kimapi,	'any'.	युग्म	yugma, )	
<b>य</b> र par,	'another', 'other'.			'all'.
प्रत्येक pratyek,	'each'.			

257. जान्य, as also the more common corrupted form, जान, is 'another', in the sense of 'a different one', like the Greek heteros; but जायर is 'another', numerically, like the Greek allos. Thus, जान्य देश गाया, 'he went to another country'; नॉर्ड जान उपाठ, 'there is no other expedient'; but जायर देस युन, 'hear another reason !' In many words ut not only denotes 'another', as पर देख, 'another's fault', but, especially in compounds, suggests that other as distant: as, e.g., परदेश, 'a foreign country'; परसोक, 'the other world'.

258. The related words, युग, युगस, युगस, 'both', 'the two', strictly speaking, are all nouns, meaning 'a pair'; but they are practically pronominal adjectives, as will appear from the following examples: युग भूपांस, 'the two kings'; युगस नयन खलधार खद्दो, 'from both eyes a stream of water flowed'; स्वयाचि युगम खारि खे, 'joining my two hands'. Examples of the use of the other Sanskrit pronominals are the following : उभय आपार उदधि, 'both a boundless ocean'; किमपि प्रयोजन नाद्दों, 'there is not any need'; समुक कहता है, 'a certain person says'; प्रत्येक दिन, 'every day'.

259. प्रति, (indeclinable,) is occasionally used as a pronominal adjective; thus, प्रति आवसार क्या प्रभु कोरी, 'the story of each incarnation of the Lord'. बहु and भूरि, 'much', are both equivalent to बहुस, and, like most of these Sanskrit pronominals, are chiefly used in poetry.

### Compound Pronouns.

260. The relative pronoun may be compounded with the correlative or the indefinite pronouns. Each member is then inflected, but the postposition is added to the last only.

Thus, with सi, we have जिस लिस का jis tis ká, 'whosesoever'; with कोई, जो कोई jo koí, 'whoever'; जिस किसो को jis kisí ko, 'whomever'; with कुइ, जो कुइ jo kuchh, 'whatever'.

a. In the Rámáyan a similar Sanskrit compound occurs, in the phrase, चेन कोन लिखि, 'in whatever way', where चेन कोन, (for येन कोन,) is in the instr. sing.

261. Other compounds are formed with जोत aur, 'other'; as जोत कुछ aur kuchh, 'something else'; जोत कोई aur koi, 'some one else'; जोत कोन aur kaun, 'who else?'. जोत क्या aur kyá, 'what else?', is colloquially used as a reply of strong affirmation.\*

a. Sometimes चौर occupies the second place, but the compound has then a different meaning; as काई चौर koi aur, 'some other'; कह चौर kuchh aur, 'some more.'

b. The pronominal, चान्य, 'other', is compounded with itself in the form चान्येगन्य (Sk. चान्योग्न्य), 'each other', 'mutual'; but this is rare in Hindí. The two are occasionally written separately, thus; चान्ये। चान्य प्रोति सें, 'with mutual love'.

262. The particle सा sá, (infl. से se, सो sí,) may be added to the nom. form of कौन, thus; कौन सा kaun sá, lit., 'what like?'; वह कौन सा पेड़ है wah kaun sá per hai, 'what tree is that ?', i.e., 'what kind of a tree ?'; but वह कौन साहित है wah kaun sáhib hai, 'what gentleman is that ?'.

a. The same affix is added, colloquially, in the east at least, to the relative, जान, and correlative, तान, making जान सा, तान सा; and in the Doáb to the demonstratives, यह and वह, making यह सा, वह सा. But I have never met these forms in literature.

b. In old eastern poetry, however, the equivalent affix सम is added to the inflected base of the demonstratives, thus; दन सम, दन्द सम, 'like this'; उन सम, उन्द सम, 'like that', or 'like him'.

c. For कौन या, the Mewari has स्त्रीया, fem., स्त्री, as in the following; स्त्रीये मनव धा रे कीया, -कौन से मनुष्य ने सुम को कहा, 'what man told you ?'.

263. The indefinite pronouns are also compounded with

<sup>\*</sup>In Garhwál, aur alone is used, with a peculiar intonation, in the same sense of a strong affirmative.

रख sab; as सब कोई sab koi, 'every one', सब कुछ sab kuchh, 'everything'. Before कोई, इर har may be used instead of रख, in the same sense.

264. A peculiar indefinite is formed by repeating the indefinite pronoun with the negative particle, न, interposed; as कोर्भ न कोर्भ koi na koi, 'some one or other'; कुछ न कुछ kuchk na kuchh, 'some thing or other'. In the former case, both members are inflected in the oblique cases, but the postposition is added only to the second; as किसी न किसी का केस kisi na kisi ká khet, 'the field of some one or other'.

265. कुछ is idiomatically added to various pronouns and pronominals to give them an indefinite sense; it is then often scarcely capable of translation. Thus, इम क्या कुछ दोंगे, 'what we shall be'; बहुत कुछ, 'a great deal'. Similar are यह कुछ, कितना कुछ, etc.

266. The following pronominals belong rather to Urdú than to Hindí, but as they will be found in some modern Hindí books, they are enumerated here.

खाज بعض फुलाना 'فلانا, 'a certain one'. 'some'. बाजे مُلٌ , 'the whole'. बाजे مُلٌ , 'the whole'. बोर , چند , 'other', 'different'. चंद مَدِبْ

267. Of these, all are Arabic, except d a, which is Persian.  $\hbar t$  is sometimes used as a negative prefix, especially in the compound,  $\hbar t$  चांबर (فير حاصر), 'absent', 'not present'. पुलाना is always pronounced fuláná. Although it belongs rather to Urdú than to Hindí, still it is often heard from Hindí speaking people, especially in some parts of Oude, where, in a dialectic form, पुलनवा, it is often used, instead of the remote demonstrative, for a third personal pronoun.

# Origin of the Pronominal forms.

268. It is impossible, within the limits of the present work, to discuss in every detail, all the very numerous variations of the Hindí pronouns. We can only briefly indicate the probable origin of the more common forms. In the nom. sing., mais or mes, of the 1st personal pronoun, we probably have the Sk. instr. sing., mayá, Prák. mai, transferred to the nom. The ne, therefore, which is added to main. in the case of the ag., in High Hindí, is really superfluous, and in Márwárí and the Old Púrbí, main, alone and properly, denotes that case. The same remarks, mutatis mutandis, apply to tain, the Braj nom. sing. of the 2nd personal pronoun.

a. Besides the 1st pers. nom. sing., main, from a labial theme, the Braj pre-Bents a form, haun or hon, which has arisen from the corresponding Sk. aham, through Prák. forms, ahamam, hamam, haam or haum. In the Már. hún or hun, we have the same word, with the common reduction of the diphthong, (§75.) The corresponding Me. mhún, I would attribute to the theme sma, which appears in the Sk. base, asmad, and is also the base of the Sk. plur. declension of this pronoun. It presupposes a Prák. form, asmakam, after the analogy of the Prák. tumakam, for Sk. tvam, H. tú. This theme, sma, in Prákrit, regularly became mha (§97); so that from asmakam, k being rejected, we would have amhaam, and thence, as above, mhaun, mhún. With the same theme, sma, I would connect the Bh. nom. sing., ham, m and h having been transposed and a inserted between them.

269. The nom. sing.,  $t\hat{u}$ , of the 2nd person, has arisen from the Sk. nom. sing., tvam. The final nasal is preserved in the Már. and Old Púrbí,  $t\hat{u}y$  or tup. But I am inclined to regard the  $t\hat{u}$  in  $t\hat{u}$  ne, ag., as a gen. from the Sk. tava, through the Prák tua. The Av. and R. nom. sing., tayan, points to the Sk. inst. sing.,  $txay\hat{a}$ , as its original. An analogous derivation may be suggested for the R. 1st pers. sing., mayan.

a. The Bh. nom. sing., tuph, is a weakened form of tumh, for tughma, the base of the plur. in standard Hindí, where the theme tu has received, like the pronominal themes, a and yu, in Sanskrit, the increment sma. In the Me. and Már., thúy, we have apparently a transfer of the aspirate of tumh from the end to the beginning of the syllable, as in §97.

270. The obl. sing. forms, mujh, tujh, have their immediate origin in the Prák. genitives sing., majjha, tujjha, for mah, tuh. Prof. Lassen (Inst. Ling. Prac. §50) gives an apposite example of this change in the Prák. root, lijjh, for Sk. lih. The form mah occurs in the Rámáyan, and must be referred to a Prák. gen. sing., masya (?) for Sk. mama; and, by analogy, tuh, to a Prák. gen., tusya (?) for Sk. tava, formed after the analogy of the other Sanskrit pronominal genitives.

a. Braj, Kanaují, Avadhí and some other dialects present in the personal pronouns, the obl. sing. themes, mo, to. These also are true genitives, and are so used by Chand. (Vid. §224, a.) Their immediate original is to be found in the Prák. genitives sing., mahu (and tahu?), which again, through the common change of s to h, may be compared with the Br. pron. genitives, jásu, tásu. In this su Prof. Lassen judges that we have the Sk. possessive, sva (Inst. Ling. Prac. §175, 6.) The R. obl. sing. themes, mvd, tvd, will be considered in §283. The analogy of the Braj leads us to ascribe a similar origin to the Me. obl. sing

#### ORIGIN OF THE PRONOUNS.

themes, mho, tho, from Prák. bases, asmaka, tusmaka, to which, as above suggested, we may suppose that the possessive sva, (Prák. su, hu,) was originally added.

271. In the Már. forms, 1st pers., mhain, 2nd pers., tain or thain, we have a true instr. sing., with which the abl. postposition, sin, must be regarded as in grammatical construction, as would be its original, sam, in Sanskrit. I should suppose, however, that the same forms in the loc., mhain máhai, thain upari, etc., must be regarded as accusatives, for I have found no instance of the Sk. madhye and upari in construction with the instr. case, but only with the gen. or acc. In the later Prákrit, the pronominal termination ain is found in the acc., instr. and loc. Thus the analogous Prákrit forms, tain, are either acc., instr. or loc. After the same analogy, probably, may be explained the G. and Ku. obl. forms, main, men, tvai, as Prákrit instr. or acc. sing. forms in grammatical construction with the postpositions.

272. In the genitive mhárau, the suffix may have been originally added, as sometimes in Prákrit, to the base itself, mha; in which case, the long á has arisen from the elision of the k of the original karau (karakah), the earlier form being, doubtless, mhakarao, whence mhaarao, mhárau. But in the acc. and dat. forms, ma nai, mha nai, ta nai, tha nai, as there is no lengthening of the final vowel of the theme, I infer that the theme here is an abraded case-form. probably the gen. So in the Me. gen., mhauro, or mhaulo, as also in the eastern gen. mor, the original suffix (karakah or kalakah) was apparently added to the genitive. The same remark may be made of the genitives. merá, terá, etc., in which the affix has been added to the Sanskrit genitives. me, te. In the Bh. obl. sing. forms, hamará, tuhará, we have, as in mo, mujh, etc., a modern genitive taken as a new theme of the oblique cases. We would have expected, as in other dialects, hamárá, tuhárá; the shortening of the vowel is possibly to be explained by reference to the accent (P). The h of tuhará, as in all the plur. forms of the pers. pronouns, represents the s of sma; by which is formed from tu, the increased base, tusma.

a. The remaining sing. forms, mohi, tohi, etc., of the personal pronouns, will be best considered when we shall deal with the analogous forms, jáhi, táhi, etc., of the remaining pronouns.

273. Most of the dialects present ham, as the nom. plur. of the 1st personal pronoun. This has arisen, by transposition of the consonants and loss of the plur. termination, from the regular Prák. nom. plur., mhe, which is still the nom. plur. in Márwárí. This Prák. nom., mhe (amhe), evidently stands for an earlier form, asme, for the regular Sk. nom. plur., vayam, in which the theme, asma, of the Sk. obl. plur., asmán, asmábhih, etc., was assumed also into the nom., and the plur. termination, i, added after the analogy of all the other pronouns; so that asme (=asma+i) corresponds precisely to the Sk. nominatives plur., te, ime, ye, etc. In the R. nom. plur., hamh, I suspect that the h has been ignorantly added to make the form correspond to the 2nd pers. nom. plur., tumh, of the same dialect. The Me. nom. plur., mhaig, as I conjecture, stands for the acc. plur., *amhäin*, of the western Prákrit, which has been assumed into the nom., after the manner of the English objective, in the vulgar phrase, 'it is me'.

274. The most common form of the nom. plur. of the 2nd person, is tum. For this, in archaic Hindí, we have the form tumh, (also tumah,) which is but one step removed from the Prák. nom. plur., tumhe, for the Sk. yúyam. The sing. theme, tu (tva), increased by the pronominal element, sma, was for the sake of regularity, substituted for the increased theme, yughma, of the Sk. plur., and, as in the case of the 1st pers., asme (amhe), a nom. plur., tushma, was also formed from the theme of the obl. cases, after the analogy of the other pronouns, making tushme. It would therefore appear that besides the classic Sk. irregular plur., yuyam, yushmán, yushmábhih, etc., a more regular plural, tushme, tushmán, etc., was also formed from the base of the sing.

275. In the Már. nom. plur., the, the aspirate of tumh has been transferred to the beginning of the previous syllable, (giving thume?). The nasal thus left alone, has been weakened to Anusvár, and then lost, and the labial has disappeared before the diphthong, as in the sing., taip, for tvayá, etc. In the Me. thaip, we have probably an acc. transferred to the nom., as in the lst pers. mhaip, so that thaip stands for the Prák. acc. plur., tumhäip.

276. The acc. and dat. forms, hamen, tumhen, etc., of the personal pronouns, have arisen immediately from the Prák. accusatives plur, amhäin, tumhäin. The hiatus points to the loss of an h, so that the forms in question really stand for amhahin, (hamahin,) and tumhahin;—Prákrit forms which occur frequently even in archaic Hindí. This hin I take to be identical with the same termination in the acc. and dat. sing. of nouns in old Hindí, already noticed in §155, b.; *i.e.*, it is probably identical with the Sk. loc. sing. termination, smin.

277. Most of the dialects present a longer and shorter theme in the obl. plur.; as, e.g., ham or hamon, tum or tumhon, etc. All these themes in all their varieties were originally genitives plur. The longer forms, refer us, perhaps, to the increased Prákrit themes, asmaka, tushmaka; the shorter forms, to the simple themes, asma, tushma. Ham and tum or tumh are both used as genitives in old Hindi (§224, b.), as also are the equivalent amha, tumha, in the later Prákrit, where the gen. term, ánam, of the earlier Prák. has quite disappeared. The longer forms, hamon, hamani, tumhon, tumani, tuhani, are to be explained by reference to the Prák. gen. plurals, amhánam, tumhánam, which were formed on the model of the gen. plur. of the 1st decl. of Sk. masc. nouns. The terminations on, ani, etc., have therefore arisen in the same way as the same terminations in the declension of substantives (§ 157.) In the short n, of the G. tumun, hamun, we have a still further reduction of o to u. (§75.)

278. In the Már. and Mewárí, the Prák. gen. plur. term. ánam, for Sk. ánám, has become án, as in the substantive declension, giving *whán*, thán, for amhánam, tumhánam. The inserted y in the longer Mewárí forms, mhányán, thányán, distinctly points, as in substantive declension, to the elision of the Prák. suffix, k, which, according to Prof. Lassen, was sometimes added to these pronominal bases; so that these longer forms represent Prák. genitives, amhakánam, tumhakánam. The nasal before y must be regarded as inorganic and unessential. On the origin of the still longer forms, mháyvaráy, tháyvaráy, I have no light. Bhagelkhandí presents a modern gen. form, tiháyre, as nom. plur. Apparently some such word as log is to be understood.

279. The genitives plur., hamárá, tumhárá, have arisen from the combination of the Prák. karakah with the bases amha and tumha, giving, amha karako, tumha karako, from both of which, k having been elided, the forms amhaarao, tumhaarao, must have arisen; whence, by sandhi, and the usual transposition of m and h in the 1st person, we have, first the Braj hamárau, tumhárau, then the K. hamáro, tumháro, whence, finally, the standard forms, hamárá, tumhárá. N. B. Dr. Hoernle in the 'Essays' previously referred to, in confirmation of this theory, cites from the Mrichchhakati, a passage containing the form amhakelake (for amhakerake). In the case of the shorter forms, hamár, tumhár, analogy leads us to believe that the suffix was first added to the base, not in its increased form, karakah, but in the simple form, karah.

a. If, in the Márwárí and Mewárí forms, mhánro, thánro, mhánlo, thánlo, the Anusvár be organic, it follows, that, in this case, the affix was pleonastically added, not to the base, as in the above forms, but to the gen., so that the original of these Rájputáná forms must have been amhánam karako, amhánam kalako, etc. Otherwise they must be explained like the regular forms.

280. The various forms of the nom sing. of the prox. demonstrative, which contain h, viz., yah, yih, yihu, ih, eh, ehu, he, have probably all arisen from the Sk. eshah. The final u of yihu, yehu, ehu, as in the case of nouns (§75), represents the Prák. o for the final ah of eshah. Prof. Lassen gives a form, ehe, which looks like the original of the Bh. he. It appears to presuppose a nom. plur., eshe, from the stem esh. The loss of the final aspirate from eh and ih, has left the forms e, i. The remaining forms, yo, yi, yon, mas. o, fem. i, I would connect with the base im, which, although having a defective declension in Sanskrit, was fully declined in Prákrit. Yo and yi, have apparently arisen from the Prák. nom. masc. sing., imo, which, by the elision of m, yields io, whence yo and ya. The final nasal of yon, points to the Prákrit neut., imam, whence, iam, yon. The Me. o, fem., i, must, similarly, be ascribed to imo, fem. imd.

281. The perfect analogy between the two demonstrative pronouns seems to justify the hypothesis, that, as in the case of the prox. demonstrative we have a variety of forms from eshah (esho) and imah (imo), all resting ultimately upon the pronominal base i; so there must have been in the ancient vulgar speech, analogous pronouns, oshah, umah, resting on the pronominal base u, from which, precisely as above, we must derive the various nom. forms of the remote demonstrative, wah. But, although the existence of this base is

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abundantly attested by such Sanskrit prepositions as *ut, upa, upari*, etc., yet I have met no instance of a declension resting on this labial, either in Sanskrit or the Prákrit dialects. But it is quite possible that further investigation of these dialects may furnish such examples, and verify the above hypothesis.

282. The next three pronouns, jo, so and kaun, are so closely analogous that we may consider them all together. Each of them presents two general forms in the nom. sing ; the one form terminating in a vowel, e, o or u, the other, in n. We first consider the group in o. It has been hitherto assumed that the pronouns jo, so and ko, are derived immediately from the Sk. yah, sah and kah. But it is to be noticed that we have no proven instance of the preservation of this Prákrit termination, o, in modern Hindí, in any monosyllable, except under the influence of a preceding consonant, commonly k, appended to the Sanskrit base. It is therefore more reasonable to postulate, as the original of these three forms, Prákritic bases, formed by the addition of this k. (§79.) Now in the archaic Hindí spoken in Mewár and Márwár, we find precisely the increased form required by this hypothesis, in the relative pronoun jako, or jiko. From this latter form, again, by elision, and consequent hardening of i to y before o, we have another Márwári form, jyo, of this same pronoun. This last form, thus derived, or a form jao, from the other base, I therefore regard as the immediate original of the common Hindí jo; and by analogy would suppose that similar forms, sake or sike, kake or kike, must have existed, or may exist still, as the originals of so and ko. Although I can adduce no example of these forms, their actual existence is, I think, intimated in the R. obl. forms of the pronouns, jyá, tyá, and kyá, which are precisely analogous to the Már. juo, and may be held to presuppose as their originals, the bases jiá, jiká, tiá, tiká, and kiá, kiká.

283. We are now, in the light of these phenomena, prepared, I think, to interpret the R. obl. sing. forms of the personal pronouns, mvá, tvá, etc. which, we have hitherto purposely passed by. Analogy evidently leads us to suppose, that, as the suffix k was, in Prákrit, added to the other themes, asma, tushma, of these same pronouns, so it may have been added also to the shorter themes. ma(mu) and tu. giving the increased bases, muka, tuka; of which the original genitives would have been mukasya, tukasya, whence, according to the uniform laws of Prákrit speech, would come first, muáha, tuáha, then, muáa, tuáa, and by the usual hardening of the semivowel and sandhi of the final vowels, mvá, tvá.

284. From this digression we now return to consider the three pronouns under discussion. Besides the forms jo, so, ko, several dialects exhibit je or jai, se, ke or kai, in the nom. sing. The analogies of the language lead us to infer that, probably, these have arisen from the euphonic insertion of y in the place of the lost k, giving, therefore, from the above themes, first jayo, sayo, kayo, and then, o having been at last reduced to a, as in all Tatsama nouns, jaya, saya, kaya, whence the forms in question immediately arise. (§77, b.) An incidental corroboration of this theory is afforded by the archaic eastern form, kayau, of the indefinite pronoun. The base of the indefinite pronoun is always identical with that of the interrogative; and in this instance exhibits the very form postulated as the original of ke or kai. For the Sanskrit bases, ja, ta, ka, the Prákrit substitutes ji, ti, ki. From ki might be formed a theme kiko, whence, as above, would proceed the forms, kiyo, kiya, and thus, finally, the G interrogative, ki.

a. The archaic forms, ju and su, found in the Rámáyan and other Hindí poetry, I would derive immediately from the Sk. yah and sah through the Prák. yo, so. We have already noted, (§§75,154,) the existence of this final u, as the last remnant of the Sk. nom. masc. case-ending, in Tatsama nouns in old Hindí, and it needs no further illustration.

285. As to the remaining nom forms, jaun, taun, kaun, the interrogative will lead us to the explanation of the rest. To the interrogative ko, the word punar was, in Prákrit, pleonastically added, giving for ko, ko punar. The final r being elided (§78), and p weakened to v (§82), we have the eastern form, kavan, and thence, by a simple process, its equivalents, kaun, käún, kun and kan. This derivation being established, we are naturally led to the conclusion, that jaun and taun must also have had their origin from similar Prákrit forms, as jo punar and to punar; but we are as yet unable to demonstrate their existence. The analogies already exhibited seem to justify us in assuming, as the original of the R. forms, jaúnayan, taúnayan, jaúnai, taúnai, increased Prákritic forms, jo punaraka, to punaraka.

286. The analogy between the obl. forms of the demonstrative, relative, correlative and interrogative pronouns is so close that the explication of the forms of any one of these pronouns will apply, with the change of the theme, to all the others. As in the case of the personal pronouns, most if not all of these obl. forms, sing. or plur., are in fact true genitives. Thus for the Sk. gen. sing., yasya = jis ká, the Prákrit exhibits jassa or jissa, whence, by the loss of the last syllable, the modern jis. Similarly, tis stands for the Prák. tissa, Sk. tasya; kis=Prák kissa, Sk. kasya; and, by analogy, is presupposes a Prák. form, issa, for Sk. asya; and us, ussa for usya (?). Again, by the common change of s to h, and lengthening of the penultimate vowel in compensation for the loss of the conjunct, from the Sk. yasya, Prák. jassa, we derive the forms, jáha, jáa, whence the Braj obl. form, já. Similarly, tá and ká may be derived from the Sk. tasya, kasya, through intermediate forms, táha, káha; while yá presupposes the forms, imasya, iáha, yáa; and wá, umasya, uáha, wáa.

a. Sometimes ya final in a conjunct with a sibilant becomes *i*, as in avasi for Sk. avashya (§97, b.); thus, once more, from yasya, tasya, kasya, have proceeded the forms *jáhi*, *táhi*, *káhi*; and from the Prák. themes, *ji*, *ti* and *ki*, *jihi*, *tihi*, *kihi*, or *jehi*, *tehi*, *kehi*, for original forms, *yisya*, *tisya*, *kisya*. By the elision of *h*, from *chi*, *jahi*, *tahi*, *etc.*, we have the G. *ši*, *jäi*, *täi*, *etc.*, and by subsequent *sandhi*, 20 also the Ku. e or ye, jai, tai, etc., The Av. e, je, etc., are probably identical in origin with these Himalayan genitives. In the R. jyá, jyáhi, etc., we again have the same genitives. The y has probably arisen from the elision of k from the increased theme, jika, still existent in Márwárí, so that jyá and jyahistand for jikasya, and so on.

b. In the Braj genitives, jásu and tásu, we have the same termination as in the gen. of nouns in the Apabhransic Prákrit, as, e.g., in vachchhasu = bachche ká. (Vid. Lass. Inst. Ling. Prac. §175,6.)

c. In the Bh. obl. sing., jikar, etc., the Prák. karakah was apparently added to the theme for a new genitive, which, as in other dialects, became a new secondary base for the obl. sing. throughout.

287. If the above derivations be correct we are now prepared to understand the dat. and acc. sing. forms of the personal pronouns, moli, tohi, mujhe, tujhe, which we have hitherto passed by. In the final hi of mohi, tohi, we are led to recognize, as in the other pronouns, the Sk. gen. term., sya, here added, however, not as in the other pronouns to the primary base of the pronoun, but to the secondary bases, mo, to. Similarly we are to regard the forms mujhe and tujhe as having arisen from earlier forms, mujhahi, mujhahi, by the elision of h and consequent sandhi of the concurrent vowels. These secondary bases, mo, mujh, to, tujh, have already been shown to be Prákritic genitives, so that all the forms under discussion really contain a gen. termination twice repeated. It may be remarked in regard to the use of these forms as datives, that in many Prákrit dialects, the dative was already lost, and its place was often supplied by the genitive. And from the dative, as the case of the indirect object, it is but a step to the accusative, as the case of the direct object.

288. The Már. and Me. obl. sing. forms in n, ni, or n, present some difficulty. Possibly we may identify them with the Prák. instr. sing. of these same pronouns, which terminates in nd, fem., e; but this has little support from analogy, nor have I met with any such intermediate forms as might throw light upon the case.

289. The nom. plur. forms of the five pronouns under discussion may apparently be reduced to two heads, viz., those which correspond with the sing., and those which assume a special plur. termination. In the case of such forms as wuh, yih, jo, so, kaun, etc., the sing. form has evidently been assumed into the plural. The original model of most of the other forms is to be found in the Már. jakai, whence by elision of k and sandhi of the vowels we have jai. Similar are the other forms in question. The final e or ai may be identified with the same terminations in the Sk. nom. plur. of these same pronouns, where it has resulted from the sandhi of the final radical a with the i which is the affix of the nom. plur. The analogy of tumh for tumhe leads us to suppose such a form as jenke or jinke, as the original of the R. nom. plur., jenk. The analogy is strengthened by the Bh. nom. plur., jike. The same remark applies, mutatis mutandis, to the other pronouns.

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290. The bases of the obl. plur. of these pronouns present four forms; viz, lst, the simple radical, as, e.g., in the standard forms, un, in, jin, etc.; 2nd, a form in n(n), as in the Már. forms, unáp, ináp, janáp, etc.; 3rd, an increased form in nh, as in the longer plur. forms, jinhop, tinhop, of the standard dialect; 4th, another increased form, in k, as in the Már., jakáp, tikáp, etc. Of these forms the 1st requires no comment. In the second form in n, we have the gen. plur, as in the Braj plur. in n. (§175.) The fourth form in k has been already explained. The remaining base in nh presents a difficulty which we cannot certainly resolve. We may suppose, in the absence of any analogous forms which might explain the bases in question, that possibly h may have been ignorantly added to the bases, un, jin, tin, etc., after the analogy of amh and tumh, of the personal pronouns. Further than this we have no conjecture to offer.

291. The various terminations of the several dialects in the obl. plur., are of course identical in their origin with the same terminations in the substantives and personal pronouns; *i.e.*, they are simply various modifications of the Sk. gen. plur. term., ám or ánám. The dat. and acc. forms, *jinhen, tinhen, come immediately from the archaic forms, jinhahin, tinhahin, and therefore justify the hypothesis of corresponding forms in the other pronouns of the scries. This <i>hin, in the dat. and acc. plur., may very possibly be identified with the termination sin, of the Prák. gen. plur. forms, jesin, tesin, etc., in which case these forms would present a perfect analogy with the corresponding dat. sing. forms. (But see §276.)* 

292. The various modifications of the indefinite pronoun, koi, have arisen from the combination of the interrogative in one or another of its various forms, with the Sk. affix, api. Thus, koi or koi stands for the Sk. ko pi. In kou and kou, the i has disappeared, and the p has been softened to the cognate vowel. In kaunau and kano, the affix api has been originally added to the compound form, thus, ko punar api, and api has been reduced to au or o. The obl. sing. forms are to be similarly explicated. Thus, from the base ki, for Sk. ka, come kisi and kisu, both for kisyápi, (kisyaapi) for the Sk gen. sing., kasyápi; and with the change of s to h, from the base ka, we have káhú=kasyápi. 'The forms kehi and kehu probably stand for kihi, kihu, or kahi, kahu, still other corruptions of the genitive in question; and from these or similar forms in h. proceed the Av. keú and the G. kaí, K. kai. Several of these forms in h are found in the nom., but they must be regarded as genitives transferred by the ignorant to that case. The R. form, kaunho, I have met but once, and suspect that we have here but an orthographic variation of kauno.

293. In the Púrbí interrogative, káh, for kasya, we have again a genitive taken as a nom., and as the base of a new declension. This secondary theme, according to Prof. Lassen, (Inst. Ling. Prac. \$106,5.) was already declined in Prákrit. All the analogies of the language lead us to regard the longer form, kahá, having proceeded from a theme káhaka, derived from káh by the addi-

tion of the Prákritic k, as, e.g., in kachchhuk for kuchh. This k being elided, and the long á shortened before the heavy termination, we have by sandhi the Braj kahá. The shorter form, ká, was evidently derived from káha by the elision of h. The regular form, kyá, for kiá, presupposes a base kihá from the theme ki. Granting that kahá stands for a secondary base, káhaka, it is plain that in the obl. sing. káhe, we have a secondary genitive from this base, after the analogy of Tadbhava nouns in á, so that káhe presupposes a Prák. gen. káhäáha, whence, as in nouns, káháya, káhe.

204. The Már. and Me. kaig, kaig, etc., appear to be derived from an increased Prákritic neuter form, kakim, for the Sk. kim. The final Anusvár therefore represents the Sk. neut. term., m. The first Anusvár of kánin, is, I suspect, merely inorganic. The obl. sing., khá, is connected with the secondary themes, kdh, (káhaka,) so common in other dialects. The aspirate has been transferred from the second to the first syllable; the final á instead of e, represents the Prák. gen. term.,  $\ddot{a}dha$ , after the analogy of the obl. sing. of substantives in the same dialect.

295. Kuchh, kachhu, kichhu, are all corruptions of the corresponding Sk. kashchit. Kachhuk, has been already noticed. (§105, h.) The corresponding Már. and Me. forms are to be connected with the Sk. neut. of the same pronoun combined with the suffix api, viz., kimapi, through a similar form, kamapi, whence, m having become Anusvár, and p being elided, kápi, or kápíp remains. The final p has, I judge, been added through a popular misapprehension confounding this word with the interrogative kaíp.

296. Of the pronominal series derived from the five pronominal elements, (Tables X & XI, ) those expressing quantity are all to be connected with the corresponding Sanskrit series, iyat, kiyat, etc., or rather with their Prákrit equivalents, viz., ettiá, kettiá, etc. This hiatus marks the place of a k, originally added to these Sanskrit forms, which is still preserved in several dialects noted in Table XI, as, e.g., Bh. atek, jatek, G. etaká, tataká, etc. From forms similar to the above Prákrit pronominals have immediately proceeded the H. H. ittá. jittá, etc. The peculiar R. forms, jyátik, tyattán, etc., have evidently been formed from the secondary bases, jika, tika, etc., like the similar forms in the Riwáí pronouns. Of the n, r and r, which appear in many dialects in the termination of these pronominals, as, e.g., kitná, Me. kataro, katarro, R. kyattán, etc., I have no explanation to offer. It may be noted here that in Riwá and Bhojpúr, n is added also to the pronominal series denoting likeness, as, e.g., jaisan, taisan, etc. The final no of this second series in the G. vano, jano, etc., has probably the same origin. Similarly, in Mewari ro is the affix both in the first and the second series; cf. katarro=kitná, and kairo=kaisá.

a. The dialectic forms, jai, tai, kai,=jitnd, etc., are derived from the Sanskrit series, yati, tati, kati.

297. The various forms of the pronominal series expressive of likeness, as, e.g., jaisá, jas, jaisan, are all to be connected with the Sk. series formed with

the affix drish, viz., yddrish, etc. In the Mewárí and Garhwálí dialects the absence of the characteristic s, is to be explained by the custom in those dialects of changing s to h and then dropping it entirely. (§§103, 104.)

298. The reflexive pronoun,  $d_P$ , is derived from the Sk. dtman, which is used in the same sense. The obl. forms, *apná*, *apne*, point to a Prák. form, *átmanaka*, with an adjective sense. The derivation of the obl. plur. form, *ápas*, is uncertain.

299. The honorific pronoun, dp, is also derived from dtman, through the intermediate dialectic forms, dpun and dpu. The dialectic honorific pronoun raur, or raurau, etc., is to be regarded as a gen. formed from the noun, rdu, with the affix rd. This rdu is derived from rdjah, a form which the base rdjan assumes in Sk. at the end of compounds; j being elided, and ah changed to a, rda remains, whence rdu (§§69, c., 75, 78.)

# CHAPTER VIII.

### OF THE VERB.

300. The Hindí verb is very simple. There is but one conjugation, and all verbs whatever, both in the standard dialect, and in the local dialects, take the regular terminations belonging to the several tenses.

a. Seven verbs only in the standard dialect, present an irregularity in the Respectful form of the Imperative, and in the Perfect Participle and the tenses formed with it. But this irregularity consists only in the substitution of another root, slightly different from that which appears in the other tenses, and will give no trouble. To this root the regular terminations are appended.

301. The Hindí verb is affected by the distinctions of voice, mood, tense, gender, number and person. The voices are two, Active and Passive. The moods, properly speaking, are four only, Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative and Infinitive. The Infinitive simply expresses the abstract and unrestricted verbal idea; it is indeed, strictly speaking, a Gerund or Verbal noun. The participles are three, viz., Imperfect, Perfect, and Conjunctive.\* From every verb may also be formed a Noun of Agency.

a. The Imperfect and Perfect participles are sometimes termed 'Adjective participles'. The Conjunctive participle is peculiarly characteristic of the Indian languages: its functions will be explained in due order.

302. Reckoning the Imperative as a variety of the Future, we have, in Hindí, fifteen tenses. Three of these tenses are formed by inflection of the verbal root; the remaining twelve are all formed, in the standard dialect, by means of the participles, combined, in all the tenses but two, with an auxiliary verb.

303. The distinction of Number is made by inflection in all the tenses. The distinction of Gender is expressed in all the tenses, except the Contingent Future and the Imperative. As in the noun and adjective, an is everywhere the sign of the masc. sing.;  $\mathbf{v}$  of the masc. plur.;  $\mathbf{v}$  of the fem. sing.;  $\mathbf{v}$  or, rarely, and, of the fem. plur. The distinction of person is marked by inflection in the three tenses of the future, *viz*.: the Contingent, the Absolute Futuro and the Imperative. In the Indefinite, Past, and Negative Contingent tenses, both Perfect and Imperfect, the distinction of person is not expressed; in the remaining tenses, the person is indicated by the auxiliary.

a. In none of the tenses. however, is the scheme of personal endings complete. Except in the Imperative, which has a separate form for the 2nd sing., the same terminations everywhere denote both the 2nd and 3rd person sing, and, in the plural, the 1st and 3rd person also have the same terminations.

\* The appropriateness of this nomenclature, of necessity, cannot be shown, until we come to examine the use of these participles. We can, in this place, only express our conviction that the terms 'present' and 'past', commonly applied to these participles, are not philosophically accurate. These participles, with their dependent tenses, represent action in different stages of *pro*gress, not necessarily at different points of time. Since the above was written, I have noticed that Mr. Platt in his excellent Hindustání Grammar has adopted for the adjective participles these same terms, 'perfect' and 'imperfect'. He has failed, however, to carry out an analogous nomenclature in the tenses.

304. The above remarks are to be understood as applying without restriction to the standard dialect only. The peculiarities of the dialectic conjugations will be noticed in detail below. We first proceed to explain the formation of the various parts of the verb in standard Hindí.

305. In the standard dialect the *Infinitive* of all verbs terminates in ना. Under this form the verb will always be found in the dictionary; as, *e.g.*, वेालना, 'to speak'; जाना, 'to go', *etc*.

a. The infinitive is used as a *Gerund* or verbal noun, denoting abstractly the action or state signified by the verb. As thus employed it is inflected to  $\mathbf{v}$  throughout the obl. sing., and takes the usual postpositions after the manner of Tadbhava masc. nouns in **an**. It is never used in the plural. Thus we have, *e.g.*, **सड्**मा, 'to fight', 'fighting'; Gen., **सड्ने का**, 'of fighting'; Loc., **सड्ने में**, 'in fighting', etc.

306. Rejecting the final  $\pi$  of the infinitive, we obtain the *Root* of the verb, from which, except in the case of seven verbs to be hereafter noted, all the parts of the verb may be derived in a regular and orderly manner. Thus, *e.g.*, the root of  $\pi e \pi i$  is  $\pi e$ ; of  $\pi r \pi i$ ,  $\pi r$ , etc.

N. B. The root of the verb, in standard Hindí, is always identical in form with the 2nd pers. sing. of the Imperative.

307. The roots of verbs may be conveniently distinguished as close and open. By a close root is denoted a root terminating in a consonant; by an open root, a root terminating in a vowel. Verbs which have open roots, are often termed pure verbs, and those which have close roots, mixed verbs. Thus जा, खुला and से, the roots of the verbs जाना, खुलाना and सेना, are open roots, and their verbs pure verbs; but चल, मार and पड़, the roots of चलना, मारना and पड़ना are close roots, and their verbs, mixed verbs.

308. From the root of the verb, the Imperfect and Perfect participles in standard Hindí are respectively derived as follows:—

(1) The *Imperfect* participle is formed by adding to the root the syllable  $\pi$ .

(2) The *Perfect* participle is formed by adding to the root the syllable  $\mathbf{w}$ .

The following table will illustrate :---

Verb.	Ruot.	Imperfect Part.	Perfect Part.
बालना, 'to speak'.	बाल.	बोलता, 'speaking'.	बोला, 'spoken'.
डरना, 'to fear'.	हर.	डरता, 'fearing'.	डरा, 'feared'.
मिलना, 'to meet'.	मिल.	मिलता, 'meeting'.	मिला, 'met'.
मारना, 'to strike'.	मार.	मारता, 'striking'.	मारा, 'struck'.

309. Observe, that before the termination  $\mathbf{w}$  of the perfect participle,

(1) u is inserted after all roots ending in un, i or un:

(2) If the root end in the long \$, this vowel is shortened.Examples are ;—

Verb.	Root.	Imperfect Part.	Perfect Part.
साना, 'to b	ring'. ला.	साता, ' bringing'.	साया, 'brought'.
पीना, 'to d	rink'. पी.	पोता, 'drinking'.	पिया, 'drank'.
बोना, 'to so	ow' <b>. वो</b> .	बोता, 'sowing'.	बोया, 'sown'.

310. The participial terminations,  $\pi n$  and  $\pi n$ , are inflected to  $\pi$  (masc.) and  $\frac{1}{2}$  (fem.) according to the rules for the inflection of Tadbhava adjectives. (§163.) The fem. plur. is sometimes inflected to  $\frac{1}{2}$ , or, rarely, to  $\pi a t$ .

a. Verbs which insert  $\mathbf{u}$  before  $\mathbf{u}$  in the perfect participle, optionally insert  $\mathbf{u}$  before the inflection  $\mathbf{v}$ , and occasionally before  $\mathbf{\dot{z}}$ . But if the root of the verb in the perfect participle terminate in  $\mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{\dot{z}}$ , the  $\mathbf{\dot{z}}$  of the fem. termination sometimes combines with this radical vowel, by §40. Thus we have, *e.g.*, from  $\mathbf{\dot{u}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ , 'to drink', (perf. part. masc.,  $\mathbf{\dot{u}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ ,) the perf. part. fem.,  $\mathbf{\dot{u}}$ , for  $\mathbf{\dot{u}}\mathbf{\dot{z}}$ . Examples of these inflected participles are as follows:—

Nom. masc. Obl. masc. Fem. sing. Fem. plur.

From	डालना,	' to	throw'.	डालता.	डालते.	डालती.	डालती.
,,	,,	,,	,,	डाला.	डाले.	डाली.	डाली.
"	सेाना,	'to	sleep'.	बाता.	बाते.	बाती.	बाती.

From	रोना,	'to sleep'.	सेाया.	<b>सेार</b> or सेाये.	सेर्क.	सेर्चि.
,, i	रेना,	'to give'.	दिया.	दिये.	दी.	दी.
,, ة	करना,	'to do'.	किया.	किये.	की.	कों.

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b. Observe, that in dissyllable roots with a short vowel in the first syllable, and short a in the second, this a very commonly, though not invariably, becomes silent before all terminations beginning with a vowel. Thus from निकलना, 'to come out', we have the perf. part., निकला. commonly pronounced niklá. Similarly, in the contingent future, the 3rd sing., समझे, and the 2nd plur., समझा, from समझना samajhná, are respectively pronounced samjhe and samjho. But this rule is not to be applied in reading poetry. (Vid. §10, c. e.)

311. In the following seven common verbs, the perfect participle is formed from a root different from the root of the infinitive, *viz* :—

द्दोना,	'to be'.	Perf.	Part.	डुया.	Root.	۲.
मरना,	' to die'.	,,	,,	सुखा.	,,	सू.
करना,	'to do'.	,,	"	किया.	"	को.
देना,	'to give'.	,,	,,	दिया.	,,	दी.
लेना,	'to take'.	,,	,,	लिया.	"	स्री.
जाना,	'to go'.	"	,,	राया.	**	ग.
ठानना	'to determine'.	,,	,,	ठया.	59	ন্ত.

a. Of the above, करना, मरना and खाना also form their perfect participles regularly from the root of the infinitive; thus, करा, मरा, जाया. जाया, however, is only used in the Frequentative form of the verb; and करा and मरा belong rather to Kanaují and other local dialects than to standard Hindí.

312. When the perfect and imperfect participles are used as adjectives, the perf. part., gan, of the verb दाना, 'to be', inflected, if necessary, to agree with the participle and noun qualified, is very often added. The participle gan, in this idiom, is strictly pleonastic and cannot be translated.

Examples are,— खाया हुआ गेहूं, 'sown wheat'; दैाड़से हुर घोड़े, 'running horses'; गासी हुई सड़की, 'a singing girl'.

313. The Conjunctive participle consists either of the root alone, or adds to the root the syllable art or  $\hat{a}$ . The following are examples :---

Verb.	Root.	Conjunctive Participle.
करना.	कर.	कर, कर को, or कर कर, 'doing', 'having done'.
इंसना.	इंस.	इंस. इंस के, or इंस कर, 'laughing', 'having laughed'.
चाना.	चा.	चा, चाको, or वा कर, 'going', having gone'.
स्रीमा.	म्री.	सी, सी को, or सी कर, 'sewing', 'having sewed'.

a. Sometimes either कर or को is repeated after कर; thus, चल कर को or चल कर कर, 'having walked'; गा कर को or गा कर कर, 'having sung'. But this is colloquial and scarcely elegant.

314. The verbal Noun of agency is formed by adding to the inflected infinitive, the affix anen or end. Thus, to illustrate :---

Infinitive.	Noun of Agency.	
गाना, 'to sing'.	गानेवाला or गानेहारा,	'a singer'.
<b>वैाड्ना</b> , 'to run'.	<b>दौड़नेवाला</b> or दौड़नेहारा,	'a runner'.
बोना, 'to sow'.	बोनेवाला or बोनेहारा,	'a sower'.

a. Of these two suffixes, enen is everywhere used; six is more common in the east than in the west. These nouns are declined in the mase, like **digi** (p. 76); and in the fem., like **digi** (p. 77). The final  $\acute{a}$  of these affixes, especially of six, is occasionally shortened; but this again is an eastern usage.

315. The fifteen tenses of the standard dialect may be distributed into three groups. The first group will include such tenses as are formed immediately from the *Boot*, by means of certain terminations; the second group, such tenses as are formed by means of the *Imperfect Participle*; the third group, such tenses as are formed by means of the *Perfect Participle*. As thus distributed, the tenses stand as follows:—

## GROUP I.

TENSES FROM THE ROOT.

1. Contingent Future. 2. Absolute Future. 3. Imperative (Future).

### GROUP II.

TENSES FROM THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

1. Indefinite Imperfect.

2. Present Imperfect.

3. Past Imperfect.

۰.

4. Contingent Imperfect.

5. Presumptive Imperfect.

GROUP III.

TENSES FROM THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

1. Indefinite Perfect.

- 2. Present Perfect.
- 3. Past Perfect.

4. Contingent Perfect.

5. Presumptive Perfect.

6. Negative Contingent Imperfect. 6. Negative Contingent Perfect.

316. The above arrangement and nomenclature differs somewhat from any given in other Hindí or Hindustání grammars; but it is believed to rest on sound philosophical principles, and to give a more precise expression to the distinctive characteristics and mutual relations of the several tenses. Not only do these several groups have an outward individual character, in respect of their derivation respectively from three different parts of the verb, but one distinctive radical conception will be found to underlie all the tenses of each group, with which all their various usages may be connected. Every action or state, whether actual or contingent, may be conceived of under three different aspects, relatively to its own progress, i.e., (1) as not yet begun; (2) as begun, but not completed; or (3) as completed. It is believed that these are the essential ideas which severally pervade these three groups of tenses. In Group I, all three tenses represent the action as not begun, i.e., as future. The Absolute Future represents this futurition as a reality; the Contingent Future and Imperative, represent it as a possibility. The Contingent Future represents the futurition as contingent, in a general way, whether desired or not; the Imperative represents it as an object of desire or will. The tenses of Group II, represent the action of the verb, under various phases, as imperfect, i.e., as not yet completed; the tenses of Group III, represent it, in different aspects, as perfect or completed.

317. The three tenses of the Future, in Group I, are formed by adding certain terminations to the root, as follows:—

(1) The Contingent Future is formed by adding to the root the terminations given in the following table.

TERMINATIONS OF THE CONTINGENT FUTURE.

Sing,	1. %.	<b>2. र.</b>	3. 🔻.
Plur.	1. 💐.	2. चो.	3. <b>4</b> .

(2) The terminations of the Imperative are identical with the above, except in the 2nd sing., in which no affix whatever is added to the root.

a. In the place of the above affixes for the 2nd and 3rd plur., other terminations are added to the root to form what is commonly known as the *Respectful* Imperative. These terminations are as follows :— 2nd plur.,  $\mathbf{x}\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ ; 3rd plur.,  $\mathbf{x}\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ , or, more rarely,  $\mathbf{x}\hat{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{m}$ . Of these, the form  $\mathbf{x}\hat{\mathbf{u}}$  is commonly used with the plur. of the 2nd pers. pronoun,  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{u}$ ; that in  $\mathbf{x}\hat{\mathbf{u}}$  or  $\mathbf{x}\hat{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{m}$  with the honorific pronoun,  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}$ , or some equivalent word.

b. Verbs of which the root ends in  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$  insert  $\frac{1}{2}$  before the above affixes. In this case the radical  $\frac{1}{2}$  is changed to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

Thus सेना, 'to take', makes the resp. imper., सोजियो, सोजिये ; देना, 'to give', resp. imper., दोजियो, दोजिये ; सीना, 'to sew'; resp. imper., सोजियो, सोजिये ; पीना, 'to drink'; resp. imper., पोजियो, पोजिये or पोजियेगा, etc.

c. To the verbs included under b may be added three verbs from the list in §311, which irregularly form the respectful imperative from the root of the perfect participle; viz., करना, 'to do', मरना, 'to die', and चाना, 'to be', of which the respectful forms of the imperative are, कोचिया, कोजिय; यूचिया, यूचिया, टूचिया. टूचिया.

d. Observe that स्यो and स्ये, after ज in these respectful forms, are very often contracted to स्रो and स; giving, instead of the above, दोजे, कोजे, पोजे, etc.

(3) The Absolute Future is formed from the Contingent Future, by adding to each person of that tense, in the sing.,  $\pi$ , masc., or  $\pi$ , fem.; and in the plur.  $\pi$ , masc., or  $\pi$ , fem. The full terminations, therefore, as added to the root are as follows :—

TERMINATIONS OF THE ABSOLUTE FUTURE.

Sing. 1. खंगा, fem. खंगी. 2. एगा, fem. एगी. 3. एगा, fem. एगी. Plur. 1. रंगे, fem. रंगी. 2. चागे, fem. चोगी. 3. रंगे, fem. रंगी.

318. In the 2nd and 3rd sing. and the 1st and 3rd plur.,  $\mathbf{u}$  is very often substituted for  $\mathbf{v}$  after open roots (§307), in all three tenses of the future. In this case the *Anusrár* in the plural is added, not to the initial  $\mathbf{v}$  of the termination, but to the final vowel of the root. Thus, दोना, 'to be', makes the 2nd and 3rd sing. in these tenses देवर or देवर; देवरगा or देवरगा; and the 1st and 3rd plur., देवरंगे or देवर, देवरंगे or देवरगे.

319. After roots ending in चा, ई, र or चो, व is optionally inserted before र and र in the tenses of the Future. Thus, for बतार, पोर, देार, we very commonly hear बतावे, पोवे, देावे.

a. But in the case of roots ending in  $\mathbf{v}$ , educated moderns very often reject that vowel before all the terminations of the three tenses of the future.

Thus, from देना. 'to give', we may have in the Contingent Future, 1st sing., दूं. for देखे; 3rd sing., दे, for देखे; 2nd plur., देा, for देखेा. Similarly, from सेना, 'to take', we have, in the Absolute Future, 1st sing., ज्या, 1st plur., त्वेंगे, etc., etc.

320. Before proceeding to explain the formation of the remaining tenses of the verb, it will be necessary, as a preliminary, to exhibit certain tenses of the auxiliary verb **Rum**, 'to be', or 'become'. Besides the regular tenses common to all verbs, two other tenses, *viz.*, a Present and an Indefinite Past, are usually, though inaccurately, assigned to this verb. These must be considered first in order.\* They express simple existence, and answer, respectively, to the English 'am' and 'was'. These tenses are conjugated in the standard dialect as follows :---

	Pres	SENT.	
81	NGULAR.	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{L}}$	URAL.
में हूं,	'I am'.	इम हैं,	'we are'.
तू है,	'thou art'.	तुम हो,	'you are'.
वष है,	'he is'.	वे हैं,	'they are'.

<sup>\*</sup> Though conveniently treated here, it should be understood that, in reality, they have no organic connextion with the verb *hond*, which is derived throughout from the Sanskrit bhu; while the various forms of these two tenses are derived from as and other radicals.

### PAST.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
में था, 'I was'.	इम चे, 'we were'.
तू था, 'thou wast'.	सुम घे, 'you were'.
वह था, 'he, she or it was'.	वे चे, 'they were'.
Fem. में घो, etc.	Fem. इम घों, etc.

321. We add the three future tenses of the verb दोना, 'to be' or 'become'.

CONTINGENT FUTURE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

में होतं or हो, 'I may be'. इम देारं. होवे, होय or हो, 'wemay be'. तू होए, होवे, होय or हो, 'thou mayst be'. सुम होयो। or हो, 'you may be'. वह होए, होवे, होय or हो, 'he may be'. वे होएं, होवे, होय or हो, 'they may be'.

ABSOLUTE FUTURE.

 SINGULAR.
 PLURAL.

 में होर्चगा or हूंगा, 'I shall be'.
 इस होरंगे, होवंगे, होंयगे or होंगे, 'we shall be'.

 तू होरगा, होवेगा, होयगा or होगा, तुम होखोगे or होगे, 'you will be'.

 तह होरगा, होवेगा, होयगा or होगा, ते होरंगे, होवंगे, होयगे or होंगे, 'they 'he will be'.

 'he will be'.

 Fem. में होर्चगी, तू होरगी, eto.

IMPERATIVE.

2nd sing. सू देा. The rest like the Contingent Future. RESPECTFUL IMPERATIVE, हूजिये or हूजे, हूजियेगा, 'be pleased to be'.

322. We are now prepared to explain the formation of the tenses of the Imperfect and Perfect participles, as enumerated in Groups I and II. Inasmuch as between each of the six tenses in each group, taken in pairs, there will be found the closest analogy, we may most conveniently treat the tenses of both participles together. The verb uren, 'to come', is taken as an illustration.

323. The Indefinite Imperfect represents an action simply as *incomplete*, without reference to any particular time, and may thus refer either to the past, present, or future; the Indefinite Perfect represents the action as complete, but also with no definite reference to time. These agree in grammatical form, as consisting simply of the Participle without any auxiliary; e.g., i with, 'I come', 'I would come'; i with, 'I came'.

a. The Indefinite Imperfect has no one precise equivalent in English, which might of itself express all its various uses. It is most commonly employed as a past contingent, as, eg, jo tum sach bolle, 'had you spoken the truth'.

324. The second pair consists of the *Present Imperfect* and *Present Perfect*. These both agree in referring the action to the present time; the former represents the action as *unfinished* at the present time; the latter as *finished* at the present time. As thus both referring to the present, they are both formed by adding to the participles, the Present of the auxiliary substantive verb; *e.g.*, i and i, 'I come' or 'am coming'; i and i, 'I have come'.

325. The third pair consists of the *Past Imperfect* and *Past Perfect*. The former represents the action of the verb as *in progress* at some past time; the latter as *completed* at some past time. The agreement in time is represented by the Past tense of the auxiliary substantive verb; *e.g.*, if with un, 'I was coming'; if with un, 'I had come'.

326. The fourth pair consists of the Contingent Imperfect and the Contingent Perfect. These tenses again differ in that we have, in the former, the action in progress; in the latter, the action completed. But both alike represent the action merely as a possibility. The characteristic auxiliary is the Contingent Future of the substantive verb; e.g., if until its, 'I may be coming'; if until its, 'I may have come'.

327. The fifth pair embraces the *Presumptive Imperfect* and the *Presumptive Perfect*. These exhibit the same contrast of *incompleteness* and *completion*, and agree in representing the action, under these two phases, as a *probability*. The auxiliary common to both is the Absolute Future of the substantive verb; the Future tense indicating the positive presumption of the occurrence of the action; *e.g.*, az with Zim, 'he must be coming'; az with Zim, 'he must have come'.

328. In the sixth Group we have two tenses which we have called the *Negative Contingent Imperfect*, and *Negative Contingent Perfect*. These are formed by adding to the two participles of the verb, the Indefinite Imperfect of the substantive verb; as, *e.g.*, को सुम आसे हासे, 'had you been coming'; की में न आया हासा सा उन का पाप न होसा, 'if I had not come, they had not had sin'.

a. Grammarians have found much difficulty in defining the precise scope of these infrequent tenses, or assigning them a name. In truth, the former of the two, especially, is so very rarely met, that it is difficult to gather examples enough to form the basis of a judgment. While by no means confident that the name chosen is the best possible, it is so far expressive of the usage of these tenses that they alone are never found except in conditional clauses implying the negation of the condition. It is indeed true that negative conditional clauses are also often and more commonly expressed by the Indefinite tenses, perfect and imperfect; but this is not, by any means, in the Indefinite tenses, as in these, their exclusive function.

b. The last three pairs of tenses have usually been arranged by themselves, as the 'six uncommon tenses'. But apart from the fact, that some, at least, of these tenses are by no means uncommon, it scarcely seems philosophical, thus to set off certain tenses in a class by themselves, on the sole ground of their comparatively infrequent occurrence. They are accordingly made to take their proper place under the tenses of the participles.

329. In addition to the above verbal forms, grammarians have usually enumerated a so-called 'Adverbial participle', which is formed by adding the emphatic particle, at, to the obl. form of the imperfect participle; as, e.g., from and, and at, 'immediately upon going'. But as this is not in truth an additional formation from the verb, but merely a special grammatical construction of the Imperfect par-

ticiple, there seems to be no sufficient reason for giving it a separate place in the paradigm of the verb. The same idiom, indeed, occurs, though much more rarely, with the perfect participle also; as, e.g., उस के गए हो, 'immediately upon his having gone'.

330. The three tenses of the future of the verb  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , 'to be', have already been exhibited. We now add six tenses of the participles; the remaining six, with the exception of the Contingent Perfect, are much less frequent.

a. Observe, that in all the compound tenses of the Imperfect participle, and in the Indefinite perfect, this verb has the signification, not of 'being' but 'becoming'. In the other tenses, it may have either sense, but the compound verb **and**, is to be preferred in the sense of 'becoming'.

IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE,श्वासा,'becoming'.PERFECT PARTICIPLE,शुव्या,'been'. [ing become'.CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE,श्वा, शाकर, शाके, शाकरको, 'having been' or 'hav-Noun of Agency,शानेवासा or शानेशार, 'that which is to be'.

# INDEFINITE IMPERFECT.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

में होता,	'I would be',* etc.	इम होते,	'we would be', etc.
तू द्वाता,	' thou wouldst be', etc.	तुम होते,	'you would be', etc.
वद होता,	'he' or 'it would be'.	वे होते,	'they would be', etc.

# PRESENT IMPERFECT.

Singular.

PLURAL.

में होता हूं,	'I am becoming'.	इम होते हैं,	'we are becoming'.
तू होता है,	'thou art becoming'.	तुम हाते हा,	'you are becoming'.
ज वह होता है,	'he, it is becoming'.	वे होते हैं,	'they are becoming'.

# PAST IMPERFECT.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

में होता चा,	'I was becoming'.	इम होते थे,	'we were becoming'.
तू होता चा,	' thou wast becoming'.	तुम होते घे,	'you were becoming'.
वह होता चा	, 'he was becoming'.	वे होते घे,	'they were becoming'.

\* This is only one of many possible renderings of this tense. Vid. §323.

# INDEFINITE PERFECT.

S	NGULAR.		PLURAL.
में हुखा,	'I became'.	इस हुए,	'we became'.
रू ड <del>ु</del> चा,	'thou becamest'.	तुम हुर,	'you became'.
वह हुआ,	'he became'.	वे हुए,	'they became'.

PRESENT PERFECT.

SINGULAR.	Plural.
में हुआ हूं, 'I have been' or 'be- come'.	इस हुर हैं, 'we have been' or 'be- come'.
	तुम हुर हो, 'you have been' or 'be- come'.
वह हुआ। है, 'he has been' or 'be- come'.	वे हुर हैं, 'they have been' or 'be- come'.

PAST PERFECT.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
में हुआ था, 'I had been' or 'be-	इस हुए थे, 'we had been' or 'be-
come'.	come'.
तू डुया चा, 'thou hadst been' or 'be-	तुम हुए घे, 'you had been' or 'be-
come'.	come'.
वह हुआ था, 'he had been' or 'be-	वे घुर घे, 'they had been' or 'be-
come'.	come'-

a. Observe, that by changing जा final to ई for the singular, and च final to ई for the plural, the above will be transformed into the feminine conjugation. In the compound forms of the verb, however, Anustár in the plural is commonly added to the second member only. Thus we say, इस देखी थी, not देखी थी; similarly, पुई दे, etc. These remarks apply to all verbs whatever.

b. **gan** is commonly Romanized,  $h\dot{u}\dot{a}$ , but this is incorrect; in the Nágarí, the first syllable is always short.

331. From what has been said, it will be evident that the conjugation of the Hindí verb, as respects terminations is perfectly regular. In standard Hindí and in all the western dialects, however, there is a peculiar idiom in the construction of the tenses of the *Perfect Participle* in *Transitive* verbs, which demands especial notice. The following rules should therefore be carefully studied.

332. In the use of all the tenses of the Perfect Partici-

ple of Transitive verbs, the case of the *Agent* must be substituted for the nominative of the subject. Two constructions are then admissible, *viz*. :---

(1) That which, in English idiom, is the object of the action, may be put in the nominative case, with which the verb is inflected to agree in gender and number.

(2) That which, in English idiom, is the object of the action, may be put in the dative, and the verb, irrespective of the gender or number of either the subject or object, is then put in the masc. sing.

These two may be termed, respectively, the *Passive* and *Impersonal* constructions.

Thus, with the Present Perfect of देखना, 'to see', we have, instead of the English construction, either, e.g., में ने वह गाड़ी देखी, 'I saw that carriage'; or में ने उस लड़को की देखा, 'I saw that girl'. In the former case the real nominative to the verb is गाड़ी, with which therefore the verb agrees in the 3rd fem. sing. In the second, there is no nominative expressed; that which in English is the nominative of the verb, appears here in the dative, and the verb is used impersonally in the 3rd maso. sing.

N. B. The beginner should carefully observe, (1) that this construction is used with *transitive* verbs only; and (2) with such verbs, only in the tenses of the *perfect* participle. Thus, although we must say, उस ने आपने भाई की मारा, 'he beat his brother', we must use the *active* construction with the same verb in the tenses of the *imperfect* participle. even when referring to past time. Thus we say, *e.g.*, वह आपने भाई की मारता था, 'he was beating his brother'; not उस ने मारता था, which would be nonsense.

333. It is to be noted that all Hindí perfect participles are in fact corrupted forms of the Sk. perfect passive participle, and the idiom under consideration has its origin and explanation in the Sanskrit construction of such participles, according to which, under the above conditions, the passive participle is made to agree in gender and number with that which in English idiom is the object of the verb, and the logical subject is put in the instrumental case. Thus, to illustrate, the English phrase 'he said', may be rendered in Sanskrit, तेन कांधलं, *lit*, 'by him said', Hindí, उस ने कहा. Similarly, the Sanskrit तेन क्रांधलगावका दुष्टु:, 'he saw a young mouse', becomes in Hindí, उस न क्रस का बद्दा देखा.

334. The following common verbs, viz., खकना, 'to talk idly', खेलना, 'to speak', मूलना, 'to forget', लड्ना, 'to fight', and लाना, 'to bring', although transitive in sense, taking an object after them, are exceptions to the above rule, and are never construed with the case of the agent.

a. The perfect tenses of **<b>UHHHHH**, 'to understand', are also sometimes construed with the nominative of the subject; but it is considered better to use the case of the agent.

335. Observe, that in the pronunciation of all primitive or causal verbs with monosyllabic roots, the accent everywhere remains upon the radical syllable. But in causal verbs formed by adding a syllable, as **un**, **un**, **un**, etc., to the root of the primitive, the accent rests throughout upon this causal affix. In the following examples, the accent is indicated by the italic letters : karúngá, karáúngá; kahtá, kahlátá, baná, baná, etc. Many words identical in form, but different in meaning, are thus distinguished only by the accent; thus parhá, is 3rd sing., indef. perf., from parhná, '(he) read'; but parhá, with the accent on the second syllable is 2nd sing. imp. from parháná, 'cause thou (him) to read'. Similarly, suná, is 'heard'; but 'suná', 'tell thou', etc. etc. In no case, however, must the accent be exaggerated.

336. The following tables exhibit the conjugation of three verbs. Table XII illustrates the conjugation of a regular intransitive verb, with a consonant final in the root; Table XIII, that of an intransitive verb with a vowel final in the root. Table XIV exhibits the conjugation of the transitive verb करना, 'to do'. So slight are the differences in the conjugation of pure and mixed verbs, that it has not been thought necessary to give more than one paradigm of a regular verb. On the other hand, as will appear, the slightly irregular verbs, जाना and anter, in various combinations are so very common that it has seemed desirable to exhibit their conjugation in full. Exactly like करना, perf. part., किया, are also conjugated the transitive verbs, देना, 'to give', perf. part., दिया, and सेना, 'to take', perf. part., सिया. All regular pure verbs as, e.g., दिखाना, 'to shew', perf. part., दिखाया, are conjugated exactly as uner, except that the root of the infinitives is preserved throughout.

ł.	ند. ا			VERBS.						17:
of falling', etc.		' having fallen'.	fall-er'.		PLURAL.	1. इस तिर्ते • 2. सुम तिरो. 3. वे तिर्दे	ारेंगे. 2. सुम गिरोगे. 3. वे गिरेंगे.	ार्रे. 2. सुम गिरो. 3. वे गिर्रे.	2. सुम गिरिये. 3. भाष गिरिये	
गरने का,	गिरता <del>ह</del> गिरा इब	रकारकार, रकारकार,	ulls', 'a	(;tc		1. इस ति	1. इन गिरेंगे.	1. इस गिर्दे	÷	he plural.
गिरना, 'to fall', falling', Gen., गिरने का, 'of falling', etc.	तिगरता, ' falling'; Adjective form, तिगरता हुआ. तिगरा, ' fallen': Adjective form. तिगरा हजा.		गिरनेवाला or गिरनेहारा, 'one who falls', 'a fall-er'.	TENSES OF THE FUTURE. (From the Root.)	SINGULAR.	1. में गिर्ब. 2. तू गिरे. 3. वह गिरे.	1. में गिब्धाा.* 2. हू गिरेगा. 3. वह गिरेगा.	1. में तिनं. 2. सू तिर. 3. वह तिरे.	•	* For the fem., inflect जा to 着 in the sing., and रू to ᡩ in the plural
	LMPERFECT PARTICIPLE; 17 PERFECT PARTICIPLE; 17	.T.B. ;	Nour of Agency;	TENSES OF TI		Contingent Furure; 'I may fall', etc. 1. मे	ABSOLUTE FUTURE; 'I shall fall', eto. 1. मे	LMPERATIVE; 'let me fall', etc. 1. <b>H</b>	Do. RESPECTFUL FORMS; 'be pleased to fall' etc	* For the fem., inflect

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TABLE XII, Continued: TENSES OF THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.*
Singular. Plural.
INDEF. IMP. 'I would fall', 'I fall', etc. 1. मैं गिरला. 2. हू गिरला. 3. वह गिरला. 1. इन गिरले. 2. सुम गिरले. 3. वे गिरले.
PRES. IMP. 'I fall', 'sm falling', etc. 1. ,, तिारता हूं. 2. ,, तिरता है. 3. ,, तिारता है. 1. ,, तिरते हैं. 2. ,, तिरते हो. 3. ,, तिारते हैं.
Pasr Imp. 'I was falling', etc. 1. ,, तिरत्ता चा. 2. ,, तिरत्ता चा. 3. ,, तिरत्ता चा. 1. ,, तिरत्ते चे. 2. ,, तिरत्ते चे. 3. ,, तिरत्ते चे.
Conr. Imr. 'I may be falling', etc. 1. ,, गिरला झेर्ड्स 2.,, गिरला झे. 3. ,, गिरला झे. 1. ,, गिरले झे. 2. ,, गिरले झेजेंग 3.,,गिरले झे.
Рквяим. Iмг. 'I must be falling', etc. 1. ,, जिस्ला डूंगा; 2. ,, गिस्ला डेागा. 3.,, गिस्ला डेागा 1. ,, गिस्ले डेांगे. 2. ,, गिस्ले डेागे 3. ,, गिस्ले डोगे.
NEG. Coxr. IMP. 'Were I falling', etc. 1. ,, गिरला झेला. 2. ,, गिरलाझेला. 3. ,, गिरलाझेला, 1. ,, गिरले झेले. 2. ,, गिरले झेले. 3. ,, गिरले झेले.
† For the forms of the auxiliaries given in these tables, any of the alternative forms given in §321 may be substituted at pleasure.

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TABLE XII, Completed. TENSES OF THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE.\*

\* For the fem., inflect final चा to 🛓 in the sing., and र to 💐 in the plur., both in the participles and auxiliary throughout. But see §330 a. Nze. Cowr. PERF. 'Had I fallen', etc. 1. " तिारा झाला. 2. " तिारा झाला. 3. " तिारा झाला. من أكر يُواطَ. 2. " तिरे झाले. 3. " तिरे झाले. المراح ا Равким. Рак. 'I must have fallen', etc. 1. " तिता हूंगा. 2. " तिता होता. 3. " तिता होता. 1. " तिते होतो. 2. " तिते होतो. 3. " तिरे होतो. 2. ,, गिरे होचो. 3. ,, गिरे हो. 3. " तिते हैं. 3. " तितरे चे. 8. **बे गिरे**. 2. " गिरे हो. 2. " तितरे चे. PLURAL. 2. सुम गिरे. 'I may have fallen', etc. 1. " fart हार्ड. 2. " वितरा हो. 3. " वितरा हो. |1. " तिते हो. 1. " गिरे हैं. 3. " तितरा था. 1. " तिरे थे. इम गिरे. 3. " तिता है. 8. **बह गि**रा. SINGULAR. 2. " गिरा घा. 2. " **गिरा है**. 2. हू गिरा. 1. " गिरा था. l. " तिरा 🔹. 1. में तित्त. 'I have fallen', etc. 'I had fallen', etc. INDEF. PERF. 'I fall ', etc. CONT. PERF. PRES. PERF. PAST PERF.

VERBS.

INFINITIVE OF GERUND;       and, 'to go', 'going'; Gen., and an, 'of going', etc.         IMFERFECT PARTICIPLE;       and, 'to go', 'going'; Gen., and an, 'of going', etc.         IMFERFECT PARTICIPLE;       and, 'to go', 'going'; Gen., and an, 'of going', etc.         PERFECT PARTICIPLE;       and, 'to go', 'going'; Adjective form, and gun.         PERFECT PARTICIPLE;       and, 'going'; Adjective form, and gun.         PERFECT PARTICIPLE;       and, 'going'; Adjective form, and gun.         PERFECT PARTICIPLE;       and, 'gone'; Adjective form, and gun.         Noun or AGENCY;       animet, and, animet, one who goes', 'a goer'.         Noun or AGENCY;       animet, animet, 'one who goes', 'a goer'.         TENSES OF THE FUTURE. (From the Root.)       Tech.	SINGULAR.PLURAL.CONT. FUT.;'I may'N and: 2. not with and: 2. not with and: 3. not
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VERBS.

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PARTICIPLE.
IMPERFECT
THE
OF
TENSES
Continued :
XIII,
TABLE

		Singular.	Plural.
INDEF. IMP. 'I would go', 'I go', etc. 1. <b>के जाला</b> .	1. में बाला.	2. सू जाता. 3. वह जाता.	1. इम बाते. 2. सुम बाते. 3. वे बाते.
PRES. IMP. 'I go', 'am going', etc.	1. ,, चाता ई.	2. ,, जाता है. 3. ,, जाता है.	2. , चाला है. 3. , चाता है. 1. , चाते हैं. 2. , चाते हो. 3. , चाते हैं.
er Past Imp. 'I was going', etc.	1. ,, चाला था.	2. ,, जासा घा. 3. ,, जासा घा.	2. ,, चाता था. 3. ,, चाता था. 1. ,; चाते थे. 2. ,, चाते थे. 3. ,, चाते थे.
Conr. Imr. 'I may be going', eto.	<b>1. ,, चाता हेार्ड</b> .	2. ,, जाता होय. 3. ,, जाता होय.	1. ,, चाला होर्ड. 2. ,, जाता होय. 3. ,, चाला होय. 1. ,, चाले होय. 2. ,, चाले होजो. 3. ,, चाले होय.
PRESUM. IMP. 'I must be going', etc.	l. ,, चाता इंग्लेंगा.	2. ,, चाला होयगा.3. ,, चाला होयग	Равоим. Імг. 'I must be going', etc. 1. , <b>, जाला डोकंगा</b> . 2. , <b>, जाला होयगा.</b> 3. ,, जाला होयगा 1. ,, जाले होयगे. 2. ,, जाले होगो. 3. ,, जाले होयगे.
NEG. CONT. IMP. 'Were I going', etc.	l. ,, जासा <del>ह</del> ोसा.	४. ,, बालाहोला. ३. ,, बालाहोला	NEG. Conr. IMP. 'Were I going', eto. 1. ,, जाला होला. 2. ,, जालाहोला. 3. ,, जालाहोला.]1. ,, जाले होले. 2. ,, जाले होले. 3. ,, जाले होले.

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\* Inflect चा final to 🛓 and च to 著 for the feminine throughout these tenses.

			Sing	Singular.		Plural.	1
INDRF. PRRF. 1 WC	'I went', etc.	]. में ग्राया.	2. तू जाता.	3. वह गया.	  . इस ग्राये †	2. सुम गाये.	8. हो गाये.
Рккв. Рккг.	'I have gone', etc.	l. ,, राया ई.	2. <b>, गमा है</b> .	3. ,, <b>सण है</b> .	l. " साये हैं.	2. ,, साये हैंग. 3. ,, साये हैं,	3, गाये हैं:
Past Perv.	'I had gone', etc.	l. ,, ताया था.	2. ,, राया था.	3. " <b>ਗ</b> वा था. 1. " गये थे.	1. " गये थे.	2. " गाये थे.	3. <b>,, गाये थे.</b>
Cont. Perf.	'I may have gone', etc. 1. ,, <b>राषा हार्क.</b> 2. ,, <b>राया हाय.</b> 3. ,, <b>राषा हाय.</b> 1. ,, राये होय. 2. ,, राये हाजे. 3. , राये होय.	l. ,, सथा है।दो.	थे. <b>,  गया है</b> ।य.	3. " <mark>सथा है</mark> ाय.	1. " गाये होय.	2. <mark>,, มน</mark> ั ธิเพิ่า	: ४. <b>, गये हो</b> य
kesum. Perp.	Риквим. Рики. 'I must have gone', etc. 1. <b>,, जया झेलंगा.</b> 2. <b>,, जया झेयगा.</b> 3. <b>,, जया झेयगा.</b> 1. <b>,, गये झेयगे</b> . 2. <b>,, गये झेतो</b> . 3. <b>,, गये झेयगे</b> .	l. ,, राया द्वीर्षता.	<b>गया है</b> ।यगा	. ३. ,, राया झेपसा	  . " זוयֿ <del>ह</del> ीयภे.	2. <b>, गये है</b> ागे.	3. <b>,, 11ये हैं।</b> यां
N ка. Сомт. Рккг. 41	kkr. 'Had I gone', etc.	1. ,, <mark>शया ह</mark> ाता.	2. <b>,  गया <del>द</del>ी</b> सा.	1. , जाया होला. 2. ,, जाया द्वाला. 3. ,, जाया होला. 1. ,, जाये होले. 2. ,, जाये होले. 3. ,, जाये होले.	. ,, गये <del>ह</del> ात.	2. , <b>ग्राये है</b> ाते.	3. <b>,, ਗ</b> ਧੇ ਵੈਾਨੇ

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PLURAL. 2. तुम्म करो। 3. वे करों. 2. , करोगो. 3. , करोंगे. 2. , करो। 3. , करोंगे.	1. इस करें. 1. , करेंगे. 1. , करेंगे.	Singular. 2. हा को. 3. वाह करे. 2. , करेगा. 3. , करेगा 2. , कार. 3. , करे.	SINGULAR. 2. हा करो. 2. , करोगा. 2. , कर.	1. كَبْ مَعَادً. 1, مترضا. 1, مترد.	'I may do', etc. 'I shall do', etc. 'Let me do', etc.	Contingent Future; Absolute Future; Imperative;
	(.to	TENSES OF THE FUTURE. (From the Root.)	JTURE. (H	OF THE FU	TENSES	
	iot.)	'a doer'. From the Ro	or कारनेहारा, JTURE. (7	क्षरनेवाला оF тнह Fu	TENCY ; TENSES	NOUN OF AGEN
	(, too	1g done'. 'a doer'. From the Ro	भार or भारको, "baving done'. सारनेवाला or सारनेहारा, 'a doer'. THE FUTURE. (From the	क्षर or ब क्षरनेवाला oF THE Ft	ARTICIPLE; cy; TENSES	Conjunctive Participle; Noun of Agency; T
	किया हुआ. ot.)	jective form, ag done'. 'a doer'. From the Ro	done'; Adj ator, Lavir or anti-atu, or anti-atu, JTURB. (I	किस्मा, ' क्षरो or म क्षरजेवाला OF THE FU	rticipi.e; s Participi.e; .ency; Tenses	PERFECT PARTI Conjunctive F Noun of Agen
	कारता हुआ। जिया हुआ। ot.)	<ul> <li>'doing'; Adjective form, कारता हुआ.</li> <li>'done'; Adjective form, किया हुआ.</li> <li>'done'; Laving done'.</li> <li>n or कारनेहात, 'a doer'.</li> <li>UTURE. (From the Root.)</li> </ul>	doing'; Adj done'; Adj rts, Lavin or shiftit, JTURB. (I	करतम, ' किस्मा, ' कारनेवाला OF THE Fu	TICIPLE; ICIPLE; ARTICIPLE; CY; TENSES	IMFERFECT PARTICIFLE; PERFECT PARTICIFLE; Conjunctive Particifi Noun of Agency;

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VERBS.

