INTRODUCTION

1.1 SCOPE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The verb system in any language is generally more difficult part, for a learner or a translator. The nominals normally have a singularity of correspondence in any two given languages. They refer to things which are concrete and recognizable. Hence, a correspondence can be established by comparing the two or more variant 'signifiants' (signifiers) of two different languages in relation to the single 'signifié' (signified). The noun phrase thus contrasts at the level of its constitution i.e. the representation of grammatical categories of number and gender. French for example has article as one of the determiners where as Hindi does not have articles. However, both these languages have number and gender as grammatical categories. The noun phrase contrast, thus, differs at the level of its constitution, the representation of grammatical categories of number and gender (for example, French has article as one of the determiners where as Hindi does not have articles), while number as well as gender are grammatical categories in both the languages. But, the process tends to be complex in case of a verb. A particular language may utilise three verb forms to express or signify one subcategory of tense which in another is signified by a lone
form. Or, a language may have one form to express the meanings of three grammatical categories whereas another might have separate forms to do so.

This study contrasts the verb phrases in French and Hindi, with reference to tense, aspect and mood. Various forms expressing different tenses, in Hindi are contrasted with the corresponding forms in French. The same procedure is extended to Aspects and Moods. This study, will describe as to how the verb phrases in Hindi and French expresses these categories and what problems are encountered in the two languages by the learners as well as the translators. Such a contrastive study may provide useful insights for contrastive linguistics and shed light on the problem of language universals.

The ability of the learner as well as the translator to learn or to translate depends on his ability to assimilate these variations or similarities in such a way that he attains communicative competence. Moreover, the verb phrases carry a large burden of semantic, syntactic and stylistic content of the sentence i.e. they are the nuclei of sentences. Languages differ considerably even in the representation of such prominent part of experience as time. Palmer says that the "nature of information carried by
the verbal forms" is the most difficult to learn because it is ensured that verbs of their languages will tell "something about time, that there will be a relation between tense and time, and that we shall have at least a future, a present, and a past tense referring to a future, a present, and a past time. But there is no natural law that the verb in a language shall be concerned with time. There are plenty of languages in which time relations are not marked at all, and there are some languages in which the verb is concerned with spatial rather than temporal relations."  

1.2 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS

German linguists refer to Contrastive Linguistics (hitherto referred as CL) as konfrontative linguistics (cf Zabrocki 1970, and others), Ellis (1966) calls it 'comparative descriptive linguistics', and Akhmanova & Melencuk (1977) speak about linguistic 'confrontation'. However, the term "Contrastive Linguistics" has a much wider currency than any of these terms in contrastive linguistic research. CL is defined as a subdiscipline of linguistics which is concerned with the comparison of two or more languages (or subsystems of languages) in order to determine both the differences and similarities that hold between them (cf Fisiak et al, 1978; Jackson 1976).

The origin of CL could be traced back to comparative philology, to that earlier phase of linguistic inquiry when the traditional European linguists were attracted towards Sanskrit. Comparative Philology or Comparative Grammar emerged as a result of studying Germanic, Greek and Latin along with Sanskrit. Giving an account of the origin of comparative philology in his 'Cours de linguistique générale' the founder of modern linguistics, Ferdinand de Saussure wrote:

"The third phase started when one discovered that it was possible to compare the languages. It was the
beginning of comparative Philology or comparative grammar. In 1816, Franze Bopp in his work "System of conjugation of Sanskrit" studied the aspects that brought Sanskrit closer to germanic, greek, latin etc. Bopp was not the first scholar to show these affinities and to admit that these languages belong to the same family; this was done before him specially by the British Orientalist W. Jones (1744) 

The first ever statement on comparative philology had been made in 1786 by Sir William Jones (1746-94) in his historic speech delivered before the Royal Asiatic Society of India at Calcutta:

"The Sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the form of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed that no philosopher could examine them all three without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps no longer exists; there is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both Gothic and the Celtic, though blended with very different idioms, had the same origin with Sanskrit; and the old Persian might be added to the same family."

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2. "La troisième période commença lorsqu'on découvrit qu'on pouvait comparer les langues entre elles. Ce fut l'origine de la philologie comparative ou "grammaire comparée". En 1816, dans un ouvrage intitulé 'Système de la conjugaison du Sanskrit', Franze Bopp étudie les rapports qui unissent le Sanskrit avec le germanique, le grec, le Latin etc. Bopp n'était pas le premier à constater ces affinités et à admettre que toutes ces langues appartienent à une même famille; cela avait été fait avant lui, notamment par l'orientaliste anglais W. Jones (1744)...."(Saussure, 1919 p.14).
Jacob Grimm (1795-1863), Max Mullar (1823-1900), George Curtius (1820-1885) and August Schleicher (1821-1863) are a few to name among other linguists who have extensively worked in the field of comparative philology.

