1. Grammar Vs. Linguistics

'Grammar' literally means the 'art of correct writing'. As long as the classical languages as against the popular (spoken) languages enjoyed respectability as languages of the pundits and had to be studied as sacred languages through Grammar, Grammar commanded respectability as an essential discipline. But with the emergence of the popular, spoken and modern languages as respectable languages of the people and as media of the advancement of modern knowledge, the study of classical languages declined. Following upon the emergence of the respectability of the popular languages emerged Linguistics, the science of language, which studied the spoken languages as self-existent verbal systems, their function being communication. Linguistics too, like science, emerged as an analytical and descriptive science from a prescriptive and normative discipline. Hence with the emergence of Linguistics, Grammar declined in value and importance. After the turn of the century, say, after Sweet's The Practical Study of Languages (1897), Grammar began to decline in importance in relation to Linguistics in the West. In the West, Grammar is hardly given the importance in the study of popular languages since these are
spoken languages and the child learns them any way before he comes to have any conscious sense of grammar.

English in India, unlike in England where it was and is L1, began to be studied as a classical language. This was right too, because here English was as unfamiliar to the Indian pupil as Latin and Greek were to the English pupil. In fact, English was farther from Hindi and other Indian languages than Greek and Latin were from English. Historically and culturally there is more in common between English and the Greco-Latin and Judaeo-Christian tradition than between English and the Indian languages. So Grammar held sway in the teaching of English in ordinary schools until about the end of the British era. But with the onset of Linguistics and the induction of Linguistics-trained teachers of English into India, Grammar went down in practical importance and consequently translation too came to be discounted.

2. Grammar and its Function

As a result of the decline of grammar and translation as tools of pedagogy, both the speaking and the writing of English as L2 suffered. For us, Grammar is still the art of correct (English) writing because English here is studied more or less as a classical language and more as a written than as a spoken medium. Grammar by common agreement is that branch of knowledge which teaches an L2 learner the correct use of the

1. See above, footnote 17 (Ch.I).
language. In India, the equivalent of Grammar is Vyakarana (व्याकरण). It deals with the sentence, the word and letter by indicating the rules that internally govern their correct structure and use. By a standard definition (viz., व्याक्रणयते शब्द अनेनेति व्याकरणम्)², Grammar is that science which analyses the constituents of a language in depth and objectively discovers the rules of structure, and then shows how they are formed and used in actual communication.

Generally speaking, the Grammarian has suffered in comparison with the Linguist -- we may call him 'Linguistician' as well -- because he has been taken to be a high-brow authoritarian law-giver of language. He is understood to be one who would bind the free spirit of language and its popular growth and brook no deviation from what he lays down as the correct and hence inviolable form of the language. Properly speaking, the Grammarian, in Indian terms, is a counterpart of the Western linguist as is clear from the term Vyakarana (व्याकरण) given above. Indeed it is not the function of the Grammar nor is it the job of the grammarian to formulate rules to be followed by the users. If they are 'rules', they are such precisely on the lines of the rules of nature. As science is the study of the 'laws' according to which nature works, so Grammar is the study of the rules according to which language works.

The Grammarian has to "observe the use of a language and then to indicate what patterns are followed in the use of that language." These patterns of usage are the 'rules'. Grammar does not have the power to lay down the rules for the language to follow. Its function is merely to observe and record the language as it is used by its native speakers. If it is customary or growing customary to use a particular idiom, grammar notes the trend and records it for others to note it. It has no power to stop it. Grammar thus only discovers the rules of the patterns of the language and states what language is and how it works. Joseph Priestley says; "Language is a method of conveying our ideas to the minds of other persons, and the grammar of any language is a collection of observations on the structures of it, and a system of rules for the proper use of it." Grammar thus works as the science as well as the technology of language.

Howsoever arbitrarily a language might be used there are bound to be broad patterns governing the use in it of phonemes/letters, words and sentences, though with exceptions which may in some cases be rare and in others numerous. It is the job of grammar to locate these patterns and point out the exceptions. Many of these exceptions "seem strange from the

point of view of merely descriptive grammar." But these strange exceptions can find "their natural explanations when viewed in the light of earlier periods of the same language or of related languages." This is the function of comparative historical linguistics, a creation of the 19th century. Thus the job of a grammarian is to find out facts which can be of immense help to the learner of an L2.

3. Why Grammar?

It is natural that every language has a grammar. In fact every language is and has a definite system. "It is axiomatic that language is systematised. If it were not so, we should not be able to understand one another." And it is the grammar that reveals the system, i.e., the nature and structure of language.

The grammar of a language is of great importance for the learner, be it his own MT or an L2. It is so "because acceptability and intelligibility, both in speech and in writing within as well as outside one's own circle or group, depend on the currently followed basic notions and norms of grammaticality." However, the knowledge of grammar is of much

5. Encyclopaedia Britannica, X, 609.
6. Ibid.
7. Wilkins, Linguistics in Language Teaching, p. 68.
8. Verghese, p. 41.
greater importance to an L2 learner than to one studying his native language. The reason is obvious because "the native speaker has intuitively internalised the grammar of the language whereas the second language learner has to make a conscious effort to master those aspects of the language which account for grammaticality." What is implied here is that the native speaker learns (acquires) the language, and the facts of grammar get embedded in and with his language. But for an L2 speaker the language is a structure, the system being what it is. And while grammar states the facts of the structure with analysis for L1 speaker, it 'prescribes' the facts as rules for the L2 speaker. We may as well say that while for an L1 speaker everything he hears and speaks is acceptable unless it proves otherwise (i.e., uncommunicative and thus ungrammatical), for an L2 user nothing he speaks or writes is acceptable unless it is grammatical. For an L2 learner and also an L2 teacher, therefore, grammar is not only "a collection of observations on the structures of it (any language)", it is also "a system of rules for the proper use of it."  

Some Linguists, however, suggest that there is no role for grammar even in the case of L2 learners of English, or for that matter any language. For example, P. Gurrey argues against the use of grammar in learning a language in his book Teaching

9. Ibid.
English Grammar (London: Longman, 1961). His views have been summed up as follows:

i. What is learnt in a grammar class is not applied with sufficient point and frequency; grammatical rules may be thoroughly understood and learnt by a student and yet not applied in practice;

ii. Most of the definitions of grammatical forms and functions are not satisfactory;

iii. The traditional method of teaching grammar with its emphasis on parsing of words, word relationships, grammatical functions and analysis is inadequate.\(^\text{11}\)

As for the first view of Gurrey, this is a fault of teaching and practice, not of Grammar. As for the second point it is acceptable, because language is open-ended and continuous while grammar at a point is static as it describes/studies only a cross section of it. As for the third point, it is so because, perhaps, the grammatical study of English is modelled on the structure of the grammar of another language (Latin). In any case we should make a distinction between grammar as a subject and grammar as a functional and necessary preliminary as well as a concomitant to the study of L2. The study of English grammar cannot be based on the model of Sanskrit, for example, but a

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11. Quoted, Verghese, p. 54.
structural study of English can be made in relation to and with the referential help of functional affinities between English and Hindi language systems (Grammars).