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PARTICIPLE.
IMPERFECT
TENSES OF THE
Continued:
XIV,
TABLE

Sing	Singular.	Plural.
Імрвғ. Імғ. 'I would do', 'I do',etc. 1. <b>नें कारता</b> . 2. <b>हू करता</b> .	3. वह काला.	1. इम कारते. 2. सुम कारते. 3. वे कारते.
PRES. IMP. 'I do', 'am doing', etc. 1. ,, कारता हूं. 2. ,, कारता हू.	3. ,, <b>कारता है</b> .	1. ,, कारते हैं. 2. ,, कारते हो. 3. ,, कारते हैं.
Pasr Imr. 'I was doing', etc. 1. " arcm ur. 2. " arc	2. ,, कारता था. 3. ,, कारता था.	1.,, कारते थे. 2. ,, कारते थे. 3. ,, कारते थे.
Conr. Imr. 'I may be doing', etc. 1. " करता होर्ड. 2. " कार	सा हावे. 3. ,, कासा हावे.	be doing', etc. 1. ,, कारता होर्ड. 2. ,, कारता होवे. 3. ,, कारता होवे. 1. ,, कारते होर्व. 2. ,, कारते होचों. 3. ,, कारते होर्व.
Presux. Imr. 'I must be doing',etc. 1. ,, करला हाल्यंग.2. ,, करला होजेगा.3. ,, करला होलेगा. [1. ,, करले हालेंगे.2. ,, करले होतो. 3. ,, करले होलेंगे	ग होकेगा.3. ,, कारता होकेगा.	L. ,, कारते हार्वेग्री.2. ,, कारते होग्री. 3. ,, कारते हार्वेग्री.
NEO.CONT. IMP. 'Were I doing',eto. 1. ,, कारता द्वाला. 2. ,, कारता द्वाला. 3. ,, कारता द्वाता. [1. ,, कारते द्वाले. 2. ,, कारते द्वाले. 3. ,, कारते द्वाते.	मा होला. 3. " करता होता.	, कारते होते. 2. ,, कारते होते. 3. ,, कारते होते.

VERBS.

r PARTICIPLE; (सिया for कारा.)	Plural.	<b>इ</b> स ने,सुस ने, or उन्हों ने किया, की, किये or की.	" " " " जिया है, की है, किये है or की है.	" " " बिसया चा, की ची, किये चे, की ची.	" " " खिमगहा, क्षीं हो, क्षिये हो, की हो.	., ", ", जिया होता, की होती, किये होती, की होती.	. " " , किया दिल्ला, की देली, किये हेले, की होली.
TABLE XIV, Completed: TENSES OF THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE; (निया for कारा.)	Singular.	में, सूचे, or इसने किया, की, किये or की. *	" जिया है, की है, किये हे or की हे.	" किया चा, की ची, किये चे or की ची.	" किया हो, की हो, किये ही or की हो.	" किया होता,की होती,किये होते or की होती.	" किया द्वाला,की डाली,किये होते or की झिलो.
Com		ਮੇ ਅਤੇ ਸ	:	°	я я		6 6
TABLE XIV,		IND. PERF. 'I did', etc.	PRES. PERF. 'I have done', ,, eto.	PAST PERF. 'I had done', ,, etc.	Con.PERF. 'I may have done', ,, etc.	PRESUM. PERF. 'I must have ,, [done', etc.	NEG. CONT. PERF. 'Had I ,, [done', etc.

\* For the rules as to the construction of these perfect tenses, see § 332.

VERBS.

## OF THE PASSIVE VOICE.

337. The *Passive* Voice is much less used in Hindí than in English. Its place is largely taken by neuter verbs. It is to be remembered, however, that the construction of the past tenses of transitive verbs with  $\hat{r}$  is, in reality, a passive construction. Still in certain cases, which will be duly noticed in the chapter on syntax, the Hindí verb admits of a Passive Voice.

338. Any verb may be conjugated passively by adding to its Perfect participle the verb  $\overline{anm}$ . 'to go', which verb is then conjugated after the manner exhibited in Table XIII. The participle is inflected to agree with the subject;  $\overline{an}$ final becoming  $\overline{a}$ , for the masc. plur., and  $\overline{a}$ , for the fem., sing. or plur.

Thus from the verb मारना, 'to strike', we have the passive मारा जाना, 'to be struck'; from देना, 'to give', pass., दिया जाना, 'to be given'; from दिखाना, 'to shew', pass., दिखाया जाना, 'to be shown'. Other examples are as follows, वह पत्र लिखा गया, 'that letter was written'; कोई स्त्री मारी जासी घी, 'some woman was being beaten'; वे नहीं देखे जाते हैं, 'they are not seen'; *i.e.*, 'they are invisible'.

a. Sometimes even neuter verbs are conjugated passively; as, e.g., from आना, 'to come', pass., आया जाना. But this idiom is scarcely transferable to English.

339. As the passive conjugation presents no difficulties whatever, it will be quite sufficient to present a mere synopsis of the more common tenses. We take, as an example, the verb तिखना, 'to write', perf. part., तिखा.

# Synopsis of the passive Conjugation of लिखना.

Infinitive;	लिखा जाना,	'to be written'.
Conjunctive Participle;	लिखा जाकर,	'having been written'.
Contingent Future, 3rd sing.;	लिखा जार,	'it may be written'.
Absolute Future; """	लिखा जारगा,	'it will be written'.
Imperative; """	लिखा जार,	'let it be written'.

Indefinite Imperfect,	3rd	sing.;	सिखा जाता, 'it is, or would be, written'.
Present Imperfect,	,,	,,	लिखा आता है, 'it is being written'.
Past Imperfect,	,,	"	लिखा जाता था, 'it was being written'.
Indefinite Perfect,	"	,,	लिखा गया, 'it was written'.
Present Perfect,	,,	,,	लिखा गया है, 'it has been written'.
Past Perfect,	,,	,,	लिखा गया था, 'it had been written'.

a. The remaining tenses are extremely rare; if, indeed, many of them ever occur at all. In general, the student will need to guard against the too free use of any of these passive forms.

### CAUSAL VERBS.

340. From every primitive verb in Hindí, may be derived a Causal and a Second causal verb. The first causal expresses *immediate* causation, and the second causal, the *mediate* causation of the act or state of the primitive. Thus from the primitive **ann**, 'to be made', we have the causal, **annn**, 'to make', and the second causal, **anann**, 'to cause (another person) to make'.

a. If the primitive be a neuter verb. it is plain that the 1st causal will be the corresponding active verb. It is thus evident that the causal may often be translated into English by a single verb having no etymological connexion with the word which properly translates the primitive. Illustrations will be found below.

341. The rules for the formation of causal verbs are as follows:---

(1) Add to the root of the primitive, un for the causal, and an for the second causal. The usual infinitive termination, an, added to the root thus modified, will give the infinitive of the causal or second causal in question. Thus from anen, 'to burn', we have the root and; whence we derive, as above, the root of the causal, and of the second causal, anen; from which again, we have the causal infinitives, annen; 'to set on fire', and anenn, 'to cause to set on fire'. Similar are the following examples :--- VERBS .- FORMATION OF CAUSALS.

Primit	ire.	Ca	usal.		Second	Causal.
उठना,	'to rise'.	उठाना,	'to raise'.	उठवाना,	'to cau	use to raise'.
हिपना,	'to be hid- den'.	हिपाना,	'to hide'.	किपवाना,	'to can	use to hide'.
पकना,	'to be ripe', 'cooked'.	पकाना,	'to cook'.	पकवाना,	'to car	use to cook'.
मिलना,	'to meet'.		'to cause to neet', to mix'		'to ca	use to mix'.
सुनना,	'to hear'.	सुनाना,	'to tell'.	सुनवाना,	'to ca	use to tell'.
a. A short $a$ in the second syllable of dissyllabic roots						
which	have a sh	ort vov	vel in the :	first sylla	able, u	isually be-
comes	silent in	the ca	usal. But	before	the af	fix of the
second	l causal, t	he a is	pronounce	d. Exar	nples a	are,—
Primiti	re.	Cat	usal.		Second	Causal.
चमकना	<i>chamakná</i> , 'to shine'.	चमकाना	, pron. cham	káná. चम	कवाना (	chamakwáná.
पिघलना	<i>pighalná</i> , 'to melt' <i>in</i>		1, ,, pighi	láná. tur	लवाना	pighalwáná.
भटकना	bhatakná,	भटकाना,	, ,, bhath	áná. <b>H</b> Z	कवाना	bhaṭakwáná.

	'to wander'		"	onașn <b>a</b> nta		
समक्रना	samajhná, 'to understa		,,	samjháná.	समभवाना	samajhwáná.
पकड्ना	pakarná, 'to seize'.	पकड्राना,	"	pakráná.	पकड्वाना	pakaŗwáná.
परस्तना	parakhná, 'to be tried'	<b>परखाना</b> ,	"	parkháná.	परखवाना	parakhwáná.

b. Monosyllabic roots containing a long vowel shorten that vowel before the causal and second causal affixes. Open roots then insert  $\mathbf{e}$  between the shortened vowel and the causal affixes.

N. B. In the application of this rule, observe, that a is the short substitute for  $\overline{an}$ ;  $\overline{e}$ , for  $\overline{a}$ ,  $\overline{e}$ ,  $\overline{e}$ , and occasionally for  $\overline{an}$ ;  $\overline{e}$ , for  $\overline{a}$ ,  $\overline{an}$ , and  $\overline{an}$ , in the primitive.

Under this head, the following are examples of close roots :---

Primitive.	Causal.	Secon	nd Causal.
घूमना, 'to go around'.	घुमाना,	'to turn around'.	घुमवाना.
जागना, 'to waken'.	चगाना,	'to awaken'.	चगवाना.
चीतना, 'to conquer'.	विताना,	'to cause to conquer'.	जितवाना.

The following are examples of open roots :---

खाना, 'to eat'. सिलाना, 'to feed'. सिलखाना, 'to cause to feed'. योना, 'to drink'. पिलाना, 'to give to drink'. पिलवाना, 'to cause to give drink'.

सेाना, 'to sleep'. सुलाना, 'to put to sleep'. सुलवाना, 'to cause to put to sleep'. to sleep'.

a. Verbs of this class with monosyllabic roots enclosing  $\vec{\mathbf{v}}$  or  $\mathbf{\hat{n}}$ , commonly retain the long vowel, and form their causals according to (1); as, *e.g.*,

पैरना, 'to swim'. पैराना, 'to cause to swim'. 2nd Causal, पैरखाना. दाड़ना, 'to run'. दाड़ाना, 'to cause to run'. ,, ,, दाड़वाना.

b. But adam, 'to sit', makes the 1st causal, adam or a similar, 'to seat'. It also often follows the example of open roots, and admits an e before the causal affix, making a seeing. Similarly asen, 'to say', सोखना, 'to learn', and देखना, 'to see', make their causals either asimi, सिखाना and दिखाना, or asemin, सिखलाना and दिखालाना. asimi and asemin are peculiar in having a passive sense, viz., 'to be called', 'to be named'.

(2) Many primitive neuter verbs having a monosyllabic root enclosing a short vowel, form the 1st causal by simply lengthening that vowel. The 2nd causal is formed in the usual way. Thus, e.g. :=

कटना, 'to be cut'. काटना, 'to cut'. कटवाना, 'to cause to cut'. वंधना, 'to be fastened'. बांधना, 'to fasten'. बंधवाना, 'to cause to fasten'. सदना, 'to be loaded'. सादना, 'to load'. सदवाना, 'to cause to load'. सिंचना, 'to be pulled'. सींचना, 'to pull'. सिंचवाना, 'to cause to pull'.

a. Sometimes in such words, instead of the cognate long vowel, the gun or *vriddhi* of the primitive vowel is the substitute, as in the following :---

खुलना, 'to be open'. खोलना, 'to open'. खुलवाना, 'to cause to open'. घुलना, 'to be dissolved'. घोलना, 'to dissolve'. घुलवाना, 'to cause to dissolve'. खिंचना, 'to be pulled'. खेंचना, 'to pull'. खिंचवाना, 'to cause to pull'.

b. निकलना, 'to come out', make its 1st causal, निकालना, after the analogy of the above. c. A few primitive roots ending in z, change this z to the cognate z in the causals. Some of these present other irregularities. The most common are the following :—

कुटना, 'to be separated'. क्वेड्ना, 'to leave'. 'to liberate'. कुड्राना, ट्टना, 'to break', intr. ताङ्ना, 'to break', tr. ताड्याना,) ' to cause to साडाना. ( break'. फाड़ना, 'to tear', ,, फड़वाना, ) फटना, 'to tear', 'to cause to •• फडाना. tear'. फोड्ना, 'to burst', ,, फुड्वाना, फुटना, 'to burst', " 'to cause to burst'.

d. खिकना, 'to be sold', changes the final guttural of the root to the corresponding palatal, in the 1st causal only, making खेचना, 'to sell'. रहना, 'to remain', changes इ to the hard guttural aspirate, क, making रखना, 'to keep'.

e. Two verbs, viz., डूबना, 'to be immersed', and भोगना, 'to be wet', make their 1st causals, respectively, डुबोना, and भिगोना. Sometimes, however, they assume the regular causal affixes.

f. निवड्ना, 'to be ended', makes the 1st causal निवाड्ना or निवेड्ना, 'to finish'. The verb बैठना, mentioned at (1) b., makes yet another form, बैठालना; and, similarly, पैठना, 'to enter', makes पैठालना. लेना, to take', makes लिखाना.

342. Of some verbs the neuters have become obsolute in High Hindí, though still in use in some dialects. Thus, e.g., the neuter of जाड्नना, 'to join', जुड्ना, is not very common in standard Hindí, but in the Rámáyan, under the form जुरन. it is the common substitute for the H. H. मिलना, 'to meet' or 'find'. Similarly the common word देवना, 'to see', is the causal of the dialectic K. दोधना, 'to appear'. On the other hand, a few neuters are commonly used in High Hindí, of which the causal forms are rarely heard. A common example is पड्ना, 'to fall', the causal of which, पाड्ना (पारन), frequently occurs in the Rámáyan, but is very rare in standard Hindí.

343. Many verbs form their causals both according to rules (1) and (2). Usually with such difference in form, there is also a difference in signification, and often one form is dialectic. A good illustration is found in the verb दखना, 'to be pressed', which makes one causal, दखाना, 'to press down', and another, दाखना, having the special meaning, 'to shampoo'. So also, from मिसना, 'to meet', the standard dialect makes the causal, मिसाना, 'to mix'; but the Márwárí, following

the second rule, makes the causal, मेलयो, 'to send'. खुलाना, 'to call', is commonly reckoned a causal from खालना, 'to speak'; but खोलन is invariably used in the *Rá náyan* instead of खलाना, in the same sense.

344. We may note in conclusion the existence of a class of causal verbs derived from abstract nouns, which denote the causation of that which is expressed by the noun. Thus, from its, 'anger', comes itsuran, 'to be angry'; from its, 'vertigo', itsuran, 'to be giddy'. Under this head also come a number of onomatopoetic words; as, e.g., इनइनाना, 'to simmer', 'to chink', *i.e.*, 'to make the sound chhan-chhan; itsufituan, 'to twitter as a bird', etc.

### OF COMPOUND VERBS.\*

315. These have been commonly enumerated as of twelve varietics, viz., Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Frequentatives, Desideratives, Continuatives, Statisticals, Inceptives, Permissives, Acquisitives, Reiteratives and Nominals.

a. Of these, however, no more than the first five can properly be called compound verbs. In all the other combinations, (except perhaps some Nominals,) a Participle, Infinitive or Noun, is in grammatical construction with the verb which it precedes, so that their explanation properly belongs to Syntax. As, however, all these idioms have usually been explained at this point, and as acquaintance with them will greatly facilitate the understanding of many illustrations used in the Syntax, we give the subject a place in this section.

346. The five varieties of true Compound Verbs may be divided into two classes, as follows :---

# COMPOUND VERBS.

CLASS I.	CLASS II.		
Formed with the Root.	Formed with the Perf. Part.		
1. Intensives.	1. Frequentatives.		
2. Potentials.	2. Desideratives.		
3. Completives.			

\* This section would perhaps have been more naturally deforred to the chapter on Derivative and Compound words; but considering the necessities of beginners, it has been thought well to follow the practice of other Urdú and Hindí grammarians, and treat the subject in immediate connexion with Verbs.

### Class I. Compounds formed with the Root.

347. Intensive compounds intensify or otherwise modify the meaning of the verb whose root stands first in the compound. They are formed by adding to a verbal root one of certain other verbs, which latter verb in conjunction with the root is then conjugated as usual. This second conjugated member does not, however, retain its separate character and significance; but only modifies, in accordance with the general idea which it embodies, the meaning of the unconjugated root to which it is annexed.

Examples are the following :---

र्फेकना,	' to throw '.	फेंक देना, 'to throw away'.
ताेड्ना,	'to break'.	ताड़ डालना, 'to break to pieces'.
काटना,	'to cut'.	काट डालना, 'to cut off'. [succeed'.
सममा,	'to be made'.	बन भागा, 'to be quite made, to
রিবের,	' to fall '.	गिर पड़ना, 'to fall down'.
ग्निराना,	' to cause to fall '.	गिरा देना, 'to throw down'.
चानना,	'to know'.	जान पड्ना, 'to be found out', 'ap-
खाना,	'to eat'.	खा जाना, 'to eat up'. [pear'.
द्वाना,	'to be'.	ही जाना, 'to become'.
षीना,	'to drink '.	षी लेना, 'to drink down'.
्लेना,	'to take'.	से लेना, 'to take away'.
बैठना,	'to sit'.	बैठ रइना, 'to sit still'.
देखना,	'to see'.	देख रहना, 'to look <i>an</i> , 'to gaze'.
बालना,	'to speak'.	बाल उठना, 'to speak up'.

a. Causals very often take य after आ in these compounds, as बसाय देना, दिखाय देना, खाय लेना, etc. This is the uniform practice in many dialects.

348. The above list comprises about all the verbs which are combined with the roots of other verbs to form Intensive Compounds. It is evident that, in most cases, the modification of the meaning of the verb may be expressed in English by a preposition adverbially used with the verb. It may be difficult to find a term which shall exactly express the idea added by the secondary verb in every case, but the following is an approximation.

	देना,	Intensity.	डालना,	Violence.
	चाना,	Reflexion (?).	पड्ना,	Chance, accident.
	चाना,	Finality, completeness.	लेना,	Reflexion, appropriation.
•	चठना,	Suddenness.	'रइना,	Continuance.

a. Of the above eight verbs, it may be further observed that देना and डाखना can only be used with Transitive verbs; खाना and उठना, with Intransitives only; the remainder with either Transitives or Intransitives.

b. It may also be noted that देना is the compound which is most frequently used with causal verbs; as खसा देना, 'to show'; समझा देना, 'to explain'; निकाल देना, 'to take out'. But with a few causals it is never used; thus, from खुलाना. 'to call', we never have खुला देना, but always खुला सेना, 'to call here', *i.e.*, 'to one's self'.

c. जाना is the verb which is most commonly found compounded with Intransitives; as टूट जाना, 'to be broken'; मिस जाना, 'to meet', 'to unite'; पहुंच जाना, 'to arrive'; but it is also used with Transitives, as खा जाना, 'to eat up'; कह जाना, 'to tell'.

d. Compounds with **tern** are common, but for the most part are used in the tenses of the perfect participle. In the tenses of the imperfect participle and the imperative, they are much more rare. As above remarked, these compounds exhibit the action of the verb emphatically as continuing or permanent. Thus, **child repart are at the** 'the two children were engaged in playing'; **as ten**, 'sit still'.

e. सेना, when compounded with a verbal root, represents the action of the verb as terminating with, upon, near, or to the advantage of the agent. In many cases, therefore, this compound is equivalent to the Middle Voice in Greek. Thus, बुसाना, is 'to call', in general; but बुसा सेना, is 'to call to one's self'; रखना, 'to place'; रख सेना, 'to lay by'; *i.e.*, for one's self. सेना, in compounds, thus stands in absolute contrast with देना, emphasizing the action as terminating upon, or to the advantage of one's self; while देना represents it emphatically as terminating upon or to the advantage of another. Compare, *e.g.*, **समस सेना**, 'to understand', *i.e.*, for one's self; and **समका** देना, 'to cause another to understand'. **साना** approaches to a reflexive sense, but is of much less extensive application than सेना.

f. पड्ना, although used with both transitive and intransitive verbs, cannot be combined with causals. The idea of 'causation' necessarily

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f. पड्ना, although used with both transitive and intransitive verbs, cannot be combined with causals. The idea of 'causation' necessarily

excludes that of 'chance'. Thus while we can say, देख पड़ा, 'it appeared', we cannot say दिखा पड़ा.

g. In many cases, the same root may be compounded with different secondary verbs. A few such examples may further elucidate this matter. Thus, from खाना, 'to eat', we have खा जाना, 'to eat up'; खा लेना, 'to eat down'; खा रहना, 'to be engaged in eating'. Similarly from मारना, 'to strike', we have both मार देना, 'to beat', and मार डालना, 'to strike down', 'to kill'.

349. While the modification of the first verb by the secondary member, may often be expressed in English either by the addition of certain particles, or by the use of another verb from that used to represent the simple Hindí verb, in many cases, again, it will be found quite impossible to express in English the slight distinction between the simple and compound verb. Indeed it is to be remarked, that compounds in which देना is the last member, even in Hindí, are often scarcely to be distinguished in meaning from the simple verb. Thus such forms as **HAMMITI and HAMMI देना**, दिखाना and दिखा देना, etc., are often used interchaugeably, with no apparent intention of greater emphasis in the one case than in the other. But where a distinction is intended it is undoubtedly that indicated above. The compound form is much more common colloquially.

350. Occasionally in prose and in the colloquial, a particle, especially a negative, is interposed between the root and the secondary verb; thus, कुछ देख नहीं पड़ता है, 'nothing appears'; टूट तो गया, '(it) is indeed broken'. Also, rarely, in the colloquial, the root is made to follow the secondary; thus, वह गया है भाग, 'he has fled away'. This inversion is never found in prose, but like the previous idiom, is not unusual in poetry.\*

351. The learner must not confound with the above Compound verbs, a common idiom in which the leading verb is immediately preceded by the conjunctive participle of another verb, taken in that form which is identical with the root. Although this combination is identical in appearance with the above forms, it is, in reality, a different thing, as the final verb in this idiom retains its individuality and separate signification. Examples of this idiom are, उस गांव को देख आओ, *lit.*, 'having seen that village, come', or, in English idiom, 'go and see that village'; में मालो के घर हा आया हूं. *lit.*, 'having been at the gardener's house, I have come'; *i.e.*, 'I have come by way of the gardener's house'.

\* For other examples, see the section on dialectic conjugation.

a. ले खाना may be explained either on this principle, as 'having taken, come', or as a compound, 'to bring'. Similar are कह सुनाना, 'to announce', आ मिलना, 'to come and meet', etc., etc.

352. A number of quasi compounds occur in which चढ़, the root of चढ़ना, 'to ascend', is the first member, and a verb of motion the second. But in these the leading idea is in the second member, to which चढ़ adds the idea of 'hostility'. Examples are, चढ़ धाना, 'to run up hostilely'; चढ़ आना, 'to attack'; चढ़ दैाड़ना, 'to rush up hostilely'. Thus, e.g., वह सब कटक ले चढ़ धाया, 'he hastened up with all (his) army'; एक और भी काशी का राजा चढ़ देाड़ा, 'one more also, the king of Káshí, made an assault'.

353. *Potentials* are formed by adding to the root of any verb, the verb **unan**, 'to be able', which may then be conjugated throughout. This compound denotes *ability* to do the action expressed by the primary member. It thus often takes the place of the potential mood in English.

The following are examples :-- खोल सकना, 'to be able to speak'; वह देाड़ सकता है, 'he can run'; में जा सकूंगा, 'I shall be able to go'; वे आ सकें, 'they may be able to come'.

a. Sometimes, instead of forming a compound, the verb सकना takes the verb which it modifies in the oblique form of the infinitive; thus, में नहीं जाने सकता हूं. 'I am not able to go'.

354. Completives are formed by adding to the root of a verb, the verb gram, which may then be conjugated in all its parts. The imperfect participle, gram, is rare. This compound denotes the *completion* of the act denoted by the primary member of the compound. It is never identical in sense with the perfect participle, but denotes the completeness of the action in a more emphatic manner. Thus, e.g., उम ने खाया, 'he ate', but **au खा** पुका, 'he has done eating'.

a. Very often the force of चुकना will be expressed in English by the word 'already'; as वह तो जा चुका है, 'he is indeed already gone'. When in the absolute future, this compound often nearly corresponds to the English future perfect; जब वह खा चुकोगा, 'when he shall have eaten'.

# Class II.—Compounds formed with the Perfect

# Participle.\*

355. Frequentatives are formed by affixing to the masc. sing. of the perfect participle of any verb, the verb करना, which may then be used in any tense; the participle, however, remains unchanged throughout. These denote the habitual or repeated performance of the action expressed by the first member of the compound; thus, पढ़ा करना, 'to read often'; जाया करे, 'come often'; वर कथा करता है, 'he is in the habit of saying'.

a. Thus whenever the adverb 'always' denotes, not duration, but repeated or customary action, it must be expressed in Hindí by using the verb which it qualifies, in the frequentative form. For example, the phrase, 'he always bathes in the morning', must be rendered into Hindí, वह सड़के स्नान किया करता है. But, on the contrary, 'we shall be always happy', is in Hindí, इस सदा खानन्द में रहेंगे. Other examples are, में शास्त्र की पढ़ा करता हूं. 'I am in the habit of reading the Shástra'; तुम मेरी बातें माना करेा. 'always obey my words'; तुम क्यों ऐसा किया करते हा, 'why do you always do so ?'.

356. Desideratives are formed, like Frequentatives, with an unchanging perfect participle \* in the masc. sing., substituting the verb **ensen** for **aren** as the second and conjugated member. These denote, primarily, *desire* to do

<sup>\*</sup> Although I have followed usage in speaking of these compounds as formed with the perfect participle, it is, I think. doubtful whether this statement is accurate. I am rather inclined to believe that we have in these combinations, not a perfect participle, but a gerund in *á*, equivalent to the common gerund or infinitive in *ná*. This form of the gerund certainly occurs in Bangálí, where we have, e.g., chalan=H. H. chalná, chalibá=Braj. chalivau, and chalá, as three equivalent and alternative forms. Moreover, this gerund in its inflected form in *ai*, is constantly used in eastern Hindí in these very compounds. Thus the H. H. chalne lagá, is in E. Hindí, chalai lagá. There is, therefore, good reason to believe that chalá and chalai in these compounds are true gerundial forms, exactly equivalent, respectively, to chalná and chalne, and that the common account of these compounds which we have provisionally followed is not grammatically correct.

the action expressed by the participial member; secondarily, the *immediate futurition* of that action. It can only be known from the context which of these may be intended in any particular case, but there is not often ambiguity. Thus, as an arean 2, 'he wishes to speak', or 'is about to speak'; as an arean 2, 'the clock was about to strike'.

a. Sometimes the first verb may be in the inflected Infin., as वह जाने याइसा है, 'he wishes to go'. In this case the Infinitive is to be regarded as in grammatical construction with चाइना, and the combination is in no true sense a compound.

b. The Desiderative compound, in the respectful form with चाहिये, is idiomatically used to express obligation or duty; as दस पुस्तक की पढ़ा चाहिये, '(one) ought to read this book'; or, with a noun or pronoun expressed, तुम्हें वहां जाया चाहिये, 'you ought to go there'. The construction of this idiom will be explained in the Syntax. In this combination, the direct form of the infinitive is very commonly substituted for the verbal form in चा. Thus we may say, वहां जाना चाहिये, '(one) ought to go there'.

c. Observe, that when चाइना and करना are thus compounded with जाना, 'to go', जाया is used instead of गया. Thus, खड जाया करता है, 'he often goes'; खह जाया चाइता है, 'he wishes', or 'is about to go'. So also, in the forms derived from मरना, 'to die', मरा, and not सुखा, is used in combination with the above verbs; thus, खह मरा चाइता है, 'he is about to die'.

357. We have next to consider the other combinations referred to in §345, a. These have been commonly enumerated as *Continuatives*, *Staticals*, *Inceptives*, *Permissives*, *Acquisitives* and *Nominals*. Of these, the first two are combinations of certain verbs with an Imperfect Participle; Inceptives, Permissives and Acquisitives, are combinations of certain verbs with Infinitives; Nominals are combinations of certain verbs with Nouns or Adjectives.

358. Those combinations have been called *Continuatives* 

in which the imperfect participle of any verb is connected with the verbs जाना, 'to go', or रहना, 'to remain'. The participle, which is really a predicative adjunct of the subject, agrees with it in gender and number.

a. Although combinations with जाना and रहना have always been thus grouped together under this head, they cannot be interchangeably used, but should rather be separately classified. The combinations with जाना might be more accurately termed *Progressices*. The action of the participle is thus exhibited as steadily progressing or advancing. Thus we may say; वह लिखासा जासा है, 'he is going on writing'; वे लहाकियां पढ़री जासी घो, 'those girls were going on reading'; **पानो बहसा जासा है**, 'the water keeps flowing away'.

b. The analogous combinations with रहना are correctly termed Continuatives. They denote the continuance of an incomplete action; as, यह गासी रहसी है, 'she continues singing'; सुम क्यों इंग्रेसे रहसे हा, 'why do you keep laughing ?'; नदी की धार बहसी रहसी है, 'the stream of the river keeps flowing on'.

c. It will be instructive to compare these forms with others closely similar. Thus वह पढ़ता है is simply 'he is reading'; वह पढ़ रहा है is 'he is engaged in reading'; वह पढ़ता रहता है is 'he continues reading'. बहता जाना is 'to flow *away*, from the speaker; बहता रहना is 'to flow *on*', continually, as it were, *before* the speaker.

d. जाता रहना very commonly means 'to die'; thus, मेरा पिता जाता रहा है, would be, in English idiom, 'my father has passed away'. It is also used of things, as सब कुछ जाता रहा, 'every thing is gone'.

359. Closely analogous to the above is a common combination in which the perfect instead of the imperfect participle takes the first place, and a verb of motion the second place; as with anen, 'to flee away'; wen anen, 'to go away'; wen men, 'to come along', etc. As in the case of the above combinations of the imperfect participle, the perfect participle agrees with the subject of the verb in gender and number; as entities and antit and, 'the girl was going along'.

a. It is perhaps impossible in all cases to give in English idiom the force of this combination. But it will be found to lie in the distinctive idea of the perfect participle; *i.e.*, the subject is represented as having *completely* come into a certain state, in which state it is then represented as remaining or moving. Thus, in the phrase, **ven and usin intern un**, the compound, (from **usen**, 'to fall', and **intern**, 'to move around',) represents the lion as first 'crouched', and then in this state moving around; hence we render, 'a lion was prowling about'.

360. The verbal combinations which are called *Stati*cals denote motion in the state of doing any thing. They are formed by combining a verb of motion with an imperfect participle in the inflected masc. sing. The participle suffers no change for gender and number. Thus, वह रोले हुद साला है, 'he comes weeping'; रक स्त्री गाले सालो घो, 'a woman was coming singing'.

361. Of the combinations of verbs with the Infinitive, above enumerated, we notice,—

(1) Inceptives. These consist of an inflected infinitive in construction with the verb साना, and denote, primarily, the action of the infinitive as beginning. They are also used, when that action is *interrupted*. In this way is to be explained the common use of the phrase, कारने साता, *lit.*, 'he began to say', in the narration of conversation. Examples of these compounds are abundant, as मारने साता, 'to begin to beat'; साने सात, 'he began to eat', etc., etc.

(2) Permissives are formed by combining with an inflected infinitive the verb देना, 'to give', and express permission to do the act denoted by the infinitive. Thus, मुन्ने जाने देा, 'let me go'; मुन्ने चोलने दोजिये, 'have the goodness to allow me to speak'; उस ने उस की खाने दिया, 'he allowed him to eat', etc.

(3) Acquisitives are the exact converse of the preceding, and are formed in the same way, substituting पाना, 'to get', for देना. Thus, सुम वडां जाने नहीं पान्नोगे, 'you will not obtain permission to go there'; में बैठने नहीं पाया, 'I was not allowed to sit'. Observe, in this idiom with unur, as in the frequentative compound with term, the case of the agent is never used.

362. These combinations of verbs with the infinitive, as has been observed, are not to be regarded as true compounds. The inflected infinitive is simply governed by the verb, in the same manner that a noun would be in the same place. Thus not only the verbs लग्राना, देना and पाना, but other verbs may be combined with infinitives in a similar way, as, e.g., in such forms as जाने मौग्राना, 'to ask leave to go'; देने चाइना, 'to wish to give'; में नहीं जाने सकता, for में नहीं जा सकता, 'I cannot go', etc.

363. With regard to all the above Compound verbs, as well as these other various combinations, it is to be remarked, that when several roots, infinitives, or participles, thus succeed one another in the same construction, the finite verb is written only with the last. Thus, बब वे सब कुड खा पो गर, 'when they had eaten and drank everything up'; में न पढ़ न लिख सकता डूं, 'I am able neither to read nor to write'; वह साया जाया करता था, 'he was in the habit of coming and going'; वे गा पढ़ खुके हे, 'they have done singing and reading'; में पढ़ा सीर लिखा भी चाहता डूं, 'I wish both to read and to write'; वह नाचता गाता चला बाता था, 'he was going along dancing and singing'; वह मुक्ते साने जाने देगा, 'he will allow me to come and go'.

364. Reiteratives scarcely need a special mention. In these, two verbs of the same or similar meaning, and often similar in sound, are conjugated together in the tenses of the participles, and in the conjunctive participle; as, e.g., चिन समआर सुआतर, 'without having explained'; देख भास कर, 'having seen', etc. The latter word adds little or nothing to the former; but, in accordance with the taste of the Hindoos for rhyme in sense or sound, is added simply to please the ear.

365. Those have been called *Nominal* compounds in which a substantive or adjective is so united with a verb as that the two express but one idea. These are especially common with the verbs द्वाना, 'to be', and करना, 'to do', or 'make'. Very commonly they are to be translated into English by one word. Examples are, खड़ा देाना, 'to stand'; खड़ा करना, 'to stand' (trans.); माम करना, 'to obtain'; समाप्त देाना, 'to be complete'; मास सेना, 'to buy'.

a. Very often when especial respect is intended, or when, as, c.g.,

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in poetry, a lofty diction is desired, a Sanskrit noun or participle, in composition with करना, दाना, पाना, or some other Hindí verb, is preferred to the more vulgar word. Often the difference in signification may be expressed by the use of different words in English. Examples are, दर्शन करना, 'to behold', for देखना, 'to see'; भाखन करना, for खाना, 'to eat'; ग्रामन or गवन करना, 'to go', for खाना; प्रख्यान करना or प्रस्थित द्वाना, 'to depart', for चला जाना, etc., etc. This matter is deserving of especial attention by the student both in conversation and in composition.

### DIALECTIC CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

366. As a preliminary to the consideration of dialectic conjugation, it will be expedient to exhibit the various dialectic forms and substitutions for the present and past tenses of the auxiliary substantive verb, answering respectively to the standard Hindí,  $\dot{\mathbf{x}}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$ , etc. It is thought unnecessary to exhibit the variations for gender which occur in the past tense, as they are identical with those which occur in the same dialects in nouns and adjectives of the same termination. Nor has it been thought necessary to repeat the pronoun in each dialect. This the student can easily supply for himself from the pronominal tables.

367. The various Kanaují forms of the present in  $\pi\pi$  or  $\pi\pi$ , etc., are colloquial throughout the central Doáb, but the standard forms are no less common. Panjábí has analogous forms also in the pres. 1st sing,  $\pi\pi\pi$ , 'I am', and 2nd plur.,  $\pi\pi$ , 'you are'.

368. The Braj forms in Table XVI will be found on almost every page of the *Rájníti* and similar books. In the present they differ but slightly from the standard forms, and in the lst sing. and 2nd plur. only. Thus, दें! लचनो दें!, 'I am *Lakshmí*'; सुम को दें!, 'who are you?'. बाहि is used as 2nd plur. in one passage only in the *Prem Ságar*, viz., सुम देग्ड मेरी कला जु बाहि, 'you two who are parts of me'. But I suspect that this is used simply *metri gratia*. Of the Braj forms of the past, the following are examples of the use of देरा (fem. दो); सहां सुदर्शन नाम राजा देर, 'in that place was a king named *Sudarshan*'; साको पार्वसो नाम पन्नो दो, 'he had a wife named *Párvatí*'. This form of this Braj past tense is the more common in books; but इसी also occasionally occurs,\* as in the following ; मेरेा सुख जैसेा हुसा तैसेा हो देखिड़े, 'thou shalt see my face just as it was'; हुसा घर मांक रानी, 'in the house was the queen'. Closely connected is the Bhag. इयो and K. इसा.

369. Of the two Rájputáná forms of these two tenses, the present, i, etc., and past, चा, etc., are used throughout Mewár and Márwár; and east of Mewár, through Kotáh, Bundá, Jaipúr, etc., the forms with æ are used. But in literature and correspondence, it is said that i, चा, etc., are used much more extensively. Thus the forms in constantly occur in the 'Plays', as in the following examples :--i di analy in the 'Plays', as in the following examples :---i di analy 'I am a shopkeeper'; महे की किस्या प्रजाब, (plur. for sing.) 'how am I ignorant?'; नाम बमारा लाटना है, 'my name is Lotno'; त है राजकुमार, 'thou art a prince'; etc., etc.

a. It may be remarked here that the Márwárí forms of these and other verbs are often disguised by the addition of various unmeaning letters and syllables, such as  $a_1$ ,  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$ ,  $a_4$ ,  $a_7$ ,  $a_8$ ,

370. The Garhwálí forms given in Table XVI are those which prevail in and about Tírí, the capital of native Garhwál, and are commonly understood (though not exclusively used) throughout that province. The form ला is used for the present in some villages of Garhwál, both alone and as an auxiliary. Thus I have heard, कोई ला=H. H. कोई है; तुइन कींदा ला=H. H. तुम चाते हो, 'are you coming?', etc., otc. The longer क forms given in the pres. plur. belong east of Tírí.

371. In the Rámáyan, as in poetry generally, the copula is very freely omitted, both in the present and the past tense. When the copula is necessary, in the past tense the indef. perf., भयउ, of the verb द्वान, 'to be', is often thus used. But occasionally in the Rámáyan, as regularly in all the modern eastern dialects, the indef. perf. of the verb रहना, 'to remain', is used both as a copula and as an auxiliary, instead of the H. H. घा. Thus we read in the Rámáyan, जा कठु उचित रहा से कोन्हा, '(Brahmá) has done whatever was proper'; सती नाम तच्च रह तुम्हारा, 'then your name was Satí'.

•372. With the Avadhí and old Púrbí forms of the present may be compared the almost identical Maráthí conjugation, viz., Sing.. আই. আইয়, আই ; Plur, আই, আই, আইম. The common negative, नहीं, Br. नाइ, has arisen from the combination of the negative न, with the 3rd sing., আছি, of the subst. verb.

<sup>\*</sup> This word is erroneously explained in Prof. Eastwick's Prem Ságar, p. 194, as a Braj form of the imperfect participle, **Prev**. **†** Vid. Ch. X, last section.

373. In the region west of Bhojpúr, खे, is used for है, 'is'. The indeclinable बा is not confined to Bhojpúr, but is used for all persons in both numbers as far west as Allahabad. Thus, ज आवत बा, 'he is coming'; सुम कोई का गोइरावल बा 'whom are you calling ?'. According to Mr. Beames, the Bhojpúrí declinable forms, खारो, खार (bára), खारन, are used in questions and replies, but not commonly in narrative, when the other forms given are preferred. The dialectic paradigms of these two tenses will be found on the next two pages.

# Of Conjugation in the Braj and other Western dialects.

374. It will be convenient to treat of the various dialectic conjugations according to their mutual affinities. These conjugations may thus be grouped in respect of their common resemblances, as western or eastern. We begin with conjugation in the western dialects, and first of all, as most important, with the Braj.

375. The tense system in Braj corresponds essentially with that in High Hindí. For final **un** and **v**, the Braj characteristically exhibits **un** and **v**. (§101.) Thus, e.g., for **un**, we have **un**?; for **un**, **un**,

376. The Braj infinitive or gerund has two forms, the one in  $\overline{\overline{n}}$  or  $\overline{\overline{n}}$ , the other in  $\overline{\overline{a}}$  or  $\overline{\overline{a}}$ . Before the latter termination,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  is often inserted. This latter form is especially common in the obl. sing. For the common inflection,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ , of the infinitive, the Braj, after  $\overline{\overline{n}}$  has not only  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ , but  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ , which, again, is often dropped, leaving  $\overline{\overline{n}}$  as the final letter. To illustrate, for H. H.  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  and  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  at  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ , inflected forms,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\overline{n}}$ ,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ , and  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  at  $\overline{\overline{n}}$  and  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  and  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  or  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ , inflected forms,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ , and  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  at  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ ,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$ ,

TABLE XV:	DIALECTIC CONJU	GATION
	PRESENT	TENSE,

	1	H. Hindi.	Kananji.	Braj.	W. Ráj.	E. Ráj.	Garhwálí
		भूष श्रुवा-	94	हैां.	94	-18:G	हैां. ला.
	SINGULAR.	तू है.	हैगा, हैगी.	<b>N</b> .	æ.	æ.	इ, है. लेा.
	SIS	वह है.	हैगा, हैगेा.	<b>1</b> 2.	<b></b> .	æ.	इ. लेा.
PRRSENT.	PLURAL.	इम हैं.	हैं, हैंगे	1. 19	द्वां.	कां.	ढीं. क्वार्ज, ला.
		तुम हेा.	द्वी.	हैा.	द्वा.	के.	कन. क्याई. ला.
		त्रे हैं.	हैं, हैंगे.		<b>"</b> 10:	है.	इ.न. ला.
PAST.		में था.	च्री, इती.	द्वा, हुत्ता.	हेा.	क्रा.	थयो.
	SINGULAR.	तू चा	चेा, इतेा.	हो, हुती.	द्वी.	क्रेा,	षयो.
		वह था.	थो, इती.	ह्री, हुत्ती.	द्वे.	केंग.	थयो.
		इम चे.	घे, इते.	हे. हुते.	इ.	का.	च्चया.
	PLURAL.	तुम घे.	चे, इते	हे हुते.	द्दा.	का.	चया.
	4	वे चे.	चे, इते.	इ, हुते.	च.	का.	चया.

• The final short vowel in all these forms is often lengthened metri gratia. liary, as, e.g., tumha japata hahu. ‡ These seven forms are used without change

# OF THE SUBSTANTIVE VERB.

'I am', etc.

Kum.	Old Púrbí.	Avadhí.	Rincáí.	Bhojpúrí.	Maith.
क्रों. ढूं.	चहतं,* हेां.	बाट्येंडं,ग्राईंडं. ही.	इं, चा.	वा.बाटे,बटे, ‡ खाब. बाब्झा, भा, खे, खारी.	डू. <i>f</i> . डो.
<b>ð</b> .	बहाइ,जाहि,जहर, बहै. बहारि, होर.	बाट. भव्य. स्रहस.	<b>ਵ</b> .	खार.	डु. ,, क्वी.
ন্থ.	चहहि,चाहि,चहद,चहै. हेाद.	बाटे. यदे.	दे, चा.	बारन्.	<b>बे. ,, को</b> .
केां, क्यूं.	यहहिं, यहदं. हहिं.†	बाटी. चडी.	<b>`</b> .	बारी.	<b>डू</b> . <i>f</i> . वो.
<b>क्</b> र.	थाइडु, इडु.†	बाट्ये. ग्रङ्: बाट्ये. ग्रहे.	ब्रहेन, हैा.	बार.	डू. ,, बी.
इन, हो.	याइडिं, याइदं. याहे, इडिं.†	बाटें. <b>ग्रेहें</b> . माह्या	यहेन,यंहें. यां.	बारन्.	ई. ,, हो.
क्रिया.	रहेर्ड. ु. रहिर्ड.	रहेतुं.	रइनेर्ड,रहा. रहेर्ड.	रहिली.	रहिले.
हियो. हिये.	रहेसि, रहसि. ,, रहिसि.	रद्दे, रद्देस.	रहे, रहा. ते.	राइल.	ৰ্যাছল.
कियो.	रहेसि, रहसि. ,, रहिसि. रहेउ.	<b>বছা</b> .	रहा. ते, ता.	रहिल्. रहिलम्.	राइले.
किया. किंयां.	रहे. <i>f</i> . रही.	रहे.	र <b>हन</b> . त.	र्राइली.	राइल.
किया. किंयां.	रइडु. "रहो.	रई,रईन,रद्या.	र <b>द्वेन</b> . ते.	रहिलड्.	ৰ্যছিল.
किया. किंयां.	रद्दे. ,, रद्दों.	रई, रईन.	र <b>द्वेन.</b> से, सा.	रहिलन्. रहिला.	ৰ্যাছল.

† These shorter forms are preferred to the longer, when the verb is used an auxithroughout the sing. and plur.; bhá belongs to Sháhábád. || Pronounced rahila. 26 रेवे को for आदवे को, H. H. आने का, 'of coming'; बतैवी, for बतायवी or बतादवी,=H. H. बताना, 'to show'; दैन or दैनें, for देना, 'to give', etc., etc. But before नें, after का, व is more commonly found instead of द, as in चुरावनें, 'to steal', for H. H. चुराना. Further examples are, घदा काह से रदिवी नाहि, 'there is no remaining always with any one'; तुम मेरे पुत्रनि की पंडिल करिवे जेगा हो, 'you are competent to make my sons wise men; राजा कहान लाग्गो, 'the king began to say'; तुम से कहन को आयो हो, 'I have come to tell you'.

377. Instead of the H. H. terminations ला and चा (या) of the Imperf. and Perf. participles, the Braj has ल and या. Before ल, roots in चा sometimes take चय or u instead of a, as, e.g., in बेठाचयल, for बेठावल, 'seating', पायल, 'finding'. The u which in High Hindí is inserted in the perf. part. only after open roots, is always inserted in Braj before चा after all roots whatever. Examples of these participles are चाल, चलल, मार्या, जलायी, for H. H. दाला, चलला, मारा, जलाया.

a. The final  $\exists$  of the imperf. part. is occasionally dropped even in the sing., and often in the plur.  $\exists$  is substituted for  $\exists$  in the fem. Sometimes for the imperf. part. forms in  $\exists$  or  $\exists$ , longer forms in  $\exists$ r or  $\exists$ r, plur.  $\exists$ , occur; as, e.g., द्वारी, मारता, for द्वारा, मारता.

378. The Conjunctive part. is formed by the affixes  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  or  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  or  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  is used as the conj. part. If the root end in a vowel,  $\mathbf{u}$  is very commonly written instead of  $\mathbf{u}$ , but the pronunciation is not perceptibly different. Even when  $\mathbf{a}$  or  $\mathbf{a}$  is added, this  $\mathbf{u}$  or  $\mathbf{u}$  is often retained after the root. Examples are, from  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ ,  $\mathbf{u}$ 

379. The Braj Noun of agency agrees, in general, with the standard form; except that for बा final, as usual, we find खेा; and the suffix वाली or बारो is added to one of the dialectic inflected forms of the infinitive. Thus, *e.g.*, from करनी, come the various forms of the noun of agency, करनेवाली, करनवाली, करिवेडारी, etc.

380. The usual Braj terminations of the Cont. Fut., are, Sing. (1) जै1, जो, दं; (2) रे; (3) रे; Plur. (1) रें; (2) जी; (3) रें. Besides these we also have in the Sing. (2, 3,) दि; Plur. (1, 3,) दिं, (2) डु. Both forms are common in the Prem Ságar. In the 1st sing., दं or दं is used after vowels. I have also found in the 2nd plur., व for जी, as जाव, 'you may go'. दि and दि often appear, metri gratid, as हो and हो. 381. In the Absol. Fut. the Braj exhibits two classes of terminations. The 1st variety of the future is formed precisely as in the standard dialect by adding in (H. H. m), duly inflected, to the several persons of the cont. fut. Thus, e.g., we have from करने, Sing. (1) करोगे, (2, 3) करेगा; Plur. (1, 3) करेंगे, (2) करोगो. This affix in is also added to the longer terminations above noted, as, e.g., in the plur. (1) बोहेंगे, for H. H. देंगे; (2) पावचुगे, for H. H. पाचेगो; जावगे=H. H. जाचेगो. The short penultimate vowel is often lengthened metri gratid, as, e.g., देशोंगे. The 2nd variety of the Braj future is formed by adding to the root the following terminations, we being regularly employed as a vowel of union:—Sing. (1) देंग; (2, 3) दे; Plur. (1, 3) दे; (2) देग. For दे, we occasionally have देंग, & or & and for देग, देग.

a. Observe that, as in the infinitive so in the future, after roots ending in सा, द either becomes स, or more commonly combines with सा to form रे. Thus arise, e.g., such forms as मिलायद्दी, बलायद्दी,=H.H. मिलाडांगा, बलावेगा; and रेट्रे, 'he will come'; जेट्रेा, 'you will go', for साददे, जाददी=H. H. सावेगा, जासोगे.

b. More rarely this द combines also with the a inherent in the final consonant of a close root; giving, e.g., such forms as करेंदें। (=कर +द+दे!) for करिदे! (H. H. कदंगा); सुनेदेा, मारेंद्रे for सुनिद्देा, मारिदे, (H. H. सुनोग्रो, मारेंगे).

Rem. 1. In some Braj books printed under English supervision, these terminations  $\frac{1}{24}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , etc., will be found separated from the preceding root. This seems to have arisen from a confusion of these terminations with the substantive verb. Similarly the terminations  $\frac{1}{12}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the cont. fut. are often printed separate from the root, having apparently been confounded with the emphatic particle. This not infrequent printer's error should be noted.

*Rem.* 2. Observe that there is no difference of signification whatever, between the two forms of the Braj future here given. They both alike express the absolute and unconditioned futurition of the action.

382. The Imperative, as in the standard dialect, agrees in form

with the cont. fut., except in the 2nd pers. sing. where the root only is used. But a form in it is frequently used in poetry and archaic prose instead of the root, as un it una a archaic, 'do not labor in this'; itarm state, 'do not be anxious'.

a. The Respectful forms commonly agree with those in High Hindí, except that, as usual, र and सो final become र and सो. य is occasionally doubled; thus पोडे सारिय्यो, 'afterwards kill (me)'. Occasionally स is substituted for य in these forms, and र before य or स is sometimes lengthened. Examples are, सेन्सु झाइले, 'abandon grief'; वा की बांध साबोसे, 'regard him as a brother'; या की मारि साईय, 'kill and eat this'.

383. The tenses of the participles are all formed as in standard Hindí by combining the participles with certain tenses of the substantive verb; *i.e.*, for the Present tenses, दें!, etc., for the Past, दें!, for the Presumptive, दादंगी or व्येदे!, etc. Examples are, सर्प कहितु दे, 'the snake speaks'; तू काह ते रोवत हे, 'why art thou crying ?'; वह वा की गोद में बैठाइयतु हे, 'he is seating him in (his) lap'; काल निकट आवतु हे. 'death comes near'; हो ठोर नाहि पायतु. 'I do not find a place'; रानो रोवति हो, 'the queen was crying'; हो आयो हो, 'I have come'; उद्य आयो होय, 'he may have come'; कहु दूरि ते चल्यो हो, 'he had walked for some distance', etc., etc.

384. The passive construction of the Perfect tenses of transitives with the case of the agent, is regularly employed in Braj as in standard Hindí. But it should be noticed that while में is often used with the case of the agent, it is also often omitted, both in poetry, and, more rarely, in prose; and the noun or pronoun is used in its oblique form, where such a form exists. Thus. उन एक नगर बसाये, 'he settled a city'; काग सबद कोये, 'the crow cawed'. In a French Braj translation of the *Hitopades*,\* a special inflection of the substantive in this construction occurs, as, *e.g.*, सुरी काइ, 'the hare said', † where सुरी is the inflected case of the agent, from सुसा.

385. A number of common verbs assume peculiar forms in Braj which may be well noted here.

(1) The root of the substantive verb, रानें, 'to be', in the 2nd form of the absol. fut., the infinitive in and the conjunctive participle, becomes g. Thus, the absol. fut. becomes होरो, हेरे, etc.;

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Prof. De Tassy's 'Chrestomathie', Paris, 1849.

<sup>†</sup> This is evidently identical with the Márwárí agent case termination. Vid. §132, a.

the infin. द्वेवा, and the conj. part. द्वे. द्वेको, etc. In the perf. part. and all its tenses, भयो, (masc. infl. भये or भय, fem. भयो, or भई,) is the common substitute for चुआ. The same form with only the change of चेग to चो is universally employed in Kanaují, where it is even shortened to भयो or भो. In one place in a Braj work I have noted a perf. डूस, (Sk. मूल.) 'was', for H. H. चुआ. In another place occurs चुगे, 2nd plur. fut., for चागे.

(2) In the verbs देनेा, 'to give', and सेनेा, 'to take', the Sanskrit roots दा and सा are substituted for दे and से in the 2nd form of the future, the infin. in and in the perf. part. In the participle the final un is shortened to u. In the future and infinitive the radical चा combining with the union vowel च, gives चे. Thus, the Braj forms of the above tenses of these verbs are as follows : inf. देवा, सेवा, obl. form, देवे, लैवे; fut. देहें, लेहें, etc.; perf. part. दयी, लयी, obl. forms, वये or दर, लये or लर, etc. Thus, e.g., we read, ता में तें कड़ तुम की देखें, 'we will give some of that to you'. Similar forms occur in Kanaují. Sometimes the vowel of union is omitted in the fut. of these verbs. and the root of the tense becomes द and स. Thus, e.g., सब सुद्ध संपति लहे, 'they will take all joy and wealth away'. Similarly ठानने, 'to appoint', makes the perf. part., ठयेंग, fem. ठई, as in the following, विधाला ने यह ठई, 'Brahmá has appointed this'. In one place in the Prem Ságar (Ch. I), we find a fut. 1st sing., दूई, for देही, H. H. दूंगा, from देना, 'to give'; thus, में उस कीं दुई जाप, 'I will curse him'.

a. In a Braj commentary on the Bhakt Máld, I have found, in a compound form, an imperative 2nd plur., द्वी, from दैनी, for देष्टु or देखी, = H. स. दा; thus, यह सुसा सिन की विवाहि दी, 'give this daughter in marriage to him'. The form has evidently arisen by sandhi from दिखी, from the root दि for दे.

(3) The verb करनेंग, 'to do' or 'make', in Braj often forms its perf. part. regularly as कर्यो, instead of कियो, which also occurs. Similarly the Kanaují makes करो, for H. H. किया. In the fut. of this verb, besides the more common and regular forms, करिद्दें, करिंदे, etc., the Braj also has केंद्रों, केंद्रे, etc., (for काददें।, etc.,) from the root का, one of the Prakrit substitutes for कृ.\* Thus, राज दंद्र की केंद्रो, 'I will sway Indra's sceptre.'

(4) In the perf. tenses of the three verbs, देना, लेना, करना, we often find, besides the forms already mentioned, the irregular forms

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Vararuchi, Prák. Prak. VIII. 17.

दोन्हो, सोन्हो, कोन्हो. or often, with E dropped, दोनो, सोनो, कोने. Thus, पूरव जनम सुकृत कोक कोने। से विधि यह दरसन फस दोने, 'some one in a former birth has practiced virtue, hence Brahmá has given this vision as a reward'. From the root को, for कर, we also have a rare infinitive, कोने.

386. Besides the regular tenses corresponding with those of the standard dialect, the Braj, as also the Kanaují, Old Púrbí, and many other dialects, presents, in addition to the common regular analytic pres. imperf., formed by means of the participle and auxiliary, also a purely inflectional form of the same tense exactly agreeing in form with the contingent future. While not infrequent in prose it is especially common in poetry and proverbial expressions. It is occasionally used even in literary Urdú, in such common expressions, as  $i = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1$ 

a. With this inflected present is combined occasionally, in Braj, the several persons of the pres. of the substantive verb, **‡**, **‡**, etc. Thus, e.g., the following forms are found in the *Prem Ságar*: — **i uuunq ‡**, 'I recognize'; **auta**, 'it appears'; **uutauta**, 'they come'. Further west, in Márwár, this becomes the rule. There seems to be no difference in meaning between this and other forms of the present. This idiom is even more common in the colloquial about Kanauj, than in common Braj literature. Thus we often hear, **uiaugenciii**, 'the Sáhib is calling'; **unuiii**, 'I am coming'.

Rem. Misled by the less common occurrence of the present than of the future sense, in modern High Hindí, most grammarians hitherto have stated that the cont. fut. (Aorist of Forbes and others) is sometimes used in the sense of the present. It is, however, more accurate to regard the present as the original, and the future as the secondary meaning of the tense, which in fact is the worn-out remainder of the Sansk. pres. Parasmai.

387. Besides the above tenses, yet another is found occasionally in Braj prose and poetry, formed by the combination of the imperfect

<sup>\*</sup> In Prof. Eastwick's edition of the Prem Ságar, Anusvár is added to the final vowel in this passage.

participle with the indefinite perfect, भये।, of the substantive verb, इंग्ले!. The nature of this tense may be best denoted by the term, 'Inceptive Imperfect'. It indicates the subject as entering upon the action expressed by the verb. Examples are,—पोयल भये। दहो, 'he began to drink the sour milk'; ता वे यह जात में जिजारत भये।, 'so he began to think on this matter'. Further illustrations will be given below, in treating of the old Púrbí dialect.

388. The Braj commonly adds will to the root for the 1st Causal, and follows the standard dialect in adding an (or and) for the 2nd Causal. But a long vowel in the root of the primitive is sometimes retained where High Hindí shortens it.

a. Many verbs which, in standard Hindí, make the causal irregularly in आस or सा, take the regular form in Braj. If the root end in a vowel, व or य is inserted before the causal affix सात्र. Thus, e.g., — भूसनेंगे, 'to forget', makes मुसावनेंग and मुसवानेंग; बोसनेंग, 'to speak', बोसावनेंग and बुसवानेंग; सानेंग, 'to eat', स्ववानेंग and सिसवानेंग; पोवो, 'to drink', पियावनेंग and पिसवानेंग. आव is very rarely in poetry shortened to सव; thus, in the Prem Ságar (Ch. LXIII) we have a causative form पुजवे; का पुजवे हिय होंच इमारी, 'who will fill the desire of my heart ?', where पुजवे is for पुजावे.

389. The Braj forms its passive with the verb जानेंग, 'to go', precisely after the manner of the standard Hindí.

390. Very closely allied to the Braj is the Kanaují conjugation. Wit and we are preferred to the Braj wit and w; we final is dropped from the termination of the imperf. part; w is only inserted before the termination wit of the perfect tenses of pure verbs. Which and Hair form the perfect regularly from the root of the infinitive, making wait and Hair for H. H. Tanu and Hair. For H. H. wait, 'became', K. has with or wait like the Braj. The remaining details can be learned from the tables.

391. The dialect exhibited in the Bhagelkhandí N. T. (Bapt. Mission Fress, Scrampore, 1821) is related much more closely to the Braj in its conjugation than to eastern Hindí; and exhibits the peculiar construction of the case of the agent with H. H. transitive verbs, which is characteristic of all western Hindí. The infinitive ends in  $\overline{an}$  and the noun of agency in  $\overline{ant}$  or  $\overline{un}$ . The future tenses correspond exactly to the Braj, except that  $\overline{u}$  and  $\overline{un}$  are preferred to  $\overline{u}$  and  $\overline{un}$ ; as, e.g., in  $\overline{ant}$ , = Br.  $\overline{ant}$ , H. H.  $\overline{unu}$ , I will go';  $\overline{un}$ , = Br.  $\overline{un}$ , H. H.  $\overline{unu}$ , etc. The imperf. part. ends in  $\overline{u}$  as in Braj, and the perf. in  $\overline{un}$  as in Kanaují.  $\overline{u}$  is however preferred to  $\overline{u}$  before the termi-

nation of the perf. as in E. Hindí. Thus we have, eg., गवा, दवा, for H.H. गया, 'gone', and दिया, 'given'. भवा is regularly used for H. H. हुआ, 'become'. Quite peculiar is the termination कनाई in the conjunct. part, which is added to the root like को in H. H. य, however, is inserted before the terminations when the root ends in a vowel; thus we find सुनकनाई, जायकनाई, = H. H. सुनकर, जाकर. This termination is evidently connected with the Mewárí termination, कने, of the conj. part., to be noticed below.

392. As one general type of conjugation prevails throughout Rájpútáná, it will be convenient to treat Márwárí and Mewárí, etc., together, noting local differences as they occur.

Two general forms of the Infinitive prevail, the one in an or a, the other in an. Between these there appears to be no difference in meaning, but only in usage. Both forms are heard everywhere, but among the Mairs and a are much the more common. In W. Rájpútáná the final vowel of ar is usually dropped, giving, e.g., and for But देवा and सेवा, retain the final vowel. Both and **बावबा**. etc. बेग are used in an inflected form. बेग is regularly inflected to बा, but at is changed to a, never to at, and that only among the Mairs. The dat. postposition  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$  is never used after this inflected infinitive. Elsewhere if any inflected form be required, the obl. form in an is used. Thus the Mairs would say, करबे केंग, करबे कं,=H. H. करने का, कारने से, 'of doing', 'by doing'; but the Marwaris, कारबा को, कारबा सुं. So also in the 'Plays' we read, चेला होत्रा आया,=H. H. चेला होने आया, 'I have come to be a disciple'. But the standard form of the infinitive is also employed, as, in the Play of 'Dúngar Singh', धैसा नही रहवे की आस, 'there is no hope of your remaining thus'.

a. The infinitive in  $\frac{1}{2}$  is used by the Mairs, in the Frequentative form of the verb only, where standard Hindí employs the perfect participle. Thus for the Frequentative verbs, जाया करना, मारा करना, 'to go often', 'to beat often', the Mairs say, जायं करना, मारा करना. The Marwárís also use the infinitive in the frequentative verb, but in the other form, saying, e.g., जावा करना, मारवा करना. The infinitive in  $\frac{1}{2}$  ( $\frac{1}{2}$ ) is however, employed in the 'Plays', in the same manner as the other forms; thus, in the 'Play' of 'Bharatrí', मानु करने क्यों करोत, 'believe my word', *lit.*, 'my saying'. The infinitive in  $\frac{1}{2}$ is sometimes used adjectively like the Urdú infinitive, and may therefore be inflected to जो to agree with a fem. noun, thus; राटी umarail है, 'bread must be cooked'; and in an imperative sense in 'Dungar Singh', देर नही करवी, 'make no delay'. But the infinitive in बा is never thus employed.\*

393. The imperfect participle everywhere in Rájpútáná ends in तो, and the perfect participle in यो. But when the perfect participle is used adjectively, in Márwár the suffix द्वा is added. Thus, from भखवा, 'to read', the perf. part. adj. is अक्योद्वा,=H. H. पठा हुआ; from मारवा, 'to beat', मार्याद्वा,=H. H. मारा हुआ, etc., etc. Before this affix द्वा, य of the termination is sometimes dropped, as in कोधोद्दा,=H. H. किया हुआ. To the imperfect and perfect participles, when used adjectively, is optionally added, either the perf. part., किया, of टेटेवा, 'to be', or चको, or लगी †; as म्हे देवरा ने आवत्ता दोठा, 'I saw the boys coming'; टाकी भोला चका को खाय मर गिया, 'their father died in childhood', etc.

a. Before the termination ये। of the perf. part., द is often inserted in the 'Plays'; या is also often written for ये।. Thus, सूरत कगीया, 'the sun has risen'; राज्ञ लाकिया, '(I) have forsaken my kingdom'; कागद ले हुं व्याविया, 'I have brought a paper (*i.e.*, letter)'.

b. When the participles are used as verbal nouns, or absolutely, क्यो final becomes क्यां in the oblique form. Thus, मुलक में लियां फिर्ब, 'I will take (thee) about the country'. So also, म्हारो माल मगावलां छड़ी न करसी जेख, 'he will not make an hour's delay in sending for my property'. But otherwise the oblique form ends in क्या, sing. को, plur.

c. The various verbal forms are often disguised by meaningless enclitic additions. Thus we find ल्यावसास for ल्यावसा,=H. H. लासा; क्वोड्यासन for क्वोड्या,=H. H. क्वोड्वा; देवुंर, for H. H. देखं, etc.; etc.

394. The Conjunctive participle exhibits several forms. (1) The root alone is used; or (2), ने is added to the root; as, e.g., करने, मारने, =H. H. करके, मारके. Both of these are used throughout Rájpútáná. The former often occurs in the 'Plays'. In Mewár, the Conjunctive participle is formed (3) by adding उत्ते to the root; as, e.g., in सुडूने, माडने,=H. H. सुनके, मारके; or (4) by adding क्रने to the imperfect participle, as in बाड़रोत्कने, 'having cut',=H. H. काटके. (5) Again, in E. Rájpútáná, this participle is formed by adding इ to the root. Thus we have मारद =H. H. मारके; ट्वैद,=H. H. झाकर; खाद,=H. H. खाकर, etc., etc. This last form occurs in the 'Plays'; as, e.g., यूचे

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<sup>\*</sup> Prof. De Tassy mentions an infin. in **दा**, as, e.g., **कारदी**, for **करना**. This looks like a Western form, and is therefore noted here; but 1 have no fur. ther information about it. **† सता** is used chiefly in Mewár and Máirwárà.

बैठर वायसो, '(although) thou wilt eat (it), sitting in a corner'. (6) I have also heard repeatedly from a native of Rájpútáná a conjunctive participle formed by the suffix करियासा or करियाना, as, e.g.. सुसकरियासा, =H. H. सुनकर, 'having heard', etc. This is said to be also used in poetry, but I have not met with any example.\*

395. The Noun of agency is formed by the suffix वासे, which is added to either form of the inflected infinitive. In this combination the infinitive in बा, inflected to बा, seems to be the more common, but the other form of the infinitive is also used, as in the following; ज्यारे मास सुटबावासे, 'the robber of my property'. (Play of Dúngar Singh.)

396. The Márwárí tenses may be distributed in the same three groups as those of the standard dialect; though I doubt whether examples can be adduced of each of the twelve participial tenses. व is inserted before the terminations as in High Hindí, but much more freely. Thus, e.g., it is constantly inserted after a vowel in the cont. fut., 1st sing. and 2nd plur.; as सातुं गंगा जल, 'shall I bring Ganges water?'; यबरज सेवा जाय, 'go and get tidings (of him)': also before the imperf. part. term., ता; as in द्वावते, सावता, =H. H. द्वाता, साता: also even after a short vowel in the perf. ; as में स्वियो फकोरो, 'I had taken up the life of a mendicant'. But in the perf. tenses य is more common. Thus, although we find द्वा in the 'Plays', =H. H. द्वाता, द्वा, द्वो is more frequent, as, e.g., in द्वा सुयाखुं, 'he became a jogí'. The common colloquial form of this word is रिट्यो or टहोको.

397. The terminations of the Contingent Future in Márwárí, Mewárí, etc. are, Sing. (1) उं or फं; (2, 3) रे; Plur. (1) खा; (2) खा; (3) रे. A single example will suffice, in addition to those given above; मन खात्रे चडे उसरा, 'we will rest (lit., alight) wherever it may please us', (lit., 'may come into the mind'.)

398. Three forms of the Absolute Future prevail in Rájpútáná. Two of these are formed directly from the root by adding the following terminations, *viz.* :---

Terminations of the 1st Future.					Terminations of the 2nd Future.							
Sing.	1.	स्यूं.	2.	स्री.	3.	स्री.	1.	<b>.</b>	2.	ची.	3.	ची.
Plur.	1.	स्या.	2.	स्या.	3.	स्री.	1.	द्धां.	2.		3.	

\* I doubt whether the final  $\mathbf{z}$  in the 5th form of the conj. participle is any thing different from the enclitic  $\mathbf{z}$  which sometimes, in the 'Plays' at least, is added also to other parts of the verb, as, e.g., in  $\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{z}$  for  $\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{3}$ , etc.

स्यूं and स्यो are sometimes corrupted to सूं and से. The 3rd form of the future is formed after the analogy of the future in standard Hindí; *i.e.*, by adding a syllable, *eiz.*, सो (instead of H. H. मा), to the several forms of the contingent future. Like **गा**, this सो is inflected for gender and number, and therefore becomes सा in the masc. plur.; सो, fem. sing. and plur. But सा is sometimes used for से in the masc. sing. Thus the full terminations added to the root are as follows :-Sing. (1) इंसो; (2, 3) ऐसो; Plur. (1) फांसा; (2) फोसा; (3) ऐसा.

a. These forms appear to be substantially identical in signification, except that the future in  $\overline{\overline{en}}$  is said to express a slight degree of dubiety. This future in  $\overline{\overline{en}}$  is especially common about Jodhpúr. Further east, in eastern Márwár and Mewár, the 2nd form in  $\overline{\underline{e}}$ , etc., is chiefly used; while in Bundá, Kotah, along the river Chambal, and northward to Jaipúr, the future in  $\overline{\underline{e}}$ , etc., is the usual colloquial form. The use of this form of the future, therefore, is territorially co-extensive with that of the substantive verb  $\overline{\underline{e}}$ , etc. (§369) and, like that, appears to be the common literary form; while the other futures are used in the same districts as the substantive verb  $\overline{\underline{e}}$ , etc.

b. The following illustrations of the literary future in स are from the 'Plays'. पोढ़े पावा लाखुं, 'afterward I will bring (him) to (your) feet'; पूर्व वैठर पावसी, 'thou wilt eat (it) sitting in a corner'; नोपी चंद सा पुसर देखसी. 'there shall be (to thee) a son like Gopí Chand'; सबी मिल चालस्या. 'we all will go together'; जिस से देल्यों पार. 'by which you shall succeed'. The final Anusrár in these fut. forms, is often omitted in the text, but I judge it to be a printer's error. The 'Plays' do not, that I have noticed, give any examples of either of the other two futures.

399. The Imperative in the 2nd sing. consists of the root alone; and adds चेंग to the root for the 2nd plur. as in High Hindí. When the root ends in a vowel, व is inserted before चेंग; thus, चे डेरा लेवा उठाव, 'take up the tent'; जावा बाई, 'go, mother !'. In a few words, final च in the root is often hardened to u before चो; thus, ल्यो सरवारां इाघ में, 'take swords in the hand'; रखसा बसा दोग, 'point out the way'. Occasionally in the 'Plays', the 2nd sing. terminates in च; thus, जयो इमारेग मान्, 'mind my word'.

400. In the Respectful forms of the imperative, the 'Plays' exhibit the terminations चा or ज्यो, and च or ज्ये. These ज forms are added not only to a few verbs, as देना, लेना, etc., as in standard Hindí, but to

a. In the colloquial, the respectful forms of the imperative are जै or ईजी, and जो or ईजी. Thus from जीमनी, 'to eat', the respectful forms are जीमजी or जीमीजी, and जीमजी or जीमीजी. In the 'Plays', also. ई is sometimes inserted before the termination; thus, ये जेज करीज्या नाहि, 'make you no delay'.

401. In the tenses of imperfect action, the imperfect participle alone is used, as in standard Hindí, for a past contingent tense, and not unfrequently in the 'Plays', as a present tense; as, e.g., सिंध देाय रो नही रवला, 'he who is perfect, dwells not (here)'.

402. But the Present imperfect is regularly formed, both in the colloquial and in literature, by adding to the forms already noted in the contingent future, the several persons of the present of the substantive verb, either of the  $\mathbf{z}$  or the  $\mathbf{z}$  series. Illustrations are; - जागो सलय जगावे है, 'a jogi is calling 'Alakh' !'; सुं क्युं भेजे है लैर, 'why dost thou send (me) afterward ?'; बांब्यां क्यूं घाला हो जीयर, 'why do you lay hands upon the merchant?'; क्युं बावेग हो जैयर, 'why do you eat poison ?'.

a. The auxiliary is often omitted, especially when several verbs occur in the same construction, in which case the present imperfect has the same form as the contingent future. Thus, in the following, both the first and the second verbs are to be regarded as present imperfects; बोन बजावे नाद सुबावे पड़े। है मैस के बार, 'he is playing the lute, singing a song, standing without the palace'. Similar is the verb in the following; मुज कुं क्या फरमावा, 'what do you command me?'.

