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EXPLORING SYNTACTIC NOUN PATTERNS IN THE PAKISTANI ENGLISH NEWSPAPERS

BY

UMAR FAROOQ

REGISTRATION NO. S22-MPHILENG-1003

MPHIL ENGLISH LINGUISTICS

Department of English

UNIVERSITY OF OKARA

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY
In English Linguistics

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UMAR FAROOQ

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CERTIFICATE BY THE RESEARCH SUPERVISOR

I certify that the contents and form of thesis submitted by Mr Umar Farooq, Roll No. S22-MP-ENG-1003 has been found satisfactory and in accordance with the presented format. I recommend it to be processed for the evaluation by the External Examiner for the award of degree.

Date: 10-05-2020 Supervisor:

Chairman: _____

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation **"Exploring The Syntactic Noun Patterns In The Pakistani English Newspapers "** is the result of my own independent research, except where I have indicated my indebtedness to other sources. It has not been accepted in substance or in part of any other degree and is not being submitted concurrently in candidature for any other degree.

Candidate

Mr. Umar Farooq

APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

The thesis entitled **"Exploring The Syntactic Noun Patterns In The Pakistani English Newspapers"** prepared by **Umar Farooq** under my supervision is hereby approved for submission to **University of Okara, Okara** in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of **M.Phil** in **Linguistics.**

Supervisor

Dr. Muhammad Ilyas Mahmood

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UMAR FAROOQ

DEDICATION

This dissertation is devoted to my **FATHER (Late), TEACHERS AND BROTHERS**, who trained me that the best type of understanding to have is the one which is oriented towards the benefit of the holder. It is also devoted to my **MOTHER**, who trained me that even the biggest aim can be achieved if it is planned and executed in the given time-frame.

"Especially to those who love my love, and my love- the **ALMIGHTY**."

ABSTRACT

The present study, which sets a new trend in research, focuses on noun phrases in Pakistani English (PE) journalese and applies universal and generative theories of grammar, particularly X-bar theory. Another distinct benefit of the study's analysis will come from shifting the emphasis from the sentential level to the phrasal and component levels in generative perspective. The idea that movement in constituents is ordered as a continual succession of lexical items is certainly supported by the sentential/phrasal explanation in PE. Nonetheless, mobility in constituents is advocated, meaning that shifts in positions are noted, and the sequence in which they occur is examined in relation to anomalies in the recurrence of constituents in NP in accordance with "parameters" to serve a communicative purpose. Consequently, data analysis is being carried out quantitatively by measuring frequencies in relation to NP occurrences utilizing an adapted multi-method technique that is adopted from de Mönnink (2000) for the study of descriptive linguistics. Many linguists have examined mobility in phrasal components in Standard English using their own self-made examples up to this point (see de Mönnink, 2000). Using a formal technique, the researcher has examined movement and talked about it using generative framework analyses. As a result, a fully transformational approach toward a more surface-structure perspective has emerged, and the framework by this study has limited the directionality of "move a" to leftward movement and reduced the number of movement rules to one general movement principle (move a). The study reveals that weight and information value are the key elements that explain movement in a functional perspective. The most often discussed structures in the formal and functional approaches continuous AJPs, FDPM, and [floating] delayed determiners are the subject of discussions over how to handle NP mobility. Since fronted pre-

modification is the only NP structure that entails moving to the left of an IC, it is also examined. The study's results completely support the idea that a language learner would be better able to acquire and impart a language if they had a thorough comprehension of its components.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADJP Adjective Phrase.

ADVP Adverb Phrase.

CONJP Conjunction Phrase.

FRAG Fragment.

INTJ Interjection. Corresponds approximately to the part-of-speech tag UH.

LST List marker. Includes surrounding punctuation.

NAC Not a Constituent; used to show the scope of certain prenominal modifiers within an NP.

NP Noun Phrase.

NX Used within certain complex NPs to mark the head of the NP. Corresponds very roughly to N-bar level but used quite differently.

PP Prepositional Phrase.

PRN Parenthetical.

PRT Particle. Category for words that should be tagged RP.

QP Quantifier Phrase (i.e. complex measure/amount phrase); used within NP.

RRC Reduced Relative Clause.

UCP Unlike Coordinated Phrase.

VP Vereb Phrase.

WHADJP *Wh*-adjective Phrase.

WHAVP *Wh*-adverb Phrase.

WHNP *Wh*-noun Phrase.

WHPP *Wh*-prepositional Phrase.

Word level

CC	Coordinating conjunction
CD	Cardinal Number
DT	Determiner
EX	Existential there
FW	Foreign word
IN	Preposition or subordinating conjunction
JJ	Adjective
JJR	Adjective, comparative
JJS	Adjective, superlative
LS	List item marker
MD	Modal
NN	Noun, singular or mass
NNS	Noun, plural
NNP	Proper noun, singular
NNPS	Proper noun, plural
PDT	Predeterminer
POS	Possessive ending
PRP	Personal pronoun
PRP$	Possessive pronoun (prolog version PRP-S)
RB	Adverb
RBR	Adverb, comparative
RBS	Adverb, superlative
RP	Particle
SYM	Symbol
UH	Interjection

VB	Verb, base form
VBD	Verb, past tense
VBG	Verb, gerund or present participle
VBN	Verb, past participle
VBP	Verb, non-3rd person singular present
VBZ	Verb, 3rd person singular present
WDT	Wh-determiner
WP	Wh-pronoun
WP$	Possessive wh-pronoun (prolog version WP-S)
WRB	Wh-adverb

Function tags

ADV	Adverbial
NOM	Nominal

Grammatical role

DTV	Dative
LGS	Logical Subject
PRD	Predicate
SBJ	Surface Subject
TPC	Topicalized
VOC	Vocativ

CHAPTER 01

INTRODUCTION

In the discussion of syntax and meaning, noun phrases are crucial. According to Baumgardner as mentioned in Rehman, 2014, p. 22, study into global Englishes like Pakistani English is required since the Chomskian idea of grammar is generative in practically all languages or variants of English. The observational research Naturally, syntactic analysis of the noun phrase patterns in Pakistani English newspapers will examine noun phrases in the language and is making an impact thus far as it will elaborate on syntactic elements linked to various situations in Pakistani English that may be studies further.

Language is also an instrument for communication. When two speakers of the same language have a solid grasp of the phonological, grammatical, and semantic systems of the language, meaning is conveyed. The grammatical system has been studied by several linguists and philologists from structural to functional perspectives. Chomsky (1957) was the first to identify the fundamental grammatical structures common by most languages and developed the most advanced theory of grammar. Therefore, in order to confirm or disprove its widespread application, Chomsky's (1970) grammatical theory needs clarification and extension. The NP and VP models describe how our minds construct sentences and how comprehension of this structure is critical to comprehending what we read. However, it's crucial to keep in mind the many techniques linguists employ to examine a particular language system. We shall give a brief introduction to one such tactic, called descriptivism, in the next section.

Descriptive linguistics is a well-established and extensively utilized subject, particularly in the study of the English language. With the producing of The Great Tradition, sometimes referred to as reference grammars, at the beginning of the 20th century, prescriptivism was superseded by descriptivism. Shift in focus from the former, which is also evident in the real works of linguists, is shown by the emergence of interest in the language's description, or its common core. They made a big difference in the descriptive analysis using their text for illustration. The explanation of descriptive analysis given by De Mönnink (2000) is as follows.

The inclination toward written, literary language, which accounts for a small portion of real language use, is clarified by the character of the data, which is literary quotations.

They would inevitably experience very little structural change. To give a fairly thorough description, large textual corpora covering a wide variety of language differences (spoken and written) need be analyzed. Second, the rather archaic tone of the literature resulted in portrayals of somewhat outdated use. Thirdly, conventional grammarians lacked the tools (or the tools to conduct a methodical analysis of the texts).

Because the descriptivist’s only described a small number of common and basic patterns and structures, several important components were left out, which left their grammars noticeably devoid of grammatical explanations. Instead of emphasizing real language usage, the majority of descriptive grammarians with a dash of prescriptivism—have focused on right language usage. Two other contemporary reference grammars will be discussed under the same heading in Chapter 2 from a descriptive linguistics perspective: Quirk and colleagues (1972) produced A comprehensive and contemporary English Grammar (1985).

Constituency grammar, often known as construction composition grammar, was first presented by linguist Noam Chomsky in 1980. Structure of Expression Constituency grammars are also commonly used to refer to phrase structure grammars since grammatical structures are all those grammatical structures that depend on the constituency connection instead of the dependency relation associated with dependency grammars. The majority of the portion grammars—the primary theories for understanding how natural language is parsed—have been created from the research of Chomsky. in the form of a delusion.

- The Nonosyntax,
- The Program for Minimalism,
- The Head-Driven Grammar for Phrase Structure,
- The Generalized Grammar of Phrase Structure, and
- The Theory of Binding and Governance.

Even while some grammar frameworks and formalisms do not acknowledge Chomsky as their primary source, they are still constituency-based. Pair Grammar in Arc and Grammar Types Sentence structure is seen via the lens of the constituency link in all of the aforementioned frameworks. The subject-predicate division that is the foundation of the constituency connection in the Latin and Greek grammars dates back to Aristotle and is based on term logic. For example, a binary partition of the sentence into subject noun phrase identifies basic clause structure. The text is divided binaryly, producing a one-to-one-or-more correlation. In the presumed sentence tree structure, each phrase's

constituents have one or more nodes. Three or more nodes in the grammatical structure are implied by the two-word sentence "Luke laughed":

- The noun Bilal (Subject NP),
- The verb spoke (Predicate VP), and
- Bilal spoke as a whole (Sentence S).

Sentence creation is seen by the aforementioned component grammars in terms of this one-to-one-or-more connection; this idea is referred to as the Projection Principle.

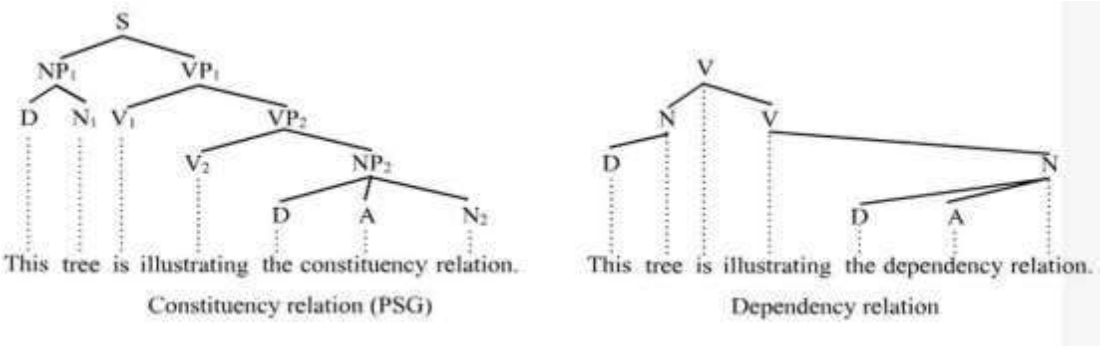


Figure 1.1 (Wikipedia): A Relation of Dependency and Body Relationships.

At every syntactic level, lexical structure must be articulated categorically, according to Chomsky. In that they see the subcategorization characteristics of lexical items at every syntactic level, representations are projected from the lexicon.(Page 29 of Chomsky, 1981). As a result, the agreement that Principle & Parameter theory uses to create phrases might be referred to as the projection principle, be referred to as a projection principle. Generative Grammar (GG) is a specific way of knowing a language with its personal system of rules of syntactic definition. Generative grammar is fundamentally responsible for creating sentences in each language in the world. The rules established by this theory

dictate which words are combined to make a phrase and what meaning each word has on its own. Therefore, language is an expression of generative grammar itself, where a phrase's syntax represents a hierarchy where parts merge into a larger pattern. Chomsky, who has been studying grammar since the late 1950s, is considered the world's foremost linguist. Noam Chomsky (1965, 1976), while enlarge on modification, asserts that Panini was the temporal relation of the Productive Grammar. Panini's studies on Sanskrit grammar are related to Chomsky's current Generative Grammar (1965, 1976). Chomsky (1965, 1976) also mentioned the further forebears of this subject in his research.

Chomsky (1957) resurrects the nature vs. nurture controversy by connecting Generative Grammar to the "innate universal grammar" and bringing up concepts of nativism and "blank slate." Moving on to the following point, the controversy surrounding nativism and the "blank slate" has made the Generative Grammar theory a fantastic hypothesis up to this point. On the other hand, the theory's criticism has unavoidably included the "poverty of stimulus" argument. This shows in detail why generative grammar is a more thorough, clever, and innovative argument than other theories like behaviorist, functional, and cognitive grammar.

Furthermore, generative grammar not only assesses a statement's validity but also makes sure it follows syntactical rules and is well-formed. Based on algorithmic formulae, the ethics of generative grammar provide us information limited to a single formula called "Boolean" that is, whether a phrase is valid or erroneous (van Melkebeek, 2000).Sentence fixes and extra information, however, are not covered by generative grammar. X-bar Theory is the term for the enlarged concept that caught Chomsky's interest in 1970 and was the main focus of his studies for a number of years.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

To clarify current syntactical difficulties with NP in Pakistani English (PE), this study will examine journalese written in Pakistani English. Sadly, except from Mahmood's (2009) comprehensive analysis of NP, not much research has been done on the subject of generative grammar in Pakistani English. One of the many English dialects spoken throughout the world is called PE, about which there is still much to discover. Even while the study as a whole adds to the heritage of research in Pakistani English (PE), the main objective of the project is to use contemporary generative theory or theories to improve it.

1.2 Work Already Done

Mehmood (2009) concentrated on the lexico-grammatical features of noun phrases in the language, whereas Rehman (2014) examined the morphological, syntactic, lexical, and semantic facets of Pakistani English. Both researches, meanwhile, were carried out with a formalistic perspective. The study of Pakistani English has benefited from the work of several linguists, even if a few have played a particularly significant role. In Teaching Specific Aspects of Syntax, for example, Kachru (1982) explains The intelligibility of the institutionalized non-native variations of English forms as cline on page 49. He also advances the concept of the continuum of bilingualism, which is attached to Halliday-et al. (1964, p. 77). This "relation" depends on the conflict between L1 and culturally unique lexico-semantic features (Kachru, 1969, p. 26). This research also takes into account the vast number of public servants and educators in Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka who are generally fluent in South Asian English dialects within their respective domains of expertise. According to Baumgardner's (1987, 1990, and 1995) interpretation, English language training in Pakistani newspapers might incorporate some

grammatical components, namely in the "complementation of verbs and adjective" (as stated in Rehman, 2014, p. 22-23). This was his initial interpretation of Pakistani English (PE).In his second article on lexico-semantic characteristics, Kachru asserts that "We are unable to differentiate between mesolectal and acrolectal usage and we are unable to employ PE into some further types" (Rehman, 2014, p.22-23). His increasing experience is the source this conviction. In spite of this, the aforementioned studies have examined certain essential aspects of Pakistani English to ensure proper usage in formalized settings and institutionalized situations. The present study adds to the body of work in Pakistani English (PE) research for the promotion of institutionalized variations since it aims to utilize modern generative theory or theories.

1.3 Delimitations

Studies on the placements of determiners, pre-head, and post-modifications;

i) The nature of the NP‘s structure;

ii) Language unit projections; and

iii) Noun phrases in Pakistani English,

Which are important in generative grammar, will be conducted. Using the Principles and Parameters theory, a sample of one hundred well-formed phrases would be analyzed. This would be done by making tree diagrams in line with de Mönnink's (2000) description. The use of NPs in English-language Pakistani periodicals will be thoroughly investigated.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This project aims to advance Pakistani English (PE) of journalese by employing generic and generative concepts of grammar, particularly X-bar Theory, to shift the focus from

the sentential level to the phrasal and component levels in generative perspective. To accomplish this, motility in constitutional is endorsed, i.e., changes in place (Determining factor/enumerator, Pre-head, and Post-head) are noted and discussed in relation to inconsistencies in constituent occurrence in NP according to "parameters" for the purpose of communication. To accomplish the previously described objectives, instances of NP in PE in relation to its structural elements (determiners/enumerator, pre-heads, and post-heads modifications) would be used to illustrate the patterns unique to this English version.

1.5 Research Questions

1.5.1 Major Research Questions

i. For instance, how are NP projections applied at the maximum and intermediate levels?

ii. What kind of Noun Phrase patterns are seen in Pakistani newspapers published in English?

1.5.2 Sub-Research Questions

a) What are the D-slot (determiners/enumerators) filling frequencies in NP?

b) How frequently is the "Pre-head modification" form in NP filled out?

c) In NP, what propensity is observed to hold the post-head modification position?

1.7 Significance of the Research

Although a few research on Pakistani English newspapers has been conducted in the past from a discourse analysis viewpoint, this work is unique in that it applies universal and

generative grammar theories to evaluate Pakistani English noun phrases, embracing contemporary concepts of grammar. The intended strategy will also have the obvious benefit of shifting the emphasis of the generative perspective from the sentential to the phrasal levels. Constituents are structured as a continuous sequence of lexical units, which is certainly supported by the sentential/phrasal explanation given in PE.

Even so, mobility in component is encouraged, which means that, in order to serve a communicative function, movements in locations would be noticed and their presence state would be investigated in connection to anomalies in constituent presence in NP. Up to now, several linguists have used their own instances to research and demonstrate mobility in phrasal components in Standard English (see de Mönnink, 2000). The researcher is examining the syntactic location and movement of immediate components in NP phrases in Pakistani English in order to improve comprehension (translations, comparative studies, etc.) with other languages/verities.

The results support the hypothesis that teaching and learning a language would be more successful for a person who fully understands each of its constituent parts.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

In Universal Grammar (UG), noun phrases play a crucial role. Chomsky (1957, 1981, 1995) introduced this grammar model and goes on to elaborate on it in several ways. Government and Binding (1981), which followed Chomsky's Standard Theory (1957), terminated in the Conservative Program (1995), where the Rules and Parametric quantities of framework gained prominence for its capacity to interpret language (For instance, see Haegeman 1994; Radford 1988). Based on the most recent syntactic

research, theoretical suggestions are derived from the Minimalist Program (Chomsky 1995; Radford 1997, 2000; Adger 2003) and the X-Bar Theory (Chomsky, 1970 and 1994; Jackendoff, 1977). According to Generative Grammar, surface-level changes result from moving the head location inside a phrase, and every natural language or dialect has comparable syntactic standards and is structure-dependent.

1.9 Division and Summaries of Chapters

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the objectives, significance, purpose, key terms, and research hypothesis (es) of the study. As such, it offers a syntactic analytical summary of the research along with future directions for applications in Pakistani English.

Chapter 2 compiles the most important books, research papers, and articles related to A Study of the Patterns of Noun Phrase in Pakistani English Journalese: A Syntactic Perspective. A critical assessment using case studies, a comparison of related conclusions made by other authors and scholars, and a comparison of different points of view are also included. The link between the current study and previous research, as well as with linguistics in unspecific, is further discussed in the conclusion of the chapter.

Besides applying the enhanced Concepts and Specifications structure Government and Binding (1980s) model, the theoretical framework of the research outlines the pertinent theory or theories. They comprise theoretical recommendations drawn from recent work on syntactic work, such as (i) the Minimalist Program (Chomsky 1995; Radford 1997, 2000; Adger 2003; Lasnik, Uriagereka, and Boeckx, 2005) and the many theoretical frameworks (also modified) proposed by de Mönnink (2000). In order to provide support for the researcher's conclusions, the relationship between the theory or concepts is also investigated.

Chapter 3 presents the current research agenda. This chapter gives a broad technique overview and a rationale for the research's constructive framework. It also provides further information, if needed, about any altered theoretical possibilities and relevant real-world instances. Modified for the study were also Mönnink (2000)'s theoretical frameworks and procedures that made sense given the circumstances.

Chapter 4 shows how to parse, tag, and display texts as an example of data analysis. The new patterns calculated and thoroughly examined.

Chapter 5 provides a detailed explanation of the whole findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the current investigation.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

A key place in Universal Grammar is held by Noun Phrase. Chomsky (1957, 1981, 1995) provided this grammar model, which he further elaborates on in a number of ways. Subsequent to Chomsky's 1957 Standard Theory, the Minimalist Program (1995) was the result of Government and Binding (1981). It was during this program that the Principles and Parameters framework, which helps us comprehend language attracted significant attention. (For example, see Radford 1988; Haegeman 1994). Theoretical recommendations stem from the most recent syntactic research, including (i) the X-Bar Theory (Chomsky, 1970 and 1994; Jackendoff, 1977) and the Minimalist Program (Chomsky 1995; Radford; 1997, 2000; Adger 2003). Every natural language or dialect has similar syntactic norms and is composition dependent, according to Generative Grammar (GG), which says that above-ground level differences arise from shifting the head position inside a sentence.

2.1 General Grammar

The most prestigious and esteemed position goes to Chomsky (1957, 1981, and 1995), who is also most often cited for his illustrative work on the theory of UG. According to Chomsky (1971), "It is very feasible for someone to live their entire life without ever hearing any of the pertinent instances that would help them decide between the two concepts" (as cited in Perfors, et al., 2006, p. 1), and the idea that every language in the world is somehow related to other languages in respect to the syntax it is derived in—that is, every language has lexical and phrasal categories—are examples of ideas that are

proportionately divided within the theory. The idea of starting from scratch has been fiercely criticized, experience (of one's society, Alternatively of filling a blank slate, language, etc.)interacts with innate attributes to foster competence in these many knowledge systems (Stark, 1998), which forms the basis of much of UG Theory. The theory's assumption, which emphasizes the significance of the entire according to Chomsky's (1957) research on the topic of grammar, the primary differentiators when assessing how language and an individual's nativism are related are observational variables and acquisitional distinctions.

Though there are significant differences in his theory, Bacon (1214–94) is credited as being the first to trace the origins of the UG and is credited with discovering the public grammar of all languages, which provides cognitive psychological science with a foundation for the theory. During the 13th century, when nearly all languages went through a reformation period and grammars were somewhat paralleled, certain unintentional variances were discovered. A group of notable individuals, Beattie (1735–1803), Blair (1718–1888), Burnett (1714–99), and Smith (1723–90), who worked for the same eighteenth-century Scottish school, came together to collaborate under the same platform. The school aimed to further both the idea of universal grammar and the field's overall profitability. The mention of UG in the Grammar section of a comprehensive and historical book, Encyclopedia Britannica (1771), provides more context and is noteworthy in and of itself. It states, "Although we may think of UG as a well-designed system, it is only partly "connected up." There is a finite number of switches connected to the system, maybe two, and each switch has a finite number of locations. To use the switches, you must have experience. The system operates after they are established (as

referenced on P. 1060 of Masher and Groves, 1996).As the idea came to the attention of contemporary theorists like Chomsky (1965, 1976, and 1995) and Montague (1930), it gained momentum in terms of its developmental viewpoint 1971 as described in Partee, 2006), and as a result of being included in the Linguistic Battle and other significant conversations, the idea was elevated to the level of global consciousness.

2.1.1 The Theory of Chomsky

Chomsky's (1965) theory, which is predicated on the anatomy of the human brain, is related to biological psychology. He contends that since everyone's brains are built similarly, everyone has the same capacity to pick up a language and understand its benefits and drawbacks. According to him, the structure and process of language learning are caused by a finite set of laws that are ingrained in every language and are unique to it. As "an abstract system that underlies action; a system made up of rules that interact to define the structure and fundamental meaning of an almost limitless number of phrases," Chomsky (1968) provides a clear elucidation of the idea (as stated in Blunden, 1998). Stated differently, the idea may be further explained by the fact that all languages share a basic grammar with one another.

Chomsky (1957) states, "Although I suppose, the world believes in me." These statements are important to comprehending his entire explanation since they attempt to state how language learning occurs in the same manner that it does in conventional acquisition and how everything in the world has something that he also possesses. It is a biological idea since learning is universal and occurs in all brains, albeit slightly differently in each individual-brain, independent of society or civilization.

A proficient speaker of a language learns both the socially acceptable and unacceptable

statements through subconscious conditioning, which is demonstrated by speakers' naturally differing speech output even while the basic sentences remain the same. The issue posed by Chomsky (1968) concerns the element that imparts this kind of motivation. Furthermore, if it is a person's nature, how does the idea of the blank slate come about?

conceivably be remembered. These arguments, which are somewhat rational, create a discussion that somewhat elevates and advances Chomsky's (1968) theory. This hypothesis also challenges Skinner's (1953) behaviorist perspective, as the researchers provide specific examples of stimulus poverty to support their claims.

Biologically speaking, the brain's organizing cells remain active until a person reaches a certain age in their psychological development. After that, they become worthless for native speakers while learning a new language. They periodically become active when people acquire a new language and discover it difficult to give up the grammatical conventions of their original tongue and quickly adapt to the new syntax. Theorists who worked on Universal Grammar (UG) and later imposed international syntactic limits on languages have addressed the Poverty of Stimulus issue and made significant progress toward second language (L2) acquisition. Language learners typically have their own opinions about this matter, and the majority of them do not adhere to the rules established by researchers and theorists. Generative Grammar is one of the disciplines that further subdivides this idea.

2.1.2 Syntax as Generic

Generative Grammar is a highly accepted and often used technique to analyze syntactic or morph-syntactic characteristics of a language, notably in theoretical linguistics (as

asserted in UG). Particularly in languages with rules, generative grammar precisely predicts how lexical components will be used to build well-formed phrase morphological and grammatical structures.