Besides, those who are not in favour of teaching grammar also believe that the sentence and not the word is the first item to be taught. The sentence, they say, has a definite structure and it is this structure which has to be placed before a learner. Then the learner is to be given a drill in this structure. The learner will himself understand the structure and meaning of the sentence and also the meaning of individual words because words as well as sentences acquire meaning only in a context. In this way, these people argue, the learner will acquire the language and also the underlying grammar without knowing that he is learning the grammar also.

But this theory cannot hold good in the usual Indian context in which, because of the difficult circumstances, the DM of teaching L2 is not feasible as brought out earlier. In this case the learner does not acquire the L2 as he did his L1. On the contrary he learns writing the TL before being able to speak it. He acquires L2 only with the help of structural rules objectified and stated. These prescribed rules come to him as the prescribed rules of correct language use in the form of grammar. So this learner "cannot do without grammar. Grammar is essential to second language learning." 12 Grammar, after

12. Ibid., p. 55.
all, is not alien, either to a language or to a learner of language whether it happens to be L1 or L2. Grammar is the basic and vital design of languages. No language can exist without its grammar.

4. Grammatical Universals

Grammarians and linguists agree that there are some universals common to all the languages. "Some grammatical features are shared by all languages."¹³ "...Greenberg and other scholars in the United States have produced an impressive list of grammatical universals, including the categories of noun and verb and the functions of subject and predicate."¹⁴ For example, the prepositional relationship exists in every language.

But the way this relationship or any other is expressed is different in one language from what it is in another. Some languages such as Latin and Sanskrit which are inflexional in form have this relationship expressed through inflexions in a system of paradigms. Others which have the prepositions as separate lexical items, languages such as Hindi and English, have this relationship expressed through these prepositional words particularly placed in the syntactic system. In case of these latter languages too there are some (e.g., English) which

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¹³ Encyclopaedia Britannica, X, 608.
have the prepositions figuring before a noun or pronoun, and there are others (e.g., Hindi) which have the prepositions figuring after the noun or pronoun. But in spite of this structural difference the concept of prepositional relationship is universal.

Whereas identifying the universals may be a specialized branch of linguistics, it is an obvious fact that there are some grammatical notions which are found in almost every language. This we can know from "the method of comparative grammar... especially developed in the study of our own family of languages, the Aryan or Indo-European family."¹⁵ In fact at a certain stage of the development of comparative grammar scholars were "tempted to dwell on and to a certain extent exaggerate those features that were common to these languages..."¹⁶ But we are concerned with the fact of the universality of grammar rather than with the exaggeration of the value of the fact for our purpose. And the fact of the common core (the universal part) of L1 and L2 is important in the Indian situation.

"Most" grammars, at any rate most of those dealing with our own family of speech (i.e., Indo-European languages) are built up in the traditional way with the following main divisions:

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¹⁵. Encyclopaedia Britannica, X, 610.
¹⁶. Ibid.
5. Grammars of Indo-European Languages

The grammars of all, at least, of the Indo-European family of languages, are built on these four divisions of language structure. A reference to some of them, viz., phonological and lexical aspects has already been made. Syntactical and morphological aspects will be taken up in this chapter while discussing some selected aspects of the grammars of English and Hindi. This will make it clear as to how the two languages are akin to each other grammatically. This will also bring out some common features of the two languages. It will appear that there are many areas in L2 which are similar to those in L1, and so they are going to present no difficulty while being learnt. Not only that, the affinity between L1 and L2 grammars will facilitate the learning of L2. Gefen goes to the extent of saying that in case of the areas that are similar in the MT and the TL "there will be no need to teach them formally in a second language course."18 There will also be some areas, no doubt, where certain situations in L1 differ from those in L2. These will be the

17. Ibid., p. 611.
6. Two Important Points

Before coming to a discussion of the common points (or even the contrasting points) of the grammar of Hindi on the one hand and of English on the other, there are two major points for consideration:

i. Through which language to communicate the points of English grammar to the learner of this language as an L2? Should the grammatical points be communicated to the learner in English or in the MT?

ii. The other point for consideration is that every teaching/learning situation is particular for the teacher to be handled by him as the master of the situation.

Let us study both these points:

a) Language for Teaching Grammar

As far as the first point is concerned, the general practice dominantly, if not wholly, favours English. A survey of grammar books for school students in India reveals that most of
such books prepared by state agencies or by private agencies are written primarily in English. In these books rules have been explained in English and the use of technical language is made as often as necessary. Most of these books have almost religiously avoided the use of the learner's L1. It appears that the authors take it for granted that the learners know English so well that they can follow the statements of the rules with understanding. A survey of these books will convince one that they are not meant for a student who is going to learn the English language but for one who has already learnt it fairly well and is going to study the grammar of it now. The following books need to be examined as samples:

i. *A Practical English Grammar* by A.J.Thomson and A.V. Martinet.¹⁹

ii. *A Text Book on Applied English Grammar and Composition* for 9th and 10th classes by M.M.Sharma.²⁰

iii. *New College Composition* by M.J. Dave, I.M.Verma and N.K.Aggarwal.²¹

The language used in the statement of rules here is difficult and cannot be understood by the students for whom these books are meant. If they knew English so well as to understand the

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language of these books there would be no need of teaching them grammar. So approaching English grammar through English does not seem to be a sound approach on practical and realistic grounds. If we see the results of this approach in the actual field of teaching, we shall be disappointed to learn that most of the learners give up reading these books out of despair. As if taking a hint from that despair, many do not even start the study of these books and cram ready made answers to select questions. Grammar itself is a technical subject requiring a lot of concentration and understanding; but once it is understood properly, it opens the door to the language of one's choice. However, if it is written in a language hard to understand, or in some cases largely unintelligible, the learner has no option but to give it up -- at least until he is able to understand that language, and that is a stage where he needs no grammar for the language. Quite often, if the student is really conscientious, he has to take recourse to explanations of the rules in his own MT or to popular books written in the MT which are normally meant for mass consumption before the examination. Writing simple books of grammar through the medium of English for the learners of the language thus ends up as an exercise in futility because ultimately it seeks to put the cart before the horse. For example how can a student of VIII class in an ordinary Haryana school understand the rules of change from the direct into the indirect form of narration, if they are
explained in English. A recourse to the MT will have to be taken to explain not only the rules but also the meaning of the transformed sentences for a better understanding and appreciation of the point involved.

Out of the 10 candidates curious to learn English examined for a survey, all, without exception, felt that the grammar books should explain the facts of English grammar through the MT of the learner. Their only complaint was that most of the books prescribed for them did not explain things in a language intelligible to them. Once they were able to know clearly what the rules were, they felt, they could construct many correct sentences with facility. But they did not get clear on such matters through grammar books written in English. Hence they had to give up their study of English grammar, because they were unable to find books explaining the rules in their MT.

