CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview of the Chapter

In the present study, five Punjabi syntactic constructions, i.e., negative, passive, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory have been explored and subsequently compared to their counterparts in English through the revised extended standard transformational generative grammar through. In this introductory chapter, the background of the study is briefly explained, the statement of the problem, research questions, and significance of the study are discussed in detail. Finally, a brief overview of the following chapters has been included.

1.2. Background of the Study

Generative grammar is an umbrella term that covers a variety of linguistic theories to describe the formal properties of language. The grammatical rules enable a speaker to construct all and only grammatical sentences, and disregard ungrammatical ones. This principle is called descriptive adequacy. The theory also has explanatory adequacy that enables it to explain why grammars have the properties they have and why children manage to learn their native language in such a short period and can generate sentences that they have never heard of (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Since its inception in the 1950s, the generative theory has undergone many revisions and modifications.

Luraghi and Parodi (2008) commented that the early version of the theory of transformational generative grammar was called the classical model of transformational grammar. It was proposed by Chomsky in 1957 in his famous book *Syntactic Structures*; the standard theory or the aspect version of transformational grammar was developed by Chomsky based on the suggestions from critics in 1965; the standard theory was modified to extended standard theory in 1970, and finally, the revised extended standard transformational generative theory (REST) was developed from 1973 to 1977.

In the recent theory, i.e., the revised extended standard transformational generative theory, Chomsky completely eliminates the relationship between the semantic component and the deep structure. In this theory, the semantic component is related to the surface structure. Moreover, the concept of *traces* has been included in this theory, and the indication of traces to the surface structure shows that the transformational rules have been applied to the deep structure. The meaning of the surface structure can be divided into two parts: the first type is the logical form, which means that the subject and predicate may agree in both number, tense, and gender. Moreover, the sentence should have internal cohesion and be semantically accepted. In other words, the construction should be syntactically and semantically acceptable, and the sentence structure shows that the speaker has grammatical knowledge.

The second semantic rule concerns performance, for which the speaker must have linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge. The linguistic rule means reference system in a sentence, and the reference may be unbounded anaphora; for example, 'Table' and 'It' both refer to an inanimate entity; the reference of a constituent used in a sentence could be located from the situation and context in which a syntactic construction has been used. The non-linguistic rules refer to the speaker's expectations, beliefs or intentions. The combination of linguistic and non-linguistic aspects plays a vital role in interpreting a sentence. In other words, the semantic aspect includes semantics and pragmatics (Bagha, 2009).

The central concepts in the theory of generative grammar are transformations whereby a deep structure is transformed into a surface structure. There are numerous theories on the significance of deep and surface structures, the existence of these structures, and the significance and kinds of transformations. Transformations may be compulsory or optional. The compulsory transformational/movement rules include Wh-movement, auxiliary inversion, passive transformation, negative transformation and coordination. The optional rules for particle movement, topicalization, imperative transformation, verb phrase deletion, and pronominalization applied in English. They might or might not be used. The topicalization transformation is usually required in English, and the object of the construction is always placed in the beginning. The insertion rule is required in English when it comes to embedded sentences. To generate a grammatical surface structure, it must be applied to the deep structure (Rowe et al., D. P. 2022).

Moreover, there is a difference between ordinary transformations and movement transformations or rules. The ordinary transformational rules, like deletion, insertion, pronomalization, etc., do not move a constituent in a deep structure to generate a surface structure. On the contrary, movement transformations like 'Wh' movement, head movement, and promotion and domotion of a constituenet (used in passive voice) from one place to another to generate surface structure. In an ex-situ language like English, the movement transformations move the constituents to have a surface structure; in an in-situ language like Punjabi, the constituents usually do not move to form a surface structure. In the present study, the syntactic constructions of Punjabi and English languages have been compared; therefore, such a study is called comparative syntax. Rijkhoff, J. (2002) elaborated that in comparative syntax, several languages' syntactic rules and structures are systematically analyzed and compared. It seeks to pinpoint universal principles all languages share and language-specific differences in sentence structure and semantic expression. Word order, phrase structure, transformations, and syntactic dependencies are examples of the areas where comparative syntax looks for trends and variations among languages.

After briefly introducing the aforementined theory, i.e., the revised extended standard transformational grammar used in this study, the second part is a short introduction to some aspects of the Punjabi language. Punjabi belongs to the Indo-Aryan language family and is one of the major languages spoken in Pakistan and India. In Pakistan, it is one of the major languages spoken by the majority of the population, along with other national and regional languages.

1.3. A Brief Introduction to Punjabi Language

Punjabi language is one of the most widely spoken Indo-Aryan languages. Having around 100 million native speakers, Punjabi is the tenth-largest language in the world (Ghai & Singh, 2013). In India, the number of native speakers of Punjabi is around 30 million, whereas the number of native speakers reaches around 70 million in Pakistan. Punjabi, in Pakistan, is the native language of 70 million; in Indian state of Punjab, it is given the status of official language, and is recognized by the constituation. Additionally, there are important overseas communities of the Punjabi language residing in Canada, the United States, and the United

Kingdom (Shackle, 2003). There is a dialectal continuum between Punjabi and its closely related cousin languages, Lahnda and Dogri-Kangri, or Western Pahari that stretch from Punjab, India, through Pakistan, and into the Himalayas. Lahnda is mainly spoken in Pakistan, and Western Pahari, also known as Dogri-Kangri, is spoken along the Himalayan crest from Pakistan to Nepal.

In India, Gurmukhi script of Punjabi is used which is generally linked to Sikhs; the Gurmukhi is written from left to right, and is a member of scripts used to compose other languages spoken in different part of India. However, it is quite diverse from the Devanagari in its organization. In Pakistan, Punjabi that is modified from Persio-Arabic script and is written from right to left. In short, Punjabi is one of the few languages which is written both from left to right in India and from right to left in Pakistan, and its sripts are mutually unintelligible. This signifies that most of the native Punjabi speakers from Pakistan are unable to read and comprehend Indian Punjabi script and vice versa. The script of Punjabi written in Pakistan is Shahmukhi (Lewis, 2009).

According to Badakhshani (1973), there are 52 alphabets of Pakistani Punjabi language. By comparing the Punjabi alphabet to its counterpart in English, it is evident that the Punjabi alphabet is more than its English counterparts; the number of the Punjabi alphabet is double than that of the English alphabet because there are some letters which are formed by combining two letters. In English, such combinations are not found. Moreover, Punjabi has 49 consonants, 16 diacritical marks and 16 vowels. On the contrary, the English language has 24 consonants, 20 vowles and it has no diacritical marks (Humayoun et al., A. 2010). However, English is a stressed-timed language, whereas Punjabi is a syllable-timed language. The phonetic dissimilarity between the two languages, especially in the case of vowels and stress patterns, makes the English learning process somewhat challenging for Pakistani Punjabi speakers (Richards et al, 2003).

In Pakistan, Punjabi could not get its due status because Urdu enjoyed a prestigious status during the Pakistan movement, and even after independence to the present-day Urdu is recognized as the official, academic and prestigious language. The people, in Pakistan, who speak Punjabi language are usually considered as belonging to less influential social and academic backgrounds (Fakhira, 2011). Nevertheless, there are 70 million native speakers of

the language, and it is the language of the most densely populated province of Punjab. Due to having a large number of native speakers, there are a number of dialects and varieties of Punjabi, and it is less homogenous than Indian Punjabi. As a result of having a large number of dialects, activists of other less prestigious dialects like Siraiki and Bhutwari are insistent that these dialects should be given independent language status and not just one of the dialects of the Punjabi language.

Although there are a number of dialects of Punjabi spoken from Islamabad to Delhi, the standard dialect of the Punjabi in Pakistan and India is the Majhi dialect. The standard dialect is used for education, media, and for formal settings. The standard dialect was originated in the Majha area of India around Amritsar and Gurdaspur areas. Lahore and Amritsar are the two most important cities in this area. The region of Majha consists of the districts of central Punjab in Pakistan and the area around Amritsar and Gurdaspur. In Pakistan, Punjabi is written in Shahmukhi script which has been developed from a modification of the Persian script Nastaliq. The Punjabi language has borrowed most of the words from Persian and Arabic languages due to various historical invasions from the 7^{th} to 11^{th} centuries (Bhatia, 2013).

With the passage of time, Punjabi is regaining its status in the country as a language of rich cultural beliefs and norms. A vast literature of Punjabi language has been produced in recent years and has been retained and preserved from history. Academically, Punjabi is taught as a separate course in certain higher education institutions, and it has its own respective departments. For example, Masters in Punjabi and other Punjabi language courses are offered at the Punjab University and National University of Modern Languages (NUML).

1.4. Grammar of Punjabi Language

The word order of the Punjabi language is canonical, i.e. subject, object and verb like Urdu language and unlike the English language. A subject-object-verb language is Punjabi, and its syntax is largely fixed. There are no word order modifications caused by interrogative or other sentence forms. In general, the subject and verb agree. The verb agrees with the direct object in transitive perfective phrases where the subject is explicitly or covertly expressed with the ‘Ne’ postposition. As a general rule, a postposition is never used to indicate that a verb

agrees with a constituent. Punjabi includes two kinds of verbs in addition to the simple verb class: conjunct and complex/compound verbs. Punjabi is perceptive to the contrasts between stative and active behavior as well as volitional and non-volitional behavior (Bhatia, 2013).

Conjunct or relative clauses can be used to generate participial structures. The present participle denotes an ongoing action or process; the past participle expresses a completed action or a state; the agentive participle denotes a habitual or potential action; and the conjunct participle expresses meanings, such as sequential action, cause-and-effect, and purpose. They are often employed in Punjabi (et al., 2013). In Punjabi, there are two genders, two numbers, and five cases for nouns. The five cases for nouns are direct, oblique, vocative, ablative and instrumental/locative (Shackle, 2003). The last two cases are vestigial -- the ablative case appears in the singular. Nouns may be divided into extended and un-extended declensional subgroups and for masculine ending in unaccented ‘Aaa’ and feminines in ‘Iii. After a brief description of Punjabi grammar, the Punjabi syntactic constructions included in the study have been precisely discussed in the following paragraphs.

The first kind of synactic constructions is negative ones. 'Naii' and 'Na' are the two particles used most frequently in Punjabi to convey negation. The former particle, which is unmarked, is comparable to the English word "not." Some Punjabi dialects pronounce the particle 'Naii' with a low tone. While 'Naii' is used in all other situations, 'Na' is used with the subjunctive, conditional imperative, infinitive phrases, and neither/or structures. Besides negative construction, there are passive constructions, and there are two ways to construct the passive. The first type of passive is created when the subject of the active sentence is followed by either a postposition 'To', an instrumental postposition, or a compound postposition (de) kolo means 'By', and the main verb is used in its past participle form. For instance, the verb 'Jaa' means ‘Go’ would change into 'Giaa' which is the past participle form (et al., 2013).

In addition to passive constructions, there are closed-ended Punjabi constructions. Neutral and leading yes-no questions are the two main categories of yes-no questions. The use of the basic particle ‘Na,’ which means ‘Is it/isn't it,’ distinguishes the first types from the second. The question word ‘Kii’ is optionally inserted in the beginning of an affirmative construction when creating yes-no inquiries. The question word ‘Kii’ in Punjabi has a similar

phonetic structure to the word ‘What’ in English. The placement of the interrogative word 'What' and the yes-or-no question 'Kii' in a sentence is their primary distinction. The word order of a yes-no question in Punjabi does not alter from an affirmative sentence, however the word ‘Kii’ in the question requires a rising intonation, particularly on the verbal portion (et al., 2013).

Besides closed-ended constructions, there are open-ended interrogative sentences. The word order of the Punjabi interrogative syntactic constructions usually does not change; however, the word order of the English closed-ended questions undergoes alteration. In Punjabi, the interrogative constructions are created by replacing the part that is questioned with a question word. The question words such as 'Kii' means what, 'Kaun' means ‘Who’, 'KiRaa' means which, 'Kittthe' means where, 'Kive' means how, 'Kinj' means how, 'Kio jiaa' means what sort, 'Kinnaa' means how much, 'Kiddar' means what direction, and 'Kad' means when. The query words are always emphasized (et al, 2013).