The ideal job for a generative grammarian is to describe Universal Grammar, or the collection of patterns and principles that are inherent to all the languages, in addition to defining how components relate to one another in a given language to be a natural ability of the human mind. (Online Concise Encyclopedia of Merriam Webster Dictionary).

Apart from the aforementioned prominent theories by Chomsky (1965, 1976, 1981, 1995, 2001), which include Government and Binding, Minimalist Program, Phrase Structure Grammar, and Tree-adjoining Grammar, and the proponents of other grammatical models like functional, behaviorist, or cognitive, numerous linguists have contributed to the theoretical foundation of linguistic studies through their work on various versions of Generative Grammar.

2.1.3 Theory of X-bars

The basic tenet of the X-Bar Theory, which has a direct connection to linguistic theory, is that all languages have several similar syntactic features. As stated in 1965, this theory has a complicated root of assumed and presupposed components that comprehensively wraps up Chomsky's (1965, 1976, and 1981) mental process. "Explaining how sentences are constructed from words is one of syntactic theory's main goals," according to Kornai & Pullum (2007) (p. 2). Most people think about this explanation in terms of giving phrases syntactical structures.

According to X-Bar Theory, all languages share a certain feature that makes them all

same. In particular, X-Bar is an essential part of all spontaneously occurring languages. The hypothesis was first put up and well justified by Chomsky in 1970; Jackendoff (1977) further refined the theory. Only the distinct constituency-based grammar context is suitable for applying and assessing the X-Bar Theory; dependency-based grammar does not support it.

The letter X is a component of a really changeable that works with lexical class and occurrences in certain postures. The variable is also given certain constants. It is also possible to argue that, depending on the circumstance, the variable X might transform into different variables, such as the letters N, V, A, and P for noun, verb, adjective, and preposition, respectively. The foundation of X-Bar theory is formed by the union of three fundamental symmetry principles. This theory may be observed in action in the native language's immediate dominant rule, in neutral language NLP (natural language processing), or graphically in the form of a parse tree for generalization.

Government and Binding theory comes before the X-Bar theory in order to enhance and distinguish it.

2.1.4 Theory of Binding and Governance

In order to hold onto his dominant position, Chomsky (1981, 1986) worked tirelessly to develop his grasp on the use and discussion of syntax. He did this by opposing the spectacular and well-known Theory of Dependency Grammar and by focusing more and more on Transformational Generative Grammar. According to Chomsky (1981, 1986), no new concepts were introduced to his body of work, and the theory developed smoothly, addressing previous problems, honing the notions, and withstanding critique. In addition,

he developed one of his best-known theories, the Minimalist Program (1995), and later used Three Factors in Language Design (Chomsky, 2005) as a shield to defend the idea. Chomsky is the primary link between the GB Theory and its generalization. Subsequent research on this subject has been done extensively by other linguists.

The idea behind the GB theory is exactly the same as that of a legislature, which is typically divided into two chambers. It is also governed in a count-down fashion, gradually dividing attorneys into two sub-theories: the binding sub-theory, which considers attorneys to be the lower house in a democratic state, and the government sub-theory, which views attorneys as the upper house. The degree of authority accorded to nouns, pronouns, anaphors, and other referential expressions is independently regulated by Government and Binding. The researchers are driven to concentrate on the extra details that Chomsky provided in Principles and Parameters and the Minimalist Program because of their keen curiosity about the GB investigation.

2.1.5 Fundamentals and Elements

Rules and Parameters is essentially a method of slightly altering a natural language to make it more widely comprehensible and to ascertain where a language should belong into the theory's conception of the global grammar. The Concepts and Standards examine the meaning and rules of communication. While rules and regulations may vary throughout languages, parameters are the switches and modes that are employed in a language that might alter for each language. The social rules that are specific to a language and to which it is tied are called principles. One approach to think about how

the Principles and Parameters theory works is to look at the way heads are employed in sentences within a language.

In this regard, the majority of languages and dialects, including PE, agree with the theory and research. The majority of languages seem to support the conclusion that universal grammar is reasonable. The principal proponents of the idea and research on parameters in universal syntax are Lasnik (2005) and Chomsky (1995). In addition to these two individuals, the idea also pertains to other outstanding scholars who did their utmost to advance the field of global grammar. Some critics categorize this theory under the GB theory and link it in a straightforward manner that makes it difficult for a novice to distinguish among them. The phrases Principle and Parameters are synonymous with the terms Government and Binding, which are parts of linguistic nomenclature. They belong to the same division of generative grammar, namely Phrase Structure Grammar and cannot be distinguished from one another.

2.1.6 Concept of Headedness

The theory behind rules and Parameters holds that all human languages have a small number of fundamental rules (like phrases being structured around heads), and that these basic principles can change parametrically (like the arrangement of heads and other phrasal elements may alter). According to the theory, Jackendoff's X-bar theory governs the dependence relationship among heads, complements, specifiers, and adjuncts (1970s). The complement is the head's sister, and there are two possible orders for them: A head-final structure is referred to as a complement-head order, and a head-complement order as a head-initial structure. These are particular instances of what Tesnière (1893–1954)

referred to as centripetal and centrifugal structures since the model only takes complements into account whereas Tesnière (1893–1954) considered a wide variety of dependents.

A head-directionality parameter is presented in the PP theory as a language classification method. Languages with head-final structures are categorized as head-final languages, and languages with head-initial structures as head-initial languages. However, it is discovered that very few, if any, languages are completely orthogonal. Numerous explanations have been proposed by linguists to account for the discrepancies; occasionally, they suggest a more consistent underlying order, while at other times, the surface aberrations are explained by the phenomena of phrasal mobility.

2.2 Literature Evaluation

This section will examine the diverse techniques and methodologies utilized by different scholars and investigators in this area of study, namely Universal Grammar. Numerous research projects in this area show distinct viewpoints and titles that go into the phrase structure.

2.2.1 In "The Great Tradition," a noun phrase

A notable contribution to the history of language is the many methods used by various linguists and grammarians to improve the syntax of conventional descriptive English. This discussion will be based on literary texts or English corpus examples (Jesperson, Poutsma, and Kruisinga in The Great Tradition). It will also go into detail about the historical development of NP and how those who did so without a descriptive model nevertheless conducted informal and implicit analyses and were naturally perplexed by

larger patterns. An excellent explanation of the sentence structure's steady transition towards a complicated noun phrase has greatly aided in the comprehension of the sentence's internally built (natural in GG) structure. As stated in de Mönnink, 2000, p. 7, Jespersen, part II, 1914, p. 15 states that a phrase is a group of words that together form a sense unit, however they are not necessarily required to exist in direct juxtaposition. A phrase, according to Jesperson (1914), is a collection of words. It is possible to place Quirk et al. (1972) in this great history of elaborating sentences, making them clearer, and providing descriptive analyses. Aarts & Aarts (1982) provide additional explanation of the great tradition by characterizing the noun phrase as "the noun phrase can be represented as a headed phrase in which the determiner (Det.), the premodifier (PreM.), and the postmodifier (PoM.) can have optional function slots" (De Mönnink, 2000, p. 8).

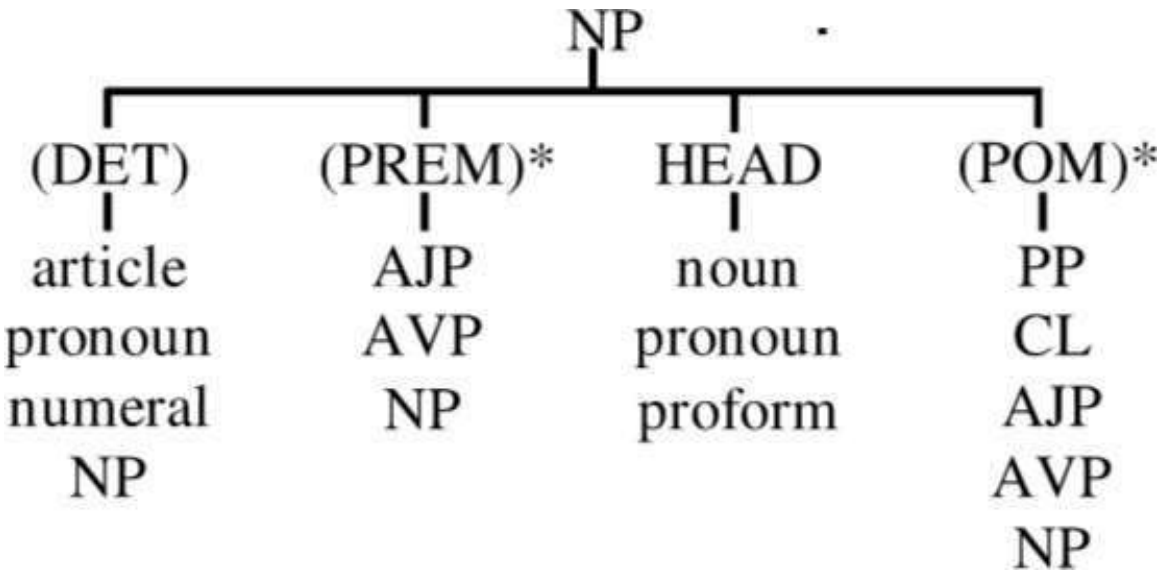


Figure 2.1: Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) - Noun Phrase Structure

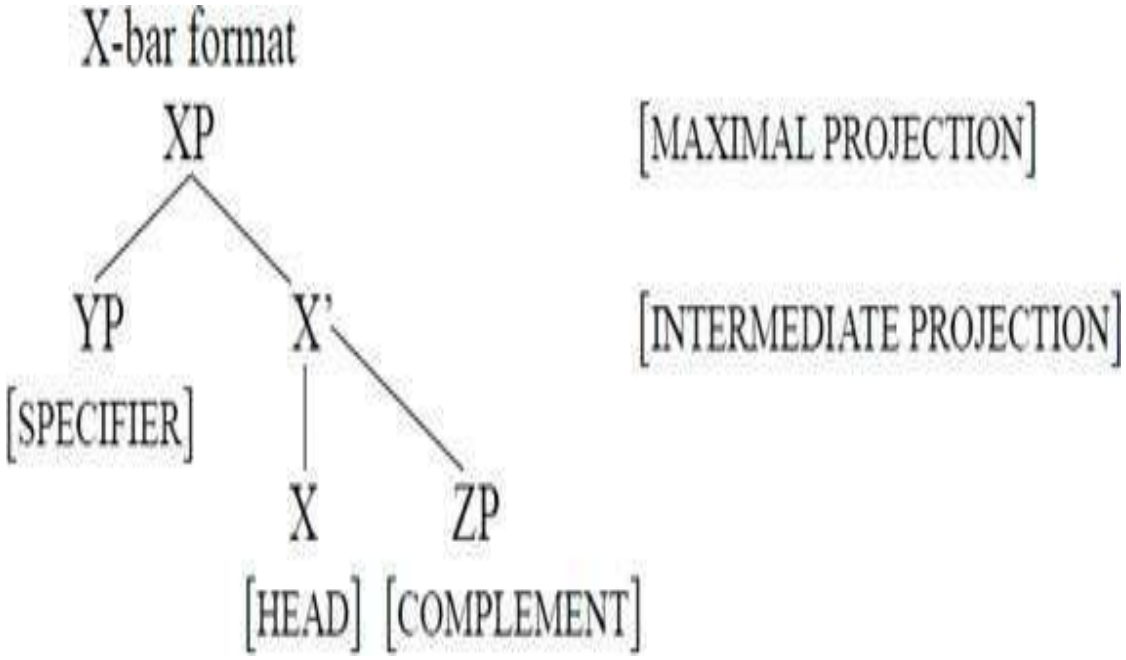
2.2.2 NP from a Structural Grammar Point of View

The substantial part of structural linguistics is an indisputable piece that will not be overlooked in our investigation. Bloomfield (1933), while less focused on syntax, is systematized by his followers Nida (1966) and Fries (1952) in their philosophical approach to meaning: "Class meanings are only nebulous situational characteristics that are undefinable in terms of our research; they are not precisely defined units that may form the foundation of our work" (p. 267). Nonetheless, he supported and identified phrases in his constitutional analysis because he thinks that the syntactic form-classes of words may be used to determine the syntactical form-classes of phrases, and that word classes are the easiest way to explain the form-classes of syntax (p. 196). According to de Mönnink (2000), p. 12, Fries (1952) used a structuralist method to describe syntax (see The Structure of English, 1952). Modifiers in this instance are managed in connection to their head, or nucleus, which can be implemented by a function class or a form class. Fries (1952) analyzes and defines the Noun Phrase as follows at step eight of his ten-step sentence analysis: "Postmodifiers are removed in order, starting with the final one." Word groupings are regarded as full units in respect to modifiers on an equal footing according to the head that they are fastened to (pp. 267–268). Additionally, a detailed explanation of all structuralist analyses through instances and an Direct Constitutional analysis of Nida (1966) from a descriptive perspective will be covered in the chapter.

2.2.3 The Noun Phrase from a Generative Grammar Point of View

Phrase structure and generative grammar detractors contend that these methods are insufficiently descriptive, observational, or explanatory. Through its use on the PE, the current study aims to offer an impartial perspective on this grammar. Accordingly, the study will defend the X-bar theory because, according to generative perspective (XP),

any maximal projection must be enclosed by a head (X). It will also follow a generative framework that is known to undergo multiple incarnations and will concur that the syntactic structure of headedness is endocentric. Finally, syntactic analyses will be conducted using Chomsky's (1995, 2001) IC analysis (parsing).



[The] [girl] [in the classroom]

The phrasal maximum projection in the tree above is represented by XP, where X is the "head" of element XP. ZP can indicate a different phrase (PP, CP) at the Intermediate projection level. X' and YP (nodes) are additional explorations of XP at a lower level (taken from Alexiadou et al., 2007, p. 11). Similarly, a few other parse trees of phrase

will be used in Chapter 4 to provide more explanation in the following source and target varieties of the English language:

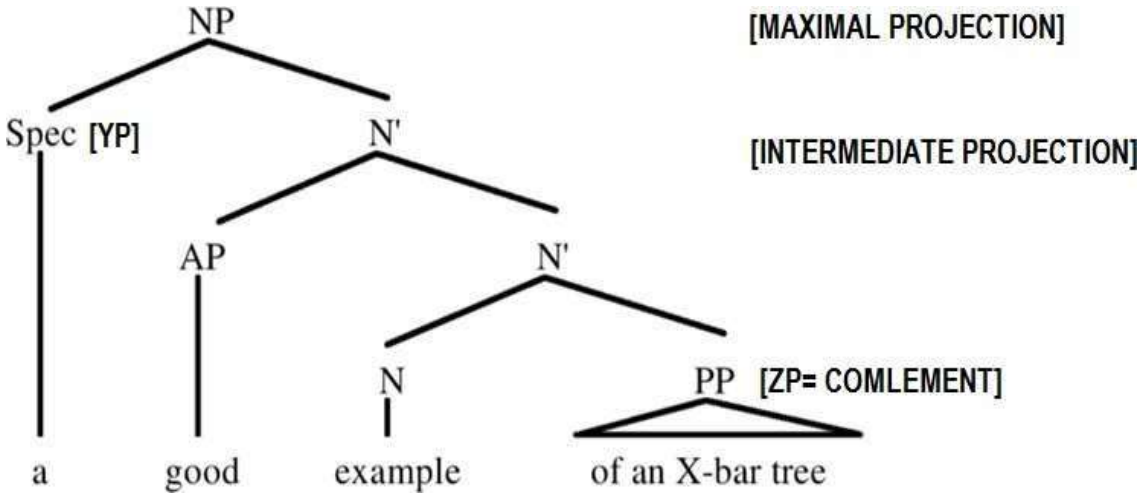


Figure 2.2 NP Structure According to X-bar Theory

2.3 An explanation of the English Noun Phrase (NP)

The English language noun phrase (NP) is discussed in this section as it unfolds in the current descriptive custom in order to provide a general overview of the noun phrase (NP): the archetypal noun phrase structure. This representation of an NP is compatible with the idea that constituents arise from a coherent string of words. Nevertheless, components can migrate and appear in other locations from the ones they often take, even in rigid word order languages like English. Little consideration has been given to the mobility of phrasal elements up to this point. Here, the adaptability of proximate components in the NP in modern British English will be investigated. As a background investigation for a multi-method data management strategy, the examination of constituent

mobility in the NP is helpful in the interim. It is argued that diachronic studies improve significantly when they employ a viewpoint to handle the data. Especially if they combine experimental and corpus data.

2.3.1 Systematic Languages

Within the field of (computational) linguistics, corpus linguistics is a subfield that focuses on the analysis of actual language use using (text) corpora. The ability to handle vast volumes of data has been made feasible by computers and analyze them effectively and consistently in the context of corpus phonetics. This has implications for accepted philosophy and allows linguists to investigate language structure from various angles. Regardless, the corpus, or the collection of data, needs to be preserved in a way that makes it possible for language researchers to efficiently retrieve it. This requires that corpora be stored in an advanced and user-friendly database management system, and that they be readable by computers. Furthermore, linguistic data should be added to the raw data in a way that makes it possible to do a thorough investigation of the data. The linguistic facts should be thoroughly examined and should be connected to the particular ideas.

There are two methods for annotating a corpus: automated and manual. Even when the investigations are conducted using the same descriptive model, a manual inspection has the drawback of being time-consuming and contradictory. Thus, an automated analysis is preferred. A grammar-based parser might be used to automatically analyze the corpus. First, a formal language structure contains the linguists' ideas based on their unique insights and knowledge of language.

In the sense, the syntax serves two purposes. It is the first place where the linguist describes their understanding before it is converted into a parser, and secondly it might be beneficial for corpora examination as well. In actuality, corpus linguistics is only a codified approach to descriptive linguistics.

To determine how much ground the (raw) corpus may cover and how reliable the formal grammar is, it may be automatically analyzed. This allows the linguist's theories to be included into the formal grammar. Several constructs that are not yet included in the description are really present in the corpus. In a cycle of (re)analysis and revision, the grammar can be revisited based on the parsing results until the description is deemed complete. After the corpus is thoroughly examined, a linguistic database is created. Recent advancements in corpus linguistics have made it possible to access corpora that are richly detailed in linguistic information. It is possible to investigate the linguistic data to get understanding of the true application of structures, their frequency, and their locations.

Thus, from the standpoint of descriptive linguistics, using corpora is essential. Indeed, as previously shown, even the more traditional English grammars seldom ever rest on speech accumulations. Clearly, the function that corpora perform now is different from the one that early 20th-century grammarians and linguists played. The manual collection of texts, primarily from literature, that were then used as illustrations of a structure or marvel, characterizes the previous use of corpora. The creation of the Brown Corpus (Kuera and Francis (1967) published Standard Corpus of Present-Day Edited American English)

marked the start of the era of cutting-edge corpus etymology for English in the 1960s. It contains about a million printed words in American English, and it may be accessed both unlabeled and labeled, with each word assigned a code representing a certain "type of word." The equivalent in Britain, LOB (Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen).

About 10 years later, in 1978, Johansson et al. published Corpus of British English. These corpora aim to provide a comprehensive understanding of written English in the United States (BROWN) or the United Kingdom (LOB) as of 1961. They do this by incorporating a wide range of unique text types, such as science fiction, technical writing, news reports, and so on.

Modern corpus linguistics approaches go beyond just building huge, illustrative collections of readable texts; they also incorporate computational methods for archiving, retrieving, and improving corpora as well as promoting language study for a wide range of users. Standardizing the linguistic data that is included as well as the annotations in corpora is also necessary. The use of standardization measures the validity and reliability of linguistic research derived from them. More work is now being done on taggers and parsers for the morpho-syntactic analysis of corpora, and standardization discussions will continue for a few years.

Thus far, two types of novel corpora have been produced by advances in computational linguistics and software engineering. First, relatively small corpora that have been improved by complete linguistic data derived from (present) advances in parsing techniques have become (and are becoming) available. These kinds of corpora include the continuing ICE Corpus, the Nijmegen Corpus, and the TOSCA Corpus. Second, large

corpora that encompass a variety of language types, including oral data, are becoming more widely available. The 100 million words in the British National Corpus, which includes 10 million conversational English idioms, serve as an ideal example. The whole corpus has been labeled, and a small portion has undergone linguistic analysis.

In summary, the last three decades have seen tremendous progress in programming and equipment, which has contributed to the re-foundation of descriptive linguistics the study of language usage based on corpus data. Furthermore, theoretical language experts frequently use corpus data; this use may be expanded to other exploratory domains including lexical studies, sociolinguistics, and speech engineering. Using corpus information may become even more common as corpus linguistics advances since more information is becoming readily available and can be accessed rapidly by a wide range of experts in other domains. In this sense, corpus phonetics supports study in other (linguistic) fields by creating (linguistic) databases.

2.3.2 Word Order Variations

It was said in the preceding part that although the conventional grammars are thoroughly researched and comprehensive, their breadth and the specifics of their explanations are dispersed. Word order variation is one area where traditional descriptions fall short. When the idea of variety is discussed, the representation frequently requires information on its recurrence and the circumstances surrounding it, or it just provides tentative information. Take Kruisinga's observation on a (attributive genitive) modifier to a noun, for example:

When a simple noun referring to measure joins an attributive descriptive word, the attributive group typically comes after the noun (a), although in spoken English, it might

occasionally come before the noun (b).

a. A ditch that is five feet deep.

A three year old kid.

b. A boy, three years old. (Taken from p. 217 of Kruisinga, 1909)

In order to augment and/or explain such representations, the most well-known method is to evaluate them using a syntactically analysed corpus, because occurrences of corpora-found grammatical structures reveal substantially more variability than traditional portrayals encourage us to expect.

Because of this, word order variety studies have mostly focused on continuous sentence-level components. Despite this, the expression's subsequent constituents theoretically have a greater potential for mobility because they can appear outside the expression's bounds at the sentence or clause level in addition to being able to swap positions within it at the phrase level. Accordingly, the term "mobility" refers to shifts in the sentence/statement structure, or to segments of a sentence or clause that arise at odd points in the aforementioned structures (p. 48). Little is now understood regarding the possible movements of phrasal components. The adaptability of the English NP's immediate components is investigated here. An analysis of corpus data that has been syntactically examined will shed light on the type and frequency of potential deviations. Additionally, it conveys the sense of gaps in traditional grammars. Functionally speaking, this study is important for descriptive linguistics in general since its findings will

contribute to the improvement of the clarity and concision of current depictions.

Since formal grammar is supposed to be devoid of ambiguities, the absence of knowledge about constituent mobility in the field of corpus linguistics, and particularly in grammar-based corpus examinations, causes a great deal of complications. Since corpus linguistics examines the entirety of a language in addition to detail and accuracy of study, a formal grammar, which is important for the inquiry, ought to be show every achievable regular structure and all of its variants. The investigations are overly ambiguous as a result of this language. In this way, comprehending the features of constituent mobility, the frequency with which it occurs, and the circumstances that impact it, forms a crucial foundation for improving formal grammar.

2.4 Descriptive Linguistics of English

2.4.1 NP and English Linguistics

The historical account of English syntax has been enriched by the contributions of several grammarians from various orientations, drawn to the descriptive tradition. A phrase has a sophisticated internal structure in addition to being just a collection of words arranged in any order. The portrayal of a noun group or phrase has been crucial. Here, noun phrase is treated as it appears in works, resulting from many linguistic theories that have contributed to the understanding of linguistic structure. The goal of the research is to provide a basic representation of the NP so that it can be used as the basis for the corpus analysis. As a starting point, the way the NP is represented in standard syntax will function.

2.4.2 The Great Tradition's NP

The preceding part covered the grammars of the Great Tradition. The first three are

Jespersen's (1914) ideas. These linguistic studies lack an acceptable distinguishing model for their investigations, even if it may be claimed that they are mostly descriptive. They almost never recognize the larger instances that serve as mediators. Jespersen who applies the word or phrase. A phrase is a collection of words that together form a coherent whole, although they are rarely used in opposition to one another (Jespersen, 1914b, p. 15 as referenced in de Mönnink, 2000).It seems that he rejects the idea of an NP as proposed by Comsky (1957). He divides the words in the phrase into three categories to represent grammar: main words, which are crucial to the sentence; secondary words, which are the principals' modifiers; and tertiary words, which are the adjuncts' modifiers. He uses semantic rather than formal links between elements as a justification for this arrangement. "Syntactic groups" are defined by Kruisinga (1909) as a set of words that together form the structure of a certain sentence fragment (p. 177). The syntactic units include the noun phrase, which has the same role in a sentence as the noun (or substantive). It is composed of the head and the modifier or modifiers. The modifier could stand alone as a unit. His description of the NP is highly intriguing since, unlike post-modifiers, which come after the head, he only names pre-modifiers, or words (or groups) that come before the head.

With the intention of exemplification, Poutsma, Jespersen, and Kruisinga (as reported in de Mönnink, 2000) have amassed an enormous collection of purposefully stored literary allusions, which they employ in their syntax. There was bound to be minimal variation in the structures they discussed since there were so few works. Thus, they emphasize in their descriptions the more continuous linguistic structures and the typically more notable

linguistic quirks. As so, a great deal of information was essentially missed, and hence their hypotheses are deemed incomplete. Furthermore, the portrayals are informal rather than overt since they rely heavily on semantic criteria and lack a compelling engaging paradigm.