403. The formation of the Past imperfect is analogous to that of the present, except that the auxiliary past tense, द्वा or हो, of the substantive verb, is added, both in the sing. and plur., to that form of the verb only, which is found in the 3rd sing. of the contingent future. Thus, for the H. H. में सुनला था, we have टूं सुवी हो, 'I was hearing'; similarly, for तुम क्या करले थे, 'what were you doing ?', थे कांदें करे हा or करे हा, etc.

a. These forms are colloquial throughout Rájpútáná, but the tense is sometimes also formed as in High Hindí, by adding the past tense of the substantive verb ( $\overline{a}$ ) or  $\overline{a}$ ) to the imperfect participle.

404. The tenses of the Perfect are all formed with the perfect participle in combination, when necessary, with the various tenses of **gेवा** (होना); and transitive verbs construe these tenses with the case of the agent, taking the object either in the nominative or dative, exactly as in High Hindí (§ 332). Thus in the following we have both the active and passive construction: युपुनुं आयो रेन मेंच यांका उड़रो। देखो चीस, 'a dream came in the night,—I saw (thy) head flying'. The following are illustrations of the more common tenses: महे थ ने मेल्या छो, 'I had sent thee'; ऊ छोड़े चढ़या हैसो, 'he must have mounted (his) horse'; कय उय ने मार्या हासो, 'some one must have struck him'.

405. The irregular verbs mentioned at § 311, are irregular also in the Rájpútáná dialects. In W. Rájpútáná, करखो, 'to do', makes its perf., कोधो, कोदो, or कर्र्या; सेबो, 'to take', perf., सोधो and सोदो; देवो, 'to give', perf., दोधो and दोदो. So also, खाबो, 'to eat', makes the perf. खाधो.\* मरखो, 'to die', makes its perf., मर्या or मूच्यो. But in the 'Plays' and in E. Rájpútáná, करखो, सेवो and देखो, make the perfect in न or ना, fem. नो, as will appear from the following passages: भायां कोनो गाफसी, 'my brothers have been careless (*lit.*, done carelessness)'; सोनो फकोरी, (I) have taken up the life of a faqír'; दुष सुघ दोनु राम जो, 'Rám Jí hath given sorrow and joy'. जाबो, 'to go', makes the perf. गीयो.

a. Besides the verbs that are usually irregular in all the Hindí dialects, all verbs of which the root terminates in इ, often lose that letter before the various verbal terminations and thus appear as irregular. Thus the perf. of the verbs कह्यो, 'to say', रहयो, 'to remain', खहयो, 'to flow', becomes कयो, रयो, व्यो, as in the following: कयो इमारी मान, 'regard what I have said'; कारिक मास रया भ्रल्या, 'in the month of Kátik we remained without salt'; नीर वयो **पारा नैवा में**, 'water has flowed in your eyes'. Sometimes the **य** of the termination is doubled in compensation for the loss of **इ**; thus, जे। मेरा कया माने. 'if thou regard my word'. Sometimes, again. ज is inserted in the hiatus caused by the elision of **ए**, giving such forms as कवी, =कहा; रवती, =रहसा; etc., etc.

<sup>\*</sup> These perf. forms in **ui** and **दो** are well illustrated by such archaic Hindí perfects as **द**द्धिय, 'given', सद्धिय, 'taken', cited by Mr. Beames from *Chand*, who has also **दिद्धी** and **दोधी**, = **दिया** and **किद्धी**, = **किया**. (Journ. As. Soc. Beng., Part I. No. II, 1873).

Thus, we have, e.g., कुसी रखेा, 'remain in happiness'; कावी खाल, 'say the word'; छे। नहीं रवले। इस नगरी के माई; 'that (man) dwells not in this village'; वा खी मरद कवला था, 'that man also was saying'. Sometimes in the imperative, g being dropped, the concurrent vowels are united, so that we have की for कहो, and रे। for रहो. Similarly, की stands for कहि, and खे for खह or खोह, as, e.g., नदी खे जावे, 'the river flows away'.

a. Verbs with w final in the root drop this w before the causal terminations, as in the primitive conjugation; thus we have the following examples: खवा दिये। पासी, 'the water caused (all) to flow away'; म्हूं राजा कवावते। हूं, 'I am called a king'.

407. The colloquial Márwárí west of the Aravallí hills is distinguished by a regular passive derivative verb, the root of which is formed by adding the syllable to the root of the primitive. Roots containing a long vowel shorten that vowel before this affix. Verbs which take **t** before the causal, insert it also before the passive affix. Thus, to illustrate, from archi, 'to do', is derived the passive, करोजको, = H. H. किया जाना, 'to be done'; from खावला. 'to eat', the passive सावीजना, 'to be eaten'; from लेखा, 'to take', and देवा, 'to give', the passives, लिरी जया, 'to be taken', and दिरी जया, 'to be given'. Even neuter verbs may take this passive form. Thus, we have from wrate, 'to come', the passive walkat. In the case of such verbs, however, the passive is only used impersonally in the 3rd masc. sing. These passive verbs are conjugated throughout like regular primitive verbs. Thus. मई सं आवीजे नहीं, =H. H. सुक से आया नहीं जाता, 'it is not come by me', i.e., 'I cannot come'; म्हूं मरीज्यो, 'I was beaten'; चैं सं नहीं खवीजैसा, 'it will not be eaten by you'; i.e, 'you will not be able to eat it'. These forms are rarely heard east of the Aravallí hills.

408. In the dialects of W. Rájpútáná the various forms of Intensive compound verbs, explained §§347-350, are but rarely used. Instead of these forms, परा or बरो is prefixed to the verb. Thus, for सार डालना, the Márwárís say, परा सारवा: for चला जाना, 'to go away', परे। जावको; for उठ जाना, 'to rise up', परे। उठको. But when the action is regarded as terminating with, upon, near, or for the agent, वरो is used instead of परे।. Thus, वरो लेको, 'to take for one's self, = H. H. से सेना, etc. These compounds with वरो therefore approximate in use to the middle voice in Greek. परे। and वरो are inflected to परा and वरा, obl. masc., and परी and वरी, fem., to agree with the subject of neuter verbs, or with the object of transitives. Examples are, पूं वरो जा, or (fem.) पूं वरो जा, = H. H. सू चला जा or चली जा. But with a transitive verb, in any tense these must agree with the object. Thus, **च पांघी वरी लेकै**, 'let him take the book'; (*i.e.*, for himself)'; पूं पोघी वरी लेकं हूं, 'I take the book (for myself)'; **च पांघी** परी देही, 'he will give the book away', etc.

a. In Márwár, when the imperf. part. of any verb is combined with **tern**, as in Continuative compounds in standard Hindí, the combination has, not a continuative, but a *negative* sense. Thus, in the Rájpútáná colloquial, **JIRT tear**, is not 'to continue singing', but 'to be kept from singing', 'not to sing'. So, again, **maing ug दो के मनय माहे आ**सा **te**, is 'shut the door that the people may not come in',—not 'may continue to come in'.

409. Before leaving these Rájpútáná forms, we may briefly indicate a few peculiar forms of the Rájpút bard *Chand*, as noted by Mr. Beames. (1) The imperf. part. occasionally ends in न्स; as, e.g., हुवन्स, रइन्स,=H. H. होसा, रइसा. (2) The perfect termination, इयेंग (इयेंग), is transformed into इव or एव, as, e.g., समेव, 'wandered', for H. H. समाया; ख़ोझूव, 'spoke',=H. H. खोला, etc., etc. (3) The final आ of हुआ is sometimes shortened, thus, हुआ; हुरे is used as a conjunctive participle. (4) For दोनी, 'given', and कोनी, 'done', विद्वी and किन्नी occur. (5) The conj. part. is sometimes made to terminate in इये, as, e.g., in किये for H. H. करको.

410. The vorb in the Himalayan dialects of Garhwál and Kumáon presents in some respects a suggestive resemblance to the Márwárí conjugation. Thus, the auxiliary substantive verb has  $\mathbf{z}$  for its radical consonant;  $\mathbf{en}$ , (fem.  $\mathbf{en}$ ,) instead of  $\mathbf{nn}$ , is in many places the termination of the future;  $\mathbf{a}$  in the infinitive, as elsewhere, is changed to  $\mathbf{z}$ .  $\mathbf{z}$  final in a root is very commonly rejected and the concurrent vowels combined; but the consequent sandhi is to  $\mathbf{sn}$  and not  $\mathbf{v}$ , as in G.  $\mathbf{tern}$  for H. H.  $\mathbf{tern}$ ; so that  $\mathbf{v}$ , instead of  $\mathbf{v}$ , appears to be preferred as a vowel of union before the infinitive termination. But with these resemblances, there also are some variations from the Márwárí type. Most noticeable is the imperf. part. which, as in Panjábí, often ends in  $\mathbf{cr}$  or  $\mathbf{er}$ , plur.  $\mathbf{cr}$  or  $\mathbf{er}$ , instead of  $\mathbf{nn}$ ,  $\mathbf{nn}$ . The  $\mathbf{nn}$  forms, however, are also uesd, also sometimes retaining the ancient  $\mathbf{r}$  before  $\mathbf{n}$ , as in  $\mathbf{st}$ .  $\mathbf{st}$  in ing'; for H. H. डारसता. In the tenses of the imperf. part. of some verbs with a vowel final in the root, Kumáoní rejects the participial termination before the auxiliary. and shortens the final radical vowel, giving, e.g., दि इ, for H. H. देसा है, 'he gives'. The fut. term., लो, in Garhwálí is often added, not to the cont. fut. terminations, but to the root. I have sometimes heard the negative particle interposed between the cont. fut. and this suffix लो, thus; रूनो कूई सोह न लो, =H. H. रेसो खाल नहीं होगी, 'such a thing will not be'. Of the two Garhwálí forms often given in the 'Tables' the first belongs to Tírí, the second is used further east. The causal affix साथ is softened to सी; giving, e.g., from the intransitive verb, खायो, 'to float', the causal खीोनो.

## Conjugation in the dialect of the Rámáyan, and other Eastern dialects.

411. In the old Púrbí of the Rámáyan, as in all archaic Hindí poetry, the tense-system is not so fully developed, nor are the distinctive characteristics of the various tenses always so distinctly marked as in modern High Hindí. But on the other hand, we find a great variety of terminations, and some tenses which are unknown to the modern form of speech. We begin with the tenses corresponding, at least in a general way, to those of the standard dialect.

412. The Infinitive or Gerund presents two forms analogous to the two in Braj, vis., one in न, and another in ज. Examples are, जब सेडि कहा देन वैदेही, 'when (he) told him to give up Vaidehi'; जिन् सिय राम फिरज मल नाहों, 'it is not well to return without Rám and Sitá'. The inflected forms also occur; as, e.g., जास न होने, 'it is not so to be'.=H.H. नही होने का; में सव दसन सोरिवे लायक. 'I am able to break thy teeth'.

413. The Imperfect participle is formed by adding त only to the root; as from खिलोकन, 'to behold', खिलोकत, 'beholding'. This is often, though not invariably, inflected to ति for the fem.; as in लगावति from समावत=H. H. समातो. There is no other inflection. In the following we have the longer Braj participle in ता; धेनु मन भावता पय खवाई, 'the cow drops milk gratifying to the heart'.

414. The Perfect participle regularly consists of the root alone; to which  $\mathbf{x}$  is added in the fem. only. Thus from  $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{j}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{z}$ , come the perf. participles,  $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{j}\mathbf{z}$ , fem.,  $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{x}$ .  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{j}\mathbf{a}$ . But the longer H. H. forms in  $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{n}$  and  $\mathbf{x}$  are frequently used where the metre may require it. In the case of verbs with roots in  $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{n}$ , the  $\mathbf{z}$  which in the standard dialect has only been retained in the tenses of the future, maintains its place before a or a in the perf. part. also; thus we have man, 'sung', for H. H. man; will or with, 'come', for H. H. with. But the common forms in an also occur.

415. The Conjunctive participle is regularly formed by adding  $\mathbf{x}$  to the root; thus, तेगई देखि सोतल मद्द कातो, 'seeing thee, (my) breast has become cool'. As in the case of all short final vowels, this  $\mathbf{x}$  may be lengthened *metri gratid*. This is especially common at the end of a line; as, **बैठेट समा अपि सबारे पार्ड**, 'receiving such news, the assembly sat down'. Much less frequently we find the Braj form in **क**, after **x** as a union-vowel; as, **स्**नोसआयसु **पार्ड**, 'receiving the great sage's command'. The root alone is occasionally used; and the final inherent *a* may be lengthened *metri gratid*, as in the following, where **चोन्हा is** not the perfect, but the conjunctive participle; **सुप्रल जन्म माना मसु चोन्हा**, 'recognizing the lord, he regarded his birth as having borne good fruit'.

416. For the Noun of agency, the affix वार, (plur. वारे, fem. वारि,) is added to the root, as in the following; ते रहि ताल चतुर रखवारे, 'these are the watchful guardians of this lake'.

417. The Rámáyan exhibits forms of the Contingent Future identical with the longer Braj forms; viz., Sing. (1) चौर or चौर; (2, 3) दि; Plur. (1, 3) दि; (2) हु. For the longer forms with ह, र, रे, and रं, रें, are sometimes used. Examples are;—पायक चरें, 'I could burn in the fire'; कोइ मगु वाहों, 'by what road shall we go?'; को कहे, 'who can tell ?'. य is sometimes inserted after द final in a root; as, चालोर जियो, 'as long as I live'.

a. But instead of these final diphthongs, their elementary vowels often appear; as, e.g., जो में करउं रखाई, 'when I prepare food'; कीचइ मिलइ, 'it mingles with the mud'. The final vowel of these forms, again, metri gratud, is often lengthened; as, जा जापने सावगुन सब कड़जं, 'if I should tell all my faults'; आज्ञ सो जो भोजन करई, 'whoever may eat that food'.

b. Before उ. in the Ist sing., र ह is sometimes inserted ; thus, तुम्होंदे सुनारउं साद, 'that same I will make known to you'.

c. Or, again, the final diphthongs, र, रे, are reduced to their cognate vowel, र, as in चाहि for चाहे, and especially in the substantive verb; thus, जो चायसु होर, 'if the order be'.

d. This final **द**, again, is often dropped, leaving the 2nd and 3rd sing. in form like the root; as, आधम से नारि जा सेव न लेही, 'base (is) 28 that woman, who will not serve her'; से किंमि सेख, 'how could he sleep?'. And this final a, again, may be lengthened, metri gratia, giving a form identical with the H. H. perf. part.; as, मास दिवस मई कहा न माना, 'if in a month's time thou obey not what is told (thee'); जाकर नाम मरत मुख सावा, 'whose name, (if it) come into the mouth of one dying'.

e. For **e** of the 2nd and 3rd sing., **u** or **eu** is sometimes written; as, सपनेड्ड सुनिय न वेद पुराना, 'not even in a dream might one hear *Ved* (or) *Purán*'. उ is sometimes substituted for **e** in the 2nd and 3rd sing.; as, जो सास होड, 'if it be so'.

f. Finally, for दि, we often find the older form, चि; as, चेा ते चहरि, 'if thou wish'; तोहि न भजरि मन मंद, 'wilt thou not worship him, O dull heart?'. Sometimes सु is substituted for चि.

418. Besides the above forms, I have found in archaic eastern Hindí, a conjugation of this tense with  $\underline{a}$  as the characteristic letter, to which the regular terminations are then added; thus, Sing. (1)  $\underline{a}$ , (2, 3)  $\underline{a}$ ; Plur. (1, 3)  $\underline{a}$ , (2)  $\underline{a}$ r or  $\underline{a}$ r. With these v or b forms, as well as those (to be hereafter noticed) of the abs. fut., may be compared the Bangálí fut. terminations, *ibo*, *ibó* or *ibe*, *iben*.

419. It may be observed, finally, that although, very often, the forms above noted indicate, in the Rámáyan, a degree of dubiety, and for the certain futurition of the event, the forms of the absolute future, as given in § 420, are preferred, yet now and then these forms are unquestionably used where there is no contingency intimated. Thus, सब दुख मिटाइ राम पद देखी, 'all sorrow will cease on beholding the feet of Rám'; भरतोइ समर सिखायन देखे. 'I will give Bharat instruction in war'; मसु मंजाई दारब जियति, 'the lord will remove the terrible calamity'; विकल होगि ते कपि के मारे, 'thou shalt be distressed because of a monkey'. But illustration of this belongs rather to Syntax.

420. The Absolute Future exhibits three varieties of conjugation, of which  $\pi$ ,  $\pi$ , and  $\pi$  are, severally, as the characteristic letters.

(1) The **ग** forms are not often used. The suffixes, **ग**, etc., are added commonly to the longer forms of the cont. fut.; as, *e.g.*, जनम करोईगे सोहि, 'he will make thee free from fear'; या को कल पावसुगे जागे, 'of this thou shalt receive the fruit hereafter'. But as these forms will be quite familiar to the student of the *Rámáyan*, further illustration is not required.

(2) The 2nd form of the conjugation of the absolute future

exhibits the following terminations; Sing. (1) दो; (2, 3) दांद; Plur. (1, 3) दांदे; (2) दयु. As in Braj, द is sometimes used as a unionvowel before these terminations; whence after जा final in a root, we have, by sandhi, रे. Illustrations of these future forms are; -- काज में करिदेो तोरा, 'I will do thy work'; ले जेदो तुम कई, 'I will carry you off'; जावरवन मानिदाई, 'they will believe the wonders'; मोदि राज... देदपु जवादी, 'when you shall give me the kingdom'; इंग्विइपु सुनि दमारी जड़ताई, 'you will laugh, hearing my foolishness'.

Of this general type of conjugation there are several variations :---

a. चि appears for चि; as, पहितैहाँच खंत अभागो, 'O luckless (woman) ! thou wilt repent it in the end'. Analogous is इसु for इहि, as in the peculiar form, दिइसु,=H. H. देगा; thus, तिन्हे दिखाद दिइसु तैं सोता, 'to him thou shalt show Sitá'.

b. The first **w** is sometimes rejected; thus, उमय न दोखिआहि, 'if one shall regard neither', *lit.*, 'not regard both'.

c. इ having thus been rejected, य is sometimes inserted : as, कौतुक मात देखियडु मारा, 'in the morning you shall see my exploits'.

(3) The 3rd variety of the absolute future is formed by simply adding a to the root in all persons and numbers. This, it may be observed, is an extremely common form in the modern eastern colloquial dialects. Examples of its use in the Rámáyan are;— चोचे दिवस में निलल साई, 'the fourth day I will come and meet (you)'; सुनि सुख लड्ख राम वैदेही । अनुचित कड्ख न पंडिल केही, 'hearing this, Rám and Vaidehí will obtain joy, nor will any wise (man) call it wrong'.

Variations from the general type occur as follows :----

a. After आ final in a root, उ or **w** is sometimes, but not necessarily, inserted; thus. जाख जई पाउख तहों, 'where I shall obtain that same, there shall I go'; तो तुम दुख पाउख. 'then you will find sorrow'; फुलाइख गालु. 'thou wilt puff out the cheek'. So also, more rarely, after a consonant; as. पुरदख में अभिलाघ तुम्हारा. 'I will fulfil thy desire'.

b. For a, fa occasionally occurs; as, में मारवि काठि कृपाना, 'drawing the sword I will kill thee'.

421. The Imperative exhibits two forms of conjugation; the one, identical with that of the contingent future; the other, with that of the absolute future in  $\mathbf{a}$ . In both the  $\mathbf{a}$  and the  $\mathbf{a}$  forms we find many of the same variations as have already been noticed in the contingent and absolute futures.

(1) Examples are, of the इ (स) forms ;--- पावर्ड में तिन्द करि गति छोरा, 'may I obtain their terrible fate'; जिय मानीस जीने जना, 'do not lose heart': कार्यस जीन चिंता, 'be thou not anxious'. Before सि, स (ĕ) may be substituted for a; as, चा रचेंसि उपास, 'contrive that plan'. एस also occurs ; as, परसेस मोहि एक पसवारा, 'try me for a fortnight'. Or, eliding w, in the 3rd sing., & may be the termination ; as, सासरज करे जान कार्ड, 'let no one wonder'. The most common termination in the 2nd sing. is उ; thus, देख् तें जाई, 'go thou and see'. The same termination is found in the 3rd sing.; as, राज कल्पचल द्वांड, 'may (mine) be a reign of a hundred kalpas'. As in the cont. fut., the final vowel may be reduced to a, so that the root alone appears in both the 2nd and 3rd sing.; thus, मेगीइ जान न कोई, 'let no know me'. In the 2nd plur., w is the common termination; as, प्रभु चरित सुनावडू माही, 'tell me the deeds of the lord'; सजड़ सेख, 'cease (your) anxiety'. But स ( ट) is very often substituted for a or inserted before y; as in us that any, 'clasp (his) lotus feet'; मांसदिवस मई सायेडू, 'come in a month's time'. And wis sometimes rejected; as in करन से बीग का सम्होई सोहाई, 'do quickly, what may seem good to you'. The 1st and 3rd plur. regularly end in it (ti); thus, तव चरन इम चनुरागही, 'let me love thy feet', where EF is used for the sing., F.

(2) The Imperative, may also, like the absolute future, terminate in a throughout, द or उ being optionally inserted before this termination. Thus, से जानव सरासंग प्रभाज, 'know (that) it (is) from the virtue of good association'; मनोरघ पुरदब मारो, 'fulfil my desire'. वि or वो may be used for ख; as, करवि पाय परि खिनय, 'make entreaty, falling at his feet'; सामवी जानको, 'bring Jánaki'. More rarely खा is used, in the 2nd plur. only; as, सपराध हिमखा, 'pardon (my) transgressions'.

422. The Respectful form of the imperative commonly ends in **य** or **दय; as, विनय करिय सागर सन जार्द्र**, 'go and make entreaty of the ocean!'; **दम कहुं परिपालय**, 'be pleased to take care of me'. From this form, the letter **u** is sometimes omitted; as, सुम नोकि उपाय करिया, 'devise a good plan'. Sometimes **ए** or **ऐ** is added as in Braj and High Hindí.

a. For the forms in य, the older forms in ज are occasionally used, not only as in High Hindí, after roots ending in ई or र, but even after consonants, as in Braj and Márwárí; thus, तोंच याभय करोजे, 'make him free from fear'; जियाये जोजे, '(if he) preserve thee alive, live'. To this termination in से, डु is also sometimes added ; as, रावन कर दीचेडु यह पासी, 'give this letter into the hand of *Rávan*'.

423. The Present Imperfect, in the dialect of the Rámóyan, occurs under two general forms; the one, like the inflected present previously noted (§ 386), is precisely identical in form with the contingent future; the other is formed by the imperfect participle, either alone, or, as in standard Hindí, in combination with the pres. tense of the substantive verb.

a. There appears to be no difference in signification between these two forms of the tense, except that the participial form is restricted in use to denote an action as occurring in the actual present; whereas the inflected form is extended, as will fully appear in the Syntax, to comprchend all *imperfect* or *incomplete* action, not only in the present, but also in the past and future.

424. The first or inflected form of the Imperfect, exhibits all the variations from the general type, which have been noted in the case of the contingent future. It will not be necessary to refer to these again in detail; the following examples will abundantly illustrate the various forms. करतं एक विस्वास, 'one faith I hold'; वंदी सब के पद क्रमल, 'I salute the lotus feet of all'; न जानहि सोहि सुरारी, 'dost thou not know me, the enemy of the gods ?'; फूले फले न खेल, 'the reed neither blossoms nor bears fruit'. The is especially common as the termination of both the 2nd and 3rd sing., and before this, T may be inserted ; thus, करों पान, सावसि दिन रासी, 'thou drinkest and sleepest day and night': कहोंस संसय, 'he declared (his) doubt'. In the following the 3rd sing. termination is & (metri gratia, \$); देइ दिनोइ दिन दुखरि होई, 'day by day (his) body becomes thin'. **u** commonly occurs as the 3rd sing. termination after a radical आ, and also in the following ; सन संकचय न, 'in (her) heart (she) shrinks not'. T may precede u in the same form. T also occurs in the 2nd and 3rd sing; as, जेा बर मांग देरं, 'the gift thou askest, I bestow'; जाम लागु मोहि, 'difficult it is to me'. Finally, the root alone is found in the 2nd and 3rd sing. ; thus, सेडि बिन माइ न भाग, 'without that, illusion flees not away'. The final a is lengthened in the following'; जीव नित्य कोइ लोग रोवा, 'the soul is immortal,-why weepest thou?'. Of the plural the following are examples :--1st pers., विनय इस करहों, 'we make our supplication'; 2nd pers., करह कवन कारन तप भारी, 'why are you doing (this) heavy penance?'; 3rd pers., जे पर देख लखींब, 'who gaze upon another's fault'. In the following, one of the first two verbs must be rendered as a present, the other, as contingent future; d देखाई देखाई तिन्द देखे, 'who see, shall see, who have seen'.

a. But to this the pres. of the substantive verb is occasionally added, as in standard Hindí. Examples are ;---धर्म्भ में जानत सहतं, 'I understand religion'; निसि दिन देव जपत इहु बेही, 'whom, O divine one, you worship night and day'; मोरि करत हाई निन्दा, 'they deride me'.

426. Besides the common form of this participle we also find the older form in क्ल used as a present tense; thus, सब संत सुबा विखरंत मही, 'all the holy walk happy on the earth'. The final vowel is sometimes lengthened; as, सापत ताढ़त पुरुष कहंता, 'cursing (and) upbraiding, men say'. It is also found in the writings of Kabir, as in the following from the Sákhí; ज्यो ज्यो नर निधरक फिरे त्यो त्यो काल हरेत, 'by so much as man goes about unconcerned, by so much Death laughs'.\*

427. The Rámáyan exhibits a Past Conditional tense derived from the imperfect participle. To form this tense, in the 1st sing., **ë**, and in the 2nd plur., g. is added to the imperfect participle. I have noted no special terminations for the other persons. Before the above tense-endings v (?) is commonly inserted; thus, पितीइ खाद खातेउं पुनि तोही, having eaten thy father, I could then eat thee'. For v, v is employed for the fem., as in the following, where, in the first stanza, w is omitted before s in the 2nd plur.; जैा तुम मिलतेड प्रधम मुनीया । सुनितिउं सिख तुम्हारि धरि सोसा, 'had you met me first, great sage, I bowing my head, would have heard your advice'. **v**, again, is sometimes hardened to **v**, and wi or wi substituted for i in the 1st sing.; thus, ai afrai ag HE मुद भाई । ता प्रन करि हात्यों न इंसाई, 'had I known that the earth had become destitute of warriors, then I had not (by) making (this) decree become a laughing-stock'. One more example will suffice; जैा तुम अवतेषु सुनि को नाई । पद रज सिर सिसु धरत गुसाई, 'had you come like a sage, the youths had placed, O lord, the dust of your feet upon their heads'.

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<sup>\*</sup> This old form of the pres. imperfect is still heard in the colloquial of interior Garhwal, where, for example, I have heard a villager say, यानी ऊपर सें नाहि वरवन्ता, lit., 'water rains not from above'. Vid. § 410.

428. For the Past Imperfect no separate form occurs, except in the following, where रह is used instead of घा, as noted at § 371; मन जुगदास रह नृपनिकासू, '(his) heart was keeping guard at the womens' apartments'.

429. The tense mentioned under §387, as an Inceptive Imperfect, is much more common in the *Rámáyan* than in Braj prose. Examples are ;—गाइस देन मध्य सई भये, 'they began to bury (it) there in a field'; पुद्धर भये, 'they began to inquire'.

430. The Indefinite Perfect is commonly employed in the Rámáyan to express action completed, whether in the past, present or future. The compound participial forms employed in the standard dialect to express the various temporal and modal modifications of such completed action, very rarely occur. The most of them, indeed, are quite unknown. As in the case of the imperfect, two forms of the perfect tense occur, the one consisting merely of the participle, the other, inflectional.

431. The participial form of the perfect differs from that of the standard dialect, precisely in the same manner as the imperfect participle; viz., by the shortening of the final long á to a. Thus, for कहा, 'said', we have कह, for रहा, 'remained', रह, etc. This is inflected to **x** for the fem., giving, e.g., such forms as सुनि, मानि, for H.H. सुनी, मारी. But the final **x** is often lengthened for the sake of the metre. Further examples are ;— गिरिवरगुडा पैठ से बार्ड, 'he went and entered a cave in a great mountain'; कह सुगीय सुनह, 'Sugrív said, Hear !'.

a, In the mass. plur. the inflection  $\mathbf{v}$  is very often assumed, so that the form of this tense thus frequently becomes identical with that found in the standard dialect.

b. Observe, that after roots in ज्या or चो, व is commonly inserted; as, में काह नयावा, 'what have I destroyed ?'; महि मारि गिरावा, 'he struck him to the earth'.

432. It may be well here to call especial notice to the exceeding ambiguity of many verbal forms in the *Rámáyan*. What with the extreme attrition of many once distinct forms, and the frequent prosodial modifications of final vowels, one and the same form has come to represent several different parts of the verb. Thus, e.g., and may be 2nd or 3rd sing., of the cont. or abs. fut., or of the imper. or pres.; or 1st, 2nd or 3rd sing. perf. anis, again, may be, 2nd or 8rd sing. of the cont. or abs. fut., or of the imper. or pres.; or 1st, 2nd or 3rd fem. perf., or the conj. participle; or, again, it may be used to represent the H. H. perf. part. masc. in the passive conjugation, as, e.g., any and a constant at all be told'. देखी, again, may be 1st, 2nd or 3rd fem. of the perf., or it may be the conj. part. देखि, with the final vowel lengthened metri gratid. This remark will be abundantly illustrated by referring to the citations made in the preceding and the following paragraphs.

433. In the case of active transitive verbs, the passive construction mentioned § 332 (1), is often employed; *i.e.*, the verb is made to agree, not with the subject, but with the object of the action in gender and number. As ने does not occur in this dialect, the subject, noun or pronoun, is simply put in the inflected form, where such form happens to exist. But as no nouns are inflected in the sing., it comes to pass that very often, (as where, *e.g.*, subject and object are both maso. sing.,) the construction is in outward form identical with the active construction of intransitive verbs. Examples are, of intransitive verbs;—भरोस चिय आवा, 'confidence came to (her) heart'; निसरो चोधर धार, 'a stream of blood issued'; भूषगृष्ट आये, 'they came into the king's house'. Of transitive verbs, examples are;—को प्रसु विधिन किरस सुम देखा, 'that lord whom you (sc. *Párcatí*) saw wandering in the forest'; भगति ते मांगो, 'thou hast asked piety'; जिन्ह मोहि मारा से में मारे, 'I have beaten those who have beaten me'.

434. Besides the more common passive construction of this tense in transitive verbs, the active construction also very often occurs, after the regular idiom of all the modern eastern dialects. Thus, वेख-पात ... तोनि सड़स संवत से खाई, 'for three thousand years she ate the leaves of vines',—where the reference is to Umá, afterward the wife of Shiv. Similar is the construction in the following ; कांद कड वियस धरड़, 'one said, take (them) alive'.

Rem. Here also, on further consideration, I would place the phrases quoted in § 226.c., vis., धन्य जे जाये, 'blessed they who bore them'; से देखे देाउ मासा, 'they beheld the two brothers': जे and से, therefore, in these passages are to be regarded as in the nominative, and not in the oblique plural as suggested, *loc. cit*.

435. Instead of the above forms of this tense, which are to be regarded as characteristic of the dialect, the longer forms (K. and B.) in चो and चौ, (या and चौ,) also occur. Thus, कांप चरनन्दि परयो, 'the monkey fell at (his) feet'; नारद मुनि गरुड़ पठाये, 'Nárad the sage sent Garur'. देना, 'to give', and सेना, 'to take', sometimes make the perf. देवा and सेवा, also दया and स्वा.

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436. The inflected perfect is formed by adding to the perfect part., in the Sing., (1) =; (2, 3,) =; and in the Piur., (1, 3,) = or =; (2,) **y**. For the feminine, these terminations are added to the fem. form of the participle. Before all these endings, v is often inserted or takes the place of a final short a. Observe, that the inflected perfect is used in the active construction only. दरस निःपाप भइउं, 'through the sight of thee, I (fem.) have become free from sin'; तुम जानइ कोई कारन आयेरं, 'you know for what reason I have come'; खाब लोग रहिडं कुमारी, 'until now I have remained a virgin': भवानी सती सरीर राष्ट्र, 'Bharání remained in the body of Sati'; खागपति बिरंचि पहं गएक, 'the lord of birds went to Biranchi'; निज नाम सुनायड, 'he declared his own name'; तासु पर डारेन्हि गिरितबज्रह, 'they cast upon him trees (and) mountains'; मारेड्र मोडि व्याध की नाई, 'you have slain me, like a hunter'; भल म्रोलिहु, 'you (O Umá) have forgotten good'.

a. In the 2nd and 3rd sing. the termination सि is often substituted for उ; thus, रिषु सम मोडि मारेसि, 'he has beaten me like an enemy'. And this sometimes becomes दि, as in the fut.; thus, सास मोडि साद जगायोह काहा, 'now for what hast thou come and waked me ?'. In the following, हु is probably the emphatic particle; कोई न सकोह जस भयह वियाद, 'he could not tell the sorrow as it really was'.

b. Observe, that these terminations are in like manner added to the irregular participles noted at § 439. Thus, इरि लोन्हेंसि सर्वस अव नारी, 'he has robbed me of property and wife'; कोन्हेहु सब काजा, 'you have accomplished all (your) work'.

437. As remarked above, the indefinite perfect in its various forms, commonly takes the place of all the tenses of the perfect in standard Hindí. Very rarely, however, we find a cont. perf., and a past perf. formed by the combination of the perf. part. with the verb रहन as an auxiliary. Thus, हो भाई गये रहे देखन फुलवारी, 'the two brothers had gone to see the garden'; and, again, एक सखी सिय संग विद्याई गड रहो, 'one maiden companion, sporting with Sitá, had gone'. (Bát K.)

438. The irregular forms of the perfect of certain verbs, already noticed in Braj and standard Hindí, occur also, with dialectic variations, in the Rámáyan. Thus from द्वान, 'to be', we have the perf. Sing., भा, भयड or भयडं; Plur., भे, भे, etc. : from ठानन, 'to determine', perf. उयड. जान, 'to go', sometimes makes its perf. गयड, (H. H. 29 गया), plur. गये, etc.; and also, more rarely, गा, plur. गै. Besides these, note also, इये or हिर, 'killed', perf. plur. from इनन and सयक, perf., (for H. H. सगा), from सगन. Examples are ;— सब जो दुख भा, 'the sorrow which then was'; बहु रोग वियोगनि सेगा इये, 'people were slain by diseases and bereavements'. (Also see §448, 4.) The Rámáyan, besides the common pres. and fut. forms from जाना, also presents a pres. formed on the base गय or गयन, from the ultimate root, गा, of the perf. गया. Thus, देख गरायन गयाई विधार, 'seeing the bow they went away'.

439. The verbs करना, देना, लेना, present, in the Rámáyan, not only such forms of the perf. as किय, लिय, दियो, लियो, etc., but also, as in Braj, कोन्द, 'did', 'done'; दोन्द, 'given', 'gave'; लोन्द, 'taken', 'took'; as, e.g., जिस्ता कोइ न कोन्द वैाराद्दा, 'whom has not greed made mad?'.

a. As elsewhere remarked, the final w of these forms is dropped by many old writers, whence कोन, सोनो, दोन, etc. Thus, in the Sabhá Bilás, विपल करोलो कोन, '(he) has made affliction a touch-stone'.

b. Similarly, in the Rámáyan, and other archaic poetry, the perf. of pure verbs in भा also often terminates in न; as, सुनि दसकंध रिसान, 'hearing (this) the Ten-shouldered was enraged'; स्वत्तव इरयाने, 'all rejoiced'. Or the termination may be ना; thus, खगली सकल किराने, '(he) went around the whole world'.

440. In one instance, again, in the Rámáyan the perfect is made to terminate in स, as in the modern colloquial of Tirhut; thus, कॉांग गान पर धायस, 'angrily he rushed toward heaven'; where धायस is for H. H. धाया, from धाना, 'to run', 'to rush'.

441. In one passage, again, the perfect is made to terminate in द (for the ल just mentioned ?), as in the following ;— गरवेर बहुरि दससीस, 'again roared the Ten-headed'.

442. Sometimes, for the modern forms of the perfect, Sanskrit or Prákrit forms are employed. Thus, for H. H. किया, 'done', and गया, 'gone', we often find the corresponding Sk. forms कृत and गत, as in the following ;--कोइ के मांत दन्द कृत न मसोनो, 'whose understanding have these not defiled ? (*lit.*, 'made unclean'); दांद प्रकार गत खाखर बाखर बाख, 'in this way passed that day'.

443. Besides the various participles, referred to in § 66, various other Sanskrit conjugational forms occur in the *Rámáyan*. It will be sufficient, for the most part, merely to notice them, without giving lengthy examples in each case. Most common (1) is the *Pres. Parasmai*.

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of the lst conj.; thus, lst sing. नमामि or प्रनमामि, 'I salute', पश्यामि, 'I behold', जयामि (for जस्यामि,) 'I repeat' : 3rd plur. पश्यन्ति, 'they behold'; वदन्ति, 'they speak', नदन्ति, 'they roar', निरद्यन्ति, 'they behold'; Thus, पश्यन्ति यं योजी जतन करि, 'whom ascetics having toiled, behold'; प्रनमामि निरंतर खोरमनं, 'I salute without ceasing the glorious Rám'. The 2nd sing. चाचि, of the Sk. subst. verb, occurs in the following; योखि सोबि' तव चरन नमामी, 'thou art that which thou art, thy feet we adore !'.

(2) The following forms of the Pres. Atmane also occur: 1st plur., नमामदे, 'we salute'; स्मरामदे, 'we remember'; अज्ञामदे, 'we worship'. Examples are ;— भवनाच से स्मरामदे, 'that lord of existence we remember'; रमेस नित्य भजामदे, 'Ramá's lord we ever worship'.

(3) The following Sk. Imperatives, 3rd sing. Parasmai are also found, vis.; तनोतु, 'let him extend'; बसतु, 'let him dwell'; चातु, 'let him save'. More frequent is the 3rd sing. imper. of the subst. verb, usually in the formula of permission, स्वमस्तु, 'let it be so'; as, स्वमस्तु करवानिधि बोसे, 'Let it be so, said the Treasury of Compassion'.

(4) The 2nd sing. Imper. Parasmai of two or three words is not infrequent; as, unit, 'do thou protect'; जारि, 'do thou save'; thus, अवभयमेखन पाहि पाहि, 'Protect, protect (me)! O thou deliverer from the dread of existence'.

444. The following Prakritic verbal forms also occur, viz. :--निर्मयो, for Sk. निर्मिस:, 'composed'; as, रामायन चिन निर्मियो, 'who composed the Rámáyan'; कपे, for H. कहे, Sk. कप्रांस, 3rd sing. pres., 'he tells'; रिष्ट्रे, for Sk. रिष्ट्रांस, 3rd sing. pres. from root स्था, 'he stands'; वंदि, 'I salute', for Sk. वंदे, 1st sing. Atmane; as in aद्दार वंदि सल्पान, 'again, I salute the wicked'; नैामि, for Sk. नमामि, 1st sing. pres., I adore; as in नैामि निरंतर घो रघुखोरं, 'I adore without ceasing the glorious Raghubír'; and also नमामयं (?). Finally, in a single instance, we have a Prák. reduplicated perfect, चिखर्घ, for Sk. वतृघे, from वृध्, 'to increase'; as in the following, सेवस विषय खिखर्घ चिंसि, 'as sensual enjoyment grows (even) on one serving (the gods)'.

445. The Passive is commonly formed by conjugating the verb anen, 'to go', together with the perf. part., or, more commonly, with the root of the verb combined with the suffix  $\mathbf{x}$ . Thus, anew anic wine anis  $\mathbf{z}$  and  $\mathbf{x}$ , '(the deeds of Rám) cannot be sung in ten million kalpas'. anis and an anis, 'that is not told', *i e.*, 'cannot be told'.

<sup>\*</sup> For the elision of w initial, see §§ 44, 51.

a. But besides the above, a Prakritic present passive often occurs, which is formed by adding to the root, after **स** as a union-vowel, the termination यस, unchanged for gender or number; thus, खेयग्रसाय पूजियस सेन, 'even these are worshipped in virtue of their disguise'; सायापांतसेवक सन माया कार्रयस, 'with the servant of the lord of deception, deception is employed'.

446. Causal verbs are formed in the Rámáyan, by adding चाव or चा to the root of the primitive, for the 1st, and वा for the 2nd causal. Many verbs, however, as in standard Hindí, instead of adding these letters to the root, form the 1st causal by lengthening or gunating the medial vowel of the root. Both the 1st and 2nd causal occur in the following : न्यसनु वेदविदिस चन्द्रवावा परम विचित्र विमान बनावा, 'he caused the body of the king to be washed according to the Ved, (and) made a most beautiful chariot'. देना and सेना, make their causals, दिवाना and सिवाना.

a. Observe, that many verbs, which in standard Hindí form the causal by the addition of a syllable, in the Rámáyan follow the other method. Thus, e.g., for H. H. खलाना, 'to burn', and खुलाना, 'to call', the Rámáyan often uses जारन (for जालना) and खेलना; as, e.g., खे महिसुर पुर खारे, 'who have burnt villages of Brahmans'; सुचि सेवक खेले, 'he called his upright servants'.

b. Occasionally the root of the causal is made to terminate in साख, instead of स्नाव, as in the following, where पुरवह, 'fill', is for पुरावहु; पुरवहु...मनोरघ मोरि, 'fulfil my desire'.

c. Occasionally, again, the characteristic बाद or बाद of the causal, is contracted to बी. Thus, in the following, रिसेडिं is for रिसावडिं; रदपुट करकत नयन रिसेडिं, 'his lips quiver, (and) angry are his eyes'.

d. When a syllable is added to a close root, to form the causal, the usual shortening of a medial long vowel in the primitive, is not unfrequently neglected. Thus, for H. H. खुलाना, 'to call', and दिखाना, 'to show', we have sometimes, बालावन, देयावन; as, e.g., र्रे विप्र बोलाई, 'thou, calling a Brahman'.

447. The various Compound verbs explained  $\S\S$  347—365, also occur in the Rámáyan and similar poetry. But it is important to notice that the parts of the compound are separated at pleasure, often by many intervening words, or, again, are often inverted in order, as the exigencies of the metre may demand. All these various compounds, moreover, present forms more or less divergent from those of standard Hindí, Thus,

(1) In all such compounds as are formed in High Hindí with the root,  $\mathbf{x}$  (metri gratiá,  $\mathbf{\hat{x}}$ ,) is added to the root in the Rámáyan. Examples will be found on almost every page. Thus, **ast** चेंद्रिका चंद्र तीच जार्ड, 'how can the moonlight forsake the moon?'; जात पणिक चनु सेत खुलाई, 'calls, as it were, the passing traveller'. So also, से मुधारि हरिजन जिला सेही, 'as the servants of Hari rectify (all) these'; where सेही cannot be separately translated, but must be connected with मुधारि as a compound,=H. H. मुधार सेते है. In the following, again, the parts are inverted and the final  $\mathbf{x}$  of the primary verb lengthened, metri gratiá; सरिता मुभगता सक की कही, 'the loveliness of the river, who can tell?'; where सक की कही, is for की कहि सक, H. H. कीन कह सक.

Rem. The student will do well to take especial notice of this separation and inversion of the parts of compounds and the frequent lengthening of this final  $\mathbf{T}$ ; as these are among the marked peculiarities of the poetic style, which, until recognized and understood, greatly embarrass the reader who is familiar only with prose Hindí.

(2) **द** alone is often appended to the root in participial combinations, where in High Hindí we would have जा or **ए**. Thus, देखि राम रिपुदल चाले जाता, *lit.*, 'seeing Rám and Ripudal are coming along'; where standard Hindí would have चले जाते हैं; the first **ए** has become **द**, and the last is changed to जा, to rhyme with the following stanza.

448. Desiderative, Inceptive, Permissive and Acquisitive Compounds present in the *Rámáyan* a variety of forms.

(1) The Desiderative is sometimes formed with the perfect participle; as, cause i align align align to marry'.

(2) All these are often formed, as in H. H. with the infinitive in
त. Thus, मरन आव चइसी, 'dost (thou) now wish to die?'; माहि जान दे, 'let me go'; स्ग्रीवाई तब खोजन लागा, 'he then began to seek for Sugriv'.

(3) But especially common in combination with the secondary verb, is an inflected verbal form in **ए** or **ऐ**. Thus, चाइडु सुनै राम गुन गुढा, 'you desire to hear the mysterious attributes of *Rám*'; कोंद कारन करे न दोन्हा, 'for what reason didst thou not allow (me) to do (it)'; रखवारे जब बरजे लागे, 'when the keepers began to forbid them'. For the final **ए**, **बर** is sometimes written; thus, लाग कहर, 'he began to tell'.

(4) This *₹* is sometimes further reduced to *₹* (metri gratia, *₹*); thus,

के। नहाद चइ द्वांड सर भाई, 'if thou wish to bathe in this lake, brother'; जासु चरिस लखि काहु न पावा, 'whose exploits no one was permitted to behold'. And  $\mathbf{v}$  also becomes  $\mathbf{u}$ ; as राम चंद्र गुन वरनय लागा, 'he began to rehearse the virtues of *Rám Chandra*'. All these forms may suffer separation or inversion like those above mentioned; as, लागेट वृष्टि करे बहु वाना, 'many arrows began to rain; चापन नाम कहन तव सयस, 'he then began to repeat his own name. (*Rámáyan*, Bál. K.)\*

449. The Avadhí, it will observed, in the verb as in the pronouns. closely follows the old Púrbí. The dialect of Ríwá does not differ widely from that of Ayadh. In both we may notice in some words, the extreme abrasion of the leading verb before the auxiliaries, already noted in Kumáoní. This is well illustrated by such forms as Av. भ रहे, ज रहे, (fem. भै रही, जै रही,) for H. H. हुर घे, गर घे, R. भ है, भ ला,=H. H. हुआ है, हुआ था. In the dialect of Riwá, a final in a root is often changed to an before the terminations. Thus, and द्यावा, द्याल, = H. H. देगा, दोगो, देला. In both the dialects of Avadh and Riwá, the verbs देना, लेना and करना, add the terminations of the perfect, to the irregular forms, दीन्छ, लोन्छ and क्रीन्ड. In the dialect of Avadh, द्व is often inserted instead of a before the terminations of the perfect. Thus, for H. H. गया, 'gone', Av. has गवा; for खनाया, 'made', खनावा, etc. etc. In both Avadh and Ríwá, we find a Past Conditional tense closely analogous to that mentioned at § 427, as occurring in the Rámáyan. The conjugation, however, in both these dialects is more complete. In Avadh, this tense, in the verb gran, is conjugated as follows :--Sing. (1) द्वात्यरं, (f.) द्वातिरं, (2) द्वातेस, (f.) द्वातिस, (3) हात, (f.) होति. Plur. (1) होयित or होइत, (2) होत्यो, (f.) होतिउ, (3) होते, (f.) द्वाली. In Riws it is but slightly different. Thus, (1) हात्येवं, (2) हात्येस, (3) हात. Plur. (1) होते, (2) होत्र्येम, (3) होत. As previously remarked, neither in these nor the following dialects does the special H. Hindí construction with a occur.

450. In the dialects of Bhojpúr and Tirhut we have a still wider divergence from the High Hindí type of conjugation; and a close approximation, in the characteristic च of the perfect, and, in Tirhut, in the substantive verb of, to the Bangálí system. In Tirhut we have, again, a distinct Past Conditional tense, which is conjugated, e.g., in the verb चाना, as follows :--Sing. (1) चमा, (2) बाहा or (3) फ चाईट्सो, (f.) चाईट्सो. Plur. (1) हमे, (2) झावने or (3) बा चाई-ट्रस, (f.) चाईट्सो.

a. The dialect of Tirhut is peculiar in forming its present imperfect, not by means of the auxiliary substantive verb, \$\$,\$\$,\$\$,etc., but by adding to the root, for the sing., the termination \$\$\$ (f. \$\$\$); and, for the plur., \$\$\$ (f. \$\$\$\$);

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<sup>\*</sup> I judge that this is merely a corruption of error,—the u marking the place of the elided  $\pi$ . Compare the remarks in § 162, c.

in all the persons. Thus, e.g., में द्वाता डूं, is इमा ड्राईकी; वे देखते हैं, आं देखीके, etc. The pres. perf. is formed, however, analytically, by means of the usual auxiliary. Thus, में ने किया है, is इमा कैले डूं; उस ने दिया है, ऊ देल के; तुम डुए हो, बायन मैले कूं, etc., etc.

b. Besides the regular Bhojpúri conjugational forms mentioned in the tables, Mr. Beames mentions such peculiar forms as काइसारि, 'I am saying'; साईसारी, 'I am going'; सान्सारी, 'I am tying'. The letter **ছ** is sometimes added to the imperative, as in साइ *jáha*, 'go !'. For the conj. part. Bhojpúrí commonly uses the obl. perf. part. with a postposition; thus, सालिसे पर, 'on knowing', etc.

c. A passive is formed in Bhojpúrí by adding जा to the root. Thus, from देखनी, 'to see', the passive form is दिखानी; of which the various tenses are formed after the usual manner of the dialect; thus, जम दिखादल जा, 'I am seen', उद्द दिखादल ग्रेस, 'he has been seen'; उद्द दिखाद, or दिखादल जाद, 'he will be seen'. The causal is formed by adding जात. The त is often softened to **द**, as, e.g., in दिखाउल=H. H. दिखादंगा; or the concurrent vowels may be combined, as in दिखीली,=H. H. दिखाया.

d. Mr. Beames also mentions the existence of a verbal noun in चे or चे, of the use of which he gives the examples, सुंखे न कौसन, 'they would not give a hearing; देखे करि देखन, 'it will probably be'. But this idiom is not confined to Bhojpúr, as I have often heard it in the central Doáb; thus, खेखे न करे, 'he will not drink'; चे मानिचे न करिहे, 'they will not mind'. The verbs करना, जाना and मरना are irregular in Tirhut and Bhojpúr as in H. Hindí Thus for H. H. में गया, 'I went', T. has ग्रैसे or गरसे and Bh. ग्रैसो ; for किया, 'I did', T. has कैसे, and Bh. कैसो ; etc. Similarly in Tirhut the past tense of पाना, 'to find', is पैसे, etc. In Tirhut as in Avadh, etc., verbal roots are often shortened in compound forms; as, e.g., in & H ग्रैसे—H. H. चह देग गया, etc. Other peculiarities of these dialects will be learned from the tables of conjugation.

451. Of the dialect in Central Bundelkhand, I have obtained but scanty specimens. From these, its affinities would seem to be rather with eastern than with western Hindí. The conjugational system is very meagre; the distinction of person and number is commonly neglected. Thus the future terminates throughout in **\frac{1}{2}**, often **\frac{1}{232}**; as, e.g., in **\frac{1}{232}** =H. H. **\frac{1}{2331}**, **\frac{1}{2131}**, **\frac{1}{2131}**. The imperfect participle terminates in **\frac{1}{3}** or **\frac{1}{33}**; a preceding a after **\frac{1}{331}** in causals is changed to **\frac{1}{32}**. All the tenses of the imperfect are formed by means of the auxiliary substantive verb. All the tenses of the perfect in all verbs, terminate in **\frac{1}{3}**, in both the singular and plural. The construction with the case of the agent appears to be unknown.

452. The principal forms illustrated in the preceding sections will be found in the following tables :--

# TABLE XVI: DIALECTIC

		H. Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	East Rájpútáná.	Wcst Rájpútáná
Ir	FIN.	होना.	होने.	हानीं, ठहेवी.	होखो, टहैको. व्हेकूं, टहेवो.	होख, ठहैवेा.
	æ	होर्ज.	होर्ज.	होतं.	ठहेत्रं.	व्हेत्रं.
E	Singular.	चे.	द्वार.	हेाय.	ठहे.	ठहे.
FUTURE		हेा.	हेार.	ह्राय.	ठहे.	ठहे.
CONTINGENT	LAL.	हो.	होरं.	होंय.	ठहेखां.	ठेहेस्रां.
	Plural.	द्वा.	हे।.	हैा.	ठहैस्रो.	व्हेँचेा.
		द्वी.	होंएं.	ह्रीय.	टहे.	ठहे.
	ж.	इंगा.	चादहां, द्वेाऊंगो. हादहूं.	व्हेहीं, हाइहीं. हाजंगी.	व्हेस्यूं, व्हेर्सू.	टहेडूं. टहेबंला.
	Singular.	हेगा.	द्वाद्दहै, द्वारगा.	ठहेहे, हादहे. होटीगी, होयगी.	व्हेसी.	व्हेही. व्हेला.
FUTURE.	Six	हेग्ता.	हेादहै, हेारगो.	टहेहे. हान्दहे. होवेगी, हीयगी.	व्हेसी.	व्हेही. व्हेला.
ABSOLUTE		ষ্টানী.	द्दा <b>दहें</b> , हेरिंगे.	टईहें. होदहें. होवेंगे, हींयगे.	टहेस्यां,टहेसां	टहेडां. ठहेब्रांला.
	PLURAL.	हे। जी.	होदहो, होगे.	ठहेहैा, होदही. हैागे.	व्हेस्यो,व्हेसेा.	ठइचेा. ठईेस्रोला.
	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{L}}$	होंगे.	द्दोद्दें, होएंगे.	टहेहें, होदहें. होवेंग्रे, हैंग्यग्रे.	व्हेसी.	ठइंहो. ठहेला.
ttive.	 28g.	 हो,	 हेा.	 हेा.	टहे.	वहे.
Imperative	2 Pl.	द्वी.	हे.	है।.	होवी.	हीवी.

## CONJUGATION OF हाना, 'to be'.

Garhwáli.	Kum.	Old Púrbí.	Acadhí.	Riwáí.	Bhojpurí.
होबी.	हावी. हुवी.	होल, होन.	होख.	होख.	इानां.
होर्झ.	हुनी. हुली	हार्च.	होर्च.	हार्च.	हार्ज.
हेर्न. हेख.	डुने. हाले.	हाद. होत. होहि, होसि.	हेास.	ठ्यास.	ह्राय.
ह्रोव.	डुन. हाला.	हाद, हाउ. देहि, होसि.	द्दीय.	व्हाय.	ह्रीय.
द्वावार्ज. द्वावन.	<b>डुना</b> . डुला.	हेर्गाई.	हेर्न्ड.	होन.	द्वार्थ.
हेायाई. हावन.	डुना. हाला.	हेाहु.	हेाउ.	ঙ্গায়.	चे.
हे।यन.	<b>घुना.</b> बाला.	द्यादि.	होयं.	व्हांयं.	द्वार्थ.
हेाउलेा, म्रोलेा. हेालेा.	र्हूलेा.* द्वार्डलेा.	हादहीं, होउव हादहीं, होव.	द्वार्वू.	ह्राव्येचं.	हे।सन्
द्वोद्रला, हाद्रल्या. हाला, खाला.	हुले. हाले.	होदइडि,होवडि-होव होदइयि.	हावे. हावेस.	दे।दृहेस.	होदावड्.
हाइला,हाला. बाला.	द्वाले।.	हे।दहाँह,हावदि.हाख.	द्वाये.	द्दाई.	द्दाखीई.
चेाउला, होला. म्रोउला	चुंला.	होदहईि. होवहि. होव.	हेाल.	हाव,हावै.	ह्रीयःत्.
द्वेाद्रला, द्वेादल्या. स्रोला	व्हैला. द्वाला.	द्वाद्यहु. होव	हेविंग.	होवा.	हाखवड्.
द्दोउला, द्वाला. स्रोउला.	द्वाला.	हादहडिं. होव. होर्टाई.	होचंहें.	द्वीयिंदे.	हे।सीहों.
हे.	चे.	ही, हीवहु. हीब.	हे.	टहास.	हा. इ.स., resp.
हो. होवा.	द्वाच्री.	देाहु, दीवहु. हाब. हा.	दे.	व्याची.	श्वेर.

\* These forms are also used for the Contingent Future in E. Kumáon. 30

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		H. Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	East Rájpútáná.	West Rájpútáná
Імі Р.	P <b>ERY</b> . ART.	হানা.	हेत.	होतु.	व्हेता.	व्हेता.
		द्वाता डूं.	देल डूं.	द्दातु दें।. †	यहेतं हूं.	व्हेतं डूं.
	SINGULAR.	द्दाता है.	हात है.	द्वातु दे.	व्ये है.	व्ये थे.
PERFECT.	81x	द्वाता है.	होत है.	द्वातु दे.	व्यद्दे के	व्ये हे.
PRESENT IMPERFECT		हाते हैं.	बात हैं.	द्वात हैं.	व्हेचां क्रां.	व्हेबा हा.
PR	PLURAL.	वेले देा.	श्वेल हो.	बातु हैा.	ठईको दे.	व्हेचो हे।.
		डीते हैं.	ह्रात हैं.	द्वातु दें.	व्ये हे.	व्ये हे.
		द्वाता चा.	द्दीत इते.	देालु देा.	व्ये हो.	व्ये द्वा.
	SINGULAR.	द्वीला चा.	हीत इती.	द्वेतु द्वे.	व्हे हो.	व्हे हो.
BRFECT.	S	द्वीला घा.	होत हते.	द्वीलु द्वी.	व्दे हो.	व्ये हो
PAST IMPERFECT.		होते चे.	ह्रीत इते.	होतु है.	व्हे हा.	व्हे हा.
	PLURAL.	वाते चे.	होत हते.	देातु दे.	व्हे का.	व्हे हा.
	PI	द्वाले चे.	होत हते.	चेातु द्व.	व्हे का.	व्हे हा.

TABLE XVI, Continued : DIALECTIC

\* Where, in any dialect, different forms of the auxiliary have been given in † Or like the Contingent Future. ‡ The participle alone is also used for

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# CONJUGATION OF ETAT, 'to be'.\*

Garhwálí.	Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Avadhí.	Rincáí.	Bhojpurí.
द्वीवेा.	हातन. f. इंग्लू हातिन. ,,	द्वीत.	द्वात.	द्वात.	होखत.
झेंदा हैां. झेंदू.	• क. इ इ इ	<b>हैां. हेा</b> स ( <b>महर्ड</b> )  .	होत बहेर्र.	होत चा.	हास्तत{खा. बारों.
होंदा क, होंदी.	- 1007 - 1007 - 1006 - 1009 - 100	होद.होय,हो) होहि.होसि. ) होत.	होत ग्रहेस.	द्वाते है.	हायत(वा. (वार.
होंदा छ, होंद.	10. 10. 10. 10. 10.	देख होय,दी) होहि,होसि } हील	हात चहे.	हेात चा.	होसात (बा. (बारन्.
होदा है।,होदास	हुना. हुनु.	द्यादि. द्वेत्त (द्वदि)  .	हात चही.	होत्यें हैं.	jular.
होंदा कन,हींदाई	डुमा. डुं का.	होडु. होत(इडु)∥.	•		Like the Singular
होंदा कन,होंदान्	डुना. ड्नी.	र्षोई. रोत (र्षाई)  . रोद.	<b>द्वात चहे</b> .	होत चा.	Like
होंदा घये। ‡	ई हिया. ई हिया.	हीत रह.	द्वात रहेर्च.	होत रहीई.	होखत रहिली.
होंदा चयेा.	ई किया. डु किये.	দ্বান বছ.	होत रहेस.	होत <sup>(ते.</sup> (रहा.	डेाखत रहिल.
होंदा घंगे.	ई छियो. डु डिया.	होत रह.	होत रहा.	होत(ते,ता. (रहा.	बाखत{रहिल्. रहिलस्
होदा घया.	हूं हिया. हु हिया.	होत रहे.	द्वीत रहे.	होत(तें. रहेन.	हाखत राइली.
होदा चया.	ई किया. डुं किंयां.	द्वील रइहु.	ह्रीत रहने.	होत(ते. रहेन.	<b>होखत रहिल</b> ह्
होदा घया.	ई किया. डुं किंयां.	होत रहे.	होत रहे.	होत(त.ता. (रहेन.	हाखत(रहिलन्. रहिला.

Table XV, it is to be understood that these may also be substituted in this table. the imperfect past.  $\parallel$  The use of the auxiliary is exceptional.

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### DIALECTIC CONJUGATION.

TABLE XVI, Concluded : DIALECTIC

[		H. Hindí.	Kanaují.	Braj.	East Ráimítáná	West Rájpútáná	Garhıoálí.
	SRF. Art.	डुचा.	भया.	भयी.		विद्यी.ड्वा	 हार, होयो.
		चुया डूं.	भये। इं.	भवे। हो.	टिहया कूं.	विवया डूं.	चेर की. बायूं.
	SINGULAR.	हुवा दे.	भवे। इ.	भये। इ.	विद्येग के.	विषया है.	हेार झ. होई.
PERFECT.	811	हुमा दे.	• भया है.	भया हे.	टिश्यी है.	विषयो है.	हेार झ. होये.
PRESBNT F		षुर हैं.	*भये हैं.	*भये हैं.	विषण हो.	विषया हो.	हाया की. हायार्ख.
	PLURAL.	चुर द्वा.	भवे हो.	भवे है।.	विषया के।	विषया हो.	द्वाया कन. द्वायाच.
		चुर हें.	મવે 🐮	भये 🐮.	विहया क्वे.	विदया है.	द्वीया <b>दन</b> . होदने
		षुका घा.	भया इता.	भया द्वा.	विषयो को.	विषयो हो.	हेार घया. हेाद क्या.†
	SINGULAR.	<b>चुवा घा</b> .	भया इता.	भया देा.	विषया का.	ठिइयेा द्वा.	हार घंगे हेाद इमेा.
SFECT.	SIN	<b>भु</b> ष्मा था.	भया इला.	भयी हो.	टिबयो को.	विष्टये। द्वा.	द्वार घया. द्वाद क्या.
PAST PERFECT.		षुर घे.	મયે જ્રતે.	भवे 🗟.	विदया का.	विहया द्या.	द्वाया थया. होद क्या.
	PLURAL.	डुर घे.	મંચે इले.	भवे हे.	विषया का.	विष्टया द्या.	हीया चया. होद स्पा.
	н	डुर घे.	भये इते.	મવે જે.	विषया का.	विहया द्वा.	द्वीया चया. द्वाद क्या.
P	ONJ. ART.	हाकर.	डेाडकरके.	ठहे. ठहेकारि. हाय के,etc.	व्हे, व्हेने	व्हेतीक्तृने. व्हेर्.	हारक. हार्रक.

\*Also we throughout. † Also ere at throughout the sing. and plur.

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## CONJUGATION OF RIM, 'to be'.

Kumáoní.	Old Púrbí.	Aradhi.		Riwá <b>í</b> .	Bhojpur <b>i</b> .
भया. हुद्यी.	भयत्र.	भवा.		 भा.	भेल.मैल.भेाइल मैला, etc.
इयूं. इम्यूं. हा की.	भयतं भयेतं,भएतं,भा.m. भद्दतं. f.		т. f.	म हैां.	मैली (बा).
दे के.देरी के. देत के.	भयत. भवेत, भा. m. भद्द, भद्दति. f.	भयेख है. भयिषि है.	т. j.	भ है.	मैल (बा).
बे क.बेगे क. बा क.	भयउ, भयेरु, भा. m. भद्र. f.	भवा <b>इ.</b> मे <b>इ</b> .	m. f.	भ दे.	मैल ) भेलस्) (बा).
षयां. <b>देगयां</b> . देगयूं.	मर, मये, भे. m. मर्द. f.	मये हैं. मै बहो.	m. f.	भये <b>न्द्) ह</b> े. भयेन )	मैली (बा).
<b>हे का.हेग्रे का</b> हा का.	भए, भयेडु, भएडु. m. भई, भईडु. f.	मये हैं. भयित है,	т. <i>f</i> .	भयेन सहेन.	मैलड् (वा).
देवं देगवे. देगच.	मए, भये, भे. m. मर्द. f.	भयें हैं. भयेनि हैं.	m. f	भयेन सहें.	भेलन् (बा).
है किया, f.की हा किया.		भयेर्च रहा. भयिर्च रही.	т. f.	भयों रहा.	The above is
रे हिया. ,, देा हिये.	No instance	भयेस रहा. मे रहा.	m. f.	भयेस{ ते. रहा.	commonly
दै किया ,, देा किया	of this	भवा रहा. मै रही.	т. f.	भ{ता. ता. रहा.	used for
	tense noted				
रे किया. ,, देा किया.	in this	भ रहे. भयों रहीं.	т. <i>f</i> .	भयेन्ड् सें. रहेन.	this and
है किया. ,, हा डिया.	terb.	मये रहे भयों रहीं.	т. f.	भयेन{ ते रईन.	every other
है किया. " हा किया.		भयें रहें. भयों रहीं.	m. f.	भयंन{ ते. रहेन.	perfect tense
हैबेर. हाडवेर.	हाद.	हाकी.		<b>हाके</b>	Wanting.

## TABLE XVII: DIALECTIC

		High Hindí.	Kananji.	Braj.	East Ráj.	West Ráj.	Gurh.
IN	F.	मारना	मारनेा,मारन	मारनैा. मारिवी.	मारखा मार- मारवा [यूं	मारखा, मारखूं. मारबा.	मारगोा.
	1	मार्थ.	मारों.	मारी.	मार्ड.	मार्ड.	मार्द.
	SINGULAR.	मारे.	मारे.	मारै.	मारे.	मारै.	मारी.
FUTURI	Siz	मारे.	मारे.	मारै.	मारे.	मारै.	मार.
CONTINGENT FUTURE.		मारे.	मार्र.	मारें.	मारां.	मारां.	मार्च, मार्री
Cox	UKAI.	मारेा.	मारो.	मारी.	मारेा.	मारा.	मारा. मार्यार्ष
	P	मार्रे.	मार्र.	मारे.	मारै.	मारै.	मार. मारन.
	R.	मार्दगा.	मारिहो. मारिहूं.	मारिहैा मारेहैा. मारीगा.	मारस्यूं. मारमुं	मारडूं, मार्वलेा	मारला.
.	SINGULAR.	मारेगा.	         	मारिडे, मारेडे. मारेगे.	मारसी.	मारही, मारैले.	मारले। मारिल्पा
FUTURE	S_	मारेगा.	मारिडे. मारेगा	मारिहै, मारेहै, मारेगे। i	मारसी.	 मारही, मारैलेा.	मारलेा.
ARSOLUTE		मारेंगे.	मारिष्ट, मारेंगे	मारिहे. मार्रिहे. मारेगे.	मारस्यां.	मारहां.मारांला.	मारला.
A	PI.URAL	मारोगे.	मारिद्वे,मारोगो	मारिहैा.मारेहैा. मारीग्री.	मारस्ये।	मारहा,माराेला.	मारला. मारिल्या
	Ą	मारेंगे.	मारिहें, मारेंगे.	मारहें, मारेहें. मारेंगे.	!   मारसी.	मारहो, मारैला.	मारला.
ERAT.	SIN.	मार.	मार.	मार.	मार.	मार.	मार.
IMPI	Pı.	मारा.	मारो.	मारेा.	मारा.	मारेा.	मारा.
Resp. IMPERAT.	forms.	मारिया. मारिये.	मारिया. मारिये.	मारिया,मारिये. मारीजे.	मारीज्ये. मारीज्ये	मार्जे. मारोजे. मार्जा मारोजे.	Want'g

## CONJUGATION OF HIGHI, 'to strike'.

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Kum.	Old Púrbí.	Aradhí.	Riwáí.	Bhoj.
मारबेा.	मारम, मारब.	मारख.	मारब.	मारना.
मार्च. मारनु.	मारडं, मारवैा. मारेडं, मारवैा.	मारउं.	मारइं.	मार्च.
मारै. मारले.	मारइ मारहि मारि मार. मारय,मारिय,मारसि,मार्क,	मारस,मार.	मारस.	मारे.
मार. मारला.	मारइ.मार्राइ.मारि.मार. मारय.मारिय.मार्रास मारु,	मारय.	मारि.	मारे.
मारेां,मार्च मारनु.	मारह, मारहि. मारहै.	मारी.	मारन.	मारी.
मारी. मारेा.	मारषु. मारवी.	मारड,मारब	   	मारेा.
मारै. मारी.	मारदं, मार्राइं. मारवें.	मार्रयं.	मारंयं.	मार्री.
मार्बला. मारला.	मारिहों, मारेंग्री, मारव. मारिहों, मारेंग्री, मारिव.	मारखूं.	माख्येउं.	मारब्.
मारले.	मारिइइि,मारिश्वइि,(मारइिगा,) मारिइसि,मारिइसु,	मारबे. मारबेस.	मारिइस. मारिवेस	मारब.
मारले।	मारिष्टांड,मारिश्रांड, (मारांडगा,) मारब.	मारे.	मारी.	मारि.
मार्चला.	मारिर्हाई. मार्राइंग्रे, मारख.	मारब.	मारिब.मारब मारबे.	मारख्.
मारला.	मारिइड्, मारिश्रडु. मारडुगे, मारब.	मारबेा.	मारित्वा.	मारब.
मारला.	मारिइडिं. मारहिंगे, मारख.	मारिष्टें.	मारिष्टे.	मारिक्वी.
मार.	मार्राइ,मार्रास,मारेसु. मारख. मारदब. मारु, मार. मार्राख.	मार, मारस. मारज.	मारस.	मार.
मारेा.	मारहु, मारेहु. मारब, मारबेा.	मारब,मारेा.	मारब.	मारेा.
मारिया.	मारिय,मारिश्र,मारिये,मारीजै,मारीजेषु.			

### DIALECTIC CONJUGATION.

TABLE XVII, Concluded: DIALECTIC

UNN	PART.	High Hindí.	Kananj.	Braj.	E. Ráj.	W. Ráj.	Gaŗhwálí.
TMPERF AND	PKRF.	मारता. मारा.	मारत. मारा.	मारतु. मार्ग्या	मारतेा. मार्या.	मारता. मार्या.	मारदा मारन्ता. मारे, मारा.
	A.R.	मारता डूं.	मारत डूं.	मारी. मारतु ही.	मार्च कूं.	मार्व डूं.	मारदो <b>ही</b> . मारदू.
	SINGULAR.	मारता है.	मारत है.	मारै, मारहि. मारतु है.	मारे है.	मारे है.	मारदे छ. मारदी.
PRESENT IMPERFRCT	Su	मारता 🕏.	मारत दे	मारै. मार्राइ. मारतु है.	मारे है.	मारे दे.	मारदे इ. मारद.
KESENT I		मारते हैं.	मारत हैं.	मारें, मार्राइं. मारतु हैं	मारां झां.	मारा द्वा.	मारदा की. मारदार्ड.
<b>F</b>	PLURAL.	मारते द्वा.	मारत हो.	मारी, मारहु. मारतु है।.	मारे। क्वे.	मारेा द्ये.	मारदा <b>दम</b> . मारदाई.
	P	मारते हैं.	मारत हैं.	मारें, मार्राइं. मारतु हें.	मारै के.	मारे इ.	मारदा <b>इन</b> . मारदान.
	AR.	मारा इ.	मारे। है	मार्या है.	मार्या है.	मार्या है.	मारे इ.
2	SINGULAR.	मारा दे.	मारे। है	मार्यो है.	मार्या है.	मार्यो 🕏.	मारे इ.
PRESENT PERFECT.	Sı	मारा है.	मारे। 🕏	मार् <b>ये।</b> इ.	मार्या है.	मार्या 🕏.	मारे इ.
PRESENT	Ŀ	मारे हैं.	भारे हैं.	मारे हैं.	मारुया है.	मार्या इ.	मारा <b>हो</b> . मारीने.
	PLURAL.	मारे हैं.	मारे 🐮	मारे हैं.	मार्या 🗟.	मार्या 🕏.	मारा <b>क्रग.</b> मारीने.
	Ч	मारे हैं.	मारे हैं.	मारे हैं.	मार्या है.	मार्ग थे.	मारा <b>इन.</b> मारीनै.
CONJ.	PART.	मारकर,etc.	मारके.	मारि. मारिकौ. मारिकारे.	मार,मारने.	मार,माबने. मारताक्तने. मारर्.	मारिक. मारीक.

\* The remaining participial tenses are conjugated, when used, after the

.

## CONJUGATION OF HIGH, 'to strike'.

Kumáoní.	Old Púrbi.	Aradhi.	Riwái.	Bhojpuri.
मारनू. मारिया.	मारत, मारन्त. मार mára.	मारत. मारा.	मारत. मार, mára.	मारत. मारल,मारिला
मारनु.‡ मारन कूं.	मारडं. मारेडं. मारत ब्रहडं.	मारत खहेउं.	मारत आं.	मारत} वा. वारों.
मारन) है.	मार्राइ,मारै,मारय. मार्रास, मारु, मार.	मारत जहेस.	मारते है.	मारत} वा. वार.
मारनी. मारन)क. मार)क.	मार्राइ,मारै,मारय. मार्रास, मारु, मार.	मारत अहै.	मारत आ.	मारत}वा. वारन.
मारनू, मारनु.	मार्राहं. मारत हहिं.	मारत खही.	मारत्यें हैं.	Like the Singular.
मारना. मारन) का. मार	मारहु. मारत हहु.	मारत खईं.	मारत ग्रहेन.	the Si
मारनी.	मारहिं. मारत इहिं.	मारत खहैं.	मारन द्यां.	Like
मार,मारो) मारियो )क.	मार. मारउं. मार. मारेउं. /. मारिउं.	मारेउं हैं।.m. मारिउं हैं।.f.	मार हा.	मारली.
मार,मारे।)क.	मार. मारड,मारेड. मारोस,मारेडि. ,,मारिड.	मारेस है.m. मरिसि हैं.f.		मारिल.
मार,मारे) मारियो ) <sup>क्</sup>	मार. मारड,मारेड. मारेसि,मारेहि. ",मारिड.	मारेस है.m. मारिसि है.f.	मारेस है.	मारिल. मारिलस्,मारस्
मांरीं, मारीने. मारिया इन.	मारे. मारेन्डि. <i>f</i> . मारों.	मारे ऋहों.m	मार हैं.	मारिलों.
मांरीं, मारीने. मारिया कन.	मारे. मारेन्डि. ,, मारिहु.	मारेन हैं. <i>m.</i> मारिउ हैं. <i>f</i> .	मारे (है. मारेन)	मारिलह्.
मांरों, मारीने. मारिया कुन.	मारे. मारेन्द्रि. ,, मारी.	मारेन हैं. m. मारिनि हैं./.		मारिलन. मारिला.
मारीवेर.	मारि.	मारकै.	मारके.	Wanting.

analogy of the above. †Also सारीया. ‡Also सारण लागिरयूं. || To agree with आप. 31

### DIALECTIC CONJUGATION.

## Origin of the Verbal Forms.

453. The various parts of the Hindí verb are either directly descended from corresponding Sanskrit or Prákrit forms, or are new modern combinations of such ancient forms.

