Hindi as a Second and Foreign Language

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Edited by

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CONTENTS

PREFACE

Hindi is one of the most spoken languages in the world. Apart from the fact that it has its origins in the ancient Sanskrit language, it is also a phonetic, easy to learn, and culturally very rich language. Day by day, it is gaining more relevance internationally due to various reasons, such as Hindi being a lingua franca not only in South Asia but also among the South-Asian diaspora all over the world. There is an ever-increasing number of universities in several countries that are introducing and expanding new courses on Hindi and Indology. This book intends to present the new and latest information on teaching and learning of Hindi as a foreign language. This book is going to be useful not only for the teaching of Hindi but may also help in the preparation of new didactic and learning materials. The information and ideas given in this book are going to help new teachers/professors/ researchers as well as the students of Hindi.

The current book is an outcome of the successful culmination of the International Conference on Hindi as a Second/Foreign language held in Lisbon in 2019. The conference saw a congregation of reputed linguists and academics working on Hindi in different Universities across the world. During the deliberations of the conference, the participants had a consensus to bring forth the emerging trends and practices of Hindi didactics at a singular platform to make this language popular and more accessible to the learners of Hindi as a foreign language. This principle objective of this book should be helpful to linguists as well as the teachers of Hindi.

The aim of this work is to not only focus entirely on the grammar of Hindi but also offer a succinct and reasonably comprehensive overview of Hindi language teaching and learning. We have tried to elaborate on the different aspects of Hindi with respect to varied contexts and languages. The different topics that are dealt with in this volume cater to all the categories of learners, each with their own needs: the beginner, who lacks in-depth knowledge of grammatical structures and needs a guide to navigate through the grammar of the language; the intermediate-advanced learner, who has an extensive command over the grammatical concepts but also appreciates a clear reference book in moments of doubt; and the

independent or adult learner, who is studying Hindi purely for academic purposes. Above all, the book simultaneously can act as a user-friendly handbook with concise explanations of areas of grammar and comprehensible examples spread over all the chapters. The novelty of this book lies in the fact that most of the contributors are those who themselves have learnt and studied Hindi as a foreign language, which makes this book unique.

Language teaching involves various aspects, such as linguistics, literature, technology, television and applications of communicative competence in various contexts. This book has tried to bring all these aspects on one platform. The article of Boris Zakharin explains the theories applicable to definiteness and indefiniteness markings in Hindi, Shiv Kumar Singh uses the contrastive method to explain the similarities and differences between Hindi and Portuguese, K.V. Subbarao's approach is on various interesting grammatical and pragmatic strategies on Hindi Language Teaching, Premlata Pinki Vaishnava and Bairam Khan explain the methods on Learning from Our Surroundings, Liudmila Khokhlova talks about the approaches to teaching of Hindi, Kusum Knapczyk explains how technology can be used to design self-guided listening tasks and assessments for Hindi in flipped and traditional classroom settings, Miki Nishioka talks about Genitive in Hindi, Nora Melnikova has explained the issues related to the transfer of knowledge from Hindi to Czech, Renner explains the usage of communicative approaches to Hindi Grammar, Parvaz Insha's approach is related to the production of French-Hindi linguistic resource for judicial interpretation and translation, and Peter Knapczyk explains the importance and usage of the Task-based Lessons in Mixed-level Hindi classroom.

We would like to thank our colleagues and members of the scientific committee of the conference: Prof. Ana Maria Martins, Prof. Rui Marques, Prof. António Barrento and Prof. Hugo Cardoso, all from the University of Lisbon, Portugal. Without their encouragement and constant support, neither this book nor the conference would have been possible.

We thank all the contributors of this book with special gratitude to the Center for Indian Studies of FLUL, CLUL, Embassy of India in Lisbon, and the Ministry of External Affairs of the Government of India.

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CHAPTER I

DEFINITENESS AND INDEFINITENESS MARKING IN HINDI

BORIS ZAKHARIN

Abstract: The paper aims to briefly characterise the spheres of applicability of the universal opposition "definite – indefinite" to sentence structures of the Hindi language. The basic notions of the typologically important theory of information flow (such as theme, topic, focus, etc.) have been clarified and exemplified by samples from texts in Hindi, the New Indo-Aryan language of the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European language family. The standard methods of syntactic, semantic, and discourse analysis have been applied. Native speakers of Hindi have verified all the samples obtained from texts of different types, while their adequate translations into English supplied with necessary comments have also been given.