It is suggested that, despite the fact that Quirk et al.'s (1972, 1985) syntactic theories might also be aligned with The Great Tradition's sentence forms, that they include a more effective English language record. The sentence's components are also divided into four different categories by Quirk et al. (1972, 1985). First, the word class or word group that a unit belongs to (noun, NP, etc.) defines it. Second, within the linguistic structure, a unit can fulfill a variety of constructional functions (subject, verb, object, and so on). Thirdly, a unit may contain a member-part (such as agentive, beneficiary, and so forth) in the phrase. Finally, units are objects that may be manipulated inside the sentence structure to achieve different kinds of attention-grabbing effects that support the message's overall sequential order (e.g., center, theme, and so on) (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 937). However, the grammar theory does not consistently make use of the four divisions. Units are frequently mentioned in sentences in an arbitrary way based on their function or swear class.

The conventional descriptive framework proposed by Arts and Arts (1982) is essentially the similar as that of Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) in that they describe the sentence's components using categories and capacities. Despite this, their representation is far more realistic. Their approach is specifically characterized by a direct request from constituents and instantaneous constituent research that speaks to a rank-chain of command of representational units. Every component, regardless of level of analysis, can be thought of as a part of a larger structure from a functional standpoint and as something that offers

unique characteristics of its own with various units of the same type (class based classification) (cf. Aarts and Aarts, 1988, p. 10-14).

Aarts and Aarts (1982) provided an explanation of the conventional descriptive model, which was first introduced by Quirk et al. (1972). The non-obligatory functionality gaps are the determiner (DET), the pre-modifier (PREM), and the post-modifier (PREM). On the other hand, the NP may be thought of as a headed collection of words, with the head being the only needed element alteration (POM). There may be one or more pre and/or post modifiers, but the determiner's existence is dependent upon the head's presence. The arrangement resembles that seen in Figure 2.1 (p. 18). It is a description of a surface structure where the elements are represented in the order that they really occur in language use. Regarding its occurrence, the head is often a noun (orderly or proper) or a function word; nevertheless, it can also be realized as a numerical (one person sings), formal it (it sings), the proform (one sings), or a modifier (noun) (John sings/Great John sings). A clause, qualifier phrase, noun phrase, prepositional phrase, and descriptive word phrase can all serve as stand-ins for the modifier function in the NP. Noun, adverbial, and adjectival words frequently come before the head, however they can also take place in the post-modifying point. Conditions and closed-class word phrases follow the head. Usually an article (definite or indeterminate) serves as the determiner, although it may also be achieved using a number, pronoun, or (genitive) NP.

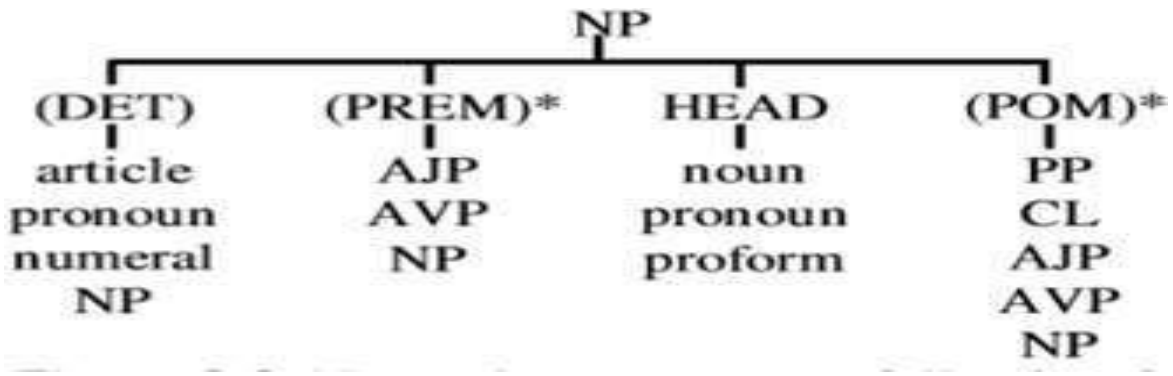


Figure 2.3 Noun Phrase Structure Following Quirk et al. (1972, 1985)

While addressing the NP, Quirk et al. (1972) range the determiners among the pre-modifiers. Like Aarts and Aarts, they do, however, distinguish three determiner sub-groups in another section of their grammar: the pre-determiner, the central decider, and the post-determiner. Sequencing and restrictions are required for this closer examination. At the very least, there will be a pre-, central, or post-determiner if the determiner functionality is put into practice. Fundamentally speaking, however, none of the three sub-items are necessary.

Predeterminer	Central determiner	Postdeterminer
- pronoun: exclamatory, universal, quantifying - numeral: multiplicative, fraction	- article - pronoun: demonstrative, possessive, negative, assertive, non-assertive, relative, interrogative - genitive NP (specifying)	- numeral: ordinal, cardinal - pronoun: quantifying

Table 2.1: Quirk Et al.(1972)

Elements that may function as pre-determiners primarily

precede various determiners whenever they are present.

(1) Each of the children

double this size

a third of the total.

If there is already a central determiner serving that function, the new one cannot exist.

They can occur independently as well as after the pre-determiners and/or before the post-determiners:

(2) Both of her responses those three-minute

his multiple characteristics each of her five fingers

Genitive NP specifications have the same functionality as focal determiners. In the noun phrase, there is a difference between classifying the genitive functioning as a pre-modifier and identifying it as a core determiner, as follows:

(3a) My dad's car

(3b) A father's soul

The categorizing genitive "mother's" functions as a pre-modifier in (3b), but in (3a), "my" is associated with the genitive "father's," and the NP "my dad's" serves as the core determiner in the NP "my dad's car."

When post-determiners are used in a sentence, they come after pre-determiners and focal determiners. There are several instances where they occur in a sentence. For example,

(4) all these three girls the first two weeks

every last month the last few elements

It is now possible to handle complicated determiner combinations like:

(5) *both my two brothers*

twice your past offer

Still, something seems to be missing. For instance:

(6) *how* many men twenty *odd* calendar month

around two days my *own* thinking

not all the children his *every* difficulty

The determiner order is followed or preceded by the elements in (6). They might just show up jointly with various determiners that they seem to change. In her depiction of the NP, Oostdijk (1993 as reported in de Mönnink, 2000, p. 10) addressed this problem by distinguishing a determiner phrase (DTP) that is aware of how the determiner functions inside the NP structure. Five functionality gaps are identified by her inside the determiner phrase: determiner expression post modifier (DTPO), central determiner (DTCE), post-determiner (DTPS), determiner phrase pre-modifier (DTPR), and pre-determiner (DTPE). While none of the DTP's capacities are required to exist, they can all theoretically co-occur. However, in order for the DTPR and DTPO to function, one of the other DTP capabilities must also exist; in the unlikely event that the DTP is identified, it must also include a DTPE, DTCE, or DTPS. Only the DTPS may arise in different ways. The determiner phrase's structure can be further explained as follows:

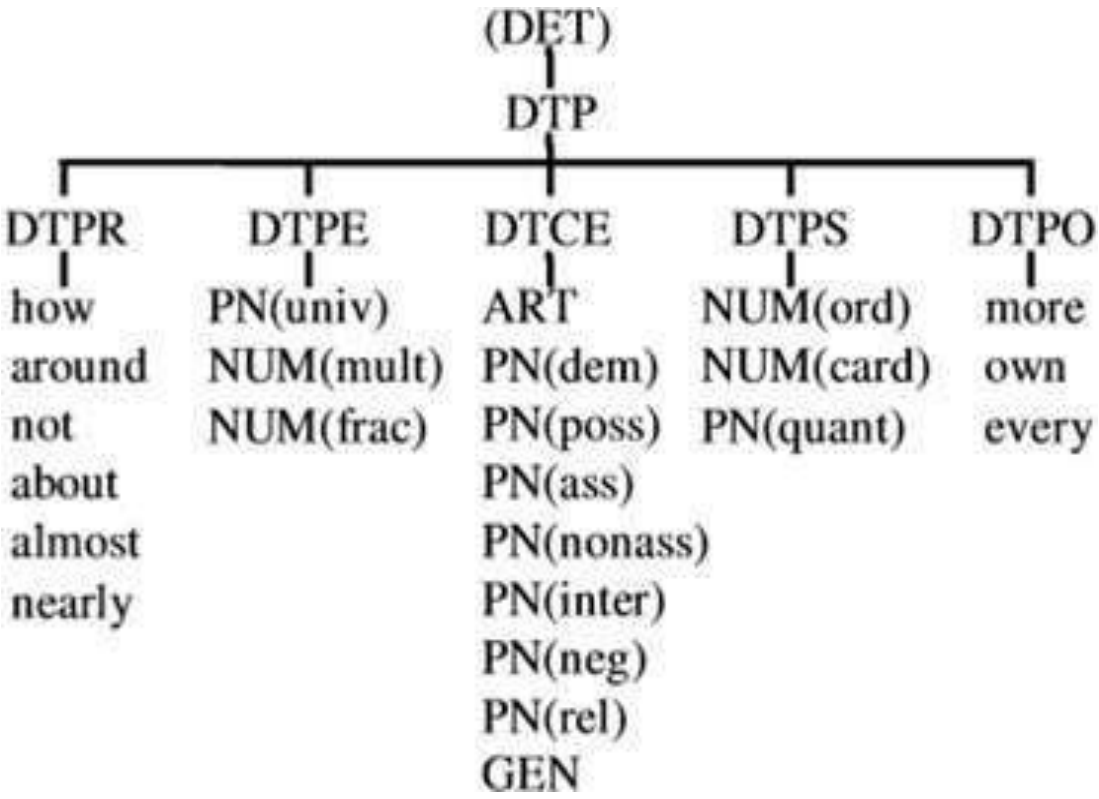


Figure 2.4: Oostdijk's Determiner Phrase Structure (1993)

For a considerable amount of time, descriptive studies have been conducted in English. Following the publication of __The Great Tradition's‘‘ reference works in the beginning 20th century, a period of time came to an end during which prescriptive grammars dominated, but not in the same way as grammarians such as Poutsma (1904–1926), Kruisinga (1909–1922), and Jespersen (1904–1926) who produced A Grammar of Late Modern English.

Diachronic Principles (1909–1949) focused on presenting the essence of the language as it appears in genuine texts with well-formed structures. Despite being used just as

samples, the texts had a significant influence on how the findings were described. With the help of the literature reference, they highlighted certain facts. First off, the content's nature clarifies the introduction to formal, academic language—which constitutes just a small portion of language use in everyday life. There was definitely not much variation in the structure that they saw. Large amounts of material had to be examined in order to have a really thorough representation, and these collections included many different forms of the language, both spoken and written.

In addition, the texts' customarily antiquated tone resulted in representations of rather antiquated use. Thirdly, the papers were not examined by conventional grammarians in a methodical manner. They only included a few uncommon cases that drew their interest in addition to the more typical and fundamental examples and structures. Consequently, several aspects were largely disregarded and their linguistic structures are not fully described. Furthermore, despite the fact that these syntaxes are mostly descriptive, they nevertheless contain prescriptive elements by commenting on perceived correctness. The classic descriptive method is also found in more current grammar textbooks, as it is explained here. These two grammars, A Grammar of Contemporary English (1972) and A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language (1985), by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik, are typically of the type listed above. The English spoken today is represented in these works by the Study of English Usage (SEU) sample. There are several different written and spoken versions of English in the SEU. Every sample in the corpus dates from the 1950s and beyond. The grammars are very different from the ones covered previously in this aspect. Furthermore, these contemporary reference volumes draw on recent discoveries.

The field of linguistic description, such as concepts from information processing and discourse analysis, in addition to the legacy of the earlier grammars.

Despite Quirk et al.'s (1972, 1985) syntaxes include a wide range of English structures and descriptions, their depiction is still insufficient and much is left explicitly in plain sight. Furthermore, the portrayal lacks consistency due to language and the lack of a strict viewpoint. Accordingly, rather than deviating from thispractice, their explanations might be seen as a continuation of The Great Tradition's reference books.

Although The Great Tradition grammars provide complete representations of the language, the lack of specifics regarding the usage of developments—such as the circumstances in which they are employed and the classifications they fall under. In particular, the way that seemingly irregular variants of developments are shown highlights a number of gaps in the syntactic definition. Conventional grammars should be strengthened and made more obvious in direction to enhance representation of the English language even more. This goal can be accomplished by effectively evaluating the traditional representations on carefully selected large-scale collections of texts, or on accurately tested corpora. Such a purposeful examination of conventional representations is now possible and practicable because to advancements in computer engineering, and computational linguistics in particular. Corpus linguistics is a branch of computational linguistics that uses sophisticated computer tools to provide a thorough and intentional representation of language. It may be seen of as a continuation of classical descriptive linguistics. A representation of English shows based on a corpus the basic instances and others that are less prevalent because they only occur in certain situations or within

limited linguistic variants.

Despite these differences from earlier research, Quirk et al.'s (1972, 1985) grammars follow a traditional general technique since the description remains underlying and the portrayal is informal. Most perceptions about the relative frequency of events and the spread of structures are absent; when they do arise, they typically confine themselves to transcendentally impressionistic declarations about what is considered standard procedure in the application of developments and what is deemed appropriate in a particular context. The following is an example of how Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) depict discontinuous modification:

A few descriptive phrases that can be complemented can also act as pre-modifiers. This can be likened to:

This result is distinct from yours. like theirs. Their outcome differs from this one. comparable result to ours.

As discontinuities, the examples listed above are considered to be rather normal, and their status is likely comparable to that of the correlative element in comparison structures. Quirk and associates (1985)

2.4.3 In Structural Grammar, the NP

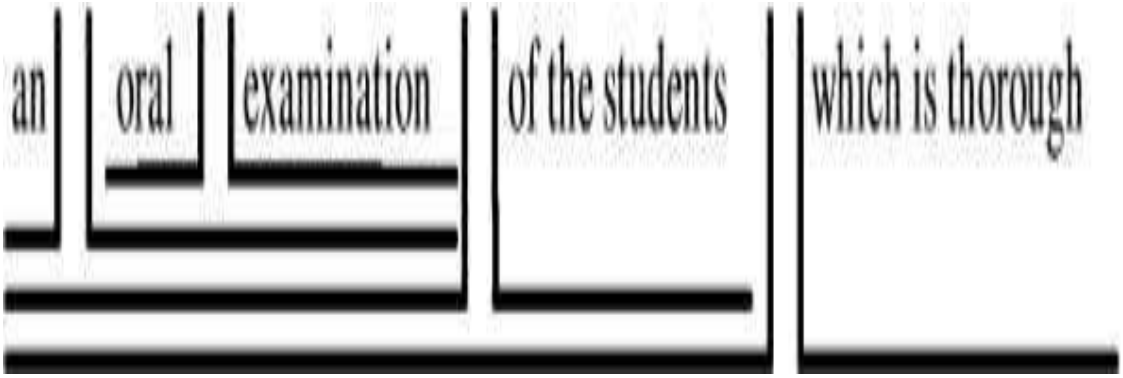
A significant contribution to the advancement of descriptive linguistics has been made by structuralism. More specifically, grammarians have been greatly impacted by Bloomfield's (1933) description of contiguous constituent examination. Although Bloomfield (1933) himself gave his approach to sentence construction considerable

thought, he recommended structures and form classes should be given preference over the use of more philosophical definitions based on importance. This idea was carried out and organized by Post-Bloomfieldians such as Harris (1951), Wells (1947), Fries (1952), and Nida (1966). Bloomfield (1933) advocated for a linguistics that is only accessible through science. It is inappropriate to use meaning to describe the main word classes in such an approach. According to Bloomfield (1933), class implications are just enigmatic situational aspects that cannot be described by our science, rather than simply quantifiable units that may serve as the basis of our work. However, he acknowledged the value of the discourse components in his component study. He said that the form classes of punctuation are most easily represented in terms of word classes, and that in this way, the syntactic structure classes of expressions may be obtained from the syntactic structure classes of words (Bloomfield, 1933).

Fries (1952) and Nida (1966) were two well-known linguists who used structuralist methods to illustrate the English language structure. He disapproves of the outdated discourse components. As a replacement for, he describes fifteen functionality function types and four primary structure categories, taking into account formal requirements such word ends or co-existence with functionality grammatical terms, as well as substitution in "at least free utterances." Furthermore, he rejects conventional notions of importance for functional interactions, such as modification. According to him, modifiers are handled in relation to their nucleus, which might be represented by a functionality function class or one of the structure classes. He claims that the way the traditional examination starts from the undifferentiated full meaning of a language is where his technique of study differs from the more recognized methodology of linguistic investigation.

A phrase and raises the matter, such as Which terms relate to which aspects of this meaning? Despite this, the examination starts with a representation of the formal components that are available and the structures that make them pertinent before moving on to the examination's primary relevance.

According to Fries (1952), the following words (Class 1 words) can be employed as noun modifiers: ing participles, nouns, adjectives of description, and verb modifiers. Following the noun, there might be provisions (functional statement of Group J with a phrase) and prepositional phrases (Group F's capabilities expressed using a Class 1 term). Step 8, which addresses the study of NP, provides an explanation of the NP research in Fries' (1952) ten-step analysis of English sentences. After the head is cut off, the modifiers are first removed, starting with the last one. In regard to the head to which they are related, word phrases that serve as modifiers are treated as whole units (1952, p. 267–8). The words that come before the head are then removed, starting with the one that is farthest from the head. The following might be used to illustrate the study of the term "a thorough oral examinationof the students" (Fries, 1952, p. 266):



In contrast, Nida (1966) describes English structures using a stringent contiguous constituent inspection. Despite the fact that his description is not meant to be exhaustive, he covers a sizable number of different sentence types. His objective was to prove that quick component analysis is a suitable option. He leaves the phrase as a whole, moving dividing each decisive ingredient into two immediate structures before moving lower to the constituents.

In the concept of NP structure, it identifies five functionality spaces: the post-posed attributive, determiner, post-determiner, head, and pre-determined. The pre-determiner arrives before the determiner in order to modify the head (almost a half quart), the post-determiner (a big enormous house), or everything from the determiner to the head (such a little location). Their implementation differs from that of the pre-determiners discussed in the preceding section (see to Section 2.4.2), as does their usefulness when compared to determiner phrase pre-modifiers. Instead of changing the pre-modifier and/or head of the NP, a determiner group pre-modifies simply one of the alternative determiners. As may be seen in Figure 2.1 (p. 18), Nida's (1966) pre-determiner does not frame some of the determiner phrase addressed. Instead, it seems to be an immediate component of the NP. Nida's (1966) pre-determiner is similar to Stageberg's (1965) restricter, Fries (1972), and

Oostdijk (1993) limiter in many ways. A limiter will be included in this overall representation of the NP as a distinct functionality slot in the NP structure, as explained in the section The NP Structure). With the exception of Nida's (1966) final concept, which places an Adj P before the determiner, the limiter may only be expressed by an adverb phrase. Moreover, the limiter is the whole structure following NP as its extension; in this sense, it also forbids Nida's (1966) second example, which is seen in Figure 2.5 below. The two structures that have been set aside will be further explored in the part titled Variant Noun Phrases, while the operation of the limiter will be further explored in this chapter in the section titled The Limiter.

The phrase "quite a large house to paint" might be represented as in Figure 2.5 below, drawing inspiration from Nida's (1966) research. An arrow represents an endocentric, inferior link with the bolt pointing in the direction of the head. A cross on a line denotes an exocentric relationship.

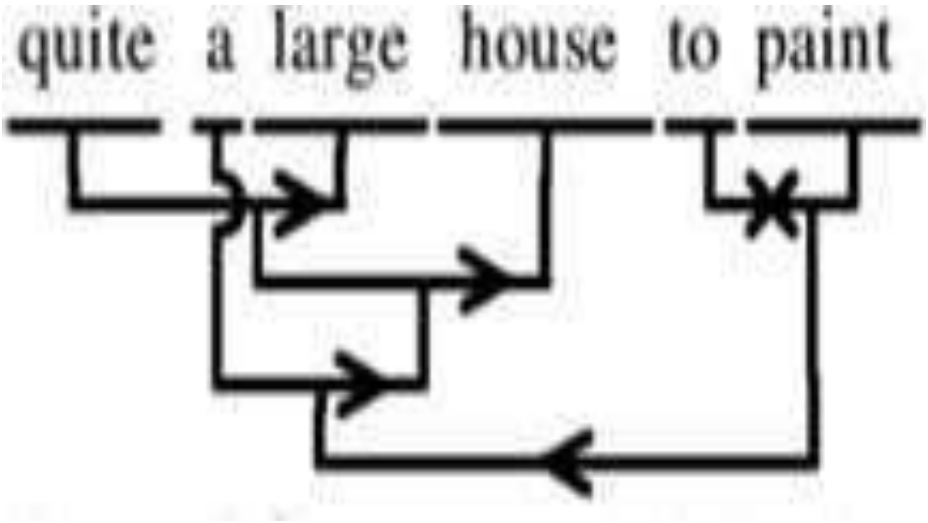


Figure 2.5 NP Analysis Following Nida (1966)

But Stageberg (1965) also makes use of a two-pronged constituent analysis. He has dedicated himself to accurately portraying grammar by classifying words into three categories, or word phrases: structure, location, and utility. A word may, for example, be a modifier by functionality, an adjectival by location, and a descriptive word by structure. According to him, a noun and any word or phrase that fits with the noun and the group around it make up an NP. Alternate words and word groupings are modifiers of the N, which is referred to as the headword or head itself (Stageberg, 1965, p. 163). Accordingly, Bloomfield (1933) and the Post-Bloomfieldians have created history in descriptive linguistics with their efforts to give semantics a logical control. From then on, representations have to be clear-cut, trustworthy, and based on observable facts.

2.5 Generative Grammar and the NP

The examination of the NP's internal structure has not been a standalone topic of research in generative language structure; rather, it has mostly supported the more comprehensive discussion of syntactic theory. Every maximum projection (XP) in the X-bar hypothesis requires a head (X). Modifiers and determiners of the NP are included either via adjunction—which occurs when external arguments are taken into account—or by adding a specifier and supplement position to the primary structure. Specifiers and adjunction are not required. The principles for sub-categorization govern supplements. In the D(deep)-structure of English, outward structures (predicative descriptors, for example) are shifted to the left, and interior structures (sub-categorised PPs, for example) are predicted to the right side of the head. The order of the elements might alter according on the requirements for mobility. An example of an NP investigation in the generative system is shown in Figure 2.6.

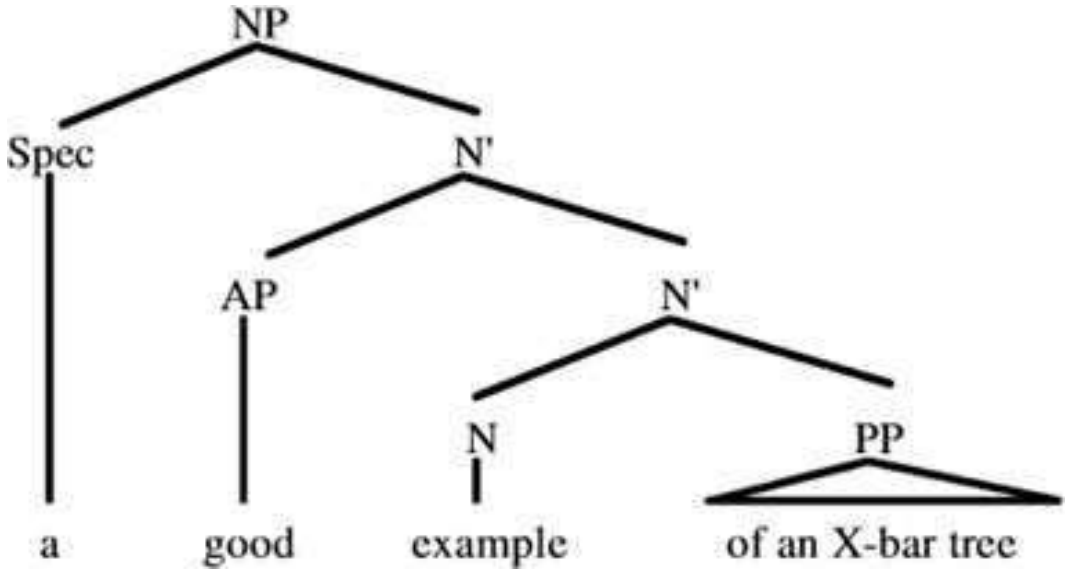


Figure 2.6 NP Structure According to X-bar Theory

Based on Case Theory, the structure of the NP is considered as a reflection of determiners of function selecting a completely lexical NP supplement, bringing about the next advanced construction:

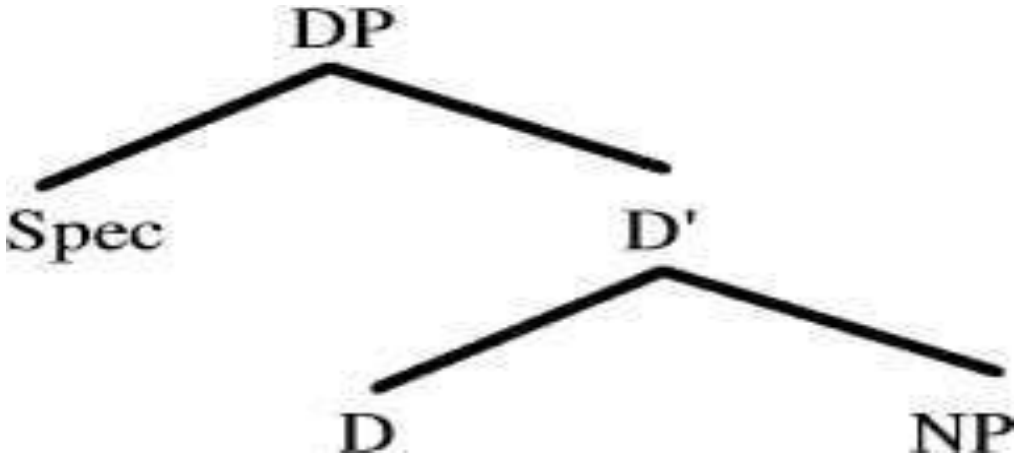


Figure 2.7 DP Structure

In addition to increasing the likelihood that genitive NPs will be given cases, this structure provides the ability to control the appropriation of exposed NPs (in the absence of a determiner) and to enlarge the determiner phrase's internal structure.