Apart from interrogative constructions, there are imperative structures. Constructions with imperatives are considerate of person, number, imperiousness level, and courtesy. The unmarked imperative, future imperative, subjunctive imperative, obligatory imperative, and prohibitive imperative are the types of imperative phrases that are employed in Punjabi. Exclamatory constructions are one of the minor types of constructions, along with other minor types of structures including interjectional, vocative, and elliptic constructions. An exclamatory structure typically starts with a noun or a noun phrase, but it can also end with a verb. Exclamatory constructs, as previously established, begin with exclamatory words like ‘What,’ ‘How,’ and etc., and end with an exclamation mark to express emotions or feelings rather than a full stop or a question mark (et al, 2013).

The aforestated five types of syntactic constructions have been included in the present study. There is, so far, no such study that has explored the application of transformational rules in constructing these syntactic structures. Transformations, as proposed by Chomsky, are the empirical procedures through which various syntactic structures of a language can be generated. Thus, it is quite a scientific system that gives rise to many surface structures out of deep structures. The present research specifically focuses on various types of transformations

involved in different types of constructions in Punjabi language and then aims to compare and contrast them with English.

1.5. Statement of the Problem

Understanding the structure and organization of language requires a thorough comprehension of syntax. Researchers gain knowledge about both general principles and language-specific aspects that help understand the variety of languages and human cognition by examining the syntactic structures in various languages. While many studies have examined the syntactic characteristics of particular languages, there is still a dearth of studies that provide a thorough and comparative investigation of syntactic changes across many linguistic systems. Punjabi is one of those languages which has not been explored at length in this regard. The present research is an endeavor to understand and explain the complex syntactic structures of the Punjabi language by employing the revised extended standard transformational generative theory (REST). Subsequently, Punjabi constructions have been compared to English ones by employing the aforementioned theoretical framework to ascertain similarities and differences between various kinds of constructions in both languages to facilitate the learning process. The study analyzes the syntactic constructions in Punjabi through the lens of transformations (employed through various operations like movement, deletion, addition, pied-piping, etc.) and explains them in the diagrammatic format (Tree diagrams).

1.6. Objectives of the Study

For the present study, the researcher has the following objectives:

a. To identify the various types of syntactic constructions used in the Punjabi language
b. To study syntactic constructions of Punjabi in comparison to English Constructions through the revised extended standard transformational generative theory
c. To examine how different syntactic structures are generated through various transformational and movement rules such as insertion, deletion, promotion and demotion, head movement, Wh-movement, and operator movement.

1.7. Research Questions

Since this is a qualitative study, the researcher has developed research questions instead of hypothesis and tried to seek answers to the research questions given below.

a. What are the different kinds of syntactic constructions used in Punjabi?
b. How are syntactic constructions in Punjabi different from English in terms of the revised extended standard transformational (REST) generative theory?
c. What different transformational rules/movement rules are applied to generate Punjabi surface structures from deep ones?

1.8. Delimitation of the Study

The present study has been delimited concerning two aspects: the first aspect is the kind of syntactic constructions in Punjabi to be analyzed. For this purpose, only five types of syntactic constructions have been selected to find out how their surface structures are generated from deep structures with the help of the transformations applied to deep structures. The five types of constructions included are negative, interrogative, passive, imperative, and exclamatory. These five types of syntactic constructions have been intentionally selected because they are frequently used in speech and writing. The frequency of their use is high as compared to other syntactic constructions, for example, optative, conditional, and subjunctive constructions. The second aspect of syntactic constructions researched is the kind of operations/transformations involved in generating these constructions to surface structures from their deep structures. These include compulsory and optional transformations employed to construct negative, interrogative, passive, imperative, and exclamatory syntactic constructions. These transformations or transformational rules are termed as insertion, deletion, substitution, permutation and, embedding, etc.

1.9. Significance of the Study

Linguists have a deep concern for exploring local languages across the globe. The present study has significance in several ways, including linguistic, social, and academic. It has linguistic significance as the study overviews the comparison and contrast with regard to the syntactic analysis of both Punjabi and English languages. It is evident from the literature review that plenty of work has been done on English syntax; however, its syntax has not been

compared to Punjabi. This study has provided us an opportunity to show what syntactic similarities and differences are there between two syntactically distinct languages. The present study has provided us with a detailed analysis of the syntax of the two languages. The research also has social implications. Although Punjabi is spoken by the majority of the population of Pakistan, it is taken as the language of less privileged population. Punjabi is considered the language of rustic, uneducated, and backward people who reside in the villages (Rehman, 2007). The present study has local implications as the syntax of the local language has been undertaken for study and is compared to one of the most prestigious languages of the world.

The present study also has an academic significance, which means it is worthwhile for students studying Indo-Aryan languages as well as English. Sharma Yadav & Yadav (2020) elaborated that if the learners of countries where people speak Indo-Aryan languages are instructed English by employing transformational grammar, it may improve their four language skills. The learners of these regions are found less proficient in translation, comprehension, and meaning retention of longer text; generative grammar can be employed as a tool to enable them to become efficient language users.

If these learners at first were instructed to analyze the deep and surface structures of syntactic constructions, it would help them become aware of how surface structures are generated out of deep ones. Through this analysis, they can also be made conscious of the functional aspects of major grammatical categories, which include various types of phrases and other syntactic processes such as negation, deletion, movement, and inversion at the sentence's surface level. Through the application of this approach, the students can carry out a contrastive analysis of their mother languages with the target language, which could improve the learners' logical reasoning and enhance their language proficiency. Moreover, there are disparities between Punjabi and the English language with respect to syntax and transformational rules, and the analysis of the structures of these two languages would help the learners devise strategies to overcome syntactic disparities. Any sort of linguistic disparity is usually difficult to master and needs attention and deliberation.

This contrastive analysis of Punjabi and English syntactic constructions would encourage the researchers to carry out more studies on various linguistic aspects of Punjabi. Consequently, Punjabi would develop, and the chances of it becoming extinct may be

minimized as in the present state, affluent families do not let their children speak Punjabi, and the parents whose mother tongue is Punjabi use either Urdu or English languages with their children at homes. Both English and Urdu are considered to be spoken by literate and socially well-off people, whereas Punjabi-speaking people and students have been considered the members of a marginalized section of the society.

1.10. A Brief Overview of Chapters

This research study has five chapters. The first chapter introduces the topic and includes an introduction to the revised extended standard transformational generative grammar, a brief introduction of the Punjabi language, statement of the problem, delimitation of the study, research objectives, research questions, and significance of the study. In short, it introduces the topic and provides a complete roadmap as to what follows in the later chapters.

The second chapter begins with the definition of the main terms, four versions of transformational generative grammar theory, and a brief overview of the syntactic theories proposed after the four theories of transformational grammar to provide the reader with an overview of the theoretical developments. This detailed review is followed by a comprehensive survey of Punjabi, its history, dialects, parts of speech, and types of syntactic constructions used in Punjabi. Finally, a brief review of the existing studies carried out in Punjabi concerning various aspects and their comparison with other languages to ascertain the similarities and differences between the two languages has been given. The research gap has been located through this comprehensive review of the existing research.

The third chapter deals with the methodology, which includes the research paradigm, research design, population, sample, theoretical framework and, ethical considerations, etc. The fourth chapter outlines the analysis and the findings of the negative, passive, and closed-ended syntactic construction; the analysis of open-ended, imperative, and exclamatory construction is given in chapter five. The sixth chapter consists of the findings of the study, followed by discussion, and the last chapter includes conclusions, recommendations for ELT practitioners, and recommendations for future researchers.

1.11. Conclusion

From the aforesaid discussion, it is evident that Punjabi is one of the main languages and is spoken mainly in Indian and Pakistani Punjab. On the other hand, English is an international language used all over the world. It is significant to study and to compare the syntactic constructions of these languages as most of the students who speak Punjabi are aspirants to learn the English language. By making use of syntactic similarities and highlighting the structural disparities, the learning of English may be facilitated. Since most of the languages spoken in Pakistan and India are SOV languages, this study can be beneficial for most of the population. Moreover, the syntax books taught at undergraduate and postgraduate levels in various universities of Pakistan are replete with syntactic constructions taken from European and Asian languages; these languages are Greek to Pakistani students. Thus, taking syntactic examples from the local language may motivate Pakistani learners as they find them pertinent and relevant.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Overview of the Chapter

` This chapter presents an overview of the key terms, and related literature is presented and critically discussed to gain insight into the key developments. Before discussing the main theoretical domain of transformational generative grammar, the researcher presents a thorough survey of the previous approaches to language analysis and the study of syntax. This chapter has two main sections: a detailed overview of generative approaches, the main concepts used in transformational generative grammar, rules used in the four models of generative grammar, the application of transformational rules to some of the syntactic constructions to generate various kinds of constructions have been included in the first section. Finally, a review of studies carried out by different researchers by employing the revised extended standard transformational grammar theory on the constructions of other languages has also been included. The second section, 2.19, deals with the introduction of Punjabi, Punjabi grammar with emphasis on word classes, Punjabi gender, and tone, the previous research conducted on the Punjabi language to identify the gap and finally, the various kinds of syntactic constructions used in the Punjabi language have been discussed and compared to their English counterparts briefly. In short, the researcher has attempted to include and explain most of the themes that are included in the research topic. This research work would be helpful for other language researchers to carry out their research in the field of syntax.

2.2. Generative Grammar

Yule (2014) defined generative grammar as having a small and finite or limited number of rules. These finite rules are used to produce or generate grammatical constructions. The central idea of generative grammar is to produce an infinite number of sentences from finite grammatical rules of a language. English, like any other language, has a limited set of basic grammatical structures. Generative grammar enables a native speaker to produce an infinite number of constructions from the given finite rules. Moreover, generative grammar

rules and principles allow a language user to generate only grammatical sentences and ungrammatical ones are not accepted. Richards (2010) defined generative grammar as a kind of grammar that attempts to describe and define a set of principles, rules, and constraints to generate all and only grammatical sentences of a language and ungrammatical ones are ruled out.

Luraghi and Parodi (2008) described that the principal goal of transformational generative grammar is to have a formal theory of language, which describes the existence of the rules that transform one linguistic structure to another construction to explain a number of phenomena related to human language. To do that, the first version of generative theory, namely transformative generative grammar, was introduced in 1957 by Chomsky in his famous book *Syntactic Structure.*

The theory has six different versions, which have been developed and modified by Chomsky himself in different key works. The six different versions of transformational generative grammar have been given as follows:

1. The classical model of transformational generative grammar (1950-1957)
2. Standard transformational generative theory (ST) (1965)
3. Extended standard transformational generative theory (EST) (1970)
4. Revised extended standard Transformational generative theory (REST) (1977)
5. Government and binding and principles and parameters theory (1981)
6. Minimalist program (1995)

In spite of the different modifications to the transformational generative theory, the publication of *Syntactic Structures* (1957) has been considered a significant development in the field of contemporary linguistics. The aforementioned theories of transformational generative grammar have been discussed in the following section to elaborate on different modifications made in this theory. The syntactic or classical theory of transformational grammar was developed in 1957 in Chomsky's famous work *Syntactic Structures*.

2.2.1. Syntactic Structure/ Classical Theory of TGG

Amin (2012) elaborated that in syntactic structures, the main idea developed was kernel sentences. Kernel sentences may be defined as basic irreducible structures produced by phrase structure rules. In other words, the kernel sentences are the output of these phrase structure rules. The syntactic structure or classical theory of transformational grammar consists of obligatory and optional transformational rules. Obligatory transformational rules create simple sentences out of phrase structure rules, whereas optional transformational rules are employed to transform affirmative sentences into negative, interrogative, and passive sentences. Moreover, compound-complex structures are generated by applying conjoining and embedding transformations, respectively.