Following Li and Thompson's criteria (1976), Hindi, as well as, for example, Russian (which is used as a means of teaching Hindi in Russia), may be generally classified as a "subject prominent language". It is devoid of a rigid system of articles that is important to English syntax, though it possesses different means for surface coding of Information Structure (IS) notions. The universal division of language sentences into the categorical and thetic types is also relevant to Hindi. See, e.g., the categorical (1) "rām jī ne nayī kār ko kharīd liyā" "Mr. Ram has bought a new car" (in answer to "rām jī ne kyā kiyā?" "What did Mr. Ram do?"), opposed to the thetic sentence (2): "ek baRī durghaṭnā ho gayī" "A big misfortune has fallen [upon us]" (being an answer to "kyā huā?" "What has happened?"). The thetic sentences are usually denoted as "themeless" or as those "with zero-

theme", but more correctly would be to treat them, following Yanko (2008), as "sentences with non-inherent theme" or, according to Lambrecht, as sentences characterised by the widest type of focus which spreads on total predication. Phonetically (by phrasal intonation patterns) or syntactically - at least in texts of narrative style - the thetic sentences do not differ significantly from their categorical counterparts. Besides, though both types are widely used, the categorical sentences are much more frequent. Due to these reasons, further on, only categorical sentences of Hindi will be analysed.

The semantic content available in a sentence may be presented in different ways in accordance with the demands of the multilateral syntactic-pragmatic entity, usually named as "Information structure", (or "Information Flow", according to Comrie). The coding means associated with IS imply a great number of factors, belonging to different levels: to that one of lexical semantics (e.g., considering relevant oppositions between nouns and pronouns or between different sets of verbs, etc.), to the level of morphosyntax (taking into account aspectual, temporal, and modal features of the predicate; viewing differences between the simple or complex types of sentence structure or between affirmative, negative, and interrogative variants of utterances, etc.), and to the level of IS proper (with the necessary correspondences on the scales of definiteness and animacy). "When analysing the latter, it will be useful (though not always permissible) to differentiate between the inherent properties of nominal phrases (NPs) which are based on distinctions like "definite" and "indefinite", and their relational properties which take into account correspondences between NP arguments and their predicates (and imply notions like "focus", "topic" and "theme") (see Comrie 1981: 58 – 59).

"Focus" may be understood as "the semantic component of a pragmatically structured proposition whereby the assertion differs from the presupposition" (Lambrecht 1994: 213). Focus may be narrow (spreading on an argument of the verb or on the verb itself), or wide (spreading on a phrase, on a clause, or on a (thetic) sentence (Lambrecht 1994: 213, 221)). From some other point of view, the focus may be informational (equivalent to "comment" in Lambrecht's description) or identifying/contrastive. The main subtype of the informational focus is the expanding one: as the addressee is not fully informed on the subject, the speaker dispatches a portion of additional information in order to expand, by this act, the hearer's knowledge. In Hindi, this latter type of focus usually implies the frame presented by particles na + sirf X [but] Y bhī "not only X [but] also Y" - e.g.: (3) vah na sirf sabzī, cāval bhī śahad ke sāth khātā hai "Not only

vegetables he eats with honey, [but] rice also". The identifying or contrastive focus is the one that is selected out of a closed set of alternatives: (4) āp ke lie cāy yā pānī de dūM? - Pānī lāo! "Should I give you [a cup of] tea or water? – Bring water!".

"Theme" signifies that component of the sentence semi-pragmatic structure, which remains, as a residue after focus has already been determined: (5) tumhārī māM kyā kar rahī hai? "What is your mother doing?" – merī māM (THEME) ghās (FOCUS) kāṭ rahī hai "My mother (THEME) is cutting the grass (FOCUS). – Aur tumhārī beṭī? "And your daughter?" - Beṭī (THEME) cāy (FOCUS) banā rahī hai "Daughter (THEME) is preparing tea (FOCUS)".

"Topic" is the (main) component of a proposition, which bears information relevant to the addressee's knowledge concerning the specified referent; otherwise, it implies a spatial, temporal, or personal frame, limiting "the applicability of the main predication to a certain restricted domain" (Chafe 1987: 309). When a certain immediate constituent of the grammatical structure of the clause is represented as Theme, the latter also functions as Topic. In Hindi, with its basic order SOV, a leftward or rightward dislocation of the constituent in question often signals the topic: (6) ā gayī hai yah bas! (THEME and TOPIC) "This bus (THEME and TOPIC) [expected for a long time] has [at last] arrived!"; (7) yah gīt (THEME and TOPIC) us ne sunāyā hai, nā? "He has [already] sung this song (THEME and TOPIC), has not he?".

Besides changing the basic word-order, the other often used means for marking topic (or theme + topic) is the particle "to", usually occurring immediately after the topicalised constituent: (8) tumhārī laRkī sayānī hogī? – hāM jī, merī laRkī to (TOPIC) byāhne lāyak hai "Your daughter must be adult? – Yes Sir, my daughter (TOPIC) is marriageable"; (9) merā nām to (TOPIC) tum ne sunā hogā, nā? – sunā to hai (TOPICALISED CONSTITUENT) jī, par … "As for my name (TOPIC), you must have heard [it], haven"t you? – I indeed heard [it] (TOPICALISED CONSTITUENT), Sir, but …". The sample (9) is significant: in order to topicalise the verbal phrase the particle "to" must be inserted between the two components of the analysable construction. It should be mentioned in addition, that such a too broad functional diapason of the particle "to", permits us to suppose that "to" is actually meant not for expressing the IS notions (such as Topic, Theme, etc.) but for marking the discourse flow oppositions (such as "continuity – breaking off" of the content chain).