454. The Hindí Infinitive appears under two general types, of which the characteristic letters are respectively n(n) and v(b). The n-terminations are naug, no, no, nún, ná or nán, n; the v-terminations, vau or vaug, vo or bo, b. Dr. Hoernle, has, I think, conclusively proved, that these two varieties of the Hindí infinitive are respectively derived from the two forms of the Sk. fut. pass. part. neut.; the n-forms, from the participle in aniya; the v(b)-forms, from the participle in tavya.<sup>\*</sup> Not only may all the dialectic variations of the two types be thus explained, but all the peculiarities of the use of the infinitive as a noun, an adjective, or an imperative, are thus accounted for, as originally exhibited in this Sk. participle.<sup>†</sup> Thus, e.g., we may derive the H. H. inf. karná as follows :—Sk. (neut.) karaníyam, Pr. karaníam or karanaam, archaic H. karaná, E. H. karan. And the v-forms of the same arise thus :—Sk. kartavyam, Pr. karidavam or karitavayam, kariavayam or karaavayam, Br. karivaug or same fut. pass. part. karavauy, M. karbo, E. H. karab.

a. An infinitive, kardau, mentioned in Prof. De Tassy's grammar, I would explain by reference to another Prákrit form in davvam (for tavyam) of this same affix. ‡

b. We should expect the penultimate vowel in the v-forms to be lengthened, as in the corresponding Maráthi, *karáve*, but the shortening is probably due to the accent, which rests on the first syllable.

c. Inasmuch as the Sk. fut. pass. part., when used as a noun, was declined like neut. nouns of the 1st Sk. decl., the H. obl. infinitive in e or d must therefore be explained as a corrupted gen. sing. || But the Braj inflected infinitive in i has probably arisen from the Sk. loc. sing. in e, so that, e.g., karani presupposes an original Sanskrit form, karanjuge.

455. The Imperfect participle presents two general types; the one ending in a consonant or short vowel; as, e.g., the archaic kahant, Br. kahtu, K. chalat; the other, ending in a long vowel, e.g., G. chalanto or chaldo, Br. chaltan, M. chalto, H. H. chaltá. All these forms have arisen from the Sk. pres. part. Par. in at; the *n* which in one or two dialects appears before *t*, belongs to the original Sk. base, and in Prákrit was always retained throughout the declension of the participle.

<sup>\*</sup> Journ. As. Soc. Beng., Part I, No. 2, 1873. *†Vid.* Williams' Sk. Grammar, §§ 902, 905, 908. *‡Vid.* Lass. Inst. Ling. Prac., § 129, 3. || Vid. § 155. ¶Vid. Williams' Sk. Grammar. § 141; Lass. Inst. Ling. Prac., § 127, 1.

### DIALECTIC CONJUGATION.

a. In accordance with the principles illustrated in §§ 154, 154, a., we must attribute the shorter participial forms to the simple Sanskrit participle; and the longer to an augmented participle formed by the Prakritic suffix k. \* Thus, in order of derivation, we shall have. e.g., for the Sk. nom. masc. sing., chalán (from chalat), Pr. chalanto, archaio H. chalant, Br. chaltu or chalatu, E. H. chalat; † and from an augmented Prákrit form, chalantako, G. chalanto, and chaldo, Br. chaltau, M. chalto, and finally, H. H. chaltá. The inflections are explained at § 155, 156.

456. The Perfect participle occurs under three general forms, of which, the 1st ends in a, the 2nd, in a long vowel, d, o, au, or e. In the 3rd form, l is the characteristic letter of the termination.

(1) The 1st and 2nd forms are without doubt derived from the Sk. past pass. part. in ta. The 1st form is to be explained, as in the imperf. part., as having arisen from the simple Sk. part. The longer forms have come from an increased Prák. part., ending in taka for ta. The y which in Br. and M. precedes the vowel-termination has arisen from the *i* which, according to Vararuchi, was inserted before the participial termination much more freely in Prákrit than in Sanskrit.<sup>‡</sup> To illustrate, the Eastern perf. part., chala or chal, (in the passive conjugation, chali.) has been reduced from the Sk. part. chalitak; while from a Prák. part., chalitakah, have come the longer forms, thus:—Pr. chalitakab, chalitao, chaliao, Br. chalyau, M. chályo, K. chalo, H. H. chalá.

a. The peculiar adjective form of the Márwárí participle, formed with the affix ro, as *chályoro*, etc., is identical with the same affix in the pronominal adjectives, and is to be connected with the Sanskrit diminutive affix r, which in Prákrit was often added to nouns and adjectives with no intention of a diminutive sense. Similarly Sindhí adds to these participles ro or lo, and Maráthí, ld, all of which affixes have the same origin.

b. The peculiar Garhwálí participle in e, may be explained by the substitution of a for *i* as a union-vowel, and the insertion of a euphcnic y, instead of sandhi as in the other dialects; thus:—chaldo, chalayo, chalaya, chale.||

(2) It has been common to regard the l of the perf. part. in some eastern Hindí dialects, as having arisen from the t of the Sanskrit participle, through d and r. But inasmuch as the change supposed, of r to l, is the exact reverse of that which these dialects constantly exhibit in other words, it is highly improbable that the law should have been uniformly reversed in the participle only. Nor has it yet been proved that the use of this form in l, (which is found also in the Prákrit dialects coëxistent with those in d and r,) historically followed the use of the other forms. I am therefore inclined to believe, that in this participle in l, as also in the labial future of these same dialects, to be hereafter noticed, we have a form as ancient as the Sanskrit participle in t, and having no connexion with it.

\*Vid. §71, (1). † Vid. §75. 1 Vid. Prák. Prakás. VII, 32. || Vid. §§77, b, 155.

(3) The irregular perf. part. of some verbs, ending in na, ná, etc., is to be connected with the Sk. perf. pass. part. in na. Many verbs which in Sanskrit formed this participle with ta, in Prákrit preferred the affix na. Thus, e.g., we have in Prákrit, dinna, for Sk. datta, whence H. díná, etc., for diyá.

457. The Conjunctive participle, in most of its forms at least, must, I think, be connected with the Sk. indecl. past. act. part. in ya or tvá.

(1) The termination ya in Prákrit became ia, whence, e.g., from Sk. chalya, Pr. chalia, Br. etc., chali, and chal. When the significant termination had thus almost or quite vanished, the corresponding participle of the ever convenient root kri, 'to do', viz., kari or kar, (Sk. kritya, Pr. karia,) was pressed into service, and appended to the remainder of the old participle; whence, Br. chalikari. H. H. chalkar, etc. The other affix, ke or kai, is another form of this same participle, and has arisen from kari, by the elision of r and sandhi of a and i.A still further reduction gives us the Garhwálí affix, k, for ke, as, e.g., in márik.

(2) In the *ú* which is added to the root in Mairwár, to form such conjunctive participles as *marúne*, *sunúne*, etc., we probably have the remainder of the other Prákrit affix of the past act. part., *viz.*, *túna* or *úna*, for the ancient Vedic *tvánam.*<sup>†</sup> Thus, *e.g.*, for the Sk. *mritvá*, the Prákrit had *maraúna*, whence, by the operation of the regular phonetic laws, *maraún*, maran, and *marú*, as in Mair. *marúne.*<sup>‡</sup>

(3) At first sight it might be natural to explain the ne which is added in Mairwar to this ú, and elsewhere, to the root, as identical with the n of this Prákrit affix tuna. But seeing that even in Prákrit the affix had been worn down to una, it is quite unlikely, if not impossible, that this should have been afterward increased to úne. I would therefore suggest that the affix ne should be connected with the Prákrit past pass. part., kinna (kinnaka?) for krita, from the root kri 'to do'. When the participial affix was nearly or quite abraded, the gen. or loc. absolute of this participle appears to have been added to the old form. || This is perhaps confirmed by the other form of this affix, kane, which is added in Márwárí, to the imperf. part., to give the sense of the conjunctive. Analogous is the Bhag. affix, kanáí, of this same part., as, e.g., in sunkanáí=H. H. With the other form of this participle in iyána (§394,6) may be comsunke. pared another Prákrit form in dáni; as, e.g., karidáni, whence, if d be elided. and y inserted, we shall have kariyáni, kariyána.

(4) Of the very peculiar Kumáoní form of this participle, in ber, I am not able to offer any explanation.

<sup>\*</sup> This is still used in E. Hindí in some phrases, for H. H. karke. Thus, I have heard a villager say, kas ke jáb? = H. H. kaisá karke jáoge, lil., 'doing what will you go?' i.e.. 'how will you go?'.

<sup>†</sup> Compare the Maráthí form of this participle in n, as karún,=H. H. karke, and the Gujarátí, as, e.g., hoine,=H. H. hoke.

<sup>‡</sup> Vid. Williams' Sansk. Grammar, § 555, a. || Cf. § 159.

458. Of the affixes wálá and hárá, used with the inflected infinitive to form the Noun of agency, wálá is the Sk. pálaka, and hárá, Sk. dháraka.\* This etymology of wálá may be illustrated by H. gwálá, for Sk. gopálaka; and that of hárá, by an intermediate form in the 1st line of Chand's poem, dháranadhárayam, = H. H. dháranhárá. The inflected infinitive in this idiom is therefore in fact an objective genitive, under the government of the suffix.

459. The tense-forms which in High Hindí are used as a Contingent future, (and in old Hindí, also as abs. fut. and pres.,) have all arisen from Prákrit modifications of the Sk. present. It is to be noted that Prákrit often substituted for the Sk. terminations, in the 1st sing. and plur., the full forms of the substantive verb, vis., Sing., amhi,=Sk. asmi, and Plur., amho, amha,=Sk. smah. On the strength of this analogy, I assume a Prák. 3rd sing. in atthi,=Sk. asti. This will explain, as the regular Prák. form in di does not, the Hindí 3rd pres. in hi. Similarly I would postulate for the termination of the 3rd plur., a Prákrit form, ahanti for asanti (Sk. santi), of the substantive verb, as the original of the old Hindí form in hip. The following table, with the appended notes, will enable the student to work out most of the Hindí forms.

#### PRESENT.

	SANSKRIT.		Prákbit.	HINDÍ FORMS.
Ŀ,	1. c	halámi.	chalamhi.	chaläún, chalaun, chalún, etc.
Singular.	2. c	hala <b>s</b> i.	chalasi.	<pre>{ chalasi, chalahi, chaläi,</pre>
Sin	3. c	halati.	{(chalatthi)? (chalasati)?	chalahi, chaläi, chalai, chale.
	1. d	halámaḥ.	chalamho,-ha.	{ chalán. chalaun, { chalahin, chalain, chalen, chalín.
Plural.	2. c	halatha.	Schaladham.	{ chalahu, chalau, chalo. { chalá.
đ	3. c	halanti.	{(chalahanti)? {chalenti.	{ chalahiy, chaläiy, chalaiy, chaley, { chalai, chaliy, etc.

Rem. 1. In all the above forms the Prákrit optionally substituted e for a after the root, whence the frequent appearance of e before the terminations in Old Hindí. This may give a clue also to the explanation of other Hindí forms.

Rem. 2. According to Vararuchi, (*Prák. Prak.* VII, 20,) Prákrit sometimes substituted *jja* and *jjá* for the proper affixes of the present and definite future. Hence have arisen the common Hindí pres. and fut. forms in *aya* and *iya*, as mariya, maraya—martá hai, etc. The forms in *yai* and *ye*, are explained by *Prák. Prak.* VII, 21, which states that *jja* or *jjá* was also inserted before the terminations of the present, future and imperative.

460. (1) The various inflected forms of the Absolute future, with s or h as the typical letter, are all, I think, to be connected, not with the 1st fut., as has

<sup>\*</sup> Or possibly kára (or káraka?). So Dr. Trumpp, Sindhí Gram., §10, (33).

#### DIALBCTIC CONJUGATION.

been suggested, but rather with the 2nd fut. of the Sk. verb. Space will not allow us to work out all details, but the following tables will suffice.

FUTURE.

	SANSKRIT.	PRÁKRIT.	HINDÍ FORMS,
Br.	1. chali <u>sh</u> yámi.	{ chalissámi. { chalissam.	{ chálasyún, chálasún, etc. { chálahún, chalihaun, etc.
Singular.	2. chali <u>sh</u> yasi.	{ chalissasi. chalihissasi.*	Echálzsí, chálahí. Chalihasi, chalihahi, chalihai.
Si	3. chali <u>sh</u> yati.	{ (chalissatthi)} { chalissäi.	{chálasí, chálahí. {chalihahi, chalihai.
_	1. chali <u>sh</u> yámaķ.	( chailmosanno, " elc.	<pre>{ chálasyáp, chálahás. chalihahis, chalihais.</pre>
Plural	2. chali <u>sh</u> yatha.	{chalissadha. {(chalissadham)?	{ chálasyo, chálaho. { chalihahu, chalihau.
4	3. chali <u>sh</u> yanti.	{chalissanti. chalihissanti.	{chálasí, chálahí. chalihahiz, chalihaiz.

(2) Neither Sanskrit nor Prákrit literature gives any forms which could be the original of the various Hindí inflected future forms in b(v). But all the analogies of the Áryan languages lead us to believe, that just as Sanskrit, like Greek, formed a future by the aid of the substantive verb *as*, so the eastern Hindí dialects, with the Bangálí, and, beyond doubt, a Prákrit tongue, which for some reason has not been preserved in literature, formed their future, like the Latin, by the aid of the other substantive verb, *bhú*. Compare, *e.g.*, the E. Hindí forms, *jáb* and *jávauz*, 'I shall go', with the Latin *ibo*.

(3) In many parts of India, where, for some reason, the Sanskrit future failed to maintain itself, when the old present, which usurped its place, by reason of its great diversity of use, had become quite indefinite in meaning, the people constructed a new future, by adding to the various forms of the present, one of two new terminations. These terminations now exist, the one as gau, go, or gd, the other as lo, ld, or lyo. Of these, the former is probably the past pass. part of the Sk. gam, 'to go', for gatah, Pr. gao. Lo may be connected with the Sk. past. pass. part, lagitah, Pr. laggiao, of the root lag.

a. In illustration of this use of a verb of motion to form a future, compare with the above the English idiom, 'I am going to say', which is nearly equivalent to the future, 'I shall say'.

461. In the Imperative the forms in *hi* and *si*, are originally real futures, used, after the analogy of the Sanskrit, for the imperative. The 2nd sing. in *su*, appears to stand for the Sk. 2nd sing. imp. Atm. in *sva*. The common 2nd plur. imper. in *o*, Br. *au*, has arisen from the older Hindí termination, *Au*, which we may, with Prof. Lassen, connect with the Sk. 2nd plur. imper. Atm. in *dhvam*; so that, *e.g.*, the order of derivation would be, *chaladhvam*,

\* The Prákrit sometimes, as here, reduplicated the fut. termination throughout. Hence, possibly, come the longer inflected forms in the Rámáyan.

### DIALECTIC CONJUGATION.

chalahus, chalahu, chalau, chalo. Or it may be connected like the 2nd plur., pres. with the Prákrit termination dham The 3rd sing. forms in e, ai, etc., as also the 1st and 3rd plur. in ey, etc., have, I suspect, arisen from a Prakritic confusion of the imperative terminations with those of the present. The following table will illustrate the derivation of this tense.

### IMPERATIVE.

		SANSKBIT.	Prákrit.	HINDÍ FORMS.
Singular.	1. 2. 3.	chaláni. chala. chalatu.	chalamu, { chalasu, chaláhi. { chala. chaladu, chaläu.	chalaup, chalúp. { chalusu, chalahu. { chalu, chala, chale, etc. chalu, chale, etc.
Plural	1. 2. 3.	chalám <b>a.</b> chalata. chalantu.	chalámo, etc. chalaha, chala- [dham. chalantu.	chalon, etc. {chalahu, chalau. {chalo. chalen, etc.

462. The Respectful forms of the Imperative are to be explained by the above-mentioned Prákrit custom of inserting *jja* before the verbal terminations.\* The following comparisons will illustrate the derivation :--Prák. 2nd plur. imp. (alternative form), chalijjadham (or chalijjidham), Old H. chaliyahu, Már. etc., chalijyo or chaljo, H. H. chaliyo. Or again, 2nd plur. Prák. chalijjaka, (chalijjaa), Br. chalijjai or chalije, (for chalijjaya), H. H. chaliye.

463. (1) As the remaining tenses in most of the dialects are formed by means of the auxiliary substantive verb, we may here briefly indicate the origin of the forms of this verb. Those forms of the present which contain h, are to be connected with the Sk. *asmi*, Prák. *amhi*, etc. The forms in *chh*, as, *e.g.*, M. *chhaug*, *chhai*, etc., are to be connected with the root *achchh*, which was substituted in Saurasenic Prákrit for Sk. *as*, 'to be'.† This root was conjugated like all Prákrit verbs; thus, Sing., 1, *achchhámi*, 2, 3, *achchhäi*, 3rd plur. *achchhauti*, etc. It is of course possible that some or all of the *h*-forms may have been derived from those in *chha*, but the former theory seems the more probable. It is noticeable that Vararuchi (III, 1,) omits *chh* from the list of aspirates changeable to h.

(2) Of the various forms of the past tense, thá, the Br. tho stands, probably, for the Sk. sthitah, from the root sthá, 'to stand', which in Sanskrit was already

<sup>\*</sup> On this topic, Lassen's remark is worthy of note. He says, — "Conjicio ... arctius limitatam fuisse regulam ab aliis, et relatum esse incrementum potissimum ad formas, quae potentiali et precativo Sanscr. respondeant." Inst. Ling. Prac., § 124. † Vid. Vár. Prák. Prak. XII. 19, 20; Lass. Inst. Ling. Prac. p. 346.

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used in the sense of simple existence. The intermediate Garhwálí form, thayo,\* seems to prove that thá cannot have arisen, as Mr. Beames has suggested, from the Sk. bhútah. With this latter, however, I would certainly connect the other Braj form, huto, and the K. hato. The Kumáoní chhiyo is, of course, the past participle of the Prákrit root, achehha, (for achehhio or achehhiao).† The verb hond, in all its variations, is derived from the Sk. bhú.

464. The formation of the Márwárí Present, by adding the present of the substantive verb to a form which, as has been above shewn, was itself a true present, is to be explained by the ambiguity which had come to attach to that tense. As it was often used as a cont. fut, and therefore did not, per se, any longer denote present time, Márwárí solved the difficulty by adding again, as of old, but in a modern form, the present of the substantive verb. Most other dialects met the case by dropping the old present as such, and forming a new present with the imperfect participle.

465. The limits assigned to this section preclude more than a mere reference to most of the remaining verbal forms.

(1) The perf. in eu, common in the Bámáyan, is to be referred to the Sk. past act. part in tavat, nom. masc. sing., taván, Pr. avanto. Thus the Sk. chalitván, became in Prákrit, chaliavanto, chaliaú, H. chaleu.

(2) Both the act. and pass. Sk. past participles, were used as perfect tenses in conjunction with the substantive verb, as. From this combination have arisen many of the inflected forms of these tenses; as, e.g., Br. chaleug, 'I have walked', for Sk. chalitvánasmi. An analogous origin is to be sought for the various terminations which are affixed to the imperfect participle, in the *Rámáyan* to form a past contingent, and in Garhwálí to form a present tense.

466. (1) The Sk. causal affix, aya, became in Prákrit, e. This e was sometimes added directly to the root, but very commonly, p, which in Sanskrit was added only to certain roots ending in vowels, in Prákrit was added, with d prefixed, to many other roots before the causal termination. This p, again, was early changed to b or v, so that, e.g., for the Sk. causal base, káraya, from kri, Prákrit exhibits not only káre but karáve (for karápe), whence, in succession, the causal bases, Br. karáva, G. karau, H. H. kará. The o, which occurs in two or three H. H. verbs, as, e.g., bhigoná, is a contraction of dva.

a. A few Sk. causals, as, e.g.,  $p\acute{a}$ , 'to preserve', inserted a euphonic *l*, instead of *p*, before the causal affix, making  $p\acute{a}laya$  (whence H.  $p\acute{a}ln\acute{a}$ ). This is the original of the *l* (in many dialects, *r*) which is found in many Hindí causals, as, e.g., piláná, biţhláná, etc.

(2) The regular form of the Sanskrit causal in aya, Prákrit, e, is preserved in Hindí in many causals of the 2nd form (§ 341, 2), where the causal affix,

\* This verb, thaván, though defective in Hindí, is conjugated in full in Gujarátí. Vid. Shápurjí Edaljí's Grammar, pp. 72-81. † Var. Prák. Prakás., XII. 19, 20.

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eya (e), having disappeared, Hindí retains only the ancient lengthening or gunating of the radical syllable. Thus, e.g., from the Sk. neuter base, sphai, "to burst', (represented by H. phainá,) comes the causal base, spháiaya, (Pr. pháis?) whence H. pháiná.

467. The Prákrit commonly formed the stem of the passive by adding *ijja* to the root instead of the Sk. pass. affix, ya. (Var. Prák. Prak. VII. 8, 9.) From this Prákrit formation has arisen the modern Márwárí passive in *ijazo*, as, e.g., karíjazo, 'to be done'. Similarly are to be explained the pres. pass. participles in yata found in the Bámáyaz, (§345, a,) and certain passive forms in *iye*, as, saráhiye, 'it is praised', for Sk. shlágkyate, etc. In all these, *ijja* has been softened to *iya*.

a. Sometimes Prákrit assimilated the y of the Sk. pass. affix to the final consonant of the root, as, e.g., in dissai, for Sk. drisyate. (Var. Prák. Prak., VIII, 57, 58.) From this form of the passive are derived many Hindí verbs of a passive sense, as, e.g., sigchná, 'to be watered', which is for sichchaná, and is properly a passive derived from the Sanskrit root sich (sinch), of which the passive base is sichya, Pr. sickcha.

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## CHAPTER IX.

### OF DEBIVATIVE AND COMPOUND WORDS.

## I. Of Derivatives.

468. The general principles of the derivation of words in Hindí have been already treated in Chapter III.; where also we have noted the forms under which pure Sanskrit words appear in Hindí. It will be our object, in this section, to indicate the most common affixes by which Tadbhava words of various classes are formed either from original roots or from secondary formations.

469. The following are the most common forms of Abstract Nouns:-

(1) The roots of very many verbs are used as abstract nouns; as, सार, (vb. सारमा,) 'a beating'; बाम, (vb. वासमा.) 'speech'. A short vowel in the verb is often lengthened or guadted in these nouns; as, e.g., जास, (vb. चलमा.) 'walk', 'behavior'; मंस, (vb. मिलमा.) 'harmony'.

c. Here we must also place many words ending in আৰ (আত, আত, or আন্ধা); as, জনাত, 'salvation'; জনাত, 'adornment', etc.

Rem. 1. In many such words the final  $\Im$  is identical with the  $\Im$  (Sk.  $\Im$ ) which is the characteristic of the causal affir. Although this  $\Im$  has disappeared from

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the High Hindí causals, it is retained in almost all the dialects; so that the original Hindí form of the causal root, e.g., of atenn, was not aten, but series. Hence appears the propriety of placing such words as the above under this class. It should be remarked, however, that many words with this final labial express the abstract idea, not of the causal, but of its primitive. Such nouns will be explained below (3).

*Rem.* 2. It must not be supposed that nouns of this class are derived from the infinitives with which they are connected. Both the infinitive and the noun are collateral formations from one primitive root.

(2) न, (for Sk. न, forming neuters in नं,) is added to verbal roots to form abstract nouns; as, चलन, (vb. चलना,) 'walk'; सरन, (vb. मरना,) 'dying'.

a. Or साम may be added; as, उठान, (vb. उठना,) 'rising'; स्मान, (vb. स्वाना,) 'fastening'.

(3) चाड, (Sk. चतु or चातु.\*) is added to primitive verbal roots to form abstract nouns; as, चढ़ाड, (vb. चढ़ना,) 'an ascent'. ज, ज, or चो, is sometimes written for the final उ.

a. चार्च is sometimes added instead of चाउ, giving the same sense ; as, चढ्रार्च=चढ्राउ.

(4) A large class of abstract nouns is formed with the affixes कल, वट, इस, and इट. These are often added to causal roots; as, from बनाना, 'to make', बनावट, 'a fabrication', also बनायल; from खुसाना, 'to call', खुसाइट, 'calling': and also to adjectives; as, from कड़वा, कड़वाइट, 'bitterness'; from चिकना, चिकनाइट, 'greasiness'.

a. Here also properly come a number of nouns in चौस्ती or चोटो (for चावती or चावटी); as, कचैाती or कचैाटी, 'a touchstone'; कुड़ैाटी, 'deliverance'; which come respectively from कसाना, कुड़ाना.

Rem. All these formations are to be connected, like the foregoing, with the Sk. affix, dtu or atu. The labial which appears in many of these words really belongs, not to the termination, but to the causal base : h has apparently been inserted merely for euphony.

(5) Very common is the affix दे, (Sk. यं,) forming abstract nouns from other nouns and adjectives. Thus, from देखा, 'high', देखादे, 'height'; खुरा, 'bad', खुरादे, 'badness'; गोला, 'a ball', गोलार्ड, 'roundness'; लड्का, 'a boy', लड्कादे, 'boyhood'.

a. When added to causal roots, ई (for आनी,) forms nouns denoting the price paid for the work denoted by the verb; as, from धुलाना, 'to

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<sup>\*</sup> Sindhí preserves the consonant, hardening t, however, to t.

cause to wash', घुलार्च, 'the price paid for washing'; उतारना, 'to carry over', उत्तरार्च, 'ferriage'; दुलार्च, 'price of carriage', etc.

(6) Other abstract nouns are formed by adding to adjectives and verbal roots the affix आहे; as, from चतुर, चतुराई, 'cleverness'; from टनाना, टगाई, 'cheating'.

(7) Many Sanskrit fem. abstract nouns are formed with the affix in (sometimes नि); as, मांस, 'the mind'; बुद्धि, (बुध+रि,) 'intelligence'; उल्लानि, 'languor'.

a. In Hindí Tadbhava nouns also, this suffix is added to verbal roots; but w is either dropped or lengthened. Thus, सामल, 'price', (vb. स्वाना, the radical a being lengthened); सठ्सो, (for सठ्तिका, सठ्तिया?) 'increase', (vb. सठ्ना); सठ्सो, 'rise, (in price',) (vb. सठ्ना.)

(8) Tatsama masc. abstracts are formed from nouns and adjectives, by the affix त्व; as, from केववर, 'God', केववरत्व, 'divinity'; गुब, 'heavy', 'venerable', गुबत्व, 'dignity'.

a. This affix, through different Prakritic modifications, has become in Tadbhava words, u, uा, uन or uना; as, from जुढ़ा, 'old', जुढ़ापा or जुढ़ापन, 'old age'; खड़का, 'a child', खड़कपन or, more rarely, खड़कपना, 'childhood'. u is very rare; examples are, स्यानप, 'maturity'; जुढ़ाप, 'senility'. पनी also, very rarely occurs; as, जुद्यपनी, 'wantonness'.

(9) A few abstracts are formed with m; as, dam, 'coolness'.

(10) Many Sanskrit fem. abstracts are formed from adjectives with the affix त्या; as, from नम्, जस्त्या, 'courtesy'; from पुरुष, पुरुषता, 'manhood'. Others are formed from roots with सा, and, rarely, ना; as, सरका, 'desire'; तुष्या, 'thirst'.

a. For ता, तार्च is often substituted ; as. सुंदरतार्च, for सुंदरता, 'beauty'.

(11) Masc. abstract nouns are formed from Sanskrit roots or nominal bases, by adding समा (Sk. समन्); as, खोछमा, 'lightness'; मोइमा, 'greatness'.

a. In Hindí, this termination has become uit; as, e.g., in stat, 'height'; etat, 'length'.

(12) Other Sanskrit abstracts (neut.) occur in Hindí, formed from nominal bases with the suffix **u**; as, e.g., **treu**, 'kingdom'; **eara**, 'lordship'. But Hindí very commonly drops this **u**; as, e.g., in **tru**.

470. The following terminations are used to form nouns denoting Agency or Occupation.

(1) वाला (Sk. पालक), as thus used with inflected infinitives, has

already been noticed. It is also added to nouns to denote 'occupation'; as, द्रधवाल, 'a milkman'; and to verbal roots, as, रखवाल, 'a guard'.

a. But some words terminating in वासा, have come directly from an old Sanskrit compound, as, e.g., स्वासा, 'a cowherd', Sk. गोपासक. Dialectic variations of this affix are झारी, झार, etc.

(2) द्वारा or द्वार, as used with verbs to form nouns of agency, has also been already noticed. It is occasionally used with nouns; as in यन-द्वारा, 'a water-carrier'. The penult is sometimes shortened; as, पनदरा.

(3) चारा, (Sk. कारक,) and चार or र (Sk. कार,) are added to nouns to denote 'occupation'; as, from साना, सानार, (Sk. सुवर्वकार,) 'a goldsmith'; from खनज, वनजारा, 'a trader (in grain)'; सुचार, (Sk. युपकार,) 'a cook'.

a. A few nouns of agency end in रो or सारी, (Sk. कारिन्); as, पूचारी, (Sk. प्रवाकारिन्,) 'a worshipper'.

b. Other nouns of agency are formed with बरो and रब; as, पूर्वेरो, for प्रवारी; लुटेब, 'a robber', etc.

Rem. The explanation of these variations is perhaps to be found in the Prak. root जेर, for Sk. ज. स्री would then stand for Pr. जोरज, and स्व for Pr. जोरज.

(4) Sanskrit nouns of agency were also formed from roots with the affix way. These are common in Hindí, as, yawa, 'a worshipper'; (way, 'a protector'.

a. सक is often corrupted to सां, whence Hindí nouns of agency in सा; as, भुंचा, (for सुंजक,) 'a parcher'.

b. In Prákrit, this यज often became दज, whence the Hindí affix पया, denoting 'agency'; as, from लखाना, 'to behold', लखिया, 'a beholder'; from गाहर, 'a sheep', गड्रिया, 'a shepherd'. This पया, again, became \$, whence many Hindí nouns in \$, denoting 'occupation'; as, e.g., प्रसवाई, 'a confectioner'; बढ्दे, 'a carpenter'.

c. सक also became उक, whence, again, nouns of agency in उसा or समा; as, सङ्ख्या, 'a fisherman'. And उसा became ज, whence, finally, other nouns of agency in ज; as, बैठू, 'a sitter'; खाज, 'a great eater', 'a glutton'.

d. वैया, (also वाद्या and वय्या,) also forms nouns of agency from verbal roots; as, रखवेया, 'a keeper'; मरवेया, 'a beater'. A long vowel is shortened before the affix; as, लिवेया, 'a taker', from लेना; ग्रावेया, 'a singer', from गाना.

(5) A few nouns of agency are formed with **u** (for **a**?); as, **u**(**a**); from **u**(**a**); as, **b**); as, **u**(**a**); from **u**(**a**); as, **b**); as, **b**);

(6) Two or three nouns of agency are formed from verbal roots with वा; as, देवा, 'a giver'; सेवा, 'a taker'.

Rem. This is possibly an oblique form of the infinitive in वा so that देवा, सेवा, =देने का, सेने का.

(7) A few nouns of agency are formed with wares (Sk. wares); as, uvera, 'a swimmer'.

(8) Very common are Sanskrit nouns of agency or relationship in ता; as, कर्त्रा, 'a doer', दाता, 'a giver'; पिता, 'a father'.

(१) Many Sanskrit nouns of agency are formed with the affix चन (जव). In Hindí, these are chiefly found in poetry, as the last member of compounds; as, जयन, 'a sleeper'; दुवादरन, 'a remover of sorrow'.

(10) Finally, Sanskrit formed nouns of agency with **w**, after gun of the root. These are found in Hindí, but only as the last member of compounds; as, from the root **y**, **धर**,= धरनेवाला, 'a supporter', in धरनोधर, 'a mountain', *lit.*, 'an earth-supporter'.

471. Nouns denoting the Instrument are formed from verbal roots

(1) With नो, ना, or न, (Sk. सन, Pr. सनक, सनिक?); as, from धौंकना, 'to blow', धौंकनी, 'a bellows'; खेलना, 'to roll out', खेलन or खेलना, 'a rolling-pin'. Compare with this the postposition ने, used with nouns.

(2) Some nouns with an instrumental sense are formed by the affix आ (Sk. आक ?); as, छोरा, 'a fence', from छोरना, 'to surround'.

472. (1) Possessive nouns are most commonly formed from other nouns with the affixes वाला or दारा; as, e.g., दांसवाला, 'one having teeth'; कपड़ेवाला, 'a draper'. वाला may be thus added to a series of words, all of which must then be inflected; as, चाड़े गंडे पट्टे वाले, 'horses having collars and girths', *i.e.*, 'harnessed'.

a. Here may be noted a large class of Persian nouns, formed with the suffix दार (2nd root of داشتن, 'to have',); as, जमोनदार, 'a landholder'; डवादार, 'ventilated', *lit.*, 'possessed of air'.

(2) The termination आल or आला, (Sk. आल, Pr. आलक,) is added to a few nouns to form possessives; as, लोटियाल, 'one having a stick'; अवाला, 'a mixture of other grain with barley (जी).

Rem. But in a few words expressive of place, बाल stands for the Sk. सालय; as, ससुराल, 'father-in-law's house'. So also, perhaps, घोड़ियाल, 'a gong', from घड़ो, 'a division of time'.

473. Diminutives are most commonly formed in Sanskrit (1) with the affix way. This termination is similarly used in Hindí; thus, from भ्रोल, भ्रोलक, 'a small drum': or का (fem.) is added; as in पशुका, 'a small animal', from पशु; or दका, as in अकटिका, 'a toy-cart', from अकट; or को, as in टमको, 'a small drum'.

a. क being elided from such diminutives, य was often inserted, whence a large class of Hindí diminutives (fem.) in एया; as, from दिख्या, 'a box', दिखिया, 'a little box', 'a casket'; from कोड्रा, 'a boil', फुड्रिया, 'a small sore', 'a pimple'. These diminutives often express 'affection'; as, कोटिया, 'little daughter', from केटो.

b. चया, again, very often became दे; whence a large number of diminutives ending in दे, as, e.g., गाड़ो, 'a carriage'; टोकरी, 'a small basket', etc., etc.

c. In the east, especially, क being elided, a was inserted instead of a, whence another class of diminutives in वा; as, e.g., from पुर, पुरवा, 'a hamlet'; चोड्या, 'a small horse', often used by way of depreciation. व is often softened to उ, whence diminutives in उम्पा; as, बेटुया, 'a little son'.

(2) Sanskrit also formed diminutives in र, whence have come (a) Hindí diminutives in रो; as, लिसरो, 'a butterfly'; and (b) in ज़ो; as, ंटकड़ो, 'a wafer'; पर्सगड़ो, 'a small bedstead'; and, still more common, (c) others in सा and सो; as, सितसो and टिकसो, for सितरो and टिकड़ो; घंटासो, 'a little bell', from घंटा. For स (र) दस and उस seem to have been added; as, e.g., in खटोसा, 'a small bed'; सुरेसा, 'a peachick', etc.

(3) A very few diminutives are formed with ना; as, from सूत, 'a goblin', भूतना, 'a sprite'; from सटका, 'a large earthen jar', सटकना.

474. क, and also रा, ड्रा and ला, (Sk. र), with their fem. forms, को, रो, ड्रो and लो are often added to nouns to form derivatives expressive of various relations difficult to classify. Sometimes the consonant of the affix is preceded by द or ड, which is combined with the final vowel of the primitive according to the rules of sandhi. Examples are, from मट्टो, 'earth', मटका, 'an earthen jar', dim. मटको; from हाथ, 'hand', हथेला, 'a pilferer'; हथोलो, 'the palm of the hand', हथीड़ा, 'a hammer', dim. हथीड़ो; इधरो, 'a handle'; हथोलो, 'a plough-handle'.

a. सा and ई, (for सक, इक,) are similarly added ; as, again, from दास, इया, 'a handle', इसी, 'a horse-brush'.

475. Nouns expressing Nativity or Relationship are formed from other nouns with the affix ई (Sk. ईय, इय). Examples are, माइटाइने, 'a native of Márwár'; कडोरो, 'a follower of Kabír'.

476. Hindí Adjectives are derived as follows :--

(1) Many adjectives were formed in Sanskrit with the affixes स्वक, स्व, or उक. Before these affixes, medial *a* or a final radical vowel was eriddhied, and any other vowel changed to its gun. Examples are ;— संसारिक, 'worldly', from संसार, 'the world'; लायक, 'inflammatory', from लप, 'heat'.

a. In Prákrit, क was dropped from these forms, whence, a being inserted, Hindí adjectives in स्वा; as, दूधिया, 'milky', from दुध. But more commonly sandhi took place; whence, from झक came the Hindí adj. termination, जा; as, from मैल, 'dirt', मैला, 'dirty'; from मुष्टक, for मुष्ट, मोटा, 'fat', etc. Similarly, from सक has often come the termination दे; thus, from भार, 'a burden', भारी, 'heavy'; जन, 'wool', जनी, 'woolly'. उक also became w, as in a few modern adjectives, e.g., ठाल, 'sloping'.

(2) Many Sanskrit adjectives were formed with the terminations e, आसु, रस, उस; र, सर, सर, सर, अर. All of these, perhaps, have been preserved in Hindí. Examples are ;—from दूध, दूधस, 'milky'; from दया, दयास or दयासु, 'merciful'; from दांस, दन्सेस or दन्सेस, 'toothed'; from बाक, बाकेस, 'loaded'; from काम, 'work', कमेरा, 'industrious'; from नाक, नाकोसा, 'pointed'; from रस, 'juice', रसोसा, 'juicy'. Adjectives in र (सर) are less common, but examples occur; as, दंशर, 'cruel', from देश, 'a bite'; दूधेर, 'milky', from दूध. And through the change of र to इ come a very few adjectives in इ; as, दंशेद, 'merry', (दंस + उर,) from the root of इंसना, 'to laugh'.

(3) A few adjectives or nouns occur, which are formed with the Sanskrit suffix चल; as, दंगेल, (दंग + चल,) from दंग, 'seditious'; खर्चेल, *lit.*, 'having a spear', 'a spearman', from बर्चा.

(4) The following suffixes are also occasionally used to form adjectives; viz., ई (added as initial); as, दंगई, 'turbulent'; दस; as, सुन्दिस, 'corpulent': and हा; as, कंपहा, 'tremulous'.

(5) Many Tatsama adjectives denoting 'possession', are formed with ई (Sk. इन्); as, धनो, 'wealthy', (Sk. धांगन्.) from धन, 'wealth'; and also with वान or वन्स (Sk. वस्); as, from धन, धनवान; 'wealthy'; from बल, बलवान, 'strong'; from कुपा कुपावन्स, 'merciful', etc.

(6) Many Sanskrit participles, especially those in त and मान (मल्), are used as adjectives in Hindí; as, e.g., क्रोधित, 'angry', (from कुछ्); ग्रोभयमान, 'beautiful', (from ग्रुम्).

(7) The Sanskrit affix मय, = Engl.—'ful'; is also often added in Hindí to Tatsama nouns; as, दयामय, 'merciful'; पायकसय, 'fiery'.

### COMPOUND WORDS.

(8) Very rarely Tatsama adjectives are found in Hindí, formed with the Sk. affix an, expressing 'similitude'; as, aligner, 'like the moon'.

(9) A very few adjectives occur, formed with the Sk. desiderative affix, स; the chief example is पियासा, 'thirsty', for Sk. पियासित:, perf. pass. desider. part. from the root पा, 'to drink'.

477. A very large number of Onomatopoetic words occur in Hindí, whose derivation is to be traced to an attempt to imitate or suggest a sound or action by the voice. These often have a reduplicated form. Such, e.g., are खटखट, 'a knocking'; जनमन, 'a jingling'; खट्राबट्टा 'a rattle'; जिनको, 'a tinkling girdle'; युनयुवाना, 'to whistle', etc., etc.

# II. Of Compound words.

478. Hindí admits of the greatest freedom in the use of compound words, the length and complexity of which form a distinguishing feature of Hindí as compared with Urdú. Urdú, indeed from the side of the Arabic, does not admit of composition of words, and even in its Persian element it cannot compare in this respect with Hindí.

a. Long and complex compounds are for the most part confined to poetry; but short compounds are freely admissible in prose and in conversation. Many idioms, moreover, which cannot be strictly termed compound words, can only be explicated on the principles which regulate the formation of compounds. Thorough familiarity with these principles is absolutely essential to the understanding of Hindí poetry. The constant omission of the postpositions, which otherwise seems quite arbitrary, upon these principles commonly admits of a simple explanation, and the relations of such groups of words are at once easily determined.

479. The various compounds admissible in Hindí, are the same as those which we meet in Sanskrit, and therefore may be classified in the same manner. And we cannot do better in treating this subject, than adopt, for the most part, the classification of Prof. Williams, as given in his Sanskrit Grammar, which will be found much more clear and easy of comprehension than that of the Indian grammarians. We have then five general classes of Compounds; 1st, Dependent Compounds, in which the relation of the several words is that which is expressed by the cases of a noun: 2nd, Copulatives, in which the relation of the elements is that expressed by a copulative conjunction: 3rd, Descriptives, in which an adjective is united with a substantive : 4th, Numerals, in which the first element is a numeral : 5th, Adverbials, in which the first element is an adverb.

480. Dependent Compounds are of six varieties, corresponding to the six cases of nouns by which dependence is expressed.

(1) Accusatively dependent Compounds are very common; the second member is a verbal root or noun of agency, to which the first member stands in the relation of an accusative case.

The following are examples of Tadbhavas: तिलचट्टा, lit., 'oil-licker', 'a cockroach'; कठफोड़ा (काठ + फोड़ा), 'wood-borer', 'a woodpecker'; चिड़ीमार, 'a fowler'; मकखनवार, 'butter-stealer' (an epithet of Krishna). Similar Tatsamas are; — जगतार, 'world-savior'; गुबचासा, 'merit-discerner'; जीवनदासा, 'life-giver'; पलिसपावन, 'purifier of the guilty'; त्राहिकार, 'cry for mercy'; मनाइर, (मनस + हर, § 51,) 'heart-ravishing'.

a. In many such compounds, the verbal root consists of a single letter or compound letter; as, e.g., u, (Sk. un, 'to protect,') in सुपा, *lit.*, 'earth-protector', 'a king'; or द, (Sk. दा, 'to give',) in सुपाद, 'pleasure giving'; or u, (Sk. un, 'to know',) as in सब्देध, 'all-knowing', etc.

b. Compounds in which गास, 'gone', is the last member, belong to this class; but गास often appears to have lost its specific meaning, and implies mere connexion or proximity, without any suggestion of motion, as in the following from the Rámáyan: सुरसरिग्रस संसिन, 'water in the divine river'; करतलगर पुष्प, 'a flower lying in the hand'.

c. The accusative member is occasionally last in the compound; as, सर्दनमयन, 'destroyer of Mayan'.

(2) Datively dependent Compounds are those in which the first word of the two is equivalent to a *dative* case. These are rare; a common illustration is, **u**(**a**), *lit.*, 'having come for refuge', 'a refugee'.

(3) Instrumentally dependent Compounds are those in which the first stands to the second in the relation of the case of the agent. The last member of these compounds is always a Sanskrit perf. pass. participle. They are comparatively rare, and are all Tatsamas. Most common are those in which **gra**, (perf. pass. part. of Sk. **g**, 'to do',) is the second member; these are chiefly used in the titles of books : as, **graditional timus**, 'the Rámáyan by Tulsí Dás'.

(4) Ablatively dependent Compounds are those in which the first word is related to the second as an ablative case. Examples are, of Tadbhavas;--देशनिकासा, 'banishment'; of Tatsamas;--माडवानिस, 'born of ignorance'; रसवटिस, 'inlaid with jewels'; खुद्धिद्दीन, 'void of wisdom'; पंचरचिस, 'composed of the five (sc. elements).

#### COMPOUND WORDS.

Rem. It should be observed that many of the functions of the Sanskrit instrumental case are in Hindí assumed by the ablative; so that many compounds which in Sanskrit would be classed as *instrumentally* dependent must be reckoned *ablatively* dependent in Hindí.

(5) Genitively dependent Compounds are those in which the relation of the first member to the second is that of a genitive case. These are exceedingly common, both in poetry and in prose. As in other Tadbhava compounds, a long vowel in the first member is commonly shortened, and the laws of sandhi are neglected. Examples are, of Tadbhava compounds;— समयति, (साम + पति,) 'a millionaire', *lit.*, 'owner of a *lákh*'; प्रमचक्की, (पानी + चक्की.) 'a water-mill'; सुद्धास, 'a stable (for horses)'; of Tatsamas;— जगरीस, 'Lord of the world'; जलवित्तांग, 'water-fowl'; दाचनारि, *lit.*, 'a wood-woman', *i.e.*, 'a puppet'; रामकथा, 'the story of Rám'.

a. सार्थ, in the second place in these compounds, may often be rendered, 'because of'; as, भयार्थ, 'because of fear'; स्तेवार्थ, 'because of affection'.

b. These compounds are especially common in titles of persons; as, धर्म्मावसार, 'Incarnation of virtue'; गोपोनाच, 'lord of the milk-maids': and also in proper names; as, रामचरन, *lit.*, 'feet of *Rám*'; देवोवाब, *lit.*, 'servant of the goddess': also in the titles of books; as, प्रेमयासर, 'Ocean of love'; ख्रबाबिलाय, 'sport of *Braj*', etc., etc.

c. Under this head come many idiomatic combinations in which a numeral is the last member; as, कालकोटि, *lit.*, 'a death-*kror*', 'a crore of deaths'; लायवय, 'the three penances'; नरसङ्ख, 'a thousand men'. Similarly is कामकानेक to be explained in the compound, कामकानेक कवि, 'the beauty of countless Kám Ders'.

d. राख or राउ (राख) occurs as the last member in many such compounds, denoting 'eminence' or 'superiority'; as, e.g., सुनिराड, 'the prince of sages'; सोरघराज, 'the chief of sacred places'; च्हुतुराज, 'the prince of the seasons', i.e., 'the Indian autumn'.

e. In these compounds an adjective occasionally occupies the last place; especially, याग्य (चांग), 'worthy', 'fit'; as, व्याइनयेग्ग्य, 'marriageable'.

(6) Locatively dependent Compounds are those in which the relation of the first word to the second is that of a *locative* case; as, खुद्खढ़, *lit.*, 'horse-mounted', 'a horseman'; स्वर्गेवाची, 'dweller in heaven'; आनन्द मगन, 'immersed in joy'; धनुपावि, 'bow in hand'. Here we may note

especially a large number of compounds in which  $\overline{a}$ , 'born', is the second member; as,  $\overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{a}$ , *it.*, 'the water-born', 'the lotus';  $\overline{b} \overline{a}$ , 'the twice-born', *i.e.*, 'a Brahman'; also others with  $\overline{a} \overline{z}$ ; as,  $\overline{b} \overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{z}$ , *it.*, 'night-walker', 'a demon';  $\overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{z}$ , 'aquatic animals'; and a few with  $\overline{a}$ , 'going'; as,  $\overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{a} \overline{a}$ , 'moving in the atmosphere', 'a bird'.

481. Occasionally the first member of Dependent Compounds is in the plural; as, wonefield, 'love to worshippers'; दीमनसंधु, 'friend of the afflicted'.

482. Copulative Compounds include all compounds the relation between whose members might be expressed by a copulative conjunction. Under this general class we may notice, especially,

(1) Complementary Copulative Compounds, in which the one member may be regarded at complementing or supplementing the other. These are the most common. Examples are; — माबाप, 'parents'; चन्नवस, 'food and drink'; lit., grain-water'; रामानुव, 'Rám and (his) younger brother, *i.e.*, Lakshman, lit., Rám- after-born'.

a. Words of opposite meaning are often thus coupled; as, कमतो बढ़तो, 'loss and gain'; चराचर (चर + सचर), *lit.*, 'moveable-immoveable', *i.e.*, 'animate and inanimate'.

(2) Reciprocal Copulative Compounds are those in which two words of similar or identical meaning, are grouped together with a reciprocal force. Often the second word is merely the feminine form of the first. Examples are;—main mail, 'altercation'; miss miss, 'mutual beating'. Sometimes the two members of the compound differ in a radical letter only; as, **u**; u u; u, 'neighbourhood'; uner uner, 'facing one another'.

(3) Many other combinations occur which must be reckoned as copulative compounds; but the second word seems to be added merely for the jingle, and adds nothing to the first. The same varieties of formation occur in these as have been mentioned under (1) and (2). Examples are ;---भला चंगा. 'well (and) sound'; टोबा टोर्च, 'groping'; काना कानी, 'whispering'; खात्र खात्र, 'search'; चाल चलन, 'walk', 'behaviour'; प्रकृ पाळ, 'inquiry'.

483. Observe that not only the postpositions, but the substantive inflection, is added only to the last member of a copulative compound; as, भूस प्रेसो को, 'to ghosts and goblins'; लयनरामयोत्तांइ, 'to Lakshman, Rám and Sítá. Similar is the relation of the first two nouns in the following phrase from the Prem Ságar: यह लगे पगड़ी फेंटे मिलाय मिलाय ....देवे काढ़ने, 'all began, tying turbans and waistbands together, to pull at it'; so also in the Rámáyan; इंडियाविवेकांइ भज्जई, 'he praises obstinacy and stupidity'.

a. In the same way various suffixes, as वाला, मय, etc., are sometimes attached to the last of a number of nouns, which are then to be regarded as forming a copulative compound; as, खह सोन मूंद ने। पग इह कर वाला, 'that three-headed, nine-footed, six-handed creature'; चिया-राममय सव जग जानो, 'regarding the whole world as pervaded by Sitá and Rám'; जडचेसनगुनदेश्वमय विस्व कोन्ह करसार, 'the creator (has) made the world to consist (both of) the animate (and) the inanimate, (of) virtue (and) of vice'.

484. Descriptive Compounds are those in which an adjective or a word used adjectively, is compounded with a substantive. In these the one member of the compound is predicated of the other. Examples are ;— भलमानुष (भला + मनुष्य), 'courteous'; कनफटा, 'ear-split', 'an ascetic with split ears'. Here come all compounds in which महा, (for महन, 'great',) occupies the first place; as, महायाय, 'great sin'; महाराज, 'great king'. Other illustrations are ;— याल्यजल, ('having) little strength'; परमेखर. (परम + देखर), 'the supreme God'; मध्यलेक, 'the middle world', *i.e.*, 'the earth'; बहुमूल्य, 'of much value', 'precious'.

a. Under this head fall compounds, common in poetry, in which वर or वर्ष, 'excellent', follows a substantive as the second member of the compound; as, मुनियर्थ, 'noble sage'; स्त्रीवर, 'excellent woman'. The qualifying member also takes the second place in मनमलोन, 'mind defiled', 'unholy'; and regularly in compounds implying comparison; as, सरावद्दस्याम, 'dark as the lotus flower'.

b. Sometimes an inseparable prefix takes the place of the adjective; especially, जू, (also क, का, कद् or कव,) 'bad'; as in जुसपना, 'a bad dream'; कापूस, 'a bad son'; also सु (Greek, eu), 'well', 'good'; as in सुसंग्रांस, 'good society'; also दुर, (दुष. दुस), (Greek, dus), 'bad'; as, दुर्खयन, 'abuse'; दुष्ठूर्म्भ, 'crime'; दुस्तर, lit., 'difficult to cross'. सु has sometimes an intensive force; as in सुद्दि, 'a great distance'.

Rem. Regularly, these prefixes can only be joined with Sanskrit words; but in poetry this rule is not always observed. Thus we have in the Rámáyan. सुसाइब, 'the good master', and even, सुखारिड भाई, 'the noble four brothers'. I have also noted, in poetry, सुखारिजे, (सु+ खोलके,) 'well-opening'.

c. A noun may supply the place of the adjective; as, राजदेस, lit., 'the king-goose', the flamingo'. So explain such idioms as the following; — मधुरापुरी का आहुक नाम राजा, 'a king of Mathurá named Ahuk'; where आहुक नाम is a descriptive compound, in which the proper name, आहुक, takes the place of the adjective. These might be termed appositional compounds.

d. Similar is the use of चादि as the second member of compounds; as in ब्रह्मादि, *lic.*, '*Brahmá*, the beginning'; *i.e.*, '*Brahmá* and the other gods, beginning with *Brahmá*'; सुधादि चायन, 'nectar and other kinds of food'.

e. Sometimes a Sanskrit and a Persian word meaning the same. thing are coupled together, as in सन बदन, 'the body'.

485. Numeral Compounds are those in which the first member is a numeral; as, जिलोक, 'the three worlds'; उद्यसमुख, 'thousand-mouthed'; चतुत्वाय, 'a place where four roads meet'; पंचपाय, 'the five vital airs'; शत्यर्थ, 'a century'.

486. Adverbial Compounds are those in which the first member is an inseparable adverb or preposition; as, e.g., compounds with यथा: as, यथाविधि, 'according to rule'; यथोफ, (यथा + उफ,), 'as spoken', 'true': compounds with सड्, abbreviated to स; as, सटीका, 'with commentary'; सानज, 'with (his) younger brother'; and many others: as, प्रसिदिन, 'every day'; आधिकृत, 'a superintendent'.

b. Under this head also include परस्पर, 'mutual', from ut, 'other', reduplicated with a suphonic u.

487. Many of the above compounds are adjectives, and yield no complete sense in themselves. Many others, although substantives, may also be used in an adjective sense; in which case the adjective termination 7, is often added; as, म्रानेनो, 'gazelle-eyed'; पिकटेनो, 'having a voice like the cuckoo'. But this 7 is often omitted, and the compound is used in its original form; as, मेघटार, 'cloud-colored'; नरबा, 'having the form of a man'.

Rem. These compounds used thus adjectively are constantly met with in poetry, as the predicates of an implied relative clause; of which the copula, usually, and almost always the relative also, is unexpressed. Examples of this construction will be found on almost every page of the Rámáyan.

a. The word **ब**u, 'form', at the end of compounds, often has the sense of 'of', 'consisting of'; as, माइदपी सागर, 'sea of error'. But sometimes it may be rendered literally; as, मरदपहारे, 'Hari in the form of man'.

488. Anomalous compounds are formed with मात्र and सम्लर; as, सस्मि मात्र, 'mere bone'; देशान्तर, 'another country'. पूर्य or पूर्वक is added to nouns to form compounds denoting 'manner'; as, सुद्धिपूर्वक स्वन, 'words with wisdom'; स्नेइपूर्वक, 'loving', 'kindly'.

489. Compound words are themselves often compounded with other words or with other compounds, thus forming *Complex* Compounds. Examples are ;— बट्रस्मोाजन, 'food of six flavors'; a descriptive, involving a numeral compound; नमजलचलवासी, 'dwellers in air, on earth, and in water'; a locative compound, involving a copulative of three members ; भानुकरवारि, *lit.*, 'sunbeams-water', *i.e.*, 'the mirage'; नानायुध्वस्द, (नाना + चायुध + धर), 'bearing various weapons'; an acc. dep. comp., used descriptively, in which the acc. member, नानायुध, is itself a descriptive compound. In the *Prem Ságar*, we have the anomalous quasi compound, माइ की चिन्साइपी, for माइचिन्साइपी. a. In the Rámáyan and other poetry, we find complex compounds of great length; as, जनसनसंजुमुकुरसलहरनी, 'cleanser of the filth from the beautiful mirror of the human soul'; an accusatively dependent, involving four genitively dependents and a descriptive; नवादधनवेस सहाद्रसायुध, 'having (their) nails and teeth, rocks and great trees as weapons'.

Rem. Such long compounds are often explicable by beginning with the last member, and proceeding regularly to the first. They are in imitation of Sanskrit idiom and are not admissible in prose, where the postpositions are commonly preferred even for short phrases. Still, in prose, compounds of simple form are preferred, when the two ideas are conceived of as one compound whole; as, **DANNER**, 'worshipper of the Lord'; **SANST**, 'the story of the rape of Ush d'; **TARE**, 'one who has subdued the senses'.

490. As remarked §480(5) the laws of sandhi are always neglected in all Tadbhava compounds, and very often, in compounds formed with Tatsamas also. Thus, e.g., we find, **siteson**, 'the will of Hari', for **sitesn**; **isnesu**, 'hailstones', for **ishuce**; **Nuturg**, 'distracted with fear', for **Nuturg**, etc., etc.

491. In poetry, the parts of compounds are often inverted; as, e.g., युत्तविवेक, lit., 'joined with judgment', i.e., 'discreet', for Sk. विवेकयुक्त; होनमान, 'deprived of the jewel', for मबिहोन; मर्दनमयन, 'destroyer of Mayan', for मयनमर्दन; दिनप्रति, 'every day', for प्रतिदिन; विग्रतविवेक, 'deprived of judgment'.

492. Before leaving this subject it is important to observe that a large number of Sanskrit words used in Hindí, are compounds formed with various prepositions.

The following list contains the most important :---

(1) wird, 'beyond'; as in wrard, lit., 'beyond end', 'infinite'.

(2) साधि, 'above', 'over'; as in साधिपति, 'a ruler'.

(3) यानु. 'after'; as in यानुच, lit., 'after-born', 'younger'; also with nouns, as in यानुचिन, 'daily'.

(4) were, 'within'; as in were enter , 'the internal sense', 'the heart'.

(5) and, 'away',-usually implies detraction ; as in aucara, 'blame'.

(6) with, 'to', 'towards'; as in wither, 'desired', 'chosen'.

(7) चाव, 'down',--- often implies disparagement; as, चावगाच, 'bathing', चावगाच (also चौग्राग,) the opposite of गुड, 'vice', 'demerit'.

(8) चा, 'to', 'towards'; as in चादर्शक, 'a mirror'. With the derivatives of जान्, (and also या and च,) 'to go', चा reverses their meaning; as in चाजामन, 'coming', contrasted with जामन, 'going'; so in the verb चाना, 'to come', from (चा + च). (9) उद्, (उत्. उच्. etc.) 'up'; as in उत्पन्न. 'born'; उच्चरब, 'pronunciation'; so also in उठना (Sk. उत+ स्था) lit., 'to stand up', 'to rise'.

(10) उप, 'to', 'down', 'under'; as in उपस्थित. 'prepared', li., 'stood under'. It often gives a depreciative sense; as in उपहास, 'ridicule', from इस, 'to laugh'.

(11) लि, 'down', (in contrast with उत्,) as in लिग्रामन, 'the conclusion (in Logic)'; लिग्रह, 'subduing'.

(12) निर (निस, नि, etc.,) 'out', commonly has the effect of a negative; as in निष्कलंक, 'without blame'; निर्दीय, 'without fault'.

(13) परि, 'around'; as in परिचारक, 'an attendant', lit., 'a walker around'. It often has mercly an intensive force; as in परिपूरब, 'completely filled'.

(14) ק, 'before',-hence often indicates superiority; thus, שצור, 'chief'; שלות 'effort', etc. Often its force is scarcely appreciable; as in שות (ש+ שות), 'obtained'.

(15) प्रांस, 'against', 'towards', 'back again'; as in प्रसिवादी, 'a respondent'; प्रसिकस, 'recompenso'.

(16) أقل, 'apart', often denotes 'negation', 'separation', 'distinction', etc; as in वियोग, 'separation'; विवेक, 'discrimination'; ट्यर्थ (वि+बार्थ), 'profitless', 'vain'.

(17) सम्, 'with', (opposed to वि); as in संयोग, 'conjunction'; संयाम, 'fighting', 'war'. But often its force is imperceptible.

a. Two or three Persian and Arabic inseparable prepositions and other words are also compounded with nouns in Hindí. Most common are the negative particles a and गैर (غير); as in लेकाम, 'without work'; गैर शांवर, 'not present'.

# CHAPTER X.

### Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions

AND INTERJECTIONS.

## I. Adverbs.

493. The tables on the next two pages exhibit a series of adverbs formed from the five pronominal elements noted at p. 109.

491. (1) Of the temporal adverbs, all which contain a labial vowel or consonant, have arisen from the combination of the Sanskrit noun, velá (H. ber), 'time', with one of the pronominal elements. The forms containing d, are connected with the Sanskrit series formed with the suffix da, as given in the table.

TABLE XVIII: PRONOMINAL ADVERBS.

-			1	1	1	,
PRONOM. BASE.		Prox. Dem.	Rem. Demonst.	Relative.	Correlative.	Interrog.
		था, च. ई. र. य.	ड, छ, श्रो, व.	ज, जि, (य).	त्त, ति.	क, कि.
TIME.	H.H	<b>भव, 'now'</b> .	Wanting.	जब, 'when'.	तवा, 'then'.	कव, 'when'.
	<i>B</i> .	ચાલે, ચાલે.*	,,	चबे, चेा, चद	तबे, तेा, तव.	कबे, कद.
	M.	,, चमै.	<b>99</b>	चद,चदै,चदी.	Relat. used.	कद,कदै,कदी.
	Me.	,, ,,	>>	जदू, जदां, जदां	,, ,,	कदू,कदा,कद्रा.
	Bh.	रखेर.	>>	चेखेर.	तेबेर.	केखेर.
	Sk.	Wanting.	,,	यदा.	सदा.	कदा.
	—— Н.П	aut, 'here'.	वर्षा, 'there'.	जहां, 'where'.	तहां, 'there'.	कहां, 'where'.
	В.	(डत.डते.र्डते. (यहां, यां.	उत्त. ठहां, वां.†	वित.	तित.	किल, कल.
	М.	चठै,चठी,देंठै	ਚਠੈ,ਚਠੀ,ਚਂਠੈ.	चठै, चठी.	Relat. used.	(कठै, कठो. केंठे, कोठै.
	Ыe.		(वठै,वठी,वडे,वडी. (वाडे, वाडी.	(जडे, जडी. (जाडे, जाडी.	»» »»	(माठ, पाठ. (कडे. कडो. (काडे, काडो.
	0.P.	दहां, देहां.	उहां, उहां.	(वहं,जेहां,वहवां (वहिषाः	(तइं, तद्दुरं, तइ- )वां, तोइद्या.	कहं.
Pl.ACK.	Av.		(ग्रोठियां,ग्रोठियन. (हुग्रां.	बेठियां,बेठियन.	त्तेठियां,तेठियन.	केठियां,केठियन
	R.	बहेवां.‡	उद्यंवां.	चर्च्या.	तदंवां.	कइंवां.
	Bh.	रठां,रठाई.	ৰতা, ৰতাৰ্খ.	चेठा, चेठाई.	सेठां, सेठाईं.	केठां, केठाई.
	<b>T</b> .	यइंवां,येईठान.	कहवां, म्रोईठान.	" जेईठान.	,, নৈৰ্ছতাশ	,, केईठान.
	Bún.	<b>दतै,यां,याज्ञी</b> .	<b>रुतै, वां, वा</b> ञी.	)तित्रतै, ज्यां, (ज्याञी.	तितै.त्यां. त्या- [जी.	कित्तै,क्यां,क्यासी
	Sk.	वान, <b>द्दइ</b> .¶	Wanting.	यत्र.	নস.	कुत्र.

\* Also, in the Saháranpúr district, and from the same analogy, thus; and reference of the same analogy, thus; and reference of the same series, and the same series, and on the first nasal. || The end in this series is very peculiar, but my Pundit insists upon it. In Hindí, and also, occurs, but is probably connected rather with and, etc. 34

TABLE XVIII, Concluded: PRONOMINAL ADVERBS.

PRONOM. BASE.		Prox. Dem.	Rem. Dcm.	Relatire.	Correlative.	Interrog.
		<b>च</b> , <b>दे,</b> र, य.	उ, च, चो, व	च, जि, (य.)	त, ति.	क, कि.
DIRECTION.	H.H	<b>चधर, चंदर</b> , बादर. 'hither'.	उधर, उदर, 'thither'.	जिधर, 'whi- ther'.	तिधर, 'thi- ther'.	किछर, 'whi- ther?'.
	Me.		•••	•••	•••	स्रीयैदस्रे.
	R.	<b>श्हे के</b> त.*	म्रोद्दी कैत.	वेद्दे कैंस.	तेष्टे केत.	केई कैल.
	Bh.	रम्हर, रने.†	उम्हर, उने.†	चेम्हर, चेने.	तेम्हर, तेने.	केम्हर, केने.
-						
MANNER.	H.H	ي, 'thus'.	Wanting.	ज्यूं, 'as'.	र्त्यू, 'so'.	क्यू, 'how?'.
	В.	यैां, यां.	वैां, वां, वूं.	ज्यी, ज्यो, जी, जो, जूं, जिय.	त्यों, त्यों, तौं, तो.	क्यें, क्यें.
	M.	चं, इतं.	त्रं. &	লিন্ত.	Relat. used.	<b>লিব্ৰ</b> .
	Me.	र्चकर, चेंगा.	वींकर, वोंगा.	जींकर, जींगा.	33 33	कींकर,कोंगा.
	0.P.	च्रमि.	Wanting.	जिमि.	तिमि.	किमि.
	Sk.	इत्यम्.	33	यचा.	तथा.	क्रथम्.

\* Also कयोल and कैली : मुंह is also employed for कैल. † Dr. Fallon gives the following additional variants of **द्धार**, viz.; in the east, **रहु**, **रहर**, **रहर** 

(2) Of the adverbs of place, all containing t are to be connected with the Sanskrit series in *tra*. All the other forms, in *hdy*, *the*, *dai*, etc., as will be evident from comparison, have arisen by common phonetic processes from the combination of the pronominal elements with the Sk. loc. sing. *stháne*, from *sthána*, 'place'.

(3) The adverbs of manner. in the first three dialects noted, are to be connected with an old series in *tham*, of which Sanskrit has preserved only *ittham*, 'so', and *katham*, 'how'. The y which appears in the relative, correlative and interrogative adverb, presupposes a weakening of the a of the pronominal base to *i*, giving, *e.g.*, *ki* for *ka*, and thus, *kitham*. The remaining processes are evident. The Mewárí suffixes, *kar* and *gá*, I would derive from the Sanskrit verbal roots, kri, 'to do', and *gam*, 'to go'.

495. The emphatic suffix,  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$ , may be added to any of the adverbs in the table. But  $\frac{1}{2}$  is commonly substituted for the final  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the series in  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

a. The dialects similarly add इ, ड, or डु; as, e.g., Br. सवडू.=सभी; कडूं,=कहीं; क्योंडूं,=क्यूंहीं; कधी, and in the Rámáyan, काड,=कभी and कराडुं,=कहीं; Ar. जीडू,=जबही, etc., etc.

496. Inasmuch as these adverbs are virtually substantives, they may be followed by postpositions, thereby expressing yet other variations of the adverbial idea.

Examples are ;--with  $\mathbf{\hat{e}}$ , 'from': **wa**  $\mathbf{\hat{e}}$ , 'henceforth'; **as**  $\mathbf{\hat{e}}$ , 'since'; **asa**  $\mathbf{\hat{e}}$ , 'since when ?'; **usi**  $\mathbf{\hat{e}}$ , 'hence'; **asi**  $\mathbf{\hat{e}}$ , 'thence'; **asi**  $\mathbf{\hat{e}}$ , 'whence ?'; with  $\mathbf{\hat{e}n}$ : **asi**  $\mathbf{\hat{e}n}$ , 'to what place ?'; with  $\mathbf{en}$ : **wa an**, 'of the present time'; **asi an**, 'of what place ?'; with  $\mathbf{en}$ , or **energy**,  $\mathbf{\hat{e}n}$ , etc.: **wa energy**, 'till now'; **asa energy**, 'till when', 'as long as'; **energy**, 'so long'; **asa energy**, 'how long ?'; **ust energy**, 'as far as this', 'to this degree'; **energy**, 'thus far'; **asi energy**, 'how far ?'.

a. These postpositions may also be added to some of the intensive forms; as, सभी से, 'from this very time'; यहीं का, 'of this very place'; कहों से, 'from some place', etc.

497. Various other modifications of the radical meaning of these adverbs, are expressed by their repetition and combination.

(1) Some of them may be repeated to express universality, distribution, or indefinite repetition; as, तब तब, 'whenever', followed by तब तब in the correlative clause; जहां जहां, 'wherever', regularly followed by तहां तहां; कभो कभो, 'sometimes'; कहों कहों, 'in some few places'.

(2) The relative may be combined with the corresponding indefinite adverb to express *indefiniteness*; as, and and, 'whenever'; asi asi, 'wherever'.

(3) Or the negative particle, न, may be interposed between two cognate adverbs to express a certain sort of indefiniteness; as, चन न लख, 'now and then'; कभो न कभो, 'at some time or other'; कहों न कहों, 'somewhere or other'.

498. For the pronominal adverbs of manner, यूं, etc., the oblique forms of the pronominal series, रेवा, etc., (Table XI,) are often employed.

a. The Sanskrit रवम, = यूं, 'so', occurs in poetry in Sanskrit phrases, chiefly in the formula, रवमस्तु. 'let it be so'.

b. The 3rd sing. cont. fut. चाइ. of चाइना, 'to wish', before pronominal adjectives is equivalent to an indefinite adverb; as, चाइ जिलाना बड़ा हो, 'howsoever great it be'.

499. Besides the above pronominal adverbs, are many others of various derivations. Very many of these, indeed, are, in fact, old locative cases of nouns. The following lists will be found to comprehend the most common.

(1) Adverbs of Time : as, चागे, (Sk. चग्रे.) 'before'; Dial. चगारे. चगार, चागू, चागे, चगु; चाच, (Sk. चादा,) 'to-day'; Dial. चाच, चाचु, चाचु, चाचु, चाच्चचा; कल, (Sk. कल्प,) 'yesterday', 'to-morrow'; Dial. काल, कालि, काल्कि (W. forms); तड़के, 'at dawn', 'early'; तुरन्त. तुरत, (Sk. pres. part. from तुर,) 'immediately'; तरसो, (Sk. वि + द्रवस्,) 'three days ago', or 'three days hence'; Dial. चातरसो, तरसी, तरी, तरी; नरसो, (Sk. ? + द्रवस्,) 'four days ago', or 'four days hence'; Dial. नरसी, नरी; चरसी, (Sk. घरद्वस,) 'the day before yesterday', or 'the day after to-morrow'; Dial. uरसी, परी; निदान, (Sk. नि + दा,) 'at last'; नित, नित्प, (Sk. नित्पस्.) 'constantly'; पीझे, (Sk. घट्ट), 'after', 'afterwards'; Dial. पीछू, पिछाद, पिछारे, पिछाड़ो, पाडे, पाई, पाडू; फिर or फेर, 'again'; Dial. छहोर, बहुरि,\* बहुरी, also

\* This is really a conjunctive participle, from agiven or agiven, 'to return'.

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युन, पुनि, (Sk. युनइ); भार, 'at break of day'; खारंखार, (Sk. वारंवार,) 'repeatedly'; सवेरे, (Sk. स+वेलायास, fem. gen. sing.,) 'early', 'betimes'.

a. The following are dialectic; चात्री, 'hitherto'; चकारे, (Sk. च + काले.) 'early'.

b. Of the pure Sanskrit words denoting time, which are used adverbially in Hindí, the following are among the most common, vis.; certain compounds with the affix दा, as, रकदा. 'once'; सदा, सर्वदा. 'always'; and, with the suffixes चिस् and आपि, कदाचिस and कदापि, 'sometimes', also 'perhaps'; सरकास, सरकव, 'instantly'.

(2) Adverbs of Place: सनस. (Sk. सम्यत्र,) 'elsewhere'; निकट, (Sk. नि+कट,) and नेरे. Dial. नेरेा and नेर, 'near'; पार, (Sk. पारे,) 'over', 'across'; पास, 'near', Dial. पस्यों and पाहि; and reduplicated, सास पास, 'on both sides', 'all around'; परे, (Sk. पारे,) 'on that side'; वरे. (Sk. सवारे,) 'on that side'; वारापार, वारपार, 'on both sides'; खाहिर, (Sk. वाहिस्.) 'without'; भोसर, (Sk. सभ्यन्सर.) 'within'. साग्रे, 'before', and पोझे, 'behind', are also used as adverbs of place.

a. The following Sanskrit adverbs occur, formed with the suffix त्र, viz. ; सन्यत्र, 'elsewhere'; रकत्र, 'in one place'; सर्वत्र, 'everywhere'.

(3) Adverbs of Manner: सवानक, 'suddenly'; जाने, (imp. 2nd plur. of जानना,) 'so to speak', 'as it were'; Br. जाने, जानहु; in Rám., जनु, जानिबी; मट्. (Sk. मटोत,) Dial. चट; also, मट पट (पट Sk. past. act. part. पट्य ?,) 'quickly'; ठीक, reduplicated intensive form, ठोक ठाक, (Sk. root, स्वा,) 'exactly'; देवो, (Sk. देव, 'fate'.) 'perchance'; धोरे, (Sk. root घू.) 'slowly'; निपट, (Sk. नि+पट्?,) 'very'; पैदस, (Sk. पद.) 'on foot'; बहुत, (Sk. बहु.) 'much', 'very', (for Dial. forms, vide § 255;) खेग, (Sk. खेग,) 'quickly', Dial. खेगि; साने, (imp. 2nd plur. of मानना,) 'as', 'so to speak', Dial. माने, मानहु. मानु; सगासार, (Sk. सग.) 'incessantly'; स्व., (Sk. सस्य,) 'truly', intensive form, सचसुच; चेंस, 'freely', 'gratis'; intensive form, चेंतमेंत, Dial. चेंति; होसे, 'gently'; Dial. होरे.

a. The following are dialectic: G. प्रबंडो or पायडो, 'quickly', and मुखाटे, 'slowly'; सुठि, (Sk. सुष्ट.) 'very', 'extremely'; and in the Rámáyan, खर, (Sk. वरस्,) 'rather'.

b. The conjunctive participle कारे, of करना, 'to do', is often used adverbially, for 'as'; thus, निच खन्म सुफल करि लेखी, 'I will count my birth as having borne good fruit'. Similar is the use of the Braj form, के; thus, मानुष कृष्य देव के माने, 'they regard the man Krishna as a god'.

c. The following Sanskrit words are commonly used as adverbs of

manner: चाकस्मात्, 'suddenly'; चाति, 'very'; चात्यन्त, 'infinitely'; चाधिक, 'more'; चार्यात्. (abl. sing.,) 'id est'; चानन्द, (for Sk. instr. sing. चानन्देन,) 'well', 'happily'; केवल. 'only'; निरन्तर, 'incessantly'; परस्पर, 'mutually'; (§ 486, b,) यचा, 'as'; तचा, 'so'; ख्रुचा, 'in vain'; चीच्च, 'quickly'; चहच, lit., 'born with', hence, 'naturally', 'easily'; चत्य, 'truly'. Sanskrit adverbs formed with the suffix चा, denoting 'distribution', 'kind', occasionally occur, as, in the Rámáyan, नवाचा, 'of nine kinds.

c. Here may be noted the Sanskrit particle **w**a, 'like', which approximates the nature of an affix, and always follows the word to which it refers; as, **wither wa**. 'like the servants of *Hari*'.