On the other hand there are books on English grammar written in the MT of the learner e.g., *Speedily English Course*. Though this book leaves much to be desired regarding coherence, precision and even orderlines, it does explain certain rules of grammar and structure in Hindi. Hence its wide popularity. Such books are naturally quite easy to understand. That is why a learner is usually found to be on the look out for books explaining grammatical or linguistic rules in his MT. This fact
is supported by a comparative statement of the popularity of books which explain the rules in English with that of those which make a liberal use of Hindi. Three of the most popular books (already referred to on page 142 above) on English Grammar and English-learning (teaching through the MT) initially written for Hindi-knowing learners but subsequently written for those with other Indian languages as their MT are:

i. Rapidex English Speaking Course

ii. Speedily English Speaking Course

iii. CSR English Speaking Course

On the other side are the books teaching English through the medium of English as mentioned on page 219. Now we have a look at the comparative figures indicative of popularity (of course, only inconsistent data is the base) of each category of books:

A. Books Teaching through the TL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Book</th>
<th>Data Regarding Reprints/ Impressions Editions/Sale Available with the Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. A Practical English Grammar by A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet.</td>
<td>Published or reprinted 19 times in 21 years (1960-1981). It is worth noting that this book is used at all-world level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. A Textbook on Applied English Grammar by M.M. Sharma.</td>
<td>Published twice during two years, i.e., 1986 and 1987. It is worth mentioning that this book is used, and prescribed for class teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. New College Composition by M.J. Dave, I.M. Verma and N.K. Aggarwal</td>
<td>Published seven times in seven years, i.e., between 1958 and 1965. This book is for use in every State of the Indian Union.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### B. Books Teaching Through MT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Book</th>
<th>Data Regarding Reprints/Editions/Sale Available with Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Rapidex English Speaking Course.</td>
<td>154 editions of the book have been brought out in 16 years, i.e., from 1976 to 1992. This book is used only by Hindi-knowing learners of English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Speedily English Speaking Course.</td>
<td>52 editions of this book were published in less than two years, i.e., between August 1976 and April 1978. This book is used only by Hindi-knowing learners of English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. CSR English Speaking Course.</td>
<td>A comparatively recent publication but is going in for new editions and reprints very quickly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another point worthy of note in this connection is that whereas the books belonging to category A are mostly found not with the learners but with those who have a fairly good knowledge of, or a good command over, English and use these books for reference purposes. They seldom use them for learning the language. On the other hand, the books belonging to category B are found largely with the learners and hardly with scholarly persons. This is a travesty of the English language learning/teaching situation in our academic and respectable circles. What is wanted, it does not have, what is unwanted, there is plenty in actual practice.
These data, thus, leave no scope for doubt that the learner finds it more convenient to understand the grammar of English if it is taught or presented to him through his MT than in English. Thus the relevance of the MT in the teaching of English grammar is very great. In fact the use of English for this purpose proves counterproductive as happened in the case of the students mentioned above. They gave up the study of English grammar out of despair for the reason that the books of grammar were unintelligible to them.

b) Particular Teaching Points

The second point for consideration is the particular individual situation of teaching and learning. The teacher is the master of almost every teaching situation. He has to assess the situation vis-a-vis his student or group of students. The situation varies, as has already been brought out above in the second chapter, on account of a number of variables including the teacher himself. In the kind of situation as it is in India, the teacher knows the MT of the student. While taking

22. If the teacher did not know the MT of the learner, the question of relevance or otherwise of the MT would not arise for practical reasons. For example, if all teachers of English in India were Englishmen not knowing the MT of the target students, there could be no possibility and hence no relevance of the MT as far as teaching in the class was concerned. But the teachers in India do know the MT/L1 of the students. Hence the question of relevance does arise.
up any linguistic item, it is the teacher who has to work out how best to explain a point so as to communicate it to the pupils. For instance, when it is a grammatical or lexical item he can go back to the MT of his student and may explore parallel items of grammar or vocabulary (as the case may be) for explanation and illustration.

For example, teaching of the following type of conditional sentence, sometimes, poses a difficulty before a learner:

*If I went to Delhi I would bring you a toy car.*

The difficulty usually confronted by the Indian learner arises because of the use of 'went' (the past tense form) where an action in the future is implied. But the teacher can bring home to the learner the point by citing a parallel example in Hindi:

*यदि मैं देहरी गया तो तुम्हारे लिए खिलौना-कार लाऊंगा।*

In case of the Hindi sentence also गया (the past form) has been used as condition for an action to take place in future. The learner at once accepts the English sentence as normally constructed when his attention is invited to the analogy carried in these two sentences. The logic of L1 explains the logic and correctness of the L2 sentence.

This, however, does not mean that the parallel example should be one carrying similarity with the target item. A point
can as well be brought out by putting across a parallel carrying
dissimilarity too. For example, in order to teach which tense
is to be used in time clauses in a compound sentence carrying a
future action the following two pairs of sentences, two of
English and Hindi each may be juxtaposed:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{Until you go there I shall also not go there.} \\
&\text{As soon as the Chief Guest comes we shall all stand up.}
\end{align*}
\]

The students' attention should be invited to the fact that
whereas in the case of Hindi sentences future tense is used, in
the case of English sentences present tense is used in time
clauses.

II

7. Affinity between Hindi and English Grammars

If a learner of English has acquired/been taught Hindi
grammar fairly well in the first six or seven years of his
general learning it is going to be of great use to him in his
learning of English as an L2. This is so because basically the
grammars of the two languages are similar to a large extent, as
is being brought out in this chapter. In fact there is a lot in
the grammar of one language which is of great value for learning
the grammar of the other. The two grammars are similar mainly
because of the following four reasons:

i. There are some grammatical universals common to all
languages and so also to Hindi and English.
ii. These two languages belong to the Indo-European family of languages. Hence they have inherited a lot in common in their structure.

iii. As will be brought out in a detailed way in the next chapter, English has considerably influenced Hindi language and Indian English too has been influenced by Hindi.

iv. Most of the grammar books of Hindi (such as those written by Hardev Bahari\textsuperscript{23a} and Kamta Prasad Guru\textsuperscript{23b}) have been written after English grammars. The grammar books (such as one written by Kishori Das Vajpayee\textsuperscript{23c}) which have not been written after the English grammar model are not in common use. The fact should ordinarily strike as strange, but it is explained by the influence of English.

The above statement that there is a lot in the grammar of one language which is of great value for learning the grammar of the other deserves to be examined with reference to each aspect of the two grammars being juxtaposed. This will include some teaching points of functional importance also. Some samples are given below for illustration:

8. Vowel Sounds

The first unit of a language is the phoneme/the letter with its sound value. In Hindi there are roughly 50 letters

\textsuperscript{23a} Vyavaharik Hindi Vyakaran (Allahabad : Lok Bharati Prakashan, 1974).

\textsuperscript{23b} Hindi Vyakaran (Kashi : Nagari Pracharini Sabha, 1960).

\textsuperscript{23c} Hindi Vyakaran (Meerut : Meenakshi Prakashan, 1978).
whereas there are only 26 letters in the English alphabet. Out of the 50 Hindi letters there are 14 which represent vowel sounds and the remaining 36 stand for consonants. In the Roman alphabet there are 5 vowel letters and 21 consonant letters. The vowel letters of English as also those of Hindi have the same function to perform, i.e., largely to give the vowel sound. The number of vowel letters in English is very small and vowel sounds as many as, and in fact much larger than, the number of vowel sounds in Hindi. The learner can be made conscious that all the vowel sounds in English (most of which he is already acquainted with while using his MT) will be represented with the help of the limited number of vowel letters. This point has been dealt with exhaustively in the chapter entitled 'The Phonological Relevance.'

9. Parts of speech

There are eight kinds of word in Hindi, as described in most of the grammars prescribed for students. Similarly there are eight parts of speech in English. The function of a word in an English sentence is determined on the same lines as in a Hindi sentence. This similarity deserves to be examined with each part of speech or each part of sentence being taken up one by one.