Bopp was the first to understand the relationship between these classical languages and his work had the potential of constituting an independent field of inquiry. Understanding one language by means of an other and explaining the form of one with the help of the forms of another are embryonically there in his work. Linguistic inquiry till late 19th century concerned itself with the common origin of languages. The emphasis was on the genetic relationship. Ferdinand de Saussure himself was a comparative philologist before he radically changed the course of modern linguistics with his structuralism. The diversification of linguistic inquiry into dychrony and synchrony established the Historical and Comparative Linguistics as a discipline with an independent status within Linguistics. His emphasis on synchronic study led to the modern descriptive linguistics.

The insights of synchronic descriptive linguistics, served well to compare and contrast languages in order to impart learning of languages, specially foreign languages.
This kind of study was called 'contrastive analysis' and the term was used by Benjamin Lee Whorf, when he wrote:

"Much progress has been made in classifying the languages of the Earth into genetic families, each having descent from a single precursor, and in tracing such developments through time. The result is called "Comparative Linguistics". Of even greater importance for the future technology of thought is what might be called "Contrastive linguistics". This plots the outstanding differences among tongues - in grammar, logic and general analysis of experience ".

Comparative linguistics and CL differ, though the difference is not always appreciated. John Lotz has again made this difference explicit. According to him the contrastive analysis can be generally considered as 'comparative linguistics' though this term has been taken for genetic purposes. The term 'contrastive linguistics' is restricted to the systemic comparison of certain groups of elements in two or more languages for all practical purposes without any reference to their genetic relationship or their typological affiliations.

CL originated in the language teaching situation. During forties of the twentieth century, the hitherto insignificant languages were intensely studied and their

descriptive grammars were written. The reason for such
inclination towards vernaculars of Red Indians and others
was the missionary zeal on one hand and the new trends of
synchronic and structural linguistics on the other.

The main purpose of missionaries was to communicate with the people speaking these vernaculars as well as to make the Bible available to them in their own languages. With the growing significance of communication, the task of language teaching and learning also became very important and essential. The contrastive analysis of the languages to be learned or taught along with the native language, thus became necessary. This led to the birth of what later came to be called "Contrastive Linguistics". CL as a systematic study within linguistics is thus of very recent date. The idea of comparison is not new, but it is the systematization which is recent. It is only after the publication of Robert Lado's book *Linguistics across Cultures* in 1957 that the actual contrastive studies for various pairs of languages have been undertaken. Lado recognised the necessity of a systematic comparison of languages and cultures for discovering and describing the problems which speakers of one language encounter while learning the other. The key to learning a foreign language according to him lies in the comparison between the native
and the foreign language. His basic assumption is:

"that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture - both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives".


In this period many contrastive studies of English with other languages came to be undertaken around 1965. Many of these studies are still on. There are teams of linguists working in the field of contrastive studies of English with German, Serbo-Croatian, Polish, Romanian, Hungarian, Finnish, Swedish, Danish etc. In these projects and outside over 1,000 papers and monographs were published during this decade.

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The CL, as has been seen, emerged as a major area of research in the fifties or early sixties in association with language teaching. It was then extended to translation and language typology. Now CL is seen as a part of General Theoretical Linguistics also, as its insights help formulations in theoretical linguistics. The theoretical foundation of CL is increasingly keeping pace with the developments in theoretical linguistics.

Another major interaction of CL is with the concept of language universals. Language universals have led to a revision of the models used in CL. While the general practice in CL was to find transfer rules for each component i.e. phonological, morphological and syntactic (as shown in figure below).

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GRAMMAR OF L1

TENSE SYSTEM
DECLENSION SYSTEM
FORMATION OF QUEST

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TRANSFER RULES

or,

STRUCTURE 1
STRUCTURE 2
STRUCTURE 3

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TRANSFER RULES

GRAMMAR OF L2

TENSE SYSTEM
DECLENSION SYSTEM
FORMATION OF QUEST

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TRANSFER RULES
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Now a Universal Grammar (UG) containing the universal semantic primes that are transformed into equivalent semantic representations with the help of formation rules. These can be further transformed into common realisation rules for all languages. The semantic representations have to be posited at the top and then one has to traverse to the lowest nodes where transfer rules are to be formulated according to the typological contrast found between the given languages as the realisation rules at this stage are different (shown in the following Figure).
However, between the universal grammar and typological grammar one finds a thin layer of common realisation rules that are common for languages under consideration which in any case is partially a subset of UG.  

The recent advances of CL have been in the fields of computational linguistics and machine translation. These are being new areas only preliminary studies have appeared that compare pairs of languages for use in transfer grammars for the purpose of machine translation. Explaining the present situation of machine translation B. Vauquois says:

".....In the opposite direction, M.T. is rather considered as a source for deep research. The scholars who were concerned by this topic thought that M.T. was not a short range project. First, a lot of research has to be done in different areas: exploration of a large corpus of texts, with the help of computers, to find out the characteristic features occurring in the written literature; studies in linguistics for automatic analysis and generation of natural languages; comparative studies between pairs of languages; computer science investigation dealing with high level programming languages (for instance, COMIT), algorithms for parsing etc."  