The syntactic or classical theory of syntax includes three kinds of rules:

a. The deep structure of a sentence is created by phrase structure rules; linguistic categories are ordered from the parts of sentences, and the lexical forms are provided for different parts of speech such as nouns, pronouns and adjectives.
b. Transformational rules are applied to generate surface structures. Optional transformations are applied to create interrogative, negative, and passive sentences.
c. To change lexical forms where necessary, the morphophonemic transformational rules are applied, like ‘send’ will transform to ‘sent’.

Luraghi and Parodi (2008) summarized the syntactic model as the deep structures generated by applying phrase structure rules to the grammatical categories. The obligatory and optional syntactic transformations are applied along with morphological transformations, which change deep structures to surface structures. This shows that the construction of a sentence consists of two stages: application of phrase structure rules to develop deep structures and, subsequently, syntactical and morphological transformations to get the end product.

Richards and Schmidt (2002) commented that the syntactic theory is the early version of the generative theory, which emphasizes the relationship among the syntactic constructions. This relationship is due to the transformations applied to the kernel sentences. For example, the relationship among simple declarative constructions and their different variants, such as negative, interrogative, and passive structures, is due to various transformations applied to

kernel sentences. In the aforementioned elaboration of the classical model, the syntactical and morphological rules have been taken under the same category of transformations.

The syntactic model of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) was modified in 1965 by Chomsky in his book *Aspect of the Theory of Syntax*. This theory was termed as a standard model of transformation as this was the only standard theory of grammar in the 1960s (Chapman, 2009). In this model, the semantic aspect has been incorporated into the classical theory presented in 1957.

2.2.2. Standard Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (1965)

The standard theory of transformational grammar was proposed by Chomsky based on modifications made to the classical theory of transformational grammar. The main points of this modified version of the theory are as follows:

a. The idea of kernel sentences was eliminated in this theory, and the underlying constituents are identified as deep structures.
b. The phrase structure rules serve as input to deep structures, and the surface structures are generated out of deep structures by means of transformational rules.
c. In addition to these, the semantic aspect is integrated as a part of the theory, and the meaning of a syntactic construction is ascribed to the underlying or deep structure.
d. The recursion takes place due to phrase structure rules, and an infinite number of phrases can be generated by applying the recursion rule.

From the above, it is evident that the main difference between the classical syntactic theory and aspect theory is the inclusion of semantic components in the aspect model and the elimination of kernel sentences from the classical theory. However, the notion of deep and surface structures has been retained in this theory alongside transformations. The deep structure is taken as an abstract level, which determines the syntactic and semantic aspects.

Moreover, the deep structures are generated in two stages: first, the phrase markers are generated by phrase structure rules; the terminal positions of the phrase markers are empty. The empty terminal positions are referred to as pre-lexical structures. In the second phrase, the empty slots are filled with complex symbols which consist of morphemic, syntactic and semantic features by the rules of lexical transformations. In other words, the three aspects have

been combined in the second stage: syntactic, morphologic, and semantic. The base component of grammar is constituted by phrase structure rules and lexical transformations.

Bagha (2009) commented that standard theory is the first complete model of TGG. This is called a complete theory, as all the components of language have been incorporated into this theory: deep and surface structure, competence and performance, lexicon, phonology, syntax, semantics, and strict sub-categorization rules. Competence is related to the unconscious knowledge that a speaker has about their language, whereas performance is the act of speaking. The strict sub-categorization includes the kind and the number of complements a verb has to generate a grammatical sentence. Violation of these sub-categorization rules will yield ungrammatical sentences. The sub-categorization rules have been elaborated in the following construction:

1. She put
2. She put the notebook.
3. She put on the bed.
4. She put the notebook on the bed.

The aforementioned constructions from ‘A to C’ are ungrammatical because they do not fulfill the strict categorization rules that the verb ‘put’ imposes on its complements. Only the construction ‘D’ is grammatical since it meets all the demands of sub-categorization rules. So, in standard theory, it was hypothesized that the semantic interpretation takes place at the deep level rather than at the surface level.

Luraghi and Parodi (2008) outlined that the standard theory of transformational generative grammar is one whereby phrase structure rule give rise to sub-categorization rules, and subsequently, these sub-categorization rules serve as an input to the deep structure. The deep structure includes lexical insertion rules to the terminal empty categories as well as a semantic representation, which is also called projection rules. The transformational rules are applied to the deep structures to generate surface structures. Finally, the phonological rules that give rise to phonetic representation are applied.

Richards and Schmidt (2002), in the aspect theory of transformational generative grammar, stated that the deep structures are produced by the base component, which includes base rule and lexicon. Subsequently, the transformational rules are applied to deep structures

to generate surface ones. The phonetic representation is given to the constructions by the phonological component so that they can be pronounced. The semantic component deals with the meaning of a sentence and is part of the deep structure.

The aforementioned discussion shows the development of the aspect or standard theory. The dimension of meanings that are part of the deep structure has been included in the aspect theory; moreover, the notion of kernel sentences has been deserted by Chomsky. The standard or aspect theory also underwent modification by Chomsky, and in the early 1970s, the extended standard theory of transformational generative grammar was introduced.

2.2.3. Extended Standard Transformational Generative Theory

The standard model of the transformational generative theory was followed by another development called generative semantics. Generative semantics considers that a semantic structure generates all syntactic structures. The semantic structure is expressed in the form of a proposition similar to a logical proposition in philosophy. However, Chomsky disagreed with the principle of generative semantics and developed a model known as the extended standard transformational generative theory (EST); in this new theory, deep structures and surface structures got closer because it was not possible to transform noun into a verb and vice versa due to lexical hypothesis (Chomsky, 1970). A verb, for instance, should enter the lexicon as a verb and not as a consequence of transformation from an adjective or a noun. In other words, the morphological transformations are applied at the deep level rather than at the surface level. In this theory, the deep structures are not generated by syntactic components, as was the case in the previous theory of transformational grammar. This means that a deep structure is generated by the semantic components. Moreover, the rules of semantic interpretation are applicable to both surface structure and deep structure, as shown in the following figure. Finally, the phonological rules are applied to the surface structure, which determines how a sentence is spoken (Luraghi & Parodi, 2008).

The aforementioned elaboration can be summed up as phrase structure rules, which give rise to base rules, and the empty phrase structure nodes are filled with lexemes to generate deep structure; the transformational rules are applied to the deep structure to have surface structure. The semantic representation is applied at both deep and surface structures. Finally,

the phonological rules are applied to the surface structure, and the former gives rise to phonetic representation. This has been elaborated in the following figure 2.1.

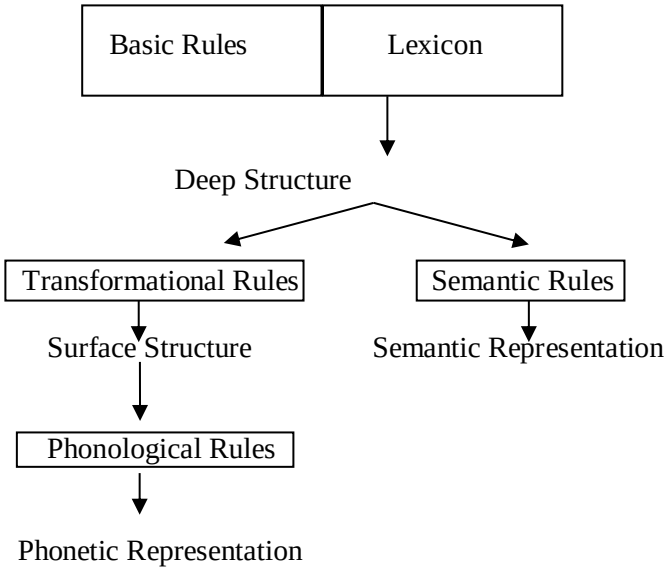


Figure: 2.1 Bagha, K. N. (2009, p. 300)

The principal modification in the extended theory of transformational grammar was that the semantic interpretation could be attributed to both deep and surface structures. However, deep structure has an essential syntactic role (Chapman, 2009). This shows that surface and deep structures are closer with regard to semantic representation. The surface structure subsequently led to phonological rules and phonetic representation, respectively.

Bagha (2009) elaborated that the extended theory of transformational grammar is based on the modification made to the standard theory. The theory was developed by Chomsky in 1971 and was elaborated by Jackendoff in 1972. In this revised theory, surface structure is related to semantic representation and the function of transformational rules to introduce new meanings. The surface structure serves as an input to the semantic component as well as to the phonological rules. In other words, surface structures represent both semantic rules and phonological rules. However, all the other components of this model and their relationship remain unchanged.

The key aspect of the extended standard theory of transformational grammar is that morphological rules are applied at the basic rules stage; moreover, the deep structure and the surface structure are closer as both of them are attributed to semantic representation. This model, like other previous models, underwent modifications and led to the development of the revised extended standard model of transformational grammar in 1977.

2.2.4. Revised Extended Standard Transformational Generative Theory (1977)

Bagha (2009) illustrated that in the most recent theory of standard transformational grammar, Chomsky abolishes the connection between the semantic component and the deep structure. Instead of deep structure, the surface structure only determines the meaning of an utterance to be interpreted. This has been put up by Chomsky (1975b, p. 82) as 'all semantic information is determined by a somewhat enriched notion of surface structure'. This is because the meaning rests completely on surface structure. However, the surface structure is not as simple as it was presented in the previous models. The inclusion of traces ensures that the surface structure will be detailed so that its interpretation can be deduced. The traces are indicative of transformational rules applied to the deep structure. The phenomenon of trace has been illustrated in one of Chomsky's own examples:

a. Sentence: Ali seems to be a kind person.

b. Deep structure: X (someone) seems {Ali to be a kind person}

c. Surface structure: Ali seems {trace to be a kind person}

From the above constructions, it is evident that 'Ali' is the subject of the embedded construction, and the position of the bound trace permits to find out that 'Ali' is the subject of the embedded clause, which has been moved to the beginning of the sentence by applying a transformational rule. In case of more movement of the constituent, the traces and transformational rules have been numbered or identified so that it becomes clear which transformational rule has been applied to move a constituent to form surface structure from the given deep structure.

The semantic component has been divided into two parts. The first semantic rule is what Chomsky termed as a logical form. The logical form serves as input to the second semantic rule. Semantic rule 1 determines the semantic relation of the subject to its predicate, assigns the scope of logical operators (which, each and who, etc.) gives antecedents to various kinds of anaphora such as 'each other, her, their'.

Semantic rule 1 is related to the knowledge of sentence grammar i.e. competence, and this knowledge enables a speaker to construct syntactically and semantically acceptable constructions; the semantic rules of 2 are related to performance; and are said to include two main kinds: linguistic as well as non-linguistic. The linguistic rules are related to reference in a sentence; the reference could be unbounded anaphora (for example, in the aforementioned sentence, 'Ali' and 'his' may refer to the male gender. The reference could be found in other earlier sentences, which may be called discourse or situational-level cases. The non-linguistic rules are related to cognitive systems besides language, for example, the expectation of the speaker's belief. The combination of these two kinds of rules, i.e. linguistic and non-linguistic may lead to complete interpretation of the sentence -- semantic representation. The aforementioned detailed description has been illustrated in the given figure 2.2.