Before coming to the discussion of each of the parts of speech let us note that three out of these, viz., Noun, Pronoun
and Verb are declinables and four, viz., Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection are largely indeclinables in both the languages. The remaining one, the Adjective, of Hindi is a declinable but that of English is an indeclinable.

a) Noun

Coming back to the point let us take up the Noun. The Noun in English has the same definition as in Hindi. A learner, therefore, need not be told what a noun is except that it is what संज्ञा is in Hindi and he will get a fair concept of what noun is by just retagging his concept of संज्ञा.

Broadly, there are two types of noun in English, viz., i) countable, and ii) uncountable. Though formally Hindi Noun does not have these two types, in effect the Hindi nouns can also be divided into these two categories having the same characteristics, for bringing the same points home to the learner. The uncountable nouns of Hindi such as पानी, दूध, गेहूँ, सोना, ईमानदारी, भूख do not have any plural forms as the corresponding English words have none. Similarly, all countable nouns both in Hindi and English have their plural forms.

In fact most of the countable nouns in both the languages have plural forms as well as feminine gender forms different from their singular and masculine forms respectively.
They are mostly formed by suffixes being added to them. In Hindi plural forms are generally formed by adding either a *matra* or a letter to the singular form as in:

- गाय → गायें
- नदी → नदिया
- रचना → रचनाएं

Similarly the feminine gender form of a given word in masculine gender is formed by adding *matra* /changing suffix. Look at:

- बालक → बालिका
- लड़का → लड़की
- युवक → युवती
- बेल → गाय

A learner of English who is well versed in how genders and numbers are changed in his own language, Hindi (sometimes on a definite pattern and sometimes without any seeming pattern), finds it quite easy to understand the same process taking place in English. For example, he notices that whereas there is a pattern in: *lion -- lioness and tiger -- tigress* (as is there in शेर -- शेली, and मोर -- मोरली), there is no pattern in *ox -- cow, and boy -- girl* (as there is none in बेल -- गाय, and बर -- क्षु). While understanding such an exercise in English he is all along busy thinking in terms of how genders and numbers change in his own language. In both the languages there are some regular formations and others irregular. And when this fact is pointed out to the learner his natural impression that the L2 he is learning is difficult, is washed away which is a healthy situation psychologically.
Some abstract nouns are formed from words of other parts of speech in Hindi as well as in English. For instance in English we have:

- foolish
- arrive
- leader

In Hindi we have:

- गूढ़ - गूढ़ता
- हंसना - हंसी
- बालक - बालकपन
- देव - देवत्व

In case of both the languages the abstract nouns are formed with some suffixes added to an adjective, verb or common noun. One used to forming abstract nouns in one's own MT, Hindi, finds it quite easy to do so in English also. He tries to associate the meaning of a suffix in English with that of one in Hindi. For example he finds '-ness' to be giving the meaning which - ता/- त्व suffix in Hindi carries. Thus it becomes easy for him to learn word formation by association.

Besides, noteworthy is the similarity between the analyses of Hindi and English nouns, carried in most of the standard books of grammar of Hindi and English. Vyavaharika Hindi Vyakarna by Dr. Hardeva Bahari and Hindi Vyakarana by Kamta Prasad Guru are two of the standard and most widely used
Hindi grammars usually prescribed for school students. Similarly grammar books based on Nesfield's grammar book and another written by Wren and Martin have been the most prescribed books on English grammar for school students. Mark how noun has been analysed in the two sets of books.

Vyavaharika Hindi Vyakarana by Dr. Hardeva Bahari, etc.

English Grammar, Composition and translation (Haryana Board of School Education Haryana), etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>संज्ञा के पांच भेद</th>
<th>Five kinds of noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. व्यक्तिवाचक संज्ञा</td>
<td>i. Proper Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. जातिवाचक संज्ञा</td>
<td>ii. Common Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. इण्यावाचक संज्ञा</td>
<td>iii. Material Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. समूहवाचक संज्ञा</td>
<td>iv. Collective Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. भाववाचक संज्ञा</td>
<td>v. Abstract Noun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a striking similarity between English noun and Hindi संज्ञा. The behaviour of the two is almost identical. The understanding of Hindi Noun is greatly helpful in the understanding of English noun. Even as we study the noun of English in depth the relevance gets closer. To illustrate this a passage taken from Bahari's Hindi grammar would be extremely useful:

जब कभी व्यक्तिवाचक संज्ञा एक से अधिक का बोध कराये तो वह जातिवाचक संज्ञा बन जाती है, जैसे 'विभीषण ने हमारे देश का अहिल
A proper noun becomes a common noun when it denotes a class of persons or things and is used in a descriptive sense. When we say, 'He is the Shakespeare of India' we mean that 'he' is the greatest dramatist of India.25

'Shakespeare' here has been used as a common noun. In another sentence, "Cromwells and Miltons are lying buried in this graveyard", 'Cromwells' and 'Miltons' have been used as common nouns in the same way as छोड़ा-छोड़ा and बिभीण्ड्र in Hindi sentences.

There is another point deserving notice: There are some words in English which in this respect can be categorised as common genders, words such as 'professor', 'teacher', 'doctor', 'soldier', etc. There are no such words in Hindi (excepting some of those which have been lately coined under the influence of English such as यानित्रिक, अध्यादेश, सचिव, etc.) which can be categorised as common genders. But even this fact is relevant

24. Bahari, p. 64.

in the teaching and learning of English grammar. This is relevance by contrast. Mostly the words falling in this category are those that indicate somebody's profession. The reason is obvious: a profession can be adopted by the members of either sex.

Relevance by contrast is there when we see that most of the inanimate objects in English language belong to the neuter gender whereas in Hindi we tend to put every such object either in the category of masculine gender or feminine gender. For example 'chair', 'paper', 'ink', in English are all in neuter gender. कुली, कागज, स्पाइडी are in feminine, masculine and feminine gender respectively, in Hindi.

Relevance by contrast can also be obtained even in respect of the presence of the case system of Hindi (and subsequent morphological declensions) and its absence in English. Almost every noun and pronoun of Hindi has a different form in one case from that in another. For example, the Hindi pronoun यह has इसे, इसने, इसको, इन्हें, इन्हें के, इत्यादि, इत्यादि as its forms in different cases. Similarly लड़की has लड़की ने, लड़कियाँ, लड़की को, लड़कियाँ का, लड़कियाँ के, इत्यादि as its forms. On the other hand there is very little of morphological variation in English noun, and "compared with many other languages English may be fairly straightforward morphologically." 26 For example, the English pronoun 'this'

26. Wilkins, Linguistics in Language Teaching, p. 73.
does not change much (except when in its plural form) when it is used in different cases. Similarly the noun 'girl' (girls) does not change when used in different cases. Perhaps this is because the English preposition figures before the noun and works for different cases without affecting it (the noun/pronoun) morphologically.

This contrasting situation has to be used for the learner's convenience and guidance at the appropriate stage of learning so that he is able to construct sentences in English correctly and avoid errors which creep in from an unconscious analogy of Hindi and English. For example study the following sentences:

i. इन पुस्तकों ने हमें बड़ा लाभ पहुँचाया। These books did us great good.

ii. ये पुस्तकें हमारे लिए बड़ी लाभदायक रहीं। These books proved of great use to us.

iii. इन पुस्तकों को यहीं रहना है। These books are to keep on lying here.

iv. ये पुस्तक यहीं रहेंगी। These books will stay here.