However, in a continuing deep interest in CL, contemporary general and theoretical linguists involved in typological studies arrive at the desired conclusion, by contrasting two or more than two languages. As has been discussed by Fisiak in his foreword to the volume on theoretical issues in contrastive linguistics, some of the major issues faced by theoretical contrastive linguists are the choice of the model of contrastive analysis, the notion of equivalence and contrast, the form of contrastive description (uni-directional or bi-directional) and the status of contrastive linguistics within linguistics. 7

The present study also intends to deal with these problems while it describes and contrasts the tense, aspect and mood in French and Hindi. It would be useful to take a general view of the languages to be studied before any description or contrast is made. It would also be fruitful to review the historic development of the grammar writing in these languages.

1.3 HINDI LANGUAGE

Hindi besides being the national and the constitutionally recognized state language of the Republic of India, is a lingua indica spoken by more than thirty million people of the subcontinent. It is the principal language used on the radio, television and the films. It has a vast literature and a long and rich tradition which has inspired remarkable writings in the preceding three centuries much popular expressions of living ideas and ideals especially during the national independence movement. It has now a wide network of national and regional dailies and magazines which command a large circulation. Hindi is also beginning to be increasingly used in the field of administration, science and technology.

Hindi belongs to the Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European language family. Indo-Aryan consists of two subgroups which are Indic and Iranian. The earliest Indic material is contained in the Vedas, specially the Rigveda. The result of rigorous linguistic analysis of the vedic hymns was the emergence of a standard language that came to be known as cultured [Samskrita] language known to us as Samskrit. Besides samskrit there existed spoken languages called Prakrita (given or natural) languages, the Prakrits. Samskrit is often referred to as Old Indic and the Prakrits
as Middle Indic. Then came the Apabhramasas from which the Modern Indic developed. Hindi, most widely spoken of these apabhramasas, is also known as Hindustani. The other apabhramasas being Bengali, Marathi, Gujrati, Panjabi etc.  

Hindi developed as a language of business and market in medieval ages, when the northern part of the country was fragmented among the thin princely states were existing. The language during its origin was a pidgin of "Kauravi" or "Kharhi Boli" (spoken around Delhi and Meerut), the other languages of northern India. It got cross-fertilized with contacts with invading Muslim armies mostly speaking Persian. It is at this stage that a congruous mixture of words and usages grew up and evolved into what was called 'Urdu' (the language of cantonement) basically an oral variety. Later the literate elite adopted the language as written variety principally transcribed in Arabic characters and being principally used in the Durbars of the Muslim rulers as a common medium of exchange between the invading rulers and the native population. It was contrasted with Hindi based on old samskritic forms and communicated in the Devanagari scripts used and popular in the country. The controversy between Hindi and Urdu began during the British rule in India. The basic difference between these two

languages today is that Hindi is written in the devanagari script and draws its lexicon mainly from Sanskrit, whereas Urdu is written in Perso-Arabic Script and draws its lexicon principally from Persian and Arabic, using Hindi grammatical patterns. The language now popularly known as Hindi was earlier called Hindavi or Hindustani. It also came in contact with English, the language of British rulers of India and has adopted some lexical items from it. Today even syntactic structures of the language are found to be influenced by those in English. Due to widespread use of Hindi in the media, the educational institutions, text-books and among the elite, it has become basically a Language of Translation of an original English text or discourse.

Hindi is now spoken in many other countries such as Mauritius, Surinam, Fiji, Trinidad etc. It is also taught in several countries as a modern Asian Language such as the United States, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, several central European countries, Finland, and in the Americas.

Script

Hindi is written in Devanagari or nagari script. The other variety i.e. Urdu is written in Perso-Arabic script.
The Phonemes of Hindi

Hindi has a total of 62 phonemes of which 20 are vowels and 42 are consonants.

Vowels

Hindi has 10 oral vowels and their nasal counterparts. The transcription of the ten vowels are as follows:

i I e ē ə a ɔ o ʊ u

The transcription of their nasal counterparts are:

ĩ ĩ ē ē ṃ ɔ ɔ ʊ ʊ

Consonants

The transcription of the 42 consonants are as follows:

- stops: p pʰ b bʰ t tʰ d dʰ t̚ t̚ʰ d̚ d̚ʰ
  k kʰ ɡ ɡʰ q qʰ G Gʰ
- affricates: c cʰ j jʰ
- fricatives: f v ʃ ʂ z h
- nasals: m n ɳ ɲ
- laterals: l
- trill: r
- flaps: r rʰ
- semivowels: w y
International Phonetic transcription of Hindi would be used in the present work whenever any example of Hindi has to be given.