(4) Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation. The common affirmative adverb is द्वा, 'yes'; Bún. द्वा and द्वा; east of Búndelkhand, often ता. यद्यो, 'truly', is also very common in affirmation. The negative adverbs, are न, नहीं and मल, 'no', 'not'. Of these, मल is regularly used with the imperative only; नहीं, never with the imperative; न, with any part of the verb.

a. Dialectic variations are; for नहीं, Br. नाहि, नाह

b. तेरा, 'indeed', Dial. तेर, लड or लड, is common. In the Rámáyan, धो, is occasionally used with a similar force, usually with आव; as, आवाधों; or sometimes कि precedes; as, किधों or कोधों.

c. Various Sanskrit nouns and adjectives are also used in affirmations; as, आवश्य, 'certainly'. Rám., आवसि; निःसंदेड, 'without doubt'; निश्चय, 'assuredly'; Dial. निष्टचे. निष्टचे, निष्टचे, etc.

500. Here may be also noted the occasional use of the particles **un**, 'now', and **t**r, thus'. In Hindí prose these are never used except at the beginning and the end of narratives. Thus, at the beginning of the *Prem Ságar*, we have **un and martaives**. Thus, at the beginning of the *Prem Ságar*, we have **un and martaive**. Thus, at the beginning of the story'; and at the end of each chapter, we find the particle **t**r, which is scarcely capable of translation, but is similar in force to the marks of quotation in English. In Sanskrit, **t**r was always written at the end of a citation ; and traces of this usage are found in Hindí poetry. Thus, in the *Rámáyan*. **HEAT frame and an ant traces**, 'Holy writ, **and translate**, 'Holy writ,

<sup>\*</sup> For the derivation of these forms, vide § 372.

saying No, has sung his greatness'; The after a simply marks the negative as the word, not of the writer, but of 'Holy writ.'\* So also, in prose, The, as the first member of the compound Trails, refers to the noun or nouns immediately preceding; as, जाइसा महेश प्रयादि, 'Brahmá, Mahesh, etc'.

501. The following Persian and Arabie words occur now and then as adverbs in modern Hindi :---(1) Pers. जस्द or जस्दी, 'quickly'; खारझा, (plur. of بار, time',) 'often'; ग्रायद, 'perhaps', vulg., सायद and सादद; इमेग्रा (هميشه) 'always', vulg., इमेग्र and इमेस: (2) .1rab. सस्वला. (البطه) 'oertainly', 'indeed', vulg. सस्वत; सास्य कर (خاص کر), 'especially'; फकल (فقط), 'only'; खिसकुल्ल, (بالكل), 'altogether'; याने, (يعني), 'namely', 'that is to say'.

502. Some adverbs and nouns compounded form useful adverbial phrases; examples are;—सीर कहों, 'elsewhere'; कसो नहों, 'never'; धोरे धोरे, 'slowly', 'easily'; नहों तेा, 'else', *i.e.*, '(if) not, then'. For नहों तेा, we find in the *Rámáyan*, नाहिंस, नतु, नत and नतर ; किन also occurs, for कों नहीं, 'how not ?'.

503. Many adjectives, especially such as denote quantity or quality, are used as adverbs; as, आच्छा and भला, 'well', ('good'); चाड्रा, 'a little'; बड्रा, ('great',) 'very'.

504. Conjunctive participles are very often equivalent to English adverbs; as, जानको. 'knowingly'; मिलको, 'together'; etc. Here we may also note the use of करको, conj. part. of करना, with nouns, adjectives and numerals, forming adverbial phrases; as, परिश्वम करको, 'laboriously'; मुख्य करको, 'chiefly'; रक रक करको, 'singly'; नोचे मुंह करको, 'with face downwards'. Further illustrations will be found in the Syntax.

505. Finally, we may here notice the particle **i**, which may be placed after any word to render it emphatic. It may sometimes be rendered by 'just', 'very', or some similar word; often, however, its force can only be expressed by a stress of the voice.

a. After the pronouns यह and वह, and often after से and से, ही becomes दे, and is written as a part of the pronoun; thus, यही, 'this very'; वही, 'that very', etc. For its usage with pronominal plurals, see §202.

<sup>\*</sup> The meaning of the passage is, that the Ved, while attempting to set forth the greatness of Bám, declares that it had not yet done so; *i.e.*, that his greatness was ineffable.

Examples are ; — में यह कहता हो घा, 'I was in the very act of saying this'; दोही खार. 'just two came'; मेरे एक ही छोड़ा है, 'I have only one horse'; उस ने यही खात कही, 'he said this very thing'.

b. For द्वो or दे, Braj also has gor ज. The final दे or ज is often shortened, and Anusvár is occasionally added. In one instance in the Rámáyan (Utt. K.) उ is hardened to ज; thus, जो मन ट्रंग समार्द, 'that which the very mind contains not'. In colloquial Márwárí, दव and ज are used instead of द्वो; thus, म्हूंज,=मेंद्वी; वींज कोधो,=उसी ने किया; स्रोज को,=वद्यो था, etc., etc.

### PREPOSITIONS.

506. With the exception of those particles, more precisely termed *post* positions, which are employed in substantive declension to denote the several cases of nouns, and a very few other words, Hindí possesses no words of a strictly prepositional character. The words which, for the sake of convenience, are enumerated below, as the equivalents of the English prepositions, are really substantives in the obl. sing. Many of them as, e.g., ule, साम्हने, etc., actually occur in the nom. sing., ulan, साम्हना, etc.; and when in the obl. sing., they not unfrequently are themselves followed by postpositions, as #, ut. etc. In virtue of this their substantive character, they require the noun they modify to be in the inflected genitive. Nearly all are masculine, and therefore require the preceding genitive in a. The few feminines are noted in the list, and of course inflect a preceding an to an. Many words which have been enumerated as adverbs, are also used as prepositions and will therefore be found in the following lists.

507. The following take the noun either with or without the postpositions. In the latter case the noun must take the oblique form :—

तले, (Sk. तल,) 'beneath', Br. तर. तरे; पार, 'across'; पास. in Rám. पई, पाईि, पाई, 'near', 'to'; पीडे, Már. पाडे, 'behind', 'after'; खिन or खिना,

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(Sk. विना,) Br. विनु. बिनू; बीच, (Sk and W. Hindí, विव.) 'between', 'among'; सति, (Sk. सतित्वा.) Br. साति, 'for the sake of'; संग, (Sk. सस, 'with'. + गस, 'to go',) 'with'; समेस, 'together with'. सहित, 'with', properly a Sanskrit adjective, is used as the last member of a compound, as, प्रम सहित, 'with love'; but it also appears as a postposition, as, जाहियो सहित, 'with the carriages'.

a. यास is also used as a noun; e.g., in the Rámáyan, संवारहु चारिहु पासा, 'adorn (her) on every side'.

508. The following commonly require the preceding noun to take the genitive postposition, viz. :---

षाग्रे, 'before'; सास पास, 'around', 'on both sides'; स्वपर, (Sk. दपरि.) Már. ऊपरे, (§144,) 'over', 'above'; ठिंग, (Sk. दिक्.) 'towards'; द्वारा, (Sk. द्वार, 'a door',) 'through', 'by means of'; निकट, 'near'; नीचे, (Sk. नीच.) Br. नीचू, 'under'. (The Garhwali form, निस्सो, inflects the preceding substantive as a true postposition; as, ई ठाला निस्सो, 'under this tree'.) नेरे, 'near'; पलटे, संतो, 'instead of'; खाइर or खाहिर, 'without'; भोतर, 'within'; मारे, (perf. part. of मारना.) 'in consequence of', 'because of'; स्विये, (perf. part of सेना,) 'for', K. लये, सये, सर, Bhag. साने, सिग्रां, T. सैस. सेही, Már. हामो. नाई, 'like', requires the preceding genitive to take the fem. form.

a. समान, 'equal to', 'like', commonly requires the genitive with के; but I have noted an instance in which it is made to agree in gender with the noun to which it refers; thus, स्त्री मासा की समान, 'a woman like a mother'.

509. Dialectic are the following :--K. etc., कने, 'to', 'near', =H. H. यास; this often takes the preceding noun in the oblique form without a postposition; सुधा. (Sk. चाईस.) 'with'; in the Rám., सरिस, (Sk. सद्ग्र,) 'like'; काजे, काजे,=कारब, 'for', 'by reason of'; भावें, 'for', 'in consideration of'; in eastern Hindí, वरे,=लिये, 'for'; Már. इटेा, 'below'.

510. It is to be noted that in Rájpútáná, these words which in High Hindí are used with the gen. as postpositions, are often construct as predicative adjectives, and made to agree with the subject of the sentence in gender and number. Thus, ज महां पाक्वो खैठ्या है. =H. H. वह मेरे पीक्वे खैठा है, 'he is seated behind me'; but, वा चा पाक्वो खैठो है, 'she is seated behind me', where standard Hindí would also have सरे पीक्वे. Compare the remarks concerning उद्यो, § 144. 511. The following Sanskrit words, among others, are often used in Hindí in a prepositional sense: -- चानन्सर, 'after'; चनुसार, 'according to'; उपरान्स, 'after'; कारव. 'for', because of'; निमिस, 'on account of'; विषद्ध, (oftener बिरुद्ध,) and विप्रोस. 'contrary to', 'against'; विषय or बियय, also बिस्त, 'in respect to', 'about'; समोप, 'near'; इतु, ruly. इस, 'by reason of'.

512. The following Persian words are often used in modern Hindí as prepositions:----आन्दर, 'within'; गिर्द, 'about', 'around'; मज़दीक (نزدیک), 'near'; *rulg.* in the Doáb, नगोच, in the Himalayas, मजोक; बाक्स (fem., takes को,) 'concerning'.

513. The following Arabic words are also much used as prepositions by Hindí-speaking people:-- स्वज (مونس), 'instead of'; किसलाफ (فرس), 'contrary to', 'against'; क्रोर (بغير), 'without'; बदले, 'in exchange for'; बास्स (باعث), 'by reason of'; बाद (بعد), 'after'; बिद्रन, 'without'; सुवाफिल (مرانس), vuly. साफिल, 'according to'; वास्ते (راسط), for'; सबब, 'for', 'by reason of'; सिवा, 'except', 'besides'.

a. The following are feminine, and require को with the preceding noun :-- क्यांसिर (خاطر), 'for', 'for the sake of'; सरफ (طرف), 'towards'; सरफ (طرف), 'ike', 'in the manner of'; निस्वस

### CONJUNCTIONS.

514. Copulative conjunctions are the following :----

चौर, (Sk. चयर,) 'and'; Br. चौ, आद, वो, O. P. चवर, Bhug. खोर; मो, 'also', Dial. चो; फिर, 'again', moreover'. For भो, 'also', the Sanskrit चापि, sometimes with elision of चा, fu, is used in poetry only. पुनद, also पुन and पुनि, is used for फिर in eastern Hindí.

515. The most common Adversative conjunctions are uरन्तु, (Sk. परं+तु,) 'but'; पर, (Sk. परं,) Br. पे, 'yet'; बरब, (Sk. वरब,) 'but', 'nay'.

a. But the common people in the N. W. P. very commonly use the Arabic लेकिन, for परन्तु, 'but'; and the Arabic बल्कि, (also, *rulg*, बल्किन and बलुक,) for बरब, which latter is never used by the common people. Equally rare, and used only in poetry and scientific writing, is the Sanskrit किन्तु, =परन्तु, 'but'. The Persian नगर, 'but', 'except', is often used by Urdú-speaking Hindoos.

516. The Disjunctive conjunctions are at and waan, 'or'.

The Arabic  $\mathbf{w}$  is often preferred to these by the common people in the N. W. P. The negative disjunctives, 'neither', 'nor', are expressed by repeating the negative particle  $\mathbf{w}$  with each successive clause.

a. कि is sometimes used as a disjunctive, especially in alternative questions; as, व्या तुम जायोगों कि मही, 'will you go or not?'. The Sanskrit किंवा, (or किंवा,) 'or', is occasionally found in literature.

b. The 3rd sing. cont. fut. चाई, of चाइना, 'to wish', is often used disjunctively in two successive clauses for 'whether'....'or'; as, चाई आवे चाई न सावे, 'whether he come or not'. For the second चाई, समया may be used.

c. The interrogative क्या, similarly repeated with nouns, must also be rendered 'whether'....'or'; as, क्या स्त्री क्या पुरुष, 'whether men or women'.

517. The Conditional conjunctions are une (Sk.) or mile, and, much more commonly, an, 'if', Dial. my and a. The Persian mure is sometimes used for an by Hindoos familiar with Urdú.

518. The Concessive conjunctions are से, 'then', 'indeed', यदांप, 'although', and सम्रापि, 'nevertheless'; both यदांपि and सम्रापि are Sanskrit. But, colloquially, चा...भो is used for यदांपि, and से। or सै।भो, for सम्रापि; as, चा म्राप मुन्हे स्याग भो करें से।, etc., 'even though you should forsake me, yet', etc.

a. Dialectic variations are, for ता, Br. ता, in Rám. सउ and स; for यद्यपि, Rám. यदपि, जदपि, Br. जाडू; for तथापि, तदपि; for ताभी, Br. ताडू.

b. चाई, sometimes followed by भी in the same clause, is often equivalent to 'although'; पर, 'yet', may then introduce the consequent clause. Thus चाई वह सुके मार भी डाले, 'even though he should kill me'; चाई माल सब जाता रहे, पर धर्म्भ रहे, 'though property all go, but virtue remain'. चाई। may be thus used for चाई.

c. आगरोंच (Pers.), 'although', is only heard from Urdú-speaking Hindoos.

519. The Causal conjunctions are for, 'for', and unitar, 'because', Br. aditor, aditor, and anity. The Sanskrit noun, anter, 'reason', is also used as a causal conjunction,='because'. 520. The common *Illative* conjunction is सा, 'then'. After तेन in the *protasis*, सा is also often used in an illative sense; as, वह जा साया से मुर्फे जाना पड़ेगा, 'as he has come, I shall therefore have to go'. Under other conditions, the abl. sing. of the prox. dem. pron., यह, viz., रस से, Br. यासे, has the force of the illative 'therefore'.

521. The *Final* conjunctions are **a**, 'that', and, more emphatic, the abl. sing. of the relative pronoun, **a**, 'in order that'.

a. No negative final conjunction exists ; its place is supplied by the 3rd sing. cont. fut. of the substantive verb, with a negative before कि; as, न हो कि or रेपा न हो कि. The Persian साकि,=जिस्सें, belongs rather to Urdú than to Hindí.

## INTERJECTIONS AND ENCLITICS.

522. Vocative interjections are the following :---

दे, आहे।, आे or हो, आजी, आखे, आरे, रे, 'O'. Of these हे is the most respectful, and must be used to superiors; आं, हो, होल and आहे।, also आजी, may be used in addressing equals or inferiors when no displeasure is intended. आखे and आरे or रे always indicate some degree of displeasure or disrespect; the final ए of these three is always changed to दे in connection with a feminine noun. आं, हो and रे (रो) follow, and the others mentioned, precede the noun with which they are connected.

523. Various emotions are expressed by the following:---

ष, expresses pity, था, despondency. याइ, approbation and surprise, 'bravo', 'well !'. धन्य, expresses praise, 'bravo', 'well done!'; इार हार, also हा हा and चाइह, 'alas !'; त्राहि, (also त्राह.) is 'meroy!', *lit.*, 'save!'. जह and चाह, 'oh', express pain or disgust; जय जय, 'hurra!', *lit.*, 'victory !' 'victory !'; होको, 'fie', expresses disgust. Yet other interjections are, धिक. 'shame', also धिक्कार: दूर, begone !'; जुप. 'hush!'; लेग, 'lo!'; फिश, 'pshaw!'; स्वस्ति, (Sk. सु+खास्त,) 'salutation!'. I have also found स्वस्ति used as an adjective with a noun; as, स्वास्त खबन, 'a wellsaid word'.

524. The usual words of salutation among the Hindoos are, to equals or inferiors in caste, राम राम, Rám! Rám!; to Brahmans, नमस्कार,

#### SYNTAX.

'Obeisance!'; to Europeans or Mohammedans, चलाम, lit., 'peace!'; or, still more respectfully, बन्दगी, lit., 'service !'.

526. In the Márwárí of the 'Plays', various unmeaning letters or syllables are attached enclitically to various words. These remind us of the ancient Prakritic addition of क to which we have had frequent occasion to refer. The principal of these Márwárí enclitics are **a**, **a**. **w**, **र**, **स**, **स**], **स**न. These appear to be added alike to all parts of speech, as fancy may suggest. **स** and **स**न seem to be the most common. I cannot certainly learn whether these are used in the modern colloquial. The following examples are from the 'Plays':- **हुक**म दिया **है** कंपनोस, 'the Company', *(i.e.,* the E. I. Company,) 'has ordered'; **पांचां साई आप कैस**, 'I have come to your honor's feet'; **घटरज लेवा जाय** (**घटरज** for *Ar.*  $_{2}$ , 'go and get news'. Other examples will be found §§ 369, *a*, 393, *c*.

## CHAPTER XI.

## SYNTAX.

527. In this chapter we shall treat first of the functions of the several parts of speech under their various modifications in respect of number, case, tense, etc., and, in the second place, of the construction of sentences from the material thus exhibited. The former may be termed Ana-lytic, the latter Synthetic Syntax.

# PART I. ANALYTIC SYNTAX.

## OF THE NOUN.

## Number.

-528. The singular number denotes *unity*, the plural, *plurality*. To this general rule there are three exceptions.

(1) The singular may be used for the plural in a generic sense, to denote a *class*; as, सजाती हैं प्रति को खकुलोनी नारी, *lit*. 'base-born women desert the husband'; सुर नर मुनि को खति खानन्द हुआ, 'to god, man and sage, there was great joy'.

a. This generic singular must not be confounded with those cases in which the plural termination is simply dropped. leaving the noun, although plural, in form like the singular. Thus, in the following, उस ने खिन को द्दाय पांव को द्द्यकड़ी बेड़ी काट दी, 'he cut off the manacles and fetters from their hands and feet', the plural verb indicates <u>quaas</u> and **a**ेड्रो as really plurals, for <u>guaas</u>

Rem This omission of the plural termination occurs chiefly in the nominative of fem. nouns, and is probably becoming more and more common. The plural inflection is also regularly omitted from both masc. and fem. nouns after a numeral; as, athárah patrání, 'eighteen queens'; do gharí múrchhit rahá, 'four hours he remained in a swoon'. But sometimes with special reference to the plural, the plural inflection is used; as, apní do beiíyág byáh díg, 'he gave his two daughters in marriage'.

(2) The plural is used for the singular to express respect; as, सारे in the following: इसारे नैनेंग के सारे भी कृष्य चंद, 'the star of my eyes, Shri Krishn Chand.

(3) A very few Hindí nouns are idiomatically used in the plural, where English would require the singular. Examples are found in such phrases as भूखों, पियाचें, जाड़ें! सरना, 'to die of hunger, of thirst, of cold'. So also दास, 'price', भाग, in the sense of 'fortune', 'lot', दर्जन, 'vision', and समाचार, 'news', are very commonly construed as plurals.

# Of the Nominative.

529. The Nominative is used,

(1) As the grammatical subject of the verb; as, राजा जोर सभा में बैठा था, '*Rájá Bír* was scated in the assembly'.

(2) It is found as the predicate after many intransitive verbs, as in the following examples :---

पासाल का राजा घेवनाग है, 'the king of Pátál is Shesh Nág'; गोपी नाच कहावेगा, 'he shall be called Gopí Náth'; वह अपराधी ठहरा, 'he was counted a transgressor'; वह योगी बन गया, 'he became a Jogí'.

(3) It is sometimes used for the vocative; thus, खानासुर ने सुलायके कहा कि बेटा, 'Bánásur called and said, Son !'. (4) It sometimes stands independent by anakolouthon; as, भी कृत्व चंद का पुत्र वो जामवली से घा ... वह भी वहां पहुंचा, 'the son of Shri Krishn Chand who was (born) of Jánwatí, he also arrived there'; शास्त्रविद्या भी शस्त्रविद्या ये दोऊ उद्य पद की दैनेवारी हें, 'sacred science and military science,—these two confer high rank'.

(5) It is sometimes used for the genitive, absolutely with the infinitive; as, e.g., in the phrase, unju टूटने का मळ्य, 'the noise of the breaking of the bow'.

# Of the Accusative.

530. The *accusative* is used to denote (1) the direct object of a transitive verb; or (2) local or temporal relations.

531. To denote the direct *object* of a transitive verb, we may employ either the inflected accusative with  $\frac{1}{2}$ , or that form of the accusative which is like the nominative. Similarly, with the perfect tenses of transitive verbs, the object of the action may either be put in the dative of reference with  $\frac{1}{2}$ , or in the nominative. But these two constructions or the two forms of the accusative are by no means interchangeable.

Rem. The correct use of these two alternative forms and constructions is perhaps the most difficult thing in the Hindí language. Only by extensive and continual reading of native books and long intercourse with the people, can the foreigner become able to use them with idiomatic accuracy. But the following principles and illustrations will, it is hoped, at least throw some light on the subject.

532. The general principle which regulates the use of these two forms and constructions is the following: when it is desired to emphasize the object as specific and individual, the accusative with  $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}$  must be used; otherwise, the nominative form is to be preferred.

(1) Under this general head, observe, that in the case of nouns denoting rational beings, whether they be (a) generic, or (b) relative terms, or (c) proper names, the accusative with  $\overline{a}_1$  is more commonly preferred.

a. Under this head, examples are, (a) of generic terms; - सांग्रियों के। साथ लिया. 'he took his companions with (him)'; रेसे कायुर को क्यों माने, 'why will you mind such a coward (as Indra)?': (b) of relative terms; -- हरि मा को देखते ही कहने लगा. 'Hari, immediately on seeing his mother, began to say'; मंत्री हरिभक्तों की ढूंठ ढूंठ मारने लगे, 'the councillors, seeking around, began to kill the worshippers of Hari': (c) of proper names; -- खसुदेव ने गर्ग मुनि को खुलाया, 'Basudev called the sage Garg'; कंस ने खकासुर की भेजा. 'Kans sent Bakásur'; सब गोपी कन्हेंया की लिस जसोदा पास चलों, 'all the milkmaids took Krishn and went to Jasodá'.

N. B. खुलाना, 'to call', as implying a definite object, is almost invariably followed by the accusative with को.

(2) Conversely, for nouns denoting (a) irrational beings, or (b) inanimate things, or (c) for abstract terms, the nominative form of the accusative, or, with the perfect of transitive verbs, the nominative case, is much more commonly preferred.

a. Examples are (a) of animate, irrational beings ;— गयें चराने लगे, 'they began to pasture the cows'; खढ़ड़े चरने को हांक दिये, 'they drove off the calves to graze': (b) of inanimate, material objects ;— भी कृष्य ने अपना धरीर खढ़ाया, 'Shri Krishn enlarged his body'; यहीं ढार्क सांय, 'let us eat (our) lunches just here': (c) of abstract terms ;— मेरा दोय चित में न लोजे, 'do not take my fault to heart'; जिस पर में अनुग्रह करता हूं उस का सख धन खोता हूं, 'I destroy all the wealth of him to whom I show favour'.

(3) Although the use of the two forms of the accusative or the two alternative constructions of the object with the perfects of transitive verbs, is regulated to a great extent, especially in the colloquial, by the above principles, still it must be observed that other subordinate considerations often limit and modify their application.

a. When it is specially intended to denote the object of the verb as indefinite. the nominative form is preferred, even when referring to rational beings. Thus in the *Prem Sáyar*, Kans says, जोती सड़की न दूंगा तुम्हे, 'a living girl I will not give thee'; where the omission of को, making the expression indefinite, adds to the emphasis. Similar is the phrase, आप ने मारे हें बालक, 'you have killed children'; referring to the general massacre by Kans.

b. On the other hand, when it is desired to indicate the object with special definiteness, the form with का may be employed even with nouns denoting irrational objects or abstract ideas. The accusative with का will therefore generally be preferred when the object of the verb has just been mentioned. or is well known. Thus, विन दोनों सरवर के बोच उक्कल का आड़ा डाल, 'throwing the mortar', (*i.e.*, the mortar previously mentioned,) 'obliquely between those two trees'. Again, (P.S. Adhy. LXXXVII.) याई इस माया का चोताला है, 'that one overcomes this illusive power'. Here का indicates माया as the माया first mentioned in the previous context, where, it should be noted, the nominative form of the accusative is employed; thus, **बu**नो माया दूर करो, 'remove your illusive power'.

c. Again, in the case of plural nouns, when it is desired to denote the object collectively, as a class or a totality, the accusative with का is employed; but when it is rather to be denoted distributively, as a plurality, the nominative form or construction is preferred. Thus we read, सालइ सहस रक से साट स्वियों का साथ से, 'taking (his) 16108 wives with him',--where का denotes the object collectively; उस ने योतिशियों का खुलाया, 'he called the astrologers',--where का denotes them as a class. But in the following, the nominative form of the accusative denotes the objects as a *plurality*; ये चारो भाई चांदी साने के फूल बरसाले, 'these four brothers, showering flowers of silver and gold,--'.

d. The choice between the two forms for the object of a verbal action is frequently determined merely by a regard to euphony. Thus, especially, when an accusative and a dative occur in close proximity, the nominative form is often preferred for the direct object, simply to avoid the disagreeable repetition of का. Thus, में ने सुम्हारा पुत्र रोहिनो का दिया है, 'I have given your son to Rohini'; में चाडमसी का कुसाज़मा का मागी है लिये न दूंगा, 'Chárumatí, who is betrothed to Krítábramá, I will not give to him'.

e. So also, again, the one form may be preferred to the other simply out of regard to the *rhythm* and balance of clauses, so much affected, even in prose, by Hindí writers. Even a fancy for a rhyme may determine the choice, not only in poetry, but in prose writing. Thus, कहों किसी ने देखा मेरा कुंवर कन्हाई, 'has any one seen anywhere my boy Kanháí?', — where कन्हाई is apparently preferred to कन्हाई को in order to rhyme with माई, which ends the previous clause. Every page of the *Prem Ságar*, with its artificial, rhyming style, will illustrate this remark.

f. Finally, the accusative with  $\overline{\mathbf{an}}$  must always be employed, when otherwise the expression might be ambiguous.

533. Many verbs, transitive and intransitive, may be followed by an accusative derived from the same root.

a. Observe, this cognate accusative is invariably used in the nominative form; and rarely, if ever, without an attributive adjunct. Thus, सुम कैसी चाल चलते हो, *lit.*, 'what kind of walk are you walking?'; कोकिल मनभावन बोलियां बोल रहे, 'cuckoos were uttering their pleasing notes'; वह बड़ा बोल बोलता है, *lit.*, 'he talks a great talk', *i.e.*, 'he speaks boastfully'; सिपाही ने उस को बड़ी मार मारी, *lit.*, 'the sepoy beat him a great beating'.

534. Many verbs may take after them two accusatives. We may here distinguish two cases.

(1) The verb, commonly a causal, may take one accusative of the person, and a second, either of a person or a thing. In accordance with the above principles, the personal accusative regularly takes and usually, though not invariably, precedes the other.

(2) Verbs signifying 'to think', 'to suppose', 'to make', 'to name', 'to appoint', etc., take a second accusative definitive of the first. The first may be termed the *objective*, and the second, the *predicative* accusative. In this case the objective accusative, as more specific, commonly, though not always, takes  $\overline{a_1}$ , and the predicative accusative is put in the nominative form.

Examples are, under (1), यह सब को बागे पहिराय देगा, 'he will put vestments on all'; मैं सब को मिठाई खिलाऊंगा, 'I will feed all with sweetmeats'; and under (2), इस को तुम क्या कहते हो, 'what do you call this?'; मैं इस को दुख जानता हूं, 'I regard this as suffering'.

535. The accusative after a verb of motion may denote the *place to which*, as in the following examples :—

इन्द्र स्मपने स्थान को गया, 'Indra went to his own place'; इस्तिनापुर को चलिये, 'be pleased to go to Hastinápur'.

536. It may also denote absolutely the time at which; as, कार्तिक खदी चीदस को, 'on the 14th of the dark half of the month

Kartik ; कि कोई रास को न्हाने न पात्रे, 'that no one be permitted to bathe at night'.

N. B. The postposition is often omitted from both the local and temporal accusative.

537. The accusative with को or its equivalents, की, कई, etc., is also used in accordance with the principles above indicated, in both early and modern poetry. But in archaic poetry the inflected accusative in हि (दि) is often used for the analytic accusative with को, subject to the same general conditions. Examples of both forms are as follows :----चे निव मित्र भानु की माने, 'who regard the sun as their own friend'; राखु राम कई बोहि तोह मांतो, 'keep Rám in whatever way (you may)'; कहु कोहि रंकाई करों नरेष्ट्र, 'say ! what pauper shall I make a king ?'; मुनि रघुखराइ प्रसंस, 'the sage extolled Raghubar'.

538. It is important to observe, however, that in Hindí poetry the laws of grammar often yield to the necessities of the measure. Even agreement in gender and number is often sacrificed to the exigencies of the metre. Moreover, in archaic poetry, the modern analytic accusative is but beginning to appear in literature. Hence the nominative form of the noun is constantly employed for the accusative, with a license which in prose or in the colloquial would be quite inadmissible. Thus, e.g., in the following stanzas prose usage would have demanded are an user and user aris unfa user and, 'we thought the First Man to be a mortal' (P. S.); तस नरनाह बांस्ट खुलाये, 'then the lord of men summoned Vasisht'' (Rám.); and so in almost every stanza of the Rámáyan.

539. The inflected form of the noun alone is never used in modern Hindf for the object of a verb. But it should be noted that in Permissive and Acquisitive compound verbs as also sometimes in Desideratives, the inflected infinitive in  $\mathbf{v}$  alone, is *de facto* an accusative under the government of the following verb. Similarly is to be explained the colloquial Braj and Kanaují idiom, in such phrases as,  $\mathbf{a} \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , 'he will not eat'; where the inflected gerund, and the object of  $\mathbf{a} \mathbf{v}$ , must be regarded as an inflected accusativo.

# The Dative.

Examples are ;— जलराम जो सब को भासा भरोसा देते थे, 'Balrám Jí was inspiring all with hope and confidence'; भी कृष्य यंद सपनी माया को भाषा को, 'Shrí Krishn Chand commanded his Illusive power'; यह मूसा मोहि दुव देतु है, 'this mouse gives me trouble'. So sometimes we have a dative of the person after verbs of speaking; as, भी कृष्य यंद ने खलदेव जी का सैन से कहा, 'Shrí Krishn Chand said with a wink to Baldev Jí'. But कहना is more commonly followed by the ablative of the person.

Rem. It should be observed that the case with ko after causal verbs is not to be regarded as a dative, as might often appear from the equivalent English idiom, but as an accusative. This will appear if for the English equivalent to the causal verb, the verb 'cause' be used with the infinitive of the primitive verb. Thus, wah ghore ko ghás khilátá hai. 'he feeds grass to the horse', *i.e.*, 'he causes the horse to eat grass'.\*

(2) Dative of Necessity. The dative of a person is often very idiomatically used after an infinitive with the verb inn or ugan, to denote necessity, certainty, or obligation. The idiom is commonly equivalent to the English 'must', 'have to', etc. Similarly the dative is used after the infinitive or perfect participle with united (§ 356, b,) to express obligation.

Examples :---कल इमें सुम्हें यमदोन के यहां जाना है, 'to-morrow you and we have to go to the abode of Yamadagni'; पर्छ को पहुंचा चाहिये, '(we) ought to arrive there to the festival'; इमें मरना पड़ेगा, *lit.*, 'it will fall to us to die'; *i.e.*, 'we must die'.

(3) Dative of *Possession*. The dative is very commonly used to denote *possession* or *acquisition*.

a. The dative of possession usually follows the substantive verb; as, उन को तन मन को भी सुध न घो, 'they were not conscious even of soul and body'; सब को त्रास भयो, 'to all was terror'.

b. But often the copula is omitted ; as, इमें इतना चान कहां, 'where have we so much wisdom?'; तिन की जैसे। सुख है, तैसे। असंतोधी की नाहिं, 'such happiness as these have, the discontented have not'.

c. Or some other neuter verb may take the place of the copula; thus, दुख नाम की न रहा. *lit.*, 'sorrow remained not to the name', *Angl.* 'only the name of sorrow remained'.

\* With the Hindí idiom, compare the Sanskrit construction of causal verbs. (Williams' Sansk. Gramm. § 847.)

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d. Here may be noted the common idiom with मिलना, 'to meet', 'to be found'; which is always construed with the nominative of the thing found, and the dative of the finder. Thus, उन का चारों पदार्थ मिललो है, 'they obtain the four blessings'; मुझे कुड नहीं मिला, 'I obtained nothing'.

(4) Dative of *Advantage*. This is found after such adjectives as उचित, याग्य, 'proper', 'right', भला, 'good', कडिन, 'difficult', etc., with their opposites.

Examples :--- ऐसा साइस करना नारी को उचित नहीं, 'it is not seemly for a woman to be so daring'; स्वामी बिन स्त्री को मरना ही भला है, 'for a woman without a husband, it is well even to die'; मनुष्य को परमेश्वर का सत्यच्चान प्राप्त करना अत्यन्त कटिन है, 'for man to obtain the true knowledge of God is extremely difficult'.

Rem. येतम्य is often construed with the genitive, with a slightly different meaning.

(5) The Dative of the *Final Cause* denotes the *motive*, *purpose*, or *object* of an action, or the *use* for which a thing is designed, as in the following examples :—

पुरी को चैाकसी को कौन रहेगा, 'who will remain for the watching of the city ?'. The infinitive, in its capacity of a gerund, is very commonly used in the dative in this sense; as, देखने को कृष्य बलदेव भी सांयगे, 'Krishn and Balder will also come to see'; देखिवे की सा है साखि हो, 'for seeing, indeed, were two eyes'; कहीं रहने को ठैर बसासये, 'be pleased to show me a place to stay'. The postposition को is often omitted from this gerundial dative; as, e.g., वह पठ्ने सासा है, 'he comes to read'.

. Rem. For the dative of the final cause, modern Hindi often substitutes the genitive with लिये or झारसे, and in the east, also वरे and खासिर.

a. Here also may be noticed the peculiar use of this dative of the gerund with the substantive verb, to denote the proximate futurition of the act denoted by the gerund. Thus, वह चढ़ने का हुई, 'she was just about to mount'; वह जाने का घा, 'he was about to go'.\*

(6) The Dative of *Reference* is used after a great variety of words, to denote the object with respect to which any affirmation is made.

<sup>\*</sup> Compare the English colloquial idiom, 'he was for going'.

Thus it is so used after many neuter verbs; as, and Alt an east, "the arrow struck the peacock'; दरिद्री कीं संसार यूनी लागस है, "to a poor man the world seems lonely"; यही कहिये की जिसे सुहाय, "whatever may be pleasing to any one, that very (thing) say"; सानिस्ट जो की बांधे बांधे वाद महीने हुर, "four months passed over Aniruddh in bondage". So we may have the dative of reference after an active verb; e.g., स्ती का कहा है कि कैसा ही पास हाय, "with regard to the woman, it is said, that of whatever kind (her) husband may be".

a. To this head may be referred the use of the dative to denote the object of an action, in the *impersonal* construction (§ 332) of the perfect tenses of transitive verbs. Thus, e.g., **उस** ने सङ्कों का देखा, is literally, 'by him seen (with respect) to the boys'.

b. Finally, the dative of reference may follow some adjectives; as, पियाई पियारी, 'dear to (her) husband'; and also, some nouns, in expressions of praise or blame; as, धन्य है लेरे साइस की, 'praise to thy courage !'; धिक्कार मेरे जीतब की, 'a curse to my life !'.

541. The dative with the postposition को, (की, कई, etc.,) is also used in poetry according to the same general principles, as will appear from the following examples :- सजजन की दूख हू दिये, 'from having given even pain to a good man'; तुम कई विपति बीज विधि बयउ, 'Brahmá has sown for you the seed of trouble'. But very often in the Rámáyan, the inflected dative in दि (दि) is preferred. Thus, मासु पिसाई पुनि यह मल भाषा, 'this counsel, again, pleased her parents'; बहु विधि चेरिहि जादर देई, 'in many a way she shows the bondmaid honor'; राजहि तुम पर प्रोति विश्वेषो, 'the king has a special love for you'.

a. Or the postposition may be omitted; as, पर आकास भट सहस बहु से, 'for another's injury, warriors with a hundred hands'.

# The Case of the Agent.

542. The case of the Agent is used only with the tenses of the perfect participle of transitive verbs, and that only in modern standard Hindí and other western dialects, to denote the *agent*. Examples will be found further on in the sections which treat of the aforesaid tenses.

a. Quite peculiar and exceptional is the use of this case with the infinitive, in a Hindí translation of the *Bhágarat Purán*; where it is very common in the titles of the chapters, but occurs in no other

position. Thus the title of the 8*ih* Skandh reads, **sit** आवतार लेकर अवाना प्राय दाशी का परमेश्वर ने, *lit.*, 'the saving of the life of (his) handmaid by God, having become incarnate as *Hari*'. Again, in the 2*nd Adhyáya* of the same; कहना शुकदेव जी ने कथा गजेन्द्र वा ग्राइ की, 'the narration by *Shukdev Ji* of the story of *Gajendra* and *Gráh*'.

543. In both Braj prose and poetry the postposition ने is often omitted. Thus, सन्यासियन मेरे खिल तें सख धन कादि, लिये।, 'the Sanyúsís took out all the store from my hole'; ब्राइन कही, 'the Brahman said'; मोही से तुम प्रोति बढ़ाई, 'you have increased (your) love for me'.

544. In the Rámáyan à is never used; and in the singular, the case of the agent is thus identical in form with the nominative. In the plural, the oblique form alone denotes the case of the agent. Thus, idnis चितद कहो प्रमुखाता, 'looking toward Sitá, the lord spoke this word'; हरियरित युहाये भांति यनेक मुनोयन आये, 'the illustrious deeds of Hari, the great sages have sung in countless ways'. But, as previously remarked, the nominative with the active construction is very often used where modern High Hindí would use the passive construction with the case of the agent.

# The Ablative.

545. Most of the Hindí idioms with the ablative rest upon the idea of 'separation'. We may classify them as follows :---

(1) The Local ablative is used commonly with verbs of motion, to denote the *place from which* the motion proceeds.

Thus, खन से घर की खाते थे, 'they were coming from the jungle to the house'; मधुरा से चल दिये, 'they set out from Mathurá'; सिंहासन से उठे, 'he rose from the throne'. But sometimes the local ablative occurs with other verbs also; as, दूर से उस ने यो कृष्य चंद से कहा, 'from afar he said to Shrí Krishn Chand'.

(2) The *Temporal* ablative similarly denotes the *time* from which, as in the following:—

विसी दिन से कृष्ण कुंड राधा कुंड करके वे प्रसिद्ध हुर, 'from that day they became celebrated as the Pool of Krishn and the Pool of Rádhá'; यह रोति परंपरा से चली साती थी, 'this custom was coming on down from old time.' (3) The ablative is used after all adjectives, verbs and other words denoting *separation*.

Thus, after adjectives ;—वह इस से अलग हुआ, 'he became separated from me'; में ने उन को सब भय से निर्भय किया, 'I made them free from all fear'. It is also used after a great variety of verbs, especially, tropically, verbs of asking, refusing, forbidding, desiring, saring, etc., etc. Thus, तुम अपने पिता से जा पूढ़ो, 'go and inquire of your father'; इस से चाइता है अपनी मोच, 'he desires from me his death'; तुम ने इस के। आग की जल से किस लिये खवाया, 'for what did you save us from fire and water ?'. Similarly, the verbal noun खर्जन, 'prohibition', may be followed by the ablative; thus, का खर्जन ऋषियरों को इरिअजन करने से, 'what prohibition to the great sages from worshipping Hari?'.

(4) The ablative is used to express the source, origin, or cause.

Examples are :--- चन्द्र को मानने से कुछ नहीं दोला, 'nothing comes from obeying Indra'; दुख से आंत घखराय, 'greatly agitated with sorrow'; तू किस पाप से आजगर हुआ था, 'for what sin didst thou become a serpent ?'; नंद जो से चत्तनी खाल सुन, 'hearing this much from Nand Ji'. Thus may be explained the ablative after verbs of *fearing*, where the ablative denotes that which is the cause of the fear; as, e.g., में आपलस से डरता डूं, 'I fear infamy'.

(5) Hence, by a natural transition, the ablative comes to denote the *means* or *instrument*, as that from which action immediately proceeds; as, for example,

तू हाथो से चिरवा डालियो, 'do thou tear them to pieces with an elephant'; खुर से सोव नवी करारे, 'with (his) hoof he digs up the banks of the river'. To this head may be referred the ablative after verbs of 'filling', as denoting that with which the action of filling is performed; as, e.g., सरोवर निर्मल जल से भरे हैं, 'the lakes are filled with pure water'.

(6) Hence, again, the ablative may denote the agent.

a. Observe, however, that this construction is only found in connexion with neuter verbs or with the passive conjugation. Thus, इस से नहीं बनेगा, *lit.*, 'it will not be made by me', *i.e.*, 'I cannot make it'; उन का बल मुज से नहीं संभाला जाता, 'their strength cannot be resisted by me'.\*

<sup>\*</sup> In Naipálí the abl. postposition le is also used for the H. H. ne of the agent, in the passive construction with the perfect tenses of transitive verba.

(7) The ablative is used after all words denoting or implying comparison.

a. Thus, it is used (a) after adjectives; as, मुझ से खड़ा, 'greater than I'; रेसे पूल होने से वह आपूल क्यों न हुआ, 'why was he not sonless rather than have such a son ?'; वह सज से पहिले जा मिली, 'she went and met him first of all': (b) after verbs; as, कोई मुझ से न जोते, 'no one may conquer me'; खालहत्या से खठ़कर तो कोई पाप ही नहीं, 'there is no sin at all, greater than obild-murder': (c) after adverbs; as, इस से आगे, 'before this'; घर से खाहर, 'outside of the house'.

(8) The ablative may denote the *price*, as that by means of which a thing is obtained.

Examples :--- यह पुस्तक सुने रक रुपये से मिली, 'I got this book for one rupee'; दो ग्राने से कभी विकता है, 'does it ever sell for two ánás ?'.

(9) The ablative is very commonly used to denote the manner of an action.

Examples :- उसटे वेदमंत्रों से यद्य कर, 'sacrificing with the vedic formulas (read) backward'; नख सिख से सिंगार कर, 'adorning (themselves) from head to foot'; उस ने सांति प्यार से कहा, 'he said with great love'; This use of the ablative is especially common with such words as प्रकार, मांति, रोति, विधि, etc. ; as, इस रोति से, 'in this way'; उस मांति, 'in that manner', etc. Here also place such phrases as इस पंच से चलो, 'go by this road'.

Rem. This modal ablative denotes the noun as a norm or standard from which the action may, in a manner, be regarded as proceeding. Compare the English idiom, 'I made it from this rule'; and the Latin, nostro more, meo consilio, etc.

(10) The ablative is used after nouns expressing *need* or use.

(11) Finally, the ablative with  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  is used to express a variety of relations expressed in English by the prepositions 'with', 'by', or, more rarely, 'in', or 'to'.

Examples :-- मुभ से संग्राम कर, 'fight with me'; किसी से कलह न करवाकी, 'do not stir up discord with any one'; जिस से विधना ने संबंध किया, 'with whom Brahmá contracted an alliance'; मुंह से मुंह, 'mouth to mouth';

.डचे कृष्य भेस से देख, 'seeing him in the disguise of Krishn'; स्नाप की कृपा से, 'by your honor's kindness'.

a. कहना, 'to say', is commonly followed by an ablative of the person addressed, instead of the dative or accusative with को, which is only exceptionally used; as, सुरू ये कहो, 'tell me'; किस ये कहूं, 'whom shall I tell ?'. Other words and phrases of analogous meaning to कहना, are also followed by the ablative; as, चयोदा ये सुम ने यह खचन किसा था, 'you made Jasodá this promise'. In one place in the Rámáyaņ, however, the object of कहना takes पाहि (पाहिं); thus, तख रघुखोर कहा सुनि पाहो, 'then Raghubír said to the sage'.

Rem. It has been denied that we can correctly say, in such cases as the above, that the noun is in the ablative; and, indeed, if we restrict the word 'ablative' to its etymological sense, then the words mentioned under (10) are certainly not ablatives. But in no language is the usage of the word thus rigidly restricted. Prákrit and modern Hindí, especially, afford abundant examples of the usurpation by one case of the functions of another. It is quite possible, moreover, that 'with' may be the radical signification of se, from which all the modern usages of the word are to be derived.

546. The ablative is used in poetry in the same manner as in prose. Two or three examples will suffice; thus, पद नख ते मू खोदत मई; 'they began to dig the earth with their toe-nails'; या दृग से हुटी जलधारा, 'the stream of water which fell from their eyes'; जास कृपा सु दयाख़, 'by whose gracious compassion'; प्राय ते याधिक राम प्रिय मोरे, 'Rám is dearer than life to me'.

547. Even in prose the ablative postposition is often omitted. This idiom, however, is by no means everywhere admissible, but occurs chiefly with the ablative of *manner* or of *cause*, and, occasionally, with the ablative of *place*; as, इस रोसि, or इस प्रकार, 'in this way'; सत्र कुशल चेम है, 'all are well'; गोपी चारों कोर घिर आहे, 'the milk-maids gathered around him from all four sides'.

a. But in poetry, as usual, the postposition is omitted much more freely; thus, पूछि लोगन्द काइ उठाडू, 'she asked the people, for what was the joy', etc., etc.

548. As has been remarked (§145), the conjunctive participle arta, is sometimes used, instead of  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$ , as an ablative postposition, in the sense of 'from' only. Often, arta can hardly be distinguished in meaning from  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$ ; *e.g.*, **पाप**  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$  **ten** and **uru arta ten**, both mean 'free from sin'. But sometimes, when a distinction is intended,  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$  denotes the source,

and करको, the means or instrument, as in the following : विष से सौर विस करको .... शुभ आशुभ आपना कर्म देाता है, 'from whom, and through whom, .... one's fate, good or evil, comes'.

# The Genitive.

549. The genitive in Hindí expresses a very great variety of relations, which may be classified and illustrated as follows:

(1) Possession; as, राजा का मंदिर, 'the king's palace'; में कंस की दासी डूं, 'I am the handmaid of Kans'; यह सब मेरे छोड़े डें, 'all these are my horses'.

(2) Relationship; as, मेरा पिसा, 'my father'; उन को मारं, 'their mothers'; ये भनजे कंस को दोड, 'these are the two nephews of Kans'.

(3) Material; as, कंचन के मंदिर, 'temples of gold'; स्कटिक के चार फाटक, 'four gates of crystal'; मधुमाखियों का मुंड, 'a swarm of bees'. Here also I would place the phrase दिन को रास हो गई, Angl., 'the day was turned into night'; and some reduplications with the genitive, as, दुध का दुध, *lit.*, 'milk of milk'; *i.e.*, pure milk.

(4) Origin or source; as, धूप को सुगंध, 'the fragrance of incense'; धनुष टूटने का शब्द, 'the noise of the breaking of the bow'; जन्म के निखारी, 'beggars by birth'.

(6) Place; as, मधुरा को नारिया, 'the women of Mathurá'; देस देस के राजा, 'kings of various countries'.

(7) Age; as, was san units are an interval and the seven when Ushi became seven years old'. In this case the genitive is used predicatively.

(8) Quality or kind; as, चानेक प्रकार की खातें. 'a countless variety of things'; खड़े चार्चभे की खात है, 'it is a matter of great wonder'; दय पंचेरी का खोक, 'a load of ten payser's (100 lbs)'.

a. Here may be noted the idiomatic use of the genitive of the infinitive or gerund, to denote a *certainty*, as determined by the will or nature of the agent. Thus, **में जाने का नहीं**, 'I will not go'; **रे**सी बात नहीं होने की, 'such a thing is not to be'.

*Rem.* In this idiom, the genitive of the gerund is a predicative adjunct of the subject of the sentence, and is therefore inflected to agree with it in gender and number, as in the above examples.

(9) Use; as, खाने का पदार्थ, 'provision for eating'; पीने का पानी, 'drinking-water'; यह देह किसी काम की नहीं, 'this body is of no use'.

(10) Subject of the action denoted by the word it qualifies.

Examples :- खानासुर के भागने के समाचार, 'the news of the flight of Bánásur'; उस के जाने का कारब, 'the reason of his going'.

(11) The object of an action, direct or indirect.

Examples :— में सुम्हारे भरेासे पर रहा, 'I relied upon you'; इमें स्रांत चिंता श्वी सुम्हारो, 'we had very much anxiety about you'; मेरे सबटन न मलना, 'do not rub abtan upon me'; उस का खेटा महादेव जो की स्रांत कटिन सपस्या करने लगा, 'his son began to perform a most difficult act of penance to Mahádev Jí'; सकूर ने प्रभु के चरन का ध्यान धर कहा, 'Akrúr, fixing his contemplation on the feet of the lord, said'; यदुवांसियी का राज का साधिकार नहीं, 'the house of Yadu have no right to the kingdom'; परमेखर का पापी, 'a sinner against God'.

Rem. The same word may be accompanied either by the subjective or objective genitive, or even by both, as in the following : उन को मेरी दया कुट न आई, 'they had no compassion upon me'.

(12) Price; as, सुमे दस माने का माटा दो, 'give me ten ánás worth of flour'; यह कितने का घोड़ा है, 'what is the value of this horse?'.

(13) Time; as, आठ दिन को वात है, lit., 'it is a matter of eight days', i.e., 'eight days ago'; किसी समय को खात है, 'it is a matter of a certain time'; Angl., 'it once happened'.

(14) The *Partitive* genitive is used when it is intended to denote anything as a *whole* of which a part is taken.

Examples :-- मृष्टि का आरंभ, 'the beginning of the creation'; जमीन को चौचाई, 'one fourth of the land'.

a. Here may be classified many reduplicated forms denoting intensity or totality; as, यह सच का सच है, 'this is very truth'; मोठे का मोठा, 'very sweet', lit., 'sweet of sweet'; सभा को सभा. 'the entire assembly'; कुंड के फुंड, 'swarms upon swarms', lit., 'swarms of swarms'.

b. Observe, that when a generic term is accompanied by a noun denoting 'measure' or 'quantity', the partitive genitive is not employed, but the generic term follows the other in apposition with it; as, दे को छो जमोन, 'two bighas of land'; तोन सेर दूध, 'three sers of milk'; स्क कटोरा पानो, 'a cup of water'; दे जोड़े कपड़े, 'two suits of clothes'.

(15) Many other combinations of nouns with the genitive might be noted; as, e.g., in oaths; thus, गंगा जो को कासम, 'by Gangá Ji!': in interjectional expressions; as, in मार्च को जय, 'Victory to Mother Ganges!': in phrases denoting the contents of any thing; as, पानी का खड़ा, 'a jar of water', etc., etc. But the above specifications comprise the most important idioms.

(16) The genitive is used after a few adjectives; as, याग्य (केग्रा), and लादक or लायक (Ar. لائتى), 'worthy', 'fit'.

Examples :--- सिखाने को योग्य, 'fit to teach'; पानी को खेाग है, 'it looks like rain'; खलने को लाहक, 'fit to walk'; and, in the Rámáyan, तारिखे लायक, 'able to break'.

550. In various common phrases in which the noun limited by the genitive can be readily understood, it may be omitted. The inflection of the genitive is determined by the noun which is to be understood. Thus, the genitive is regularly omitted after सुनना and मानना; as, उस ने मेरो न सुनी, 'he did not hear me', *lit.*, 'my', (sc. खाल, 'word)'; लुम मेरा को नहीं मानसे हो, 'why do you not regard my word?' (sc. खचन).

551. It is important to observe that को is idiomatically used in many expressions denoting possession, where we might expect का or को ; as, मेरे बाइन न हुई, 'I had no sister'; मेरे एक पुत्र जन्मा, 'one son was born to me'; टट्ट को भो जीव है, 'a pony, also, has a soul'.

a. The practical rule for the use of this idiom would seem to be this; whenever, in English idiom, possession must be expressed by a verb, as, e.g., 'to have', the Hindí genitive in र must be used, whatever may be the gender of the following noun. But when, in English, the possessive case must be employed, then Hindí idiom demands the genitive with का, को, or को, according to §140. Thus, 'it is my son' must be rendered in Hindí, मेरा पुत्र है; but, 'I have a son', मेरे पुत्र है. So also, टट्टू के कीय है, is 'a pony has a soul'; but, टट्टू का कोय है, would mean, 'it is the soul of a pony'. Thus, in the Rámáyan, नाघ एक संसय बह मोरे, 'Lord, I have one great doubt'.

Rem. It has been common to postulate some such word as pås or yaháy, after this ke; but native grammarians deny that there is any ellipsis. Moreover it may be noted that in Márwárí, which inflects the genitive postposition, ro or ko, to rá and ká, (obl. masc.) and rí and kí (fem.), re or ke is also used as a *third* inflection before both masc. and fem. nouns, when possession is denoted. I would suggest, therefore, that this ke of possession probably only chances to be identical in form with the obl. masc. inflection, ke; and, in fast, has arisen from another modification of the Sanskrit participle krita. The matter, however, needs further investigation. 552. The genitive postposition is very often omitted, even in prose, when the governing noun immediately follows. The two nouns then become, in fact, a Genitively Dependent Compound. (§480,(5).) In conversation, however, the omission is much less common.

a. Peculiar is the omission of the postposition in the following phrase : से सुंह मांगा धन पावेगा, 'he shall obtain the wealth his lips shall ask', *lit.*, 'the mouth's asked wealth'.

b. In phrases expressing a date, the genitive postpositions are always omitted; as, जेठ युदी पंचमी, 'on the 5th of the light fortnight of *Jeth*'. The order is regularly the reverse of the English.

553. The genitive postpositions, का, को, कर, कोर, etc., as used in poetry, are subject to the same rules as in prose. Thus, देखन डू को देख मुरारो, 'of the very gods, *Murárí* is the God'; सुरपति को पूजा सजी, '(they) abandoned the worship of the ruler of the gods'; सोन लोक को बोक से, 'assuming the weight of the three worlds'; चरन कमल खंदी सब केरे, 'I salute the lotus feet of all'; मिटही देख दुख भवरजनो के, 'the sins and sorrows of the night of existence vanish'; न खाजु लोग खनमल काहु क कोन्ह, 'nor has (he) to this day done harm to any one'.

a. In the following sentence from the Rámáyan (Ay. K.) we have a Márwárí possessive genitive in  $\mathbf{i}$ ; सियरे वदन सूख गी, 'the face of Sítá withered'.

## The Locative Case.

554. The postpositions commonly assigned to the locative case, are (1)  $\dot{\pi}$ , (2) ut, (3) तक, तलक, लग, लो, etc. As they differ radically in their meaning, we treat them separately.

555. (1) The locative with  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  denotes, primarily, existence *in* a place.

Examples :--- उस ने व्रज में जन्म लिया, 'he became incarnate in Braj'; इस संसार में, 'in this world'.

a. After a verb of motion,  $\hat{\pi}$  must be rendered by 'into', or 'to'.

Examples :- वह सभा में गये, 'he went into the assembly'; इस्तिनापुर में राजस यज्ञ में सात्रो, 'come to *Hastinápur* to the royal sacrifice'.

b. The locative may often be rendered by 'among'.

Examples :-- स्तियों में इतनी दमक कहां पाइये, 'among women where could one find so much beauty ?'; हमी में कीन है, 'who is there among us ?'. c. The locative with  $\dot{\vec{n}}$  is used idiomatically after all verbs of 'tying', 'fastening', 'wearing', etc.

d. It is also used after verbs of filling.

Thus, इस समुद्र में चिन्ता की मेाइ बपी जल भरा है, 'this ocean is filled with the water of anxiety and vain affection'.

(2) The locative with  $\vec{\pi}$  naturally also expresses the *time* within which any thing happens.

Examples :--- उन दिनों में, 'in those days'; किसने एक दिनों में पहुंचे, 'in several days they arrived'.

(3) And it also expresses tropically various other relations, as follows:

a. Difference; as, इस तुम में कुछ भेद नहों, 'there is no difference between me and you'. It may thus follow verbs of fighting; as, उन दोनों में युद्ध रहा, 'a battle was waged between them'; or words expressing union or reconciliation; as, उन में मेल हुआ, 'harmony was made between them'.

b. Sphere of action; as, इस में मेरा कुड़ वस नहीं, 'I have not any power in this (matter)'.

c. Subject of discourse; as, उन को स्तुलि में में क्या कडूं, 'what shall I say in his praise ?'; and also, occupation; as, वह अपनी पति को सेवा में रहो, 'she continued in the service of her husband'.

d. Condition; as, पाँस के ध्यान में से। गई, 'she went to sleep, thinking of her husband', *lit.*, 'in thought of her husband'.

e. Cause; as, अस्य ही सपराध में क्रोध कर, 'becoming angry for a very small offence'.

f. Instrument; as, उस ने एक ही तीर में इस सजगर का काम तमाम किया, 'he finished this serpent's work with a single arrow'.

g. It is often used in comparison, instead of the ablative; as, रन सोनों देवसाओं में शोध वरदासा कौन है, 'of these three gods who (most) quickly grants a blessing ?'.

h. It is used after certain verbs to denote the price.

Examples :- चार आने में कितनी घास मिलेगी, 'how much grass will one get for four ánás ?'; यह गार में ने तोस रुपर में मेल सी, 'I bought this cow for thirty rupees'. Rem. The distinction between the genitive, accusative, and locative of price, seems to be as follows. The genitive denotes value absolutely, as an attribute of the subject; as, yak kitne ká hírá, 'what is the value of this diamond P'; the accusative denotes the price definitely, as that for which a thing is obtained; as, yah tum ne kitne ko liyá, 'for how much did you get this P'; the locative denotes the price under a slightly different aspect, as a sum within which a thing is bought; as, yah mujhe ek rupaye men milá, 'I got this for (lit., within) one rupee'.

*i*. The locative with में is sometimes used *partitively*; as, नव माई रकी जिन्द के दोई, 'he who has even one of the nine'.

556. The locative with **u**, 'on', denotes, (1), *external* contact. Thus it expresses,

a. Position on or upon anything; as, वह कोठो पर बैठा हुआ। आ, 'he was seated on the house'. Thus it regularly follows certain verbs; as, चोड़े पर चढ़ो, 'mount the horse'. After verbs it is often to be rendered by 'at', or 'to'; as, वह द्वार पर खड़ा है, 'he is standing at the door'; उसो कांधे कूर पर गर, 'they went to that same blind well'.

b. Distance; as, काशो से कुछ दूर पर, 'at some distance from Káshí'; एक कोस पर, 'at (the distance of) one kos'.

c. Addition; as, ताले पर ताला दे, 'putting lock upon lock'.

(2) It is used to denote the time at which; as, as one at an are an are an are an are at the exact time'; utad for ut, 'on the fifth day'.

(3) The locative with  $\mathbf{u}$  also denotes a variety of tropical relations, as follows:

a. The object toward which an action or feeling is directed.

Examples :---हम पर दया कोजे, 'be pleased to have meroy upon me'; इस जात पर मन लगाओ, 'apply your mind to this'.

b. Hence it denotes the subject of discourse, as the object to which discussion is directed.

c. It may express conformity to a rule or custom; as, इस अपने धर्मा पर रहेंगे, 'we will abide by our own religion'.

d. Also, superiority;

as, इन्द्र का कुछ तुम पर न बस साया, 'no power of Indra prevails over you'.

e. The reason of any action, as tropically its foundation; as, मेरी दस बात पर वह चल जया, 'at this word of mine he fell into a passion'.

f. Very rarely the locative is used for the ablative with a verb in the passive conjugation. Thus, in the *Rájníti*, सो पै चल्पी नहीं जास, 'I am not able to walk'.

557. The locative forms with तक, तलक, ला, or et, all denote, literally or tropically, the *limit to which* an action extends or a statement is made. There is no difference at all in the meaning of these postpositions.

Examples are ;—नाक तक पानी खाया, 'the water came up to (his) nose'; सड्को से से खूढ़े तक, 'from the child to the old man'.

a. Peculiar is the following phrase (poet.): इम लैां तू निव पियाइ संस्टारे, 'thou mentionest thy own beloved even to us'.

558. The locative postpositions, में and पर, are often omitted in prose and in the colloquial. This omission occurs chiefly in certain adverbial phrases of time and place. Thus we have, उस समय, for उस समय में (or पर), 'in' or 'at' 'that time'; पांग्रेग पोड़, 'falling at (his) feet'; पूरे दिनों संदर्भा हुआ, 'the days being fulfilled, a boy was (born)'; वह घर गया, 'he went to the house'.

a. में is almost invariably omitted in certain verbal combinations, commonly called 'Nominal' verbs; as, काम आना, (for काम में आना,) 'to be of use', *lit.*, 'to come in work'; व्याइ करना, 'to marry'; व्याइ देना, 'to give in marriage'; दृष्टि आना, 'to appear', *Angl.*, 'to come in sight'. सक and its equivalents are never omitted in prose.

559. When the above locative postpositions are employed in poetry, their usage corresponds to that already noted. A few examples will suffice.

(1) उपजाई रक संग कल माहों, 'they are produced in the water together'; से उखरे सोइ कास मई, 'they remained safe in that time'; को तुम सोन देव मई कोऊ, 'are you one of the Three gods ?'; राम प्रसाप प्रगट दाई माहों, 'in this the glory of Rám is manifest'; समिरन कर में सुरस न हर में, 'the rosary in the hand, the thoughts not on Hari'. (2) कपि हार पर, 'the monkeys on the branches'; असे भलाई ये सहाई, 'the good lay hold of goodness'; जा तुमाई सुसा पर नेडू, 'if you have affection for (your) daughter'. (3) कहद कहा लोग नाम बड़ाई, 'whereunto shall I declare the greatness of the Name ?'. a. In poetry, however, these postpositions are more frequently omitted; but any attributive of the noun in the locative. if capable of inflection, must be inflected. Thus, in the following, माहि (में) is omitted: दाँव कर नाम सुमिरि संसारा, 'remembering the name of this One in the world'; दे सुम्बरे सेवा संघ राख, 'the king is subject to your service'. And in the following, ut would have been used in prose : मोंबर सरोवाविषित्र चिम रासी, 'cold night was on the lotus-bed'; पठदय नाथ काख, 'send me, O lord, upon your service'. And in the following examples. prose usage would have demanded सक (or सलक, etc.): सोनि सहय संवत से सार्थ, 'these she ate for three thousand years'; सगन चढ़े रख, 'the pollen ascends to the sky'.

560. A noun in the locative, whether in poetry, prose, or the colloquial, in addition to its own proper postposition, may take that of the ablative, or, less frequently, the genitive. Each postposition retains in full its special meaning.

Examples are ;— इस में से कौन है, 'who of us is there ?', *lit.*, 'from among us'; पुर में का रक मनुष्य, 'a man belonging to the town'; कोई राजसभा में से निकस्पी, 'some one went out from the court'; दिल्ली को बाही पर से सहमद ग्राह का उठाया, 'he removed Ahmad Sháh from the throne of Delhi', *lit.*, 'from on the throne'. Two postpositions are commonly used after verbs of *falling*, with the noun denoting that from which one falls; as, उस डासो पर से गिरा, 'he fell off that branch'.

a. In Márwárí, the accusative postposition, ने (=H. H. को,) is also sometimes added to माहै, (=H. H. में,) when it becomes, literally, 'into'. Thus, in 'DúngarSingh', कुद पड़ेा किलाक माहोने, 'jump into the fort'.

561. Before leaving the cases which are formed with postpositions, it is to be noted with regard to them all, that, inasmuch as the postpositions still partake more of the nature of prepositions than of true case-endings, when several nouns follow one another in the same case and construction, the postposition proper to them all is used only after the last. Thus, राजा भोमसेन को कन्या दमयन्ती का बए, 'the beauty of *Damayanti*, the daughter of *Bhim Sen*'; फल फूल कंद सूल से गुजारा करने लगा, 'he began to live on fruits, flowers, bulbs and roots'. But, much more rarely, the postposition may be repeated with both nouns or pronouns; thus, नंद खरोदा से इस ने तुस ने यह खरन किया **पा**, 'you and I made this promise to Nand and Jasodá'.

# Of the Vocative.

562. The vocative is used in calling or address, either with or without an interjection.

Examples :--- दे खेटे, 'O son !'; संदियो सुने, 'companions ! hear'; पुत्री ऐसी विकल मत देा, 'daughter ! be not so distressed'.

a. Certain words in आई, often make the vocative in इया; as, e.g., from आई, 'brother', माई, 'mother'. vocative singular, भाइया, मैया. In Garhwal, चो is often similarly added to proper names; as, दे पंचमेा, 'Pancham!', eto.

b. In poetry, the writer often addresses himself by name in the vocative. Thus, मंगलकरनी कलमखइरनी तुलसी कचा रघुनाच को, *lit.*, 'joy-inspiring. Kali-yug-impurity-removing, O Tulsí, is the story of Raghunáth !'; तुलसी रेसे पतिस का खार बार धिरकार, 'Tulsí! to such a sinner, again and again a ourse !'.

#### ADJECTIVES.

563. Little needs to be said here as to the construction of adjectives in the sentence. They may define a noun either (1) attributively, or (2) predicatively.

Examples are, of (1); -- खड़ा नगर. 'a large town'; मीठी वाबी, 'a sweet voice'; खड़े घोड़े. 'large horses'; and of (2); वह चाति सुन्दर घी, 'she was very beautiful'; यह चल ठंडा है, 'this water is cold'; में ने डस को व्याकुस देखा, 'I saw that he was distressed'; यह लाठी साधी बनी है, 'this staff is made straight'.

a. The rules which govern the agreement of the attributive or predicative adjective with the noun qualified, will be found further on, in the section on 'Agreement'.

564. Adjectives are often used as nouns, in which case they are inflected like nouns of the same terminations.

Thus, बड़ों के समय से, 'from the time of the ancients (lit., of the great'); किसी चानी ने कहा है, 'some wise (man) has said'; समरच कई नहिं दोव गुसाई, 'there is no blame to the powerful, Gusáin !'.

a. When two adjectives used as plural nouns, and connected by a copulative conjunction, follow one another in the same case, the first may take the singular, and the second only, the plural form; as in the phrase, काटे वा बड़ी ने कहा, 'small and great said'.

565. Comparison has been explained and illustrated, §§169, 170. It may be noted in addition, that a very high degree of any quality may be expressed by repeating the adjective; as, man man, 'very black', मोडे मोडे wa, 'very sweet fruits'.

a. Or, for greater emphasis, the first adjective may be taken as a noun in the ablative; as, भारी से भारी पाप, 'the very greatest sins'; i.e., 'heavier than the heavy'; उत्तम से उत्तम बस्तु, 'the very best thing'.

566. Agreeably to \$545 (7), all adjectives used comparatively, require the noun with which the comparison is made, to be in the ablative.

Thus, पत्यर से भारी, 'heavier than stone'; राजा से धनी, 'richer than a king'; सब जीवों से घेष्टर, 'the noblest of living creatures'; यह उस से उसम है, 'this is superior to that'.

567. Certain adjectives are followed by a noun in an oblique case. Thus, especially.

(1) Adjectives denoting *advantage* or *fitness*, or their contraries, govern a noun in the dative.

Thus, स्त्री को उचित है, 'it is proper for a woman'; इस को याग्य है, 'it is right for us'. (Vid. § 541, b.)

(2) Adjectives denoting *likeness*, conformity, worthiness, or the contrary, commonly take a noun in the inflected genitive.

Thus, बादल के गरज के समान, 'like the thunder from the cloud'; इस के सुल्प, 'equal to this'. So also, योगमा. (Urdú نئق), often written लायक.) in the sense of 'worthy', takes the genitive; as, यह पंडिल के योग्य है, 'this is worthy of a wise man'.

a. When such adjectives are preceded by any infinitive or gerund, the postposition, especially in poetry, is often omitted, and the gerund put in the oblique singular. Thus, तुम मेरे पुत्रांग की पंडिस करवे जाग है।, 'you are competent to make my sons wise men'; में सव दसन सोरिजे सायक, 'I am able to break your teeth'.

(3) A few verbal adjectives expressing desire or affection, take an objective genitive (§ 549,(11)); as, बपयों का लोभो, 'covetous of money'; यह धन का सालची है, 'he is covetous of wealth'.

568. The adjective  $\mathbf{m}$ , 'full', is never used by itself; but partakes rather of the character of an affix, like the English 'full', in such phrases as a 'spoon-full', a 'house-full', etc. But  $\mathbf{m}$  is used much more extensively than the corresponding English 'full'. Any noun taking this affix is regularly inflected before it, as before the postpositions, whenever inflection is possible.

Examples :-- पियासे भर, 'a cup-full'; इांडी भर, 'a jar-full'. भर is used also with nouns of distance, as, कीस भर, 'as much as a kos'; and with expressions denoting time, as, दिन भर, 'the whole day'; मेरे जीवन भर, 'all my life long'; and with the pronominal adjectives, इसना, उसना, etc., when it has an intensive force ; as, जिसना उस ने मुर्फ दिया, उसना भर में उसे फिर देखेगा, 'I will give him back just as much as he gave me'.

*Rem.* In examples like the last, where the noun or adjective with *bhar* is not inflected, *bhar* may be more correctly regarded as the conjunctive participle of *bharná*, 'to fill'.

569. Adjective formations with the affix un have been already explained and illustrated, §§ 165, 166.

## NUMERALS.

570. **van**, 'one', may be used for the English indefinite article (§ 148), in cases where that article is equivalent to the phrase, 'a certain'.

Examples :--- एक पुरुष ने सुन से कहा, 'a (certain) man said to me'; एक दिन की खाल है, 'a certain day it happened', *lit.*, 'it is the thing of a (certain) day'.

Rem. It should be observed, that most Europeans use ek for the indefinite article much too freely. In the majority of cases, it should not be translated into Hindí.

571.  $\overline{van}$ , when repeated in the same clause and construction, is equivalent to 'each', or 'each one'. But when the first  $\overline{van}$  is in the subjective construction, and the other in the objective, the first must then be rendered 'one', and the second, 'another'.

Examples of both cases are as follows : एक एक चला गया, 'each one went away'; उस ने एक रक को वहां पहुंचा दिया, 'he conveyed each one there'; एक एक से लड़ा, 'one fought with another'; एक एक से खुट गया, 'each one was joined to another'. So also when repeated in successive clauses, the first एक may be translated 'one', the second, 'another'; as. एक चाला, एक जाला चा. 'one was coming, another going'.

572. एक is often used elliptically in the beginning of a sentence; as, एक तुम्हारे ही दुख से इम दुखी हैं, 'one (thing is), I am troubled because of your trouble'. If the enumeration is continued, the ordinal दूसरा, may follow in the next sentence; but even more frequently फिर or पुनि, 'again', introduces the second particular in the enumeration; as, एक में मन्दमति....पुनि प्रमु मोहि खिसारेड, 'one (thing is), I am of a dull mind; again, the lord forgot me'.

573. रक संग or रक साथ is rendered 'together'. Thus, जनमे रक संग सब भाई, 'all the brothers were born together'; सिंह गाय रक साथ रहते, 'the lion and cow would dwell together'. In this idiom, संग or साथ is to be regarded as a noun in the locative, with the postposition omitted.

574. For the use of the singular and plural form of nouns with numerals, see § 528 (1) a, Rem.

575. The Aggregative form of the numerals in  $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$  (§176), is used when it is designed to indicate the noun as a collective whole.

Examples occur in the common phrases, आठों पहर, 'the eight watches'; चहुं दिस, 'the four quarters (of the heavens)'; तोनों लोक, 'the three worlds'. Similarly, से इस्त्रों वसुदेव की व्याह दी, 'he gave those six in marriage to Basudev'.

576. Colloquially, a numeral with the postposition सक is used as equivalent to the English, 'as much as', 'as many as'. This phrase may be construed as a nominative; as, दस सक भार, 'as many as ten came'; में ने चार हायो सक देखा, 'I saw as many as four elephants'.

#### PRONOUNS.

577. A Personal pronoun, when the subject of a verb, is very commonly omitted.

a. This omission is generally allowable when no emphasis is intended, and when it can occasion no ambiguity; as, e.g., in direct address; as, जायो, 'go'; sc. सुम; बोल्, 'may (I) speak ?'.

578. Pronouns are to be regarded as of the same gender and number with the nouns to which they refer.

Thus, राजकन्या जा मामासुर ने घेर रखी घों, 'princesses whom Bhaumásur had kept captive'.

 $\alpha$ . But when it is intended to show respect, the pronoun is put in the plural, even when referring to a singular noun.

Thus, सहां के राजा .... इन्हें से जासे थे, 'the kings of that place would convey him along', where इन्हें refers to *Balrám*. And in the following, उन्हों refers to *Krishn*; हम उन्हों का ध्यान किये रहसे हैं, 'we remain in meditation upon him alone'.

b. The use of the plural for the singular of the 2nd personal pronouns, has already been explained (§ 194).

c. The use of the plural ham, for the singular main, 'I', is characteristic rather of eastern Hindí. The usage, however, is not regarded by the best authorities as in good taste, and it is doubtless better for the speaker to use the singular. Still we often find examples in literature of the use of ham for the singular; nor is it easy to trace any principle which guides the choice.