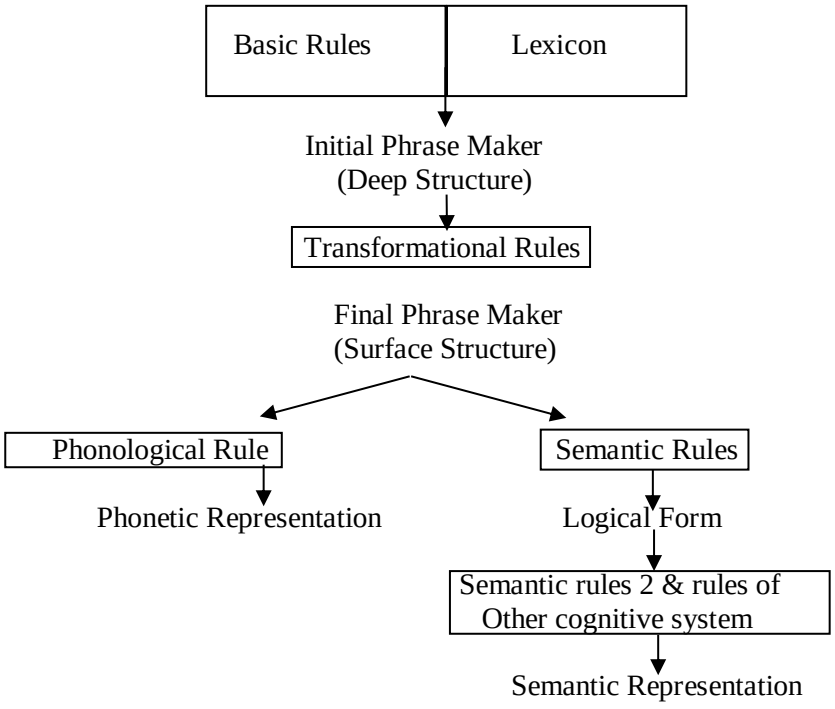


Figure 2.2. Bagha, K. N. (2009, p. 301)

Luraghi and Parodi (2008) elaborated that the publication of Chomsky's paper *Conditions on Transformations* in 1973 changed the conception of grammar and perception of language at that time. The paper was about the effects of blind applications of transformational rules. In the paper, Chomsky elaborated on the significant constraints on the transformations, such as the specified subject condition, the principle of subjacency, and the tensed sentence condition. This signifies the restrictions on certain transformations or limitations on their movement. The tensed sentence condition has been elaborated in the following sentences:

a. The boys each hoped that the other boy would win the first prize.
b. *The boys hoped that each other would win the first prize.

The syntactic construction 'B' shows that by moving the word 'Each' out of its specified position, i.e., after the subject 'The boys', it yields an ungrammatical sentence. In addition to this, Chomsky found out that each time an NP or Wh-element moves due to the application of transformational rules, it leaves behind a trace that has been co-indexed with the moved constituent. The movement of 'Wh' word, along with its trace, has been given in the following example.

c. Who did they say Ali hit?

The deep structure of this sentence can be written as 'They said Ali hit who.' From the above two examples of NP and 'Wh' word movement, it is evident that NP traces act as anaphors bound by the NP which has been moved while 'Wh' traces act as variables bound by the 'Wh' phrase (that acts as a logical quantifier). In addition to these, deletion rules are applied to eliminate non-occurring 'Wh' phrases in these constructions, and filters are employed to avoid the production of any ungrammatical construction. The movement of NPs and 'Wh' words has been a more general movement called move alpha in government and binding theory proposed by Noam Chomsky.

In the revised extended transformational generative theory, there was no need to apply semantic rules to deep structure as surface structure included traces of movement. Therefore, Chomsky proposed a set of semantic rules that shaped surface structure to logical form (LF)

and another set of semantic rules that took the logical form as input to assign other semantic relations like inference and terms of appropriate use.

There is a strict delimitation of different grammatical components in the revised extended transformational generative theory. The different grammatical components include syntax, semantics, phonology, pragmatics, and stylistics. Besides these, there is an introduction to marked elements, and the number of transformations has also been curtailed to a single rule called move alpha, which led to the development of government and binding model (Chapman, 2009).

After having comprehensively discussed the four theories of generative grammar, the terms used in the last theory, namely the revised extended standard theory of transformational generative grammar, have been briefly defined and elaborated to get more insight into the recent theory of transformational generative grammar.

2.3. The Key Concepts Used in Four Theories of Transformational Grammar

It has been discussed in section 2. 2 above that transformational generative grammar attempts to describe those implicit finite rules that help to produce an infinite number of grammatical constructions and to rule out all those sentences that are not confirmed by these rules. This theory includes various concepts such as *phrase structure rules, transformational rules, morphophonemic rules, context-free rules, context-sensitive rules, sub-categorization rules, complex symbols,* and *category simple rules*.

2.3.1. Phrase Structure Rules

Using phrase structure rules, a given construction or utterance is analyzed with regard to the phrases. For example, the sentence “He ate the meal.” can be analyzed as subject+ verb+ object; however, by applying phrase structure rules, the above sentence can be rewritten in the form of phrases first, and then the phrases are divided into individual constituents. This phenomenon is termed as rewrite rules. For instance, the sentence ‘The boy lost his suitcase’ can be analyzed by using phrase structure rules as follows:

S= NP +VP

D +N +VP

The +N+V+NP

The + boy+ V +NP

The + boy + lost+ D+N

The +boy + lost +his +N

The +boy +lost +his +Suitcase

In this syntactic construction, each line refers to a string, and the final line, which could not be rewritten, is known as a terminal line. Besides this phrase structure analysis, the above construction can also be shown in a tree diagram. The main drawback of phrase structure rules is though they can describe most sentences syntactically, they cannot clearly explain the underlying rules used for the formation of the sentences. Moreover, they can apply rules in the proper order to generate grammatical sentences.

2.3.2. Morphophonemic Rules

In the classical model, morphological rules are applied at the surface level alongside phonological rules. However, from standard theory onwards, the morphological rules are applied at the deep structure level, and only the phonological rules are applied at the surface structure level. The morphological rules transform a verb into a noun or an adjective, a present tense into past, etc. For example, come +past = came, introduce + tion = introduction; in passive constructions third form of the verb has been used and in negative constructions in past simple tense, the base form of a verb has been used after the auxiliary ‘Did’ due to the morphological rule. These are the rules that govern the phonemic realization of morphemes.

2.3.3. Context-Free Rules

These rewrite rules propose that syntactic constructions consist of noun and verb phrases. However, these rules cannot specify what kind of nouns can be used with what type of verbs and vice versa. These rules were revised in Chomsky's latest edition of TG in 1965.

For instances S=NP + VP

a. The boy has opened the window.
b. *The lizard has opened the window.
c. The girls are laughing.
d. *The trees are laughing.

There are two incorrect syntactic constructions; however, according to these rules, this issue of collocations has not been highlighted. In 1965, in his revised version, Chomsky eliminated this rule and retained only context-sensitive rules. Actually, the verb governs or dictates the kind of subject or object to be used. For example, the aforementioned construction 'B' is ungrammatical as the condition of the verb 'Opened has been fulfilled by the subject: the subject has to be a human being to perform this action.

2.3.4. Context-Sensitive Rules

These rules are also called selection rules. These rewrite rules are utilized to limit the co-occurrence with certain linguistic items. In other words, what kind of noun should be used when combining verbs and vice versa? The context puts restrictions upon the use of words, be it nouns or verbs. The context here means the immediate lexical word placed and while using a verb or noun, sensitivity is required while using appropriate verb or noun. For example,

A. The boys are playing cricket.
B. *The dogs are playing cricket.
C. The girl is eating an apple.
D. *The stone is eating an apple

These context-sensitive rules apply constraints on using playing cricket with the dogs and eating an apple with the noun, the stone. Likewise, in construction 'D' above the verb 'Eating' required an animate subject. Since this condition has not been fulfilled, the said construction is, therefore, ungrammatical.

2.3.5. Sub-Categorization Rules

These are rewrite rules which restrict certain types of linguistic items to specific syntactic frames. According to Tomori (1997), these sub-categorization rules are strictly used to show what verb may go with other sentence's constituents. For example, with the object 'Story,' the verb 'Narrated' is acceptable, whereas the verb 'Slept' is not. In other words, in subcategorization rules, a set of verbs is provided, and only those verbs that perfectly collocate with other constituents are recognized as grammatical or acceptable.

A. _____ _____ _____ sadly. We/they/ he/she (narrated/slept) the story.

B. _____ _____ _____slowly. She/he/we/ they (read/drank) the book.

2.3.6. Complex Symbol

It may be defined as a collection of specific features attributed to a particular item when used in a particular context, for instance, in the construction 'They handed in Ali the book.' The complex symbol NP (noun phrase) may be used to show the entire phrase 'the book', which includes a determiner and a noun. This enables linguists to analyze the structure of the construction and apply transformational rules.

2.3.7. Category Symbol

These symbols are used to describe the grammatical category of the word. For example, NP is used for noun phrases; PP is used for prepositional phrases, etc. These category symbols are reflected in tree diagrams and in phrase structure rules to differentiate one phrase from another. The category symbols are used as a phrase marker and to draw lines and boundaries between two phrases.

2.3.8. Deep Structure

Deep structure is a structural organization at an abstract level in which all the elements that determine semantic and structural interpretation are represented. In aspect theory, Chomsky modified his theory that deep structures are generated in two stages: first, phrase structure rules generate phrase markers at terminal positions that are empty. Second, the lexical items are inserted in the empty slots. The deep structure changes to surface structure by means

of transformations (Amin, 2012). The deep structure, for example, of an interrogative syntactic construction, 'Who is he talking to?' is 'He is talking to who.'

2.3.9 Movements/Transformations

Since the publication of Aspects (1965) theory of transformational generative grammar till the minimalist program, the deep structure and surface structure are related to each other by means of movements/transformations. This means that a constituent that is located at one place in the deep structure is moved elsewhere at the surface structure due to these movement operations or transformations. However, only heads and maximal projections i.e. the entire phrases are moved from one place to another. The movement of these constituents is specific: a head is moved to another head position, which is termed a head-to-head movement. In English, the inflectional phrase's (IP) head moved to the complementizer phrase's (CP) position to form questions from affirmative sentences. A maximal projection, such as an NP moves to a specifier position (Luraghi & Parodi, 2008). For example, to form to generate a surface structure 'Who is your brother' from its deep structure, 'Your brother is who', the interrogative pronoun 'Who' moves from verb complement position to specifier position within CP to form this syntactic construction.

2.4. Transformational Rules

According to Mahaputri (2013), a transformation is a kind of device used for transforming one construction into another without altering its meaning, for example:

a. He ate the food quickly.
b. He quickly ate the food.

If these two constructions have the same meaning, it is often thought that they are related to each other with regard to transformation. Such a kind of transformation is said to be an adverb-fronting transformation.

After the phrase structure rule, the transformational rules are the second stage of transformational grammar. According to Chomsky, there are five transformational rules which are given as under:

a. T ‘and’: This kind of transformation is used to connect two clauses or sentences of equal status. For example: ‘The intelligent boy will be appreciated’. The hardworking girl will be appreciated. By applying this transformational rule ‘And’, the above sentences can be written as: ‘The intelligent boy and the hardworking girl will be appreciated.’ In short, this transformation is used to combine two independent clauses by using coordinate conjunctions.
b. T vf: The transformational rule is applied to derive the correct form of the verb used in a sentence, for example: ‘He goes to school rather than going to school,’ This transformational rule was applied at the surface structure level in the classical model; however, in recent models, this morphological transformational rule is applied at deep surface level.
c. Tp: To change an active voice to a passive voice, this transformational rule is applied. For example, ‘The police arrested the criminal’ to ‘The criminal was arrested by the police’. The transformational rules used in passive constructions are also termed as permutation whereby the object of the above active construction, ‘The criminal,’ has been promoted to the subject position and the subject of the active construction, ‘The police have been demoted to the object position to generate this passive construction.
d. T not: To form negative sentences from the affirmative ones, this transformational rule is applied, for example, the sentence ‘She eats a burger’, to ‘She does not eat a burger’. The negative particle has been added/inserted into the aforementioned construction to generate the negative form.
e. Tq: As the abbreviation suggests, this kind of rule is applied to transform affirmative sentences into interrogative or question constructions. The question can be open-ended or close-ended. For example, the syntactic construction ‘He is an exception lawyer’ can be transformed to ‘Is he an exceptional lawyer?’ due to this transformation rule of question formation.

Hence, it is evident that the first T rule is to combine two or more independent clauses utilizing coordinate conjunction; the second T rule is the selection of a correct verb form to construct a grammatical sentence. However, the last three transformational rules are to change deep structure to negative, passive, or interrogative. This shows that the deep structure of these

three kinds of surface structure is the same, and from one underlying deep structure, various kinds of structures are produced depending upon the intent of the speaker. Besides the aforementioned optional transformational rules, there are some other transformations used to generate surface structure from the deep structure. These transformations or transformational rules include topicalization, deletion, insertion, and substitution (Rowe & Levine, 2018).