In speech utterances, it is often difficult to determine borders between the information-carrying entities – e.g., the whole structure of (10), which serves as an answer to "kyā ho gayā? - "What has happened?", may be understood as expanding focus: (10) havā calne lagī –phahrātī hai, sāRī! "Wind has started blowing – [it] tousles [my] saree". However, inside the first half of the answer, we may interpret havā as the Theme; the noun sāRī further on (definitely definite!) may be treated as a contrastive Focus, implying the sense: "the wind is tousling saree only, not any other part of the clothes".

The notion "subject" prototypically may be looked at as "the intersection of prototypical agent and topic" (Comrie 1981: 101). Thus, in a typical transitive sentence of Hindi, the subject represented by a single unattributed noun having an animate referent and being independent of any lexical, syntactic, or IS limitations, is necessarily definite (or, at least, generic), while the direct object noun is correspondingly inanimate and indefinite – see, e.g., (11): dhobī kamīz dho rahā thā "The washerman (DEF.) was washing a shirt (INDEF.). If there appears a need to mark the indefiniteness of the subject, lexical means are employed. Most often indefiniteness is expressed by partially grammaticised numeral ek "one" or by indefinite pronouns, like kuch "something", koī "some", etc.: (12) ek/koī ādmī kutte ko pukārtā hai "A man/some man (INDEF.) is calling a dog". Concrete nouns, not belonging to the lexical class of "substances", when occupying the subject position, may also express indefiniteness through preposing measure-nouns or numerals, which are morphologically marked by Obl. PL affix –oM. - E.g., (13) bagīce meM darjan-oM bor-e rakhe hue haiM "Dozens of sacks (INDEF.) are stored in the garden"; (14) gāMv meM das-oM kutt-e rahte haiM "Tens of dogs (INDEF.) stay in the village". Nouns that denote "substances" and thus are semantically "measurable" but "non-countable" – e.g., cīnī "sugar", pānī "water", etc., – due to their inherent feature of "non-countability", they cannot directly be combined with numerals, and for this, the "mediatory" assistance of "quantifiers" (measure signifying nouns or expressions) is needed. Sequences like, e.g., *tīn pānī *" three water(s)" are non-permissible in Hindi, while the addition of a quantifier makes the phrase tīn gilās pānī "three glasses of water" grammatically correct. The resultant constructions of the type "numeral – quantifier – "substance" denoting noun" imply not only the meaning of "measurability", but also "definiteness". The quantifier in these constructions may have inflexions of either Nom.sg or of Nom.pl, with no semantic or functional differences implied by them. The verb of the sentence normally agrees with the "substance"-denoting host-noun, which is always marked by Nom.sg - see, e.g., (15): Babā

Singh ne pandrah bīgh-e (m.Nom.pl) zamīn (f.Nom.sg) kharīd l-ī (f.sg) "Baba Singh has bought fifteen bigha of land (DEF.)". But in Hindi, under the same semantic or syntactic conditions may also exist sentences with the verb demonstrating agreement not with a host-noun but with a quantifier: (16) pulisvāle ko tīn bor-ā (m.Nom.sg) / bor-e (m.Nom.pl) īkh (f.Nom.sg) di-y-ā ga-y-ā th-ā (m.sg) / di-y-e ga-y-e the-e "Three bags of sugar-cane (Def.) were handed over to the policeman". The reasons and limits of these alternations are for the moment unclear. There also exist constructions of the type "concrete noun-1 + concrete noun-2" wherein the first of the nouns, morphologically marked by either Nom.PL or by Obl.PL, functions semantically as a "quantifier" or "container". Both the word-forms vary freely, and combinations of any of them with noun-2 express the meaning of indefiniteness. Being the syntactic host, noun-2 is usually marked by Nom.PL, and the verb of the sentence agrees with it in number and gender: (17) rāt meM lāRiy-oM (Obl.PL) sE sipāhī-ø (Nom.SG=PL) nagar meM ā pahuMc-e (PL) "At night lorries of soldiers (INDEF) arrived in the town"; (18) DhER-oM (Obl.PL) laRak-e (Nom.PL) is maidān par ikaṭṭh-e hu-e th-e (PL) "Crowds of young boys (INDEF) had gathered on this square".