579. The use of the Honorific pronoun and, for the 2nd personal pronoun, has been explained in § 211.

580. The usage of the various pronouns referred to in the above paragraphs cannot, in the nature of the case, be adequately illustrated by individual phrases separated from their context. But we may note such passages as the following. The demon Bánásur angrily calls to Aniruddh, की है रे तू ग्रेड मकार, 'who art thou, thou within the house ?'. (P. S. Adhy. LXII). So Krishn says with anger and contempt, तें ने यह क्या किया, 'what is this (that) thou hast done?'. But again, when in the Prem Ságar one girl says to another, सबी तू कुड चिंता मल करे, 'friend, do not thou be anxious', in this instance त indicates affectionate familiarity. So the great sage Vishvamicra, with no intention of contempt, addresses in the singular the king Harischandra, as one ranking far beneath him; तुम से सधिक धनवान से। दानी कोई नहीं दुष्ट्रि साला है, 'no one appears more wealthy and liberal than thee'. A man says to his brother, in the 2nd person plural, तम्बारे साथ पास खेलें, 'let me play dice with you'; but a son to his father, साप दसना खतला दोजे, 'please inform me so much as this'; and Balrám and others to Krishn; साप की साचा से, 'obtaining your honor's permission'.

N. B. Observe, that साप, as the subject of a verb, always requires the verb to be in the 3rd plural; and if the imperative be used, the respectful form in स्ये is invariably required. Occasional exceptions are irregular and not to be imitated. The following examples may be noted : साप कहा वाले हैं, 'where is your honor going?'; महाराव रेवे साप ने क्या चिन्ह देखे, 'Great king ! what such signs has your excellency seen ?'; साप सिधारिये, 'be pleased to depart'. Similarly, all other predicates of साप must be in the plural; as, कन्व रूप के पिला रेवे कहाले हैं, 'Kanva is in this way called the father of this (maiden)'.

Rem. In the opinion of the Hindoos, the distinctions which are made in the use of the pronouns, are of great importance; and the foreigner cannot be too careful to observe them in conversation with the people. Indeed, a failure to discriminate in the use of these different pronominal forms, is often the occasion of much unnecessary dislike and ill feeling on the part of natives of India toward foreign residents of the country.

581. The choice between the two forms of the dative and accusative which occur in the singular and plural of the pronouns (§ 206), is regulated to a great extent by euphonic considerations. But in accordance with the principles indicated in § 532 (1), the forms with are preferred for personal objects.

a. But if a dative and accusative both occur in the same simple sentence, the form with  $\widehat{an}$  is apparently preferred for the accusative, and that in  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$  (plur.  $\mathbf{v}$ ), for the dative.

582. The ablative singular of the proximate demonstrative, यद, is often idiomatically used to introduce a clause expressing a consequence or conclusion; as, इस से सब सुम लोरच न्दाय आसो, 'do you therefore go and bathe at a sacred place'.

583. When यह and वह occur in contrasted clauses, यह may often be rendered 'the one', and वह. 'the other'. Thus, (P. S. Adhy. LXXXVII), ये धरे बनमाल वे मुंडमाल. 'the one wears a necklace of flowers, the other, a necklace of skulls'; and so repeatedly in the context.

584. The demonstrative, relative, and interrogative may be used adjectively before not only single nouns, but also entire phrases.

Thus, यह इसें बड़ा पाप सुगासना पड़ा, 'this expiating of a great sin has fallen to us'; सें ने यह क्या किया जा कोरो लोक लाज कान जापनी, 'what is this that you have done, to abandon your family, and shame, and modesty?'; दे समुद्र तू जा संखी यांस लेता दे से क्या तुके किसी का वियोग दे, 'O ocean ! art thou parted from some (loved) one, that thou heavest the long-drawn sigh?'.

a. Hence an is used to introduce the protasis of causal and conditional clauses; and an, less frequently, the apodosis. So also, the relative an, especially in the locative, and a ablative, are a or inter a, is used to introduce final clauses denoting the object or purpose of an action. Illustrations of the above will be found further on, in the sections on adjective and causal adverbial clauses.

585. The relative and interrogative pronouns are often used, by *attraction*, for the indefinite pronoun.

Thus, जो कोई इस से जाकर जो मांगला है, 'whatever any one goes and asks of him, that he obtains'; क्या जानिये कि किस समय क्या करे, 'who knows what he may do at some time ?'.

a. In poetry this attraction is often extended to a great length, as in the following : मलि कोरलि गलि भूति भलाई जब बेहि जतन जहां जेहि पाई, 'whoever, at any time, by any effort, in any place, has obtained intelligence, renown, felicity, wealth, prosperity'.

586. चोा is often used, especially in the colloquial, pleonastically with है, 'is'; thus, परमेश्वर वा है ये। सक्वेशांक्तमान है, where in English idiom we would simply say, 'God is almighty'.

587. The distinction between the two interrogatives, and and and and hat between the two indefinite pronouns, and and and and an has been already explained (§§ 208, 209).

a. The following idiom with कौन may be noted; इस कुटानेवाले कौन है, 'who am I, that I should deliver (you) ?'.

588. The usage of कौन in the plural varies. The Urdú oblique plural form, किन, is used; as, किन सोगों का, 'of what people ?'. But the common people often use the uninflected singular in the oblique plural; as, कौन सोग से, 'from what people ?'.

589. and is used as both nominative and accusative; the oblique form in  $\hat{m}$  is appropriated to the dative.

Thus, तुम क्या बे।सते देा, 'what are you saying ?'; but, तुम कादे की बे। के। तुम कादे की के। का you speaking ?'.

a. and is used idiomatically in expressions denoting surprise.

Examples :--- देखती क्या है कि एक पुरुष सन्मुख आय खड़ा हुआ, 'what does she see (but) that a man has come and stands before her'; चोड़े दैाड़े क्या हे उड़ आए है, 'the horses have run--(why,) they have come flying'.

b. and is sometimes used absolutely in the accusative, as in the following:

इस के मारने से परलेक क्या विगड़ेगा, 'in what respect will (my) future life be harmed ?'. Hence it is often used merely as the sign of a question; as, क्या तू ने आख तक नहीं सुना, 'hast thou not yet heard ?'. The dialectic कि is also similarly employed (§ 228).

c. For the use of an as a conjunction, see § 516, c.

d. The postposition is sometimes omitted after कादे; thus, तू कादे रावति है, 'why art thou crying ?'.

590. In further illustration of the distinction between the two indefinite pronouns, and and and  $(\S209)$ , the following points may be noted :

a. कुछ is often practically used as a plural for कोई.

Thus, 'some book has fallen', is कोई पुस्तक गिरी है; but, 'some books have fallen', is कुइ पुस्तकें गिरी हे.

b. When कोई is used substantively, the inflected form, किसी को, is commonly preferred for the accusative; but when it is used adjectively, if the accompanying noun be in the nominative form of the accusative, कोई also retains the nominative form, as in the following: सपने रहने की कोई टार रखेतो, 'will you keep any place for your residence ?'.

c. कोई is used with numerals to denote a number approximately, like 'some' in English; as, कोई दस आदमी आए, 'some ten men came'.

d. With proper names, कोई must be translated 'a certain'; as, कोई क्रधो आया, 'a certain Ulho (has) come'.

e. कुछ is used adjectively before substantives in any case singular or plural; as, कुछ दूर पर, 'at some distance'; कुछ गांग्रों में, 'in some villages', etc.

f. कार्ड and कुछ in successive clauses must be translated 'one'.... 'another'; thus, कोर्ड कुछ कहला या केर्ड कुछ, 'one was saying one thing, (and) another, another'; किसी को पानी बरसाय बहाया किसा का साग बरसाय

जलाया, 'raining water, one he washed away; raining fire, another he burned (to death)'.

g. कुङ is added to the relative pronominal, जैसा, 'as (what-like)', to impart indefiniteness ; as, जैसा कुङ द्वा, 'of whatsoever sort it may be'.

591. The *Reflexive* pronoun, **and**, may be used with both nouns and pronouns, when it is equivalent to the English 'self', 'myself', 'yourself', 'himself', etc., according to the context.

Thus, में भापने को खिला सकता डूं, 'I am able to feed myself'; वह साप कहता है, 'he himself says'. The ablative, साप से, is often to be translated 'of one's own accord'; कुत्ता साप से चला गया, 'the dog went away of his own accord', or 'of himself'.

a. In the following, the plural आपस में, refers to the persons mentioned in the context; आपस में दुख की खरवा खली, in English idiom, 'they talked with each other of the sorrow'.

b. In the following, **सपन** is accusative singular; देल सपन पुनि सानि, 'regarding himself, again, as the cause (of Rám's exile)'. Rám. A.

c. The reflexive is repeated in the idiomatic phrase, आपने आप, 'of myself, himself, itself', etc. (sc. 3); as, क्या यह आपने आप मुका है, 'has this bent of itself?'.

d. स्नाप ही स्नाप, is used in the drama, for the English 'aside'. It is evidently an abbreviation for स्नाप ही स्वाय से कहता है.

592. The reflexive genitive, **uu**, must always be substituted in standard Hindí for the genitive, singular or plural, of all pronouns, when the genitive in question refers to the grammatical *subject* of the sentence, or to the *agent* in the passive construction (§332).

Examples :--- तुम आपनी खड़ाई चाहते हो, 'you desire your own greatness'; राजा अपने देश की गये, 'the king went to his own country'; उस ने आपनी जान दी, 'he gave his life'.

a. आपना may also be used when the reference is not to the grammatical subject, but to the subject of discourse. Thus, in the Prem Ságar, तुम्हारा कुछ दोख नहीं है आपने कर्म्स का दोख है, 'it is no fault of yours, it is the fault of your fate'; जिस में आपनी कुशाल होय से कोजे, 'be pleased to do that wherein your safety lies'.

b. auant is also sometimes employed, when the reference is to the

speaker; as, wars wurn देश है, 'Avadh is my country'. So also when another is associated with the speaker; as, यह सब आपने दिनों का केर है, 'all this is the change of our times'.

c. But in the examples under a and b, the genitive of the personal pronouns might also have been used; and *must*, in general, be used in such cases, where the use of the reflexive would occasion ambiguity.

d. आपना, as well as the other pronominal genitives, is idiomatically omitted when the reference is obvious; as, especially, before nouns expressing relationship. Thus, यह स्त्री पति के निकट जाय खोलो, 'that woman, approaching (her) husband, said'; में घर खाता डूं, 'I am going to (my) house'.

e. चपना is used substantively in the plural, to denote one's own kindred or connexions; as, चा तुम चपनें हो को मारोगे, 'if you will kill even your own (friends)'.

593. The pronominal दतना, is idiomatically used in the locative case with मैं, as an adverb of time; as, दतने में क्या हुआ, 'in the mean while what happened ?'. Also observe the use of दतने in the following: दतने जून आदंगा, 'I will come at this same hour'.

594. The oblique singular pronominals, रेसे and जैसे, are colloquially used in the manner of prepositions governing the genitive, in the sense of 'like'; thus, जुङ् किला को रेसे दिसा है, 'something like a fort appears'; वह क्या साप को जैसे सुनाई देसा है, 'what is that which sounds like a cannon?'.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

The Infinitive.

595. The uses of the *Infinitive* may be classified under three heads.

(1) It is most commonly used as a *gerund* or *verbal noun*. Under this head we may note the following particulars.

a. As a nominative it often stands as the subject of a verb; as, e.g., इमें यहां रहना भला नहीं, 'it is not well for us to remain here'; *lit.*, 'for us, to remain here is not well'; में ने सुम्हारा कहना सान खिया घा, 'I (on the former occasion) believed your word'.

b. In accordance with the original use of the Sanskrit future pas-

sive participle, whence the Hindí infinitive is probably derived, it is often used as a subject with the copula, to express necessity or obligation; as, मनुष्य को। मरना है, 'man must die'; तुम को। यहां जाना है, 'you must go there'.

c. As an accusative, the infinitive is commonly used in the nominative form; as, तुम राम नाम कहना होड़ दो, 'cease to speak the name of Rám !'.

*Rem.* But in Permissive, Acquisitive, and sometimes in Desiderative Compound verbs, the infinitive in its inflected form, without the postposition, is practically used as an accusative. Examples will be found in §§ 361, 356, and, further on, in the Section on the Syntax of Compound Verbs.

d. The postposition को, of the dative of the final cause (§ 540, (5)), is very commonly omitted; as, इस साप से कुछ सांगने सार है, 'I have come to ask something from you'; स्तियां न्हान साई, 'the women came to bathe'. So also the genitive postposition is often omitted from the infinitive before certain adjectives, as, साइक, याग्य, etc., especially in dialectic Hindí; as, e.g., राखा हिरन्यग्रभे के गुन ग्रीसि करिवे बाग है, 'the virtues of the Rájá *Hiranyagarbha* are worthy of being esteemed'; में तत्व दयन सोरिबे सायक, 'I am able to break thy teeth'.

e. The dative of the infinitive, as remarked §540, (5), is idiomatically used with the substantive verb, to denote an action as imminent. Thus, नारद जो उठने को हुए, 'Nárad Ji was about to rise'; यह गाइवे की भई, 'she was about to clasp him'. In this idiom को must always be used, as also in phrases like the following ; दुर्योधन ने द्रोपोंद को जांघ पर बैठने को कहा, 'Duryodhan told Draupadi to sit on his lap'.

f. Occasionally, an action or event about to happen, is also denoted by the infinitive with ut. Thus, जब पांच खरस खोलने पर सार, 'when five years were drawing to a close'.

g. The genitive of the infinitive is often used, chiefly in negative clauses, as the predicate of a sentence, to express certainty or resolution; as, में नहों कहने का, 'I certainly will not tell'. In this idiom, the का of the genitive must be inflected to agree in gender and number with the subject; as, e.g., यह स्त्री नहों जाने की, 'this woman certainly is not going'. In the Rámáyan the same idiom occurs, the postposition, however, being omitted; as, भेन माद आहोंद न होने, 'he neither has been, nor, brother, is he, nor will he be'. The same idiom occurs in the following, where the emphatic particle **w** or **y** is added to the infini-

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tive: इन्ह सम कोड....है नोई कराहूं होनेहु नाहों, 'like these....are none, nor even ever is to be'; भयउ न है कोड होनेड नाहों, 'like you, none was, nor is, nor even is to be'.

h. While thus used as a noun, the infinitive may also govern the case proper to it as a verb. Of this, the examples already given, afford abundant illustration.

(2) The infinitive is occasionally used *adjectively*, and is then made to agree with its object in gender.

Thus, स्त्री को पांस को खेवा करनी याग्य है, 'a woman is bound to serve her husband'; स्क अस्तु पायकरि हिराय दैनी, 'having found a thing to mislay it'.

(3) The infinitive is correctly used for the *imperative*, when it is not intended to insist on the immediate fulfilment of the order, but merely to say that a certain thing *is to be done*.

Thus, (P. S. Ch. XLVIII,) Jasodá says to Udho about to go to Krishņ; यह तो तुम भो कृत्व खलराम प्यारे को देना, 'this, then, you are to give to dear Shri Krishn and Balrám'.

# The Imperfect and Perfect Participles.

596. The essential distinction between these two participles has been already indicated (§ 316), and will receive abundant illustration from the examples in the following sections. As there is no difference in their use, they are conveniently treated together.

(1) They are used *adjectively* with nouns and pronouns, both in the *attributive* and the *predicative* construction. In this case the participle **gen** or **wan**, of the substantive verb, duly inflected if necessary, is regularly added to the participle. But when there is no danger of ambiguity, this may be omitted.

a. Examples of the attributive use of these participles are as follows: कामकमाले रघ पर बैठी चाली घो, '(the women) were going, seated on the glittering chariot'; कोई दुष्ट मरा हुआ काला नाग तुल्हारे पिता के कंठ पर डाल गया है, 'some evil person has cast a dead black snake upon

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your father's neck'; सुम ने दान को हुई सार फिर दान की, 'a cow already given as alms, you gave in alms again'; उन्हों ने सुम्हारी दिई संपदा पाई, 'they received the property given by you' (*lit.*, 'your given property').

b. In the following examples these participles are used adjectively in the predicative construction : तिन को पीछे एक शूद्र मारता आता है, 'a Shúdra beating them, follows'; जरासिंध भी यें कहता हुआ उन के पीछे दौड़ा, 'Jarásindh also, thus speaking (as he went), ran after them'; जा मैं जीती जाजेगी, 'if I escape alive'; क्या तैं ने अर्जुन को दूर गया जाना, 'did you suppose Arjun to be gone far away?'. Similarly, in the Rámáyan; — यह मोहि मांगे देषु, 'give me this which I have asked', *lit.*, 'give this to me having asked'; से मुख कोटिष्टिं न पर कहनी, 'that with ten million mouths could not be told', *lit.*, 'fall told'; चरन परत नृप राम निहारे, 'Rám beheld the king falling at (her) feet'.

c. Usually when the noun qualified takes को in the singular or plural, a predicative participle remains uninflected whatever be the gender or number of the noun; thus, उन दोनों को सङ्गा देखि, 'seeing them both fighting'.

d. Under this head are properly explained the so-called Continuative Compound verbs (§ 358). Thus, e.g., in वह स्त्री गाती रही, 'that woman remained singing', it is plain that the imperfect participle, गाती, is simply a predicative adjunct of the noun स्त्री after रही. The same remark applies to analogous combinations with the perfect participle; as, e.g., in वह भागा जाता था, 'he was fleeing away', where भागा is a predicative adjunct of वह.

e. Here may also be noted the common phrase, होसा चाला साना, where both हासा and चला are predicative adjuncts; as, e.g., यह परंपरा से हासा चला साया है, 'this has come along down from old time'. In this, as in the similar phrase, होसा चला जाना, होसा represents the action as repeatedly occurring during the time indicated.

(2) The perfect and imperfect participles are constantly used *absolutely* in the inflected masculine form, to denote various circumstances of time, manner, etc., accompanying the leading verb.

Examples :--- एक ब्राझ्म आप के दर्श्व की समिलावा किये खड़ा थे, 'a Brahman, desirous of beholding your excellency, is standing (at the door)'; वह मन मारे जी हारे भारी बांधी ले रही थे, 'she, broken in spirit and dis-

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heartened, is drawing heavy sighs'; यह मुझे निगले चाता है, lit., 'th (serpent) is going, me swallowed', i.e., 'he is devouring me'; कृष्य य रहते हम क्या डरें, 'Krishn remaining with (us), what should we fear ?'

a. The perfect participle absolute स्विये, of सेना, 'to take', is oftequivalent to the English preposition 'with'; as, कोई झाझव कांक पोचो सिये साला है, 'some Brahman, with a book under his arm, coming'.

b. The perfect participle absolute is especially common in expressions which denote 'time elapsed'; as, पांच बरस हुए वह चला गया, 'fl years ago, he went away'; कितने सक दिन जोते राजा फिर गये, 'sever days having passed, the king went again'.

c. In these participles absolute, in eastern Hindí, संते \* is often us for होते; as, यह आशव्य संते, 'this being impossible'. In the followin संते is redundant : स्व देह का त्याग करत संते, 'in leaving this body'; विध भर संते पुत्रों के सधीन रहे, 'having become a widow, let her remain su ject to her sons'.

d. These participles absolute are even more common in poetry the in prose. Thus, विश्वस न करब सवसियेवकाई, 'while I live, I will n serve a rival wife'; कटल सोस नृप पैासुक सर्या, 'king Pautrik, on his hes being out off, obtained salvation'; सासु व्यन सुनिसै सब डरों, 'on hearin her word, all feared'; सुम सा...धरे देश जनु रामसनेडू, 'you are, indeed, low to Rám, as it were, incarnate'.

e. In archaic poetry, the perfect participle absolute is often use where modern Hindí would have the conjunctive participle. Thu nữ મधन पूर्कोई पितामाता, 'having gone home, they asked their parents यथा नवाई खुध विदया पाये, 'as bow the wise, having received knowledge And so *Chand* (as quoted by Mr. Beames); वांस किये भूमियां धूनि यम 'having subdued the rulers of the land with fire and sword'.

Rem. It will often be impossible to express in English idiom the distinctic between the participle absolute and the predicative participle, and often it a matter of little consequence which is used. But the distinction appears the be as follows. In the predicative construction the participle describes ( defines the subject of the verb; in the absolute construction it defines after the manner of an adverb, the verb itself. Thus, wah rotá huá chalá játá the 'he was going along weeping'; but, wah rote hue chalá játá thá, is rather, 't was going along tearfully'.

• For the Sanskrit un, pres. part. loc. absol. of un, 'to be'. Vid. William Sanskrit Grammar, § 840.

#### SYNTAX OF THE CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE.

f. It will be evident from the above examples that in the so called Statistical or Statical compound verb (§360), we have simply an imperfect participle absolute in construction with a finite verb; as, e.g., in ek apeará gáte áí, 'a nymph came singing'. So also, the so called Adverbial participle is nothing more than the imperfect participle absolute, with the emphatic particle hí. The perfect participle is similarly employed; as, rúp dekhe hí ban áwe, 'having actually seen (her) beauty, (description) may succeed'; gaye hu majjana na páwá, 'even having gone, he could not bathe'.

(3) In the third place, both these participles are often used as *substantives*, both with and without the postpositions.

Examples :- उस सेले का पसंग उठाय, 'lifting the bedstead of the sleeper'; उस ने सख के देखले खक्म को मार डाला, 'he slew Rukm in sight of all'; मेरे गये का सेगा. 'grief at my departure'; मेरा कहा मानिये, 'obey my word'; सूरज डूबले समय, 'at the time of sunset'; उस के पूछे तें क्या प्रयोजन, 'what is the use of having asked him ?'.

a. As substantives, these participles are often construed with a preposition; as, युद्ध खिन किये, 'without having fought'; खिन मेरे गये नहीं खुलेगा, 'it will not be disclosed without my having gone (there)'.

b. The substantive use of these participles is also common in poetry. Thus, सुकृत जाय अस कहल तुम्हारे, 'may your merit perish, for your speaking thus'; रदल न प्रभु चित चूक किये को, 'the defects of (our) work remain not in the mind of the Lord'; देद धरे कर यह फल, 'this is the fruit of having assumed a body'. So is to be explained a common idiom of the imperfect participle with the verb खनना, 'to be made'; thus. भरतमुख खने न उत्तर देस, *lit.*, 'from the mouth of *Bharat* no reply is made', *i.e.*, '*Bharat* could frame no reply'.

Rem. In many cases it is impossible to distinguish this substantive use of the participle from the participle absolute. Thus, in the following, muyai may be explained in either way: muyai karai ká sudhá tadágá, 'when dead' (or 'to a dead man') 'what avails a lake of nectar ?'.

The Conjunctive Participle.

597. The chief uses of the *Conjunctive* participle may be classified as follows.

(1) It is used to denote an action as merely *preliminary* or *introductory* to the action of the leading verb.

a. As thus employed it is very commonly used where English would have the copulative conjunction. It is, indeed, always

idiomatically preferred to the conjunction, except when the two clauses are distinctly of co-ordinate importance. Thus we say, पाठ-ग्रासा को जाकर पढ़ा करता है, 'he goes to school and reads', because the first verb is merely preliminary to the action of the second. But, again, we must use the conjunction in the following: वह पढ़ता कीर रिसकता है, 'he reads and writes'; because the two actions are co-ordinate. Other examples of the preliminary use of the participle are as follows: वहां जाकर उस से कहा, 'go and tell him', *lit.*, 'having gone, tell him'; कोई भोजन बनाय जिसार, 'one would prepare food and give him to eat'; ग्रोसा उठाय तो देखे, 'lifting up the stone he then sees...'; चित्ररेका से रेसा कह ऊवा बैठा, 'having spoken thus to *Chitrarekhá*, U'shá sat down'.

a. In rendering such English phrases as 'go and see', 'did you go and call him', where the leading verb is preceded by the verb 'to go', Hindí idiom often reverses the English. Thus, 'go and see', is देखि बादया, *lit.*, 'having seen, come'; यह ब्राह्मब की धुलाय खाया, 'he has gone and called a Brahman', *lit.*, 'has come, having called a Brahman'.

*Bem.* In this idiom, the participle formed with the affix i or y, is commonly preferred to that with the affix kar or ke.

b. It is well to note here the distinction between the conjunctive participle, and the perfect and imperfect participles absolute. The conjunctive participle represents the action without any reference to its progress; the two participles absolute add each their own characteristic idea, denoting the action as in progress or completed. Thus, wah kapre pahinke báhar áyá, is 'having dressed he came out'; kapre pahine báhar áyá, is 'he came out dressed'; and kapre pahinte báhar áyá, 'he came out dressing', i.e., 'in the act of dressing'. But English idiom is often incapable of expressing the distinction between the conjunctive participle and the perfect participle absolute; and, as remarked § 596 (2) e, in old Hindi, the perfect participle often takes the place of the conjunctive.

(2) By a natural transition, the conjunctive participle, from denoting simple antecedence, comes also to express the *cause* of the action of the leading verb.

Examples :--- खानासुर आति भय खाय भाग गया, 'Bánásur, greatly fearing, fled away'; नगर का जलता देख यदुवंसी भय खाय पुकार, 'seeing the city burning, all the family of Yadu cried out with fear'.

a. It should be observed, that although the causal relation may thus be expressed by the conjunctive participle, yet when it is intended to give prominence to the causal relation, it is expressed

by some tense of the verb in a subordinate clause. Thus, without such emphasis, we may say, यह मनुष्य आति अपवित्र हो नष्ट हो जायगा, 'this man, being very unholy, will perish'; but if we wish to make the cause more prominent, we must say, यह मनुष्य जो आति अपवित्र है वह नष्ट हो जायगा, 'since this man is very unholy, etc.'; or, again, यह मनुष्य नष्ट हो जायगा, क्योंकि आति अपवित्र है, 'this man will perish, because he is very unholy'.

(3) The conjunctive participle may also denote the *means* by which an action is effected.

Thus, कलिन्दी ने इरि को पांध दाख जसाया, 'Kalindi awaked Hari by pressing his feet'.

(4) It sometimes has a *concessive* force.

a. This is especially the case with the conjunctive participle देखार, etc., of द्दोना, 'to be'; thus, लिय को देख सुन बड़े बड़े मुनीश द्दाकर उठे, 'hearing and seeing him, great and mighty sages though they were, they arose'; रेसे सूर द्दा स्त्री पर शस्त्र करो, 'being such a brave, do you raise a weapon against a woman !'.

(5) It is constantly used to express various circumstances accompanying the action of the leading verb.

a. In this modal sense, it may often be best rendered into English by an adverb of manner, or by some equivalent phrase. Examples are as follows: उस ने इंसकर कहा, 'he laughingly said'; चिस दे सुनो, 'listen attentively!', *lit.*, 'giving attention, hear !'; वह क्रोध कर बास उठा, 'he spoke up angrily'; तुम ने महा आधर्म्स जानके किया, 'you have' knowingly committed a great wrong'.

b. Under this specification may be noted various idiomatic uses of करके, etc., conjunctive participle of करना, 'to do' or 'make'. Thus, वे दोनों ब्राझ्य मेरी मेरी कर भगड़ने लगे, 'those two Brahmans, crying Mine ! Mine ! began to quarrel'; खात्मा अपने को उन के साथ एक करके समभता है, 'the soul regards itself as one with these'; तुम हरि का पुत्र कर मत जाने, 'do not regard *Hari* as a son'. कर or करके is thus often added to nouns, when it gives them an adverbial force; as, वह खात मान सन्मान कर खाले, 'he, with the greatest respect and deference, said', or 'most respectfully said'. Similarly, it is added to some pronominals ; as, रात को खात सब कर सुनातो हूं, 'I am going to tell you in full the affair of the night'.

c. The conjunctive participle of हाना, 'to be', is sometimes equivalent to 'as', in such phrases as the following : में झझा हा बनाता हूं विस्तु हो पालता हूं. ग्रिव हो यंहारता हूं. 'as Brahmá, I create, as Vishņu, preserve, as Shiv, destroy'.

(6) The conjunctive participle बढ़कर, is sometime used as an *adject*ive; thus, इस से बढ़कर नहीं है, 'there is none superior to this'.

(7) Occasionally. certain conjunctive participles have a prepositional force. Thus, e.g., वह गांव इस से घोड़ा आगे बठ़के है, 'that village is a little beyond this'; वह पुरवा सड़क से कुछ हटके है. 'that hamlet is somewhat off the road'; इस की डोड़के और कोई नहीं, 'there is no other besides this'; जिस जिस देश में हो प्रभु जाते थे. 'through whatever country the lord was passing'; वह गाय रुपये ले नहीं दी जाती है, 'that cow is not given for money'; उस ने पियाला भरके दिया, 'he gave him a cupful'.

a. The conjunctive participle कर or करके, of करना, 'to make', is especially common in this prepositional sense; as, खल कारे होन, 'deprived of strength'; जिस करके, (§548,) 'through which', etc. Very idiomatic is the use of करके in the following: एक पांच तत्व करके मृत्यु है, '(there) is one death, pertaining to the five elements'; *i.e.*, 'there is one death, of the body'.\*

b. The conjunctive participle मिलको, 'having met', must sometimes be rendered 'with' or 'together'. Thus, चान ध्यान मिलको खिसराये, 'he caused them to forget both knowledge and contemplation'; दोनों मिलको गये, 'both went together'.

598. Ordinarily, as in most of the above examples, the conjunctive participle refers to the subject of the leading verb, or, in the passive construction of the perfect tenses, (§ 332,) to the agent. But sometimes it may refer, instead, to the subject of discourse. Thus, रावो का कुइ सेव समस्तर धोरज आया, 'the queen, somewhat reflecting and understanding, became composed'. This is especially frequent in poetry; as, वंधु निधन युन उपजा कोधा, 'hearing of the death of his brother, (his) wrath arose'. In the story of *Dharm Singh*, (in *Gutaká*,) the conjunctive participle once refers to the agent of a verb in the passive conjugation; thus, मारके सू निकाला गया. thou wast cast out by beating'. This idiom is often heard in the colloquial.

599. There is no difference in meaning between the different forms of the conjunctive participle. The forms in kar and ke are the most modern, and are

<sup>\*</sup> The Hindoos believe the body to be composed of the five elements, viz., 'earth', 'fire', 'air', 'ether' and 'water'; and suppose death to consist in the dissolution of these elements.

preferably employed in modern standard Hindí. But in a long succession of participles, where the repetition would be disagreeable, the root-form is often preferred. When two participles of similar meaning follow each other with no word intervening, kar or ke can be used only after the last; as, ján bújh kar, 'knowing'; soch samajhkar, 'reflecting and understanding'; khá píkar, 'eating and drinking'. So also when the participle immediately precedes the leading verb, as in certain quasi compounds, §351, the root-form is usually employed; as, wah uih dháyá, 'he arose and ran'; káshí ho áyá hai, he has come by way of Benares'.

660. By means of conjunctive participles, a sentence may be idiomatically sustained to a great length, without any danger of obscurity; thus, वहां से उठ उग्रसेन के पास खाय सख समाचार सुनाय उन से विदा है। वाहर आप खरात को सख समा मंगवाय मंगवाय चकट्ठी करने लगे, 'rising thence, going to Ugraen, and telling all the news, taking leave of him and going out, they began, sending hither and thither, to gather all the supplies for the marriage procession'.

# The Noun of Agency.

601. After the verbal Noun of Agency in and or with, the object of the action is regularly put in the genitive.

Examples :--- रेसे काम का करनेवाला, 'the doer of such a deed'; पापी लोगों का तारनहारा, 'the savior of sinners'.

a. In many cases, the genitive postposition is omitted from the object of the verbal noun, and it therefore appears in the nominative form of the accusative; as, प्रेम करनेव्याला, 'one who exercises love'; प्रजा की दुख देनेवाला, 'a troubler of the people'; वह गीस गानेवाला है, 'he is a singer of hymns'.

Rem. Native grammarians deny that in such phrases as the above, the noun is to be regarded as an accusative. They say that there is samása, 'union', of the noun and verb; so that the object of the verbal action and the noun of agency, are to be regarded as forming a genitively dependent compound.

602. As the predicate of a sentence after the substantive verb, the noun of agency is often nearly equivalent to a future participle. Thus, वह यहां ये जानेवाला दे, 'he is about to go from here'.

# Of the Tenses.

603. As already shown, (§§ 315, 316,) the tenses of the

Hindí verb are properly distributed under three heads, as follows: (1) the tenses denoting *future* action; (2) those denoting action as *imperfect* or *incomplete*; (3) those denoting action as *perfect* or *completed*. For a brief statement of the distinction between the several tenses of each group, the student may refer to \$\$ 316, 323.....328. The statements made in those paragraphs, it is hoped, will be justified by the illustrations of the use of the several tenses which will be found in the following sections. We begin with the tenses of the *future*.

# The Contingent Future.

604. The Contingent future, in modern standard Hindí, denotes a future action as conditioned or contingent. We may specify the following cases.

(1) It is used, in simple sentences, to express a *possibility*.

Thus, कोई कड़े, 'some one may say'; तुम चंडित गिरि तें गिरैां, 'with you I could drop from a mountain'.

(2) It is therefore used in the *protasis* of conditional clauses, when the condition is not regarded as an objective reality, but only as a *possibility*. And similarly it is employed, in the *apodosis* of conditional clauses, whenever the conclusion is only affirmed as *possible*.

Thus, in the protasis, we have, जो तुम उस को एक खेर देखे। ता फिर रेसी न कहांगो, 'if you once see her, then you will not again say such a (thing)'; and, in both protasis and apodosis, स्वी के समान खर मिले तो दें, '(if) a husband be found (who is) her equal, then we may give (her)'.

(3) Similarly the contingent future is required in rela-tive clauses implying a condition, when the condition is merely supposed to exist.

Thus, मन क्रम वचन कपट लोज के। कर भूसुरसेव, 'whoever, abandoning deceit, in heart, deed, and word, serves the lords of the earth (*i.e.*, Brahmans)'.

(4) Hence, again, it is used (a) in all *final* clauses denoting *purpose*, and (b) in all clauses denoting the *result* of an action, when that result is regarded not as a reality, but merely as a future possibility.

Thus, under (a), इस बास की चर्चा इम ने इस लिये की है कि...उस का ग्रंका दूर हा जाय, 'I have mentioned this thing that...his doubt may be removed'; and, under (b), सुन्ने रेखे बली कीजे कि कोई सुन्ने न जीस सके, 'make me so powerful that no one may be able to overcome me'; रेखे उपाय करो जिस से वह राजार्थ फिर मिले, 'contrive some plan by which I, may again meet that royal sage'.

(5) It may express *liberty*.

Thus, आद्या दे। तो इम घर जांय. 'if permission be given, then we may go home'; मार ते। डालूं, 'I might, indeed, kill (her)': and in questions; as, में जार्क, 'may I go'; इम यहां रहें, 'may we remain here ?'.

(6) It must be used in all interrogative phrases relating to the future, which imply *uncertainty* or *perplexity*.

Thus, इम इस लड़को को किस को दें, 'to whom shall we give this girl?'; इम क्या करें, 'what shall we do ?'.

(7) It must be used to denote a future action or event when the time of its occurrence or continuance is regarded as *indefinite*.

Examples :--- जब यह ध्वता आप से गिरे तब मेरे पास आदयो, 'whenever this banner shall fall of itself, then come to me'; जब इम पुकारें तब उत्तर देा, 'when we call, then answer (us)'; जब तक मैं यहां रहूं, 'so long as I remain here'.

(8) It is also sometimes used to express an intention.

Examples :--- जो मैं आज आप से न मिलूं तो आग में जल मर्ड, 'if I be not united with you to-day, then I will burn myself to death'; जो इस हारें तो तुम्हारे दास होकर रहें. 'if I am beaten, then I will remain with you as a slave'; में तुम्से व्या मार्ड. 'why should I kill thee ?'.

(9) It is used to express a wish.

(10) It is used in comparisons, denoting that with which

the comparison is made, not as an objective reality, but merely as a supposed case.

(11) It may express a concession.

Examples :-- स्त्री अपने पति से जिसना कष्ट पावे, 'however much hardship a woman may experience from her husband'; कवि न होर्ड न चतुर कहार्ड. '(though) I be not a poet, nor be called clever'.

(12) It is employed to express *propriety* or *duty*; and after clauses expressing 'fitness', 'unfitness', etc.

Examples :-- फिर उस को यह भी दिखावे, 'again, it should show him this also'; सुम को कब योग्य है कि बन में वसे. 'when (i.e., how) is it befitting you that you should live in the wilderness?'.

(13) It is sometimes used, in the 2nd singular, for the imperative.

Examples :--- तू इमारे चरन मत परसे, 'do not thou touch our feet'; मेा से कपट करे जिन पियारी, 'do not deceive me. beloved !'.

605. It is important to observe that the accurate discrimination which has appropriated the Contingent Future exclusively to the indication of contingent futurition, belongs only to the most modern development of the language. In old Hindí, as, c.g. in the Rámáyan, the forms denote not only contingency, but also the certain futurition of an action, and even, as previously remarked, an action in the present. The proverbs of the language afford abundant illustration of the use of this tense in its original character, (§459,) as a present. Thus, e.g., háth ko háth pahcháne, 'the hand knows the hand'. Other illustrations will be found in the section on the syntax of the Present Imperfect.

## The Imperative.

606. The imperative needs little illustration. We may observe,

(1) It is the only tense ordinarily admissible in command and prohibition.

N.B. The future cannot be substituted for the imperative. 'Thou shalt not steal', in Hindí is tú chorí na kar; chorí na karegá, would be 'wilt not steal'.

(2) In prohibition, a or an may often be indifferently

#### SYNTAX OF THE IMPERATIVE ; RESPECTFUL FORMS.

used. But when the phrase consists only of the imperative and the negative, मत is preferred to न; thus, मत बासो, 'do not go'; मत देखिया, 'do not run'. नहों, as containing the present of the substantive verb, (§372,) cannot be used with the imperative.

(3) The use of the singular and plural forms of the imperative is determined by the pronominal form which is used. (§§ 578, a, 580.)

(4) To the 1st and 3rd persons of the imperative are to be assigned all hortatory phrases.

a. But it is to be noted that whenever the English 'let', means to 'allow' or 'permit', not the imperative, but the permissive compound must be used. Thus, 'let us go', in the hortatory sense is इस जांय ; but if it mean, 'permit us to go', we must render the phrase, इस की जाने दे.

b. Further examples of the use of the imperative are as follows: ज्ञाकुन्सला से भो पूढ, 'ask (thou) Shakuntalá also'; सुम तो यादवी को मारो, 'do you then destroy the Yádars'; इस भी खैठें, 'let us too sit down'; खलो खानासुर से जाय कई, 'come, let us go and tell Bánásur'; तेरे मन कौ दुख परिहरों, 'let me remove the sorrow of thy heart'. Poetic examples are ;---पावक महं करह निवासू, 'make your abode in the fire'; से जानख स्तसंग प्रभाज, 'know, that it was) in virtue of good association'; ताहि वाह तू मूल, 'sow thou for him flowers'.

# The Respectful forms of the Imperative.

607. Of the two Respectful forms of the imperative, in  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_2$ , the latter is the more respectful. The form in  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1$ is properly used only to equals and inferiors; that in  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_2$ , to equals and superiors, but never to inferiors. The less frequent form in  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1$  does not differ from that in  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_2$ .

Thus, in the Prem Sáyar, Satrajít says to his wife, सू कियू के सोहों मल कहियो, 'do not mention (it) before any one'; and Krishna to his companions, लुम दस दिन लक यहां रहियो, 'remain here for ten days'; and the Sun-god to Satrajít, इस की मेरे समान जानिया, 'regard this (person) as equal to me'. But the cowherds say to Krishna, इस महा भयावनी गुफा में आप भी न जाहये, 'into this great (and) dreadful cave neither let your honor enter'; again, to Krishna, मुझे दास समझकर कृपा रक्षियेगा, 'regarding me as your servant be pleased to have mercy';

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करिय न संसय भास उर भानी, 'raising such questions in your heart, cherish no doubt'.

a. In the following, the respectful form is used in the 1st plural, in a hortative sense : देखिय कांग कहां कर आहो, 'let us' (or 'me') 'see the monkey, of what place he is'.

608. Forms outwardly identical with these respectful forms, are often used, especially in poetry, for the contingent future, and even for the present. Thus, जा मर जादय ला संघार के दुख वे कूटिये, 'if one die, then he is released from the sorrow of the world'; वायस पालिय सांस सनुराजा, '(though) one bring up a crow with extreme affection'; जादय बिनु बालेषु न संदेहा, 'though you should go even without having been called, there is no danger'.

a. In the following, the form in र is used in the 1st singular of the contingent future; as, इस लिये में आया डूं कि अपने भाइयों को ले जाय माला को दोत्रे, 'I have come here for this (purpose) that I may take away my brothers, and give (them) to (my) mother'.

b. In the following, the form in येगा is used for the absolute future; जब साप कोपियेगा तधी भाग जांयगे, 'when your honor shall please to be angry, then at once they will flee away'.

609. The explanation of the use of these forms in ya, yc, etc., in these various tenses, is to be found in their derivation from the Prákrit affix jja, which in Prákrit appears not only in the imperative, but was also added to the root to form a present and future. (Vid. §§ 459, *Rem.* 2, 462.) It is not therefore correct to say, as many do, that these respectful forms of the imperative and absolute future are used for the present and future.

610. In many cases, again, these forms in wi and we must be interpreted as the remainder of the old Prákrit passive conjugation formed with the suffix ijja, (§ 467,) now almost obsolete. Thus. in particular, I would interpret the common idiom with चाहिये, expressive of 'duty' or 'obligation'; as, इमें वहां जाना चाहिये. Here चाना, (sometimes जाया,) is evidently the nominative to चाहिये, and we may render, lit., 'with respect to us, to go there is' (or 'should be,) desired'. In the following examples also, these forms in  $\mathbf{u}$  should be explained as passives : न जानिये यह क्योंकर जिया, lit., 'it is not known how this (man) lived'; इसें जा जा बस्तु चाहिये, 'whatever things we ought to have'; lit., 'whatever things should be desired for us'; sea से। लुनिय, लोइय जा दीन्हा, 'that is reaped which was sown, that is received which was given'; सुधा सराहिय समरता, गरल सराहिय मोच, 'ambrosia is praised by Immortality, poison is praised by Death'.

#### The Absolute Future.

611. As remarked in § 316, in the absolute future a future action or state of being is either (1) affirmed, or (2) assumed as a *certainty*.

Examples: (1) रेसा खर घर और कहों न मिलेगा, 'such a husband (and) house will not be found elsewhere'; में कल आजंगा, 'I will come tomorrow'; सब हुं या की मारिहो, 'I will kill this (snake) immediately'; भली मॉल पक्ताब पिताडू, 'you, (my) father, will thoroughly repent (of this)'; इंसी करेंडडु पर पुर वार्ड, 'you will cause a laugh, going to a strange city'; सब को जोवांडंगे, 'now how will we liye'; जहां तुम जावगे, तहां हम डूं जाहिंगे, 'where you go, there I will go': (2) का कृष्य को देंगे, ता लाग कहेंगे, 'if we shall give (her) to Krishua, then people will say—'; ये भाट सब न पावेंगे, ता अपकीर्ति करेंगे, 'if these bards shall receive nothing, then they will give us a bad name'.

612. The future of the substantive verb is often very idiomatically used, both alone and as an auxiliary, to denote what is *presumed* to be true.

Thus, पिता कन्व को ये तुक से भी आधिक पियारे होंगे, 'to (our) father Kanva, these are doubtless dearer than even thou (art)'.

a. The future 3rd singular, होगा, is thus often used alone, in answers, as equivalent to the adverb 'probably'. Thus, क्या यह नगर बहुत पुराना है? होगा, 'is this town very old? Probably'.

613. Occasionally in the Rámáyan, the future in हैं।, हाँह, etc., has an optative sense. Thus, हाइडडु संतत पियाई पियारी, 'may you ever be dear to (your) husband'; सा वे सठ पर करिडाई दाया, 'may (the prince of Raghu) be gracious to a wretch like me'.

#### Tenses of the Imperfect Participle.

614. The characteristic common to all the tenses of the Imperfect Participle, is the indication of an action, under various modifications of mode and time, as *unfinished* or *incomplete*. We consider, first,

# The Indefinite Imperfect.

615. This tense, primarily, denotes an incomplete action,

without necessary reference to any time. It may therefore refer to the past, present, or future. It is moreover employed both in an indicative and a contingent sense.

(1) It is frequently used to denote an action in *past* time as *repeatedly* occurring.

Examples :--- चब कभी घात पा जाते उस को बिना केड़े न कोड़ते, 'whenever they would find an opportunity, they would never let him go without having insulted him'; कोई उस के राज भर में भूखा न सेाता, 'no one in his whole kingdom would sleep hungry'.

(2) It is also occasionally used to denote a *single* action in past time, in such sentences as the following :—

श्वर्जुन को क्या सामर्थ थी जे। इमारी खहन को से जाता, 'what was Arjun's power that he should carry off our sister ?'.

(3) It is sometimes used to denote an action incomplete at the *present* time.

a. In such cases it will very commonly be found that the time is determined as present, by an auxiliary verb, or by some adverb in the context. Thus, इस यही तुम से मांगने भार हैं, और कुङ नहीं मांगले, 'I have come to ask just this from you; I ask nothing else'.

b. It is also used for the present in other cases, when no special stress is laid upon the time; as, में नहीं जानता कि जब वह पूढ़ेगा तुम क्या उत्तर देखोगो, 'I know not, when he shall inquire, what answer you will give'; सुक से कुछ नहीं हा सकता, 'nothing can be (done) by me'. This usage is especially common in the Rámáyan, where the auxiliary is rare; thus, बहु विधि करोत विलाप जानको, 'in many a way, Jánakí laments'.

(4) It is often used in statements of *general application*, in which no limitation to any time is intended.

(5) It is used very commonly in the *protasis* and *apodo*sis of conditional clauses. As thus employed, it refers to past time, and in the *protasis* denotes the non-fulfilment of the condition; in the *apodosis*, it states what would have been, had the condition been fulfilled.

616. It may be doubted whether in this sense of a past conditional, this tense is really identical in origin with the exactly similar forms which have an indicative sense. The actual existence of an *inflected* past conditional, derived from the imperfect participle, in the eastern Hindí dialects, suggests the opinion that we have here in reality two tenses, the one indicative, consisting merely of the imperfect participle; the other, a contingent, being an inflected derivative from the imperfect participle; which two tenses, through the processes of phonetic decay, have been reduced in modern High Hindí to one identical form.

617. The inflected past contingent of the Rámáyan has already been noted (§ 427). One or two illustrations will illustrate its perfect identity in meaning with the indefinite imperfect in the contingent construction. खूद मयदं न ते। कारतेदं कडुक सदाय तुम्हार, 'I have become old, else I would render you some assistance'; जो जनत्यों जन कंघु विद्योद्द पिता बचन मनत्यों नोई चोद्द, 'if I had known of this bereavement of my brother in the wilderness, I would not have obeyed that word of (my) father'; नाहिंत....से जातोदं सोताह खरजार, 'else, I would have taken away Sita by force'.

#### The Present Imperfect.

618. This tense denotes, primarily and fundamentally, (1) an action in progress, or a state as existing at the present time.

Examples :--- तुम लपस्वी को कन्या का चाइते हो, 'you desire the hermit's daughter'; तू क्यूं डरसा है, 'why dost thou fear ?'; मारि करल डांडें निन्दा, 'they mock me'.

a. Hence it also denotes *habitual* or *repeated* action continued up to the present time.

Examples :--- ये दोनों....जहां जाते हैं, तहां ही उत्पात मचाते हैं, 'where these two go, there they stir up mischief'; निराकार झझ को स्तुति वेद किस भांति करने हैं, 'in what way the Veds extol the formless Brahm'; निसिदिन देव जपत हहु जेहो, 'whom, O deity, you invoke night and day'.

b. It is used, like the indefinite imperfect, to express general truths, but commonly with special application to the present time. Examples :-- जो नर लोरच ... करता है से ... परमगति पाता है, 'the man who performs a pilgrimage, obtains supreme felicity'; जो कर्म में लिखा है सोई होता है, 'what is written in fate, that very (thing) comes to pass'.

c. Hence the use of this tense in comparisons, when that with which the comparison is made, is represented as a common occurrence. Thus, वह सारे कल जैसे आस्मान से आले गिरते हैं, धरसी पर गिर पड़े, 'all those fruits fell on the ground, as falls the hail from heaven'; जैसे सूरज का तेज मेंह बरसाकर सुखकारी होता है, 'as the heat of the sun, causing it to rain, becomes a source of pleasure'.

(2) The present imperfect is used for the *future*, to denote that future as *imminent*.

Examples :-- मैं गुफा में जाता हूं, 'I am going into the cave'; मैं तुम्ने सभी मारता हूं, 'I will kill thee immediately'; इस मोब के ठूंढने का जाते हें, 'I (*plur*. for *sing.*) am going to seek for the jewel'. This idiom represents a future action, as it were, already begun.

(3) It is also used of *past* time,

a. In vivacious narration, as a *historical present*, when the narrator mentally transfers himself to a past time.

Examples :— माच बाजते दें कड़खोत कड़खा गाते दें, 'the drums are beating, the bards are singing their war-songs'. This is especially the case with the idiomatic phrase क्या देखता डूं, etc. ; as, ऊपा क्या देखती दे कि चडुं कोर विजली चमकने लगी, 'what does Ushá see, but that on every side the lightning has begun to flash'.

b. When an action begun in the past, is regarded as continuing at the present time.

Examples :-- जिस दिन से मांगो उसी दिन से में दुख उठाती डूं, 'from the very day I asked (it), I have suffered pain'; में कई दिन से देखता डूं, 'for some days I am noticing, etc.'.

c. It is also used for a past action, when that action has been just *interrupted*, and is therefore really an action *unfinished* in the present.

Thus, in the Prem Ságar, Shatdhanvá's speech is interrupted by Akrúr, who replies, तू बड़ा मूर्ख है जो हम से ऐसी खात कहता है, 'thou art a great fool, to say (lit., who sayest) such a thing to me'. Similarly we may explain Akrúr's words to Shatdhanva; क्या हम तेरी जाति uiति पूछले हे, 'are we inquiring thy caste (and) rank?'. 619. The use of the inflected present corresponds with that of the analytic present as above explained. In illustration we may add to the examples of this tense previously given, (§§ 386, 402, a, 424,) the following.

(1) Examples of the actual present; सकौं तोरि सरि समरषु मारी, 'I can kill thy enemy, even (though he be) immortal'; कोई साराधषु का तुम वहडु, 'whom are you worshipping ? what do you wish ?': (2) of the habitual present; वासु भवन विनु जरनि न वाही, 'without whose worship, passion departs not'; संगत संत प्रसंघाई तेही, 'the good ever extol that man'; ये मुरसी बजावे वे सींगी, 'this one plays the flute, the other, the horn': (3) of the imminent present; वारनी रखुवर विमल जस, 'I will set forth the spotless fame of the chief of Raghu'; (4) of the historical present; देखि ग्रिवाह सुरत्रय मुसुकाही, 'seeing Shiv, the divine Triad smile'; गये मवन प्रकृष्टि पितुमाता, 'having gone home, they ask their parents'.

a. Very often in the inflected present the habitual and historical sense are combined. Thus, कोई मुख धुलावे कोई विमावे, one would wash (his) face, another would feed (him)'; विन्हीं का गुव गाया करे, 'she would often sing his praise'.

b. In the following this tense is used for the presumptive imperfect (§ 327): जानों सानुज रामों मारी, *lit.*, 'he is probably thinking (thus), Having killed *Rám* with his younger brother (I will rule)'; where modern High Hindí would have जानसे देंगे for जानों. (*Rám. Ay.*)

c. In the following, the same form occurs twice in the same line, once as an absolute future, once as a present : चे देखोई देखोई जिन्द देखे, 'who shall see, do see, or have seen'. (Rám. Ay.)

620. Similar also is the use of the western inflected present, (§ 386, a,) which occurs not infrequently in the *Prem Ságar*. Thus, तू इमें नहीं जानती, में पहचान हूं, 'you do not know me, (but) I recognize you'; रक दुख मुके जब न तब साले है, 'one sorrow pierces me now and then'; तहां कुड न कुड उपद्रव मचार्वे हे, 'they excite some violent act or other'.

# The Past Imperfect.

621. This tense is commonly used, (1) to denote an action as in progress at a certain definite past time.

Examples :-- मैं भी महादेव के पास पठ्ता था, 'I was reading with Shri Mahádev ; ठार ठार दुंदुभी खाजले थे, 'in every place drums were beating'; रक नारी रोवांत हो, 'a woman was crying'. (2) This tense is also sometimes used to denote an action as *repeatedly* occurring during a certain period of past time.

Examples :-- जिस नगर में जाते थे तहां के राजा आति ग्रिष्टाचार कर उन्हें ले जाते थे, 'into whatever city they were entering, the king of that place would with extreme courtesy convey them (on their way)'; जितने बस्त ग्रस्त चलाते थे, एक भी न लगता था, 'of all the weapons and missiles they were hurling, not even one would hit'.

# The Contingent Imperfect.

622. This tense denotes the action of a verb as in progress, not actually, but *possibly* and *contingently*.

Thus, कदाचित कोई मन में कहता हो, 'perchance some one may be saying in his mind'.

a. It is used in *comparisons*, when the comparison is made, not with an actual event, but with a supposed case.

Examples :--- सीनों रेखे चले कि जैसे सीनों काल देइ धरि जाते होय, 'the three walked as though the three Times (*i.e.*, Past, Present, Future,) were walking incarnate'; रेसा शब्द हे। रहा था कि जैसे मेछ गरजता हो, 'there was a continuous sound as if it were thundering'.

## The Presumptive Imperfect.

623. This tense differs from the preceding, much as the absolute future differs from the contingent future; *i.e.*, whereas the contingent imperfect represents the action of the verb as *possibly* in progress, the presumptive imperfect represents it as *probably* in progress (§ 327). The absolute future of the auxiliary, however, never denotes the action as an objective reality, but only as assumed to be so.

Thus, वे इमारे सुरत करते होंगे, 'they will be (i.e., are probably) thinking of me'; ब्राझब सुम्हारे तुम्हारी बाट देखले होंगे, 'your Brahmans will be expecting you'.

## The Negative Contingent Imperfect.

624. This extremely rare tense represents an action conditionally assumed to have been in progress at a certain past time; but invariably implies the negation of the condition. A single example will

#### TENSES OF THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

suffice; जो तुम उस काल सपना काम करते होते, तेा तुम मार न खाते, 'had you at that time been doing your work, you would not have got a beating'.

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## Tenses of the Perfect Participle.

625. The rules for the two constructions of the tenses of the perfect participle of transitive verbs, have been already given (§335), and need not be repeated here. The following examples will abundantly illustrate those rules.

(1) The following are examples of the passive construction, in which the verb agrees with the object of the action, in gender and number : नंद बसेादा ने बड़ा लय किया था. 'Nand and Jasodá had performed a heavy penance', lit., 'by Nand-Jasodá heavy penance was performed'; ची कृष्य ने बासुरी बजाई. 'Shrí Krishn played the pipe'; उस ने सहस आहम्ब जिसार, 'he fed a thousand Brahmans'; जसेादा ने रस्थियां मंगाई, 'Jasodá sent for ropes'.

a. In the case of pronouns the gender of the verb is of course determined by that of the noun to which the pronoun may refer. Thus, यह इस ने क्या किया, 'what is this we have done?' (sc. कास); and Sitá says (Rám. S.), कोइ अपराध नाथ है! त्यागी, 'for what fault, (my) lord, am I deserted?'.

b. The verb मारना, when used with the instrument, idiomatically agrees, not with the object struck, but with the instrument of striking, and the object is put in the genitive. Thus, उस ने मेरी तलवार मारी, 'he struck me with a sword'; उस ने उस का घण्णड़ मारा, 'he boxed him', (*i.e.*, 'struck him with the palm of the hand').

(2) The following are examples of the *impersonal* construction, in which the verb is always put in the masculine singular, without reference to the gender or number of either the subject or object of the action: प्रभु ने जरासंध को कुड़वाय दिया, 'the lord caused Jarásandh to be released'; कांस ने बसुदेव देवको को एक कोठरी में मूंद दिया, 'Kans shut up Basuder and Devakí in one room'; में ने उस गाय को देखा, 'I saw that cow'; उस ने अपनी बेटियो को खुलाया. 'he called his daughters'.

a. The pronominal accusative plurals in र, like those with कोर, whatever their gender may be, require the verb to be in the impersonal construction, in the masculine singular. Thus, उस ने रन्दे रखा, 'he has kept these'; उस ने उन्दे पकड़ बांधा, 'he caught and bound them'.

626. As remarked before, the perfect, even of transitive verbs, is often construed actively in the Rámáyan. To the examples given in §434, the following may be added : सुम्ह देखे दयास रघुराई, 'have you seen the gracious prince of Raghu?'.

a. The inflected perfect of the *Rámáyan*, whether of intransitive or transitive verbs, is always used in the active construction. Besides the examples given in § 436, the following may be noted: जनमत काई न मारचि मेान्नो, 'why didst thou not kill me at my birth?'; कहोन्द करिय उतपाल खरंभ, 'they (*i.e.*, the monkeys) said, Begin the destruction'; हरि खानेहु सीता जातदंखा, 'you have carried off *Sítá*, the mother of the world'. So in the modern colloquial of Alláhábád, etc., people say, तुम का कहिन,=H. H. सुम ने क्या कहा, 'what did you say ?', etc., etc.

b. So also the perfect in न or ना (§ 439) is most commonly construed actively. But this termination is chiefly used in *quasi* causals with a neuter sense. Thus, उर आनंद आधिकान, 'joy swelled in his breast'; कांप सकल पराने, 'all the monkeys fled'; पाढिल पढिलाना, 'afterward he repented'.

## The Indefinite Perfect.

627. The *Indefinite Perfect* (1) simply indicates an action as completed, without reference to any definite time. It thus nearly corresponds to the Greek aorist.

Examples :-- उस ने यह खास कही, 'he said this thing'; यह भेद किसी ने न पाया, 'no one discovered this secret'; ग्रामय भई, 'she became free from fear'; संदा सुमन फल सहित सख दुम नव नाना जाति, 'various sorts of trees ever bent with flowers and fruits'.

(2) It may be used for the *present perfect*, when the time is evident from the context.

Examples :- रेसे बली कौन यदुकुल में उपत्रे. 'who so powerful has arisen in the house of Yadu?'; तुम खडुत दिन जीते खत्रे, 'you have escaped alive for many a day'.

(3) Under similar conditions it is also used, where English idiom would demand the *pluperfect*.

Examples :-- किसी ने न जाना कि वह किधर गये, 'no one knew whither he had gone'; जब अपुरों को बहुत सी सेना कट गई, 'when much of the army of the demons had been destroyed'.

(4) It is occasionally used where we would use the *pres*ent, in general statements, when these are referred to as a matter of past experience.

Examples :--- जिस ने संसार में आय सुम्हारा नाम न लिया, तिस ने अमृत केड़ बिष पिया, 'whoever coming into the world takes not (*lit.*, did not take) your name, that person, leaving ambrosia, drinks (*lit.*, drank) poison'.

a. So also, when used for the present perfect, it must sometimes be rendered by the present in English; thus, **में जान्या जिय कर निर्मान**, 'measuring (you) in (my) mind, I know (that you are not Brahmans)'.

628. In the Rámáyan and other archaic poetry, one tense constantly discharges all the functions of the different compound perfect tenses of modern prose Hindí. Thus, सती....जनमी जाई दिमाचल ग्रेडा, 'Satí has gone and been born in the house of Himáchal'. Other illustrations will be found in §§ 436, 626, a.

#### The Present Perfect.

629. The *Present perfect* represents the action of a verb as complete, with a reference to the present time.

Examples :--- इम यही तुम से मांगने आए हैं, 'I have come to ask just this of you'; जब से में ने आप का नाम सुना है, 'since I have heard your honor's name'; तुम्हारे पिता ने....मूंद रखा है, '(whom) your father has kept shut up'.

a. It is thus often used where English idiom would require the *present*.

Thus, तुम निश्चिन्त क्यों बैठे हो, 'why are you seated unconcerned ?'; खार खार में तारन खंदनवार खंधी हैं, in each door wreaths and garlands are fastened'.

b. It is more rarely used where we would have expected the *past perfect*; as, in the *Prem Ságar*, किसी समय राजा हरिश्चंद्र बड़ा दानी हा गया है, 'once the Rájá *Harishchandra* had become (or became) very liberal'.

c. And in the following we would have expected the indefinite perfect: मुझे कल राजा के यहां से गाए मिली है, 'I got (the cow) yesterday from the Rájá's'.

Rem. In this case the action is regarded as effecting a result continuing to the present time; whence the use of the present auxiliary.

#### SYNTAX OF THE PAST PERFECT.

# The Past Perfect.

630. The Past Perfect differs from the English pluperfect, in that the latter always refers to a certain definite point of past time, prior to which the action or event occurred; while this Hindí tense simply indicates that the action occurred prior to an interval of past time, which is not, necessarily, defined. The Hindí past perfect may therefore be employed whenever an interval of time, definite or indefinite, has elapsed since the completion of the action,

It is therefore often necessary to translate this tense by the English indefinite past tense. Thus, में सुमर्द्ध सावधान करने साया था, 'I came to put you on your guard'; जिस समय यह जन्मा था, 'when this person was born'; वे वहां पहुंचे जहां सिंह ने प्रसेन की मार खाया था, 'they arrived where the lion had killed and eaten *Prasen*'; सुम सो समर हे भर, (हे भरू poet.=षुर घे,) 'you had, indeed, become immortal'.

### The Contingent Perfect.

631. The Contingent Perfect represents a completed action as a mere hypothesis or assumption. Thus it may be used (1) in conditional clauses, denoting the condition not as a fact, but as a mere assumption.

Thus, जो नल ने कोई निर्दयता का काम भी किया हो, 'if Nal have committed some deed even of unkindness'.

(2) It may express doubt;

as, इंसी से न कही हा, 'may she not have spoken in jest ?'.

(3) Or a concession;

as, त्वो तो कुङ उस ने रोंधा द्रोय, 'whatever he may have cooked'.

(4) It may describe a past possibility.

Thus, यदुकुल में ऐसे। नहीं कोय, सज्जके खेत जे। भाग्ये। होय. 'in the family of Yadu is no one who, fleeing, has left a (battle) field'.

(5) It is often used in *comparisons* referring to past time, when the comparison is made, not with an actual, but with a supposed case.

Thus, जैसे ... बरब बरब के घटा घिर चाई दोय, 'as if clouds of various had gathered round'.

#### SYNTAX OF THE PRESUMPTIVE PERFECT, BTC.

a. In the Rámáyan, also, this tense occurs, but very rarely. Thus, जी परिशय कोन्द कड़ होई, 'if he have ridiculed you in any thing'.

# Of the Presumptive Perfect.

632. In the *Presumptive perfect* a completed action is assumed as an objective reality; *i.e.*, the action is denoted as a *probability*. It is thus often to be rendered by the aid of an English adverb.

Examples :--- खालक का क्या गांत हुई होगी, 'what must have been the state of the child !'; साप ने यह दोहा सुना होगा, 'your honor has doubtless heard this couplet'; नदी के प्रवाह से मुका होगा, 'it must have bent by the current of the river'.

## The Negative Contingent Perfect.

633. The Negative Contingent Perfect is used only in the protasis and apodosis of conditional clauses. It always denotes an action or event as a past possibility which was not realized.

Examples :- जो तू रक बार भी जो से पुकारा होता तो तेरी वह पुकार तारें से पार पहुंची होती, 'if thou hadst even once called from the heart, then that cry of thine had reached beyond the stars'; आपनी लड़की आपने हाध से न मारी होती, 'had I not killed my daughter with my own hand'. I have noted a single example in the Rámáyan (S. K.); जो न होति सीता सुधि पाई, 'if I had not obtained intelligence of Sítá'.

a. This tense differs from the Indefinite Imperfect in conditional clauses, only in that it denotes the action as finished; and it may thus often be a matter of indifference which tense is employed. But when the completion of the action is an essential element in the supposition, as in the second clause in the first of the above examples, then this perfect tense should be used in preference to the imperfect.

# Of the Passive Conjugation.

634. The *Passive* conjugation is employed in Hindí chiefly in the following cases :---

(1) When the agent is either unknown, or is not to be definitely mentioned.

(2) It is elegantly used with a negative to express *impos-sibility*. The negative is regularly placed between the verb and the auxiliary.

Examples are, under (1), — इस का भेद कुठ जाना नहीं जाता. 'the secret of this is not known'; नतु मारे जैहें सब राजा, 'else all the kings will be killed'; under (2), — उन का बल अब मुज से संभाला नहीं जाता, 'his strength cannot now be withstood by me'.

635. Even neuter verbs may be thus conjugated passively. Thus इस से आया नहीं जाता. 'I cannot come', *lit.*, 'it cannot be come by me'; राम कुया विना आद न जार, 'without Rám's favor one cannot come'.

636. The agent with the passive voice is regularly put in the ablative, as in the above examples. But in the following from the Rij Niti, the agent is put in the locative with  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{c}$ ;  $\mathbf{\hat{u}}$  is  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}\mathbf{\hat{u}}$ , 'I am not able to walk'. Observe, that the case of the agent is never used with the passive conjugation.

637. When the same passive verb in successive co-ordinated sentences, is used in different tenses, the participle of the principal verb is properly used only with the first auxiliary. Thus, लेगा मारे गए की जाते हैं की जांयगे, 'people have been. are, and will be killed'.

638. The place of the English passive is often idiomatically taken by the neuter verbs in Hindí. Thus, 'these fields are being irrigated', is idiomatically rendered ये खेत सिंच रहे हें.

Rem. It will be remembered here, that many of these so-called neuter verbs are in reality corrupted Trákrit or Sanskrit passives (§467, a.)

639. The inflected passive forms found in archaic Hindí have been already illustrated (§§ 445, a, 610.) They are used under the same rules as the modern analytic passive.

## Of Causal Verbs.

640. Causal verbs call for little special remark. True causals are regularly followed by two accusatives. Examples will be found in §534, a.

641. Sometimes the causal conveys the sense, not of causing an action, but (1), of allowing it to take place, or (2), of causing an action or state to continue.

Thus, नख केश बठाये ... सब राजा खड़े ही बिन्सी कर रहे थे, 'with nails and

hair allowed to grow, all the kings were standing and making supplication'; मारे मरिय जियाये खोजे, 'if he kill thee, die; if he save thee alive, live'.

# Of Compound Verbs.

642. In the Syntax of Compound verbs, the following points are chiefly to be noted.

(1) In *Intensive* compound verbs, when the conjugated member is intransitive, the compound is always construed *actively* in the tenses of the perfect; whether the first member be transitive or intransitive.

Thus in the following examples, although the simple verb, as a transitive, is construed passively with the case of the agent in the tenses of the perfect. yet the compound forms given are construed actively :--- उस ने रोटी खाई, 'he ate bread', but वह रोटी खा गया, 'he ate up the bread'; में ने उस का देखा, 'I saw it', but वह देख पड़ा, 'it appeared'; उस ने सुना, 'he heard', but वह सुन रहा'है, 'he is listening'.

(2) On the other hand, in *Frequentative* and *Permissive* compounds, although the second conjugated member, when used alone, is always construct passively in the tenses of the perfect, yet in this combination it is always construed actively. The same remark applies to the following compounds, in which देना, सेना, or पाना, occur as the second element; viz., चस देना, 'to go out', देर सेना, 'to follow', देख पाना, 'to get a sight'.

a. Also the following nominal verbs, denoting perception by the senses, although formed with the transitive देना, are always construed actively in all tenses; viz., दिखाई देना, 'to appear'; सुनाई देना. 'to sound' (*intr.*); सुंघाई देना, 'to smell' (*intr.*); डुलाई देना, 'to be felt'. In like manner is construed **aंधाई** देना, 'to be bound'.

Examples :-- वह फिरा किया, 'he was wont to go about'; में नहीं देखने पाया. 'I was not permitted to see'; वे चल दिये, 'they set out'; वह मेरे पीके हा लिया, 'he followed after me'; कोर्ब नहीं देख पाया, 'no one obtained a sight'; दो गांव दिखाई दिये, 'two villages appeared'; सुक्षे कुछ नहीं

#### SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

सुनाई दिया, 'nothing was heard by me'; कोई फूस सुंघाई दिया, 'some flower emitted a perfume'; वह क्या मुझे कुलाई दिया, 'what was that which I felt ?'.

(3) Some compounds govern a different case from the single verb. Thus we say, उस ने मुक से कहा, 'he said to me', but मुके कह दिया, 'he told me'.

(4) In standard Hindí literature, the verbs **usan** and **gam**, are very rarely, if ever, used alone. But in the colloquial they are thus used in some parts of the country, especially when the action referred to may be readily understood. **usan**, indeed, occurs alone in the Rámáyan; as, e.g., **usag** at ... मेटडु कांटन करोस, '(if) you are able, then ... remove this sore trouble'.

a. सकना is usually combined either with the root or the inflected infinitive in  $\bar{a}$ . But sometimes it is combined with the infinitive in **a**, as in the following: **tim and and an analy**, 'Rám will not be able to break the bow'. (Rám. Bál. K.)

b. Although चुकाना is only used in composition with another verb, a causal, चुकाना, 'to cause to finish', is formed from it, which is always used alone.

(5) The idiom of the desiderative compound with **चाहि**ये, as denoting obligation or duty, has been already explained (§ 610).

643. In the colloquial. compound verbs are often themselves compounded. Examples of such colloquial expressions are as follows: साहित लोग आभी चलने लग रहे. 'the gentlemen are just now in the act of starting'; नहों सक जायगा, 'it will not be possible'; सब खाने लग गये, 'all have set to eating'.

#### OF ADVERBS.

644. The use of many adverbs as substantives has been already explained (§ 496.) But the following additional particulars may be noted.

645. was not followed by a negative, is to be rendered 'until'; but, without the negative, 'as long as'.

Thus, जब सक में न आकं, is 'until I come', but जब सक में रहूं. 'as long as I remain'; similarly, जी ली जियों ... ते। ली जान कड कहांच खहारी, 'as long as I live, never say anything again'.

646. A relative adverb used as a substantive in the geni-

tive, is combined with the correlative to denote manner, place, etc., as unchanged; as, with an ruit, 'in exactly the same way'; well an ruet, 'exactly in the same place'.

647. जहां सक is idiomatically used of *measure* or *extent* in such phrases as, जहां सक सुम से हा चके, 'as far as you may be able'. कहां सक idiomatically denotes a measure as indefinitely large. Thus, जा दान दिया में कहां सक कहूं, 'how can I fully tell the alms he gave?'. This idiom cannot be literally translated.

648. anti (anti), 'where', is idiomatically repeated in successive clauses to denote extreme disparity or incongruity.

Examples :---कहां ये बालक व्यनिधान कहां ये सवल मल्ल, 'what equality between these beautiful children and these powerful wrestlers?'; कई कुंभज कहं सिंधु जयारा, 'what was the Jar-born' (*Agastya*, who drank the ocean !) 'in comparison with the boundless ocean ?'.

649. The relative and correlative adverbs are conjoined to express *universality*.

Examples :--- जह तह देखें। दोड भाई, 'everywhere I see the two brothers'; जिधर तिधर नगरनिवासी लोग प्रभु के चरित्र वयाने, 'in every direction the inhabitants of the town are recounting the exploits of the Lord'.

650. कत,—though derived from the Sanskrit कुत्र (कत्र), 'where', is commonly to be rendered, 'how', or 'why'; thus, चगतार कत इम गावेंग, 'Saviour of the world! how shall Ising'; कोकपि कत जनमी जग मांका, 'why was *Kekayi* born into the world?'.

651. The indefinite कहो, 'somewhere', is used in comparisons to denote excess as indefinitely great; कहो is also idiomatically used in expressions of doubt, as equivalent to the phrase 'by any chance'.

Examples :-- वह छर इस से कहीं जैचा है, 'that house is ever so much higher than this'; कहीं वह कपटी आकूर तो न साया होय, 'surely by no chance can that deceitful *Akrúr* have come again !'.

a. For कहों, कराहुं is used in the Rámáyan; as, कराहुं राम नहीं, 'nowhere is there darkness'. 652. **THAT**, **THAT**, 'thither', as also the dialectic **TH** and **TH**, are often used in successive clauses to express a contrast.

Examples :- **EXAMPLES** al महाश्रोग करते थे उधर राजकन्या योग करने स्वारी, 'here, then, *Aniruddh Ji* was greatly grieving, and there the princess was devoting herself to austerities'; **दस** दिस मिस कूटें उसदि विलोको परम हुलासा, 'here he parts from friend and loved one, there he beholds supernal joy'.

653. For <u>u</u>, 'thus', the original Sanskrit **स्वां** occurs in the *Rámá*yan, with **स्वं**, 'this'; as. **स्वां**मधम कोंद्व न आए, *lit.*, 'this (is) so-(it) cannot be said'; *i.e.*, 'it cannot be told just as it is'.

654. For क्यों with the negative, किन is often used in the Rámáyan and in other poetry; as, कह लंकेस कहाँस किन खाला, 'said the lord of Lanká, why dost thou not speak a word ?'.

655. खर, 'rather'. 'sooner', I have only met with in poetry ; thus, तिये मोन बर बारि बिहोना, 'sooner might a fish live deprived of water'.

656. The particle is elegantly used for an adverb of time, denoting an action as coincident with another mentioned in the foregoing clause.

Examples :— मैं सपने में सुको देख रहा था कि ... कोई मुके उठाय यहां से चा-या, 'in a dream I was gazing on thee, when some one, lifting me up, brought me here'; वह गाय रही कि शिव जो ने कहा, 'she was singing away, when Shiv Ji said'.

657. The particles we and with have been already explained and illustrated (§ 500).

a. After a phrase or quotation, modern Hindí often uses रेसा, where Sanskrit would have had दांस. Thus, विना प्रयोजन क्या यह हुवा रेसा जानने को दच्छा न करे, 'what has taken place, — without a motive let him not desire to know this'; मृत्यु ने इमारे केश को पकड़ा है, रेसा समस्क धर्म का जावरब करे, 'considering that death has seized our hair, let him practice virtue'. In both these sentences, रेसा, like the Sanskrit दांस, marks the preceding clause as quoted, as it were, from the lips or mind of the subject of the sentence.

658. The emphatic particle  $\mathbf{fr}$ , as remarked § 505, may be variously translated. In addition to the illustrations there given, the following may be noted. खद्द पघ का दारा घका तो घा हो, 'he was indeed wearied and exhausted by the journey'; खालक खत्र रहा सकट हो टूट गया, 'the child was saved, only the cart was broken'; दुख सुख हो जानेंग, 'I will regard sorrow as very joy'; ये सिद्धान्त क्या हो सद्धुत हैं, 'how very wonderful are these doctrines !'; में ने तुम हो को खुलाया, 'I called you !', *i.e.*, you, and no one else; जाहय जिन खोलेहु, 'should you go even without having been called'; एक साखिनाशी कदम तट पर धा सेई घा, 'one imperishable kadam tree stood on the bank, (and) that only'.