1.3.1 HINDI GRAMMARS

The publication of Kellogg's grammar in 1876 marked an important point in the history of Hindi grammar. Two competing influences can be traced all through - that of Sanskrit Grammatical theory and of the successive Western theories. During this period one saw a multi-dimensional growth of Hindi and in spite of neglect and the opposition of Englishmen and Muslims its effect was felt far and wide. Kellogg's grammar became a dictionary of grammar as he introduced the comparative and historical information of grammatical forms of many other dialects of Hindi apart from those of Khari Boli. The originality and excellence of this grammar lies in the fact that it methodologically analyses the present forms of Hindi in the light of historical evidences and with the help of comparative method. In this sense Kellogg's aim of writing the grammar is purely linguistical.

His grammar overviews Khari Boli, Brij Bhasa, Avadhi, Rajasthani, Kannauji, Riwai, Garhwali, Vaiswari, Vaiswari.

Bhojpuri, Magadhi, Maithili and Nepali (Gorkhali and Newari). Kellogg used the word Hindi not only for Khari Boli but also for almost all the languages or dialects spoken in the northern belt. Before Kellogg, there were many grammarians who had written the grammar of Khari Boli but a comparative analysis of other dialects was missing. It is in order to achieve this end that Kellogg incorporated the analysis of other languages and dialects along with Khari Boli. His aim was not merely to rearrange the facts given in the earlier grammars, but to remove the lacunae as well. It is for this reason that it proved to be more serious and a more comprehensive grammar than the preceding ones.

Kellogg divides his grammar into thirteen chapters. Ninth chapter analyses verbs. Kellogg clearly accepts that the Hindi verb is very simple from the point of view of the structure of forms. He considered only seven verbs as irregular i.e. /hona/, /morna/, /karna/, /lena/, /dena/, /jana/ and /thanana/, though /morna/ and /thanana/ are not actually irregular. He has also discussed the grammatical categories which affect the forms of verbs.

10. Ibid, p.34.

11. "The Hindi verb is affected by the distinctions of voice, mood, tense, gender, number and person. The voices are two, active and passive. The mood properly speaking are four only, Indicative, Subjunctive, contd...
He divided tense into fifteen different types and grouped them into three groups in accordance with the morphological structure of verbs. The first group contained the tenses formed from the transformation of the root, the second where tenses are formed from the combination of imperfect verb forms and third where they are made from the combination of perfect tense forms. He has also discussed the causative and compound verbs in detail. The chapter concludes with a detailed analysis of the history of verb forms.

Besides Kellogg the other major grammarians of the early period who need mention were Ayodhya Prasad Khatri, Keshav Prasad Chaubey, Pt. Madan Mohan, E.H. Palmar, George A. Grearson, Bharatendu Harish Chandra, Edwin Greaves and Shyam Sunder Das. They wrote Hindi Grammars between 1874 to 1920.

However, the tradition of grammar writing in Hindi dates back to 1676. According to the accounts of Dr. Suniti

f.n. 11 contd...

Imperative and Infinitive. The Infinitive simply expresses the abstract and unrestricted verbal idea, it is indeed strictly speaking a gerund of verbal noun. The participles are three viz, imperfect, perfect and conjunctive. From every verb root a noun of agency may also be formed. (Kellogg, 1875. pp. 228).
Kumar Chatterjea, the first known Hindi Grammar was written by a citizen of Holland, John Joshua Kelter in 1698. Most of the grammars written during 1676 to 1855 were written by non-Indians. However, in 1804, Lallu Lal wrote a Hindi grammar called *Hindi Kavayad* which unfortunately is not available now.

The tradition of modern Hindi grammars started with the publication of Pt. Kamta Prasad Guru's Hindi grammar in 1921. The grammars before this were written mainly for students of Primary Classes. They did not seek to establish rules to homogenise or stabilise the language on the basis of its current uses. And this was an important task for grammarians, for in this period the growth of literature had further created instability and diversity in language use. Acharya Mahavir Prasad Dwivedi was the leading personality who made effort to retrieve Hindi from this situation. When he became the editor of "Saraswati", he discovered that the character of Hindi had got destabilised. The reason was that the Hindi in use in the Bharatendu era was principally of a spoken character and was based on the pronunciation of words one read it as it was written and one wrote it as it was spoken. Consequently, the literature of the Bharatendu era had the flavour of the oral language. Being a language of an extended area, the
pronunciation of Hindi words varied from region to region. Hence, the same word was written differently in different regions. In the November 1905 issue of the "Saraswati" Dwivedi wrote an important essay on language and grammar where he explained that Hindi lacks homogeneity as the writers do not pay adequate attention to grammar while they write. As a reaction to his essay a movement started. Pt. Kamta Prasad Guru wrote an essay "Hindi ki hinata" in August 1908 issue of the "Saraswati" continuing this debate and stated that in Hindi there was neither any recognised grammar nor any standard dictionary. Later, many other scholars also felt the lacunae in Hindi. The Nagari Pracharini Sabha took upon itself the task of compiling a grammar and a dictionary of Hindi. Babu Ganga Prasad M.A. and Pt. Ramkarana Sharma first wrote grammars of Hindi, but these grammars were not found to be satisfactory. Later, Acharya Mahavir Prasad Dwivedi and Madhav Rao Sapre requested Pt. Kamta Prasad Guru to take up this challenging task. Guru with dedication and hard work wrote the first standard Hindi grammar. For almost three decades it remained the only standard grammar and is still counted among the most representative ones. However, after Pt. Kishori Das Vajpeyi's critical evaluation, there was a decline in its reputation.
The publication of Guru's grammar brought many important changes in the situation of Hindi. Hindi was introduced as a subject in the Universities and the courses were framed for the B.A. and the M.A. degrees in the universities. The department of Hindi was established in the Banaras Hindu University with the then reputed literateurs in the language. The lead was followed in the reconstituted universities of Allahabad and Lucknow, and in Calcutta. The students in the Post-graduate level started studies in linguistics as specialised studies. The historical and comparative studies of grammars also began to see the light of the day. The Nagari Pracharini Sabha established in 1893 was the sole propagator of the cause of Hindi. In 1910 Hindi Sahitya sammelan was founded in Prayag. In 1918 the first course of Hindi in South India was inaugurated by Sir C.P. Ramaswami Ayyar in the Gokhale Hall of Madras. It was due to the efforts of the youngest son of Mahatma Gandhi' Mr. Devdas Gandhi' who was deputed by Mahatma Gandhi to look after the propagation of Hindi in Madras. Hindi was now recognised as the national and official language.