Typologically Hindi is an accusative language with partial (split) ergativity. The only NP of its intransitive sentences usually corresponds to agent/Subject (a/S). If devoid of any special lexical means for expressing indefiniteness (like, e.g., ek "one" or koī "some", etc.), it is necessarily definite, though on a scale of animacy it may be either animate (most often) or (much rarer) inanimate: (19) laRak-ā peR se nīce gir paR-ā "The boy (DEF, ANIM) fell down from the tree"; (20) relgāRī ruk gay-ī "The train (DEF, INAN) stopped".

In the transitive sentences, the information normally flows from animate and definite agent/Subject (a/S) towards inanimate and indefinite patient/Direct Object (p/DO). The animate/definite a/S is marked by Nominative in the non-ergative domain and by Oblique plus postposition "ne" in the ergative domain. Nominative also marks the inanimate p/DO, the IS treatment of which as either indefinite or definite wholly depends on wider context: (21) laRk-ā (Nom) gīt-ø (Nom) gā rah-ā h-ai "The boy (DEF) is singing a/the song (DEF/INDEF)"; (22) laRk-ī ne (Erg) iśār-ā (Nom) nahīM dekh-ā "The girl (DEF) did not notice a/the sign (DEF/INDEF)". To stress the indefinite character of either a/S or p/DO, lexical means, e.g., numeral ek "one" or indefinite pronoun koī "some", may be used: (23) kisī būRh-e ne khiRkī khol dī "Some old man (INDEF) opened the window; (24) rāmlāl ne ek gilās toR diyā "Ramlal broke a glass (INDEF.).

Definiteness of either a/S, or of p/DO may be expressed by syntactic means – e.g., dislocation (Dvivedi 1994: 91 – 118). See: (25) gāMv bhar ko jalā degā īśvār "God (DEF) will burn the whole village"; (26) vah na dekh legā aisī laRkī ko (DEF)! "He won't look at such a girl!". However, this strategy implies a number of constraints, and, due to this, utterances of the type are of limited occurrence – mostly they are met with colloquial speech. The universal way of marking p/DO for definiteness (or, at least, for specificity) is the use of the Oblique case with the Dative postposition ko: (27) vah ām ko cūsne lagā "He started sucking [the particular] mango-fruit (DEF) – compare with (28) where ām is generic: (28) log ām cūst-e h-aiM "People [normally] suck mango-fruit (GENERIC)".

Personal and demonstrative pronouns, nouns referring to humans or human-like creatures, those signifying universal objects (like "sun" or "Earth", etc.), personal names or nicknames and the like, NPs containing numerals or attributes, when occupying the position of a/S or p/DO, are obligatorily definite. In p/DO position they are to be marked by Oblique with postposition ko: (29) is choṭī laRkī ne viṣṇu dev ko pahcān liyā "This little girl recognised god Vishnu (DEF); (30) Annadātā ko maiM jānt-ā h-ūM "[As for] Annadata, (DEF, cleft Focus), I know [him]". The same is also true about generics: (31) śārk (DEF.) tairte logoM par hamlā kartā hai "Shark (DEF., generic) attacks people who are swimming". Compare this with (32), wherein the same noun śārk is non-generic and indefinite. It should also be pointed out in passing that śārk in (32) is a theme, but not a topic, because indefinite NPs cannot function as topics - (32): śārk (INDEF.) boṭ ke ās – pās āte – jāte the "[Some] sharks (INDEF) were coming and going near the boat".

The absence of potentially necessary "ko" sometimes may be explained by stylistic-syntactic considerations, as "ko", determined by verbal valency on recipient or addressee, may already be expressed in the sentence: (33) vah apne ghar-vāloM ko yahī ciṭṭhī (*is ciṭṭhī ko) likht-ā h-ai "He writes this letter (DEF) to his relatives". But there are also contexts wherein the p/DO, though being animate, still remains "unmarked" (that is, formally marked by Nominative, not by "Oblique plus ko") – see (34): naukar bulā-o "Call a servant (INDEF.)!". Montaut's explanation for these phenomena is that in such cases the p/DO "no longer appears as a human entity but rather as a general function" (Montaut 2004: 171), but the concrete Hindi samples do not fully support this «function» - based interpretation. – See, e.g., (35): kyā, strī kā uddeśya puruṣ prāpt karnā hī hai? "Is it so that a woman's target is only to get a man (INDEF)?" or (36): badmaś strī māMgtā hai? – jītī laRkī na dūMgā tujhe!" "The scoundrel demands a

woman (INDEF)! – Not a girl alive (INDEF) [I] would give you!". The appropriate treatment might, probably, be the following: the speaker deliberately plans to stress the indefiniteness of the constituent and realises this intention through marking of highly animate p/DO by the Nominative case. The Nominative case (not the Oblique + ko) is also used for marking the definite p/DO, when the latter turns to be an "integrated object" of a verb – see, e.g., (37): ve kīRe kī zindagī jī rah-e h-aiM "They live the life of worms (DEF)".