N. B. The emphatic particle hi is not to be confounded with the hi which in the Rámáyan and other old poetry is the sign of the dative and accusative cases. In the Rámáyan, hu, huy, or au is the common form of the emphatic affix. (Vid. §131, e.)

#### OF PREPOSITIONS.

659. The syntax of prepositions calls for little remark. Their real nature and construction have been already explained ( $\S$ 506, 509.)

660. बाहर, 'without', भोसर, 'within', and with, 'before', are construed not only with the genitive, as previously noted, but also with the ablative. In the latter case there is always an implied comparison. Sometimes it is of little consequence which is used; but often the two constructions convey a slightly different sense.

Thus, इस के खाइर, is, *lit.*, 'on the outside'; but, इस से खाइर, 'outside of this'; मेरे सागे चला, is, 'walk before me'; but, वह मुक से सागे दीड़ा, 'he ran ahead of me', etc., etc.

a. समेल commonly takes the noun in its oblique form, where such a form exists. In the following from the Rámáyan, समेल exceptionally governs the accusative in दि; बैठे आसन ऋषिदि समेला, he sat on the seat with the sage'.

661. Many words which, when following a noun in the genitive, must be rendered into English as prepositions, under other circumstances must be regarded as nouns and often translated accordingly. Such, e.g., are कारब, इसु. निमित्त, and many others. Thus, मेरे जाने के कारब, 'on account of my going', but, इस कारब, 'for this reason'. So also, in the following phrase, लिये has a prepositional force: तुम किस के लिये आए, 'for whom have you come ?'. But in the following it must

:

be regarded as a substantive, signifying 'object'; तुम किंस लिये आर, 'for what object have you come ?'.

662. The inseparable preposition च, 'with', is properly used only with pure Sanskrit nouns. In colloquial Hindí it is not often heard; but it is more common in poetry; as, e.g., चानुव (च+चनुव) 'with (his) younger brother'; चप्रेम, 'with love'; चपरिवार, 'with attendants'.

#### OF CONJUNCTIONS.

663. The copulative conjunction  $\frac{1}{2}$  is used much less freely than the equivalent English 'and'; the conjunctive participle is often preferred to a finite verb followed by the conjunction (§597 (1) a.)

Thus a Hindoo would not be likely to express the phrase, 'he went and saw the town', by वड गया चौर नगर को देखा, but rather, उस ने खाकर भगर को देखा.

a. It is also to be noted that Hindí idiom often requires the omission of the copulative between pairs of words where it would be necessary in English.

Examples :-- भसे खुरे को पहचान, 'knowledge of good (and) evil'; दुस सुख का देनेवाला, 'the giver of joy (and) sorrow'; चला देखा, 'go! (and) see!'; क्रुप्व बलदेव, 'Krishn (and) Balder'.

Rem. Such parases are doubtless conceived in the popular mind as equivalent to copulative compounds (§ 482).

664. with is to be rendered 'also', in an enumeration of particulars, but in other cases it must be translated 'even'.

Thus, चो कृष्य चंद चै। वलराम चो भी द्वारिका में खाए, 'Shri Krishn Chand and also Balrám Ji came to Dváriká'; but, ची कृष्य चंद भी किसी का कुझ महीं देते हैं, 'even Shri Krishn Chand gives nothing to any one'.

a. After words implying a comparison, भी must be rendered 'still', 'yet', 'even'; as, चौर भी है, 'there is still more'; यह द्युद्ध उस घर से भी खंखा है, 'this tree is higher even than that house'.

b. Sometimes, again, भो can scarcely be rendered into English except by an emphasis; thus, यह कार्य्य कैसा भो सम्रु क्यों न हो, 'howsoever trivial this work may be'.

665. The Sanskrit with, 'also', 'even', is never used in conversa-

tion, and only now and then in poetry; thus, with intrarity assan asis

. . .

666. The phrase तिय पर भो, is often used as a copulative conjunction, equivalent to 'moreover'; as, तिस पर भी यह कहता है, 'moreover he says this'.

667. Of the disjunctive conjunctions, ज्ञा or समजा, and या (Ar.) are the most common; के and केरोग are dialectic. कि also is often used as a disjunctive.

a. कि and के are especially used in short disjunctive phrases; as, भला हो के खुरा, 'be it good or evil'. But sometimes it is repeated before successive sentences; as, के हरि ने मेरी प्रोलि को प्रतीति न करी के खरासंध का भाना सुन प्रभु न खार, 'has not *Hari* had confidence in my affection ? or hearing of the coming of *Jarásandh*, has the lord not come ?'.

b. किंवा is rare, but we find it in the Rámáyan, as, अभिमान मेद वस किंवा, or '(being) in the power of pride or love'.

668. Sometimes in brief phrases, where it may be readily understood, the disjunctive may be omitted.

Thus, संपति प्रभुतादे जाद रही पादे जिनु पादे, 'wealth and authority pass away, obtained (or) not obtained', *i.e.*, 'they are gone even before we obtain them'.

669. an is commonly used as a conditional conjunction in the colloquial; una, usually pronounced, and often written are, is Sanskrit, and in conversation is somewhat pedantic.

a. जे। पे is sometimes used dialectically as a conditional conjunction. Thus, जे। पे जिय न होति कुटिलाई, 'if there is no treachery in his heart'.

670. The conjunction  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  has a two fold sense, namely, 'then', and 'indeed'.

a. In the following passage the word occurs in both senses; वा उस चे कुछ मांगला ते। वे देते ते। सड़ी, 'if I had asked anything from him, then he would indeed assuredly have given it'.

b. The illative तो is only apparently used for the temporal conjunction. Thus, यह उसाखार सुनाय नारद जो तो चले गये, 'having told this news, Nárad Jí then went away'; where तो suggests the accomplishment of his object in telling the news, as the reason for his departure'. b. In other cases तो conveys a shade of meaning which can only be expressed in English by a peculiar stress of voice; as, e.g., चिमुलन-प्रति चगत का कत्ती तो में डूं, 'lord of the three worlds, and creator of the earth am I!'.

671. The concessive conjunction is useful (use + use), 'although', to which state, or surfu, 'yet', answers in the principal clause. These are pure Sanskrit and are rarely used in the colloquial, except by pundits. The corrupted form useful is employed in the Rámáyan. In the common colloquial, an in and an are usually employed.

672. करावित and करापि, 'perhaps', like many of the foregoing, are rarely heard, except from those conversant with Sanskrit. The Persian गायद (सायद and सासद) is often heard instead. All these are regularly followed by the contingent future. The verbal forms जाने, क्या जाने, often take the place of these in the colloquial.

673. For is radically an explanatory particle; its use as a final,='that', is easily derived from this explanatory sense.

Thus, वह सम कारन से गया कि देखे, etc., 'for this reason he went, that he might see'; here कि is merely explicatory of the word कारन, 'reason'. And in cases where no such noun occurs in the principal clause, it may be yet be understood.

a. Often कि must be rendered by the word 'saying'; as, वह यही मनाता था कि वह पुरुष कव प्रगटे, 'he was propitiating this (deity), saying', When will that man appear ?'.

b. Sometimes कि is used pleonastically, after a relative pronoun or adverb; thus, जा खास कि तुम ने कही, 'that thing which you said'; जख कि परमात्मा चडभर भी ऐसा नहीं हो सकता, 'since the supreme Spirit not even for an instant can be such'. Further illustration of the use of the conjunctions will be found in the section on compound sentences.

### OF INTERJECTIONS.

674. Interjections call for little remark. The following interjectional expressions require a noun in the dative; viz., धन्य, धिक or धिरकार.

Thus, परमेशवर को धन्य, 'praise to God !', धिङ्कार मेरे जोतब को, 'a curse to my life !'.

675. at or t changes final a to after a feminine noun.

Thus, कृपायलन कर दास में सुनु मालु री, 'I am the servant of the Abode of Compassion; hear! O mother !'.

OF THE REPETITION OF WORDS.

676. The repetition of words is a marked characteristic of Hindí idiom. Any part of speech, except a postposition or conjunction, may be repeated, to express, as the case may be, the various ideas of *repetition*, *distribution*, *variety*, *intensity*, or *continuance*.

677. Nouns when repeated may be taken (1) distributively.

Examples :-- घर घर मंगलाचार हे। रहे घे, 'festivities were going on in each house'; वह जन्म जन्म नरक खास पाले हैं, 'they in each birth find (their) abode in hell'.

(2) Or the repetition may express variety.

Thus, देश देश के राजा, 'kings of various countries'.

(3) To express *intensity* or *emphasis*, the noun is often repeated with the emphatic  $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$  intervening.

Thus, मन हो मन में कहने लगा, 'in his inmost soul he began to say'; बातों हो बातों में, 'in the very midst of the conversation'; सब कृष्य हो कृष्य कहती घीं, 'all (the women) were saying nothing but *Krishn*, *Krishn*!'.

a. When the first noun is in the plural, द्वो is not used; as, उन के दायों दाय, 'in their very hands'; मारो मार, 'blow on blow'.

b. Sometimes the first noun is put in the genitive; as, मूर्खों का मूर्ख, lit., 'a fool of fools', *i.e.*, 'a very fool'; भंवरों के भुंड के भुंड, 'swarms upon swarms of bees'.

c. We have also noted the phrase द्रधा कुव, 'very milk', i.e., 'pure milk'.

(4) Sometimes the noun repeated is equivalent to an adverbial phrase; as, uifa uifa, 'in rows'.

(5) The repetition sometimes suggests continuance in a place; as, सङ्क के किनारे किनारे चले, 'walk along by the side of the road'. 678. For the repetition of nouns, etc., with the alteration of a letter, see § 482 (1) b.

679. Adjectives are repeated to express (1) intensity.

Thus, मोठो मोठो पवन चल रही है, 'the soft, soft wind is blowing'; सुचरे सुचरे बस्त, 'the cleanest clothes'. Sometimes the first adjective takes the genitive postposition; as, मुख्ले का मुख्ला, 'extremely hungry'.

(2) Or sometimes the repetition expresses variety;

Examples :--- नये नये सुख. 'various new pleasures'; चनूठे चनूठे सेल सेलने लगे. 'they began to play various unheard of plays'.

(3) Or the adjectives may be 'taken *distributively*. Thus, सब बडे बडे यदवंसी, 'each and every one of the great Yadubansis'.

680. Numerals are repeated in a distributive sense.

Thus, उन को दस दस पुत्र भर, 'ten sons were (born) to each one'. To the repeated numeral, the conjunctive participle करको is often added (§ 504), as follows; दो दो करको निकल गये, 'they went out by twos'; स्क रक करको स्वाये, 'they came one by one'.

681. Pronouns, when repeated, are often to be taken *distributively*. Or the repetition may denote *variety*.

Examples :- उन्हों ने सपने सपने घर जाय जाय कहा, 'having gone each one to his own house, they said-'; जा जो जिस जिस जस्तु को स्टा करे से से ला दोजो. 'whatever different things each one may desire, that bring and give'; इस क्या क्या दुख पाते हैं, 'what various sorrows do we experience !'.

a. But कोई, repeated. is 'a few'; as, तुम्हरी कृपा पावे कोई कोई, 'some few may gain your favor'.

682. The relative जैसा is idiomatically repeated with the genitive postposition; as. जैसे का तैसा, 'exactly as before'; or, if the noun qualified be feminine, जैसी को तैसी उस को दया रही, 'his state remained just as it was before'.

683. Repetition of verbs is confined to the participles. It may indicate (1) simple *repetition* of the action.

Examples :--- इरि ने सब आयुध काट काट गिरा दिये, 'Hari, breaking up the weapons one after another, threw them down'; सब गोपो पशु पक्षी दूम बेलि से पूछली पूछली ढूंढने लगी, 'all the milk-maids repeatedly questioning beast, bird, tree and vine, began to search'; मुख पास भंवर साथ साय बैठले थे, 'the bees kept coming and resting on her face'. (2) The repetition of certain verbs thus expresses *intensity*.

Thus, चन्द्र पक्ताय पक्ताय रो रो कहने लगा, 'Indra, deeply repenting and weeping much, began to say'.

(3) It may sometimes denote the continuance or prolongation of the action.

It will sometimes be found difficult to render this idiom into English. चलसे चलरे घर को पहुंचे. 'walking on and on they reached home'; इसी रोसि से चले चले राज मंदिर में जा किराजे, 'in this way having gone on, he came and displayed his glory in the palace'; भी कृष्य का बंधे बंधे पूर्व जनम की सुंधि आई, 'to Shrí Krisha, as he remained bound, came the recollection of a former birth'.

a. होसे होसे, is rendered 'gradually', 'by degrees'. Peculiar is the phrase, इमारे न पहुंचसे न पहुंचसे, 'my continued non-arrival'.

b. Often the first of the repeated participles is put in the masculine, and the second in the feminine; as, किया कियो, 'secretly'; उन को देखा देखी सब ... गायो प्रवास कर, 'all the milk-maids, making obeisance, with him looking on,—'.

c. The perfect participles of a neuter and its active or causal are sometimes idiomatically joined together. Sometimes the compound has a reciprocal sense, as, मारा मारो, 'mutual beating'; but often the combination seems to have a certain intensive force; as, यह उपाध बेटे बिटार में कहा ये आहे, 'whence came this calamity upon us sitting still ?'.

d. Similarly, an active or causal participle is often prefixed idiomatically to a neuter verb with an intervening negative, giving an emphatic force. Thus, से किसी भांति मेटे न मिटेंगे, 'they cannot in any way be possibly effaced'. Or the reverse order is found, the neuter participle preceding; thus, दनुज महाखल मरे न मारे, 'the demons, mighty in strength, (even when) dead, were not killed'; तनु टरीग न टायो, 'driven back, they not in the least gave way'.

684. The repetition of adverbs has already been noted. (§498.) The following illustrations are added.

जव जब होद धर्म को दानो तब तब प्रमु धरि विविध ग्ररीरा, 'whenever religion suffers injury, then from time to time the lord, assuming various bodies-'; ज्यों ज्यां वह कम्या बढ़ने लगी त्यां त्यां उसे प्रति प्यार करने लगा, 'just in proportion as the girl began to grow, so he began to love her greatly'.

a. An adverb may be repeated with the genitive postposition intervening, for the sake of emphasis. Sometimes the latter may also be in the emphatic form; as, से। (दल) यहां का यहीं ऐसे खिलाय जारता. 'that army in this very spot shall so vanish'; जाब का राख, 'at that very moment'.

685. Prepositions also are sometimes repeated with a modification of the sense similar to that above noted.

Thus, उन के बीच बीच चारन जस गाते थे, 'all along through the midst, bards were singing (his) renown'; उन्हों चरबचिन्हों के पास पास, 'close along by those same footsteps'; मेरे पोट्टे पोट्टे चले सासो, 'follow along behind me'.

#### Onomatopæia.

686. The fondness of the Hindoos for onomatopoetic words has been already mentioned. This regard for sound extends also to the construction of sentences, and is seen especially in the balanced structure of the language; as in the marked tendency to throw sentences of all sorts into the relative and correlative form; the expression of repeated action by repeating the word expressing the action; the fondness for rhyme, even in prose, etc., etc.

a. The following striking examples of onomatopœia in the choice of words, are from the Rámáyan. In the description of the fighting of the monkeys against Rávan we read, मर्कट विकट भट जुटल न सटल लन् जर्कर भये, 'the terrible monkey warriors, fighting, their bodies torn to pieces, are not diminished'; and the fighting of the bears is thus similarly described; signifient कटकूट कट्टोई खाई हुंहोई सघाद दपट्टीई, 'the bear host gnash and grind their teeth; they eat, and howl, and (even) satiated, rush upon (their prey)'.

PART II. SYNTHETIC SYNTAX.

OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

I.---OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

Of the Parts of a Sentence.

687. As in all language, the essential elements of a Hin-

dí sentence are two, *viz.*, *subject* and *predicate*, to which may be added the *copula*, as a formal, though not, as will appear, a necessary element of the sentence. We treat first of the simple sentence.

688. The subject in Hindí, may be (1) a noun or pronoun in the nominative case; or (2) two or more nouns or pronouns in the nominative; or (3) an adjective or numeral used substantively in the nominative; or (4) an infinitive; or (5) any phrase or sentence.

Examples are, of (1);— तुलसी दास आया है, 'Tulsi Dás has come'; ये भले मनुष्य के लच्च हैं, 'these are the marks of a good man'; (2) भी कृष्य की बलराम जी आप हैं, 'Shri Krishn and Balrám Ji have come'; में चौर तुम जान्नोगो, 'I and you will go'; (3) दें। यहां हैं, 'two are there'; कोई चानी नहीं कहेगा, 'no wise (man) will say'; (4) तुम को जाना है, 'you must go', *lit.*, 'to go is for you'; (5) उन्हें बार खार जन्म चौर मरय बपी हस संसार चक्क में समना पढ़ता है, 'to them it falls to wander in this earthly circle of repeated births and deaths'.

a. The cases in which a complete sentence introduced by a stands as the subject of the verb, will be noticed in the Syntax of the Compound Sentence.

b. Colloquially, the locative with तक, लो, etc. is used as the subject of a sentence in such phrases as the following: एक सनई तक नहीं आया, 'not so much as one man came'; दो से तक इकट्ठे हुए, 'as many as two hundred came'.

689. The subject may sometimes be omitted; (1) when it can be readily supplied from the connexion, as, *e.g.*, in questions, or in direct address; or (2) when it is implied in the form of the verb; or (3) in proverbs, where brevity is sought.

Examples; (1) क्या यह स्थाता है हां स्थाता है, 'is he coming? yes (he) is coming'; खेटा यह क्या चाल निकालते हो, 'son ! what conduct is this you display?'; (2) ज़ाझब डूं, '(I) am a Bráhman'; (3) कमा तख खा, 'earn, then eat'.

a. In the phrase avera is, the word unit or fix is to be understood as the subject of the verb, and is indeed often expressed.

690. Sometimes by anakolouthon, a nominative, or the case of the

agent, stands without a verb, as गोपो in the following: गोपो चा चल भरने को निकली घों से रघ दूर से आले देख कहने लगी. 'the milk-maids, who had gone out to draw water—they, seeing the chariot coming in the distance, began to say—'.

691. The predicate of a sentence may be (1) a verb; (2) a noun or pronoun either in the nominative or some oblique case; (3) an adjective; (4) a numeral; or (5) any word or phrase used as a noun.

Examples :---(1) वह जायगा, 'he will go'; (2) उस का नाम आहुक है, 'his name is Ahuk'; यह राखा का है, 'this is the king's'; वह कोठी पर है. 'he is on the house'; कारब यह है, 'the reason is this'; यह पुस्तक किस की है, 'whose is this book ?'; रेसा सामर्थ किसी में नहीं है, 'in no one is such power': खा पुत्र मेरे होगा, 'the son whom I shall have'; (3) राखा विसुपाल बड़ा बली खी प्रतापी है, 'the Rájá Sisupál is very mighty and renowned'; (4) मेरे चरब सेलह बे, 'my feet were sixteen'; (5) में राखा भोध्मक का पठाया हूं, 'I am the messenger (lit., the sent) of Rájá Bhíshmak'.

692. The predicate verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context; as, दोनों कोरें। ने प्रवास किया एक ने गुरू जान दूसरे ने वंधु सान, 'both heroes saluted him, the one, regarding him as a spiritual guide, the other, holding him as a brother'.

693. The copula, either explicitly, or as implied in a verbal form, is regularly required to connect the subject and predicate of a sentence. But even in prose the copula may often be omitted in Hindí, where it would be essential in English or even in Urdú.

a. Thus, in simple description, where the copula may be readily. supplied, Hindí often characteristically omits it; as, मघुरापुरी का मा-हुक नाम राजा तिन के दो खेटे स्क का नाम देवक दूसरा उग्रसेन, '(there was) a king of the city of Mathurá, named A'huk, (who had) two sons; the name of one (was) Devak, the other (was) Ugrasen'.

b. The copula is also often omitted in comparisons; as, मूमि रेखो सुहावनी लगती घो कि चैसे सिंगार किये कामिनो, 'the earth looked as fair as a beauty adorned'.

c. Similarly, the copula is very commonly omitted in negative sentences; as, इस की किसी खास का चान नहीं, 'this (person has) no knowledge of anything'. **Rem.** In such phrases the omission of the copula is in fact only apparent. Nahin, as remarked § 372, is a compound of the negative na with an archaic form of the copula, dhin.

d. The copula is also usually omitted in proverbial expressions; as, चोरो का गुड़ मोठा, 'stolen sugar is sweet'; डूडूंदर के सिर में चंबेली का सेल, 'oil of jasmine on the head of a musk rat'.

e. But when there is any emphasis on the time as to which any affirmation is made, as past, present, or future, the copula must be employed.

694. The omission of the copula is extremely common in poetry; indeed, in the *Rámáyaņ*, its use is quite exceptional. Examples will be found in almost every line. Thus, सब विधि सब पुर लाग सुखारी, 'in every way, all the people of the city (were) rejoiced'; सतसंग्रांत मदमंगल-स्रला, 'association with the good, (is) the root of joy and gladness'.

a. But occasional examples of the use of the copula occur, determined by emphasis, or by the necessities of the metre; as, e.g., दुरा-राध्य ये आर्डींड महेगा. 'but difficult to be worshipped (is) Mahesh'.

b. As in all languages, we must distinguish the occasional use of the substantive verb, not as a copula, but as an essential word. Thus, वे लाग मानले हैं कि ईप्रवर है. 'those people admit that God exists'; भये जे बहाई जे हाइहें खागे, '(those things) which have been, are, or shall be hereafter'.

695. The predicate may belong to the subject in a greater or less degree as compared with other objects. For illustrations of the syntax of adjectives in such cases, see § 566, under 'Comparison'. In the case of verbs, the comparison is expressed by prefixing the proper adverb.

696. The subject and predicate may both be extended or defined, as in other languages, by the addition of various words in grammatical dependence upon them. The subject may be defined (1) by a noun or nouns in apposition.

Examples :- इस्तिनापुर का रइनेवाला राता भोध्मक आप है, 'Rájá Bhíshmak of Hastinápur, (lit., resident of) has come'; कार्तिक महीना आया, 'the month Kártik came'.

a. Here note the common idiom with the pronoun का, which occurs in the following phrase; यह नगरनिसायी का स्त्री का पुद्ध जापय में ये कहते थे. 'all the inhabitants of the city, whether men or women, were thus talking among themselves'.

b. The common idiom which occurs in the following sentences must be regarded as an appositive construction : सुको दो बोड़े कपड़े सिखे, 'I got two suits (of) clothes'; एक ढूंद पानी नहीं पड़ा, 'not one drop (of) water fell'.

c. In the following from the Prem Ságar, खालक is a predicative adjunct of the personal pronoun में: में खालक डूं खैरो सेरो, 'I, a child, (i.e., although a child.) am thy enemy'.

(2) The subject may be extended or defined by an adjective. In this case we may distinguish (a) the attributive, and (b) the predicative construction.

a. In the attributive construction, the adjective precedes the noun and forms conjointly with it one complex idea as, e.g., यह डरावनी मूरस कलि युग है, 'this frightful form is the Kali Yug'.

b. In the predicative construction, the adjective follows the noun, and is apprehended separately from it, being, as it were, the predicate of an abridged relative clause. Thus, **सम को मार्च तो जिमेय राज कर्च**, '(if) I kill this (child), then I may reign without fear'. In the following both constructions occur: उस बल का उपेष्ट पुत्र महापराक्रमी बड़ा तेजस्वी बानासुर था, 'the youngest son of that *Bal*, very powerful, and greatly renowned, was *Bánásur*'.

(3) The subject may also be defined by a pronoun used adjectively.

Thus, यह कन्या है भांजी तेरी, 'this girl is thy niece'; जा बात तुम ने कही, 'the thing which you said'.

(4) Or by a numeral.

Thus, इस बीच दोनों साई बाए, 'in the midst of this, the two brothers came'; दो सहस योद्धा दिखाई दिये, 'two thousand warriors appeared'.

(5) Or by a genitive.

Thus, सब सभा के लोग खुप हे। रहे. 'all the people of the assembly held their peace'; सब मेरा मनोरघ पूरा हुसा, 'now my desire has been fulfilled'.

Rem. As the genitive is de facto an adjective, it admits of the two constructions mentioned above under (2). But as Hindí often imitates the Persian by placing the genitive after the governing noun, its

predicative character cannot always be certainly inferred from its position. But it is evidently used as a predicate in the following from the *Prem Ságar*: इ: बालक ते। विन के कंस ने मार डाला, 'six children of theirs, then, *Kans* has slain'.

(6) By an adjective participle.

Here again, we have both (a) the attributive and (b) the predicative constructions. Thus, एक मरा सांघ छहा घड़ा था. 'a dead snake lay there'; but, in the predicative construction, एक सांघ मरा हुआ पड़ा था, 'a snake lay dead'; कंस डरता कांपला उठ खड़ा हुआ, 'Kans, fearing and trembling, rose and stood up'.

697. The predicate of a sentence may be extended,

(1) By a noun, pronoun, or any word or phrase used substantively. This includes several particulars.

a. The direct object of a verb; as, तुम संदेश कहा, 'declare the message'; राजा भोध्मक कुङ न खोले, 'Rájá Bhíshmak said nothing'. The object may sometimes be a phrase or sentence; as in the following, after a conjunctive participle; कपिन्द विधंय कृत मख देखि, 'seeing the sacrifice destroyed by the monkeys'; खरास घर के निकट बाई युन. 'hearing that the marriage procession had come near the house'; and, after an imperfect participle, चोलोइ खरास युनस यख रानो, 'all the queens, on hearing (the words), The marriage procession will move'.

Rem. Observe, that the object of the verb may itself again be defined in the same way as the subject noun (§696.) Thus, मेरा आपराध चमा कोचे, pardon my transgression'; इन्हें खन में आकेले न देर्गड़या, 'do not leave them alone in the jungle'.

b. Or the predicate, under the conditions specified in § 332, may be extended by the case of the agent; as, ब्राझा ने देवताओं का समका दिया, 'Brahmá caused the gods to understand'.

c. Or by a dative; as, नंद जो ने सब ब्राझवी को नेासा भेज दिया, 'Nand Ji sent an invitation to all the Brahmans'.

d. Or, in short, by any case of any noun or pronoun, defining the predicate in respect of time, place, manner, etc.; as, इन्हों ने ग्रेड में मोइन का आने दिया, 'they allowed *Mohan* to come into the house; उस का मन से पिइला सब ग्रोक गया, 'all the former grief left his heart'; आग पर्वस को चोटो सक सहको, 'the fire swept to the top of the mountain'.

e. Or the defining noun may be a nominative in apposition with the

predicate; as, usersial an नाम ये हैं न्याय वैभोषिक सांख्य योग्य मीमांसा वेदान्स, 'the names of the six systems are these, Nyáya, Vaisheshik, Sánkhya, Yogya, Mímánsá, Vedánt'. In the following, the nominative defining the predicate is appositive to the subject: तिस का साठवां सड़का तेरा काल उपजेगा, 'her eighth child shall be born as thy death'.

(2) The predicate may be extended by an adjective, or if a noun, also by a numeral.

Examples :-- इसारा घर पवित्र कोले, 'be pleased to purify our house'; ये राजा के चार पुत्र हैं, 'these are the king's four sons'; वह पर्वत स्थारह योजन ऊंचा चा, 'that mountain was eleven yojans high'.

(3) Or by a conjunctive participle.

a. Observe that this participle always has the force of an adverbial adjunct of the predicate, expressing the various adverbial relations of time, place, manner, etc., as explained in §597. Besides the illustrations there given, the following may be noted : नंद जो सांस उदाय दा संक्षो यांई लेने लगे. 'Nand Ji, being very sad, began to draw long sighs'; राज से उंठोरा दे सापना माना बैठाया. 'having taken the kingdom, and issued a proclamation, he established his seat'.

(3) Or by an adjective participle absolute (§596,(2)).

Examples :-- किंसने रक दिन मधुरा में रहसे भये. 'a number of days passed staying in *Mathurá*'; ची कृष्य चंद रक सुंदरी नारी संग लिये आये है, 'Shrí Krishņ Chand has come in company with a beautiful woman'.

Rem. The conjunctive and adjective participles may, again, themselves be defined in the same way as the tenses of a verb in the predicate of a sentence. For illustrations, see §§ 596-600.

(4) The predicate may also be extended by a preposition with its case.

Thus, उस ने खिन ची कृष्य चंद कोई घर न देखा, 'he saw no house without Shri Krishn Chand'; सब गोपी यसेादा के पास चली, 'all the milk-maids went to Yasodd'.

(5) Or by an adverb.

Thus, वह आंते प्रसन्न हुआ, 'he became greatly pleased'; शोच्न आयो, 'come quickly'.

## Agreement.

698. Agreement is three fold, viz.; (1) of an adjective used attributively with its noun; (2) of an adjective in the

predicative construction with its noun; (3), of the predicate of a sentence, whether verb or adjective, with the subject.

699. The general rules regulating the agreement of an adjective *attributive* with its subject have been already stated and illustrated ( $\S163$ ). The same rules apply to the agreement of the genitive attributive with the noun it defines (140).

700. But when an adjective or genitive attributive defines several nouns of different genders, usage as to agreement varies.

(1) The attributive may, preferably, agree in gender with the nearest noun.

Examples :--- उस को खहु स्रे। सहको, 'his wife and children'; तुम्हारी स्त्री स्रो चार पुत्र, 'your wife and four sons'.

(2) Or the attributive may take the form of the masculine, as the 'more worthy' gender, even though the noun immediately following be feminine.

Examples :-- तुम्हारा स्त्रीपुत्रादि, 'your wife, sons, etc.'; पुरुवराम जी ने वापने माता क्री भाषयां को खुलाया, 'Purusrám Jí called his mother and brothers'.

701. When an adjective or adjective participle occurs in the *predicative* construction with its noun, if the noun be in the accusative with  $\overline{an}$ , the adjective or participle regularly takes the form of the uninflected masculine singular, irrespective of the gender or case of the noun.

Examples :---मैं त्रिमुखन में ऐसा पराक्तमी किंसू की नहीं देखता हूं, 'in the three worlds I see no one so powerful'; नगर की जलता देख, 'seeing the city burning'.

a. But occasionally the predicative adjective or participle takes the feminine termination even after the accusative with को. Thus, in Damayanti, सुक दासी को तुम ने जंगल में व्यकेली द्वाड़ा, 'you have left me, your handmaid, alone in the wilderness'.

Rem. Here the construction seems confused; for although the adjective

takes the feminine termination, the verb follows the usual rule and retains the masculine form after ko.

b. Observe, that when a participle is found inflected after a noun with को, it is to be regarded, not as a predicative adjunct, but as in the absolute construction (596, (2)). Thus, जहां स्नोन ऋषि देवताची का बेटे पासा था, 'where he would find seated, sages, philosophers and gods'.

702. The same rule as to agreement applies to the pronominal accusatives in र and र as to those in को. Thus, इस किसे सच्चा खाने, 'whom shall we regard as the real (one)?'.

a. But in this case, again, we occasionally find a different usage; as, e.g., in the following from the Prem Ságar; खम में इन्हें सकोले मल होड़िया, 'do not leave this child alone in the jungle'.

703. If the noun be in the nominative or the nominative form of the accusative, the predicative adjective or participle agrees with it in gender and number, as in the attributive construction.

Thus, मन को वास क्यों नहीं पूरी करती, 'why dost thou not fulfil the desire of (my) heart?'; गायें राभती हैं।कती फिरती हैं, 'the cows, panting and lowing, are wandering about'; रेसा सेाच करता ... सुदामा आपने घर के निकट आया, 'thus reflecting, Sudámá came near his house'.

a. In the following phrase, we must supply the 1st personal pronoun; सुम ने इस बन में सजी अकेली, 'you have left (me) alone in this wilderness'.

704. The predicate verb, adjective, or noun must be inflected to agree with the subject in number, gender and person, in so far as they may be capable of such inflection.

Thus, शास्त्रविदाा स्त्री शस्त्रविदाा ये दोड उच्छ पद को दैनवारी हैं, 'sacred science and military science,—these two procure (men) a high rank'; तिसी देस में सुदामा नाम ख़ाझब.... रहता था, 'in that very country was living a Bráhman, by name Sudámá'.

a. Observe, that the case of the perfect of transitive verbs as construed with ने, is no exception to this rule; inasmuch as that which in English is the object, in this passive construction becomes the subject of the verb, with which it therefore agrees according to rule; as, की (विदारी ने). पिछली प्रोति यस वियारी, '*lit.*, 'or is the old love all forgotten (by Bihárí)?'; या इन्ग्री बयुदेव की व्याह दी, 'the six (daughters) were given in marriage to Basudev'.

705. When the subject of a verb is a sentence, the predicate is always put in the 3rd masculine singular. Thus, in the passive construction, एक गोपी ने कहा सुने। भाषो, 'one milk-maid said, Listen, dear !'.

706. When the subject is an honorific pronoun, an honorific plural, or a title of respect, although the reference is to an individual, the predicate or predicates must agree with it in the plural.

a. It will often happen that the noun or adjective in the predicate nominative, will admit of no distinction in form for plurality. But if, with such a predicate, any inflectible adjunct be joined, it must take the plural inflection, as in the second of the following examples : ये विधासा है, 'this is *Vidhátá*'; यही जगर के करों। है, 'this is the Creator of the world'; आप कब तक साट आंधगे, 'by what time will your honor return ?'.

707. When a pronominal nominative plural refers to both masculine and feminine objects, the predicate takes the form of the masculine gender; as, सुदामा को स्त्री खाली ... सब इम महादुख पाते हैं, 'Sudámá's wife said (to her husband),—Now we are experiencing great trouble'.

708. When the subject consists of two or more nouns or pronouns of different genders, the predicate and copula commonly agree in gender with the nearest noun. The same rule, it should be remarked, applies to an attributive adjunct under similar circumstances.

Thus, इस के तीन नेत्र झे। चार मुखा घों, 'this (creature) had three eyes and four arms'; तबबापन धन प्रभुता खविवेकता ये चारों एक एक खनर्थ की करनिहारी हैं, 'youth, wealth, authority, lack of judgment, these four are each occasions of failure'; खांधी खीर मेंह खाया, 'a dust-storm and shower came'.

a. Some say that occasionally the attributive or predicate takes the masculine gender without reference to the gender of the nearest noun. But I am not able to find any good authority for such usage, and have only noted the following illustration of it in literature: na purush na stri dyd, 'neither man nor woman came'.

709. When the subject consists of two or more words of different persons, the verb then preferably agrees with the

#### OF AGREEMENT.

1st person, rather than the 2nd or 3rd, and the 2nd, rather than the 3rd.

a. In this case, if the person preferred be in the singular, the verb agrees with it in that number, even though another noun be associated with it. Examples are as follows: वड तुम्हारा कारियत सात्मा डम तुम नहीं हैं, 'you and I are not that imagined spirit of yours'; सात में सेर तू वहां चलूंगा जहां तू सेर वह बेठा था, 'to-day thou and I will go to the place where thou and he were seated'; वहां तू सेर वह न जाने पायगा, 'thou and he will not obtain leave to go there'.

Rem. In the colloquial, however, many people follow the same rule with regard to agreement in the case of different persons, as when there are different genders; *i.e.*, the verb is made to agree in person with the nearest word. Thus many would say, main aur tú chalegá, tú aur we chalenge.

710. When a subject noun denotes, not an individual, but a class, the predicate, although referring to a plurality individuals, is placed in the singular.

Example :--- दल चला जाता था, 'the army was going along'. So in the following, the subjects are construed as collectives : ये इ: कर्म्स ब्राझ्म के लिये स्थापन किया, 'these six duties were appointed for the Bráhman'; सोन दिन रास बोस गया, 'three days and nights passed'.

a. On the same principle, सख, 'all', is often construed as a singular; as, सख की सख घखराई, 'all of them were troubled'; यह सख मित्र का दूसन है, 'all these are faults in a friend'.

711. Finally, it should be remarked that the common people, as might be expected, are often very careless of the laws of agreement. Deviations from rule are even found occasionally in literature. Thus we read, even in Prof. Eastwick's carefully edited *Prem Ságar*, आपने बहन का नेगरने गई, 'she went to invite her sister'.

712. In poetry, moreover, the rules of agreement often give way to the necessities of the metre, as in the following, where  $\bar{a}$ , (*plur.*) is construed first with a singular verb, and afterwards with a plural:  $\bar{a}$  us any ance nice mean asis genice, 'those who, abandoning deceit, sing this tale, hear (it and) tell (it)'.

II.—OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

A. Of Co-ordinate Sentences.

713. When two or more connected sentences are gram-

matically independent of one another, they are called *coör*dinate sentences; and when one is dependent upon the other, it is called a *subordinate* sentence.

714. Co-ordinate compound sentences in Hindí, as in other languages, may be classified as Copulative, Disjunctive, Adversative, and Causal.

#### Copulative Sentences.

715. The conjunctions proper to copulative co-ordination are win and with. with, 'and', joins two propositions when they are regarded as of equal importance, and as independent one of the other. with...with, 'and'....'also', implies that the affirmation of the former clause is extended either, (a) in the subject, or (b) in the predicate.

Examples :- वह चला गया और फिर नहीं आया, 'he went away, and did not return'; भो कृष्य जो पधारे और खलराम जो भो उन के संग चले गये, 'Shri Krishn departed, and Balrám Ji also went off with him'; यह पुरुष धर्म्भी है और वह बहुत विदयामान भी है, 'this man is virtuous, and he is also very learned'.

a. Very often the copula or verb may be omitted from either the first or the second member of the copulative sentence. Thus, यह पुरुष धर्म्मी जी बहुत विद्यामान भी है. 'this man is both virtuous and also very learned'. The ellipsis of the verb in the second member, is more common in the colloquial speech than in literature.

b. फिर or पुनि is often used as a copulative conjunction, with a resumptive force. Thus, उस ने ऊषा को उठा लिया फिर आनिस्ट्र जी को भी उठा लिया, 'he lifted up Ushá; again, he also bound Aniruddh Ji'.

c. The pronominal phrase, तिस पर भी, lit., 'upon that also', is often used as a copulative conjunction, with an *enhancive* force; as, तिस पर भी मनुष्य धर्म्म करेंगे, 'moreover, men will do unrighteousness'.

# Disjunctive Sentences.

716. Disjunctive co-ordinate sentences are connected by the conjunctions an or war, u, isian, and is, 'or'. Any of these may be repeated in successive clauses, when the first must be rendered 'either', and the second, 'or'. There is no difference in their meaning: at is preferred to usuar to connect single words; usual is preferred to connect sentences.

Examples :--- इम इन को लेके कुले को डांक उकते हैं आधवा ख़ूंटी खना उकते हैं, 'we can take them and drive away a dog, or make stakes of them'; इन्हें पढ़ाड़ मारे। के मेरे आगे से टाले।, 'throw him down, or drive him away from my presence'. Also see § 667, a, b.

a. Sometimes sentences are disjunctively coordinated by the verb चाई....चाई; thus, चाई आवे चाई न आवे, 'whether he come, or do not come'.

b. Negatively disjunctive sentences are connected by repeating with each the negative adverb,  $\neg$ ; as,  $\neg$  as  $\overline{}$  as  $\overline{}$   $\overline{}$  as  $\overline{$ 

c. The first negative is sometimes omitted; as, इन्हें पाने का इब न जाने का छोक, 'this (man) has neither joy at finding, nor sorrow at losing'.

# Adversative Sentences.

717. In adversative coordination, two statements are contrasted with one another. These adversative sentences are of three kinds, viz; (1) the second proposition may be *contradictory* or exclusive of the first; (2) it may be mere-ly *restrictive* of the former statement; or (3) the contrast may be made by *extending* the former statement.

a. It is doubtful whether Hindí as yet has strictly appropriated certain adversative conjunctions to introduce restrictive as distinguished from contradictory adversative clauses. But, on the whole, the tendency seems to be, to introduce a contradictory adversative clause by uter; (very rarely, fare;) or the equivalent Arabic enden; while ut is commonly employed to introduce a sentence merely restrictive of the other. But an extensive adversative clause is regularly introduced by eter, or the Arabic enter.

b. In the following examples, परन्सु, किन्सु and पर, are used strictly in accordance with the principle above suggested: (1) जीव का खना-नेवाला कोई नहीं परन्सु वह आप से आप सदाकाल से खना है, 'of the soul there

is no creator, but it has existed of itself from eternity'; दुरात्मा का शास्त्र के पठ़ने से कुछ नहीं होता किन्तु इस विषय में स्वभाव हो खलवान है, 'a man of bad character gains nothing from reading the Shástra, but in this matter the nature prevails': (2) तू ने तेंग खड़े खड़े खली मारे हें पर सख मेरे हाच से जीता न खरोगा, 'thou hast indeed slain many very mighty (men), but now thou shalt not escape alive out of my hand'; मन से तेंग चाहा कि भागूं पर मारे लाज के भाग न सका. 'in his heart, indeed, he wished to flee, but for shame flee he could not'.

c. While these examples seem to sustain the principle suggested, it must be admitted that even good writers often fail to make this distinction in the use of the different adversative conjunctions. Thus, in the following from the **Paren** Ságar, परन्तु त is used to express a mere restriction: में तोरे आगे कहता हूं परन्तु त किंस के सेही मत कहियो, 'I am telling it before thee, but do not thou tell it before any one'. And in the following from the Shad Darshan, पर introduces a contradictory clause: बेद किसी का खनाया हुआ नहीं है पर आप से आप अनादि-काल से खना हुआ है, 'the Ved is not the composition of any one, but has existed of itself from eternity'.

d. Examples (3) of extensive adversative clauses are as follows: वे इन के कहने के। कुछ ध्यान में न लाये खरन इन की खोर से मुंह फेरा, 'they paid no attention to their speaking, but turned their faces away from them'; ईश्वर के स्थापन करने के लिये नहीं खरन संडन करने के लिये है. 'it is not for establishing (the doctrine of a) God, but rather for disproving it'.

# Causal Sentences.

718. In causal co-ordination, the one sentence denotes either the reason or the consequence, the cause or the effect of the other. A sentence denoting the cause or reason, is commonly introduced by the conjunction with, or the noun ante, used conjunctively; a clause expressing a consequence or effect is introduced by the conjunctive phrases, we feed fa, fare feed fa, we area, or their equivalents. The conjunction we, 'therefore', is confined to Urdú.

Examples :--- इस उन्हें सुख देंगे क्वोंकि विन्हीं ने इसारे लिये बड़ा दुख सड़ा है, 'I will give them happiness because they have endured great affliction for me'; ऐसा काम न करना ईप्रवर के साम्हने अपराध ठहरेगा इस लिये में इस आधा का सावलेंब करता हूं, 'not to do such a deed, will stand as a sin before God, hence I cherish this hope'.

a. For इस लिये, etc., the pronominal ablatives, इस से, या सें, ला लें, etc., are often used to connect sentences in the causal relation, as, e.g., in the following : यह पाई दारि मारेगी या से या के पास गये हो जने, 'this (vulture) will pursue and kill me, hence one can only succeed by having gone to him'.

b. The connecting conjunction or phrase is sometimes omitted in cases where we must nevertheless recognize the sentences as coordinated in the causal relation. Thus, मेरे भक्तों को भोर पड़ी दे दस समय खलकर उन को खिन्मा मेटा चाहिये, 'my worshippers are oppressed, (hence) I ought at this time to go and remove their anxiety'.

# B. Subordinate Sentences.

719. Subordinate sentences are of three kinds, viz. (1) Subordinate, (2) Adjective or Relative, (3) Adverbial. These will each be defined and explained in their order below.

720. Before entering upon the consideration of subordinate clauses. it will be convenient to advert to a threefold classification of the tenses of the Hindí verb, as denoting the possible, the impossible, and the actual. I. The following four tenses denote an action or state of being, contingently, as merely possible, riz.; the Contingent Future, the Imperative, the Contingent Imperfect, and the Contingent Per-II. The following are used to denote a supposition whose fect. realization has become impossible; viz., the Indefinite Imperfect, the Negative Contingent Imperfect, and the Negative Contingent Perfect. III. The remaining tenses are all indicative; i.e., they all denote an action either as a reality, or as assumed to be such. In all the rules for the use of the tenses in subordinate sentences, it is to be remembered that the tenses of Class I are required when an action or state is regarded as a mere possibility; those of Class II are used to denote a past possibility which cannot now be realized; \* those of Class III, denote, under various phases, the actual and real. These statements will receive abundant illustration in the following sections.

<sup>\*</sup> It should be remarked, however, that the Indefinite Imperfect, in virtue of its double character (§§ 615, 616), belongs properly to both classes I and II.

#### BUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

### Substantive Clauses.

721. Those are called substantive clauses which are equivalent to a substantive expanded into a sentence.

a. Thus, in the sentence परमेखवर एक दे यह धर्म्स को मूख्य खाल दे, 'that God is one, is a fundamental doctrine of religion', the phrase परमेखवर एक दे, is evidently equivalent to the substantive phrase, परमेखवर का एकत्व, 'the Divine unity'. Again, in the sentence कहते हे कि वह आवे-गा, 'the phrase वह आवेगा is evidently equivalent to an accusative case after the verb कहते हे.

722. Substantive clauses are of two kinds, (1) Subjective and (2) Predicative. Those are called subjective which stand either in the relation of a subject to the leading verb, or in apposition with the subject. Those are called predicative which limit or define the predicate of the leading sentence or any adjunct of that predicate. All subjective substantive clauses are regularly introduced by the particle **fer**, 'that'.

Examples of subjective substantive clauses are as follows: -- उस ने कहा कि इमें जो कृष्य से कुछ नहीं, 'he said (*lit.* by him [was] said), I have nothing to do with Shrí Khrishn'. Very commonly यह, 'this', stands as the subject of the leading clause, and the following substantive clause then stands in opposition with it; thus, यह सिद्ध होसा है कि मनुष्य का सपनो खुद्धि से परमेखतर का सत्य चान प्राप्त करना सत्यम्स कटिन है, 'this is evident, that for man by his own understanding to obtain the knowledge of God, is extremely difficult. In the following sentence the substantive clause *defines* the subject सामा of the leading verb, as to its elements; -- उस समय को सामा कुछ खरनो नहीं चालो कि सब के आगे खड़े खड़े दंसीले मलवाले हाधियों को पालि, 'the splendor of that occasion cannot be described, how before all (were) rows of enormous tusked and furious elephants'.

a. After a leading clause expressing 'fitness', 'duty', 'obligation', etc., the verb of the substantive clause is regularly put in the contingent future, or one of the respectful forms of the imperative. Thus, उचित है कि किसी की वहां भेज दोखे, 'it is fitting that (you) send some one there'; तुम की अवस्य है कि वहां जाओ, 'it is necessary that you go there'. 723. *Predicative* substantive clauses are of various forms. Thus, they may stand as the object, either of the verb in the leading clause, or of a participial adjunct in the leading clause. In this case they are usually introduced by the particle in.

Examples :---नारद मुनि झनिषद्ध जी की जाय सममाता था कि तुम किसी खात की चिन्ता मत करो, 'Nárud the sage went and comforted Aniruddh Jí, (saying)--Do not be anxious about anything'; राजकुमारी मन ही मन यूं कहती फिरती है कि मैं किसे खदं. 'the princess walks about, saying in her heart of hearts,--Whom shall I marry ?'; तुम देखि याग्री कि कौन राजा चढ़ जाता है, 'go and see what king is coming up against (us)'.

a. Occasionally जो introduces the substantive clause, instead of कि. Thus, यही खिचारो जो मधुरा और खुन्दाखन में अन्तर ही क्या है, 'consider this, what difference at all is there between Mathurá and Brindában'.

b. Sometimes, especially before short clauses, कि may be omitted; as, चित्ररेक्षा बोली, सब्ती दधर आयो, 'Chitrarekhá said, 'Friend, come here'.

N. B. It is very important to observe that after verbs of 'saying', 'thinking', 'wishing', etc., Hindí, unlike English, does not admit the *oratio obliqua*. On the contrary, idiom demands that the words or thoughts of the speaker be cited as they pass in his mind.

This principle makes it necessary, in translating from English into Hindí, to change both the tense and the person of the verb, as illustrated in the following examples : उस ने कहा कि आदंगा. 'he said he would come', *lit.*, 'by him said, I will come'; जो चाहा कि अलदेव की मादं, 'as he wished (*i.e.*, was about to) kill *Buldev*', *lit.*, 'wished, May I kill *Baldev*'.

a. In the Rámáyan (Bál K.), we read, मुपति मन माहों भद्द गलानि मोरे मुस नाहों. Here there is an ellipsis of a conjunctive participle, as देशींच. 'thinking', of which the substantive clause, मोरे मुस नाहों, is the object; and these words, 'I have no son', are represented as actually passing in the mind of the king. Thus we may render the passage in English idiom, 'sadness entered the heart of the king, as he thought how he had no son'. 724. Predicative substantive clauses, again, may express the *purpose* or *object* of the action of the leading verb.

a. In this case, the substantive clause may be conceived of as in opposition to some such word as कारब, or देतु, 'reason', object', in the principal clause. Such a word is indeed, for the sake of greater clearness, often expressed. The clause denoting the object or purpose, is introduced by the conjunction कि, or the relative का used as a conjunction. The verb of the substantive clause expressing the purpose must be in the contingent future. Thus, इम सुम्हें खुन्दाखन में भेजा चाहते हैं कि सुम उन का समाधान कर आओ, 'I wish to send you to Brindában, that you may go and comfort them'; में धर्म्म का कर्म्म हो न कर्डाता जिस तें उस बंधन से बचा रहूं, 'I will not perform even an act of religion, in order that I may remain free from this bondage'; तू खाखा से समसायकर कहा जा सुन्के ग्यालों के संग पठाय दे, 'do thou coax father that he may send me with the cowherds'.

725. A negative clause denoting purpose is introduced by the phrase, रेसा न हो कि, followed by the contingent future. Thus, वहां न जादया रेसा न हो कि तुम गिरो, 'do not go there, lest you fall'. रेसा is often omitted.

a. Sometimes the connective must be supplied from the context; as, नाइन डर खिगराइ परलेाकू, 'I have no fear lest (my) hereafter should be ruined'.

726. When the substantive clause denotes the result of an action, if that result be presented (1) merely as a wish or expectation, the verb must be in the contingent future; if (2) as an objective reality, the verb must be in one of the indicative tenses; if (3) as unattainable or inconceivable, the verb must be in the indefinite imperfect.

Thus (1) एक ऐसी सुन्दर रंग्रम्मि बनवावे कि जिस की सेामा सुनते हो गांव गांव के लोग उठ धार्व, 'let us cause to be made such a beautiful theatre that the people of each village immediately on hearing may rise and run (to see it)'; (2) मधुरा में तेरा क्या काम है कि पिसा को छोड़ यहां रहता है, 'what is thy business in Mathurá that leaving (thy) father, thou art living here ?'; वह बन में इस भांति रा रही घी आकेली. कि जिस के रोने की छुन सन राते घे पह पंछी, 'in the wilderness alone, she was weeping away in

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such a manner that the beasts, and birds, hearing the voice of her weeping, were weeping (too)'; (3) चार्क्षव को क्या सामर्थ थी ले। बहन को से जाता, 'what power had Arjun, that he should carry away (my) sister?'

*Rem.* The result of an action is in Hindí more frequently expressed by an adjective clause introduced by a relative pronoun or pronominal, as illustrated in the next paragraph.

# Adjective Clauses.

727. Those are called adjective (or relative) clauses which are equivalent to an adjective qualifying some word or clause in the leading sentence.

a. For example, take the compound sentence, चो कृत्व ने उन सकोरों का गिना जो उस ने खेंचो घों, 'Shrí Krishn counted those lines which he had drawn'. Here the phrase introduced by जो qualifies the substantive सकोरों को after the manner of an adjective, and is indeed equivalent to स्वापनो खोंचो हुई सकोरों को.

728. All adjective clauses are regularly introduced by the relative pronoun or a pronominal adjective to which the corresponding correlative regularly answers in the principal clause. The relative clause may be regarded as a simple expansion of the correlative pronoun. Instead of the correlative, one of the demonstratives (as,  $ux, ax, \bar{x}u$ , etc., or the pronominal ux) may be used in the principal clause.

a. Where especial distinctness is desired, the noun described by the adjective clause may be repeated in both the principal and subordinate clauses. Thus, राइसेंग का दल जो घिर आया या से दल खादल सा हाया था, 'the army of demons which had come up around them,—that army cast a shadow as a cloud'; जा घट प्रेम ना खसे ता घट जाने। मसान, 'in whose body love dwells not, regard his body as a burning-ground (of the dead)'.

b. But, much more commonly, Hindí idiom, placing the relative clause with the noun first, omits the noun from the principal clause which follows. Thus, जिसने प्रस्त कारे पर खासे सितने प्रभु ने सहज की काट

डासे, 'the lord with perfect ease broke in pieces every weapon which was cast at *Hari*'. खारह याजन का नगर जैसा ची कृष्य ने कहा था तैसा ही रात भर में बनाया, 'a city twelve *yojans* square, such as *Shri Krishņ* had directed, he built in one night'.

c. Sometimes, when the principal clause precedes, the substantive is omitted in the relative clause, as in English. Thus, भौमासुर पुष्प विमान में बैठे जे। संका से साया था, 'Bhaumásur sat in the 'Flower-chariot' which had come from Lanká'.

d. Or the substantive may be omitted in both the principal and subordinate clause, when no particular person is intended, or when the reference is to a subject well known. Thus, जो विन दोनों को मारेगा से मुंह मांगा धन पावेगा, 'he who shall kill those two, shall obtain the wealth his lips shall ask'; जिस ने सारे संसार की सुजा इम सब उसी के बस है, 'we are all in the power of Him who created the world'.

e. Sometimes the correlative may be omitted from the leading clause especially in poetry; as, मेरे मन का सूल तो खटकता दे निकाले, 'take out the thorn which is rankling in my heart'; ते सानिस्ट पर परें इपयार सधवर कटें सिला को धार, 'the weapons which fell on Aniruddh, were cut in two on the edge of the stone'. In the common formula of assent from an inferior, तो हुक्म, or तो साचा, there is an ellipsis of the entire principal clause (sc. हा सो में कर्रगा).

f. The relative may be omitted from the subordinate clause. Thus, खचे से भागे, 'those who escaped, fled'; मोठे बाले साइ कीन पराया, 'who is unfriendly to him who speaks kindly ?'. This is especially common in poetry ; as. गुरुपदरज मृदु मंजुल श्रंजन नयन श्रामिय दृगरोघांवमंजन सोइ कारे विमल विवेक विलोचन, 'the soft and beautiful collyrium of the dust of (my) Guru's feet; (which is) nectar (to) the eyes, removing (all) defect of vision,—applying this to the clear eyes of the understanding, etc.'

g. Or, finally, where the connexion is quite plain, both the relative and correlative pronouns are omitted; as, भला किया केंग्र को मारा, 'you have done well (in that you have) killed Kans'.

729. The indicative tenses (Class III. §721) will appear in adjective clauses whenever the qualification is stated as a fact. Of this abundant illustration will be found in the above quotations. But when the qualification is not stated

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as an objective reality, one of the contingent tenses is employed.

a. This is especially the case, (1) in adjective clauses, denoting the object, purpose, or prospective result of an action; also, (2) in all indefinite specifications of number, quantity, quality, etc., where no particular individuals are intended. In this latter case; चेचा, and दसना or दत्ता are very commonly found in the principal clause; and the subordinate clause is to be regarded as the expansion of that pronominal. Sometimes the adjective clause is introduced by in, instead of जा. Examples are as follows : (1) जिस में कृष्य वलदेव आवें सा कर काज, 'do that thing by which Krishn and Baldev may come'; Hin तोड राखव राज सेाच मार जेडि कराई न काज, 'keep the king in such a way that he may never feel troubled about me'; (2) जिस शास्त्र में परमेशवर का शुद्ध वर्थन हो, 'in that Scripture in which there may be a clear account of God'; जितने लोग आए हो सब को नेस्रोता दो, 'as many people as may have come, invite them all'; रेसा आनन्द उपजा कि दख नाम को न रहा, 'such joy arose that sorrow remained not to (its) name'; रेसा उपाय करो जो फलदायक हो, 'lay such a plan as may be effective'; किसे इतनी सामर्थ है जा उसे वखाने, 'who has so much ability that (he) might set it forth ?'

b. In the following the principal clause implies a condition, which not being realized, the result was impossible. Hence the Indefinite Imperfect (§ 615, [5]) is used in the adjective clause, सार्जुन को क्या सामर्थ घो जा इमारी बहन को ले जाता, 'what was Arjun's power that he should carry off our sister?' But in the following the contingent future is employed; नहीं तें। उन को क्या सामर्थ घो जा कीरवीं से लड़े, 'else what was their power that they should fight with the Kaurars?'

c. Sometimes the adjective clause contains two or more relatives corresponding to as many correlatives in the principal clause. In this case English idiom requires that all except the leading relative be translated as indefinites. Thus, जो जोहि भाव नोक तोह सोई, 'whatever one's disposition may be, that (disposition) seems good to him'; जिन के रही भावना जैसी प्रमु सूरति देखी तिन तैसी. 'whatever affection existed with any one, according to that they beheld the lord's form'.

Rem. A similar construction occurs with relative adverbs.

d. Sometimes  $\overline{a}\overline{a}$ , used adverbially, is elegantly substituted for the relative in final clauses, so that they assume the form of adverbi-

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al clauses. Thus, जैसे जाय माह भ्रम भारी करहु से। जतन, 'make such an effort as that vain affection and gross error may depart'.

e. Similarly जहां may take the place of the noun and relative which should appear in the adjective clause; as, धन्य से। नगर जहां से साये, 'blessed that city whence they came'.

# Adverbial Clauses.

730. The *adverbial* clause is the expansion of an adverb. It therefore defines the predicate of the principal clause in respect of time, place, manner, cause, or any other adverbial idea.

731. Temporal adverbial clauses are regularly introduced by  $\frac{1}{2}$  ( $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ ), 'when', to which the correlative  $\frac{1}{2}$  ( $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ ), 'when', to which the correlative  $\frac{1}{2}$  ( $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ ), 'when', to which the correlative  $\frac{1}{2}$  ( $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ ), 'when', to which the correlative  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ ), 'when', to which the correlative  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ , 'when', to which the correlative  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ , 's and 's and

a. For the above adverbs may be substituted various nouns denoting time, as समय, काल, दिन. etc., preceded by the relative pronoun in the subordinate, and the correlative, or a demonstrative in the principal clause. Thus, e.g., जिस समय अनिष्ठ जो की खानासुर ले गया, उस काल सानिष्ठ जो खिलारते थे. 'at the time Bánásur carried off Aniruddh, Aniruddh was reflecting'.

b. Occasionally a temporal clause is elegantly introduced by कि, as. वह भूखा बैठा था, कि इस में विस्वामित्र ने यह बचन कहा, 'he was seated hungry when Viscámitra said this word'.

c. As in adjective clauses, the relative is often omitted; as, सख गोपियां चारों खार से घेर कर खड़ी भईं तब ची कृष्य उन्हें साथ लिये वहां खास, 'all the milk-maids stood encircling him on every side, then Shri Krishn, taking them along, came to that place'; चलेड्ड प्रसंग दुरायड्ड तखडूं, 'when conversation is actually going on, even then conceal (it)'.

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732. Local Adverbial clauses are regularly introduced by the relative adverbs wet, or form, or their equivalents, combined when necessary with various postpositions. The proper correlative or the demonstrative regularly follows in the principal clause.

Thus, जहां लामस ऋषि घे तहां कितने रक लड़के खेलते हुए जा निकले 'several children playing came out where the sage Lomas was'; जहां कंस गया है तहांई सुम्हें भी भेलूंगा, 'where Kans has gone, will I send you too, to that very place'.

a. When the principal clause precedes the subordinate, वहां is commonly preferred to the correlative तहां; as, रानियां वहां गईं जहां ... दोनों खोर मृतक लिये खैठे घे, 'the queens came where the two herces were seated with the corpse'. वहीं गया जहां बसुदेव देवकी घे, 'he went to the very place where were Basudev and Devaki'.

b. Occasionally, as in temporal clauses, a noun of locality, combined with the relative or correlative pronoun, takes the place of one or both of the local adverbs; as, धन्य यह ठाँर जहां साकर प्रभु ने दर्शन दिया, 'blessed (is) this place, where the lord has come and revealed himself'.

Thus, ज्यों रघ निकट आया, त्यों गोपियां कहने लगी, 'as the chariot drew near, the milk-maids began to say—'. Or, rarely, the adverbial clause may be introduced by कि, indicating it as the explication of येt in the leading sentence. Thus, यो कह देवकी को खचाऊं कि चे पुत्र मेरे इंग्रा से तुम्हें दूंगा, 'speaking thus, I may save Devaki, namely, The one which I shall have I will give to you'.

Rem. The latter clause here approximates closely in character to an objective substantive clause; but differs from it in that the sentence is not given as the very words to be spoken, so that it cannot stand in the relation of an accusative to the verb  $\mathbf{as}$ .

a. Still more common than the above, is the adverbial use of जैसे or its equivalents to introduce a modal clause. This is used almost invariably in introducing a comparison. Thus, जैसे आप ने कांस की मार भक्तों की सुख दिया तैसे ही मधुपुरी का राज कर प्रजा पालन कीजे, 'as your

majesty, having destroyed Kans, gave joy to your worshippers, even so, reigning over Madhupúr, be pleased to take care of the people'; जैसे बने तैसे ही से आते हैं, 'in whatsoever way it may be accomplished, so will we bring him'.

b. When the principal clause precedes the other, the demonstrative is commonly substituted for the correlative pronominal. Thus, रेसा सुख माना कि जैसे तथी तथ कर अधने तथ का फल पाय सुख माने. 'they rejoice as an ascetic, having done penance, rejoices on receiving the fruit of that penance'.

c. The correlative may be omitted from the principal clause; as, जैस खाल लुडार के सांस लेत खिनु प्रान, 'like bellows of the blacksmith, it breathes without life'.

d. For जैसे and तैसे, जिमि and तिमि are often substituted in the Rámáyaņ. The correlative, however, is often omitted. Thus, जिमि यह कथा सुमायउ मोहो तिमि जीन हरिहि सुनावह कखह, 'never tell this story to Hari, as you have told it to me'. सहित देख दुख दास दुरासा दलह नाम जिमि राव निस नासा, 'the Name removes the worshipper's despair, with (his) sin and sorrow, as the sun destroys the night'.

e. As in other adverbial clauses, appropriate nouns combined with the relative and correlative pronouns, may take the place of the modal adverb; as, **take the place** of the will tell thee hereafter in what way it happened'.

734. In temporal, local and modal adverbial clauses alike, one principle determines the use of the indicative or contingent tenses. When the adverbial clause is introduced merely as a supposition, without reference to any objective reality, then one of the three contingent tenses, future, imperfect, or perfect must be used; but when it is presented as an objective reality, one of the indicative tenses.

a. Thus, the contingent future is used in indefinite statements of time or place; as, जब वह आवे सुके खबर दोजे. 'when he comes, (then) let me know'; जहां मिले उसे बहां पकड़ लाहयो, 'seize and bring him from wherever you may find him'.

b. Similarly, one of the contingent tenses is commonly employed in comparisons, when the object with which comparison is made, is regarded merely as a mental conception. Thus, दोनों बीर रेसे टूटे जैसे इर्गाघयों के यूघ पर सिंह टूटे, 'the two heroes broke (upon them) as a lion might break upon a herd of elephants'. But when the illustration is regarded as an objective reality, one of the indicative tenses is employed. Thus, भी कृष्य खलराम रेसे साभायमान लगते घे जैसे सघन घन में दामिनी सुद्दावनी लगती है, 'Shrí Krishn (and) Balrám seemed as beautiful as seems the lightning in a dense storm-cloud'.

*Rem.* The choice of the tense in comparisons is thus obviously determined entirely by the way in which the speaker or writer chooses to regard the object with which comparison is made.

c. In poetry, the copula being omitted, the mode of conception is left undefined. Thus, जे। गुनरहित यगुन से। कैसे जल हिमउपल, 'He who is the unconditioned, how becomes he conditioned ? as the water'.

735. Causal adverbial clauses express (1) the reason, ground, or consequence of the principal clause. They are commonly introduced by  $\frac{1}{241}$ , used as a conjunction (§ 520), in the sense of 'since', or 'whereas'. The principal clause is then introduced by  $\frac{1}{241}$  or  $\frac{1}{241}$ .

Examples :--- इस जो रेसे दुख में हैं इमें कोई छुड़ानेवाला चाहिये, 'since we are in such trouble, we ought to have some deliverer'; किसनो एक खेर में जो कधो जो सेको उठे, तो नंद उस को पास जा खैठे, 'after some time, as U'dho Ji, having slept, arose, Nand went and sat beside him':---sometimes the subordinate clause is not formally stated; thus, सा चानो पुरुष मरने को चाननार पाषान को समान हो रहता है, 'so intelligent man after death passes into the condition of a stone'.

(2) Causal adverbial clauses may express the condition under which the action of the principal verb takes place, as the causa sine quá non of the event. The subordinate clause is called the *protasis*, and the principal clause the *apodosis*. The *protasis*, expressing the condition, is regularly introduced by  $\overline{an}$  or  $u\overline{a}$  or the Persian unit, 'if'; and the *apodosis*, by the illative  $\overline{an}$ .

736. It is important to give careful attention to the discriminative use of the tenses in compound sentences involving a condition. The following principles are to be noted.

The realization of the condition may be (1) possible, (2) actual, or (3) impossible. Hence, three general cases present themselves :---

(1) The condition may be only subjectively assumed as a *possibility*, which may or may not be in accordance with fact. In this case the verb of the *protasis* must be in one of the three contingent tenses, future, imperfect or perfect. (§§ 604, 622, 631.) When the consequence is regarded as certainly following, if the condition be fulfilled, then the verb of the principal clause will be in one of the indicative tenses; but when the conclusion is presented (b) as merely a possible issue, one of the contingent tenses must be employed.

Thus, a. कल जा जुरासिंध चढ़ सावे ता प्रजा दुख पावेगी, 'if Jurdsindh should attack us to-morrow, then the people will have trouble'; बा त्रिलाको को माया दूं, तैाभी तुम्हारे ऋन से उतरन न ई, 'if I should give the riches of the three worlds, yet I am not free from indebtedness to you'; जै। तेहि आजु बध बिनु आवीं । ते। रघुपतिसेवक न कहावीं, 'if I come to-day without having slain this (demon) then let me not be called the servant of the lord of Raghu':-b. जा इसी का मार्ड ता निर्भय राज कर्ड. 'if I but kill this woman, then I may reign without fear'; or, with the respectful form for the contingent future; जो आप इसे सोया चाहिये ता में रक उपाय बतार्क, 'if your honor wish to get rid of this, then I may suggest a plan'. Thus the contingent future is used in both apodosis and protasis to express a conceivable hypothesis, with its conse-Thus, जी दिन प्रति आहार कर साई विस्व वीग चौपट होई. 'if he quence. should eat every day, the world would soon be a waste':--c. For the contingent future in the protasis the imperative may be substituted; as, से कुया कर कहा ते हमारे मन का संदेह जाय, 'kindly tell me that, (i.e., if you will tell me,) 'then the doubt of my mind may be removed'.

*Rem.* Observe (1) that as the Oriental dislikes direct and positive assertion a contingent tense is often used in Hindí, when English idiom would require the indicative:

Rem. (2) It must also be remembered that in all but the most modern Hindí these nice discriminations are constantly neglected, so that, in poetry especially e.g., we often find the forms of the contingent future, where the letter of these rules would require absolute future; as, e.g., jo ihi barai amara so hoi, where modern idiom would require hogá; he who marries this girl shall become immortal'.

(2) When the condition is assumed as a reality, or in the future, past or present time, as when its fulfilment is assuredly expected, then the protasis takes the verb in the absolute future or some other of the indicative tenses. In the apodosis the conditions above specified necessarily regulate the choice of a contingent or indicative tense.

Examples :--- जे। मैं निकल्ंगा तो उस की समर्थ्याद होगो, 'if I come out, then he will be degraded'; जे। मैं सब कोध करता हूं तो काज विगड़ेगा, 'if I now get angry, the business will be spoiled'; जे। तू ने नहीं खिया ते। कीर कीन से गया, 'if you did not take him, then who else did carry him off?'

(3) In the third place, both condition and consequence may be contrary to fact and impossible of realization. The protasis expresses a condition which was not realized, the apodosis a consequence which would have followed had not the condition failed. The verb of the protasis is commonly put in the indefinite imperfect, much less frequently in the negative contingent perfect, and very rarely in the negative contingent imperfect. The verb of the apodosis is commonly also found in the indefinite imperfect.

Examples :-- जो में उन से कुछ मांगले तो वह देते, 'had I asked any thing from him, he would have given (it); जो यह प्रसंग चलता ते। मैं भी सुनता, 'had this story been going on, then I too should have heard (it); जैा में झाया न होता तो उन की पाप न होता, 'had I not come, they had not had sin'.

a. Sometimes the past imperfect is used in the apodosis; thus, जे चाइला ते ला सकता था, 'he was able to bring it, if he had wished'. The past tense, था, of the copula is sometimes found alone in the apodosis; thus, जे तुम मेरी सुनते ते अच्छा था, 'it had been well if you had heard what I had to say'.

737. The conditional conjunction is often omitted in all varieties of the conditional sentence. Thus, जमुना के सोर पर जा रहूं से खन्नूं, '(if) I go and live on the bank of the Jamná, then I may escape'. Here

. may be noted the common idiom, in which a verb is repeated with ता; as, e.g., सुमें कष्ट्र देाय ता दाय, *lit.*, '(if) trouble be to me, then it may be', *i.e.*, 'very possibly I may have trouble'.

a. In phrases introduced by नहीं ते।, or its equivalents, there is an ellipsis of the entire protasis except its negative. Thus, इसी समय जताया चाहिये नहीं ते। क्या जानिये पोळे क्या दुख दे, 'I ought to inform him at once, (if I do) not, then who knows what pain he may afterwards give ?' Similar are the following passages from the Rámáyan; साइ रघुनाथ तुमांद करनीया नतरू....में न जियख, 'that, O lord of Raghu, is to be done by you, else I shall not live'; सुमुखि हो नत जीवन हानी, 'be cheerful, else there is peril of your life'; सहेदं कठोर खचन सठ तारे नाहिन्त सै जातेदं सीतांद खरजोरे, 'I endure thy hard words, wretch, else I would carry off Sítá by force'.

b. The illative conjunction तो is also sometimes omitted from the apodosis; and often, as in the following, both the illative and the conditional conjunction are omitted. Thus, काम पड़े अपना खल दिखाते हे, 'if occasion arise, then they show their strength'. This omission is specially common in poetry; as, एक खार कैरेड्रं युधि जाने। कालडू जीति निमिष मई चाने।, 'could I in any way at all know one trace (of her), I could in a moment conquer and bring captive Death himself'.

738. Sometimes a clause is at once temporal and conditional. In this case, the *protasis* is introduced by **बाब**, but the *apodosis*, by the illative तेंग; as, बाब वड बावे तेंग में कहूं. 'when he comes, then I may tell'; where तेंग represents the 'telling' as conditioned by the previous clause.

a. Very often the temporal adverb is merely implied, and तो alone in the apodosis, marks the conditional character of the protasis. Thus, उस का ध्यान कूटा तो उन्हों ने ध्यान कर खाना, '(when) his meditation was broken, then, reflecting, he knew'; एक दिन राजा परोचित आखेत को गये तो बड़ो देखा, 'one day (when) Rájá Paríkshut went to hunt, then he saw there—'.

739. Concessive clauses are a species of conditionals, and are subject to the same rules as to the employment the tenses. The subordinate clause is introduced by बद्यांप, बदांप, का भो, or even का alone; to which सचायि, सदांप, or colloquially सा भो or पर, answer in the principal clause. Examples :-- यदापि वे पुरुष चान स्वरूप मानते हैं तचापि उस की चानस्वरूप-ता केवल नाममात्र की है, 'although they regard man as intelligent, yet his intelligence is only a mere name'; यदपि चासनंच भारी तदपि वात हक सुनहु इमारी, 'although there is great uncertainty, yet hear a word of mine'; जो चानेक जन्म चावतार ले बहुतेरा कुड़ दीजिये तैाभी विद्या का पसटा न दिया जार, 'if one should become incarnate in countless births, and give never so much. yet an equivalent for learning could not be given'; को ई इस देह को पोये पर यह कभी ज्यपनी न होयगी, 'although one oherish this body yet it will never become his own'.

a. Sometimes the concessive conjunction is omitted; thus, आग हुआ को आवको लड़ाई में हारे, 'what though we have been worsted in this present battle?'

# Of Interrogative Sentences.

740. These present but little that calls for special remark. In the absence of any other interrogative word, a question is often indicated by the interrogative pronoun, and (poet. for [an] or [an], which in such cases is incapable of translation. When a question merely implies perplexity, so that a direct answer is not expected, the contingent future is employed; but when asked for information, one of the indicative tenses is required.

Examples :--- ग्राव इस गोकुल में रहना कैसे वने, 'now how can one manage to remain in Gokul?' रेसे लोग क्या कुढ भला कहाते हैं, 'are such people called any thing good ?' यह अपमान कैसे सहा जायगा, 'how shall this dishonor be endured ?'---where the question is equivalent to a strong negative statement ; में तुको क्या मार्ड, 'why should I kill thee ?' रामजननि हठ करब कि काऊ. 'will the mother of Rám ever show obstinacy?' की तुक्स हरिदायन्द मई कोई, 'are you one of the servants of Hari?'

741. The Hindí exhibits a special fondness for interrogative forms. Thus, the interrogative is often substituted for the demonstrative, or correlative pronoun or adverb in the various compound sentences above noted,—especially when surprise is expressed. Thus, गर्व रावस कुंभकरस को कैसा स्वा दिया कि जिन के कुल मे एक भी न रहा, 'how did pride ruin Rávan and Kumbhakaran, so that not even one of their family remained !' उभय मध्य सिय सोहति कैसी ज़ड़ा जोव विच माया जैसी, 'Sitá appeared between the two, like the Illusive Power between Brahm and the soul'; राजा युधिष्टिर कहा आते हैं कि जहां मय दैस्य ने मन्दिर खनार घे, 'where does Rájá Yudhishțir come, but where the demon máyá had built a palace ?'