These sentences show that morphologically Hindi is not so straight as English as exemplified in the sentences given above. The underlined words/phrases in all the eight sentences above (both of Hindi and English) serve as subjects. But as for
their forms whereas there is uniformity in the case of the English phrases, there is complete dissimilarity in the case of phrases in Hindi sentences. This is a comparison/contrast of nominative cases in the two languages. A similar comparison/contrast of other cases too will reveal the same position. This juxtaposition reveals the contrast of structure for a better appreciation of the use of words in the two languages, and specially, avoidance of common errors.

b) Pronoun

Coming back to the discussion of the parts of speech in the two languages, let us discuss the pronoun. English pronouns have the same function to perform as the Hindi pronoun — to lessen the oddity caused by repeating the same noun again and again. Every Hindi personal pronoun has a plural form. So does every English pronoun. The connotations in both the numbers of the pronouns of both the languages are identical. Hindi personal pronoun has the same form in both the masculine and feminine genders. Similar is the case in respect of English also, of course, with the exception of 'he' and 'she'. In the case of interrogative pronouns or relative pronouns in Hindi there are only कौनसा and कौनसी which have different forms in the two genders, but the other pronouns of this category, or for that matter, of any other category in both the languages have the same forms in both the genders. This formal affinity is a
point of relevance which is of great help in the teaching of English to Hindi knowing learners through the translation method.

It is important, for example, to note here that both English and Hindi have only one form each in 1st person plural, i.e., 'we' and हम have identical connotations as contrasted with others like Polynesian languages\(^\text{27}\) which have an exclusive first person plural pronoun meaning 'we' (not including you) and another meaning 'we' (including you). A learner is just told that 'we' means हम or that for हम the English equivalent is 'we'. The point becomes clear to him at once without any further explanation, which would have been required but for this linguistic affinity between the two languages.

Coming to a case of contrast in respect of pronouns in the two languages we have the point regarding the agreement of the possessive pronoun with the thing/person possessed. In Hindi the possessive pronoun agrees with the number and gender of the thing possessed, e.g., उसका भाई, उसकी बहन, तुम्हारे भिस, मेरी मां, मेरा चाचा, etc. On the other hand the English possessive pronoun has the same gender or number as is that of the possessor, e.g., 'Ram and his sister/brother' 'Sita and her brother/sister/

uncles, etc. This situation is difficult to be understood by an L2 learner unless explained with the help of the contrast obtainable in his MT (Hindi). Thus Hindi can help as well as warn against Hindi-oriented English.

c) The Adjective

The adjective in English qualifies a noun or pronoun. So does a Hindi Adjective. One of the grammar books on English classifies adjective in ten categories which are being reproduced below in column A, and in column B are given the corresponding types of some of them which are found in Hindi grammar books prescribed for school students:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|i. Proper adjective | ---

a Shakespearean play

ii. Descriptive adjective or Qualitative adjective:

a big tree.

iii. Quantitative adjective

much/little/enough water

iv. Demonstrative adjective

this/that book

v. Distributive adjective

every word, neither boy

vi. Comparative adjective

better

vii. Superlative adjective

best
vi. Numerical adjective
one, two, double, second

vii. Interrogative adjective
whose/which book

viii. Exclamatory adjective
what a fool!

ix. Possessive adjective
my/your pencil.

x. Emphatic adjective
my own book
This very book

This way, half of the kinds of English adjective already have their corresponding forms in Hindi adjective as described in Hindi grammars. The remaining five can also have their identical forms. For example, Proper adjective can have व्यक्तिवाचक विशेषण such as कुलदास कृतियां; for interrogative adjective we can have प्रश्नवाचक विशेषण such as कौन्सा विद्यार्थी and so on and so forth. In any case we see that whatever kind of adjective in either of the languages we may take up it can have its corresponding form in the other, and a learner who can identify/identify adjective of his MT and tell one kind from the other can easily understand all these things in English also. While

explaining the various kinds of adjective in English, if such a comparison with the kinds of adjective in Hindi is made and points explained with examples from Hindi and English both, things will go home straight to the learner.

While learning English as L2 a pupil is required to form adjectives from words of other parts of speech with a view to enriching his vocabulary. Such adjectives are formed by adding some suffixes to some words already known to him. He is already acquainted with this process taking place in Hindi.

Some of the suffixes found at the end of Hindi adjectives are -अलु, -ई, -मान, -बान, etc. Similarly there are suffixes for forming adjectives in English. They are -ous, -y, -ive, -ly, -able, etc. We may look at the following tables for a comparative assessment:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i. Hindi word</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Adjectives as Illustrative examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>श्रदा, दया, कुपा</td>
<td>-अलु</td>
<td>श्रदालु, दयालु, कुपालु</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>भीतर, बाहर, रोग</td>
<td>-ई</td>
<td>भीतरी, बाहरी, रोगी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बुद्धि, मति, गति</td>
<td>-मान</td>
<td>बुद्धिमान, मतिमान, गतिमान</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>निष्ठा, धन, बल</td>
<td>-बान</td>
<td>निष्ठाबान, धनबान, बलबान</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ii. English word</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Adjectives as Illustrative examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>courage, circuit</td>
<td>-ous</td>
<td>courageous, circuitous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hair, blood</td>
<td>-y</td>
<td>hairy, bloody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>act, protect</td>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>active, protective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>live, miser</td>
<td>-ly</td>
<td>lively, miserly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work, read</td>
<td>-able</td>
<td>workable, readable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The learner's mind is at work while acquiring a new set of adjectives and he comes to associate the logic of the suffixes of English with that of similar ones in Hindi and he can with confidence frame a number of meaningful adjectives with the help of these suffixes. Of course, he will have to be on his guard against too much generalisation. Later when he gets his attempt corrected by the teacher or other users of English, generalisations leading to inaccurate formations will be discouraged and dropped.

There are three degrees of the adjective in English. This fact can be explained to a learner by citing a similar formation in respect of certain adjectives in Hindi. Some suffixes are added to Hindi adjectives (positive degree) for obtaining comparative and superlative adjective forms. Similarly are obtained the two higher degrees in respect of English adjectives. The following tables present a comparative study on the suggested lines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i. Hindi Adjective</th>
<th>Positive Degree</th>
<th>Comparative Degree</th>
<th>Superlative Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>उच्च</td>
<td>उच्च</td>
<td>उच्चतर</td>
<td>उच्चतम</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लघु</td>
<td>लघु</td>
<td>लघूतर</td>
<td>लघूतम</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>महान/महत्</td>
<td>महान</td>
<td>महत्तर</td>
<td>महत्तम</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>न्यून</td>
<td>न्यून</td>
<td>न्यूनतर</td>
<td>न्यूनतम</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ii. English Positive Comparative Superlative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Positive Degree</th>
<th>Comparative Degree</th>
<th>Superlative Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tall</td>
<td>tall</td>
<td>taller</td>
<td>tallest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>small</td>
<td>small</td>
<td>smaller</td>
<td>smallest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>great</td>
<td>great</td>
<td>greater</td>
<td>greatest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>bigger</td>
<td>biggest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These tables will bring home to the learner not only the formation of different forms of adjectives in certain situations but also the semantic sense of the new formations because they are on similar lines in both the languages.