Guru's grammar is divided into three sections. The verbs are analysed in the first part of the fourth chapter. The definition of the verb provided by Guru is quite
different from the traditional ones given by earlier grammarians. He says "the inflectional word which is used to say something about any object is called verb." It seems possible that this definition has been taken from "classical Marathi grammar" written by Damle. The tense analysis in Guru's grammar is unclear. He defined tense in the following words:

"it is that transformation of verb with the help of which the time of the activity of verb and its state of completion or non-completion is expressed".

To clarify this point he further wrote:

"Time is infinite. It cannot be divided. However, it can be imagined to be divided in two parts from the point of view of speaker or writer. When a speaker or writer speaks or writes, it is called Present tense. Whatever precedes is past tense and whatever succeeds is future. These three times are expressed by the verb forms and therefore are known as tenses. The tenses of verbs not only express the time of activity but they also indicate its perfective or imperfective aspects. It is for this reason that each tense is further divided on the basis of verb forms".

He has discussed the three main tenses i.e. present, past and future. Then on the basis of the simple, perfective and imperfective stages he has classified present

13. Ibid. pp. 328
14. Ibid. pp. 329
tense into three; past into three; but for future only one form has been accepted i.e. simple future.

The other grammarians of this era were Lala Shiv Narayan who in 1920 published his "Manual of higher Hindi grammar and composition". Dr. Dhirendra Verma and Babu Ram Saxena who collectively wrote "A New Hindi Grammar" published from Allahabad in 1933. Raghunath Dinkar Kane, Pt. Gopal Sastri and Ram Chandra Verma are a few to name among the others.

Pt. Kishori Das Vajpeyi was the leading grammarian who brought a new consciousness in the domain of Hindi grammar. He was the first grammarian to declare that "Hindi is an independent language". It certainly owes its derivation in Sanskrit like other Indian languages but it maintains it draws its independent sustenance from its own domain. The first grammar of "National language" written by Kishori Das Vajpeyi and published by Janwani Prakashan of Calcutta, was not the first grammar nor was Kishori Das Vajpeyi the first grammarian. Shri Vajpeyi was the first one to make an attempt to write a grammar of Hindi based on the nature of Hindi language instead of seeking its base in Sanskrit and its derivatives or in English. Hindi Shabdanushasan a scholarly grammar written by Kishori Das Vajpeyi was published in 1958 by the Nagari Pracharini
Sabha. It is divided into three parts. The third part which is divided into five chapters deals with verb and verb phrases including agreement and grammatical categories. It also treats causative, di-causative verbs and compound verbs. Kishori Das Vajpeyi distinguishes between the tense formation of Hindi and that of Sanskrit. In Sanskrit the past and future tenses are subdivided into Adyatan and Anadyatan tenses but Hindi does not follow this pattern. The duration of Adya in Sanskrit, as in English, is taken from midnight to midnight but in Hindi it is from morning to morning. The closeness and distances of past and future are expressed differently in Hindi. Hindi uses auxiliary verbs whereas in Sanskrit they are not required.

Other known grammarians of this period are Acharya Shivpujan Sahay and the Russian Scholar Dr. Z.S. Dymshits who wrote their grammars in 1950 and 1960 respectively. After Kellogg, Guru and Vajpeyi, the tradition of writing Hindi grammar with a comprehensive and balanced outlook almost disappeared. It is not to say that nothing has been written on Hindi grammar. In fact, many thick volumes have been written in last few decades including many from the linguistic point of view. The stress on linguistics has on

the one hand expanded the notion of grammar and on the other
provided it with certain depth. As a result, different
aspects of grammar have been separately examined intensively.