2.6 The New Approaches to Descriptive Linguistics and the NP

Over the course of the previous thirty years, the structure of Generative Grammar has undergone significant evolution, and in its various forms, it remains one of the most important approaches to linguistics. It has sparked a number of approaches, of which only Functional Grammar (FG), which will be discussed here, ignores the great bulk of the transformational-generative tradition's tenets. Among the most recent approaches, FG stands out as it emphasizes the use of language for communication. In this sense, it provides a different approach to handling an analysis of the components' mobility within the NP. In contrast to formal perspective approaches, which see language as a theoretical, formal object, FG views language as a tool for fostering social connections between speakers and as a component of a speaker's communicative ability. Giving the principles and guidelines that form the basis of the linguistic structure is inadequate in FG; these guidelines must be clarified by their application to language usage. From a practical standpoint, there is nothing like independent syntax. The more comprehensive field of pragmatics should include an examination of both the syntactic and semantic domains.

Modifiers in FG depend on a variety of syntactic connections based on the informative role they preserve. The NP structure is produced and examined as follows, using Dik's (1989) description:

(Wxi:F1(xi):F2(xi):...:Fn(xi))

In this instance, W denotes one or more term operators. These are parts having useful functionality. These contrasts include, among other things, definite (d) against in-definite

(i), particular (p) versus generic (n), local (prox) versus distant (rem), and number pointing devices.

The intended referent is represented by the variable xi. Every F(xi) talks of a limiting modifier and is a prediction open in xi. They serve as meaning-limiting components in the NP, reducing the range of possible referent arrangements for the structure. Modifiers that are not restrictive are not included in this description.

(1) The two intelligent young ladies in the back of the room with the blue eyes are my cousins.

(2) If xj = eyeN(xj) + blueA (xj)}, then (d rem 2 xi: ladyN(xi): youthfulA(xi): sparklingA(xi))Part I: Preliminary (xi): standV(xi)Ag (d1xk: placeN(xk): {d1xl: placeN(xl)) poss}(xk))Loc}])

NP in (07) may now be displayed as the subject in (08). The determiner those is contained in the mixture of the operators "d rem 2." Furthermore, 2 is indicated by the number 2 and recognizes the plural form of young woman. Young and intelligent are the two descriptors that restrict the content. The young women are said to have eyes in the other two predictions with the blue property and are still in the center area, which is a property of location.

Constituent ordering rules govern the order of the components. These rules are divided into two categories: general rules, which reflect the typology of requests made by all natural languages, and specific principles, which show the actual components of requests made by specific languages.

2.7 Examining the Various Points of View

Conventional syntactic theories' representation of NP is an example of the slot-and-filler system, as defined by Gleason (1965). Sentences are initially categorized using this methodological technique into their main parts, which are the subject, verb, and item. These elements are expressed through phrases or expressions rather than being specific single words, which consequently beg for more research. This process is repeated repeatedly until a thorough examination of single words is initiated. An NP is thought to have different spaces or places, and specific correct fillers may be needed for each of those gaps or locations. There are no restrictions on the number of immediate components that can be used in the space and fill process. An further frequently employed method for segmenting phrases into their constituent parts is the binary-branching technique. In addition to the generative system, structuralists also employ this tactic. This approach divides advancements at each stage of the analysis into two segments until highly resolved units are achieved.

This is a crucial difference between the generative methodology and the conventional and structuralist perspectives: transformational theories have two levels of representation for structural definition, whereas the former only have one level a single Phrase-marker or P-Marker.

An inferred P-marker that represents the surface constituent structure and a collection of fundamental P markers that stand for the phrase structure principles. A transformational segment that can reliably and efficiently communicate the connections between phrases handles deriving from the hidden strings.

Both the binary-branching technique and the slot-and-filler approach are amenable to reasonable and consistent methods for dividing innovations into their continuous components. In light of their placement, structuralists have tried to give immediate portions a formal significance. The two most prominent methods were expansion (Wells, 1947) and replacement (see Harris, 1951 and Fries, 1952). According to the replacement approach, a complex structure is one instantaneous constituent (IC) if it may be substituted with a simpler sequence. A succession is broken down into events that result in the ICs for that group. A structure is considered an extension of B if two structures, A and B, may exist in the same environment, A has at least as many morphemes as B, and A differs syntactically from B. For example, "the ruler of England" may be a stand-in for John in the line "the ruler of England opened parliament," and as such, it would be an IC. Since the twofold spreading technique is more rigorously dichotomous, it will often go through a few more steps even if the binary-branching method and the slot-and-filler procedure may result in the identical partitions into parts. The distinctions are not necessarily more significant even if they might not be as intricate as they would be with the space and filler approach. In its process, the gap-and-filler approach applies layering only when the information indicates that it is necessary. Notwithstanding these differences, both approaches start from the premise that common language phrase structures are suitable for a representation in terms of immediate components (ICs) are their starting point, whereas the majority of the structure is made out of the linguistic usage principles:

$$X \rightarrow Y$$

If Y is a collection of components possibly in the wrong order and X is a single component.

This is also referred to as a linguistic structural phrase structure model.

2.8 The Structure of NPs

Taking into account the many depictions discussed in the previous section, this will mostly focus on the fundamental description of the NP. As was previously observed, the description provided by the immediate components is the basis for all techniques. On a few occasions, the adequacy of IC research for the representation of language structure has been discussed. Chomsky (1957), who proved to declare instantaneous constituent analysis and even established free rewriting criteria for phrase structure and language structure, was the first to describe severe IC study of language composition. Transformational grammar (TG) is a more sophisticated formalism of language structure that he proposed. In TG, the surface structure of a sentence is determined by a set of transformational rules that may be required or optional, while the sentence's deep structure is represented by the principles of phrase structure. As suggested by Postal (1967), one advantage of this technique over IC research is its ability to handle non-continuous components. Studying constituents heavily relies on word order. A description of non-continuity is required at each point when non-contiguous components seem to frame one proximate element. Broken structures are often taken into consideration by structural linguists, however phrase structure is not able to identify them.

Grammar guidelines, one of the most notable advantages of TG, according to Postal (1967), is the therapy of brokenness. According to Postal (1967), one benefit of TG is

that it offers a simple way to formalize the concept of discontinuous component. The majority of the time, permutation transformations in TG result in discontinuities. That is, if a sentence comprises a sequence DAE and D and E are discontinuous constituents of some higher order constituent B, then there exists a P-marker for a phrase in which D and E are continuous constituents of B.(p. 67 as cited in de Mönnink, 2000, pages 17–18) Then then, transformational grammatical rules have never really addressed the problem posed by the representation of discontinuous parts. Furthermore, Harman (1963, 1966) demonstrated that non-adjacency may also be formalized in a non-transformational manner. Undoubtedly, a number of IC techniques attempted to address the irregularity issue, but they were unable to formalize it. According to Fries (1972), there is an irregularity in the noun phrase. This is due to the possibility of permuting different elements of an intricate filler of a loose knit modifier to different places inside the noun phrase. The sentence "a dangerous crime to indulge in" would be assessed as having the adjective phrase "dangerous to indulge in" within the Loose Knit Modifier with to indulge in moving to a position after the filler of the Head tagmeme of the Noun Phrase. According to de Mönnink (2000), page 18, there is no reason to reject the surface structure perspective in favor of the transformational structure (also known as the D-structure) viewpoint. Additionally, the Minimalist hypothesis's most recent development in the generative system, D-structure, has been dismissed as an alternative representational level (Chomsky, 1995). This is due, in part, to evidence that movement modifications may be supported without resorting to a D-structure level of representation. Only functional grammar can permit an explanation of movement in terms of order rules that have nothing to do with syntactic rules, either directly or indirectly. FG may establish

a suitable starting point for the overall detail as the flow of components may very well be clarified by discourse standards about the presentation of information or processing principles regarding the interpretation of a sentence. Regretfully, there is still a lot of work to be done on the FG descriptive model. The present research do not include the goal of expanding the model. Next, a surface structure viewpoint with respect to a formal view will provide the integral description. The description that was the most thorough was the one covered by Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) in the section on noun phrase descriptions. As a result of all of this, the general and thorough description will begin with their NP account.

Every class in the NP's structure may be assigned a shared functionality. Adverbs and non-plural pronouns (NPs) operate as pre-modifiers in this example descriptive word, but prepositional phrases and clauses have the postmodifier position. In relation to Quirk et al.'s (1972, 1985) NP depiction, as shown in Figure 2.8 below (a further elaboration of Figure 2.7), and after expanding the functionality limiter (LIM), this is the result of the following prototypical NP structure:

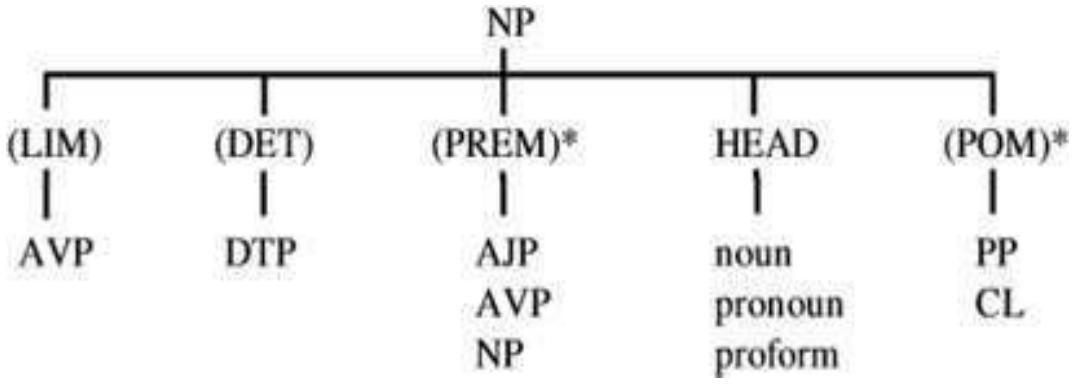


Figure 2.8 Prototypical NP Structure

Other realizations of this fundamental NP structure are feasible, but are believed to reflect only minor adjustments (Quirk et al., 1972). The structure (the existence of a certain class or even lexical element), contextual constraints (such the internal organization of a modifier), or a mix of the two might account for these discrepancies. For example, an AdjP often appears as a postmodifier when the head of the NP is a (non-) assertive or negative pro-noun (ex. 9); when the descriptive word is one of a few particular things that can occur in both pre- and post-modifying positions based on their uncovered structure (ex. 10); and/or when the modifier phrase adds a postmodifier to the descriptive word phrase head (exs. 11–12).

(9) A well-known individual

(10) The relevant and reachable aspects

(11) Circumstantial circumstances

(12) enough cash to buy the apartment

2.8.1 The Boundary

The limiter in the NP's structure is an AdvP. Only a qualifier or an adverb modified by not makes up the AdvP:

(13) Just these females not simply my emotions, especially those of my mother, nor even the wealthy subjects

The limiter is crystallized by an AdvP and goes before several determiners, much like the determiner phrase premodifier (DPPm) (see section The NP in The Great Tradition). Furthermore, a limiter and a DPPm cannot occur simultaneously. Their differing syntactic and prosodic traits shed light on why they are regarded as two distinct abilities. A DPPm may only take a space if the DTP's pre-determiner, central determiner, or post-determiner gaps are also taken, as seen in example ex. 14. As illustrated in example 15, a limiter can exist even in the absence of DTP when the determiner space in the NP is not filled. The DPPm places importance on the limiter while directing attention to the next element. Pre-, central-, or post-determiners that coexist with the determiner phrase premodifier are simply modified by it. As seen in example 16, the limiter restricts the referent of the remaining noun phrase.

(14) Not every person at three months

(15) basically little child shit, hardly nobody

(16) Unfortunately, there is a little local problem.

2.8.2 The Determiner

In the previous part, the acknowledgement of the determiner functionality was previously covered. The determiner's functioning is unique to the NP. The potential states of the determiner functionality make form a closed set of constituents. Articles are important for this since they serve no purpose other than supporting the noun they come before, but other elements in the set, like pronouns, can also occur independently and/or fulfill other

functions in the sentence, condition, or phrase (like intensifiers). The determiner and the phrase's noun head cannot occur simultaneously on every occasion. There may be restrictions on their ability to coexist. For example, a plural object, a formal person, place, or thing, or a pronoun cannot coexist with an indefinite article. Similar to this, some head occurrences such individual items like books, shirts, trees, and so on— cannot exist without a determiner. While distinct head occurrences—such as proper nouns, places, or things can never coexist with a determiner (unless they have non- specific reference). Stated differently, the determiner's appearance and optionality are largely dependent on the occurrence of the head.

2.8.3 The Head, or Core

The most noticeable component of the NP is the head, also known as the nucleus. If the noun doesn't require a determiner, it can replace the entire sentence. A common or proper noun often represents the head, although other possibilities include a pronoun, a numeral, a formal noun, the preform noun, or a descriptive word that is sometimes referred to as a nominal adjective (NomAdj.). Usually, a definite article comes before the NomAdj word:

(17) the poor the depressed

2.8.4 The Adjuster (Modifier)

A subclass of the class that the NP leader intended can be created via modifiers. These modifiers are referred to as limiting or separating modifiers. Modifiers also serve the purpose of illustrating the referent of the NP in relation to a certain attribute. We refer to these modifiers as descriptive modifiers:

(18) a cute (descriptive) girl

A man from Russia (classifying)

Changes might be positioned either forward of or behind the head. Pre-modifiers are the first, while post-modifiers are the second.

(a) The pre-modifier; the AdjP and the NP (as well as the categorizing genitive NP) are perhaps the pre-modifier's most well-known appearances:

(19) an unusually cold day

Adj P can also be applied to certain really unexpectedly gorgeous paintings,

a white building,

an extremely cold man,

a lawyer's degree,

and ing and ed participles:

(20) a fairly recent blossom

a floating automobile

a truly guided topic

a quickly whirling sphere

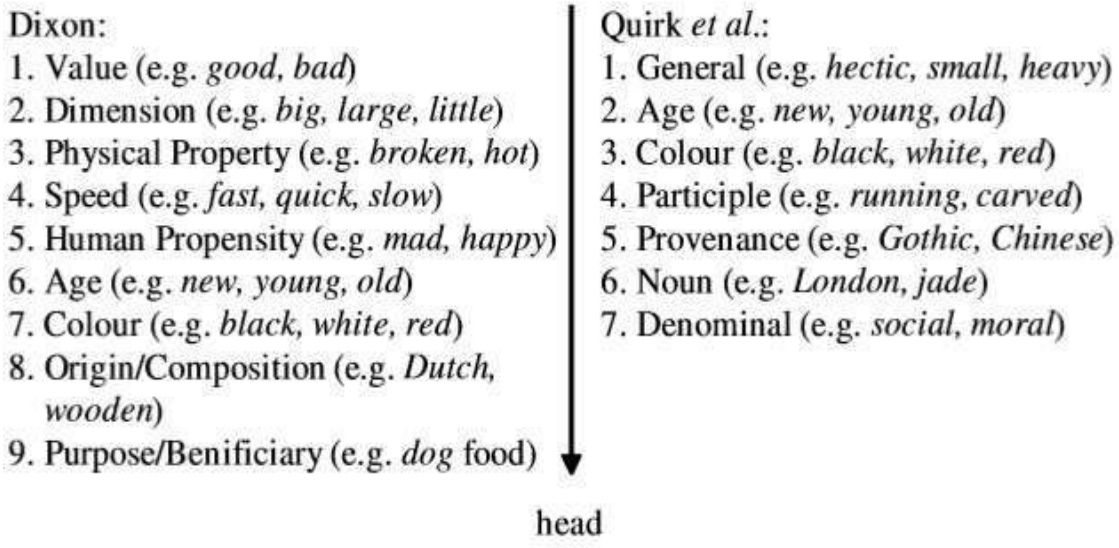
The AdvP is also considered a pre-modifier by almost all linguists. Only a certain category of adverbs may be found in a pre-modifying position (unless the NP's head is an adjective):

(21) the preceding statement the *very small*

the formal president the severely harmed

A seemingly endless stream of evocative terms and/or objects may be used. However, there is some restriction on the order in which pre-modifiers appear. Since the semantics and syntax of the individual pieces affect relative order. Research has focused a great deal of attention on this subject. The subject matter of all the investigations is the same. The basic guideline, according to Hetzron (cited in de Mönnink, 2000, p. 21), is to position the more objective and irrefutable qualities closer to the noun and the more subjective and opinion-like parts farther away (Hetzron, 1978, p. 178).

It follows that nouns are closer to the brain than modifiers and that descriptive adj will arrive before categorizing adj in practical terms. By referring to semantic categories alone (Dixon, as noted in de Mönnink, 2000) or semantic and syntactic categories (Quirk et al., 1972), one may determine the pre-modifiers' relative order in the NP even more:



2.8.5 The Modifier After

One postmodifier space is found in the archetypal NP structure. A condition or a prepositional phrase can be used to fill this gap. The possessive structures in the prepositional phrase are as follows:

(22)the young child with tool

the individuals on the aircraft

A pleasant day *in September*

One may categorize the clauses into two types: finite and non-finite. The finite-clauses category includes defined relative clauses (ex. 23), non-defining relative clauses (ex. 24), and appositive (or subordinate) clauses (ex. 25). When relative pronouns (or qualifiers) don't function as the clause's subject, they can be removed and still present DRC.

(23) The child who was sitting near the table

the woman (who(m)/that) I met last month

(24) This is Omar, who(m) I presented to you last weak

He met his dad, whom he last saw over a week ago.

(25) the belief that he would demonstrate

The ball in the crowd that he struck out of nowhere

Infinitive clauses (ex. 28), ing participle clauses (ex. 26), and -ed participle clauses (ex. 27) fall within the group of non-finite clauses. These prerequisites may or may not be defining.

(26) a child residing with his parents

the child, hopping up and down on one leg

(27) the wonders shown

the phone center, bustling with customers

(28) the location

his suggestion that he go sit with her

Classes may coexist in the location after modification. The only basic rule of syntactic organization that has been consistently discovered is that the post-modifier that is fundamentally the most difficult comes after the one that is less perplexing; that is, post-modifying phrases come before post-modifying sentences.

(29) the young woman [with the crimson hair] [strolling down the road] [calling out to Ali]

2.8.6 Harmony

It is a specific syntactic construction used to combine several language elements. NPs, for example, can be created at the sentence level (see example 30). Coordination in the NP's structure often refers to two adjacent components that appear by the same class and have the same purpose (ex. 31). Furthermore, one component of the coordination can be created by combining two or more capabilities (ex. 32). The two coordinated parts can occasionally be uneven due to their differing capabilities and/or classifications (see example 33).

(30) *Aslam* and Akram went to the playing.

they saw two tigers and some goats.

(31) Three or four really cozy seats This destitute and irate child.

A distinct clarity and strength

concerns regarding Imran's safety and regarding his wellbeing.

(32) an outdated or unappealing recipe

Her passionate youth mixed with cunning makes her the protagonist and your hero in the movie.

(33) an unanticipated chance or coincidence

the courage or astuteness to go somewhere risky

a thief or group of snatchers who run the risk of getting caught

Coordination is usually used to evaluate the hundred

Polish detectives and their families who immigrated

to the United States.

A string of words is considered to represent a linguistic element if it can be coordinated with a plausible string. The examples shown in instances (32) and (33) show that this test typically deviates from the study's default structure.

2.8.7 Opposition

Two methods have been discussed thus far for assembling NPs. First, an NP can function as a head modifier within another NP. Secondly, cooperation between two NPs is possible. In the first case, an NP is inserted into a higher order noun phrase; in the later case, there is coordination (the two NPs appear at the same level in the sentence/clause/phrase structure). Apposition is a further instance of NP coordination that has not yet been discussed (see ex. 34). When two NPs occur in opposition, their references are indistinguishable that is, they are related to the same thing or individual. An appositive NP is regarded as one part inside the sentence, clause, or phrase's structure that possesses a single feature. Any inner structure, including post-modification, is possible for NPs in apposition (as seen in example 35). However, as seen in example 36, two juxtaposed NPs can also share a post-modifier.

(34), and his sister Aliya responded to this in a timely manner.

The narrative of Aliya, her spouse, may be told to him.

(35) A young man named Sam from an Investigation Station was one of the new young guys. They silently wandered through the park, a magnificent, heavily fortified area that had been successfully overtaken by the scents of the evening.

(36) The only female at Hamid's was Aliya, and she was incredibly observant and

intelligent.

Ali Kamran, her cousin, seemed like a good fit to succeed her.

2.9 Differential Noun Phrases

A large number of NPs that are seen in everyday language use may be justified by the default representation of the NP discussed in the preceding section. However, when the literature looks at how often NPs appear in a corpus, it discovers differences that Traditional Grammars' surface structure representation is unable to fully reflect. These findings raise problems for theories that rely on general movement or situation principles, such as Functional Grammar and Transformational Grammar. Itemized data regarding the method of such different NPs is needed, with the ultimate objective being the functionality to include these NPs in the existing portrayals. Every little divergence from the standard NP structure (refer to Figure 1.6) in this study is interpreted as a variant of NPs. When additional elements are added to the NP, such as an emphasiser, the default structure becomes more varied.

(37) I, personally

The people in general

Nonetheless, the movement of the NP's proximal elements can explain a greater portion of aberrant NPs. Such an NP ingredient can, in theory, travel in two bearings. A component may, in any event, hop out to the left of its default location. The phrase fronted will demonstrate this kind of movement. Second, a component may show up to the right of where it normally appears. The word postponed will serve as an example of this kind of adaptability. A constituent is said to as floating if it occurs at a position that is outside the boundaries of its upper constituent (either fronted or delayed). In the unlikely

event that a phrase has one or more floating immediate components, it is said to be discontinuous, meaning that not all of its constituents are close to one another.

As a result, an NP constituent's default position is often expressed in reference to the position it occupies in regard to the NP head. The NP head, or nucleus, is preceded by a post-modifier and a pre-modifier. Similarly, the way the elements move may be understood in terms of how they relate to the head. Saying that a fronted element always appears before the NP nucleus while a deferred constituent always comes before it is one method to better explain the ideas of fronted and delayed. Because of this, the modifier-determiner-head configuration though it may have alternatively been interpreted as a postponed determiner clearly represents a change from the fronted case.

There are two outcomes from the potential mobility of phrase elements in the NP structure. First, the contiguous NP parts that are not the head may occur at various locations inside the NP or they may occur beyond its boundaries. Second, the phrase's adjacent components that modify the NP may migrate in response to certain stimuli, resulting in an erratic NP modifier that can occur either within outside the NP bounds. If the default NP structure is used as a starting point, it can theoretically cover the deviated NPs with an irregular modifier, an intermittent determiner, a coasting deferred limiter, a floating deferred or advanced modifier, and/or a skimming delayed or fronted determiner. A significant percentage of these deviating NPs may be found in the corpus. They may be grouped using the nine types that are included:

NP-A: Non-final position points with a delayed attachment include: an AdvP (AVP, instances 38–39), an NP (exs. 40–41), or a variable descriptive word phrase (AJP,

examples 9 and 12) following the head in a post-modifying position;

(38) The area underneath

(39) The reason behind

(40) A woman of her age

(41) The publication this afternoon

NP-B: Negative positive statements with a postponed modifier that skims the sentence or statement; a modifying clause or phrase follows the head of the sentence and falls beyond the NP's bounds.

(42) A report has been released stating that the dishonesty rate is low.

(43) She sent a message to her boyfriend asking him to add her back.

(44) She thinks he has no way, she believes, of recovering it.

NP-C: NPs with a advanced modifier: a modifying statement appears in pre-modifying position ahead of the NP nucleus;

(45) A self-made millionaire

(46) An unwelcome visitor

(47), the keyboard's Copy/Paste sign

or a modifying AdjP before to the determiner; for example, (48)... even if I wish I had done a more cooperative one.

49) Today is too clear to visit the Lahore Fort.

(50) I have never previously taken something so lightly.

NP-D: Non-plural noun phrases with an irregular modifier: the consecutive parts of a morphing descriptor phrase do not occur consecutively. There are four different ways to identify an intermittent AJP: (a) the AJP (premodifier plus head) comes before the NP leader (but takes after the determiner, if it is there) and the AJP postmodifier comes after the NP leader; for example

(51) Even in the Renaissance, Sophocles was not an easy playwright to comprehend.

(52) This recurrence was far more complicated than usual.

(b) The AJP postmodifier comes after the NP leader, but the (premodifier and) leader of the AJP come before the determiner and head of the noun phrase; for example,

(53) But, staying on the touch line as long as he did (assuming the figure wasn't too odd to enthrall) required him to foresee what the overall chaos would throw at him.

(54) The appearance suggests that the 40S particles protrude into the cell sap when the 60S ribosome segments bind to the membrane in this way.

(c) the AJP pre-modifier comes before the determiner, and the AJP nucleus comes after

the determiner (but before the NP nucleus); for example,

(55) Shamas's sense of smell is a little exceptional.

(56) It is evident that organisms with a high content of mitochondria and chloroplasts.

(d) the AJP postmodifier comes after the NP leader, the AJP head comes after the determiner, but the AJP premodifier comes before the determiner; for example,

(57) The small boy (AJP pre-modifier) in the park (AJP post-modifier) spoke loudly (AJP head following the determiner).