Special attention is deserved by those Hindi sentences where both the markers are used: the indefiniteness marking numeral ek "one" and the indicator of definiteness postposition ko - (38): ek jānvar ko dekh kar bhāg jātā hai vah "Having seen one of the animals (DEF-INDEF), he runs away". In such instances, the class of the referents as a whole seems to be treated as definite while the concrete representative of it is understood as indefinite, for example, (39): ek khiRkī ko khol do! "Open one of the [identifiable and thus definite row of] windows (DEF-INDEF)!".

Thus, to achieve further progress in exploring the IS of Hindi, it is desirable to examine thoroughly the data supplied by all the three main strata of the language structure – the lexical level, the level of grammar, and that of pragmatics. All possible intersections that may exist between notions of the animacy scale and those of the scale of definiteness are to be taken into account. The hierarchical animacy scale, in its essence, is to be based on the well-known Silverstein's scheme: "pronouns > humans/ anthropoids > animates > inanimates > abstract nouns" (Silverstein 1966: 112 – 171). As for the scale of definiteness, the differentiation by Comrie "fully identifiable > partially identifiable > comparatively relevant > irrelevant referents" might be taken into account (Comrie 1981:129). The analysis suggested above is understandingly brief, but the most important landmarks of the future investigation seem to have been determined here.

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CHAPTER II

A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN PORTUGUESE AND HINDI

SHIV KUMAR SINGH, GAURAV KUMAR, RANJEEVA RANJAN

Abstract: Hindi and Portuguese both are Indo-European Languages. Vasco da Gama, a great Portuguese sailor of the 15th century, discovered the maritime route to India. The Portuguese lexicon enriched the vocabulary of Hindi, and some of the words of Indian origin are found in the Portuguese language. We shall see some of these examples in the section on the Hindi and Portuguese lexica.

Day by day, the study of language universals and parametric variation has been becoming more important to understand natural languages. The primary objective of this comparative study of Hindi and Portuguese is to present the structural linguistic features of both the languages in a contrastive mode; this will allow us to analyse and present the linguistic patterns and language variations that can help in finding the generalisations from the cross-linguistic comparison. The development and structuring of this article would be based on the inductive (empiricist) approach of language universals (Comrie 1981, Subbarao and Saxena 1987, and Subbarao 1997). This article can be useful for linguists who are interested in the typology and systematic study of Hindi and Portuguese. This article is supposed to be helpful in the learning and teaching of Hindi and Portuguese as foreign languages in their respective geographical contexts.

This contrastive study would focus on the similarities and differences between the two languages to find the common language universals, distinct properties and characteristics as well as temporal-aspectual information of both the Indo-European languages. For this purpose, as per the context, the data will be presented and discussed in both the languages.

Keywords: contrastive linguistics, Hindi-Portuguese lexicon, phonology, orthography, word order

A brief introduction of Portuguese

Today, Portuguese is spoken by around 236 million[1] people and is considered the sixth most spoken language in the world. The national language of Portugal and Brazil belongs to the Romance language group. It developed from the Vulgar Latin of the western Iberian Peninsula, in the Southwest of Europe. It is the official language of Angola, Brazil, Cape-Verde, East Timor, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique, Portugal, and São Tomé and Principe. Vasco da Gama was the first European from Portugal who discovered the sea route to India from Europe. Goa, Daman and Diu were Portuguese colonies before 1961, and till date, the influence of the Portuguese language and culture is present in these parts. The Portuguese language is one of those languages, which has its presence in five continents (Asia, Africa, South America, Europe, and Australia).

1. Hindi - Portuguese Lexicon

Hindi is a language that developed through various phases of Sanskrit, Pali, and Prakrit and acquired the words of various foreign languages. It has acquired many words from the Portuguese language as well. Some of the Hindi words, which are of Portuguese origin, are as follows:

1.1

Hindi lexicon	Original lexicon in Portuguese	Hindi lexicon	Original lexicon in Portuguese
अनानास	Ananás	पगार	pagar
आलमारी	Armário	पादरी	padre
आलपीन	Alfinete	पावरोटी	pão
आया	Aia	पिस्तौल	pistola
कमीज़	Camisa	फालतू	falto
कप्तान	Capitão	फीता	fita
कनस्तर	canastro	बाल्टी	balde

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[1] https://www.ethnologue.com/language/por (22-12-2017. 19H)

कमरा	Câmara	बिस्कुट	biscoito
कॉफ़ी	Café	बटन	botão
कारतूश	cartucho	मिस्त्री	mestre
गिरजाघर	Igreja	मेज़	mesa
चाभी	Chave	यीशू	Jesus / Isus (Latim)
तौलिया	Toalha	साबुन	sabão
नीलाम	Leilão	साया	saia