In the last two decades many important articles
have been published where authors have tried to see Hindi
syntax in the perspective of certain linguistic models. For
example, Laxmibai Balachandrans, "A Case Grammar of Hindi:
with Special Reference to Causative Sentences", Yamuna
Kachru's," A Transformational Treatment of Hindi Verbal
Syntax "(1965), and "An Introduction to Hindi syntax" (1966),
Mahendra Kumar Verma's," The Structure of Noun Phrase in
English and Hindi" (1971) are some such works. In the last
decade itself contrastive studies began to appear under the
impetus of independent departments of Linguistics. Many
scholars submitted their Ph.D dissertations on contrastive
analysis of Hindi and, chiefly, English grammars, and later
of Hindi and other Indian languages. A generative semantic
treatment of some aspects of English and Hindi grammar by
Prajapati Shah; a study of systemic description of Hindi
grammar and comparison of Hindi and English verbal group by
Shivendra Verma; contrastive analysis of Hindi and English
nominal phrase by Vinod Kumar Sinha - are some of the
examples of such studies. The other major influence on
Hindi grammar, of course, was of transformational and generative syntax which got reflected in the works of N.V. Rajgopalan, Surajbhan Singh, Vinod Kumar Sinha, Kalicharan Behl, and Yamuna Kachru. Much thought is being expended and much work has been done in the field of Hindi grammar. However, a comprehensive grammar of Hindi consistent with an acceptable model is yet to be written.
1.4 FRENCH LANGUAGE

French is mainly the language of the people of France. Due to large scale migration and the expansion of the French Empire, people of many countries of Africa, Asia and Pacific learned French as a second language. The interaction of French with other languages has led to many varieties of French as is the case with English. These different varieties are called "patois" but they are not rated very highly in comparison with the current standards of elegance and equality by the French 'élite'. French is spoken by 56 million people in the country of its origin as the authentic wise of the national expression. Besides 49,889 thousands speakers are found in old French colonies and settlements like Algeria, Vietnam, Kampuchea, Laos, Morroco, Mauritania, Maurituis, Guinea, Nouvelle Caladonia, Canada and Chandernagor and Pondichery in India etc.16 In India alone there are approximately 70,000 speakers of French.17

French not only has a rich literary tradition in France, it has also an equally rich tradition of literature in Canada and Africa. It is a language widely used in

17. Ibid.
scientific and technological spheres, media and in the universities as well.

In India, French is taught as a major European language in as many as forty one Universities. Many public schools have French as a language in their curriculum*. All India Radio also broadcasts a programme every day in French for Francophone Africa. A few magazines are also published in French from India. The Indian Council of Cultural Relations publishes "Rencontre avec l'Inde", French cultural centre publishes "Paranthèse" apart from many other magazines published by universities and schools where French is taught.

Many other countries also have special radio and TV programmes in French, besides Canada and other Francophone countries where such programmes are produced for internal consumption. Apart from Francophone countries many other countries like China, Soviet Union, United States, Britian, etc. publish literature and other propaganda material in French.

This wide acceptance of French language has been accepted by United Nations Organisation and allied organisations also which have placed French as the second

most important language for the proceedings of their organisations.

Historically, the emergence of French is derived from Latin. Italian and Spanish are other languages that have directly descended from Latin and hence these four languages are grouped as Romance languages.

√French, being a language of the Indo-European group has genetic relationship with Hindi, though due to spatio-temporal distance the structures of these two languages have diversified considerably.

Script

French is written in Roman Script.

Phonemes of French

French has a total of 36 phonemes of which sixteen are vowels, three are semivowels and the rest of the seventeen are consonants.

Vowels

It has twelve oral and four nasal vowels. They are phonetically transcribed as:

Oral vowels: ɪ ɛ ɑ ɔ o u y
Nasal vowels: ⟨ɛ̃ ɛ̈ ɔ̃ ɔ̈⟩
Semi vowels: j y w
Consonants

The seventeen consonants are as follows:

\[ p \ t \ k \ b \ d \ g \ f \ v \ s \ z \ \{ 3 \} \ l \ r \ m \ n \ p \]

1.4.1 FRENCH GRAMMARS

It was only in the mid-sixteenth century that the scholars started writing about French grammar. Initially such grammars were written in the Latin tradition by Robert Estienne, Du Bellay, L. Meigret, Henri Estienne and Montaigne. They described *bon usage* though some scholars had started thinking in terms of the written language as a representation of the oral language. The major theme of grammatical thinking of this period can be summed up by what Meigret has to say when he writes:

"The writing can be bad when it is composed of the letters that are not required by the pronunciation as this kind of writing leads to a false reading, and pronunciation of a sound which is not pronunciable."

The major works of XVIth Century are those of Sylvius, Henri Estienne and Ramus (Pierre de la Ramee) apart from...