2.4.1. Topicalization Transformation

Topicalization is a kind of transformational rule whereby a different emphasis or focus is put on the derived sentence, for example:

a. He likes football (Deep structure)
b. Football, he likes. (surface structure)

Through this transformational rule, the object of the construction has moved to the beginning to show the focus or emphasis upon the constituent 'Football' without causing any other alteration to the construction. The change of emphasis on surface structure from the underlying one could be explained as:

X1, V, X2 = X2, X1, V

2.4.2. Deletion Transformation

It is another kind of transformational rule whereby a constituent is deleted when this transformation is applied. This kind of transformation is common in imperative sentences where the initial pronoun is deleted, and the deleted constituent is often assumed but not mentioned. For example, an imperative sentence like 'go there' has been generated from an underlying construction such as 'You go there.'

Redundant elements in deep structure may also be deleted by applying this transformational rule. This transformational rule is called the verb phrase deletion rule. For example:

a. If Ahmed says he will work hard, he will work hard. (deep structure)
b. If Ahmed says he will work hard, he will. (Surface structure)

2.4.3. Insertion Transformations

By applying these transformational rules, words are inserted into the basic construction, but this addition does not change the meaning of a construction. The addition of the constituent is optional. In the following construction, 'B', the constituent 'That' has been inserted.

a. She knew he was there.
b. She knew that she was there.

2.4.4. Substitution Transformations

Such transformational rules are applied when a pronoun is substituted in place of a noun to avoid repetition of a noun in deep structure. Different pronouns such as 'He, She, They, It, and One,' etc. can be used in place of a noun. The substitution of pronouns is known as pronominalization. The following sentences describe this transformational rule of substitution, whereby the constituent 'Ali' has been replaced with the subjective pronoun 'He' in 'B'.

A. Ali thought that Ali was the best. (Deep structure)
B. Ali thought that he was the best. (Surface structure)

2.4.5. Embedding Transformations

This type of transformation rule is applied when a relative clause or adjective clause is embedded into another clause. The following syntactic constructions demonstrate the application of this transformational rule. In construction 'B', the independent clause of 'A', 'The boy is handsome' has been transformed into an adjectival clause, 'Who is handsome', through this transformational rule.

A. The boy is reading a book. The boy is handsome. (deep structure)
B. The boy, who is handsome, is reading a book. (surface structure)

By further applying the deletion rule to the surface structure 'B' above, the adjective clause is reduced to an adjective, and the subject and verb of the relative clause 'Who is' are deleted by applying the deletion rule. This has been demonstrated in the following sentences:

A. The boy, who is handsome, is reading a book. (deep structure)
B. The handsome boy is reading a book. (surface structure)

2.4.6. Surface Structure

Yule (2020) elaborated on the surface structure as the structure of individual syntactic construction in contrast to the deep structure. Surface structures are the ones that are spoken or written by language users and are derived from deep structure by applying various movement and transformational rules. The inappropriate use of these transformational rules may lead to ungrammatical constructions. For example, the surface structure 'What is your name' has been generated from its underlying or deep structure 'Your name is what' through the transformational rule of 'Wh' movement and head movement.

2.4.7. Logical & Phonetic Form

Radford (2009) asserted that a structure that shows the relationship between the constituents of a phrase, clause, or sentence is said to be a logical form. A logical form is a semantic component that transforms a deep structure into a surface one through different movement operations or by means of transformational rules. For example, the construction 'He plays football' is a logical form: the verb of the construction 'Play' governs that the subject and object of the construction should meet the requirement of the verb and be placed at specific positions. Moreover, the affix 'S' needs to be added to the verb to specify the appropriate tense. The phonetic form is how the construction is spoken and perceived.

2.4.8. Deletion

Deletion means an operation by which a constituent is erased in construction. The elements that can be recoverable are deleted due to the recoverability of the deletion principle in the early model of transformational generative grammar. According to this deletion principle, the items which are redundant are deleted. After briefly discussing the aforementioned terms, the major development after the extended revised standard theory of transformational grammar has been discussed precisely to mention the overall theoretical development in syntax. Finally, it is important to highlight the notion of transformational generative grammar concerning Chomsky, who proposed and developed this theory:

‘The human brain provides an array of capacities that enter into the use and understanding of language (the *language faculty*); these seem to be in good part specialized for that function and a common human endowment over a very wide range of circumstances and conditions. One component of the language faculty is a generative procedure … that generates *structural descriptions* (SDs), each a complex of properties, including those commonly called “semantic” and “phonetic.” These SDs are the *expressions* of the language. The theory of a particular language is its grammar. The theory of languages and the expressions they generate is *Universal Grammar* (UG); UG is a theory of the initial state … of the relevant component of the language faculty.’ (Chomsky 1995, p. 167)

After going through the four theories of transformational grammar, namely the classical theory of transformational grammar, the standard theory of transformation grammar, the extended standard theory of transformational grammar, and the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar, the theoretical development made in the field of grammar after the aforementioned four theories have been given in the next section.

2.5. X-bar Theory

Amin (2012) elaborated that the X-bar theory was developed in 1970 by Noam Chomsky along with Jackendoff. This syntactic theory is about the internal structure of syntactic constituents, which is quite different from the traditional account of lexical and phrase structure categories. The theory proposes the structural similarities that exist among phrases of all languages. The main purpose is to identify universal syntactic attributes which all languages share.

Chomsky, when he developed transformational generative grammar, was of the view that all languages should have similar parts of speech and there should be universal phrase structure rules. There was a view that all languages have parts of speech like nouns, determiners, auxiliaries, and verbs; however, with the passage of time, the other parts of speech were included in the existing ones. The lexical and phrasal categories are as follows:

Lexical categories are nouns, verbs, auxiliaries, adjectives, adverbs, determiners, conjunctions, pronouns and quantifiers. Phrasal categories are noun phrase, verb phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, adverb phrase, and quantifier phrase.

In this theory, the categories have three levels: phrasal category (XP), X-bar category (X-bar), and lexical category (X). The phrase category (XP) dominates an X bar and a specifier; the X bar is further divided into an X and one or more complements of X. This means that branching, in X bar theory, is always binary. The recursive rule is the last rule in X bar syntax that allows the X bar to duplicate itself. Within the phrase markers, the excursiveness of the constituents is a common attribute of all natural languages, and a grammar theory must consider this generative capacity of a language. The X –X-phrase includes the X and other qualifiers, and an X phrase is semantically of the same kind as an X. For instance, the phrase 'his new history book', which is a noun phrase, is similar to an X, which is a noun 'book'. In other words, the phrasal category XP is a projection of its head X.

Hence, it is evident that the X bar model is about phrases and three levels of a given phrase along with the rule of recursion. It is different from the revised extended theory as it deals with the construction of the entire sentence from deep structure to surface structure by applying transformational rules of deletion, insertion, embedding, etc.

2.6. Government & Binding Theory (1980)

Amin, W. O. (2012) elaborated that this theory was developed by Noam Chomsky which assumes that a syntactic construction has four levels: deep structure, surface structure and logical form and phonetic form. A single transformation move alpha is used to derive surface structure and logical form (LF) from deep structure. The name of this theory refers to two sub-theories: government and binding. The government theory concerns the assignment of noun cases. For case marking, some languages like Latin has rich morphological case marking: different suffixes are added to the noun to show different cases such as nominative, accusative, dative, genitive and ablative. Other languages like English does not have rich noun marking system to denote noun cases. In English noun cases are assigned with regard to their position in the sentence like before a verb after a verb or a preposition.

Binding deals with the referents of pronouns, anaphor and referential expressions. There are three kinds of binding principles used in this theory: binding principle 'A', binding principle 'B' and binding principle 'C'. Principle 'A' deals with reflexive and reciprocal NPs

whose reference is bound by a preceding noun phrase in the same clause. Principle 'B' deals with personal pronouns which has anaphoric or deictic reference like 'Aleena still imagines she was healthy and fit.' In this example, the pronoun 'she' refers to either 'Aleena' or someone else whose name has not been mentioned here. Principle 'C' deals with the notion that all noun phrases which do to fall into first two categories. These are labels, traces and proper nouns.

In short, we can say that government model deals with the noun cases and their ending to denote their case as in Latin language whereas binding deals with anaphors and referents. In other words, the aforementioned two aspects in government and binding model deal with agreement of various constituents at surface level. On the contrary, the revised extended theory deals with the formation of surface structure from the underlying one through transformational rules.

2.7. Principle & Parameter Approach (1979)

Richards and Schmidt (2002) stated that principle and parameter is a theoretical framework within generative linguistics proposed by Noam Chomsky in 1979. This theory highlights the point that all the languages of the world have innate and fixed underlying grammatical principles and due to this attribute, all the natural languages of the world are similar; however, the languages are different from one another with regard to their syntax disparity which is due to having different parameters. The principle attribute of a language makes the learning process quite easy as he/she has only to adjust the parameter of a particular language in order to learn it.

2.8. Minimalist Program (1995)

Amin (2012) elaborated that the minimalist program also called as (MP) was developed by Chomsky inside generative grammar. It includes the development of ideas which already existed in the previous theories. The development includes economy of derivation and economy of presentation. As the title suggests that it is a program and not a theory based on the assumption that universal grammar constitutes an impeccable design and contains only that is necessary to fulfill physical, biological and conceptual needs. This program includes particular set of principles which can be applicable to all languages of the world.

After reviewing the theoretical models of grammar from traditional approach to minimalist program, the revised extended standard model of transformational model has been applied to highlight how the transformational rules have been applied to construct surface structures from the deep or underlying ones. For this purpose, some instances of interrogative sentences have been selected in this section.

2.9. Movements in the Revised Extended Standard Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar

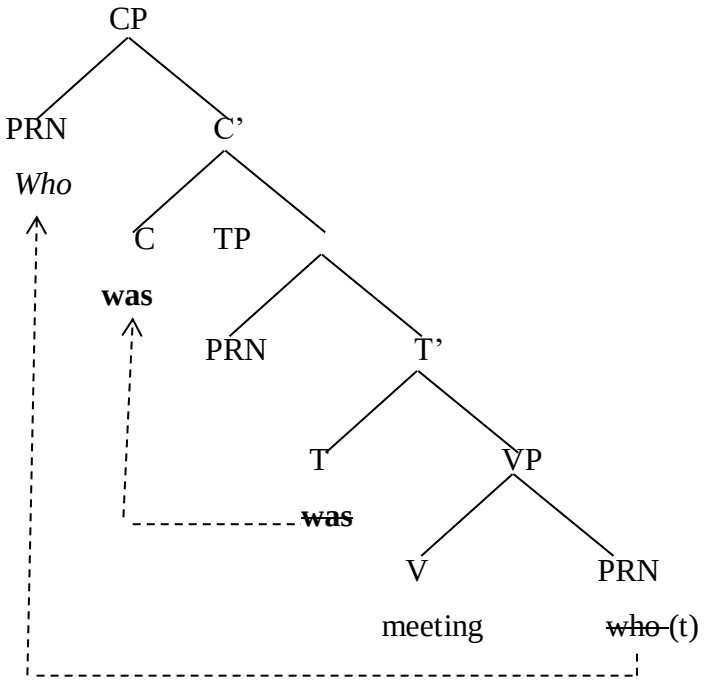
In transformational grammar, the researcher has reviewed the concepts of deep structure and surface structure; the transformation of deep structure to surface structure or syntactical form is due to various transformations or movement operations. In this section, the movement operations have been discussed in detail with major movement types. The movement operation highlighted in the following sections are 'Wh' movement of copy and deletion, pied-piping convergence, auxiliary inversion in yes-no questions, attract closest principle and 'Wh' exclamations etc. The transformations of various types have been used in the aforementioned syntactic constructions and these have been discussed in detail:

2.9.1. Movement in 'Wh' Questions

In open-ended questions we need to look at the deep structure which a construction has. The sentence deep structure undergoes some changes before it transforms into a surface structure. For example, the deep structure of the syntactic construction like 'Who was he meeting' is 'He is meeting who'. The pronoun in deep structure 'Who' merges with verb meeting to form a verb phrase like 'meeting who'; the verb phrase merged with T bar resulting in 'was meeting who', this T bar merged with the pronoun to from a tense phrase TP 'he is meeting who'. The resulting TP is merged with interrogative C and finally, C merged with CP.