Though the Portuguese language is not so much influenced by Hindi or by other Indian languages, there are some words in Portuguese of Indian origin[2], such as:

1.2

Portuguese	Hindi	Source
ahimsa	अहिंसा	Sanskrit / Hindi
Andor	Not found in Hindi	Konkani
Ássana	(योग) आसन	Sanskrit / Hindi
Avatar	अवतार	Sanskrit / Hindi
basmáti (arroz)	बासमती (चावल)	Sanskrit / Hindi
Bengala	बँगाल	Bangla
Buda	बुद्ध	Sanskrit
Carril	कढ़ी concani-mar. kadhi / tamil kari,	Konkani / Marathi / Tamil
Caxemira	कश्मीरी	Kashmiri
Chamuça	समोसा	Hindi
Charuto	चुरुट	(churuttu) Tamil
Chela	चैल (सं.), concani chêl	Sanskrit / Konkani

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[2] Source: www.infopedia.pt and Houaiss Dictionary

Chita	चीता	Sanskrit / Hindi
dharm[e]	धर्म	Sanskrit / Hindi
guru (spiritual master)	गुरु	Sanskrit / Hindi
hindu, hinduísmo	हिंदू	Sanskrit / Hindi
Hinduísmo	हिंदुत्व	Sanskrit / Hindi
Jangada	Not found in Hindi	(changadam) Malyalam
karmá (dever)	कर्म	Sanskrit / Hindi
naja (cobra-capelo)	नाग	Sanskrit / Hindi
Nirvana	निर्वाण	Sanskrit / Hindi
pagode (pagôdî)	पगोड़ा (स्तूप)	Tamil / Malyalam
pária (the lowest cast)	Not found in Hindi	Tamil / Malyalam
Samsara	संसार	Sanskrit / Hindi
sitar (A musical instrument)	सितार	Hindi
sutra (uma fórmula)	सूत्र	Sanskrit / Hindi
Tugue	ठग	Konkani / Hindi
Yoga	योग	Sanskrit / Hindi

Phonology and Orthography

Vowels: Portuguese uses *a, e, i, o,* and *u* as base vowels, and their combinations are known as diphthongs. There are 13 diphthongs (10 orals and 3 nasal) in Portuguese, whereas in Hindi, अ *a,* इ *i,* उ *u* and ऋ *ri* can be considered as base vowels and rest are their derivatives (Kellogg 1875 and Kachru 2008:87). For example, (1.3):

दीर्घ स्वर = अ + अ = आ, इ + इ = ई, उ + उ = ऊ

गुण स्वर = अ / आ + इ / ई = ए, अ / आ + उ / ऊ = ओ

वृद्धि स्वर = अ / आ + ए = ऐ, अ / आ + ओ = औ

The presence of *dirgha* and *guNa* svar is an Indo-European feature, but the *vriddhi* is a particular characteristic of Indian languages. The *dirgha* and *guṇa* are also found in Portuguese, but they do not function as independent forms of vowels as they do in Hindi.

Vowels (Hindi, adapted from Kachru 2008:84)

Vowels	Front	Centre	Back
High	i		u
	I		ʊ
Mid High	e	ə	o
Mid Low	ɛ		ɔ
Low		a	

Vowels (Portuguese, adapted from Comrie 2009:220)

Monophthongs						
i	ĩ	(ɨ)	u	ũ		High
e	ẽ		o	õ		High mid
ɛ		(ẽ) ɐ	ɔ			Low mid
		a				Low

Diphthongs	*Front*			*Central*			*Back*		
iu						ui		ũĩ
eu	(ei)	ẽĩ				(ou)	oi	õĩ
ɛu	(ɛi)		ɐi	ẽĩ			ɔi	
			ai	au	ẽũ			

Consonants

There are two distinct features of Hindi, one of which is the presence of aspirated and unaspirated voiced plosives (e.g. Unasp_क '*k*' - Asp_ख '*kh*', Unasp_ग '*g*' - Asp_घ '*gh*'), and the second feature is the retroflexion, which is also part of Hindi–Urdu. These two features are not found in most European languages, but in Portuguese, there is one retroflex consonant present, i.e., '*R*'.

Consonants (Hindi)

Consonants			*Labial*	*Dental*	*Retroflex*	*AlveoPalatal*	*Velar*	*Back Velar*
	vls.	unasp.	p	t	ṭ	č	k	(q)
		asp	ph	th	ṭh	čh	kh	
Stop	vd.	unasp.	b	d	ḍ	ǰ	g	
		asp.	bh	dh	ḍh	ǰh	gh	
Nasal			m	n	(ṇ)	(ñ)	(ŋ)	
		unasp.			ɽ	r		
Flap	vd.	asp.			ɽh			

Consonants (Portuguese)