The postmodifier of a non-contiguous AJP might occur beyond the bounds of the NP, as opposed to pursuing the head as postmodifier of the NP contiguously; for example,

Additionally, Jamshaid Iqbal was in excellent shape and conversed therapeutically.

(59) Goodness, I believe that a guy is definitely capable of slashing the neck of another provided he had the necessary viciousness to open his own.

NP-E: NPs with a postponed determiner, where the determiner follows the head and is adjacent to different constituents in the NP; for example,

(60) The book on the shelf the author recommended.

In this instance, "the" is the determiner that follows the head "book" and is adjacent to the prepositional phrase "on the shelf."

(61) How are the two of you?

NP-F: Noun phrases with a floating delayed determiner, meaning that the determiner

comes after the head and occurs outside the boundaries of the NP.

(62) They were both ridiculously wealthy.

(63) All of this is quite lovely.

NP-G: NPs having an irregular determiner: (a) the contiguous constituents of the determiner phrase are hindered by an altering AJP (exs. 64–65); (b) the pre-determiner succeeds the NP-head, with the remaining portion of the determiner phrase preceding the head (exs. 66–67); or (c) the determiner phrase postmodifier succeeds the NP nucleus (perhaps beyond NP bounds) (exs. 68–70);

(64) Ahmad leaned over the table, giving the Canon a jagged, agitated two-fingered gesture.

(65)... we'll be taking a look back at an equally fruitful and lovely year.

(66) Both of the children like to play video games.

(67) Every significant mithine gas has been located.

(68) Both of the tutors exhibit the same level of warmth, despite their agony.

(69) The average person only receives five extra days each month in total.

(70) Enough citations have already been compiled to support the hypothesis in order to create a modern type of parse tree.

NP-H: NPs with postponed limiters: the limiter is positioned next to other NP constituents, following the nucleus (the head); an example of such a placement would be:

(71) Tashita gave her a quick glance as though she hadn't said anything.

(72) He doesn't say anything at all about this.

(73) Despite the likelihood that Appleby will consider the concept to be only his own maintained specialized relationship with human wrongdoing, he is likely to consider it as such.

As previously mentioned, the introduction of a non-default element into the NP's structure can help to explain some of the deviating NPs. These components that are being given are also susceptible to the movement wonder. The emphasizer is one example. As seen in example 37, an emphasizer that appears adjacent to NP elements often does not occupy the last position in the phrase. It can also, in theory, be fronted or occur outside of NP boundaries, either ahead of or behind the NP leader. There is one particularly notable example of emphasizers' variety in the corpus:

NP-I: NPs with a postponed emphasizer that skims and occurs outside the NP bounds; an example of this would be

(74) I personally would not have had a strong desire to speak with Uzma.

(75) It is proposed that an expert quality regulates these two compounds' fundamental characteristics.

(76) Aliya looked stunning in a traditional housecoat fashioned to order out of cloth

meant for billiard tables.

Finally, the representation/description of the English NP is addressed in the context of the modern descriptive tradition, which has produced a crucial representation of the NP in the form of the default phrase structure (Figure 2.6). At every stage of the analysis, each component is presented in terms of its classification that is, based on the characteristics it shares with other components of the same kind or class and its functionality, or the role it performs in a larger structure. Verifiably, this NP representation takes into consideration the idea that components are formed of consistent groupings of phrases. However, even in a language with a usually rigid word order, like English, components can move in different ways from their usual placements and have a specific kind of movement. A deviated NP structure is produced when an NP ingredient, or a piece of a contiguous constituent of the NP, is positioned differently from its default location in the NP. The researcher in this study looks at how journalists employ phrases in English that flow in continuous frameworks.

The foundational representation establishes the framework for the British English corpus investigation. As such, a corpus analysis gives linguists the ability to assess how well NP occurrences are portrayed in everyday language use. Making an inventory of the occurrence and adoption of deviant NPs from modern British English is the goal of the corpus study. This suggests that the examination of movement in the English sentence has two important limits. Its first meaning is to represent the use of language. Corpora are intrinsic indicators of how people use a language, whether it be spoken or written. Because of this, a corpus comprises evidence of performance at the level of externalized language or surface structure rather than capacity or hidden language. Consequently, the

representation of the thing phrase structure is a surface-structure representation. The second disadvantage of the study is that it just examines the portrayal of movement in Pakistani and British English.

But a corpus analysis—a self-made analysis—by itself won't be sufficient. Because of its limitations, no corpus research can provide a whole picture. Not only does the absence of a certain structure provide no guarantee against its grammaticality or inadequate quality, but the occurrence of a single structure in isolation also provides little information on its possible variants. Ascension to (justifiable) hypotheses about the properties of the movement of NP components will be provided by the corpus research through the efficient analysis of a fictional representation, such as the default NP structure, on the occurrences inside a corpus. This makes it possible to evaluate these hypotheses methodically and provides an additional way for studying language usage. The researcher first utilizes information from elicitations to enrich the data from files, following in the footsteps of other researchers (e.g., Quirk and Svartvik, 1966, 1979; Greenbaum and Quirk, 1970; Greenbaum, 1973, 1984). Second, this methodology—which is being used here—refers to the multi-strategy approach to handling visual semantics by combining local speakers' assessments with objective and quantitative data from a corpus.

The implications of the study are discussed in chapter 3. The study's purpose was to inventory the occurrence and circulation of NPs in modern Pakistani English while keeping an eye on British English in order to arrive at a clear representation of NP structures in the former. The case of deviated NPs is given special attention. The study's findings provide support for conjectures on the range of possible word requests in the NP. In light of this, future elicitation tests might examine the hypotheses for the fronted

modifier, the irregular descriptor phrase, and the coasting postponed modifier. Future research will discuss the outcomes of the elicitation examination as well as the integration of data from the de Mönnink (2000) corpus study.

CHAPTER 3

RESAERCH METHODOLOGY

This is descriptive research with a quantitative focus. As Best and Kahn (2000) state, a descriptive study aims to characterize and investigate the theory that already exists and validates its defined hypothesis with respect to the current circumstances.

In a descriptive study, what is is described and interpreted. It is concerned with the states or relationships that are in place, beliefs that are held, actions that are taking place, consequences that are obvious, or emerging trends. Although it frequently takes into account historical occurrences in relation to current situations, its primary interest is the present (p. 118).

This study's primary goal is to determine the common and customary usage of phrase formation in Pakistani English as it appears in newspapers, specifically DAWN, which is widely read among educated people and is the most widely distributed English newspaper in the nation. As in this instance, gathering NPs—numerical data—is the main task of quantitative research (Heigham & Croker, 2009, p. 4-5). One hundred well-formed sentences were used as data, which was gathered from the internet and then chunked and parsed into its constituent parts to isolate the NPs for examination. Two web tools, phpSyntaxTree and EzTreeSee, among others, were employed for the aforementioned objective. In order to determine the frequency at which NPs occur, data analysis is being done. Afterward, NPs are analyzed using X-Bar at two levels: the structural slot level and the projection level. NP applying: a) NPs occurring in a sentence; b) NP elements occurring at different levels. An examination of the NP near the surface later on the application of leveliapplying X-bar theory would yield significant data to characterize

aberrations, innovations, and tendencies unique to NP in Pakistani English. When doing research of this type that incorporates both the quantitative and descriptive research paradigms, the methodology developed by de Mönnink (2000) is recommended. Below is a detailed explanation of the research methodology for your reference.

3.1 Descriptive Linguistics: A Multi-Method Approach

In descriptive research, relying just on intuitive data or only using corpus data is insufficient. A thorough explanation of how a particular language is used is the goal of descriptive research. According to de Mönnink's (2000) argument, which combines corpus and intuitive data. Since the corpus linguistic method already incorporates both kinds of data, it makes an excellent place to start. The utilization of both forms of data, however, shouldn't be a linear and/or unidirectional process that starts with intuitive data and ends with corpus data in a thorough and empirical approach to descriptive linguistics. A descriptive research should be carried out using a cycle of procedures instead. Figure 3.1 below shows the data cycle for descriptive linguistics followed in this study.

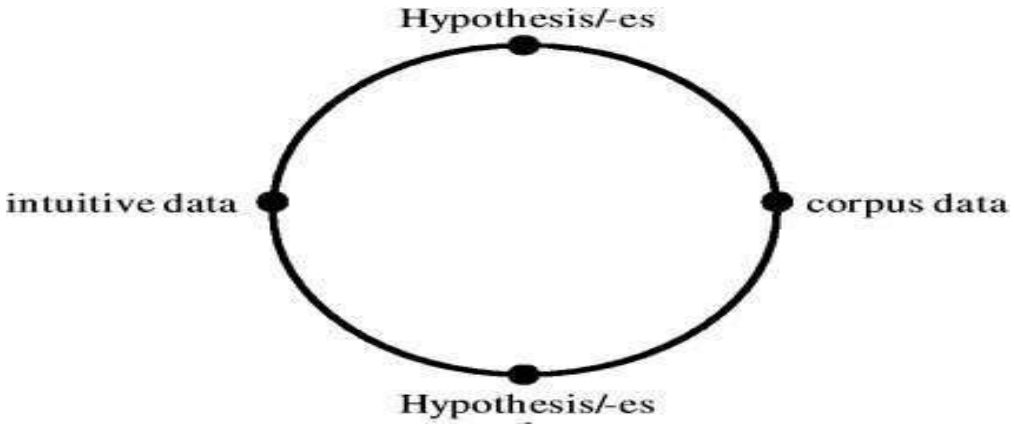


Figure 3.1 below shows the data cycle for descriptive linguistics followed in this study.

Anywhere along the data cycle can be the beginning or finish of a methodologically valid descriptive research, provided that the entire round is completed at least once. The intuitive facts that serve as the foundation for the study hypothesis will often be the easiest place to start for most projects. Nonetheless, experimental uses of corpus data are also feasible. The corpus data might highlight intriguing research topics and assist in determining which categories are pertinent for categorizing a research challenge and developing hypotheses. It's also possible that theories are already known, either directly or implicitly. This is the case, for instance, when describing occurrences or structures that have been the focus of earlier descriptive research. Using both kinds of data, the linguist may assess if the description is adequate.

It is sometimes unclear exactly when the investigation begins inside the data cycle. The majority of descriptive investigations begin with a researcher's hazy hypothesis regarding a certain phenomena or linguistic structure. However, whence did this notion originate? Was that the outcome of an impromptu introspection? Was the linguist's attention hypothesis sparked by what he read in a publication on a structure or phenomenon? Or did he read about a remarkable incident in the morning paper that caught his attention and lingered there—corpus/textual data? Regardless of how the idea originated, the real research procedure in each of these scenarios will begin with a hypothesis developed by the linguist/researcher. Ideally, at every stage of the research cycle when a hypothesis or hypotheses are reached, one or more of them should be able to be developed, accepted, rejected, or reformed based on empirical evidence. The procedure need to come to an end only when every last hypothesis has been confirmed or refuted.

Naturally, adhering to the data cycle does not ensure a strong empirical approach. It

mostly relies on how the corpus and intuition data collection and analysis are done. The primary focus when it comes to corpus data is the corpus's design. It is vital to identify a suitable method of data collection for intuitive data. Since the description will be tested on objective facts taken from the corpus. But as it would undermine the research's empirical foundation, basic reflection should never be the last step in the process. Furthermore, it might be challenging for linguists and researchers to discern between their linguistic intuitions and their intuitions as native speakers of a language. One person's reflection will have less value the closer the research comes to providing a comprehensive explanation of a phenomena in a language. Later on in the process, the linguist/researcher will consequently require a well-planned experiment to ensure the gathering of objective empirical evidence while also eliciting intuitive data.

3.2 Integrating Intuitive Data with Corpus Data

The standard description of the noun phrase (NP), covered in Chapter 2, serves as the foundation for the movement in the English language at the noun phrase level. The study's premise is that every use of the noun phrase in the English language can be explained by the standard definition of the noun phrase. A corpus of data is used to test this hypothesis. Variants of the prototypical description are discovered throughout the corpus, indicating that the null hypothesis must be rejected. New theories about potential variations are then developed. All of these theories stem from one common theory: any ingredient of a noun phrase can move in any given context. Which theoretical possibilities are genuinely present in the corpus and which are not is demonstrated by the corpus analysis. To verify if the absent variations are really grammatical for each missing

structure, a distinct hypothesis is developed that predicts whether the construction is improper in British English or another version of the English language, or grammatically incorrect. Next, each theory is put to the test via an intuitive observation. Consequently, a theory is either confirmed or disproved. At that point, the cycle is over. By adding the intuitive observation to the corpus.

In addition to serving as a supplement, the grouping of intuitive data and corpus data may be used to decide which constructs should be included and which should be excluded from the description of the phenomena being studied. According to Aarts (1991), acceptability assessments are crucial for corpus linguists since they aid in the decision-making process about the inclusion of a corpus-found structure in the grammar. Aarts distinguishes between grammars that rely on observation and those that rely on intuition. According to Aarts (1991), an intuition-based grammar is created using the linguist's explicit and intuitive understanding of the language as well as any relevant literature (as stated in de Mönnink, 2000, p. 46). It will explain the clear situations, or statements that are acceptable and grammatically correct. When the intuition-based grammar collides with the sentences in the corpus, the observation-based grammar emerges. Both good and prohibited sentences can be found in a corpus. The choice of which of these structures to include in the grammar and which not to must be made bythe corpus linguist. Grammar should not be used to justify sentences that are obviously inappropriate or grammatically incorrect. According to Aarts, these statements are meta grammatical. The writer frequently intends for them to be grammatically incorrect

because stylistic or other factors, and do not fall within the collection of grammatically correct phrases that a grammar produces.

Making decisions with acceptable but grammatically incorrect statements is more difficult, though. Aarts provides two potential standards for determining whether or not a construction should be included in the grammar: first, is the construction deemed to be current intuitively, and second, is it able to be included in the grammar? Incorporation is a secondary criterion that stems from practical considerations and queries over the appropriateness of the descriptive framework. The description doesn't have to change for every new structure the linguist or researcher discovers. Maybe the main requirement is widespread currency. However, how is money defined? It has to do with broad acceptance, which is characterized by regularity and frequency of occurrence. Although data on building frequency is easily accessible, Aarts (1991) notes that it is not always a reliable indicator of acceptance. On the other hand, normality is far more difficult to define. As of yet, no empirical technique exists to ascertain normality. Therefore, he contends that unless the idea of an empirical grounding is provided.

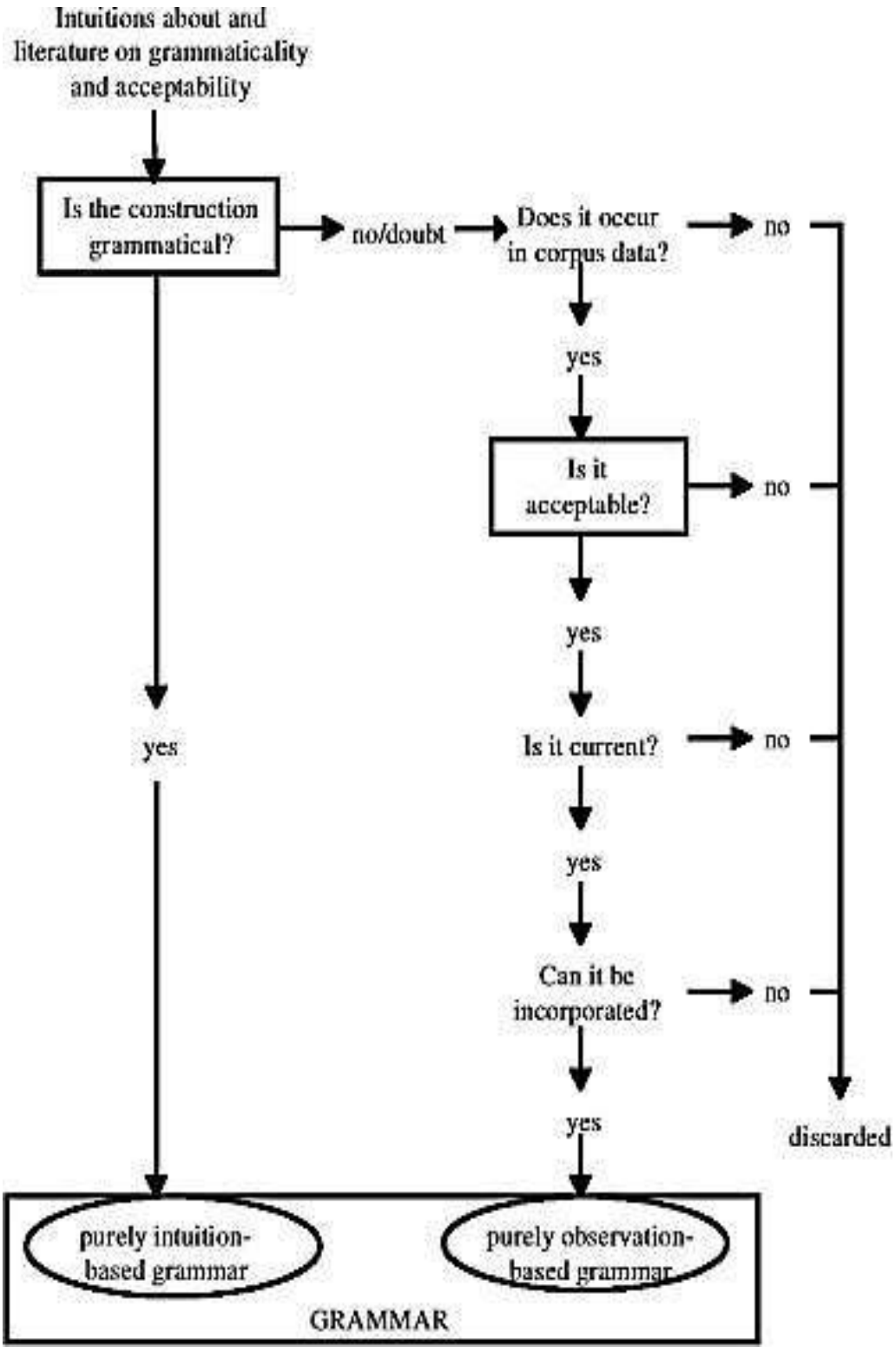


Figure 3.2 Process of Grammar Construction (adapted from de Monnik, 2000)

Fig. 3.2 illustrates the grammar construction process as it is outlined in Aarts (1991). It is evident that acceptability judgments are crucial in determining which structures should be included and which shouldn't. A sentence is considered grammatical in the formal meaning of the word after the grammar has defined it. In this meaning, grammaticality is a theoretical concept that, in its most accurate form, describes the opinions of native speakers regarding how well-formed sentences are. It cannot be accessed immediately by the speaker's intuitions. Conversely, acceptability describes speakers' assessments of the (contextual) appropriateness of phrases in their native tongue. Put differently, acceptability judgments represent a type of language use that is impacted by several pragmatic, cognitive, and attitudinal elements (Newmeyer, 1983). Thoroughly crafted intuitive assessments, taking into account each of these elements, may provide this procedure with the necessary empirical foundation.

The grammar creation process shown in Figure 3.2 does not follow the multi-method approach. Structures that are not found in the corpus but might still be valid are simply eliminated. The appropriateness of these constructs would also be assessed by native speakers in the multi-method approach. By applying the same judgment process to structures that did not appear in the corpus as to the grammatical sentences that did occur, the procedure shown in Figure 3.2 may be readily modified to the multi-method approach. The process adaption is depicted in Figure 3.3 below.

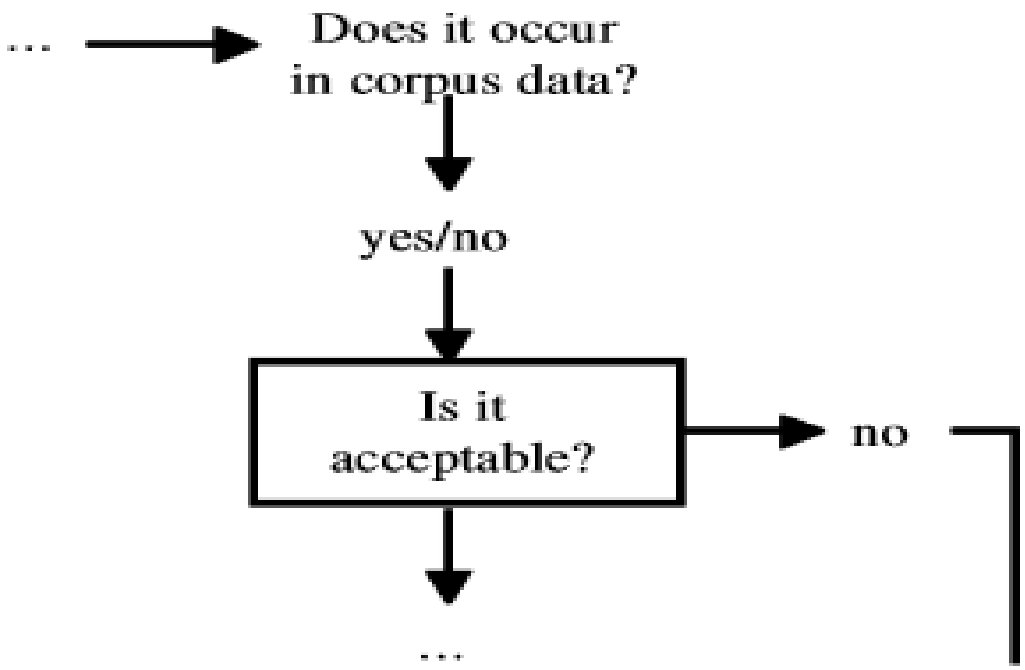


Figure 3.3: Grammar Construction Process (modified from de Mönnink, 2000)

Two justifications have been put up thus far for adding intuitive observation to a corpus-based investigation. Intuitive data can be used to enhance corpus data. According to Greenbaum (1984), there is a thirdbenefit:

Observations based on intuition have been developed to address issues brought up during corpus material analysis. Their primary purpose is auxiliary, but the findings could potentially raise issues that need to be looked into more thoroughly using corpus searches or extra elicitation tests. (Page 200 of Greenbaum, 1984)

This aligns with the implementation of a cyclical methodology for descriptive research. Hypotheses derived from the corpus data are evaluated by intuitive observation. fresh hypotheses derived from the intuitive observation may be investigated by fresh, more in-

depth or comprehensive corpus studies. The primary purpose of merging corpus data with intuitive data in the current study on the migration of NP components is to enhance the corpus data. Nevertheless, the intuitive data are also utilized to facilitate a more thorough corpus search and to decide which information to include in the NP's description.

3.3 Examining the Corpus

The corpus analysis in this research attempts to inventory the distribution and frequency of constituents in NPs in modern Pakistani and British English in order to give a comprehensive description of the syntactic properties of these structures, with an emphasis on the mobility of constituents. Research utilizing corpora frequently incorporates both a descriptive and a quantitative analysis. An accurate picture of the absolute and relative frequency of the particular event is given by the quantitative analysis. Giving a comprehensive explanation of the phenomenon under study is the aim of the descriptive analysis. Specific requirements about the corpus's size, design, and level of annotation delicacy must be met by the corpus material used for a quantitative and descriptive study on the mobility of NP elements.

3.3.1 The Corpus's Design

A corpus is thought to consist of more than just a few texts. A "corpus" is a group of texts that have been assembled with certain goals in mind and frequently in accordance with clear design specifications. The representativeness issue is thus a crucial one in corpus design. A qualitative investigation of a phenomena related to language use should ideally provide light on how that occurrence differs depending on the language or languages used. As a result, the corpus has to be representative of both the variation and that

language. This implies that, in the context of the current study, the corpus should ideally contain examples of many clearly defined written samples (text categories), samples that are indicative of modern Pakistani English. There has been and continues to be debate about the precise number of text categories that should be separated. In actuality, the corpus's designis frequently determined by the time and resources available.

The necessary sample size and corpus are further topics of discussion. Theoretically, the design of the corpus and the frequency of the occurrence being studied dictate the size of the corpus. In quantitative studies, widely recognized statistical techniques are employed. Nonetheless, a certain minimum frequency is required for the reliability of various statistical tests (see, for example, de Haan, 1992). To ascertain how a phenomenon is distributed within a corpus, the chi-square test is frequently employed.

more than five. Sample sizes must be big enough to accurately capture the phenomena being studied if one wishes to use a single corpus to find linguistic diversity among texts (Biber, 1993; de Haan, 1992). The total number of variables and the true frequency of the phenomena being studied will determine exactly how big the corpus has to be. However, it is hard to estimate in advance how big each sample has to be. Once more, in actuality, corpus size frequently depends on the availability of data.

An extensive inventory of the frequency and distribution of variant NPs is part of the current corpus analysis. The corpus outlined in Appendix A, which will be referred to as Corpus for the remainder of the research, is where the occurrences were gathered. There

are around 2110 phrases in the corpus, of which 1572 are noun phrases.

3.3.2 Research and Annotation

The type of corpus study determines what kind and level of notation of the corpus data is necessary. Corpora composed for their parts of speech are frequently adequate for investigations on the presence of lexical elements in their context. However, comprehensive syntactical material—is necessary for a descriptive investigation of a syntactic phenomenon, such as the mobility of NP elements. It is clear from the previous discussion that access to a sizable corpus that is intended to consider a variety of samples typical of this subset of Pakistani English would be ideal for conducting. The size of each sample should be adequate to provide sample quantitative data for a range of statistical methods. Regretfully, real-world practice frequently deviates from ideal circumstances. The accessibility of corpus data composed with comprehensive content determines the corpus design and size for the current investigation details on the sentence. The accessibility of these corpora still needs a lot of improvement.