There are some adjectives in Hindi which are apparently in the superlative degree. But usually they do not have a superlative meaning. For instance, वरिष्ठ, ज्येष्ठ, कमिज्झ, उत्तम, क्रेट, etc. are superlative degree adjectives in form but positive degree adjectives in meaning in current usage. Similar is the case in respect of some English adjectives which are comparative in form and positive degree adjectives in meaning such as 'senior' 'junior', 'inferior', 'superior', etc. Let us look at the following two sentences:

i. He is a very senior teacher.

ii. वह काफी वरिष्ठ अध्यापक है।

In spite of the fact that 'senior' and 'वरिष्ठ' are basically not positive degree adjectives, they have been so
treated here. These two sentences present a good analogy to bring home to a student the identical behaviour of adjectives in these two languages. This can be termed as logical relevance of one language to another. Language is not a cut and dried logical system but has room for some understandable illogicalities, the illogicalities being common to both L1 and L2.

d) The Verb

Then we come to the next part of speech, viz., verb. To say that English verb and Hindi verb are identical would be an exaggeration. But to say that they have nothing in common would be negating an obvious truth. In fact there is a lot in common between the two. Let us take up some of the common characteristics of the Hindi and the English verbs:

1. The function of a verb in both English and Hindi is identical, that is, to indicate the existence of some thing or the occurrence or progression of an action. Both stem from a root which in Hindi is called शास्त्र and in English a 'verbal root'. To illustrate: the शास्त्र in Hindi are: जाना, करना, बैठना, उठना, etc, and the verbal roots in English are: to go, to do, to sit, to stand, to come, to eat, etc.

The English verb, when it is used in a sentence, usually takes a helping verb before one of its four forms, the fourth being the -ing form. But Hindi verb takes a suffixing
element after it. This is of relevance by contrast, and when this point is explained to the learner he can get at the point much more quickly than if no use of the MT were made. The following one sample sentence will reveal the obvious relevance—though by contrast:

बह जा रहा है।
जा+ रहा है।

He is going
is + going

The main verb in both the cases has been underlined. When this point is explained to a learner he is only to learn the use of helping verbs in case of English which in his mind are the equivalents of 'suffixing elements' added to a Hindi verb.

ii. English verbs to a large extent are formed from words (mostly similar) of other parts of speech as they are formed in Hindi. Mark the following:

i. From nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>Urdu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advice</td>
<td>शिशा</td>
<td>शिशा देना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>location</td>
<td>स्थिति</td>
<td>स्थित करना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choice</td>
<td>चुनाव</td>
<td>चुनना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sale</td>
<td>बिख़िरी</td>
<td>बेचना</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ii. From adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>Urdu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>छोटा</td>
<td>छोटा बनाना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>white</td>
<td>सफेद</td>
<td>सफेद करना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equal</td>
<td>बराबर</td>
<td>बराबर करना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glad</td>
<td>खुश</td>
<td>खुश करना</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The formation of verbs from nouns and adjectives both in Hindi and English is a similar process. And when a learner is given the Hindi meanings of a noun and its corresponding verb, he at once realizes the difference between the two, and this realization of the difference leads him to make a correct use of each in sentences. One who understands the function of a verb and of a noun in Hindi can understand their function in English too.

iii. There are three tenses in Hindi, viz, भूतकाल, वर्तमान काल, भविष्यत काल. Similarly, corresponding to these three tenses in Hindi, there are three tenses in English also: Past tense, Present tense and Future tense. The forms of tenses in each of these two languages, if they do not exist in both, can be made to exist for being explained to the learner of either of these languages. For example, each of the forms of English tenses can be explained by citing a Hindi sentence. The perfect continuous form (of, say, present tense), though it does not exist in Hindi grammar, can be explained by telling a learner how it differs from the continuous form: वह गा रहा है is different from वह दो घंटे से गा रहा है when translated into English, and therefore, the form of the former will be different from the form of the latter in English, though they are identical in Hindi. In the former sentence the action is continuing at the time of speaking. But in the latter though the action is still continuing, a part of
it (the part which could be completed in three hours) is over, and the process is still on. It can also be explained to the learner that in this form of the tense two elements, one each belonging to the continuous form and the perfect form are present, and that is why a new form of tense in English has come into being. Such an existence of two elements is not recognised in Hindi or Sanskrit grammar.

iv. One knowing Hindi would prefer to have a table of the following kind in his mental eye:

| III person | है = is | है = are |
| II person  | है = are | है = are |
| I person   | हूं = am | है = are, etc. |

and a similar table in respect of 'was' and 'were'. However, he has to guard himself against being literal, for example, in case of Assertive-positive sentences of present indefinite and past indefinite tenses such as in the following sentences:

वह यहां काम करता है। He works there. (no use of 'is' here)

वे यहां रहते हैं। They live here. (no use of 'are' here)

मैंने उसे कल देखा (या)। I saw him yesterday. (no use of 'was' here)

V. Basically there are two kinds of verb in both the languages:

i. Transitive verb

ii. Intransitive verb.
The transitive verbs invariably require an object (at least one) to complete the sense of a sentence. For example: 'He has divorced.' and 'The enemy forces have encircled.' do not make a complete sense because of use in them of transitive verbs (viz., 'divorced' and 'encircled') without any object following them, implicitly, explicitly or contextually. This happens on lines similar to those in Hindi as illustrated by these two sentences:

i. उसने तलाक दे दिया है।
ii. दुर्योग की सेनाओं ने चंपा दिया है।

The absence of an object in both the cases is unacceptable. And yet there is a difference between the two examples chosen here. In the first sentence (both in English and Hindi) the object is obvious even though not mentioned, and therefore, acceptable in a particular context. But in the case of the latter sentence the sense of the sentence does not get clear until the object is mentioned.

A student who knows how to tell an अकर्मक श्रृंखला from a सकर्मक श्रृंखला can also easily learn to do so to identify transitive verbs and intransitive verbs separately. One of the Hindi grammars, viz., Abhinava Hindi Vyakarana used as a text book in Public schools, Grammar schools and Mission schools sets the following method for telling अकर्मक श्रृंखला from सकर्मक श्रृंखला:

क्रिया के आधार पर प्रश्न क्रिया जाये 'क्या?' किसको? आदि। यदि कुछ उत्तर मिले तो क्रिया सकर्मक होती है अन्यथा अकर्मक जैसे :-
The same rule holds good in identifying the English transitive verb. Take, for example, the following sentences:

i. He is sleeping in the room.

ii. He is writing a letter.

In the first case the question: What is he sleeping? remains unanswered in as much as it is meaningless. In the second case the question, 'What is he writing?' can be answered: He is writing a letter. Besides, it also makes sense. This question-answer exercise makes us conclude that 'sleep' is an intransitive verb and 'write' a transitive one.

There is also another way of overcoming this difficulty of getting confused between transitive and intransitive verbs, of course again with the help of MT. If the learner takes recourse to Hindi, by noting the Hindi equivalent of a verb he

will easily be able to tell one from the other. For example:

- to destroy
- नष्ट करना
- to pass
- उत्तीण होना

Normally करना goes with transitive and होना with intransitive.