	Bilabial (and Labio-dental)	*Dental*	*Palatal (Palato-alveolar)*	*Velar*	*Uvular*
Plosives	p	t		k	
	b	d		g	
Fricatives	f	s	ʃ		
	v	z	ʒ		
Nasals	m	n	ɲ		
Laterals		l	ʎ		
Vibrants		r[ɾ]			R
Semi-vowels	(w)		(j)		

The summary on phonology between both the languages is as follows;

	Hindi **हिंदी**	Portuguese **पुर्तगाली**
Language family	Indo-European / Indo-Iranian	Indo-European / Romance
Script	*Devanagri* (left to right)	Roman (left to right)
Basic unit	*Akshar* / syllable (Varma 1961), e.g.: श = sh[a] Total number of *akshar*: 52 (39 consonant, including conjunct + 13 independent vowels)	Alphabet / letter, e.g. s, h Total number of letters: 26 (according to new Orthographic rule of 2009, 21 consonants, and 5 vowels excluding conjuncts)
Vowels	Independent: 13	Independent: 5 Diphthongs: 14 (10 oral + 4 nasal)
Semi-vowel	य y, व v	j, w
Diacritics / accents	12, ा, ि, ी, ु, ू, ृ, े, ै, ो, ौ, ं, ः	12 , e.g. á ã â à, é, ê, í, ó, ô, ú, ü, ç
Aspiration	Yes (e.g., क K - unaspirated, ख kh - aspirated)	No
Retroflex	7,e.g. ट ṭ, ठ ṭʰ, ड ḍ /ड़ δ , ढ ḍʰ / ढ़ δʰ , ण ṇ	1, e.g. *R / rr*
Capital and small letters	No	Yes

Pronunciation

The pronunciation system is more regularised in Hindi in comparison to European languages. In Hindi, every *akshar* (symbol) represents only one sound, so there is hardly any ambiguity between the written form and the spoken form. However, the same is not valid for Portuguese and other European languages. These languages have different rules of pronunciation as per the context of the appearance of the letter, for example, Jorge (NM), *g*ato (cat).

The letter "g" in the first word represents the sound "ज j", and in the second word, it represents "ग g".

Hindi does not have any mute *akshar* but Portuguese and English show such phenomena, e.g. *Homem* (Man), *Há* (conjugation of *haver there*).

2. Morphology

The nouns of Hindi undergo changes in order to indicate number, gender, and case. Hindi and Portuguese both have the same types of numbers and genders. However, there are three cases in Hindi, whereas in Portuguese, there are only two, as explained in the following examples;

	Hindi हिंदी	Portuguese पुर्तगाली
numbers	two (singular and plural) लड़का laδkA boy - लड़के laδkE boys	two (singular and plural) rapaz - rapazes (boy - boys)
genders	two (masculine and feminine) लड़का laδkA - लड़की laδkI (boy - girl)	two (masculine and feminine) rapaz - rapariga (boy - girl)
cases	three (direct, vocative and oblique) direct: लड़का (sl.) - लड़के (pl.) oblique: लड़का + का = लड़के का (sl, obq.) लड़के + का = लड़कों का (pl. obq.) vocative: हे लड़के (sl), हे लडको (pl.)	two (direct and vocative) direct: rapaz (sl.) - rapazes (pl.) vocative: ó rapaz (sl.) - ó rapazes (pl.)

In Hindi, the usage of the oblique case makes teaching and learning of Hindi a little difficult because this case is not as clearly marked in Portuguese as in Hindi.

2.1 Influence of gender on adjective and number

In both languages, adjectives always agree with the number and gender of nouns, except the adjectives, which do not vary in both languages. For example, the adjectives that end with any consonant in Hindi usually do not change, such as सुन्दर sundar (beautiful), शिक्षित shikshit (educated), सुगन्धित sugandheet (scented) etc. In Portuguese, the adjectives that end in 'te' usually do not change according to gender, but they change according to the number of the respective noun, such as inteligente (sl) - inteligentes (pl) (intelligent), sorridente (smiling), independente (independent) etc.

In Hindi, the gender does not influence the cardinal numbers, but in Portuguese, some cardinal numbers show the influence of genders, for example;

Hindi **हिंदी**	Portuguese **पुर्तगाली**
एक कलम (one pen)	Uma (f, sl) caneta (f,sl)
एक लड़का (one boy)	Um(m,sl) rapaz (m, sl)
दो कारें (two cars)	Dois (m,pl) carros (m,pl)
दो औरतें (two women)	Duas (f,pl) mulheres (f,pl)

However, ordinal numbers in both Hindi and Portuguese function as adjectives and change according to the gender and number of the noun, for example;

Hindi **हिंदी**	Portuguese **पुर्तगाली**
पहला साल (first year)	primeiro ano (first year)
पहली लड़की (first girl)	primeira menina (first girl)
बीसवीं सदी (twentieth century)	vigésimo século (twentieth century)
बीसवाँ घर (twentieth house)	vigésima casa (twentieth house)