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from that of Luis Meigret's (1549) *Traité de Grammaire française*. The treatise of Meigret emphasises the need to depend on usages to describe a language and it includes chapters on Phonetics and Morphology. His chapters on morphology include the discussion on parts of speech and inflexions.

In 1607, Maupas wrote a school grammar which was closely followed by a grammar by Oudin in 1632. Oudin's work follow the same method as that of Maupas but rejuvenated the content. Henceforth many attempts at grammar writing were made of which those of which Bouhours (1674 and 1692), Andry de Boisregard (1609 and 1694), Louis Aleman (1688), F. Brunot (1650) are of considerable significance.

The major event of seventeenth century was the establishment of a new Institution by the French parliament: "L'Academie Française" in 1637. Almost uniquely legislative authority was created to laydown rules of the French


21. Bouhours wrote *Remarques nouvelles* and *Doutes Sur la langue Française*, Boisregard wrote *Réflexions* while Aleman wrote *Observations nouvelles* and Brunot wrote *Les Origines de la langue Française*. 
language. It's aim was to clear the language of all ordure according to Faret. The Article 26 of the Status of French Academy suggests that a dictionary, a grammar and Rhetoric and Poetic treatises shall be written in direct supervision of the French Academy.

The Dictionary was published in 1694, 57 years after the establishment of the society and the grammar was written in 1704 on the basis of the works of Vaugelas specially Remarques. Grimarest wrote Traité du récitatif dans la lecture, dans l'action publique, dans la déclamation et dans le chant in 1707. It was a reaction to the distinction which existed between general or common pronunciation and the diction. The work of Geraud de Cordomoy became famous because of its inclusion in Bourgeois gentilhomme of Maulière. It was in 1668 that le discourse physique de la parole was published. The abbé of Dangeau published two books Discours sur les voyelles and Discours sur les consonnes respectively in the year 1711. These were the works dealing with the phonetics of French language.

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It would be appropriate to draw attention to the other major event in the history of French grammar - the well known grammar of Port-Royal. The importance of this grammar is explained by F. Brunot when he says that it is among a number of chef-d'oeuvres that have many authors. It has been written by Lancelot and contains the thoughts of Arnauld. Arnauld had a two-fold task to accomplish. He had to find and explain the facts of a language while looking for the universals of language hidden behind the variety of forms during the course of his analysis. In fact it is the grammar of Port-Royal which provided Ferdinand de Saussure with the necessary insight for him to lay the foundation of modern linguistics, better known as structural linguistics.

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25. "L'année même ou les petites écoles étaient fermées, paraissait un livre fait pour elles, dont la portée fut énorme. Encore une fois le mot de Pascal se vérifiait. La force avait la dessous dans son duel contre la pensée. La "Grammaire générale" est du nombre des chefs d'oeuvre qui sont l'oeuvre de plusieurs. Lancelot l'a écrite, mais Arnauld l'a pensée (...) Raisonnée, l'oeuvre d'Arnauld l'est doublement, d'abord en ce qu'elle cherche à expliquer les faits au lieu de les exposer; et en outre parce qu'elle tache de retrouver au terme de son analyse, derrière les formes variables des langues, la raison universelle réglant les principes du language," quote of Brunot from Caput, J.P. 1972. p.263.
The main thought behind this grammar is best explained by its definition of verb. While explaining verb it states:

"Till now, we have explained the words which signify the object of thought. Those which signify the manner of thought are yet to be explained and they are verbs, conjunctions and interjections.

It further says that

"the knowledge of the nature of verb depends on what we have said in the very beginning of this discourse. The judgement we make about things (as we say The earth is round) includes necessarily two things: a subject which we affirm, as the earth, and the attribute which helps us to affirm that the subject is round. And above all the link between these two terms which is purely the activity of our minds which affirms the attribute of the subject.

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26. Ivques icy nous avons expliqué les mots qui, signifient les objects des pensées. Il rests de parler de ceux qui signifient la manière des pensées; qui sont les Verbes, les Conjunctions & les Interjections. (Bailly. 1660. p.264)

27. "La connaissance de la nature du Verbe dépend de ce que nous avons dit au commencement de ce discours; que le jugement que nous faisons des choses (comme quand je dis la terre est ronde) enferme nécessairement deux termes, l'un appelé sujet, qui est ce dont on affirme, comme, terre; & l'auture applée attribut, qui est ce qu'on affirme, comme ronde: Et de plus la liaison entre ces deux termes, qui est proprement l'action de notre esprit qui affirme l'attribut du sujet. (Bailly, p.264)
and that

"the principal use of verbs is to signify the affirmation, because we would see that we use it also to signify other movements of our souls, as desire, pry, command etc. But that we do by changing the inflexions and mood." 28

The grammar and the logic of Port Royal had a permanent effect on the minds of XVIIIth Century. Its methods and principles were very closely related to those of philosophy. It is for this reason that Condillac in his 'Grammar' says that:

"the authors of Port Royal were the first ones to have shown the illumination in the very elementary books. This illumination, it is true was still weak but it is through them that we have begun to see and we owe them very much because for centuries the eyes of the whole world were closed due to the a priori judgements". 29

"The usage is good for the ignorants" said Grimarest in his Discours sur l'usage de la langue française

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28. I'ay dit que le principal usage du Verbe estoit de signifier l'affirmation, parce que nous feront voir plus bas que l'on s'en sert encore pour signifier d'autres mouvements de nostre âme; comme désirer, prier, commander, etc. (Caput, Tom I, p.265).