Not all intuitive facts are thought to be reflective of language use. For the purpose of studying grammar, a lot of linguists still see sentimental data as the main source of linguistic grounds. According to them, native speakers' assessments of a sentence's acceptability or grammaticality are a clear indication of their own grammatical proficiency. Others, however, contend that grammaticality is not immediately available to native speakers' intuition and that making judgments about it is a production effort,

making them unable of evaluating grammatically. According to the widely held belief that language behavior encompasses both presentation and persuasion tasks, performance is reflected rather than competence. Examples of language function generated in an experimental environment constitute spontaneous data. Similar to corpus data, the researcher's contribution is essential to how the data are interpreted.

Therefore, neither corpus data nor intuitive data directly reveal a language's grammar, despite the undeniable substantial correlation between happening. Rather, they are both ways that linguists might use to make judgments about which composition to include in the speech act of the language they are studying. They also both reflect language use.

Even if the pertinent chapter explains a broad technique, any modified theoretical possibilities will, if necessary, be further described with relevant forthcoming instances. Throughout the investigation, several times, the frameworks and theoretical methods created by de Monnink (2000) were employed since they were appropriate for the given circumstances.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Sentential-Level Consistency-Based Parse Tree

In constituency-based grammar analysis, constituency-based parse trees are commonly used for sentence examples or demonstrations; however, parse trees are constructed with terminal and non-terminal nodes distinguished. The grammar's terminal categories are used to display leaf nodes, whereas non-terminal categories are used to display inner nodes. By using this technique, sentences are divided into main sections, and these divisions continue until they reach irreducible constituents, or the smallest portions, which is a single, meaningful unit or constituent. Final conclusions are not determined until after an instantaneous component structure is created in the form of visual diagrams or trees. The researcher creates a constituency-based parse tree (see example in Fig. 4.1) to illustrate the fundamental syntactic composition of a sentence in British or Standard English. Additionally, in keeping with the methodology, additional constituency-based parse trees are created to highlight the intricate syntactic structure of both Pakistani English and Standard English. For an example of constituency-based parsing of a statement with wide comprehension, see this straightforward example in standard/British English:

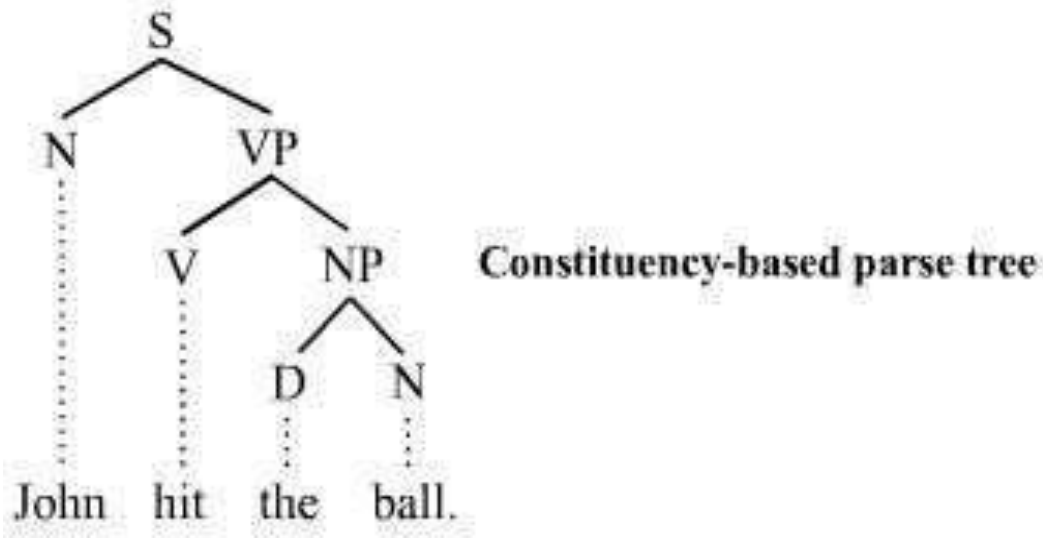


Figure 4.1: Parse Tree (taken from Wikipedia)

Sentence is replaced with S, which is the source of the constituency-based parse tree. By splitting S into NP and VP, the process moves the division in the direction of the leaf nodes (N=John, V=hit, D=the, and N=ball). A node's ability to function as a parent or child node determines whether it develops into a branch or root node. This is demonstrated by both terminal and non-terminal nodes. The following abbreviations are to be used in the most basic constituency-based parse tree:

- S represents a sentence, and all other abbreviations used in the above example structure have their origins in the letter S.
- The NP, which originated from S alongside VP, is denoted by the simple N (noun) as John is the sole element in it.
- In the example above, **VP** functions as both a branch node and the predicate portion of the sentence, making it the second component of dividend S.

- The head at the sentential level is **V**, the most crucial element in the supplied. In **VP**, it functions as the primary or main predicate.
- The letter **D** refers to the determiner, which is the article in the **NP**.
- **N** denotes the sentence's object or definite noun.

To be more precise, each node in the structure above is either a branch, leaf, or root node depending on where it is located and the role it plays in building the structure or more sophisticated structures. A root connection, also known as a daughter node, is only found once inside the lowest division of constituents and does not precede or branch nodes with its beginning. By starting, a branch node establishes a link between the daughter nodes and assumes the function of a parent node. Dividends, however, do not influence or assume dominance over any other node or component inside the structure when it comes to the leaf nodes. To clarify, the four essential components in the statement above are arranged as leaf nodes, with S, NP, and VP acting as the branch nodes that connect the leaf nodes to one another. The lexical tokens are responsible for identifying the position of the roots inside a structure, portraying them as the sentence's leaves. Naturally, a parentnode, also called a nonterminal node, might have one or more braches linked with it at different locations and degrees of distribution, but a child node, represented as a terminal node, is always associated with a single other connection, which is always a branch connection.

Phrase markers were first proposed in Transformational Generative Grammar by a few prominent individuals, such as Chomsky (1957, 2002, p. 88). Phrase markers are useful

for representing/illustrating the syntactic deep structure of every sentence in syntactic analysis since they process and master the phrase structure rules while also advancing them for additional transformations. Phrase markers can take on a variety of shapes and have no restrictions on how they must appear. They are typically employed as "brackets," which take up less room when used in an alphabetical order, or as tree branches in the shape of consistency based parsing trees. For instance, the following may be a bracketed phrase that corresponds to the constituency-based tree provided above:

Figure 4.2: Phrase markers used to illustrate.

[S [NP [NN john]] [VP [VBD hit]] [NP [NN ball] [DT the]]]

More specifically, XP (X-phrase), represented by the tree's starter, S in the example (see to Figure 4.3), is the maximum projection of the construction via its head X (V dead). It highlights how crucial it is to comprehend the structure top-down as opposed to button-to-top.

The X really performs the same function as a variable in algebra in the X-bar Theory. Other elements, such as verbs, adjectives, nouns, adverbs, prepositions, etc., gradually

take its place; these are all motivated by the example provided (Figure 4.3). VP/NP/JP/AP/PP, or the XP, or X-phrase, depends on the context in which it is employed. Going toward the maximum projection of the given phrase, the heads of VP and NP are V and N, respectively, resulting in slain being the head (V) in the sentence as a whole. Because every single variable in the structure has the same fundamental structure, X is used in place of every single other variable.

Figure 4.3: A Parse Tree in Rough

- There are usually two branches or less in the projections. According to the constituency-based grammar in the mentioned example (see Fig. 4.3), the tree is projected towards three more branches at a structural point; however, in the case of the X-bar format, this is not achievable. The X-bar style is much more straightforward and easy to generalize since it only allows for two branches (See Fig. 4.4) at a time and splits down into equal segments. As opposed to the basic constituency structure, where the head is linked to the maximum projection first, it is possible to attach it to the intermediate projection first. The XB, often known as the

X-bar, is the branch that contains the intermediate projection. More precisely, with relation to the X-bar lingo, the components may also be referred to as NB, VB, etc., depending on their underlying structure (see Figure 4.4).

- The head projects directly towards the maximal projection during the intermediate and maximal projection phases, passing through the intermediate projection. Hence, substituting VP for S in the example (Figure 4.3) will not help since X-bar theory does not allow for a VP to be directly projected by another VP. Since there is no limit to the number of intermediate projections that may be employed, a VB (see Figure 4.4) must be introduced in between the maximal projection and the head.

- An X-bar structure's constituents can be further broken down into four categories: the head, which is the structure's primary projectile component and moves toward the maximal projection; the compliment, which is the head's complementary component; the adjunct, which functions as a modifier for the head; and the specifier, which establishes the head's actual identity. It is important to note that a head can have as many adjuncts and compliments as needed, but only one specifier.

- There are several bars in the intermediate projections. It may be anything, therefore it can be X-Bar or V-Bar or N-Bar. Adjectives and complements are examples of totally optional components that are not necessarily included in a phrase and have little to no impact on the syntax of the remaining elements of the phrase. In contrast, maximal projections such as NP, VP, or JP combine with specifiers, which are also not the last component in terms of resistance but are handled similarly in the event that they exist.

- In spite of this, the complement, specifier, and adjunct are thought of as maximum projections by themselves. The instance (Fig. 4.3) demonstrates how the word "killed" has complements both as a single noun and as an entire noun phrase. The complement of the word "killed" is "man," which is both a component of a noun phrase and the maximum projection of a single noun. The adjunct, or AP, of the verb "killed," is the portion of the predicate.

The outcome would be similar to that of the tree below (Figure 4.4), which will replace the example above.

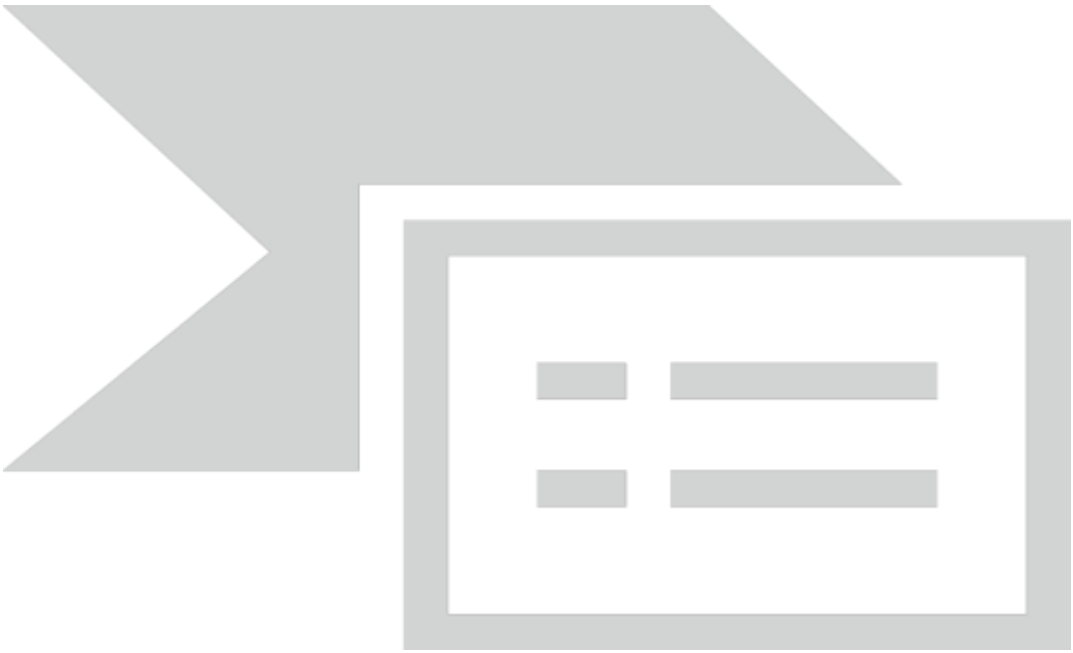


Figure 4.4: A Parse Tree Based on Nodes

The sentence example (Figure 4.4) that was previously elaborated is a generic example that linguists and scholars typically use to examine basic and invented sentences, similar to the one that was previously provided (see Figure 4.4).

The researcher works to explain this study hypothesis in a different and more focused approach, i.e., by using a real-world example (see Figure 4.5). The phrase that comes before it (S 4.1) is interpreted from a locally produced, mark language-based newspaper in Pakistan. It goes through a series of steps, including components, maximum projection, and intermediate projection. Furthermore, because NP is the researcher's primary focus, special attention has been paid to it.

S-4.1 Hitler's Germany is cited by pro-executive Turkish President Tayyip Erdogan as an example of a successful presidential system in remarks made on Friday and carried by Turkish media.

Sentence (S 4.1) is a complicated sentence arbitrarily selected from the "corpus." To describe the sentence's deep structure (DP), it is first broken down into constructions and constituents, using Phrase markers (P-marker) to reflect the rules governing phrase structure. Within constituency-based grammars, a phrase can frequently be represented in one of two ways using P-markers: either as square bracket expressions (S 4.1a with the square brackets) or as analyse trees (Fig. 4.5 with the connection in image source).

S-4.1a __[JJ Turkish] [S [NP [NP [NP] [NNP Erdogan] [NNP Tayyip] [NNP President]] In [,,] [WP who WHNP [SBAR]] [S [VP [VBZ is] [VP] [VBG pushing] [NP [JJ executive] [PP [IN for] [NNS powers]]]]]] [[,,]] [VP [VBZ citations] Hitler's NNP [NP [NP [NP [POS's]] [Deutsche NNP] [PP [IN as]] [NN example] [NP [NP [DT an]] **PP [IN of] **NP [DT an] [NN system, JJ presidential, JJ effective]]]]]] In [,,] [NP [NP [NNS remarks]] [PP [IN in] [VP [VBN transmission]] [PP [IN by]] [NP [NP [NNS media] [JJ Turkish]] [PP [IN on] [NP [NNP Friday]]]]]]]‘‘

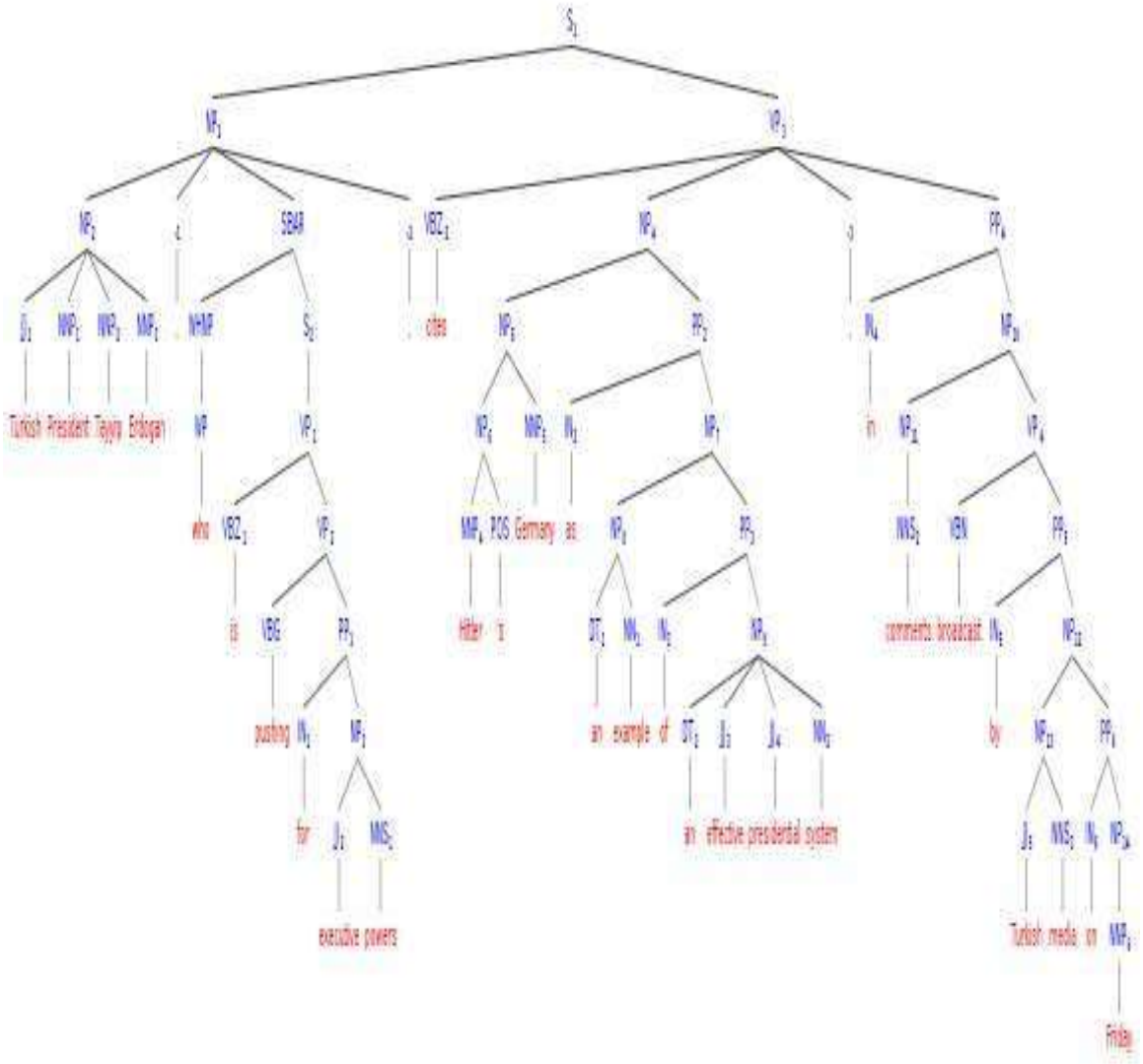


Fig. 4.5: Sentinal-Level Example of a Constituency-Based Parse Tree (from corpus)

As a result, the content is to advance and support the X-bar theory. Once more, the representative (Fig. 4.5) is a actual-world sentence that serves as a common representation of a constituency-based grammar.

The instance shown above (Fig. 4.5) may also be shown in the X-Bar appearance as follows:

(S 4.1b) [XP] [Powers of the YP Turkish President] [X' [X cites] [^ZP Hitler's Germany on Friday.]]]

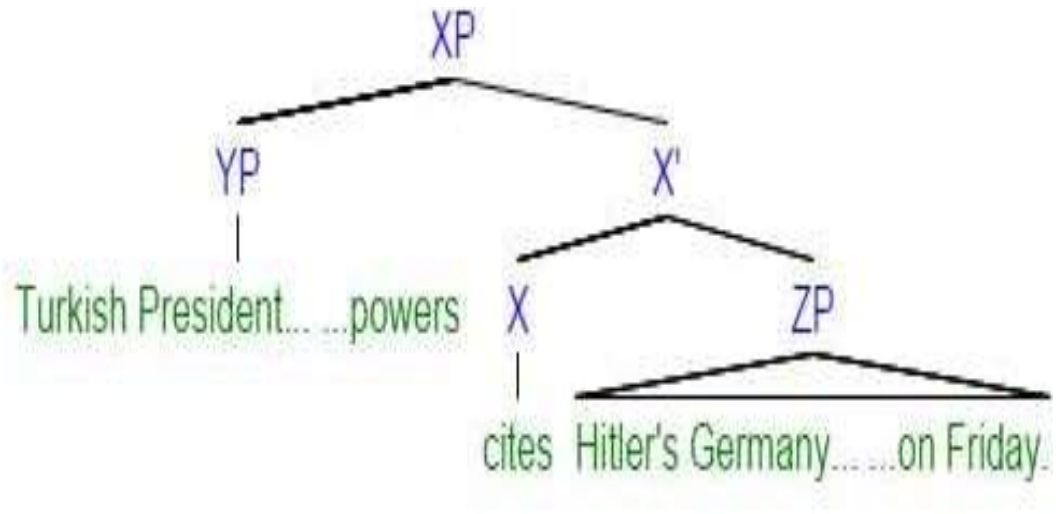


Figure 4.6: Sentinal Level X-Bar Example (from corpus)

More precisely, the S at the beginning of the tree diagram in the model above (Fig. 4.6) is an XP (X-phrase), which is the maximum anticipation of the sentence's structure finished its head X (V "cites"). Here, ZP is a complement, and X' stands for the sentence's intermediate projection.

4.2 The Syntactic Structure of NP in PE Analysis

At this point, the researcher often provides a sharp investigation of the Noun Phrase structure in constituency-based grammar. The researcher continues the investigation after concluding the earlier talks and outlining them in light of the standard grammatical rules for non-plural nouns. The topic of whether the Immediate Constituents Analysis (IC analysis) is sufficiently reliable and valid has been around for a while. Additionally, grammatical tradition has long since accepted it without question. The first to effectively

critique and examine. Chomsky (1957) is credited for formalizing the whole structure of constituency-based grammar and syntactic framework, transforming it into a phrase structure grammar that is free of context. In order to make grammar more universally applicable, he developed transformational grammar (TG), which is a more sophisticated yet more simple grammar structure. Using this method, he standardized every English phrase regardless of regional variations, giving the language a universal framework. As a result, the sentences' phrase structures began to obey a Deep Structure and adhere to certain transformational principles, which in some cases might be optional or mediatory, resulting in a Surface Composition internal representation. In Postal (1967), the benefits of utilizing the structure suggested by Chomsky (1957) are discussed. It is explained that the procedural structure has a hierarchical route that makes it suitable for handling certain discontinues-constituents. The word order affects the constituent analysis as a whole, but the X-bar theory is unaffected by any of these variables. When two or more non-adjacent elements combine to produce a phrase, a discontinuity is present. The X-bar theory identifies every component by designating its location by breaking down phrases into their intermediate projections in a hierarchical manner. While conventional grammarians tend to focus on the impact of distant components and abrupt structures, same insights may be used to the study of phrase-by-phrase structural grammar. Postal (1967) thinks that:

The fact that TG offers a simple way to formalize the concept of "discontinuous constituent" is one of its benefits. The majority of the time, permutation transformations in TG result in discontinuities. Stated otherwise, a P-marker appears in the sentence whereD and E are continuous constituents of B if there is a series DAE in the phrase and D and

E are noncontinuous essential of several higher order ingredient B. Page 67.

Although, there have been several efforts, the discontinuous elements and their implications in general have never been adequately addressed by the typical transformational grammar structure. Non-adjacent and disjunctive components in the phrase compositions can be handled with in codified terms and conditions, but not in alternate rules and regulations, according to Harman (1963, 1966). As Fries (1972) explained in relation to NP, non-adjacent constituents and their chaos rendered the numerous failed attempts at formalizing discontinuous grammatical structures futile: As a consequence, it can be concluded that the phrase "a harmful crime to consume in" includes the adjectival phrase "Hazardous to indulge in" within the Loose Knit Modifier, with "to indulge in" shifting to a place that comes after the Head-tag acculturation of the Noun Phrase. (Section 222)

Thus, linguists do not see reason to turn down the structural approach suggestion in favor of the transformational or deep structure approaches. According to Chomsky's most recent framework (1995), the profound structure (see Figure 4.7 below) is integrated with the start of the minimalist program rather than being expressed independently in constituency grammars. It is more significant to the fundamental structure.

Figure 4.7: Example of Surface and Deep Structure

The framework of guidelines and limits explains how the structure of languages‘ natural functions and manipulate within the presumptions of generative linguists. Every syntax makes use of both general guidelines and particular parameters; the choice of which to enable or disable will determine the language's overall structure and flow. This includes the various elements' movements, which are likewise dictated by the conditions of implementation. The Principles and Parameters framework classifies the distribution of languages as either head-initial and/or head-final, based on the position of the parameters and whether or not they are switched on. Languages differ from place to region under the dispersion of head-initial and head-final depending on the effect of second languages, culture, terrain, and many other variables regarding the termination and restriction of particular languages and sentence structure. For instance, the head-final and head-initial language descriptions might be expanded upon in light of the following NPs:

(a) …A beautiful and charming girl (Fig 4.8 adopted from Wikipedia).

[FRAG[NP[DT A] (NP-1) [ADJP[JJbeautiful][CCand] [JJ charming]][NNgirl]]]….