2.2 Verb

2.2.1 Types:

The verbs in their normal (infinitive) form end in the phoneme "ना", but in Portuguese, the verbs in infinitive form can have three different terminations, such as *ar*, *er*, and ir, for example;

Hindi हिंदी	Portuguese पुर्तगाली	English अँग्रेजी
खेलना	jog*ar*	To play
पीना	beb*er*	To drink
निर्माण करना	constru*ir*	To construct

2.2.2 Conjugation of verbs:

Hindi and Portuguese use different affixes according to time, aspect, and mood. One thing that is distinct in Hindi is the explicit marker of gender in verbal form (conjugation). Portuguese, Spanish, and English do not show the influence of gender in the conjugation of any verb, but in Hindi, this influence is always marked in the indicative mood. However, imperative and subjunctive moods do not show gender markers, for example;

Indicative mood (gender of the subject influences the conjugation of verbs in Hindi but never in Portuguese)

Hindi हिंदी	Portuguese पुर्तगाली
राम क्रिकेट खेलता है। Ram cricket khelta hai Ram cricket play.pres.m to be.pres Ram plays cricket.	O Ram joga (jog-a) criquete. article Name.m verb.pres noun - Ram plays cricket Ram plays cricket.
रमा क्रिकेट खेलती है । Rama cricket kheltI hai Rama cricket play.pres.f to be.pres	A Ramá joga (jog-a) criquete. article Name.f verb.pres noun - Rama plays cricket Rama plays cricket.

This example also shows that the system of the article does not exist in Hindi, whereas Portuguese and English use articles frequently with nouns. In Portuguese, articles change according to the gender and number of nouns, e.g., definite article, o rapaz (sl,m) *the boy* - os rapazes (pl,m) *the boys*, a rapariga (f,sl) *the girl* -as raparigas (f,pl) *the girls*. The conjugation of any verb in present indefinite in Hindi requires the conjugation of *to be* as well. In contrast, Portuguese and English do not require the usage of the auxiliary verb.

Imperative mood (gender of the subject does not influence the conjugation of verbs in Hindi and Portuguese);

Hindi हिंदी	Portuguese पुर्तगाली
कृपया बाजार जाएँ। kripya bAjAr jAyeN Please market go.imp Please go to market.	Por favor, vocês vão ao mercado. please you all go.imp[3] to the market Please, you all go to market.
कविता बाजार जाएँ kavita bAjAr jAyeN Kavita market go.imp Kavita, please go to market.	Ramá, por favor, vá ao mercado. Rama please go.imp to the market Rama please go to market.

Subjunctive mood – present

Hindi हिंदी	Portuguese पुर्तगाली
शायद आज बारिश हो । ShAyad aaj bArish ho Perhaps today rain to be.subj Perhaps it rains today.	Talvez, hoje chova. perhaps today rain.subj[4] Perhaps it rains today.
शायद खाना ठंडा ना हो । ShAyad khAnA thanDA nA ho Perhaps food cold no to be.subj Perhaps food is not cold.	Talvez, a comida não esteja fria Perhaps the food no to be.subj cold Perhaps food is not cold.

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[3] Imp = imperative form
[4] Subj = subjunctive mood

2.2.3 Causative verbs

The causative verbs in Hindi are related to a base verb that can be transitive and intransitive. In the process of the derivation, the base verb suffers some internal morphological changes, e.g., कर-ना and कर-वा-ना. Some verbs accept different words, e.g. टूट-ना, तोड़-ना, तुड़-वा-ना, but Portuguese and English use a different causative lexicon or the main verb comes after any light verb that functions as an auxiliary verb, for example;

Hindi हिंदी	Portuguese पुर्तगाली
पढ़ना *padhnA* Study राम हिंदी पढ़ता है । Ram Hindi padhtA hai Ram Hindi study.pres.imperf to be Ram studies Hindi.	estudar - Ram estuda hindi. Ram study.pres.imperf hindi Ram studies Hindi.
पढ़ाना – *padhAnA* teach / to make study राम कार्ला को हिंदी **पढ़ाता** है। Ram karla ko Hindi padhAtA hai Ram karla to Hindi teach.pres.impf.caus to be Ram teaches Hindi to Carla.	ensinar (new lexicon) Ram ensina à Carla. Ram teach.pres.caus to the Carla Ram teaches to Carla. Fazer + estudar = to make learn

3. Syntax || वाक्य संरचना

3.1 Word-Order || शब्द-क्रम

Hindi usually follows the order of [subject - complement (indirect - direct) - verb]; however, this is not fixed, and the order can be changed, but the semantic value would vary as per the order. In Portuguese, usually, the order is: [subject - verb - complement (direct-indirect)], though there are some possibilities of changing this order, the word-order in Portuguese is not as flexible as in Hindi, as can be seen in the following example;