Besides, in Hindi there are some verbs which are called द्विक्रमक क्रियाएं. And they are largely the same as require two objects in English. The द्विक्रमक क्रिया takes a double object. In English, a transitive verb may take one object or two. In the latter case one object is 'direct' and the other is 'indirect'. Thus a learner can understand the grammatical fact of 'direct' and 'indirect' objects better if it is explained with reference to the द्विक्रमक क्रिया. So an analysis of verb on this pattern, with which the learner is already acquainted, can help him in developing a better understanding of the English verb.

e) The Adverb

Adverb in English is a word that qualifies a verb, adjective or another adverb. However, Hindi grammarians have not accepted this definition for Hindi adverb. They believe that adverb is a word that qualifies a verb, and the word qualifying an adjective cannot be called an adverb; it should be called an adjective. But in any case, this difference of approach is not going to make much difference as far as a learner's understanding of the use of English adverb is concerned. In

31. i. Bahari, p. 143.
fact the analysis of adverb in both the languages is more or less on similar lines. One of the famous grammars of English enlist eight kinds of adverb which are as follows:

i. Adverb of manner : quickly, bravely, happily, hard, fast, well.

ii. Adverb of place : here, there, up, down, nearby.

iii. Adverb of time : now, soon, yet, still, then, today.

iv. Adverb of frequency : twice, often, never, always, occasionally.

v. Adverb of certainty : certainly, surely, definitely, obviously.

vi. Adverb of degree : very, fairly, rather, quite, too, hardly.


viii. Relative Adverb : when, where, why.32

Almost on the same lines Hindi grammars too divide the adverb into kinds, and with similar groups of adverbs classed in each category. One grammar divides Hindi adverb as follows (the examples are also given here from the same book):

1. कालवाचक क्रिया विशेषण : आज, कल, सदैव, दिन, रात, फिर, कब।
2. स्थानवाचक क्रिया विशेषण : यहाँ, यहाँ, ऊपर, नीचे, किस्मत, हर, दां, बांध।
3. रौद्रवाचक क्रिया विशेषण : जैसे, कैसे, थोरे थोरे, हटपट, जैसे हैस।
4. परिमाणवाचक क्रिया विशेषण : अत्यन्त, पूर्णतया, प्राय:, इतना, उतना, जितना, पर्याप्त।
5. कारणवाचक क्रिया विशेषण : अतः, अतएव, इसलिये, क्यों।33


33. Ved Prakash, p. 120-22.
Though the number given here is smaller by three, the five classes given here are identical with those in English. The remaining three have been covered in these five.

The formation of adverbs from other parts of speech in Hindi is also identical with that in English. There are some affixes added to the words of other parts of speech in both the languages to form adverbs. The suffix of one language has the same meaning as the suffix of the other. For example, -ly in English has same connotation as से/पूर्वक in Hindi in the following words:

i. kindly दयापूर्वक
ii. peacefully शांतपूर्वक
iii. cleanly सफाई से
iv. affectionately प्रेम पूर्वक/न्याय से

This sort of affinity between the two languages is of great help in learning one language with the help of another. Another and very important affinity between the adverbs of the two languages is that both are indeclinables.

f) The Preposition

The sixth part of speech, viz, the preposition in both the languages serves the purpose of joining one word with another and thus of establishing a relationship between the two
as constituents of a phrase which is akin to a अभियोग (सूक्ष्म वाच्य) 34

For example:

i. देश के लिए बलिदन  

Sacrifice for the country

In these expressions के लिए and for join the देश and बलिदन, Sacrifice and the country, respectively.

However, the use of preposition in the two languages is made differently in respect of word order. The Hindi preposition is used after the word which it qualifies whereas the English preposition is used before the word. This contrasting position has to be brought to the notice of the learner with the help of suitable examples. The explanations and illustrations in this way, such as one given above, will be of great help to the learner.

Besides, most of the prepositions in English have oftener than not the same connotation as their corresponding prepositions in Hindi have. For instance, if a student is taught that the preposition 'in' means इं in Hindi, he will be able to use this preposition correctly in most of the contexts. On the other hand, for acquiring the same amount of knowledge through DM, he will have to work much harder and over a longer period. So the student should first be given the meaning of a particular preposition. Then he should be given a number of

34. Panini, Ashtadhyayi, I, iv, 14.
sentences for translation where the use of corresponding preposition will be fully correct. This is the take-off stage. After he has crossed it he should also be given some sentences for translation where not the corresponding but some other preposition will have to be used for correct composition. Thus the learner should be given exercises for an understanding of the instances where English idiom is different from the Hindi idiom.

This process will help the learner to learn things quickly and at the same time use the interference of the MT, through explanation and understanding of the analogy or contrast.

g) The Conjunction and The Interjection

Then we come to conjunctions and interjections. These are indeclinables in both the languages, and both are definable on similar lines. These words are not too many. And it will be of great help if the equivalents of Hindi conjunctions and interjections are given to the learner straightway. In fact the words of these categories require no context to be fully explained. The following examples will make this point clear:

1. Conjunctions:

I went there and he came here.

He passed but his sister failed.

मैं वहां गया और वह यहां आया।

वह पास हो यथा लेकिन उसकी बहन फेल हो गई।
ii. Interjections:

हे भगवन् | ये तुमने क्या किया | O God! what have you done!
हाँ ! राजीव की हत्या कर दी गई है | Alas! Rajiv has been assassinated!

Perhaps it cannot be gainsaid that words belonging to these parts of speech are better taught through GTM than DM. More about this has been said in the chapter entitled "The Lexical Relevance". It is worth noting here that translation can be used to confirm learning and confirming is an important part of teaching.

A number of similarities regarding the kinds, sub-kinds, behaviour, use and purpose of the various parts of speech in Hindi and English have been brought out above. This, however, does not mean that things in both the languages are always alike, identical or corresponding. But undoubtedly there is a lot in common and hence the relevance towards learning.

In fact the relevance of MT at certain places is contributive and at others restrictive. It is contributive where it leads to easy learning in parallel situations; it is restrictive where Hindi-English contrast prevents errors by forewarning.

III

10. Some Grammatical Topics

a) Change of Voice and Narration

Those who aim at acquiring a fair knowledge of English
language have to know how to express ideas both in active voice and in passive voice as per the requirements of a situation. Similarly they are also expected to know how to report in the indirect speech also. That is why change of voice and narration forms a very important part of the English courses, and any learner who fails to understand to convert one form into the other cannot be said to be at home in English. These items have, therefore, to be taught formally. In the teaching of these items MT will have to be used at two levels: one, for explaining the rules governing the change, two, by translating the two forms of sentence into the MT and thus showing the formal difference but the semantic sameness. On the other hand the use of L2 either for explaining the rules of change or for bringing out the difference of form and sameness of meaning of the two versions will not only prove inadequate but also ambiguous.

b) Use of 'an'/'a'

The relevance of the knowledge of Hindi vowels is great in explaining to the learner where 'a' and where 'an' are to be used before a singular countable noun or noun phrase. Normally a grammatical explanation is inadequate even though it lists nearly all the cases of the use of 'a' or 'an'. If the explanation/instruction is given with reference to Hindi transcription the use of the indefinite article becomes easy. The point will become clear from the following example:
A set of students had begun to learn the use of indefinite article before a countable singular noun. They were told to use 'an' before nouns beginning with a vowel sound which is usually given by one of the five vowels in English alphabet, viz., a, e, i, o and u. The following examples were given for illustration:

i. an arm ii. an egg iii. an inkpot
iv. an ox v. an umbrella vi. an eagle, etc.

as contrasted to:

i. a boy ii. a cell iii. a dog
iv. a fox v. a man vi. a pen, etc.