The 'C' bar has TNS feature which means that a 'C' bar in tree diagram 2.1 can attract an auxiliary to form interrogative syntactic constructions whereby an auxiliary move from tense bar to 'C' bar and Complemtizer phrase (CP) has WH feature and as a result, it moved a 'Wh' word from the complement of the verb at verb phrase to specifier position within CP. In other words, there are two transformations namely of auxiliary verb and pronoun 'Who'. The former is carried out from T bar position to C bar and the latter from VP position to the pronoun

position of CP. The first movement of the auxiliary is a head movement by which an auxiliary from the head T position of TP into the head C position of CP whereas the second kind of movement from VP position to final CP position is a different kind of movement called as WH-movement (Radford, 2004, p. 104).



Tree diagram: 2.1

2.9.2. WH-movement as Copy and Deletion

From the above example of movement, it is evident that the auxiliary movement is said to be a head movement and it leaves behind a copy of itself in the position out of which it is moved. In the same way, the movement of WH word from its place to other leaves behind a copy at its extraction place. In the earlier work of 1970s and 1980s, the moved constituents leave behind a trace in the position from where they were moved. In a more recent work of Chomsky, a copy theory of movement was introduced. According to this, a trace is fully copied from its place of extraction and as a result of it, a null copy of the trace leaves behind. To understand this phenomenon of copying and deletion consider the following sentences:

a. What hope of finding money could there be?
b. What hope could be there of finding money?

The analysis of the first part first sentence ‘What hope of finding money?’, it is a quantifier phrase that has a quantifier ‘What’, and noun acting as a complement of the quantifier and a prepositional phrase ‘of finding survivors’. The overall quantifier phrase initially merged with verb ‘be’; however, it moves to the initial position as per WH movement. The problem lies with the second sentence in which half of the quantifier phrase has moved to the initial position and the remaining half retains its final position. The answer to this question is provided by copy and deletion theory. The whole quantifier phrase has been copied and moved to the initial position. Thus, the resulting syntactic construction is:

a. What hope ~~of finding money~~ could there be ~~what hope~~ of finding money? (ibid, p. 105)

By applying the copy deletion movement operation, the first part of quantifier phrase has moved to the initial position of the sentence, whereas the reaming part of the phrase retains its position by copy deletion movement rule (Radford, 2004).

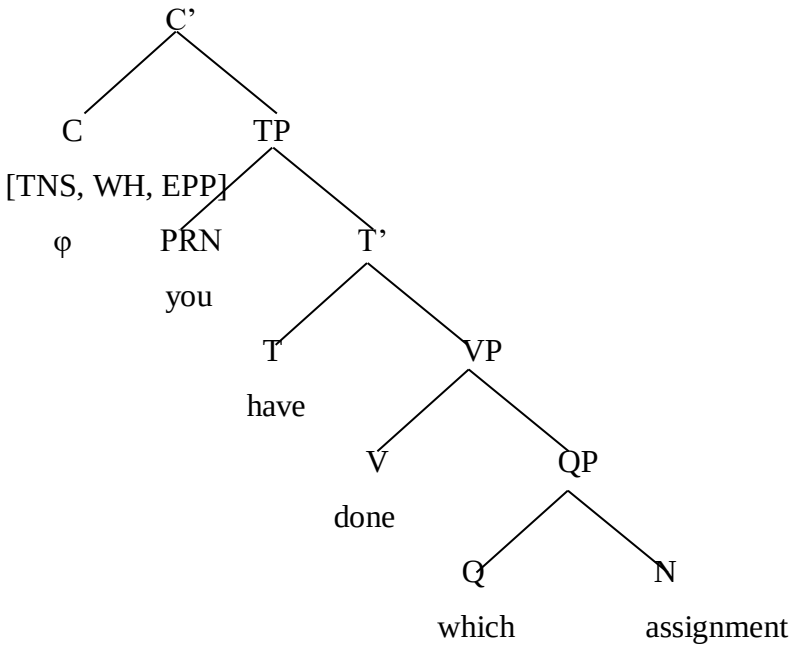
2.9.3. Pied-Piping and Convergence

In this type of movement, the quantifier phrase moves to the initial position in a construction in forming an interrogative sentence. A quantifier phrase consists of a quantifier and a noun. The deep structure of the following sentence will clarify this kind of movement (Radford, 2009, p. 111).

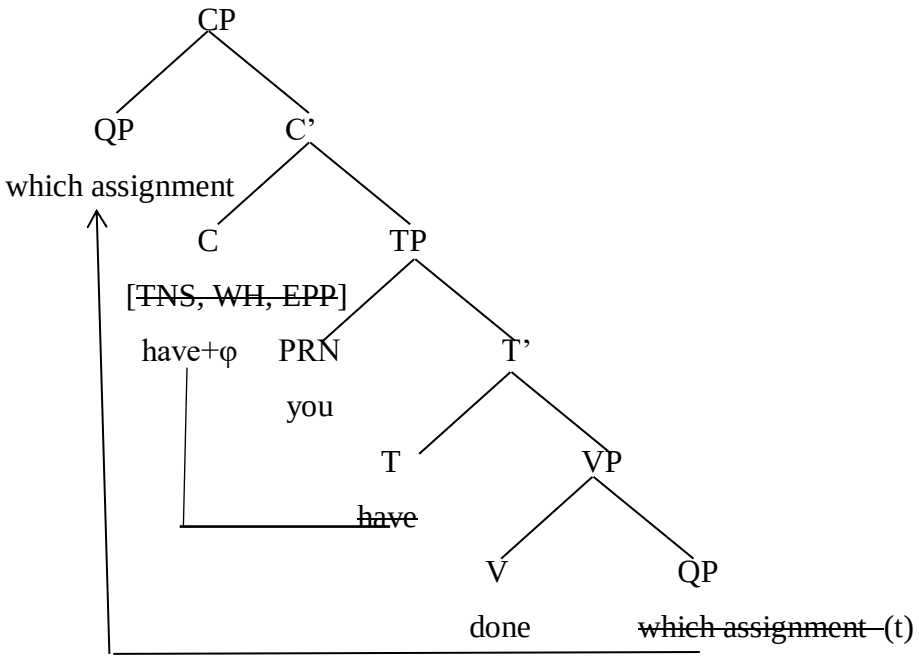
a. Which assignment has he completed?

The deep structure of this syntactic construction is “He has completed which assignment.” First of the noun assignment merges with the quantifier to form a quantifier phrase; the phrase merges with verb to form a verb phrase; the verb phrase merges with T bar and subsequently T bar merges with TP bar to have the aforementioned deep structure. In order to transform this deep structure to given surface structure as given in sentence A, the T bar’s auxiliary moves are extracted and moved to C bar position as it has TNS feature which has the feature to attract an auxiliary; the C bar merges with CP bar. Now according to pied-piping principle, the entire quantifier phrase has moved from verb complement position to specifier position within CP. This shows the entire phrase ‘Which assignment’ instead of a question word ‘Which’ has moved to CP position. This kind of movement operation whereby the whole phrase has moved

from verb complement to CP position is said to be pied-piping. The arrangement of the constituents has been given in tree diagram 2.2.



Tree diagram: 2.2



Tree diagram: 2.3

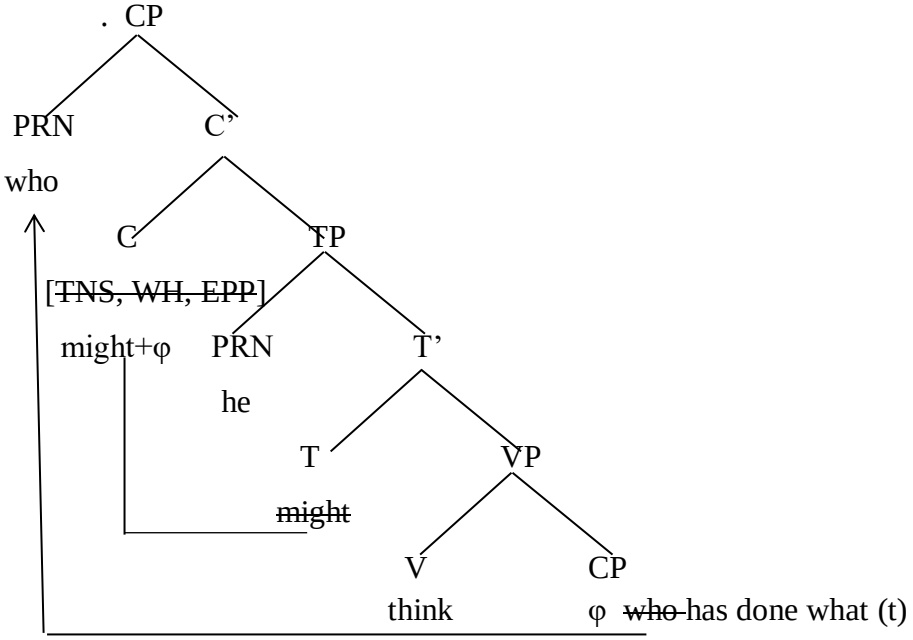
2.9.4. Attract Closest Principle

The extended projection principle (EPP) has interesting implications for constructions that have more than one WH question words. The main attribute of such syntactical structures is that only one of the WH question words is considered. This fact may be made clear in the following construction:

a. She might think who has done what (Radford, 2009 p. 109)

This construction has more than one WH word and two auxiliary verbs and one of the WH words will be moved to the initial position along with one of the auxiliary verbs. The pronoun 'What' at the end of above sentence is merged with verb 'Done' to form a verb phrase; the verb phrase merged with T bar to add helping verb 'Has'; the resulting T bar merged with pronoun *Who* to form TP bar. The TP bar merged with the verb 'Think to' and subsequently the verb merged with auxiliary verb "might" to form T bar, and this merged with pronoun 'She' to form TP bar; the final C bar has TNS feature at C bar which attracts 'Might' to C bar position, and the topmost C attracts a WH-expression to move to Spec-CP; the auxiliary verb 'Might' at T bar rather than the second helping verb 'Has' will move to C bar position due to the attract closest principle (Radford, 2009).

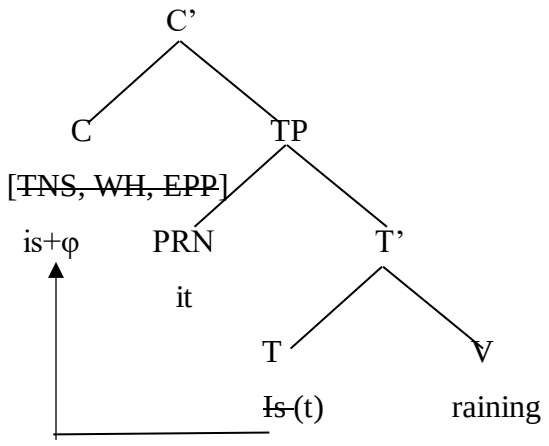
b. Who might she think has done what? (ibid, p. 109).



Tree diagram: 2.4

2.10. Closed-ended Questions

In this section, yes/no questions have been analyzed: how is a surface interrogative construction can be transformed from the deep structure. The following interrogative syntactic construction 'Is it raining?' Illustrates this phenemon. The deep structure of this sentence is "It is raining." The main verb raining merges with a helping verb "is" to form T bar; the T bar further merges with the pronoun "it" to form TP. In order to transform this deep structure to surface structure, the auxiliary verb "is" moves from T position in the T bar and moves to C bar position since it has TNS feature. So, it attracts the auxiliary verb from its deep structure position leaving its trace at T bar position. Thus, the resulting surface structure is



Tree diagram: 2.5.