29. Messieurs de Port-Royal ont les premiers porté la lumière dans les livres élémentaires. Cette lumière, il est vrai, était faible encore: mais enfin c'est avec eux que nous avons commencé à voir, et nous leur avons d'autant plus d'obligation que depuis des siècles, des préjugés grossiers fermaient les yeux de tout le monde. (Caput, Tom II, p.19).
which was published after his \textit{Traité sur la manière d'écrire}. Three years later, in 1712 the same author gave priority to the theoretical principles of usages in his \textit{Eclaircissements sur la langue française}. This debate continues with \textit{P. Buffier's Grammaire Française} (1709) for the French Academy upto Duclos who wrote a commentary on the Port-Royal Grammar for the Academy and Olivet who published the \textit{Essais de grammaire} (1744) and the \textit{Remarques sur la langue française} (1767).

The grammar of French viewed by these scholars had definitely detached itself from the Latin Grammar. Hence, the talk of symbolique declensions in French ceased to exist. The grammar of Regnier-Desmarais accorded importance to prepositions and articles etc. During this period many grammars were written and it showed the interest of French scholars in their language. Urban Domergue, l'abbé Feraud and Girault Duvivier are a few that can be named, who enriched the French grammar with new insights.\footnote{Domergue Urbain, 1778, \textit{Grammaire Français Simplifier}, and (1784-1791) \textit{Journal de la langue française}; Feraud, 1761, \textit{Dictionnaire grammatical de langue française}, and (1787-88) \textit{Dictionnaire Critique de la langue française}; Girault Duvivier, 1811, \textit{Grammaire des grammairies}.} The opposition of voices was seen as influenced by the auxiliary and the pronominal forms. The tense forms (Simple, Composed, Supercomposed and peraphrasetic) were also analysed.
Bécauzée, a successor of Dumaraís departing from a metaphysical, a priori, differentiated between the definite and the indefinite, anterior and posterior, distant and close tenses.

It was in this period that one finds that the language functions came to be closely analysed. It was Condillac who synthesized and pushed the associations to their limits; to the extent that the language and thought became identical. A François in his *Histoire de la langue française* mentions the fundamental principle of Condillac:

"The thought being the "transformed sensation" alone, and on the other hand, the animals having sensations like human beings, the difference between them lies in the fact that the human being possesses the ability to transform their judgement perception into judgement affirmations. Human beings are not content with feeling the relations, they express them, they affirm them. They can do so because they decompose their thought with the language".31.

In spite of intense activity of grammar writing the fact remains that the writers at large did not follow the grammarian. The authority of grammarians itself was a subject of debate.

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Even the Academy could not play an effective role. A number of organisations and periodicals appeared. It has already been mentioned that Urbain Domergue founded the Académie grammaticale and brought out a *Journal grammaticale et didactique de la langue française*. In 1831 appeared the *Journal Philosophique grammatical et littérale de la langue Française* which transformed itself into the *Journal de la langue française* by 1839. The names of Wey and François Genin are equally important to be mentioned at this stage.

Many grammars of French language were written in the latter half of 19th century and many more are still being written. Most of these grammars are written in traditional pattern and serve the teachers and the students of French language, while some others try to describe the language on the basis of different models provided by the modern linguistic researchers. One of the well-known normative grammar of French is *Grammaire Larousse du Français Contemporain* by Chavalier, Bénveniste, Arrivé and Peytard. Mauger is also very popular among the learners of French all over the world.

The grammars that would interest linguists are the ones that are based on modern linguistic insights. Among such grammars, those of Greimas, Dubois, Gross, Grevisse are the important works that need a mention here. Greimas has
worked on structural semantics whereas Dubois has worked extensively on structural syntax. On the other hand, Galmiche has worked on generative semantics and Maurice Gross has written a transformational grammar of French which deals with the syntax of verb and that of noun.

Grevisse has worked on French grammar from structural viewpoint though he has attempted a pedagogical grammar. The *Grammaire Structurale du Français Moderne* of George Galichet is another pedagogical grammar based on structural model.

The attempts to analyse the French Language in TG and GB frameworks provided by Chomsky are still going on and many linguists like Pottier, Ruwet, Peytard, Gross, Dubois and others have worked in these areas. In the present work the useful insights of all these sources are incorporated as all these linguists and grammarians have written their works with particular and specific objectives.