Further they were told to use 'an' before 'honest' and 'hour' as in 'an honest man', 'an hour', etc., only because 'honest' and 'hour' begin with a vowel sound, the initial 'h' being silent in both these words. The point went home to most of the learners.

Then came the third point in the matter. They were told not to use 'an' before the following:

i. uniform ii. university iii. universal
iv. unanimous v. one-eyed vi. one-member, etc.

Pat came their reaction: why should 'an' not be used in these cases when each one of them begins with a vowel. Then they were told that it was not the initial letter but the initial sound
which mattered. So they were told to transcribe these words in Devanagari script which they did as:

i. यूनिफॉर्म
ii. यूनिवर्सिटी
iii. यूनिवर्सल

iv. यूनिवर्सल
v. वन-आइड
vi. वन-फेम्बर

They were then asked: Does any of these transcribed words begin with a vowel, i.e., vowel sound (transcription having been made in phonetic Devanagari script) in spite of the fact that their initial letter in English is a vowel? The point that these words began with a consonant sound, went home to them. Then they went back to transcribe the following also in Hindi:

i. hour as: आउअर।
ii. honest as: ऑनस्टैड

and discovered that though the initial letter in these two words was 'h', a consonant, they began with a vowel sound, viz., आ and ऑ respectively, and hence 'an' and not 'a' was to be used before them when required.

The point was instantly clear. It was again emphasised that whenever they were in doubt whether to use 'a' or 'an' they should transcribe the word into Devanagari and see if it began with any of the vowel sounds. In case it did not, it would take 'a' before it. And this rule has been found to be a very effective rule without any exception.
Thus we see that analogy and parallel with L1 are important points for L2 learners. Such analogies and parallels can be drawn between L1 and L2 and thereby we can make the teaching strategy very effective.

11. Syntactical considerations

There are two major aspects of the grammar of a language, viz, syntax and morphology. Morphology deals with the formation of words and this aspect has already been discussed. Syntax which is one of the five branches of linguistics deals with the structure of sentences. It describes the patterns of arrangements of phrases and sentences. In English, and for that matter in a number of languages, word order is of greater importance than its vocabulary. A word acquires one meaning when at one place and another when at another place. A slight alteration in the order of words changes the meaning of a sentence completely. For example, we may take up the following two pairs of sentences:

i. He is a doctor. and Is he a doctor?
ii. Ram killed Ravan, and Ravan killed Ram.

In the first pair just a shift in the word order has changed a sentence from a statement into a question. In the second it has changed completely the sense of the sentence. These examples only show that a word has a particular place in a sentence to
mean one particular thing. Also take a look at the following three pairs of sentences in Hindi.

i. राम केवल दूध पीता है | and केवल राम दूध पीता है |
ii. श्याम, राम को बुलाओ | and राम, श्याम को बुलाओ |
iii. महेश मेश में तंग करता है | and महेश मेश को तंग करता है |

In the first pair the word केवल used at different places makes the two sentences mean much differently. In the second and third too the same thing happens with the interchange of place by राम and श्याम, मेश and महेश.

These are some examples to show that in some languages the place of a word in a sentence imparts it a special meaning, and when removed from that place it loses its earlier connotation and acquires a new one. It is for this reason that the study of syntax forms an important feature of the curriculum in the learning of a language. In the DM one learns the syntax only on the basis of continued hearing and repetition, and also through trial and error. But when an L2 is sought to be learnt through translation and grammar it is incumbent upon the teaching system to lay down the rules governing the TL. But while laying down these rules for the observance by the learner he has to be shown some examples in his own language illustrating how the place of a word in a sentence matters. Drawing of such a parallel helps him realise the importance of word order in the TL.
On the other hand there are some languages in which the word order is not of much consequence. A word may be put anywhere in a sentence and yet it would mean the same as when put at a different place. And thus if a sentence, for example, carries five words, it will not make any difference if any of the five words changes its place with any of the remaining four. Sanskrit is such a language, for example. Take the following sentence, for instance:

राम: गूढ़े गणचन्नू मल्ले दुग्धु ददति प्रत्यहम्।
(7 words)

By permutation and combination this sentence can be restructured in 5040 ways. And all these 5040 sentences will mean one and the same thing. But English and Hindi are syntax-based languages, and while teaching English this situation can be exploited.

After a learner has learnt the importance of the place of a word in a sentence, he can be initiated into the forming of some phrases. Fortunately in a number of cases analogy can be drawn between an English phrase and a Hindi phrase, and where it cannot be, the contrast can be pointed out.

Some analogies for consideration are:

i. adjective + noun
   (in Hindi)   adjective + noun
   (in English)

अच्छी पुस्तक   (a) good book
लाल फूल       (a/the) red flower
On the other hand, as a contrast to this position, there are some languages in which the adjective follows the noun. For example, in Persian, the above two phrases will be translated as 

\[
\text{کتاب خوب} \quad \text{و} \quad \text{کتاب خوب}.
\]

That, however, does not mean that for a learner of English with Persian as his MT, Persian will be of no relevance. In fact as pointed out earlier, relevance of Persian will have to be worked out and defined on different lines. For that matter the relevance of every MT for learning an L2 will have to be established on separate lines depending upon so many linguistic considerations.

ii. इस क्रिकेट टीम के सदस्य Members of the cricket team of this college.

In the English phrases above the organisation of words is almost the reverse of those in Hindi phrases. Even this reversal of order can be of relevance by contrast. And contrast is an important part of our strategy of teaching an L2.

12. Concord.

There has to be a concord in a sentence between one word and another in most of the languages particularly in Indo-European family of languages. For example, in Hindi there has to be a concord between the subject and its verb, noun and the pronoun for it, adjective and the noun/pronoun which it qualifies, etc. This concord is illustrated with the help of the following pairs of sentences:
Though concord in English sentences is not obtainable exactly on the same lines, it is also observed in English. See the following pairs of sentences:

i. **He is going to his** school.
ii. **They are going to their** school.

Here there is a concord between subject and verb on the one hand, and between noun and pronoun on the other.

Similarly worth noting is the following pair of sentences (one in Hindi and the other in English).

**राम उसकी पत्नी है।**

**Rama is his** wife.

**रामेश उसका पति है।**

**Ramesh is her** husband.

This juxtaposition only brings out different patterns of concord to be seen in the two languages.

Some aspects of grammars of the two languages in which there is some similarity or contrast have been hinted at rather cursorily to illustrate the view that the knowledge of Hindi grammar can be of great help in acquiring the knowledge of English grammar. This is a field which promises of much more
and deeper akinness between the two languages. A separate in-depth study is required for this purpose. But the point made here is that the knowledge of Hindi grammar must be exploited for a better understanding of English grammar, instead of regarding it as a taboo.