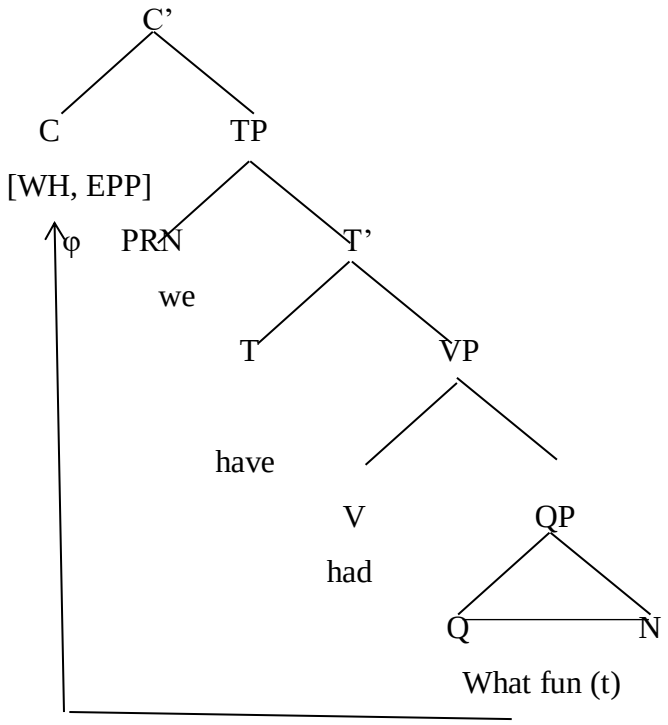
2.11. WH-Exclamations

In addition to the interrogative questions discussed above, several other kinds of wh-clauses are found in English. Consider the following exclamatory sentences:

a. What a day they have had!
b. How nicely he is behaving!
c. How he wishes to see them again!

The merging operations of various constituents into other ones by employing a bottom-up approach shows that the noun 'Day' merges with what to form the Quantifier phrase 'What a day', the QP merged with the verb 'had' to form the verb phrase; the verb phrase merged with helping verb 'have' to form T bar, and the T bar merged with a pronoun to form TP. The

top-most C bar has WH and EPP features, so it attracts the whole quantifier phrase ‘What a day’ at the C bar position. This results in the surface structure of the exclamatory sentence ‘What a day they have had!’ from the underlying structure “They have had what a day”. (Radford, 2009, p. 115).



Tree diagram: 2.6

After analyzing the aforementioned syntactic constructions, the review of the related research has been included in the next section. The main purpose of including this section here is to go through some of the research works carried out by applying generative grammar. It would provide a context and relevance to this research work. The research studies have been conducted to analyze the stylistic features of various genres; however, Punjabi has not been researched from this perspective. Moreover, the review of the research makes this research study relevant and pertinent and justifies the use of this theoretical model to analyze Punjabi syntactic constructions.

2.12. Review of Related Research on the Revised Extended Standard Theory

Many researchers have conducted studies in different languages by using the same theoretical model of generative grammar. In this section, the review of such studies has been included to link the present research with previous studies. Bagha (2009) conducted research on generative grammar, and in his study, he reviewed all four theories of generative grammar, namely the classical theory of transformational grammar, the standard theory of transformational grammar, the extended theory of transformational grammar, and the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar. The articles consist of eight sections: introduction, generative grammar, operationalization of the rules, standard theory, extended standard theory, and the revised extended standard theory and minimalist theory. According to Chomsky, the grammar of a language is a tool to establish a relationship between phonetic representation and semantic one. One of the primary goals of a linguist is to uncover this relationship. The researcher has concluded that there are three distinct components of grammar: the syntactic component, which includes two kinds of syntactic rules, namely base rules and transformational rules; the aspect of phonology, which comprises phonological rules; and the semantic component, which consists of semantic rules. In all, versions of standard theory, these rules have been highlighted with a little modification to explain the grammar of sentences. These three components of grammar enable a speaker to differentiate grammatical constructions from ungrammatical ones.

Dong and Yating (2019) carried out research to study the style of the novel by employing transformational generative grammar. They concluded that in the linguistic circle, the theory of transformational grammar has brought a huge revolution by offering the scientific and rational perspective of linguistic study. To analyze the stylistic features of the literature, they selected extract corpus from the novels of Henry James and Mark Twin respectively, and subsequently carried out a contrastive analysis of the two writers by employing the theory of transformational generative grammar. They concluded that the literary style of the writers could be analyzed and contrasted by using transformational grammar, which proves the explaining power of this theory. Moreover, it is also evident that the transformational theory can be applied to a variety of genres including literary text. However, the language used in

literature is different from the language used in non-literary discourses, there is a need to conduct research to determine whether the discourse conventions used in literature are valiatied and attested by the transformational theory.

Another study was also conducted to analyze the style of two newspapers by employing transformational generative grammar. Ezeh and Udaba (2016) elaborated that phonology, syntax, and semantics are three important facets of any language. A number of syntactic theories have been utilized to analyze different languages. The transformation generative theory is used to analyze the syntactic structures of a language to address issues like ambiguity, grammaticality, and acceptability through transformational rules. The researchers selected a local newspaper, 'Towards Enduring Peace in the Nigar Delta'. The editorial section of the newspaper was selected for data and analyzed through the transformational generative theory. They concluded that this theory could be employed to analyze and explain the linguistic intricacies found in newspapers and different literary texts. Finally, the ambiguities observed in newspaper headings could be resolved through the transformational theory, and a study may be conducted to analyze local newspapers' headings.

Kibiwott (2011) wrote a book titled *Transformational Grammar: An Analysis of Some Aspects of Kinandi Syntax*. In his research, the researcher attempted to study the structure of the Kinandi language (SVO) (also written Nande and spoken in the democratic republic of Congo) by employing transformational generative grammar. The transformational and movement rules applied to generate Kinandi surface structures from deep structures are noun phrase movement, wh-movement, raising, topicalization, PP-pre-posing, and adverb pre-posing. In his research, Kibiwott revealed that no transformational rule is applied that could extract a constituent from a relative clause. Furthermore, the Kinandi language restricts the extraction of constituents from adnominal constructions due to the complex noun phrase condition. Furthermore, Kinandi is susceptible to subjacency requirements, therefore attempting to apply non-cyclical transformations will result in structures that are not grammatically correct. Both descriptive and explanatory frameworks have been used to handle the data of the Kinandi language.

Jivanji, (1969) conducted a Ph.D. research titled *Gujarati Verbal Construction* using the transformational theory. Chapter one of the thesis includes an introduction about the language, the scope of the study, and some important aspects of Gujarati language. Chapter two deals with the discussion of various verb forms in the Gujarati language; different tenses and aspects are analyzed in chapter three. Moreover, sub-categories of past tense and constructions with obligational, volitional, or desiderative aspects are discussed, which are similar to copular sentences; chapter four is related to imperative and causative verb system, and chapter five deals with the verbal sequence and gerund constructions. In short, this thesis is about many verb forms and the formation of the verb forms to show tense and aspect in the Gujarati language. These diverse forms of Gujarati language are formed employing different transformational operations to show tenses and aspects, for example, formatives from the base and the operation of different transformations, a desiderative form "kherid se" *will buy*, etc.

By looking closely at Gujarati verb formations and various tenses and aspects, it is evident that there are similarities between Gujarati and Punjabi languages. Gujarati language is mainly spoken in different parts of India and in some regions of Pakistan. Both Punjabi and Gujarati belong to the Indo-Aryan family and are the native language of the people of Gujarat. It is also the official language of the state of Gujarat and the official language of Nagar Haveli, Daman, and Diu. By looking at the different verbs of the Gujarati language, a comparison may be drawn between the two major languages of India and Pakistan. The examples of the verbs are kheride (buy), kheridega (will buy); kheridya (bought), etc. The various aspects of both languages may be studied including the syntactic structures to ascertain the similiarities and dissimilarities between the two languages belonging to the same family.

As language is a tool for communication, linguists have been motivated to study language and develop new theories about it. It is thought that Noam Chomsky's Transformative-Generative Theory transformed the field of linguistics. According to this theory, people are born with the ability to speak languages; it is not a natural outcome. This paper investigates the Transformative-Generative Theory's perspective on Arabic language learning. This study used a qualitative approach with descriptive methodologies as its research methodology. From the standpoint of the transformative-generative theory, language learning emphasizes the following four language skills: Speaking, which is related to how a learner

speaks using the language creatively and inventively; listening comprehension, which centres around language acquisition; reading is related to the language competency of the language through which the learner interacts with the text to infer meaning (Jundi, M., & Nabila, N. 2023). The researchers have discussed the role of transformational generative theory in learning a language, especially using both receptive and productive skills.

Handoko, H., & Andalas, U. D. (2010) conducted a research titled Transformational Generative Grammar Analysis of English Imperatives as Found in *'Lie to Me'* Season 1 TV Series. The study analyzed the imperative constructions using Chomsky's transformational grammar. The analysis focuses on the imperative sentence's deep structure employing transformational and phrase structure criteria. The study shows that changes in imperative structure are reflected in surface structure through transformational rules. The result also demonstrates how vital the subject is to constructing the urgent phrase and functions as its main focal point. It is pointed out that different subjects might adopt various transformational forms under different transformational rules. Keeping in view, a study may be conducted in Pakistani context to analyze imperative constructions used in Pakistani dramas especially in comedies.

Hawkins, J. (2015) compiled a book titled *'A Comparative Typology of English and German.'* The book was first published in 1986, compiles analysis in German and English. It outlines the differences and parallels between the two languages and, specifically, considers the issues of whether there is any directionality or unity to contrast across the grammar as a whole and whether contrasts in one area of grammar are systematically related to contrasts in another. It is proposed that there is, and that a more general typology of languages than the one we now have can be studied using English and German as case studies.

Having reviewed these different studies in different languages, it is evident that the transformational generative grammar theory has been applied by various scholars to conduct research in different languages. The first research work was a review article in which all the versions of generative grammar have been comprehensively reviewed, including the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar. The second research was undertaken to analyze and explain the stylistic features of a selected novel; in the same way, the third

research was about the analysis of linguistic features of newspapers, and the research concluded that generative theory could be applied to analyze and explain the use of different transformational rules. Two research studies were also conducted on Kinandi and Gujrati by employing the theory of transformational grammar. Moreover, the transformational theory can be applied to a variety of texts/genres as the subject theory is comprehensive and exhaustive. These studies validate the fact that the theory of generative grammar is still pertinent after so many years. Generative grammar is still considered pertinent and relevant to analyzing and explaining the stylistic features of different languages and genres to address the complexities of syntactic constructions. The present research is also an endeavor in the same direction. The second section of this chapter deals with the review of Punjabi language.

2.13. Punjabi Language

The Punjabi language, which belongs to the Indo-Aryan language family, is regarded as one of the world's oldest languages. It has a number of intelligible dialects and is spoken in Pakistani and Indian Punjab, along with many other parts of the world where its speakers are residing. It is assumed that the Punjabi language developed through Prakrit, which was a group of ancient languages from the sixth century to the 13th century AD. In the Vaid period (ca 4000 B.C.), the Punjabi language was called Sanskrit. However, during the reign of Ashok (273-32 B.C), the language was known as Pali, Prakart, and Upgharnash, and under Muslim rule in the sub-continent (711-1857), it was known as Lahori and Multani. Punjabi. Hence, a member of the Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European language family" (Riaz, 2011)

The Punjabi language is one of the top twenty spoken languages of the world (Ethnology, 2005; Matthews, 2003). The top twenty languages of the world have been categorized in table No. 2.1 with regard to their native speakers all over the world.

Language	**Ranking**	**Number of Mother Tongue Speakers (millions)**
Chinese	1	1000
English	2	350
Spanish	3	250
Hindi	4	200
Arabic	5	150
Bengali	6	150
Russian	7	150
Portuguese	8	135
Japanese	9	120
German	10	100
French	11	70
Punjabi	12	70
Javanese	13	65
Bihari	14	65
Italian	15	60
Korean	16	60
Telugu	17	55
Tamil	18	55
Marathi	19	50
Vietnamese	20	50

Table 2.1: Top 20 Languages by Number of Mother Tongue Speakers adopted from (Matthews, 2003: 19)

Table 2.1 above shows that Punjabi stands at number 12, and the only two languages that have more speakers than Punjabi are Hindi at serial four and Arabic at number 5; there are other languages that are mostly spoken in India, Nepal, and Sri Lanka. They are Bihari (India

and Nepal), Marathi (India), Telugu (India), and Tamil (India and Sri Lanka). It is also worth noting here that the other major languages, like Urdu, Pashto, Sindhi, and Balochi, are spoken in the different provinces of Pakistan and are not included in the list. From these facts and figures, it is clear that Punjabi is one of the most widely spoken languages in the world and has more speakers in Pakistan than anywhere in the world.