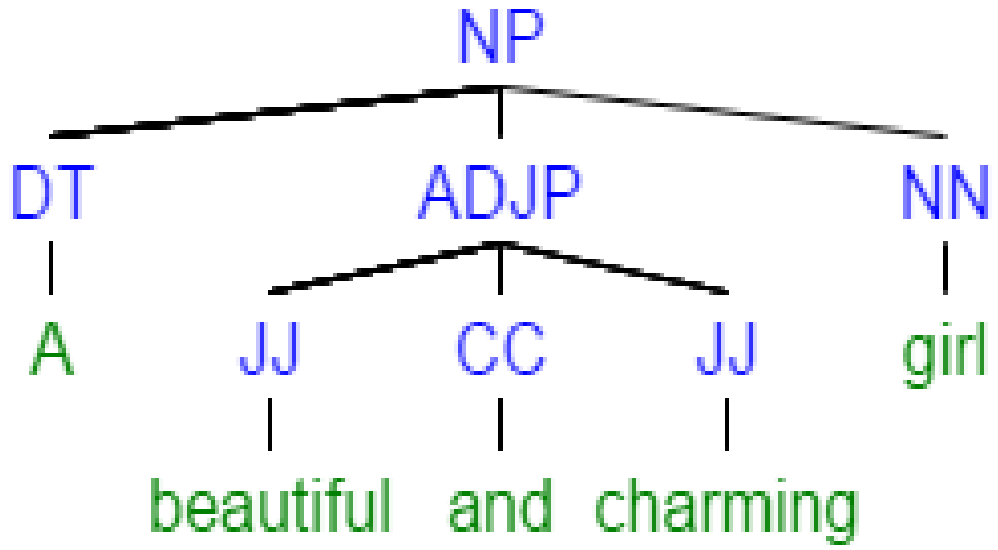


Figure 4.8: Example Head-Final Noun Phrase Tree

The head "girl" in the aforementioned NP (Fig. 4.8) is attended by a full intellectual that reads "a beautiful and charming," that is boost broken down into DT and ADJP, with DT standing for and including "A." The adjective phrase "beautiful and charming" (ADJP) is made up of the words JJ, CC, and JJ. This may be easily replaced with '(b) a really attractive and nice girl in NP-2. Similarly, the example(s) that follow are drawn from the "corpus" and show the head-final variation that is prevalent in Pakistani English variety:

__(NP-1a) [NP] [DT The] [JJ fresh] [NN Made in China] [JJ Nuclear] [NN reactor]‘‘

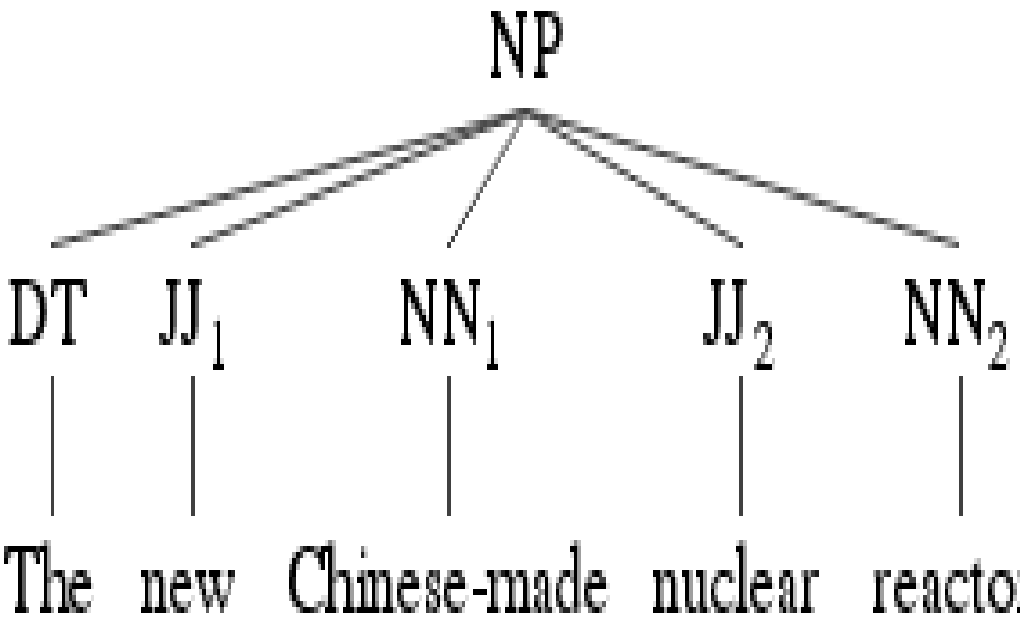


Figure 4.8.1: Phrase Tree with Head-Final Noun Example (from corpus)

The preceding NP (Figure 4.8.1) has the head "reactor" followed by a complete intellectual that reads, "the new Chinese made thermonuclear," which is farther broken down into NN1, JJ1, DT, and JJ2. The letter "A" in DT stands for "the new Chinese-made nuclear." JJ1, NN1, and JJ2 make up the adjectival phrase (ADJP), which means "new Chinese-made nuclear."

__(NP-2) [NP] [NP [DT a] [NN girl] [WHNP [WP who]] [SBAR] [S [VP [VBZ is] [RB extremely] [ADJP] [JJ gorgeous] [CC as well as] [JJ charming]]]]‘‘

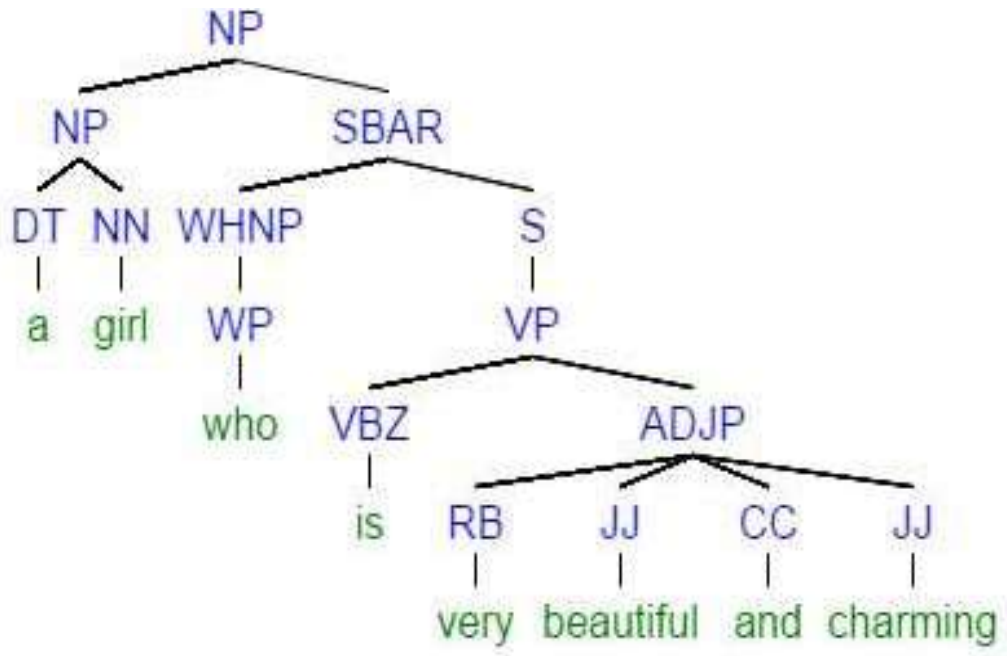


Fig. 4.9: Head-Initial Noun Construction Tree (Example)

The "head" in the preceding NP (Figure 4.9) occurs in the beginning level of the NP, in contrast to the preceding NP (Fig. 4.8), the head was positioned in the end stage of the NP (Fig. 4.8). The maximum anticipation NP (Fig. 4.9) is split into two parts: SBAR (which consists of WP and VP) and further NP (which consists of the DT and NN, the head of maximum projection). The ADJP (Figure 4.8) is ahead of each component in the last stage of this NP (Figure 4.9) after being positioned before the head in the previous NP (Figure 4.8). Even though it is not well known, this little distinction still leads to a significant dispute at the syntactic level. A differential route is demonstrated in the following example, where the second NP is head-initial in Standard English while the first NP is head-final in Pakistani English. The head-initial variety, or NP-2a, is drawn from the "corpus" and is only very seldom encountered in the Pakistani English variation.

..NP-2a [NP NP [NP [DT the] [NN dispute]] [WDT that [WHNP [SBAR]] [S [VP [VBZ has] [VP [VBN boiled up]]]]]] [PP [VBG subsequently]] NPS disclosures, POS's, NNP Hersh, and NNP…

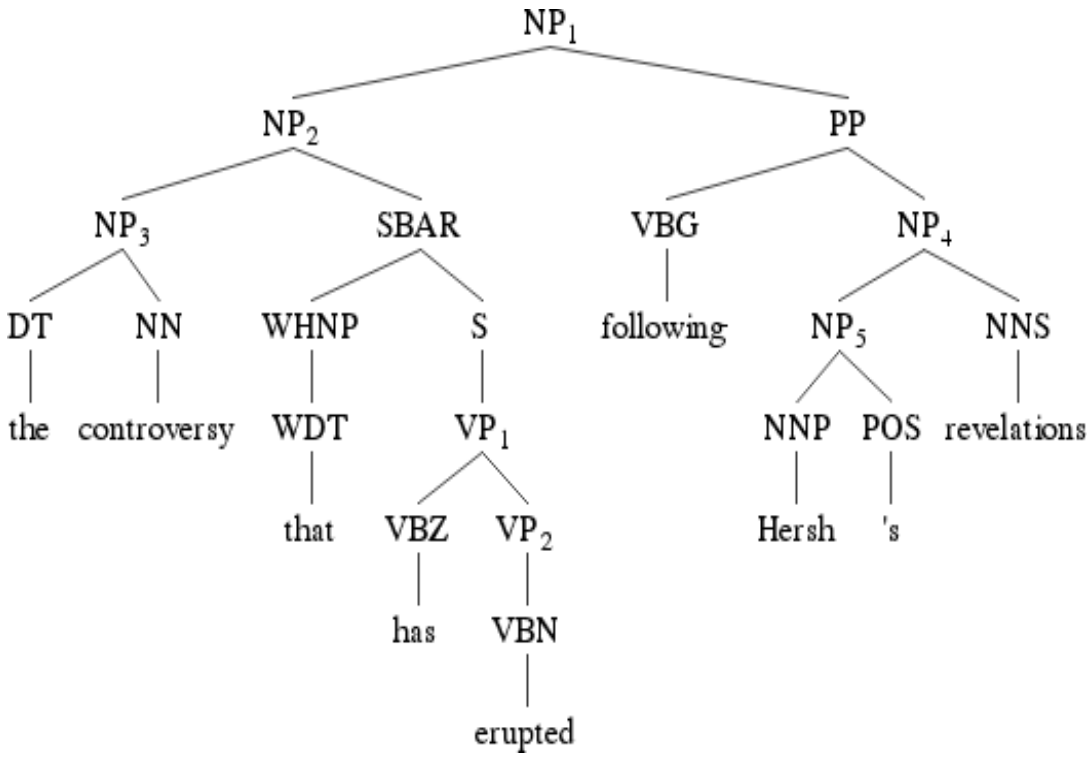


Figure 4.9.1 shows an example of a corpus-sourced head-initial noun phrase tree.

In contrast to head-finalNP (Figure 4.8), the location of the head positioned in the concluding level of NP (Figure 4.8), the head "controversy" in the NP mentioned above occurs in the early level of the NP (Figure 4.9.1). The maximum anticipation, shown by NP in Figure 4.10, is further subdivided into NP2 and PP, with NP2 including NP3 and SBAR (the maximal projection's head) and PP consisting of VBG and NP4. The same kind of NP structure may also be seen in S-4.1:

(NP-2b) [NP] [NP [JJ Turkish] [NNP President] [NNP Erdogan] [NNP Tayyip] [,,] [WHNP [WP who]] [SBAR] [S [VP [VBZ is] [VP [VBG pushing]] [PP [IN for] [NP [JJ authority] [NNS authorities]]]]]…

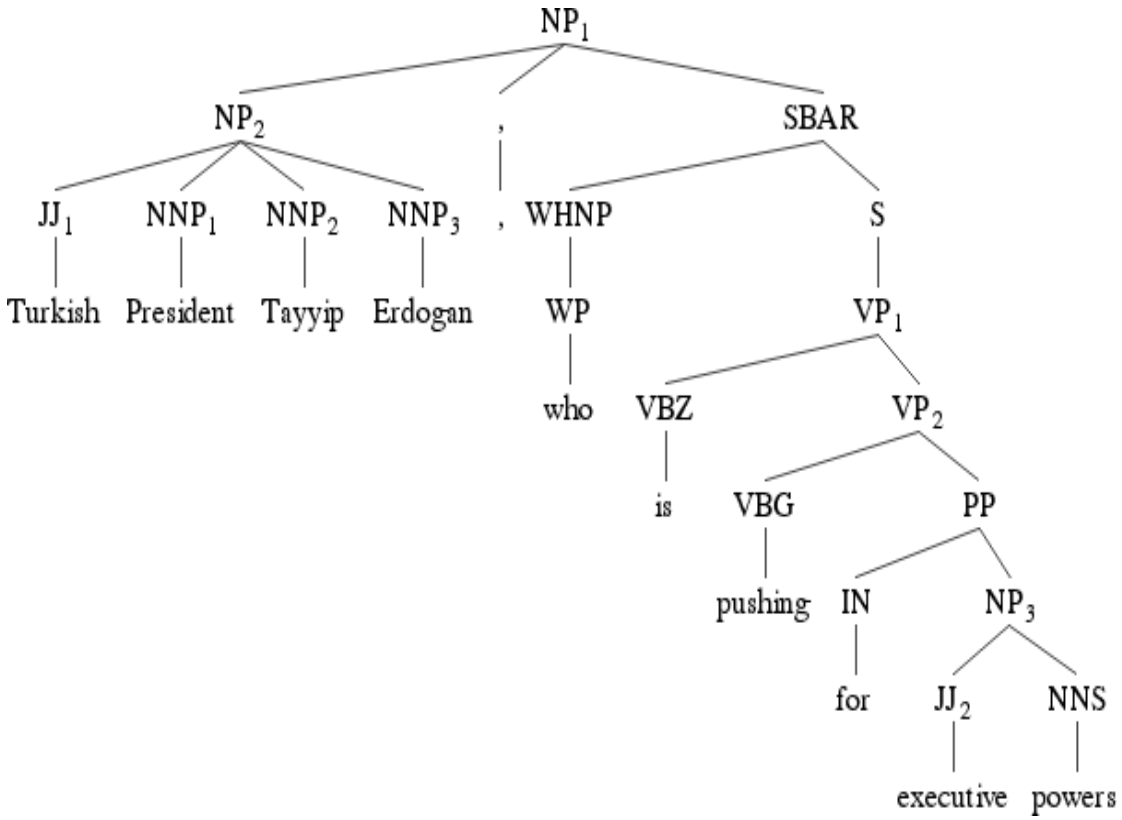


Figure 4.9.2: Head-Initial Noun Phrase Tree Example (from corpus)

The head "Erdogan" also appears in the early stage of the NP in the aforementioned NP (Figure 4.9.2), in contrast to head-final NP (Figure 4.8), where the head was positioned in the final stage of NP (Figure 4.8). The SBAR (Complementizer Phrase) and JJ1, NNP1, NNP2, and NNP3 (the head of the maximum projection) comprise NP2, whereas WHNP and S make up SBAR. The maximal projection NP1 (Figure 4.9.2) is further separated into NP2 and SBAR.

The quantifiable results from "Corpus," which was formed especially for the study, show that there are a total of 1572 NPs; 711 are only heads, 415 have pre-head change, and 136 have post-head modifications, meaning that 550 of them are analyzable, as shown in the table below. These examples relate to the Pakistani English study.

Table 4.1: Quantitative Results for the Corpus

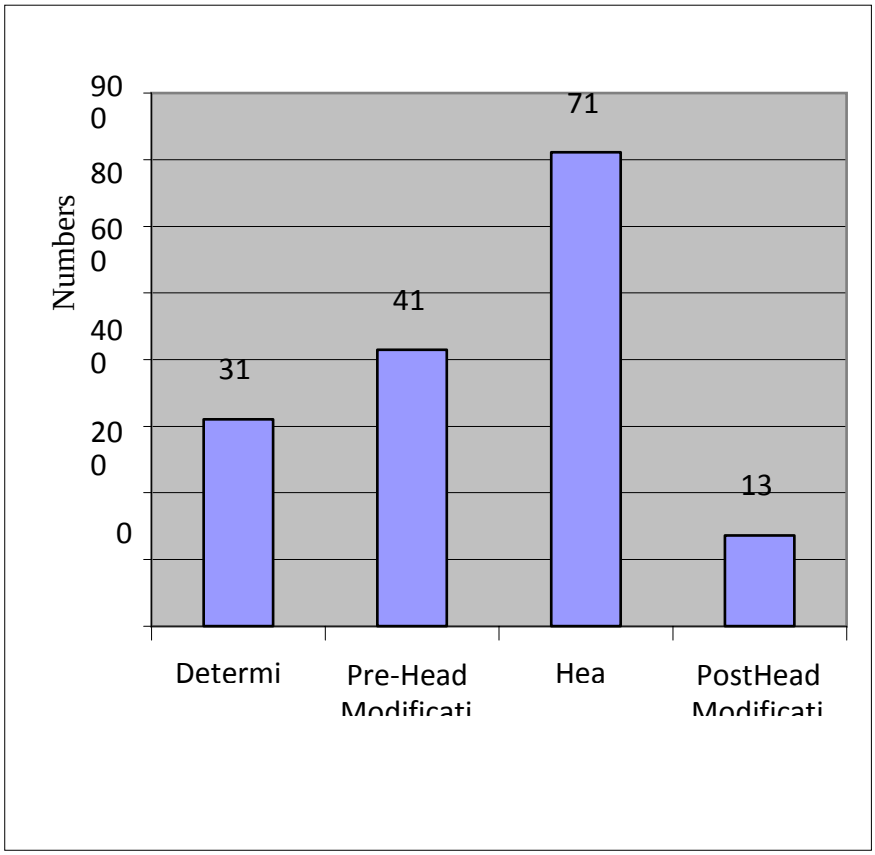


Table 4.2: NPs Results (Single N)

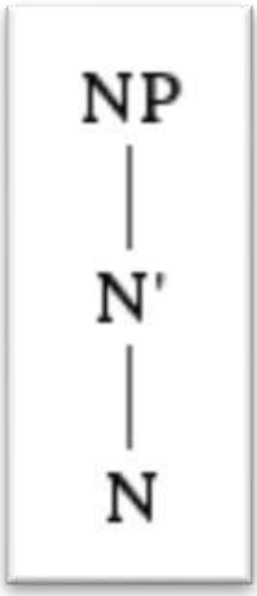

Noun (N)
260 (19%)

Table 4.2 above indicates that 260 (19%) of the total number of NPs are composed of a Noun (N); other possible compositions of NPs include a Proper Noun, Pronoun, or Just a Noun.

Table 4.3: Outcomes for NPs Using Determinants

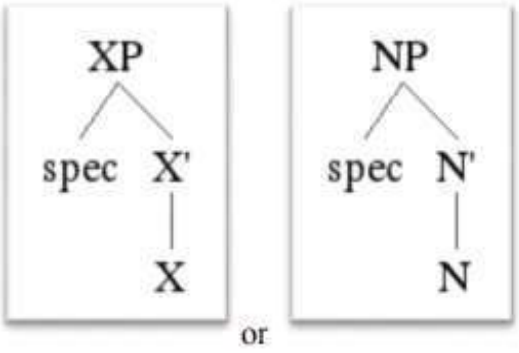
	
Determiner (Det)	**Noun (N)**
310 (19%)	

Table 4.3 above demonstrates that out of all NPs, 310 (19%) consist of a Specifier (Spec) and a Noun (N); however, NPs can also consist of a Determiner (Det) and a Noun (N).

Table 4.4: Outcomes for NPs with AdjP or Adjective

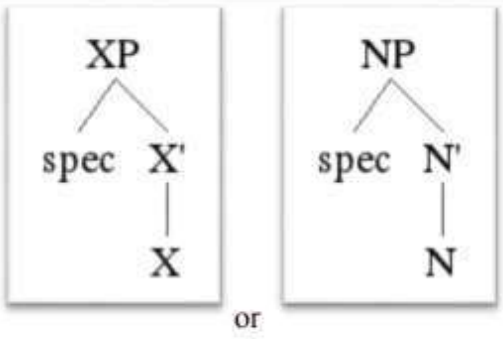
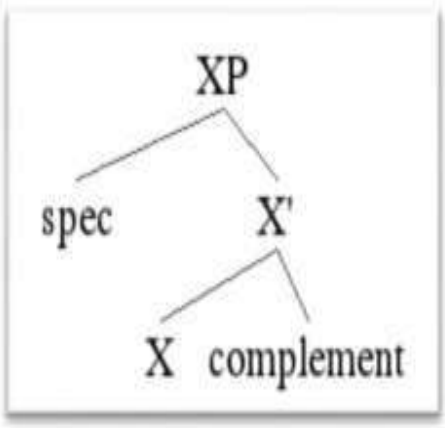
	
Adjective	**Noun (N)**
415 (26%)	

Table 4.4 illustrates that out of all NPs, 415 (or 26%) comprise of a Specifier (Spec) and a Noun (N). The NPs can also include an Adjective (JJ) or Adjectival Phrase (AdjP) and a Noun (N).

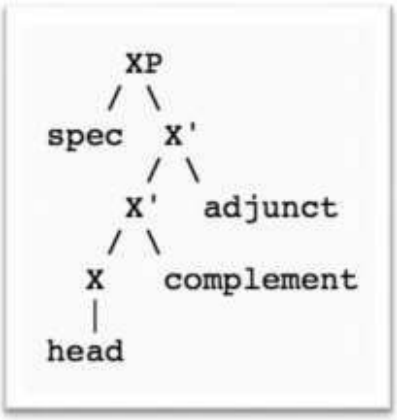
Table 4.5: NPs' Results with Compliment



Noun (N)	Complement
136 (9%)	

According to Table 4.5 above, 136 NPs (9%) out of the total NPs have a Noun (N) followed by a Construction; the NPs can also have a Noun (N) and a Complement (Comp).

Table 4.6: NPs with Specifier, Compliment, and Adjunct Results



Specifier (spec)	Noun (N)	Complement (Comp)	Adjunct
	41 (3%)		

Table 4.6 illustrates that out of all NPs, 41 (3%) exist of a Specifier (spec), a Noun (N), a Complement (comp), and an Adjunct. The NPs can also comprise a Noun (N) and a Complement (Comp), for example, "the boys in same uniform with shinny boots."

Table 4.7: Summaries of Noun Phrase Results

Structure of Noun Phrase (NP)	
XP	
Spec	**X'**

		AdjP		X	Comp	Adjc
Pre-determiner	**Determiner**	**Post-determiner**	**Pre-mod**	**H**	**Post-mod**	**%**
				26		1
				0		7
	310			31		1
				0		9
55				55		3
			415	41		2
				5		6

	317		317	31 7			2 0
				13 6	136		9
	38	38	38	38			2
	41		41	41	41	41	3

Table 4.7 above indicates that 260 (19%) of the total number of NPs are composed of a Noun (N); other possible compositions of NPs include a Proper Noun, Pronoun, or Just a Noun. 310 (19%) NPs have a Specifier (Spec) and a Noun (N) in order of appearance; other NPs could only have a Determiner (Det) and a Noun (N). A Noun (N) and a Specifier (Spec) make up 415 (26%) of the NPs; the NPs can also include an Adjective (JJ) or an Adjectival Phrase (AdjP) and a Noun (N). A Noun (N) and a Complement follow in 136 (9%) of the NPs; the NPs can also lie in of a Noun (N) and a Complement (Comp).41 (3%). A Specifier (spec), a Noun (N), a Construction (comp), and an Adjunct make up NPs. Alternatively, the NPs might be a Noun (N) and a Complement (Comp).

Because of the effect of the Urdu Intellectual on the Pakistani English Variety, 415 (26%) NPs have the Specifier (Spec) precede by a Noun (N); the NPs may also consist of an Adjective (JJ) or Adjectival Phrase (AdjP) and a Noun (N). Based on this, it can be said that the Pakistani English variety is deviate and word form to the notion of motion mostly according to the X-bar structure. Therefore, the preceding example (Figure 4.8) of constituency grammars shows this kind of constituent movement.

4.3 The Functional Approach's Differing Word Order

Conventional grammars qualify a more discourse-oriented statement of end-focus, which is an approach to structural inform of language that centers on the concepts of subject, remark, and focus. These investigations are predicated on the view that a phrase is often created with low-value data organic at start and high-value information constituents at the finish. Prior to the more past data referred to as comments or focuses, there is the older data known as subject or theme. Proposed constituent composition require that the constituent represent historical knowledge in some manner, either relative or absolute, to the discourse or the hearer. According to Birner and Ward (quoted in de Mönnink, 2000), a postposed constituent in a structure must represent knowledge that is novel in some way. This generalization is not true for Left Dislocation (LD) or Right Dislocation (RD). Left-dislocated constituents often symbolise new collection, whereas right-dislocated constituents provide data in some way. Left dislocation often indicates the return of subjects that have been out of focus for some time—topics that are typically said to as certain. Right dislocation is frequently viewed as an afterthought or as a fixable condition. For instance, when the speaker gives the explicit variant in case the pronoun referent is uncertain. According to Givón (as stated in de Mönnink, 2000), the pronoun's

proximity to the dislocated part and the fact that the relocated element comes after an intonation pause provide credence to the interpretation of right dislocation. The difference between LD and RD from other movement types is that, by default, they have a function word that is co-referential to the left or right disjointed component, both syntactically and operationally. From the corpus, sentences (1) and (2) stand for left and right dislocation, respectively.