# Of the Collocation of Words.

742. The normal order of the parts of a simple sentence in Hindí, is (1) subject, (2) predicate, (3) copula, as मनुष पापो है, 'man is a sinner'; राम दास खुद्धिमान है, 'Rám Dás is wise'. But in the passive construction of transitive verbs, the case of the agent takes the first place, the subject nominative or the accusative the second, and the predicate verb the last place; as, उस ने रस्थियां मंगाई, 'he sent for ropes'.

743. Hindí, however, allows of the greatest liberty in deviating from this normal order, whether for the sake of emphasis, or to meet the necessities of metre in poetry, and of rhythm even in prose. In general, a word is rendered emphatic in proportion as it is displaced from its normal position in the sentence. Thus, the subject is rendered emphatic when last in the sentence; as, तखते हे पति का खकुलोनो नारो, 'base-born women desert their husbands'. The predicate is also emphasized by placing it after the copula, last in the sentence; as, तुम्हारा पुब्ध हे बहुत खोर पाप हे पोड़ा, 'abundant is your merit, and your sin *little*'; ये हे बहुत खोर पाप हे पोड़ा, 'abundant is your merit, and your sin *little*'; ये हे बहुत खेर , if emphatic, may take the first place in the sentence ; as, सामग्री विर्ह हे जो मा खाप को सेवा करते हे, 'those are powerful, who obey their parents'.

744. The copula receives the greatest emphasis when placed in the beginning of a sentence; as, है तो आच्छा, 'it is indeed good'. This is especially common, to heighten the effect of a following adversative clause; as, है तो गरोख, पर वुद्धिमान, 'he is indeed poor, but wise'; हे तो कुशल चेम से पर ... निपट भावित हो रहे हैं, 'they are indeed well, but...are in much anxiety'.

745. The object of a transitive verb regularly immediately precedes it; as, वह इस को मारता है, 'he is beating me', but is emphasized when first in the sentence; thus, इस साजीत को मैं कैसे जोतूंगा, 'this unconquerable one how shall I conquer ?' A less emphatic position is the last; as, जा व्याहेगा दसे से। मारेगा मुझे, 'he who marries *her*, will kill me'. The transitive verb itself is emphatic in the first place; thus, मारें कडा तेर्गोड इम. 'shall I kill thee ?' and also in the following ; या देते क्यों नहीं, 'why do you not give it ?'

a. If a verb have an indirect object, this regularly immediately precedes the direct object; as, में तुम के। यह किताख देता डूं. 'I give you this book'. But words denoting the motive or object of an action, are regularly placed immediately before the verb; as, वह इस को। बचाने आया, 'he came to save us'. But for emphasis it may follow the verb. Thus, यह आयुर आया है प्रजा की। दुख देने, 'to afflict the people this demon has come'.

746. In contrasted clauses the emphatic words may be placed, the one at the beginning of the first clause, the other, last in the second; thus, दुख यहा उस ने, हम की दिया सुख, 'sorrow he endured, to us gave happiness'.

747. In interjectional phrases, the following is an illustration of the common order; धन्य है परमेश्वर को, 'praise unto God!' But the copula may sometimes be omitted, and the order inverted; thus, तुलसो रेसे पतिल को खारखार धिरकार, 'Tulsí ! on such a sinner, again and again a curse !'

748. The vocative usually stands first in a sentence, but may come last for emphasis; as, तैं ने यह क्या किया पायिनी, 'what is this thou hast done, thou wicked woman ?'

749. When pronouns of different persons follow one another in the same construction, the order is the reverse of English, the 1st person always precedes the 2nd, and the 3rd. Thus, इस सुम ने क्या फल्स पाया, 'what fruit have you and I obtained !' गुरुपन्नी ने इसे सुम्हें देखन लोने भेजा, 'The guru's wife had sent us and you to get firewood'.

750. Attributive adjuncts, whether adjectives, participles, or genitives, invariably precede the nouns they qualify. When they follow they are to be taken predicatively and are thus rendered emphatic. The only exception to the statement is in the case of the genitive which, in books written under the influence of Persian, often follows the substantive in imitation of Persian idiom.

Examples are, वह वड़ी बस्ती है, 'that is a large town'; यह मेरी पुस्तक है, 'this is my book'; में ने वहां मरे हुए सिंह को देखा, 'I saw a dead lion there'. But reversing the order, these all become predicative adjuncts. Thus, वह बस्ती बड़ी है, 'that town is large'; यह पुस्तक मेरी है, 'this book is mine'; में ने वहां एक सिंह मरा हुआ देखा, 'I saw a lion dead there'.

751. Appositive adjuncts are regularly treated as attributives, and precede the noun which they define; thus, दशरघ का पुत्र राम, 'Rám the son of Dasarath'; भवानी युगार, 'the goldsmith Bhavání'.

752. All adjuncts, whether attributive or predicative, are rendered emphatic by separation from the noun which they qualify.

Thus, खिधासा का भी कुछ तुम पर बस न चलेगा, 'even Brahmá will not have any power over you'; कल युग में राजा डपले हैं अभिमानी. 'in the Kali Yug kings have arisen (who are) proud'; चार पांव रखता डूं तप सत दया जीर सोख, 'I have four feet, (vis.,) penance, truth, meroy, and meditation'.

753. Adverbial adjuncts, whether words or phrases, as, e.g., conjunctive participles with their adjuncts, regularly closely precede the verb they qualify. They may even come between a verb and its object. In accordance with the general principle above noted, they become emphatic in proportion to their separation from the verb. Or emphasis may be expressed by placing them after the verb.

Thus, शोध्न आस्रो, 'come quickly !' वह काशो में रहता था, 'he was living in Káshi'; वह इम से हर दिन कहता, 'he would every day say to me—', तुम चलकर देखो, 'go and see'. But with more or less emphasis हर दिन वह हम से कहता, 'every day he would say to me'; तुम आयोगो कव, 'when will you come ?', etc., etc.

754. When the negative is used with compound verbs, the emphasis of the negation properly falls upon that part of the compound to which it is immediately prefixed; as, e.g., if नहीं लिख सकता हूं. 'I am not able to write'; but, if लिख महीं सकता हूं, 'I am not able to write'. The force of illustrations is indeed lessened when dissevered from the context; but the following may be of some value: under the following may be of some value: under the speaking of Has it and the following may be of some value: under the speaking the context; but the following may be of some value: under the speaking of Has it and the following may be of some value: under the speaking the context; but the following may be of some value: under the speaking of Has it and the following may be of some value: under the speaking the context; but the following may be of some value: under the speaking; but in the following, it is the fact of ability on which the stress of denial falls; it are also is the fact of ability on which the stress of after a also is an after an after an after an after an all, now in the Kati Yug four out of the twenty are left, hence to walk I am unable'. Again, as appears from the context, with an emphasis on the prohibition ;--- तुम अपनो खहन को ... निकलने न दो 'do not allow your sister to come out'; but with a different emphasis, ऊका को मंदिर में उठाय खाया जीर फिर न जाने दिया, 'he took up and carried Ushá to the palace, and did not let her return'.

a. Observe that when the passive conjugation is used in strong denials the negative, in accordance with the above, is almost invariably placed immediately before the auxiliary. Examples are very numerous; thus, उस समय को सेगमा कुछ बरनी नहीं जाती, 'to describe the beauty of that tune is impossible'; मापे चल्या नाहि जातु, 'for me to walk is impossible'.

755. Of conjunctions it is to be observed, that मो must always immediately follow the word which it emphasizes. Thus, मेरा मो रक बेटा पठ्मा था, 'one son of mine also was reading ; i.e., of mine, as well as of some other person ; but, मेरा रक पुत्र भो पठ्मा था, 'one son, also, of mine, was reading ; or with yet a different sense, मेरा रक पुत्र पठ्मा भो था 'one son of mine was reading also'; तो, as a particle of emphasis, regularly follows the word which its emphasizes ; as, में तो खबर धार्कता, 'I indeed, will surely come'. But as an illative particle it commonly takes the first place in the sentence ; as, चा आप धाद्या करें तो इम जन्मयूंगि देखि आवे 'if your honor will give permission, then I will go and see my birth-place'.

a. स्रोर (आव, स्रो, स्रो, त्रो) 'and', कि, 'that', परन्तु. पर, किन्तु, 'but', 'yet', ठा, आपटा, or या, 'or', must occupy the first place in the sentence they introduce, or immediately precede the phrase they annex. से or यदि, 'if', यद्याप. तथापि, etc., 'although', regularly take the first place in the sentence. But after emphatic words may precede them. Thus, यह आदमी से आये भी ता भी उस से नेग क्या काम हा सके, 'this man, even if he come, then of what use can he be?' त्रह राजा यद्यापि खहुत हो धनवान हे तथापि किसी को भी कुढ़ देता नहीं, 'that Rájá, although very wealthy indeed, yet never gives any thing at all to any one'.

756. As to the arrangement of the various members of a compound sentence, the following points are to be observed :---

(1) Final substantive clauses introduced by कि, 'that', and causal sentences introduced by क्योंकि, 'because', can never stand first as sometimes in English. Thus, में इस लिये आया डूं कि आप से भेंट देख, 'I have come that I may have an interview with you'; सुक से इस युवा

में रहा नहीं जाता क्योंकि शूद्र राजा है। आधिक आधर्म्म मेरे पर करेंगे, 'it is impossible for me to remain in this age, because Shudras, becoming kings, will exercise more injustice over me'.

a. But final and causal sentences introduced by the relative pronoun may emphatically precede the principal clause. Thus, सुम ऐसा डपाय करे। जिस से जन्म सुफल होय, 'contrive such such a plan as that your birth may prove fruitful (of good)'.

b. Adjective clauses introduced by the relative जो, regularly precede the correlative clause; but the relative when emphatic may be placed last. Thus, यह गुरु काम का है जो दुख हर सके, 'that spiritual guide is of use who is able to remove sorrow'; उस पुष्प विमान में बैठे जे। संका से साया था, 'he sat in that flower-chariot which had come from Lanká'.

757. Adverbial clauses, denoting place, time, manner, or the condition of an action, usually precede the principal clause which they follow. But when there is emphasis upon the principal sentence it will precede the subordinate clause.

a. It is to be especially observed that a conditional clause cannot follow the principal clause as freely as in English. The learner should be especially careful, in translating such English phrases, as, he will go if you will', to avoid the English order, as in most cases the Hindí will then be obscure. The conditional clause in Hindí very rarely and exceptionally takes the second place in a compound sentence.

758. It is important to remark that in poetry, all rules and principles touching the position of words and sentences, give way to the exigencies of the verse. Thus even the order of the parts of compound words is reversed; as, e.g., in मईनमयन for मयनमईन, 'destroyer of Mayan', to rhyme with स्थन in the previous line. Words denoting plurality (§ 147) may precede the noun they modify; as, दोई गुन मारी they utter abusive words'. Even the postpositions may precede the noun; as, मांक त्रिवेनो for त्रिवेनो में. 'in the Triple junction'. And an attributive may follow its noun, even at a long distance; as, रेनु भवसागर जिन कोन्द यह, 'who has made this ocean of life as sand'. And a conditional conjunction may appear in the end of the sentence to which it belongs; as. कोटिसिंधुसेशक सव सायक यदाप, 'although thy arrows could dry up ten million oceans'. And the parts of compound verbs are separated and inverted, quite at the pleasure of the poet, as illustrated in § 447, (1).

# SUPPLEMENT.\*

### PROSODY.

1. The Hindí system of prosody, in its fundamental principles, is substantially identical with that of the Sanskrit. In no modern language, probably, has prosody been so elaborately developed as in Hindí. Indeed, as yet, prose Hindí is quite exceptional, and almost owes its existence to the stimulus of a foreign government, or the labors of missionaries; who, as might be expected, are for the most part unable to write a foreign language except in prose. Native writers, left to themselves, have almost without exception written in verse, and their labors have resulted in a system of versification which for inexhaustible variety, as well as for its intrinsic beauty, is probably unsurpassed.

2. A general understanding of the principles of Prosody is a prerequisite absolutely necessary to the understanding and interpretation of Hindí poetry. Without this, the student will often be left to uncertain conjecture; nor, again, can any person, without an understanding of this topic, even read properly the simplest Hindí verse. His enunciation, if in public, is sure to be chiefly a matter of amusement to the natives who may hear him.

3. Hindí prosody knows nothing of metre determined, as in English verse, by the accent. Missionaries have indeed produced many hymns, in accentuated verse, after the manner of English metres; but verse of this kind is entirely a foreign importation, nor is there any reason to believe that the natives of India will ever be led to exchange their own admirable system for the comparatively harsh and unflexible system of English versification, which the exigency of the occasion has called into, probably, a merely temporary existence.

4. All Hindí verse is regulated, like that of classic Greek and

<sup>\*</sup> It is proper to remark that as the author was unexpectedly compelled to leave India when the printing of the Syntax had reached p. 344, it became necessary for him to attend to the printing of the Prosody, which required his personal supervision, before the Syntax was finished. The paging could not therefore proceed continuously with the rest of the book, so that it became necessary to introduce the prosody in the shape here presented, as a supplement. This will explain the irregular form of this chapter.

Latin, by a regard to the quantity of the syllables, as *long* or *short*. In Hindí poetry, however, unlike that of ancient Greek, Latin and Sanskrit, rhyme (**Ga**) is almost universally employed; and usage demands that rhyming lines shall always correspond, not in one only, but at least in the two last syllables.

N. B. It should be remembered, however, in order to the correct interpretation of this rule, that the vowel a, inherent in all consonants, which in prose is often silent when medial, and always silent when final, in poetry is always counted and commonly pronounced. Thus, e.g., and, although in prose a monosyllable (bát), in poetry is reckoned a dissyllable, báta. (*Vid.* § 10, e.)

5. Quantity is either long (not or and) or short (and or not a solution by the mark s, and a short syllable by the mark 1, which signs are thus respectively equivalent to the English marks – and ...

6. Quantity is determined by the following rules,

(1) The vowels आ, स, ड and ऋ, are short, and the remaining vowels आ, ई, फ, र, रे, चो and चैंग, are long by nature.

a. It is important to observe that although  $\mathbf{e}$ , originally, denoted a long diphthongal sound only, it has come to represent also, in Hindí, as in Prákrit, a short sound,  $\check{e}$  (§ 1.  $\delta$ ); for which reason, in Hindí poetry,  $\mathbf{e}$  is sometimes treated as a short vowel.

b. The principle which regulates the quantity of  $\mathbf{e}$  seems to be as follows. Whenever  $\mathbf{e}$  represents an original radical, as, e.g., in a noun like  $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{l}}$ , or in a gunated causal base, like  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{l}}$  in  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}}$ , from  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}}$ ; or has resulted from the combination of two formerly concurrent letters, as in  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{l}}$  for  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}}$ , or  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}}$  for  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}}$ ; in such cases  $\mathbf{e}$  is invariably long. But in words where  $\mathbf{e}$  represents a primitive short vowel, a or i, as, e.g., in  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}}$  for  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}}$  for  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{c}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}}$  (?), it is usually, though not invariably, counted prosodially short. A good illustration is found in the following half Dohá from the Rámáyan;  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}}$  represents ance with the above principle, by counting  $\mathbf{e}$  in  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}}$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}}$  and  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}}$ , as short, and the remaining e's as long. Otherwise we shall have 27 instants, instead of 24, as required for each line of a Dohá. But in the following Arddh Chaupáí,  $\mathbf{e}$  is short in  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}}$ , and long in  $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}$ . This Prákritic short or 'common'  $\mathbf{e}$  appears

chiefly in the oblique forms of the various pronouns, and as a unionvowel before verbal terminations; as, तीइ, चलेड, करेयु, etc., etc.

(2) A short vowel before two consonants in the same word becomes long by position. Thus,  $\mathbf{v}$  in **a**, and *a* in the first and second syllables of **ur** $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , are long by position.

a. In Sanskrit propody, a final short vowel was also lengthened before a conjunct consonant initial in a following word. But Hindí poets commonly neglect this.

Exc. 1. A short vowel before the plural termination म्ह or न्हि, and sometimes before म्ह and इन, as in सुनिम्ह, तुम्ह and ज्रहन, remains short.

*Exc.* 2. A short vowel before a conjunct consonant of which the second element is  $\tau$ , as, *e.g.*, *a* in  $\overline{\pi u \pi}$ , may be counted either long or short.

(3) A short vowel before Anusvár or Visarg followed by a consonant, is long by position. Thus the short vowels in दु:ख, रंग, सिंम, are all long by position. So also Anusvár in the end of a line lengthens a preceding short vowel; as in चयं, नमामयं.

a. But when Anusvár stands, as is very often the case, for Anunásik (§ 7), a preceding short vowel remains short. Thus, e.g., in संघर, करोडेंगे, सुंद, Anusvár stands for Anunásik; and therefore the vowels ज, ज, and उ, retain their natural short quantity.

7. The unit of metrical quantity is called मात्र mátra, 'an instant'. A mátra denotes the length of time occupied in the utterance of a short vowel, as  $\mathbf{u}$ .  $\mathbf{v}$ , or  $\mathbf{v}$ . All long vowels and diphthongs are regarded as consisting of two mátras. This must be carefully borne in mind, in order to understand the prosodial measurement of verse. Thus the words **au**. **au**, **aueai**, contain, respectively, 2, 3, and 5 mátras, as follows; **au**.  $\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{I} = 2$ ; **au**.  $\mathbf{2} + \mathbf{I} = 3$ ; **aueai**,  $\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{2} + \mathbf{2} = 5$ . Similarly the line **anH anH aHH ah**, contains 13 mátras.

Rem. For माया, मल also occurs in some native works. कल is also used in the same sense.

8. The laws of Hindí prosody allow a great degree of liberty in respect of orthography, and even of grammatical construction. The following principles regulate *prosodial license*.

(1) A long may be written for a short vowel, and vice versa.

a. This rule most commonly operates in final letters and at the end of lines, either for the sake of rhyme, or to fill out the total quantity of the line; as in **u**quinit for **u**quinit (to rhyme with **u**nit);

चानो (to rhyme with पद्यानो); and (to fill out quantities) बहूता for बहुत, दूता for दूत; झेडू for झेड, etc., etc.

b. But medial radical vowels also are sometimes shortened, even in the middle of a line; as, e.g., in ठकुर for ठाकुर, पचसन for परोसन, चनन्द for बानन्द, सुखि गी for मुखि गी, जनहिं for जानहिं, क्सनीय for कामनीय, etc., etc.

(2) Anusvár is inserted or omitted for the sake of rhyme; as in बरायें, सुग्रोंवं, to rhyme with खायें and सोंवं; and दास (for दोव) to rhyme with कास.

(3) Diphthongs medial and final are resolved into their component vowels; as, मयचातुर for भयातुर; कहद, मिलद, करद, for कहे, मिसे, and करे; पहाँउद्देंग for पैंडिहेंग, etc., etc. The latter vowel is then very often prolonged; as, e.g., in करद, परई, for करे and परे; and sometimes the former vowel is lengthened; as in the following, where उड़ाउं is written for उदेंग, to rhyme with खाउं; खरिकाई जह जह जह तर सह तर सह रंग उड़ाउं. More rarely both are lengthened; as in सकाई for सक, to rhyme with उपाई; thus, जिम घल किनु राह न सकाई.

(4) Occasionally a vowel of one organ is exchanged for one of another; as in देयो for देय, in the following: काहि कडे कोइ दूधन देयो.

(5) A syllable, most commonly रे, is often added to fill out a line and make a rhyme; as in खड़ेरे, करताइ, for खड़े and करत.

(6) A consonant is sometimes doubled, to lengthen a preceding vowel; as in दमकूद्दी, चमकूदी, कट्टांद, दपट्टांद, for दमकांद, etc.

*Rem.* It is possible that these, as also some other variations mentioned, are merely archaic forms of the words in question.

(7) The rules of agreement are often neglected, so that the masculine is used for the feminine, the singular for the plural, and *vice versa*, to meet the exigencies of the rhyme. Thus, we have **var** for **versa**, and **vice versa**, to meet the exigencies of the rhyme. Thus, we have **var** for **versa**, and **vice versa**.

9. Pause (**Textur**) is of two kinds, sentential and harmonic. The sentential pause occurs at the end of correspondent lines, and is marked by the signs, | half-pause, and | full-pause. The harmonic pause or cæsura varies in different metres, and is marked by no sign.

10. The simple feet used in Hindí verse are of three kinds, viz., monosyllabic, dissyllabic and trisyllabic. Occasionally, compound polysyllabic feet are also employed. Each class of feet contains several varieties as indicated below.<sup>+</sup>

<sup>\*</sup>Vid. §713. † In the following pages it has been thought wise ordinarily to employ the Hindí names and symbols for the various feet; as until the sta-

	Name		Abbrev.	Symbol.	In English.		
ġ.	<b>(</b> 1.	য়ুৰ	ग	\$	Longus,	-	
Mono.	2.	लघु	ল	1	Brevis,	-	
Dissyllabie. 1	<u>ر</u> ا.		राग	33	Spondee,		
	2.	तास	যাল	\$1	Trochee,	_~	
	3.	- চলব	सग	15	Iambus,	<b>~</b> _	
	4.	सुप्रिय	लख	11	Periambus,		
	<u>(1</u> .	मगाय	म	333	Molossus,		
	2.	ন্যাৰ	न	m	Tribrach		
	3.	मगय	મ	\$11	Dactyl,		
Trisyllabio.	4.	য্যাৰ	य	155	Bacchic,	<b>~</b>	
	5.	ব্যাৰ	ব	ব ।ও। এ:			
	6.	নাৰ	τ	515	Cretic,		
	7.	ধ্যাৰ	म	115	Anapest,		
	<b>L</b> 8.	ম্যায	त	551	Antibacchic,		

a. The longue is in Hindí named guru, 'heavy', (also called háru,) and the brevis, laghu, 'light', (also called meru).

b. The eight varieties of trisyllabic feet are often collectively termed  $\pi = gan$ , par excellence.

c. It is important to note that in Hindí works on proceedy, the symbolic letters are always used to denote the feet. Thus нан would denote the three feet, нля, аля, чля; धरम, чля, रля, нля, etc., etc.

11. Polysyllabic feet are chiefly used in *Játi Chhand* (*Vid. infra*). They are formed by various combinations of the above three kinds; and have no specific names.

12. Hindí verse (इन्द) is of two classes ; viz., वृत्त इन्द Vritt Chhand, and जाति इन्द, Játi Chhand.

13. I. That is called *Vritt Chhand* which is regulated by the number of syllables (ava) in each *charan* or metrical line. It is therefore also called *Varan Chhand*.

II. That is called *Játi Chhand* which is measured by the number of *mátras* or metrical instants in each line.

## I. Of Vritt Chhand.

14. In Vritt Chhand each verse consists of four metrical lines (charan or pád). Vritt Chhand is further distinguished as of three

dent is familiar with them, he will be quite unable to read intelligently the simplest page of any native work on this important subject.

Orders, viz.; (1) सम sama, 'even'; चर्द्धसम arddhasama, 'half-even'; (3) विषम vishama, 'uneven'. These are distinguished as follows :

(1) In Sam Vritt each charan has an equal number of syllables.

(2) In Arddhasama Vritt, the first and third charans have an equal number of syllables, and also the second and fourth.

(3) In Vishama Vritt each charan has a different number of syllables.

N. B. Although Vritt Chhand is measured by the number of syllables in each charan, yet in most metres of this class these syllables are not taken indifferently, but in each variety are regulated by a certain sequence of *feet*, as in Latin and Greek verse.

15. Native prosodians divide verse of the 1st Order (Sama Vritt) of the First Class, into twenty six Genera, according to the number of syllables in each of the four charans. Each of these genera has its own specific name, as given below. Thus a verse of this class having three syllables in each charan, would belong to the 3rd Genus, named **HEMI** Madhyá; one of fifteen syllables, to the 15th Genus, named **HEMI** Junit Atisharkarí, etc., etc.

16. Under each of the above genera, again, are contained as many Species, as combinations of long and short syllables are possible with any given number of syllables. Thus the 2nd Genus comprehends four species, as follows,  $(1) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; and the 3rd Genus, comprehends eight possible species; vis., <math>(1) \_ = ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (2) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (3) \_ ; (4) \_ ; (5) \_ ; (6) \_ ; (7) \_ ; (8) \_ .$ 

Rem. It is plain that in metres of a large number of syllables the number of possible combinations must be very great. Native prosodians give ingenious rules for determining the possible varieties under each genus, the place of any specified variety in the *prastár*, (*udieht*.) or, the place in the *prastár* being given, to determine the metre of any required species (*nasht*.) But these matters seem to be of no practical importance, and we may wisely refer to native authors the student who is curious in such matters.

17. All Sama Vritt metres containing more than twenty six syllables are classified under a 27th Genus named **cases** Dandak; which is fancifully said to comprehend 999 varieties.

18. Finally, it should be observed that in Sama metres the 2nd charan must rhyme with the 1st, and the 4th with the 3rd.

19. The following are examples of the most common metres under each genus. As the 3rd and 4th *charans* are exactly like the 1st and 2nd, for lack of space, the first two *charans* only have been given in the examples after page 7.

# CLASS I. वरण छंद ा वृत्त छंद.

Order I. समवृत्त

Species. Fee	t in each charan.	Examples.
	Ge	nus I. <b>Japu</b> .
ची	ग	जै। दै। मी। की।
	Genus	) 11. चत्युक्या.
काम	गग	र दाता । लाता । कोई । सेई ।
मधु मही	लल	तिय । जिय । बधु । मधु ।
मद्दी	लग	रमा ॥ चमा ॥ नहीं ॥ मही ॥
ৰাৰ	गल	रेनि । नैनि । चार । सार ।
	Gen	us III. मध्या.
तासी (नारी)	म	हे स्वामी । ही कामी । तू दाता । है त्राता ।
कमल	न	चरन । श्ररन । यमल । कमल ।
मंवर	म	धावतः ॥ स्यावतः ॥ चंदरः ॥ मंदरः ॥
षणी	य	भवानी । सुवानी । सुने की । कई से ।
र्गारंद	অ	सम्हाद ॥ सवाद ॥ परिंद ॥ नरिंद ॥
मृगो or प्रिया	र	है खरो । पत्चरो । ते। हिया । री ग्रिया ।
<b>র্দেশ্ব</b>	स	धरनी । खरनी । रमनी । रमनी ।
पंचाल	त्त	भाषम्त । गावन्त । दैसाल । पंचाल ।
		vus IV. ufagi.
<b>कन्या</b> or तीन्ना	मग ई कर	तारा । मेरे भारा । लूही टाले । मोही पाले ।
समुद्दी or कला		नि चो। कामिनि से। इनि करे। प्रान इरे ।
सुद्रा		राम ॥ सरै काम ॥ न कापाहि ॥ न सुद्राहि ॥
कुमारिका	चग करे। य	कृता ॥ दयामया ॥ न कोड़िये ॥ न मारिये ॥
राम		माही । सुका नाहीं । तवि कामे । भवे रामे ।
बुद्धि		ति । प्रभूभति । टरं दुख । मिले सुख ।
धारी or वार	रल नाम र	तीर । मुक्ति मीर । मेर भार । तू इतार ।
बीर		ोर ॥ स्वरु भीर ॥ वरबीर ॥ रघुबीर ॥
-		ण्ड V. सुप्रसिष्ठा.
		ो। राघा ज़ू मानो। मानी तो मानी। मेरी का झानी।
	लल चुति कडडि	। इरिजनइः । कुवत नदि । जमक वदि ।
चंची or प्रेक्ति भ		। वेत असीसा । मारत द्रोही । पालत मोही ।
_ `	লল বাৰ বানন	। भूठ लगत । यादि तवदि । योगु भवदि ।
_		। मुंही दिखाने। कुचाल म्हारो । तुही सुधारो ।
		। कर्बनामया ॥ मनरंतना ॥ दुख्रमंत्रना ॥
र्षारित त	गग ता मानु भारी	। ठाने पियारी । सैंाले सुखारी । ईंस्ती बनारी ।

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Species.	Feet in each			
-	charan.			

Examples.

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GENUS VI. गायवी.

<b>शेषराज</b>	मम	क्यों रे जाने देा ते। । राधा माधे। डोते। ।
<b>ये</b> ।मकुल	मस	क्यों रेमामत है । क्याली कानस है ।
য়যিসূনা	नम	कइस राधा जू । सुनदुकांधा जू ।
য্যামধৰনা	नय	श्वरव तिहारी । चरब निहारी ।
कामलता	भय	भावत न तारी । खात सुनि गारी ।
मालती	বাস	करोा मस मान ॥ सखोा यह वान 🔳
विमाद्या	रर	वाउंगी जान ले । स्याम देमान ले ।
নিলন্ধ	सस	प्रभुको चरबा । चगको घरबा ।
तनुमध्या	तय	देखे। इति भारी । सेहे प्रांत सारी ।
वयुमति	तम	बाई शुभ घरी । जन्मे प्रमु इरी ।
		GENUS VII. STRAM.
सुभम	मभग	माने। माने। इय से । जाने। जाने। जिय से ।
मधुमति	नमग	वज्ञ जनम लिये। । नोइ भजन किये। ।
<b>श्वीर्धवप</b>	भमग	मारग है भूमबा । क्यों न भन्ने चरबा ।
कुमारललिता		कडां लोग तिडारी । करेा प्रमुखिचारी ।
<b>ম</b> মা <b>লিকা</b>	रयग	स्याम सात्र सार ही । उदाल बास धार हो ।
<b>सामानिका</b> •	रजग	मांस मुस्ति बुद्धिदा । चान देष्टु सारदा ।
<b>चं</b> यमाला	बरग	ग्रव को कलाल हो। तब की मई रही ।
नूर्गमांव	ลหม	जाना इमें बाब है । लेका उड़ां सब है ।
		Genus VIII. प्रमुष्टप्.
इंसचत	मनगग	देखेा ग्रावत विहारी । कैंधे देखत निहारी ।
स्यंता	สหมม	बानी जानी मठुराई । देखी देखी चसुराई ।
त्तुंगा	<b>न</b> नग <b>ग</b>	चरब शरब सेरें । रइस न मन मेरें ।
विद्युल्माला	भसगग	बावत देखेा रो प्यारी ॥ सावत मासा चौा सारी ॥
चित्रपदा	ਅਮਗਗ	मानत क्यों न कौंधाई ॥ क्यावत है नियराई ॥
नारच	भरलग	क्यीं। प्रभु होड़ते। सुभे । क्यीं। रिपि भावते। तुमे ॥
माबवक	भत्तलग	प्रीति करा तूं सब से । भक्ति करा ता लब से ।
प्रसारिक	चरलग	परेग्र ते। हि मानिके । नमेां सुचित्त ठानिके ।
मल्लिका	रचाल	जान देष्टु मेादि बाज । लाय देउँगी वियाज ।
		Gвииs IX. चुहती.
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ते। मर	यचच	प्रभु योसु हे प्रिय नाघ । चया में रहा मम साघ ।
নৰিবঁণ্ণ	भमस	चेत करे। प्यारे सबडी । बेसि तचा वाधे। सबडी ।

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Species.	Feet in e charan	4
रूपमाली सार्रागक	ममम मयस	मानेा मानेा मानेा री प्यारी ॥ जानेा जानेा जानेा री सारी ॥ भजन करेा तू दिय में ॥ सद न करेा हा जिय में ॥
		Genus X. पाँच.
मत्ता मनेारमा <b>प्रं</b> ची	মমন্য দংব্যা মমন্য	देखे। देखे। कहन न मानी । बादे। बादो इस नहि जानी । धरहु जेहि इंतु साधना । करहु तोई इंतु याचना । देखे। देखे। यसमति चली । पोझे पीझे सब सबि भली ।
	म+गग को	GENUS XI. सिष्टुप्. मा बंग्रीकी ग्रब्द शुनि सब चली। ग्रोपी ग्रोपी सब निकार मिली। धाकी वानी राधा सांची चानी। जानी सेत जानी मेरी नाइी इानी। प्रांह लेडु सब राधिका सली। स्याम सावल चला चला भली।

र्भन्द्रबच्चा ततवागा राधे तिंहारी पव तोरिडारी। माला विचारी वह पाच रारी। चपला भभवलग कुंजन में घोंच प्रवे चलिये। । बेबु बजावत चहां चलिये। । देशिक भभमगग पावत पाज निहाल विहारी । देखत याज निकारि यधारी ।

### GENUS XII. चगती.

त्नगाधरमाला मभसम चाली राधे करत विद्वारी रारी। देखे। २ स्व सब्ति देती गारी। ते।टक स्वयस मुजदंड प्रचंड प्रताप खलं । खलवृंद निकंद महाकुश्वलं । प्रभा मनरर भजन करहु चाज साधो तवे।। रइहु मगन साच प्यारे सजी। प्रियंवदा नभजर तिय सराजनयनी प्रयंवदा । रहति से। नयन में चली सदा। भर्जगा प्रयात 8य चला चाज देखे। भले कांध चाये।। लसे मे।र पंखी द्वशीला सुद्दाये। मे।दक ४भ देखहु चाज रमापति चावत । बालन का सब खेल सिखावत । मेगवली ४त प्यारी तजा मान चावे। करी गार। चाली घरी ध्या न पावे। बढो दान।

# GENUS XIII. सतिजाती.

रकावली भनजजल देखडु समय निहाल भजेा खब। तारक घरब निहारत जेा सब। कलिइंस सजसमा खब देडुकांध सब चीज हमारी। इम लीन नाहि वह वेखु तुमारी। प्रमावती तभसजग कैसे। सुहात सबन को बिसारने।। देखे। नभावत नर को बिचारने।। मंजुभाषिकी सजसजग तब की तुमैं मुरलिया दर्ड दर्द। खब ही कहा करहुगे लर्द लर्दे। माया मतयसग देखे। २ जात कंधा देख ज मेरे। के हो हो हो तो चतुरा देमगमें रे।

# GENUS XIV. 11 and.

व्यपराचिता	<b>ল</b> নযেল <b>য়</b>	चरब धरब केंडि कारब त्यागिडी ।
		चग जनमल याद मारन भागिहा ।
दंदुवदना	भचरनगग	भक्ति बिनु युक्त नर नाइक पधारी ॥
•		प्रक्ति नहि भक्ति बिनु चान नहिं भारी ।
•	•	

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Bxamples.	माने। वच्ची कद्दत स्याम खले। खले। दे दे वि खले बचन मान ग्रले ग्रले रो । Ganus XV. कॉतियर्करी.	देवे। देवे। इसारी वाने सबी ने न माने । चाचे। कुमारी राधा करी केदमाने । रघुनाय स्मापति देषु इनें ग्ररचा । यब कांड् गडें। मधुकूवन के खरचा । करषु चब विद्यारी नाच सेरी विचारी । सुनषु मन मुरारी याय घारे। बिखारी । GENUS XVI. चष्टि.	इनिंद देषु सेनिंद कांध बार बार में पुक्तारे । चायके कड़ी प्रवय क्षेच राज ये निच्नारे । ग्राली ग्रालं हियो किरै लला प्राली नही निली । रहेा रहेा दहां घन्नो कड़ां ग्रांग भली इली । बलत निइनरि साधव लिहारि बाल सानी । चनुक गईं चबै कडल प्राज नांद खानी । GENUS XVII. प्रायष्टि.	षलेंग सकल ग्रीगिका लचन काल पाई पली । करेंग चटन काम ड्रोड़ि सब साथ पालेंग पली । इच्छा ध्यार्थे चरड दिन राती कड़ा किवारी । ध्यार्थे जा के पद कतल येग्री यती से पुरारी । पुकारी टेरिकी सबरी चाहले तरेंड बाध है । विग्रारेग कान के पड से गरने दृष्ठ है । करहु प्रब स्वात्ती दीनानाच त्रार्था थेगिये । तचहु प्रब तेगे की नाईरे प्रावनाय मुद्धेरेये । Gana XVIII. कुलि.	फाग खेलल माख साधव बाग में चब साथ ले । गोपिका यब रंग हो दन कुंकुमा गुरु दाघ ले ।
Feet in each charan.	राभ च व रा रा	मरसयय संसन्धन मनसयय	र तरकर ल खर जरता न तभ खरग	जन्मस्यलग्न सभन्ततग्रा धरसरस्लग भन्मरस्लग	रसे ज ज भ र
Bpecies.	<b>ब</b> चेतातिलक	चंद्रलेका भग्तरावली मालतो	बंचला नाराच वाबिनो	प्रिष्ट्यी संदाक्कांता सेरिची धरिवी	<del>बर्</del> चरी

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PROSODY.

			FR050D1		
Examples.	काखु कवन में बिडारी मुरारी बुराई कड़े। । कड्डु सुम सप्रेन मेरी सटा ले! मलाई चडे। । से।डे कैसे। राधा माधव साली सावत टेरे। टेरेग । साग्रे साग्रे कॉधा कूमत पोड़े रावकुमारी मेरे। ।	GENUS XIX. कॉलध्रुति. त रानो को यसुदा पुकारत क्षरी राधा कदां हू आर्च । राधा चेरत कुंच में सुनु कलो काडू न वा को लच्चो । त काड्यानिधान कृपाल माधव देच्चिये नन रोत । का कोवना लॉच पाद पंकच सेद्द गावत गींत ।	Өвиив XX. कृति. का केम कारब भक्तपालन चाधु वृंद चदा रोंगे । प्रभु देदिंगे काक क्वेम मारग भक्ति मुफित मुधी कों। Өекив XXI. प्रकृति.	दे को दे को जावत भव भनुरारी धधोदा विगारी । फाने दे तू न माने भव कहन हमारी मई तू दुलारी । GENUB XXII. चाकृति.	फूमक भूमि कुमावत यंकड घूमि घुमावत बाख घड़ी । बोड बखावत टेरि पुकारत भाव बुभावत ताल लड़ी । जा के ची में चार्द भावे करत धवर मन घांत बकुलाई । मावे ची में नाहों वा का करत नर मुपय मन खिसराई । GENUS XXIII. विकृति.
• Fert in each	churan. ननररर समभस्वस	ति मच्चसतता चच्चसतता	स <b>ज ज</b> भर सलग	सर <b>भन्द्य</b> य	अभयसभयता सम <del>त्त्रन च</del> त्र
Species.	भाराख मंत्रीरा	धार्त्सविक्नोदि्म भूलना	ग्रोत	<b>11</b> 81	मोदरा इंची

PROSODY.

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देखिये हिपत कुंच में लखत राधिका न पय में सभी रही । देखिकै भजत साथ डेादि मग्न सड़ी कहत हूमिके ग्रही ।

र <del>न</del>रनरन रलग

काल्कि

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Examples.	महिक रारिकरेग व्रज मेाइननाइक गागरितू खब सेाड़ी । नाइक मारग रेकिस चंचल नाइक हूं टधि भाजन केाड़ी । करडु कृषा यदा प्रसु यद्दाय घाष घब है। क्षषान खन के । ततुडु नहीं क्षमाघ खन के। सनाध करिये युकार मन के ।	GENUS XXIV. चल्कृति or चंकृति.	कबड़े यद बात न मानत री सबि में उपकारक सात भई । समुकायत है। सब मानु सलो लीव दाल मली टिसराय दर्दे ।	GENUS XXV. wingin or wingin.	र्ल्जन से घड माधव घावत बालन के। यब बेल दिसाव्त री । मारग में यब क्रूमि कुमावत ताल मृदंग बचाय नचावत री । विसु पंकत सेाइ तडारा नहों विनु चंद्र निया चिंति भावत नाहों । विनु पंडित रौंध प्रकाश नहों तिनि चान नहों यब फूरिमिलाडों ।	GENUS XXVI. Brajfi.	समुक्रावडु बाख बली यदुरावकुमार नईों वह मानत बातन । चब फोर हुलाय कड़ो क़बभामिनि सेहि बताय दर्द इम साधन । साधडु काख हमार महा प्रभु मांगत डैं। कर लेरि सदा ग्रति सत । मानडु मेार कहावत तारक देडु डुमें चल भफि सुधी खिलसत ।	GENUS XXVII. GARGA.	कदा करें। सली गर्द मली मर्दनद्वों लर्द खली गर्द कदा मर्दछरी सली । मना किये। नद्दी नबैरद्दी छद्दी दुसी उसी विसे	वरच ग्ररब है! सदा लाहि के के दयांसिंधु ग्रोपाल ग्रोविंद दामोदरो विम्बु वू माधवे। स्पान वू क्वी स्वभू सर्वेदा सर्ब है दास का ॥ स्वय इदय है ६में पालिहे भ्रापने। सानिकै सेव्ह विग्रदेष विग्रदे भरे। विग्र्य्हे कू राधवे। राम कू क्वी ग्रमू दुःक दा दर्ब है चास को ॥
Feet in each charan.	७भ + गग न खभवस खभस्ता				ся + л са + л		दस + लल दभ + लल			•
	•-		त् वीन	ł	55		65		महोधर 8(खर)+ चग	<b>नन +</b> ९४ र
Species.	मालती सलित		दुरमिला or मधवो		चार सुन्दरी	·	किंग्रोत विसास		महोधर	

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PROSODY.

20. The following, among other metres of this Genus, are classified in the Pingaládarsha as man eta.

घनाच्छरी छंद has 31 syllables, but the feet are left optional. The pause falls upon the 8th, 16th and 24th syllables. The last two or three syllables of each line must rhyme.

# कबडू तेा नाच मेरी सुधिन सर्व है तुम सबडूं तेा साप की जै दृष्टि सब जानिके । बिनती तेा दीननाच सुनहु सब यांचनेा रहडू मन में सदा मेरी बात मानिके ।

स्पक्तघनाच्छरी छंद has 32 syllables, with pause at the 8th, 16th and 24th syllables. The feet are optional.

मनाये से न मानोगी बुलाये से न बोलोगी देखाये से न देखोंगी सखी सात ठानी यही । कडां लें। उद्दों रोजकी रार ररी चली देखु भये। जामिन रात्री डार मानी उद्दी ॥

# CLASS I, ORDER II. पहुँसम वृत्त Arddhasama Vritt.

21. No division of this Order into genera and species is practicable. As in Sama Vritt metres, the 1st charan rhymes with the 2nd, and the 3rd with the 4th. In the following examples, only the 1st and 2nd charans are given; the 3rd and 4th charans contain, respectively, the same feet as the 1st and 2nd.

# पुष्पितामा इंद.

Scheme. { 1st and 3rd charans, ननरपा. 2nd and 4th ,, नवजरत.

# फिरि फिरि म्रमिक कई नही वेली । विधि यह कौन प्रकार की चंबेली ।

# द्रुतमध्या इंद. द्रुतमच्या छद. Scheme. { lst and 3rd charans, अभभगग. 2nd and 4th ,, नजजयग.

कौतुक आजु किया वनमाली । जल बिच कूदि पड़ेा सुनिया आली ।

बेगवती इंद. Scheme. { 1st and 3rd charans, यग्रमा. 2nd and 4th ,, भमभगग. सिगरे। तन स्वेद सने। है । ते। डर सावत बेगवती है ।

CLASS I, ORDER III. विषम वृत्त Vishama Vritt.

22. In this order, each of the four *charans* is formed on a separate scheme. Like Order II. it admits of no subdivision into genera and species. The following are examples of the more common metres.

	•
त्रमतधारा	BG.
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1st	ch.	इन+य	रघुपति चरबन चित लाई	
2nd	,,	8न + सग	जब तबडु सकल विषयम तुम भाई	
3rd	,,	र्धन 🕂 गग	जगत जनमि कुछ सुफल करते नहि चाघ की	न्दि ।
4th	,,	২ন 🕂 গ্যা	जनम नइक सीन्हें।	
			ललिता छंद.	
1st	ch.	सत्रसल	करुवानिधान रघुराउ	
2nd	,,	नसजग	श्वरब बाब नाब में भई	
3rd	,,	ननसस	सकल विषय तवि चित्त द <del>ई</del>	
4th	"	२(सज)+ग	महिमा अपार इम जानि ना लई	
			प्रवर्द्धमान छंद.	
1st	ch.	मरचमगग	मेरी जाति आद्वीर दे बाली कि न जानी	
2nd	,,	सनचरग	चलना पड़त ऋरी सली न मानी	
3rd	,,	<b>२(ननस</b> )	रहत मगन निसु बासर करत न करनी	
4th	"	इन + जय	चितवत नहि अब सखि हे मन मानी	
•		·	सैारभ इंद.	
1st	ch.	যন্মযল	करुका निधान रघुबंध	
2nd	"	শ্বর্যা	तिलक हरि दीन नाम हा	

3rd ch. रनभग देष्टु मोहि पद भक्ति सदा 4th ,, २(सज)+ग दित जानि मेार खिसराय पाप दे। CLASS II. जाति छंद Játi Chhand. OBDER I. गया छंद Gana Chhand.

23. Játi Chhand has already been defined in 13, II, of this chapter. It is divided by native writers into Gana Chhand and Mátra Chhand.

24. In *Gana Chhand* the verse is commonly measured by the number of instants in each line; but the order of feet in each line, within certain limits, is fixed and invariable. In *Mátra Chhand* the order of feet is for the most part left to the option of the composer.

a. This distinction between Gana Ohhand and Mátra Chhand, as laid down by native prosodians, cannot, however, be rigidly maintained. In many metres classified as Mátra Ohhand, certain requisitions and restrictions are made as to the nature of the feet employed, and on the other hand, in some Gana Ohhand metres, many of the feet are left to the option of the writer.

25. Native writers have divided *Gana Chhand* into six species, explanations and examples of which are given below. Each of these species, again, comprehends many varieties according to the succession of feet in the line. A few illustrations are given under each species.

26. The 1st and most popular species of Gana Chhand, is termed Aryyá, Gáthá, or Gáhá Chhand. In all Aryyá metres each verse consists of two lines (dal), the 1st of which contains 30, and the 2nd, 27 mátras. Each line must contain  $7\frac{1}{2}$  feet, each of which, again, must contain 4 instants, except the 6th of the 2nd line, which has only one instant. A jagan (\_\_\_) or a polysyllabic foot, is required in the 6th place in the 1st line; but jagans are prohibited in the odd feet of the 2nd line. The ocesural pause falls after the 3rd foot or 12th instant of each line.

27. The following is an example of that variety of Aryyádi metres which is known, par excellence, as within or **metre**.

> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  $\frac{1}{2}$  H + H = 0 instants. III + H + H = 0 instants. III + H + H = 0 instants. III + H + H = 0 instants. III = 0 instants. IIII = 0 instants. III = 0 instants. IIII = 0 instants. IIII = 0 instants. IIII = 0 instants.

28. चपला छंद must have a jagan in the 2nd and 4th places each line.

> स+स+स+स+स+मल+गग+ग = 30. म+स+स+स+स+स +ग = 27. करुवानिधान जगनाथ जान प्रव मोहि घरब तेरी है। देखहु कृपा नयन से निहारि धरत सबन प्ररी है।

29. The 2nd species of Gana Chhand is called (from its chief variety) min is Giti Chhand. The principal variety differs from all metres of the 1st species in that both lines contain 30 instants. The 6th foot must be a jagan, as in the 1st line of Aryyá Chhand. The other general laws of the verse are the same as in Aryyá Chhand. (Vid. §26, supra.)

## गीति इंद.

गग+गग+गग । भ+च+च+च+ग = 30 instants. गग+च +भ । मल+च+च+गग+ग = 30 instants. राधो माधो मेरी खात सुनडु साथ त्यांगि मति चास्रो ॥ मानेग इमरी सत्यांड डर नॉर्ड यह जानि खूकि तूं सास्रो ॥

30. उपगोति छंद contains in each line 27 instants, and follows in both lines the rules laid down for the 2nd line in Aryyá Chhand.

> गग+म+स । स+स+स+गग+ग = 27 instants. नस+स+स । नल+गग+स+स+ग = 27 instants. बावेा बाज चलडु कुंजन में सबरी बडो बाली ॥ चलत फिरत ठूंठत हैं बिच बिच में सेड बनमाली ॥

31. उद्गाति होद is the exact reverse of Aryyá Chhand, having 27 instants in the 1st, and 30 instants in the 2nd line. The same laws regulate the long and short lines as in Aryyá metres.

गग+भ+नल+गग+गग+स+भ+ग = 27 instants. गग+गग+स+भ+स+स+भ+ग = 30 instants. माधे। खात्र चलडु तुम माने। माने। कहे। इमरी । डूदे या की खब की नाधन ग्रुभ कोर्त्ति कैलिडे तुमरी ।

32. **WIZITITICE EXE** differs from Aryyá Chhand in that it adds one half foot to each line, making two lines of 8 feet each, instead of  $7\frac{1}{2}$ . The 1st line therefore contains 32, the 2nd, 29 instants. The other rules for each line are the same as those already given. (§ 26, supra.)

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गग+गग+स । भ+स+च+गग+गग = 32 instants.
नल+नल+नल । नल+गग+ल+गग = 29 instants.
मेरे प्यारे कहना मानहु सखकी नहीं खिसारा मा कीं।
चरब गरब हम तजत न निसु दिन ध्याऊं कवन विधि तो कीं।
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33. The various metres in *Gana Chhand* classified by some as *Bai-tálíyádi*, *Shikhádi*, *Vaktrádi* and *Achaladhrityádi*, differ widely from the above *Aryyá* metres. A few examples are given under each head.

34. The *Baitálíyádi* metres all consist of two lines, each containing six feet, and subdivided into two *charans* of three feet each. The number of instants varies from 28 to 32 in each line. The following are the most common varieties.

35. बैतालीय इंद. Two lines of 30 instants each, as follows: 6+र+सग+8+र+सग. The combination of long and short syllables in the polysyllabic feet, (the 1st and 4th,) is optional. Pause at the 14th instant.

## मधु सूदन को लखे। चली तुम देखे। कैंचे। क्रिपे। गली ॥ चल माधव राधिका चली चलरी जैंदें दे। चले। भली ॥

36. चारुहासिनी छंद differs from the foregoing in substituting 6 instants for 8 in the 4th foot, making 28 instants in each line. The feet in both halves of each line therefore exactly correspond.

### चलो चलो खाल साध री भले। मलो साज माध री । लखे। लखे। जात कांध री कडे। कडे। संख बांध री ।

37. Shikhádi metres are characterized by having all the syllables, except the last two, of the same length. The number of instants varies from 28 to 32. The following are the most common varieties.

38. **urinals: b**c has two lines of 32 instants each. In the 1st line all the syllables are long; in the 2nd, all are short. In this metre, therefore, no rhyme is possible. Pause at the 8th syllable of the 1st line, and the 8th and 16th of the 2nd.

### आवे। आवे। वी आवे। हे। मेरे द्वारे राधा माधे। । निसु दिन लखत न कहत अवर कुङ् ग्रदा चरब तीज भजत अवर कुङ् ।

39. ग्रतिरुचिरा हुंद Scheme, २९स+ग=29 instants in each line. Pause at the 8th, 16th and 24th syllables.

> भजहु मन चरब रहहु हरि घरब सजहु सब विषयन रमना । चलहु पघ सुगम करहु तुम जनम सुफल नियर झर्बाह मरना ।

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40. Vaktrádi metres all contain two lines, each of which is divided into two charans each of eight syllables. The second, third and fourth syllables must not form a nagan  $(\_\_\_)$  or sagan  $(\_\_\_)$ . The following are the most common varieties.

41. **चपलावक्ता होद** requires, in addition to the above conditions, that the fifth syllable begin a *nagan* (\_\_\_).

## घूमि देखे। मगन में कैंचे। सेइस री थाज । कांधा थाज मधुर में देंई री सबरे। साज ।

42. **युगमविपुला छंद** requires, in addition to the general conditions of Vaktrádi metres, that the fifth syllable of the even charana begin a jagan (\_\_\_).

## कडनामानु मेरेारी आपाली चलडुआ ख दी। मान ले बहुरी राधे देखे। कचन याज दी।

43. The Achaladhrityádi metres consist each of four lines of 16 instants, of which the 1st rhymes with the 2nd, and the 3rd with the 4th. The following varieties may be noted. The 1st and 2nd lines only are given in the examples.

44. **विद्यलाक** होद requires that the 5th instant begin a jagan (\_\_\_) or nagan (\_\_\_). The final syllable must be long.

### माधो करो यहाय लेक की । साधो यदा सुचेत योग की ।

45. चित्रा छंद requires a short syllable at the 5th, 8th and 9th instants, and a long syllable as final.

### साज चलहु पगन विद्यारी ज़ । देखहुं सब अलक तिहारी ज़ ।

46. **उपचिमा छेद** requires that the 9th and 10th instant fall on one long syllable, which must be followed by two short.

### विना परीका सत्व न प्रगटे । वेष धरे सेंा नाम नीई घटे ।

CLASS II. जाति हंद Játi Chhand.

Order II. माना छंद Mátrá Chhand.

47. In *Mátrá Chhand* each *charan* or *dal* is composed of a certain number of instants. Often the charans are again subdivided into feet, each containing, again, a fixed number of *mátrás* or *instants*,

and following each other in an invariable order of succession. But the combination of long and short syllables in the several feet is left, for the most part, to the option of the composer; and the verse is thus regulated, not by any reference to the kind of feet employed, but by the number of instants required for each division of the verse.

a. Thus, e.g., the first foot of the *Dohá* must consist of six instants, but these may be so combined as to form a double tribrach ( $\gtrless$  नाब  $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ ), or a molussus (माख  $\_ \_ \_$ ), or any other feet possible under the conditions.

48. It should be particularly noticed that not only the total number of metrical instants in a *charan* or *dal* is fixed, but that also the number of instants in each foot is invariable. Thus the following half *Chaupái*, although containing the 16 instants required by rule, is faulty in the composition of its feet; where we will show the follows; 7+3+4+2, whereas it should be, 6+4+4+2.

N. B. Observe that in the above, as in all the schemes given below, each figure denotes a foot or other section of a verse, and indicates also the number of instants which it contains. When any figure is followed by the sign of multiplication,  $\times$ , it is to be understood that the foot is to be repeated the number of times which is denoted by the multiplier. Thus  $(4 \times 3)$  would denote that a foot of four instants was repeated three times; *i.e.*,  $4 \times 3 = 4 + 4 + 4$ . A comma after any figure will be used to denote the metrical pause; thus, 10, +8, +8, +6 = 32, is to be interpreted as denoting a line of 32 instants, composed of four *charans*. respectively containing 10, 8, 8, and 6 instants; the cæsural pause falling at the 10th, 18th, and 26th instant.

49. Verse in Mátrá Chhand may be conveniently distributed into three divisions; viz., 1st, metres consisting of two lines only (दिपाद); 2nd, those consisting of four lines (चतुब्धाद); 3rd, those consisting of more than four lines (चतुब्धाद).

a. Many metres are reckoned Dvipád by some prosodians, and Chatushpád by others. But this is a matter of no great practical importance.

50. Hindoo prosodians have enumerated and described a very great variety of metres in *Mátrá Chhand*, as in *Varan Chhand*. But it will suffice to enumerate and illustrate a number of the most common. The metres under each class are arranged according to the number of *mátrás* in each line (*dal*), beginning with the shorter and proceeding to the longer metres.

## I. Verse of Two Lines (द्विपाद).

51. **QIET** or **QIET**. This contains two lines, each of 24 instants; each of which is divided into two *charans* and six feet, as follows; 6+4+3, 6+4+1. The last foot (3) in the first *charan* must not be a trochee (\_\_\_); *i.e.*, it must be a tribrach (\_\_\_\_) or an iambus (\_\_). The last syllable of each line must be short.

### माला फेरल युग गया गयान मनका फेर। करका मनका काड़िकों मन का मनका फेर।

Rem. This is at present the most popular and common of all metres. It is much used by Tulsí Dás, Kabír, and all the most esteemed poets.

52. **Arcor.** This is simply an inverted Dohá; *i.e.*, the 2nd and 4th charans of the Dohá, are made to stand as 1st and 3rd, and vice versd. The same rules and restrictions as to feet hold as in the Dohá; *i.e.*, the final syllable of the short charans must be short; and the last foot of the longer charans must not be a trochee. The rhyme is not made at the end of the line, but maintains its original place at the end of the short charans. The scheme stands, 6+4+1, 6+4+3. In the following, Tulsi Dás has exceptionally rhymed also the longer charans.

### कुंडचंदुसम देश्व समारमन करुनाग्रयन । बाहि दीन पर नेश्व करेा कृपा मर्दनमयन ॥

53. **Sequence** set a contains in each line of two *charans*, 28 instants; the lst and 3rd *charans*, each have four feet,  $(4 \times 3) + 3 = 15$ ; and the 2nd and 4th, three feet, 6+4+3=13 instants.

को प्रभुकडे गुन आमित तेार खुद्धि शक्ति प्रेम आपार। जब दिवधाम तीव अवतरिया कोन्ड तबाइ नर निस्तार।

54. ललित or हरिपद छंद contains in each line 16,+12=28 instants. The last two syllables of each line must be long.

कडा मानु ग्रंथ वात इमारी चले। सखी तू ग्राज़ू। सुनी द्वाल इम ग्राज तुमारी प्रिया सिधारो काजू।

55. **HEIRI** or **EXAMPLE** has seven feet in each line; thus,  $(4 \times 5) + 6 + 2 = 28$  instants. Pause at the 16th instant, secondary pause at the 9th. The last syllable of each *charan* must be long.

> बिनुदाम स्रावत काम वे। नित ताडि नडी भन्ने नरा। बरादीय रकडि कडि़ सेवत देवगा वसंयय भरा।

56. The set of the se

में चाब मिलन चहीं सकी जसुमति सुत जहं होय कता बहु। कर्पाट कर्पाट सब दौरिकै यशुदा नंदन को लखवा बहु।

57.  $\frac{1}{2}$  bas in each line, 10, +8, +12, =30 instants; the last syllable must be *long*. Pause at the 10th and 18th instants.

म्रांत कूर माकार वप न चीन्द्रे परम चतुर पद पावे। सब दोंक जगत में आप भली दे बाइर सुर्मात बतावे।

58. चौवोला हुंद has in each line 30 instants. Pause at the 16th instant. Thus,  $(4 \times 4)$ ,  $+ (4 \times 3) + 2 = 30$  instants.

समर हित विचारि धरेा तनु के। भूपति वलि से कपट करी।

Rem. In the Chhandodipak, the line is divided thus,  $(4 \times 3) + 3 = 15$ ,  $(4 \times 3) + 3 = 15$ . I have followed the Pingaládarsh.

59. **UTIT** or **UTITITE EXAMPLE** has two lines, each of 31 instants; each line has nine feet, with pauses at the 10th and 18th instants, thus,  $(4 \times 2) + 2$ , 4 + 4,  $(4 \times 3) + 1$ .

> मोइन मुख आगे आति अनुरागे मैं जुरही मसिइबि निर्दार । दुख देत सु आली बिनु बन माली घत्ता लोह चूक तन आरि ॥

## Verse of Four Lines (चतुष्पाद).

60. Of the various metres enumerated below, a number, as, e.g., the Tribhangi, Durmilá, Dandkalá, Lílávatí, Padmátatí, Madanhar, are reckoned by a few prosodians as verses of two lines (fquit). The second pair is, indeed, in respect of feet, only a repetition of the first pair, and does not rhyme with it, so that the verse is really a compound of two Dvipád stanzas. On this account, while following common usage in reckoning these as Chatushpád, in many cases I have thought it necessary to give examples only of the first of the two couplets.

61. गमक छंद has in each line 5 short syllables.

भाग सकल । बल बिकल । सुर प्रमृत । प्रसुर मृत ।

62. दीपक ट्वंद has in each line 10 instants.

तुम रइडु प्रियनाच । निसु समय मम साच । जग को सुखदायक । प्रेम करै लायक ।

63. The following have each 14 instants in each line, but differ in respect of the metrical pause, and the feet that are permissible.

- (1) गजल छंद, 7,+7,=14. Last foot must be a trochee.
  - ज्ञाख ते। हो तु प्रीय सचेत । मग में पड़िन रहा ज्राचेत ॥ ं नयन खोलहु शत्रुन समीप । जागत रहा तूसजि दीप ॥
- (2) चम्पक इंद, 8,+6,=14. Last foot must be a spondee. सुरली की धुनि सुनि धाईं। सगरी संखियां डॉट आईं। मन मोइन की सुनि खानी। रोइ रोइ सारी सुसुकानी ।
- (3) खज् छंद, 6,+8,=14. First foot, \_\_\_; last foot, \_\_\_. रहहु सदा रहुवंग नाथ । करहु कृपा अब बाज साथ । जसन करहु अब दीननाथ । धरहु अबे मम कांध हाथ ।
- 64. चेापाई छंद, 8,+7,=15. Final syllable must be short. करहु कृपानिधि धर्म्म विकाश । मेरे हिय में ज्ञान प्रकाश । रहहु यदा प्रभु चित में आय । कलिमल राघव पल में जाय ।

65. The following two contain each 16 instants to the line, but differ in the feet and pauses.

(1) चाडिल or चलोला हंद, 8,+8,=16. No jagans (\_\_\_) allowed; the last foot must be a bhagan (\_\_\_). All four lines must rhyme.

स्रब वह स्रावत वेबु बजावत । स्वाल बाल को। नाच नचावत । लखु स्रति राजत इवि बह हावत । अमकि अमकि सब खेल खिलावत ।

(2) चौापाई (also called पादाकुलक and कुलपाई) 6+4+4+2=16. The last foot is commonly, though not invariably, a spondee.

> उछरहिं विमल विलोचन हो के। मिटहिं दोष दुष भवरजनी के । सुफहिं रामचरित मनिमानिक । ग्रुप्त प्रगट जा जेहि खानिक ।

Rem. This metre ranks with the Dohá (§ 51, sup.) in popularity. A large part of the Rámáyan of Tulsí Dás is composed in sections very commonly of four Chaupáís, alternating with one or two Dohás.

66. 袁祝गत 衰夜, 5+5,+5,+5,=20. Pause at the 10th instant.

### यणादा लाल तूं रारि काई करेा। कहोगी आज में जाय नाही ठरे। । सुनैगी यणादा बतावैगि लेरेा। ठीठ तो भया है देखिया तु मेरे। ।

67. रासा छंद, 12,+9,=21 instants.

करडु कृपा जगस्वामी मेरे साथ हे। ॥ रहिडुं सदा सभिलावी लेरे डाघ हे। ॥ 68. लीला छंद, 11,+11,=22. Last syllable must be long.

धन्य भयों मैं काज इरिकेकाज काये। सखो। सखी सख साज कस इरिबप भाये। ॥

69. रोला इंद, (also called रमावलो,) 6,+(4×4)+2,=24. Last syllable must be long; pause at the 11th instant.

### रवि इवि देखत घुसत घूघू जहं तहं भागहीं। चक्रवाक लखि अधिक रवि को हिय अनुरागहीं।

70. anou  $\overline{20}$ ,  $6+(4\times3)+6$ ,=24; pause at the 11th instant.

माधव आज निर्दार जात खालन संग,'कुंजन । देखि देखिके आप चलत मानडु दल्प्रांजन । आवै अख जे। आज धर्क मिलि री नंदनंदन । करत बड़े। अनरीत चलत जिमि सिधुरविभंजन ॥

71. द्विया इंद contains 16,+12,=28 instants.

स्राये। स्राज यहां यदुनन्दन लोन्हे कर पट सारी। देखु देखु सस्ति से।इस कैसे। माने। घनघट कारी।

72. चैापैया छंद, 10,+8,+12,=30 instants. Last foot a spondee. Subordinate rhymes fall at the 10th and 18th instant.

> तल वितल रसातल गगन भुवन तल सृष्टि जिती जग माहीं। पुरंग्राम सुधल मैं कानन जल मैं वाहि रहित कडुनाहीं। पिय मिलहिन रामहि तजि सिय बामहि नहिबचार कडुंभागे। सुरपति सुत कांचा सब जग नांचा बां चौपैसा लागे।

73. सवाया छंद, 16,+15,=31 instants. Last foot a trochee.

रेखा राम नाम को सौदा तोहिन भावत मूठ अध्यान। निसि दिन जात मेाइ बस दौरत करत सबै आज नम सिरान॥

74. The four following metres have each 32 instants to the line, and differ only in the cæsural pause, and the feet which are permitted.

(1) **司沖河 該**定, 10,+8,+8,+6,=32. No jagans (\_\_\_) allowed. Subordinate rhymes at each pause.

समुक्तिय जगु जन में को फलु मनु में इरि सुमिरन में दिन भरिये	
भिगड़ेा बहुतेरेा घेव घनेरेा मेरेा तेरेा परिहरिये	
माइन बनवारी गिरवर धारी कुंज विहारी पगु परिये	
गोपिन को संगी प्रभु बहुरंगी लाल त्रिमंगी उर धरिये	

#### 790009Y.

(2) **USERTABLE 55** differs from the *Iritheopi* only in making two passes instead of tarses in each line, time,  $10.\pm2.\pm14.\pm32$ . But some writers make three passes, dividing thus,  $10.\pm2.\pm6.\pm5.\pm32$ . The final syllable must be long. The remaining rules are the same as for the *Irithaugi*.

आणिमीन की अंग्रेस अग्रेस की के की नज नम खामा कोई हू। की की मुन केलिन अग्रेस की केलिन सालन उन्हें कड़ोरें हू। निक्रमन मुन म्यार्थे खाद कुसार्थे के की केइन कोई हू। कलिर बादन की खादमार्थन तक और कुरोई कई कोई हू।

(3) **getuen giz**, 10, +8, +8, +6=32. This differs from the *Trablange* only in that the last foot must be a spondee. Secondary rhymes are made in the subordinate divisions of each line.

## इक कि कुमधारी का इककारी निम कुर जाजा अनुवारी। निरबंधव डाता का रव जाता कहा बाधु कंत्रति जारी ।

a. The **fram** if differs from this only in requiring an iambus instead of the final spondee.

(4) लोलावती हंद. Scheme, 18,+14,=32. This differs from all the preceding in admitting only one cassural pause.

## र्धानांवर की चटक मटक मु की सटक कटक चब कुटस की । मुमुकान विसाजन निरम्वि निरम्वि के इर्रावर होय भानुकुस की ।

75. Tidre zic. Scheme 10, +10, +10, +10, =40. The last foot must be an ismbus; subordinate rhymes may occur at each pause,

## प्राथ के अपन में नैन में बैन में चित्त चब कर्ब में खदा बसे। असुना । अपन में चलत में काइत में सुनत में खान बड पान में करे। पाप दसुना ।

76. **AGABT EXAMPLE** has in each line 10, +8, +8, +6, +8, =40 instants. The final syllable of each line must be long; but the last three syllables must not form a ragan  $(\_\_\_]$ . The first two and last two charans rhyme. Subordinate rhymes occur at the cæsural . pauses.

वीव लच्च युदुराई इति पश्चिकाई भाग भलाई जानि परे फल सुकृति करे। प्रतिषप्रस्वन मुख हीत सबन सुख दास हिये दुख दूरि करे सुख भूरि भरे।

### Verse of more than Four Lines (बहुपाद).

77. **August end a** This is a compound metre of six lines, consisting of a Dohá, (§ 51 sup.) followed by two Kávyas (§ 70 sup.) The last charan of the Dohá must be repeated in the beginning of the Kávya, and the last two syllables of the Kávya must be the same as the first two of the Dohá. This metre is much admired. The best examples are in the poem of Girdhar Ráe, which is written in this metre.

बीसी सांहि विसार दे	म्रागेकी सुध लेय	I
वे। वनि सावै सहत में	ताही में चित देय	
ताही में चित देय	बात बाही बनि सावै	1
तुरजन इंसे न कोद	चित्त में खेद न पावे	
कइ गिरधर कविराय	यहै कर मन परतीती	I
कांगे कीं सुख देख	यमुभ बोती से बोती।	

Rem. Sometimes for the Kávya, a Rolá Chhand (§69 sup.) may be substituted. This differs from the Kávya, however, only in the division of its feet.

78. ऋष्मे कुंद् consists of a Kávya (§ 70 sup.) and an Ullál Chhana (§ 53 sup.)

भाल नैन मुख खधर	चिवुक तिय तुम विलोकि भति	
निर्माल चपल प्रसन्न	चाल सुभ वृत्ति घकी मति	ł
उपमा कह शौंश पंज	कंज विविय गुलाब वर	
संड चान तिचि प्रात	पक्क प्रफुलित सुग्रोभ धर	
	ध मृदुं नव लदास बावत न चित	
	त हित डार ग्रहित घट पद महित	

79. रसिक छंद consists of 6 lines, each of 11 instants. The final syllable must be short.

इंसत चक्षत दधि मुदित ॥ भुकत भजत मुख रुदित ॥ त्रसित तियनि मिलि रहत ॥ रिसियुत विरतिहि ग्रहत ॥ बागनित इत्वि मुख संसिक ॥ सिसु तवन बरस रसिक ॥

## Of metres used in songs (Bhajans).

80. Many of the metres enumerated above, in both Varan Chhand and Mátrá Chhand, are used in the composition of verse designed to be sung. The only special point to be noted is the custom of continuing the same rhyme throughout all the lines of the bhajan. A

D

whole or half stanza is often repeated as a refrain. Examples are added of common metres.

81. ताटक सवैया. Scheme, < च + ग. Pause at 4th foot. जप जांग करे तन साधि मरे नर कोटि उपाय रचे भरमार । भुति चारि पुरान कुरान पढ़े नॉइं भेद मिले तन भूठि सतार । गुर पंडित पोर फकोर फिरे खडु भांति क रूप विरूप खनार । etc.

82. yuq ma has in each verse 32 short syllables, with pause and rhyme at the 8th, 16th, and 24th.

### लइ अरुन बरन गइ राग स्टन। दह यहा छन बन कह घरम बचन।

83. **uai** na. has two lines, of 6+6, +6+4=22 instants, with pause at the 12th; the last two syllables must be long.

काम लहर उठल तुंद क्रोध पवन वारे। लोभ मौर घुमल ठैार मोह रुघन घोरे।

84. ललिता गीत. In each line, 6+6+2,+6+4=24 instants, with pause at the 14th.

भव भय भंजन जनरंजन गंजन सकल इरन ॥ विपति निखारक सुखदायक सायक पड़न चरन ॥

85. **Ata ma.** The scheme commonly used to this  $R \delta g$ , is as follows; 6+4+4+2, +6+4+2=28 instants, with pause at the 16th instant; the metre is complete in two lines.

भजन करेा मन लाई भाई भजन करेा मन लाई। प्रेम सुधा रख चाखा निरमल रखना रख ग्रपनाई ॥

86. **GHU NAT**. To this is sung a verse of two lines as follows; 6+4+4+2, +4+4+4=28 instants; or 6+4+4+2, +6+4+4+2=32 instants. Pause, in either, at the 16th instant.

- (1) अपमरित भोजन काड़ि विमुठे कर नित गरल आहारी। कंठहि उतरत तन मन ग्रास्थी कोड न करे पुढारी ।
- (८) चोति घट गई दें। नैनन की नाइि सुने स्वर नीके काना। यूंघि सके नडि फूलन बासा रसना भूले रस दचि नाना।

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# Corrigenda et Addenda.

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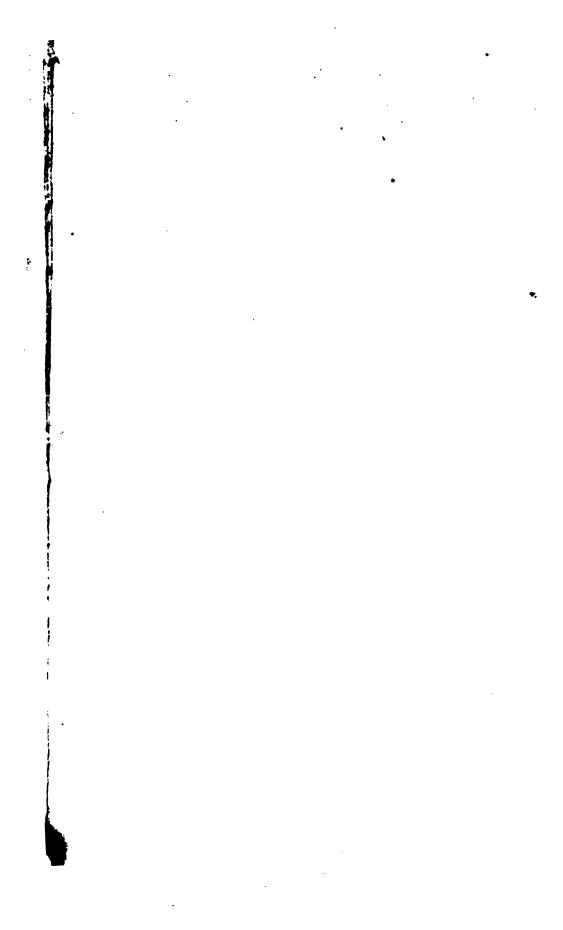
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§ 131. c. The origin of h in *bhauphaiy* as suggested in the text is, I think doubtful. A nom. singular *bhauph*, for *bhaup*, also exists, to which must be referred the plural, *bhauphaip*: h, therefore, cannot be merely a euphonic insertion.

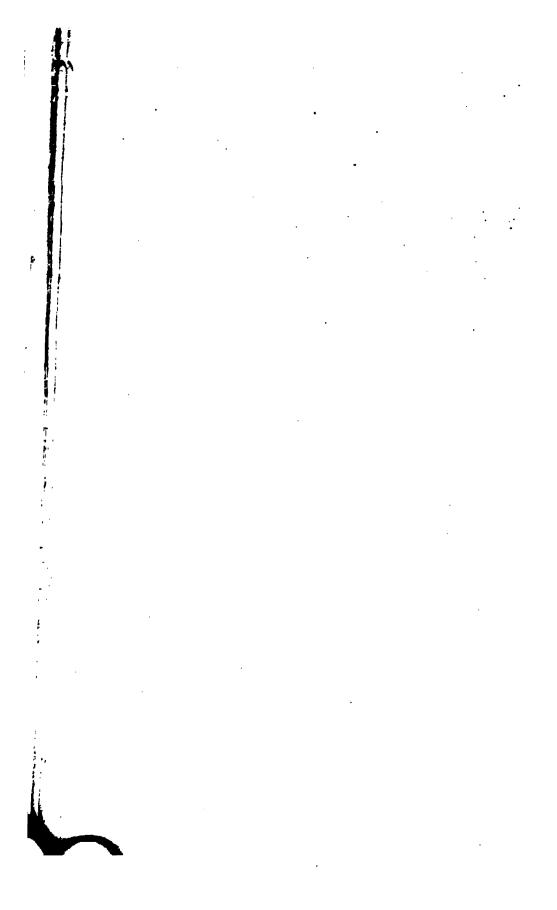
§ 273. Mhe and tushme may preferably be assigned to increased Prakritic themes asmaku, tushmaka.



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