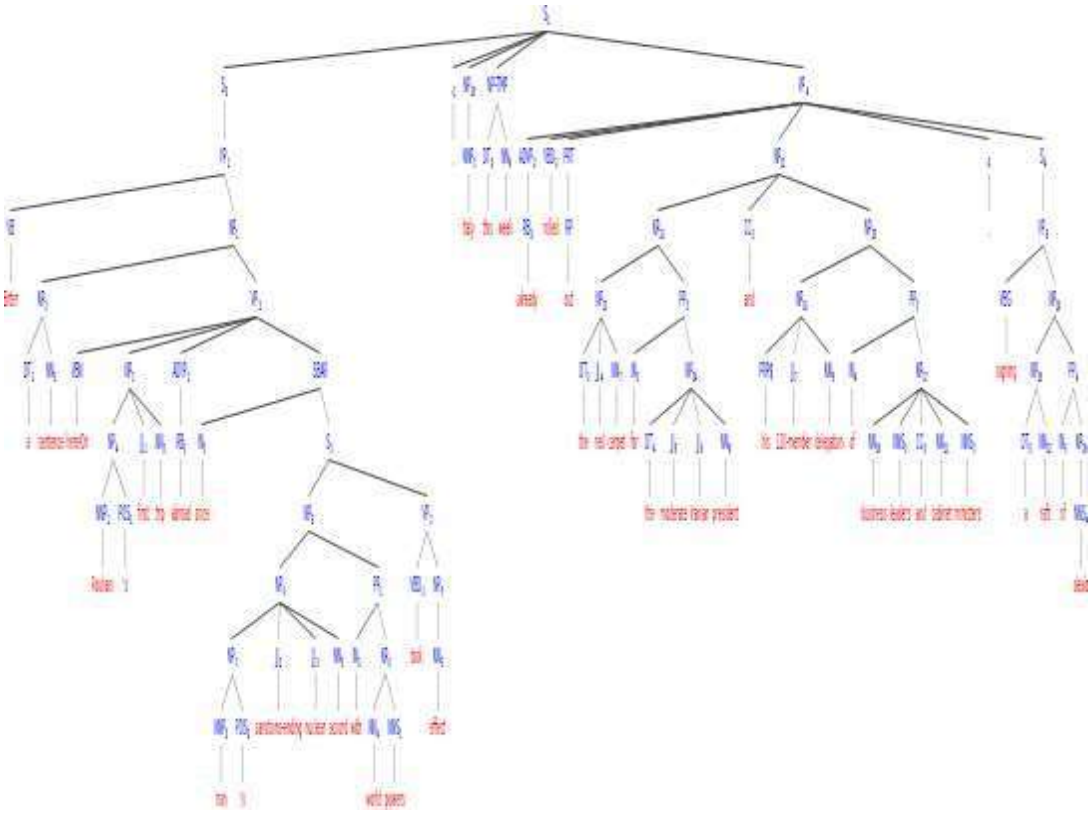


Figure S-4.10: Left Dislocation Example (From corpus)

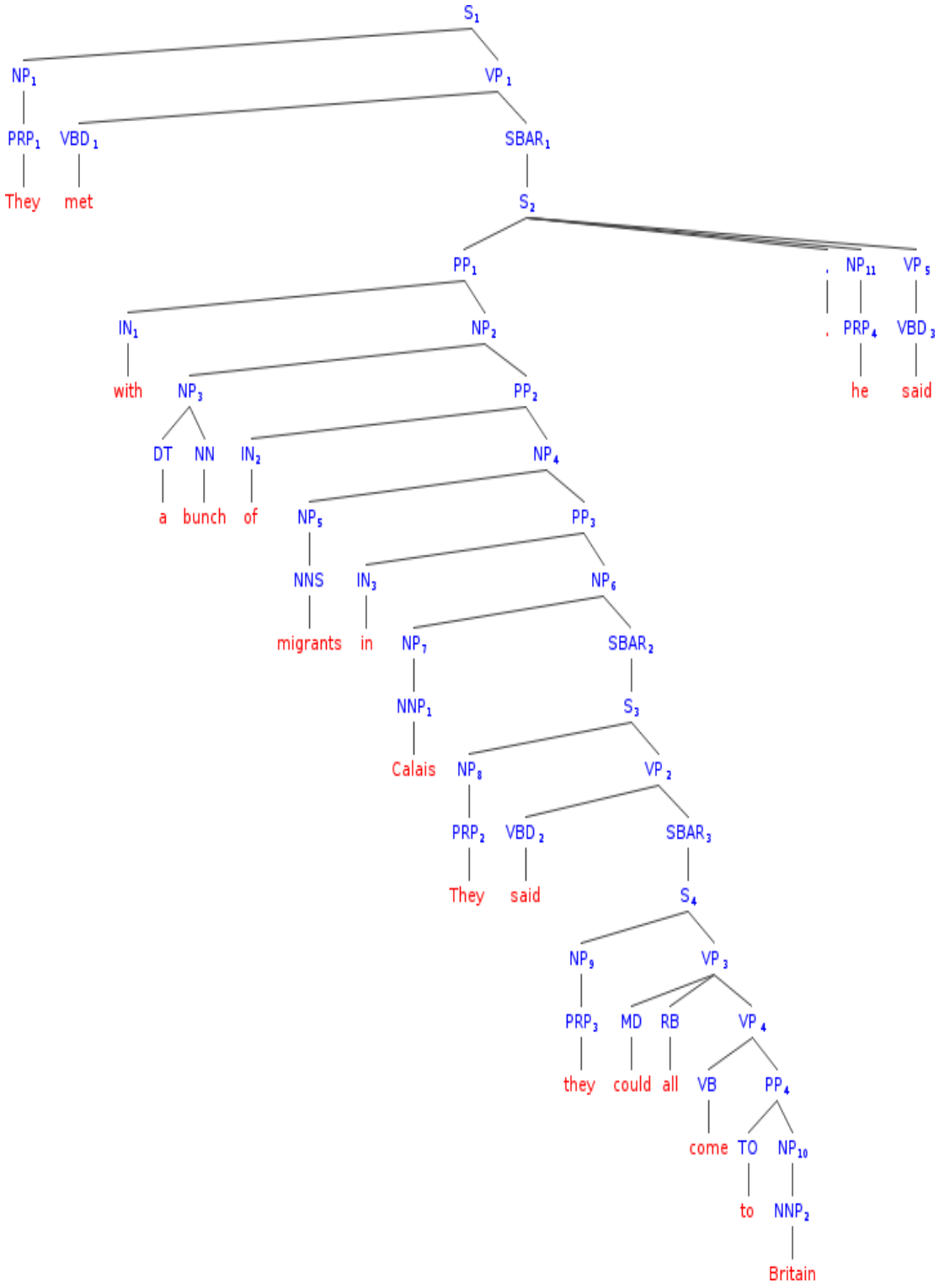


Figure S-4.10.1: Right Perturbation Example (From Corpus)

New advances in the disciplines of psycholinguistics and functional linguistics have led to a more cognitively-oriented view of word order. Many explanations are based on the rules of substance processing, including general cognitive psychology processes concerning the ability of the short-term memory and the real-time generation and interpretation of utterances. A new utterance contains some previously stored old information woven into it to aid in the listener's proper interpretation and memory retention of the new information (grounding).

CHAPTER 05

OVERVIEW AND RESULTS

In order to fulfill the main goal, the researcher set out to investigate the components' mobility inside the Pakistani English NP and to learn more about the traits and frequency of various NPs that might be used to characterize corpus-based and intuitive information studies. The fluctuation of word command in generic and of expression components in specific has not been soundly examined in the English synchronic grammars, which is the main motivation behind studying the mobility of NP elements. If variations are noted, either little or no description is provided; instead, just approximate information about the frequency and circumstances of certain variants occurs. The discipline of corpus linguistics provides another justification for this investigation. This branch of linguistics must provide a thorough description of language in order to analyze corpora. Formal grammar is intended to define all conceivable regular structures and their modifications, and it is an essential tool in corpus analysis. Understanding how the components move may help to reduce the ambiguity of the analyses by helping to develop conditions on how word order varies in the nominal grammar. I provide a summary and discussion of every research finding in this chapter.

5.1 Analysis of the Findings

As previously stated, the results of the Pakistani English study show that out of the 1572 NPs in the corpus, 711 are merely head modifications, 415 have pre-head change, and 136 have post-head qualify, meaning that 550 of them are complicated. It implies that

they are not merely headless. Sixty-four percent of the complicated NPs do not suitable into the standard NP construction. Of these aberrant NPs, 82.8% represent the constituent change. Taking as a starting point the structure of the standard NP, Variant NPs with the following Pakistani English characteristics may arise from the shift of components into their respective broad categories:

Prior to determining Decider After determiner Head of Pre-modifier Post-modifier

Based on the current NP structure, five of the six kinds of NPs were discovered. Chapter 2's "Variant noun phrases" section discusses the nine different types of deviating noun phrases that were included in the conventional structure. The part also elaborates on the distribution of variant noun phrases. In more casual genres, different NPs with a ambulant element are far more common; in formal contexts, the reverse pattern was seen. However, the link is weak with respect to these two variables' contingency coefficients. With a few minor exceptions, different NPs are often dispensed with about the same cardinal as absence NPs. NPs with a floating ingredient are hardly noticeable in subject position and favor the direct object position. NPs that functioned as direct objects, object complements, or subject attributes but had a fronted floating and/or discontinuous component were not demonstrated.

5.1.1 Results

In two ways, this work has improved the corpus linguistics area with valuable information. First of all, it has shed light on what is needed in order for the English NP components to progress. This knowledge aids in the development of formal grammars for corpus analysis that, to the greatest extent possible, manage ambiguity in their descriptions. In this instance, however, formalizing the prerequisites is not as practical as

the attractive evidence suggesting that the different methodological approach would offer the necessary circumstances. When adding new NP constructs, it is important to consider the increasing number of parser ambiguities, the infrequency of the variant NPs and the correspondingly low parsing accuracy, as well as the lack of favorable circumstances for most variant NPs. Therefore, it would appear foolish to add more regulations. An anomaly that is permissible is including a parser designed to analyze unlimited input and provide, at the very least, the parser's contextually appropriate analysis among its other output.

Primarily, this research has aided in the advancement of study procedures utilizing the corpus in the future. Some of the drawbacks of depending just on corpus data have been addressed, especially for a qualitative investigation of such a rare trait. The movement of the English NP elements was studied using a multi-method approach, but this technique may be used to any other research project whose goal is to provide a full description of a linguistic structure.

5.2 The Multi-Method Approach's Limitations

This study is noteworthy because it applies a multi-method strategy that combines corpus and intuitive data in the practical and empirical approaching to synchronic linguistics. It wasdiscovered that the analysis of (de Mönnink, 2000), the quantity of different NPs, and modifying the instances from his principal sum, was helpful in obtaining a suitable sum-up of NP building in Pakistani English. It was critical to include a variety of formal genres in the results to demonstrate a predilection for movement. However, given the

wide fluctuations in the numbers of prototypical and variant NPs, these results were not helpful in establishing any statistical information. When the predicted cell frequencies were less than five due to a very low frequency of variant NPs, it was particularly challenging.

5.2.1 Future Suggestions and Recommendations

Statistical methods such as the chi-square trial were no longer applicable in the current contexts. Future research with a larger corpus may help partially alleviate this issue because the frequency disparity between default and variant NPs will remain the same. The way to assess the responsibility of the current data is to develop hypotheses based on them and test them using elicitation experiments.

Overall, the concept and implementation of the research yielded favorable outcomes. For the current researcher, the online parsing program for first parsing was easy to use and helpful in processing the demanding data tasks. However, I would like to recommend that the elicitation experiment be repeated in future studies, with the addition of the following features: interviews during the first round of elicitation, as this provided a precious source of information for interpreting the results; different instructions for the performance tests and additional examples; a five-point scale instead of a seven-point one for scoring and interpreting the samples' similarity, frequency, and normalcy; access to a variety of linguists with native language proficiency during the pilot study to evaluate and comment on the selected sentences, so that confusing not indigenous determiner in the sentences are known early;

- Adding a sentence in four different test types (two tests fort acceptability and performance) might reduce the complexity of interpreting the scores;

- In an experiment, increasing the No. Of sentences could yield additional data.
- It may be possible to access a bigger group of people who take part to see if the different design that changeable had any effect on the test result.
- To add literary works written in this region of the world to the PE corpus.

In summary, the different methodological approach proved to be a potent instrument for an inquiry seeking to stipulate a extensive depiction of a structure, specifically examining an infrequent language aspect of qualitative attributes. Nevertheless, a few preconditions must be satisfied before the different methodological approach to the study of NP movement can be considered successful. First off, the analysis is predicated on what is currently known about the NP structure in Pakistani English literature. Without these guidelines, the inquiry would not have been rigorous enough for corpus research to succeed, and the elicitation experiment's testing of too many hypotheses would not have been feasible. Second, there has to be a corpus available that the annotation is made for, according to certain specifications. Though the multi-method technique was highly effective in investigating a rare characteristic, The relative motility frequency in the NP was not controllable to be lower than what was found. This is because it. This is because it would have had a negative impact on the hypotheses being investigated in the elicitation experiment would have had a negative impact on the ideas being investigated in the elicitation experiment.

Fourth, even if the multi-method approach is essential for furthering the development of linguistic methodology, from an empirical standpoint, the technique still heavily depends on linguist's representation of the corpus and research data.

Note: Although the specific implementations used in the study may not be known to readers who are familiar with generative syntax in general, advanced students may find the current research to be understandable.

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Appendix A: A Small Sample from Corpus

Source:http://www.dawn.com/news/1230061/erdogan-says-hitlers-germany-exemplifieseffective-presidential-system

ISTANBUL: Turkish President Tayyip Erdogan, who is pushing for executive powers, cites Hitler's Germany as an example of n effective presidential system, in comments broadcast by Turkish media on Friday.

Erdogan wants to change the Turkish constitution to turn the ceremonial role of president into that of a chief executive, a Turkish version of the system in the United States, France or Russia.

Asked on his return from a visit to Saudi Arabia late on Thursday whether an executive presidential system was possible while maintaining the unitary structure of the state, he said: ‒There are already examples in the world. You can see it when you look at Hitler's Germany. ‒There are later examples in various other countries,‖ he told reporters, according to a recording broadcast by the Dogan news agency.

Also read:Turkish PM slams Israel for 'Hitler-like fascism'

The ruling AK Party, founded by Erdogan, has put a new constitution at the heart of its agenda after winning back a majority in a November parliamentary election.

It agreed with the main opposition CHP on Wednesday to revive efforts to forge a new constitution.

Opposition parties agree on the need to change the constitution, drawn up after a 1980 coup and still bearing the stamp of its military authors, but do not back the presidential system envisaged by Erdogan, fearing it will consolidate too much power in the hands of an authoritarian leader.

[NP ISTANBUL_NNP] :_: [NP Turkish_JJ President_NNP Tayyip_NNP Erdogan_NNP] ,_,

[NP who_WP] [VP is_VBZ pushing_VBG] [PP for_IN] [NP executive_NN powers_NNS] ,_, [VP cites_VBZ] [NP Hitler_NNP] [NP 's_POS Germany_NNP] [PP as_IN] [NP an_DT example_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP an_DT effective_JJ presidential_JJ system_NN] ,_, [PP in_IN] [NP comments_NNS] [VP broadcast_VBN] [PP by_IN] [NP Turkish_JJ media_NNS] [PP on_IN] [NP Friday_NNP] ._.

[NP Erdogan_NNP] [VP wants_VBZ to_TO change_VB] [NP the_DT Turkish_JJ constitution_NN] [VP to_TO turn_VB] [NP the_DT ceremonial_JJ role_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP president_NN] [PP into_IN] [NP that_DT] [PP of_IN] [NP a_DT chief_JJ executive_NN] ,_, [NP a_DT Turkish_JJ version_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP the_DT system_NN] [PP in_IN] [NP the_DT United_NNP States_NNPS ,_, France_NNP or_CC Russia_NNP] ._.

[VP Asked_VBN] [PP on_IN] [NP his_PRP$ return_NN] [PP from_IN] [NP a_DT visit_NN]

[PP to_TO] [NP Saudi_NNP Arabia_NNP] [ADVP late_RB] [PP on_IN] [NP Thursday_NNP

] [PP whether_IN] [NP an_DT executive_NN presidential_JJ system_NN] [VP was_VBD] [ADJP possible_JJ] [PP while_IN] [VP maintaining_VBG] [NP the_DT unitary_JJ structure_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP the_DT state_NN] ,_, [NP he_PRP] [VP said_VBD] :_: ``_`` [NP There_EX] [VP are_VBP] [NP already_RB examples_NNS] [PP in_IN] [NP the_DT world_NN] ._.

[NP You_PRP] [VP can_MD see_VB] [NP it_PRP] [ADVP when_WRB] [NP you_PRP] [VP look_VBP] [PP at_IN] [NP Hitler_NNP] [NP 's_POS Germany_NNP] ._. ``_`` [NP There_EX] [VP are_VBP] [NP later_RB examples_NNS] [PP in_IN] [NP various_JJ other_JJ countries_NNS] ,_, "_" [NP he_PRP] [VP told_VBD] [NP reporters_NNS] ,_, [PP according_VBG] [PP to_TO] [NP a_DT recording_NN broadcast_NN] [PP by_IN] [NP the_DT Dogan_NNP news_NN agency_NN] ._.

[ADVP Also_RB] [VP read_VB] :_: [NP Turkish_JJ PM_NNP] [VP slams_VBZ] [NP

Israel_NNP] [PP for_IN] [NP `_`` Hitler-like_JJ fascism_NN] '_" [NP The_DT ruling_NN AK_NNP Party_NNP] ,_, [VP founded_VBN] [PP by_IN] [NP Erdogan_NNP] ,_, [VP has_VBZ put_VBN] [NP a_DT new_JJ constitution_NN] [PP at_IN] [NP the_DT heart_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP its_PRP$ agenda_NN] [PP after_IN] [VP winning_VBG] [PRT back_RP] [NP a_DT majority_NN] [PP in_IN] [NP a_DT November_NNP parliamentary_JJ election_NN

] ._.

[NP It_PRP] [VP agreed_VBD] [PP with_IN] [NP the_DT main_JJ opposition_NN CHP_NNP] [PP on_IN] [NP Wednesday_NNP] [VP to_TO revive_VB] [NP efforts_NNS] [VP to_TO forge_VB] [NP a_DT new_JJ constitution_NN] ._.

[NP Opposition_NN parties_NNS] [VP agree_VBP] [PP on_IN] [NP the_DT need_NN] [VP to_TO change_VB] [NP the_DT constitution_NN] ,_, [VP drawn_VBN] [PRT up_RP] [PP after_IN] [NP a_DT 1980_CD coup_NN] and_CC [VP still_RB bearing_VBG] [NP the_DT stamp_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP its_PRP$ military_JJ authors_NNS] ,_, but_CC [VP do_VBP not_RB back_RB] [NP the_DT presidential_JJ system_NN] [VP envisaged_VBN] [PP by_IN] [NP Erdogan_NNP] ,_, [VP fearing_VBG] [NP it_PRP] [VP will_MD consolidate_VB] [NP too_RB much_JJ power_NN] [PP in_IN] [NP the_DT hands_NNS] [PP of_IN] [NP an_DT authoritarian_JJ leader_NN] ._.

Source: http://www.express.co.uk/news/world/630871/Erdogan-Adolf-Hitler-good-government

THE Turkish President has sparked controversy after incredibly citing mass-murdering Adolf Hitler as an example when trying to push through government reform.

Recep Tayyip Erdogan made the staggering comment about Nazi Germany as attempts to buildup his own political position and put more powers into his hands.

At a press conference in Turkey which he held after cutting a state visit to Saudi Arabia short following the death of eminent pro-government political journalist Hasan Karakaya, Mr Erdogan was asked if he thought a presidential system would be possible while keeping the state‘s unitary structure.

He said: ‒Yes. There is nothing to say that you can't have a presidential system in a unitary state.

"There are already some examples in the world today, and also some from the past.

‒You see it when you look at Hitler's Germany.

‒Later you see the example again in various other countries."

The President‘s AKP party won a solid victory in November in the Turkish elections, increasing his grip on power.

Despite being part of a party, he was praised for personally leading AKP to success and Turkish state broadcasters focused on him rather than any of his opponents.

He has said before Turkey already has a presidential system, although it does not under law, and said any constitutional reforms would simply ‒finalise‖ the change.

A senior Turkish official defended Mr Erdogan, saying he had meant to highlight Nazi Germany as an example of how not to implement a presidential system.

He said: ‒There are good and poor examples of presidential systems and the important thing is to put checks and balances in place.

‒Nazi Germany, lacking proper institutional arrangements, was obviously one of the most disgraceful examples in history.

‒That‘s his point.‖

[NP THE_DT Turkish_JJ President_NNP] [VP has_VBZ sparked_VBN] [NP controversy_NN

] [PP after_IN] [ADVP incredibly_RB] [VP citing_VBG] [NP mass-murdering_JJ Adolf_NNP Hitler_NNP] [PP as_IN] [NP an_DT example_NN] [VP when_WRB trying_VBG to_TO push_VB] [PP through_IN] [NP government_NN reform_NN] ._.

[NP Recep_NNP Tayyip_NNP Erdogan_NNP] [VP made_VBD] [NP the_DT staggering_JJ comment_NN] [PP about_IN] [NP Nazi_NNP Germany_NNP] [PP as_IN] [NP attempts_NNS] [VP to_TO build-up_VB] [NP his_PRP$ own_JJ political_JJ position_NN] and_CC [VP put_VB] [NP more_JJR powers_NNS] [PP into_IN] [NP his_PRP$ hands_NNS]

._.

[PP At_IN] [NP a_DT press_NN conference_NN] [PP in_IN] [NP Turkey_NNP] [NP which_WDT] [NP he_PRP] [VP held_VBD] [SBAR after_IN] [VP cutting_VBG] [NP a_DT state_NN visit_NN] [PP to_TO] [NP Saudi_NNP Arabia_NNP] [ADVP short_RB] [VP following_VBG] [NP the_DT death_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP eminent_JJ pro-government_JJ political_JJ journalist_NN Hasan_NNP Karakaya_NNP] ,_, [NP Mr_NNP Erdogan_NNP] [VP was_VBD asked_VBN] [SBAR if_IN] [NP he_PRP] [VP thought_VBD] [NP a_DT presidential_JJ system_NN] [VP would_MD be_VB] [ADJP possible_JJ] [SBAR while_IN] [VP keeping_VBG] [NP the_DT state_NN] [NP 's_POS unitary_JJ structure_NN] ._.

[NP He_PRP] [VP said_VBD] :_: ``_`` [NP Yes_UH] ._.

[NP There_EX] [VP is_VBZ] [NP nothing_NN] [VP to_TO say_VB] [SBAR that_IN] [NP you_PRP] [VP ca_MD n't_RB have_VB] [NP a_DT presidential_JJ system_NN] [PP in_IN] [NP a_DT unitary_JJ state_NN] ._.

``_`` [NP There_EX] [VP are_VBP] [ADVP already_RB] [NP some_DT examples_NNS] [PP in_IN] [NP the_DT world_NN today_NN] ,_, and_CC [ADVP also_RB] [NP some_DT] [PP from_IN] [NP the_DT past_NN] ._.

``_`` [NP You_PRP] [VP see_VBP] [NP it_PRP] [ADVP when_WRB] [NP you_PRP] [VP look_VBP] [PP at_IN] [NP Hitler_NNP] [NP 's_POS Germany_NNP] ._.

``_`` [ADVP Later_RB] [NP you_PRP] [VP see_VBP] [NP the_DT example_NN] [ADVP again_RB] [PP in_IN] [NP various_JJ other_JJ countries_NNS] ._. "_"

[NP The_DT President_NNP] [NP 's_POS AKP_NNP party_NN] [VP won_VBD] [NP a_DT solid_JJ victory_NN] [PP in_IN] [NP November_NNP] [PP in_IN] [NP the_DT Turkish_JJ elections_NNS] ,_, [VP increasing_VBG] [NP his_PRP$ grip_NN] [PP on_IN] [NP power_NN] ._.

[PP Despite_IN] [VP being_VBG] [NP part_NN] [PP of_IN] [NP a_DT party_NN] ,_, [NP he_PRP] [VP was_VBD praised_VBN] [PP for_IN] [VP personally_RB leading_VBG] [NP

AKP_NNP] [PP to_TO] [NP success_NN and_CC Turkish_JJ state_NN broadcasters_NNS] [VP focused_VBD] [PP on_IN] [NP him_PRP] [ADVP rather_RB] [PP than_IN] [NP any_DT] [PP of_IN] [NP his_PRP$ opponents_NNS] ._.

[NP He_PRP] [VP has_VBZ said_VBN] [PP before_IN] [NP Turkey_NNP] [ADVP already_RB] [VP has_VBZ] [NP a_DT presidential_JJ system_NN] ,_, [SBAR although_IN] [NP it_PRP] [VP does_VBZ] not_RB [PP under_IN] [NP law_NN] ,_, and_CC [VP said_VBD] [NP any_DT constitutional_JJ reforms_NNS] [VP would_MD simply_RB ``_`` finalise_VB] "_" [NP the_DT change_NN] ._.

[NP A_DT senior_JJ Turkish_JJ official_NN] [VP defended_VBD] [NP Mr_NNP Erdogan_NNP] ,_, [VP saying_VBG] [NP he_PRP] [VP had_VBD meant_VBN to_TO highlight_VB] [NP Nazi_NNP Germany_NNP] [PP as_IN] [NP an_DT example_NN] [PP of_IN] [ADVP how_WRB] not_RB [VP to_TO implement_VB] [NP a_DT presidential_JJ system_NN] ._.

[NP He_PRP] [VP said_VBD] :_: ``_`` [NP There_EX] [VP are_VBP] [ADJP good_JJ and_CC poor_JJ] [NP examples_NNS] [PP of_IN] [NP presidential_JJ systems_NNS] and_CC [NP the_DT important_JJ thing_NN] [VP is_VBZ] [VP to_TO put_VB] [NP checks_NNS and_CC balances_NNS] [PP in_IN] [NP place_NN] ._.

``_`` [NP Nazi_NNP Germany_NNP] ,_, [VP lacking_VBG] [NP proper_JJ institutional_JJ arrangements_NNS] ,_, [VP was_VBD] [NP obviously_RB one_CD] [PP of_IN] [NP the_DT most_RBS disgraceful_JJ examples_NNS] [PP in_IN] [NP history_NN] ._. ``_`` [NP That_DT] [VP 's_VBZ] [NP his_PRP$ point_NN] ._. "_"