Baart (2001) stated that Punjabi is an extensively spoken language in the Pakistani province of Punjab and Indian Punjab; the number of speakers in Pakistani Punjab is 30,000,000 to 45,000,000, while in India it is the native language of around 27,000,000 people. The figures show that the number of Punjabi speakers in Pakistan is more than the number of native Punjabi speakers in India. The number of vowel sounds in the Punjabi language is ten; besides, there are many diphthongs. One of the important factors of Punjabi is the use of tone. The difference of tone can create a massive difference in the meaning of a word or an expression. Like other languages of the world, Punjabi has also borrowed plenty of words from other languages, namely English, Hindi, Urdu, Arabic, and Persian (Ethnologue, 2008). However, Urdu, Arabic, and Persian have a major influence on Punjabi due to various historical, religious, and political reasons.

2.13.1. Dialects of Punjabi Language

Punjabi, like the other major languages of the world, has various dialects. A short description of each is given as follows:

Majhi

Majhi is one of the most popular and prestigious dialects of the Punjabi language. It is spoken in the heart of Punjab province in the Majha area. Majhi is spoken in major districts of Punjab such as Lahore, Sheikhupura, Gujranwala and Sialkot in Pakistan; in India, it is spoken in Gurdaspur and Amritsar. This dialect is also used in Punjabi literature and language in Pakistan; therefore, it stands out from all the other important dialects of the Punjabi language.

Jhangvi or Jangli

It is also one of the important dialects of Punjabi and is spoken in important and populous districts of Punjab including Khanewal, Jhang, Faisalabad and Chiniot.

Shahpuri

This dialect of Punjabi language is also spoken in important and major districts of Pakistani Punjab. These districts include Sargodha, Khushab and Mandi Bahauddin.

Potohari

This dialect is spoken in the north of the Punjab province and extends from Azad Kashmir to Jhelum, Rawalpindi, Gujar Khan, and Chakwal. In these districts other dialects of Punjabi like Majhi and Dhani are also spoken.

Hindko

Hindko dialect is spoken in various district of Khyber Pakhtoonkhah provinces, for example Peshawar, Attock, Nowshera, Mansehra and Abbottabad. This dialect is an amalgam of Pashto and Punjabi language.

Dhani

Dhani is a group of dialects spoken in Western dialects of Punjabi. It is spoken in various part of Rawalpindi division; these dialects are spoken in districts such as Chakwal, Jhelum, Attock, Fateh Jung. The name of this dialect is derived from Dhan valley where it is mainly spoken. Sohai is a dialect which is closely related to Dhani dialects.

Malwi

Malwi dialect of Punjabi is spoken in Eastern part of Indian Punjab; main districts include Ambala, Bathinda, Ludhiana, Maleerkotla, Ganganagar, Ferozpur, Fazilka. Malwa region include Sothern and Central part of modern India. Besides these districts, this dialect is spoken Northern areas of Haryana, Hissar, Amabala and Sirsa, etc.

Doabi

The meaning of Doabi is the stretch of land between two rivers, or the land of two rivers. This dialect is spoken in districts which are located between two rivers: Beas and Satluj. The districts include Jalandar and Hoshiarpur (Riaz, 2011).

2.13.2. Grammar of Punjabi Language

Punjabi is a subject-object-verb language. The word order of Punjabi syntax is fairly fixed. To make interrogative or other kind of syntactic constructions, the word order does not go under any change. However, in topicalization and focus structures, phrases take the marked

position. In transitive perfective constructions, the subject is directly or implicitly marked with the ‘Ne’ postposition, and the verb of the construction agrees with the direct object. The general rule is that the verb never agrees with any word that is marked with a postposition, as discussed above; the marked subject does not agree with the verb; rather, it agrees with the indirect object. Punjabi verbs have two categories: conjunct and complex verbs. Punjabi makes a distinction between stative versus active, volitional, and non-volitional. By deriving causative verbs, ‘Aa’ and ‘Vaa’ are added to the base form of the verb for the first causative and second causative, respectively.

Moreover, conjunct and relative clauses are used to derive participle constructions. The participle constructions are abundantly found in the Punjabi language and can be classified into four categories: to show an ongoing action, the present participle is used; to express a completed action, the past participle is used; to indicate a habitual action agentive participle is employed and to denote a sequential action cause-effect and purpose conjunct participle is used. Like English, Punjabi also uses prefixes and suffixes for inflectional and derivational word groups. For number, gender, and case, the nouns usually take inflections. In Punjabi, there are two numbers, namely singular and plural, two genders, masculine and feminine, and three noun cases, for example, simple, oblique, and vocative. The oblique case is used when a postposition follows a noun phrase (Bhattia, 2013).

2.13.2.1. Punjabi Noun Case System

With regard to noun cases, the world languages are divided into nominative, accusative, and ergative absolute languages. Khan (2009) comments that in accusative languages, the subject of both transitive and intransitive verbs is in the same case, i.e., nominative case, whereas the object of the transitive verb is in the accusative case; however, in ergative languages, the subject of the intransitive verb and the object/patient of a transitive verb take the same case i.e. absolute case while the subject of the transitive verb is in ergative case. The Punjabi language has ergative-absolute alignment. The above discussion of accusative and ergative noun cases has been illustrated below:

a. Bacha ronda ae. (The baby weeps).
b. Ahmed kabootar lapda ae (Ahmed catches the pigeon.
c. Bacha ronda ae. (The baby weeps).

d. Ahmed nae kabootar lap lya ae. (Ahmed has caught the pigeon)

The first two syntactic constructions are examples of accusative language where the subject of the first sentence is in a nominative or simple case. However, in the third and fourth constructions, the subject of the intransitive sentence (sentence c) and the object of the fourth sentence are in the same case, while the subject of the fourth construction has a different case. The first and second structures are examples of an accusative language, whereas the third and fourth constructions are examples of ergative language. Punjabi, unlike English, shares the attributes of both accusative and ergative languages. This has been documented by (Butt, 1995; Ahmed, 2007; Bukhari, 2009) that some languages from the Indo-Aryan group have split-ergativity (have the features of both groups of languages). This means that Punjabi is an accusative as well as an ergative language. A Punjabi verb takes an ergative marking in its perfective aspects and accusative marking in imperfective ones.

2.13.2.2. Punjabi Nouns

After discussing some aspects of Punjabi grammar and noun cases, the researcher has discussed some word classes or parts of speech in Punjabi and compared them to the word classes in English. Punjabi words either take or do not take inflections, which are usually suffixes and express grammatical relationships like number (singular and plural), tense (present, past, and perfect, etc.), and person (first person and second person, and so on. For example, a masculine noun takes ‘A’ affix while the feminine takes ‘’I as in the instances like ‘Munda’ and ’Kuri’. The same applies to the noun ‘Bacca’, which is a male child, and ‘Bacci’ is a female one. Most Punjabi masculine and feminine nouns follow the same inflectional rule, though there are some exceptions. By comparing this inflectional rule in Punjabi with English, it is evident that there are no such inflections used in English to differentiate between masculine and feminine nouns.

Moreover, to form a plural, the vowels ‘E’ and ‘Am’ are used as inflections to change singular to plural. For example, the plural of ‘Munda’ is ‘Munde means boys’ and ‘Kuri’ is ‘Kurian’ means girls’, (Bhatia, 2013).

2.13.2.3. Punjabi Pronouns

There are different kinds of pronouns in Punjabi, like English. The different kinds include personal, demonstrative, reflective, indefinite, relative and interrogative, reciprocal, and

possessive pronouns. The pronouns used in Punjabi take inflections for gender, number, and case. The personal pronouns like ‘Main, mera’ are used for the first person. The second-person pronouns in Punjabi show a distinction like ‘Tum’ and ‘Tusii.’ The latter form shows politeness and is also grammatically plural. The third-person demonstrative pronouns, for example, are ‘Uh’ and ‘Ih’, which can be further classified to remote and near, respectively. An example of a reflective pronoun is ‘Aap’ with the genitive form ‘Apna’ is frequently used; relative pronouns like ‘Jo’ means who and what, ‘Jehra’ means ‘What’ and ‘Who’ (for plural), oblique ‘Jis/Jehra means what who and ‘Jinna/Jehra’ means what/who used for plurals. Reciprocal nouns are not used in Punjabi, and possessive pronouns are genitive pronouns. Finally, the examples of interrogative pronouns are ‘Kaun means who, Kisne means who, ‘Kis’ means whom, ‘Kisda’ means whose, and ‘Ki’ means what (ibid, 2013).

2.13.2.4. Punjabi Adjectives

According to Bhatia (2013), Punjabi adjectives are of three kinds: primary adjectives, derived adjectives, and participle adjectives. Examples of simple adjectives are ‘Sonaa’, which means handsome, ‘Cangaa’ means good, and ‘Neela’, which means blue; derived adjectives are ones that take inflections and are derived from different words like nouns, adverbs such as ‘Mardaanaa, means masculine and ‘Himmatii’ means brave, adverbs such as ‘Matha’ slow and ‘Nazdiikii means close or intimate. The third type is participle adjectives; for example, ‘Wagdi’ means flowing, and ‘Nasdaa’ means running. However, there is no such difference found when they are used attributively and predicatively. The adjectives can be divided into three categories from the viewpoint of their agreement with the nouns: those ending with ‘Aa’, those not ending in ‘Aa’, and unchangeable adjectives. Adjectives such as ‘Cangaa’, which means ‘Good,’ take inflections with number and gender, whereas adjectives, for example, ‘Kaafii’ means ‘Enough’ and ‘Kush’ which means happy, do not take inflections with a number and gender. By comparing Punjabi adjectives with English adjectives, it is evident that Punjabi adjectives take and do not take inflections with regard to number and gender. However, there is no such discrimination observed in English adjectives.

2.13.2.5. Postpositions

In Punjabi, postpositions are used instead of prepositions. Unlike prepositions, which are used at the start of a phrase, postpositions in Punjabi are used at the end of a phrase, for

example, ‘Kamrae di wich’ means ‘in the room’ in English. “Wich’ is a postposition in the phrase used at the end of the phrase. The noun and verb take the oblique case when postpositions are used with them. These include ‘Daa’, ‘Dee’ and are used as genitive markers, and they agree in number and gender with their following nouns; the other postpositions ending in ‘Aa’ like ‘Vargaa’, meaning like have the same genitive postposition pattern; ‘Num’ postposition is an indirect marker and ‘ne’ as an ergative marker which is used with subjects of the transitive perfective verb (ibid, 2013)

2.13.2.6. Punjabi Verbs

Punjabi verbs are largely built around a combination of tense, aspect, and mood. In Punjabi, there are present, past, and future tenses, and these are shown by means of suffixes added to the root form of the verb. For example, for the present tense, the verb ‘Rainda ai’ means ‘Lives’, for the past tense, ‘Raiaa’ means ‘Lived’, and ‘Ravegaa’ means ‘Will live’. A Punjabi verb may consist of a single word or a compound verb. The compound verb/predicate in Punjabi consists of two words (base and auxiliary); for example, ‘Rainda hai’ means ‘Lives’. To show these aspects, Punjabi verbs take inflections to the right of their base or root forms. Punjabi consists of three aspects, namely habitual, perfective, and continuous. The participle forms in Punjabi take inflection for gender and number by means of vowel change such ‘Gai, Gae, and Igaa’ means gone in English for all these forms. Mood is associated with how an action is performed and is indicated by the verb.

Besides verbs, moods can also be expressed by means of modal auxiliary followed by either infinitive form or stem form of the verb. Like English, there are a number of moods expressed primarily by the main verbs and secondly by the modal verbs. The different kinds of constructions used to express moods are indicative mood, imperative mood, subjunctive/optative mood, and many sub-types of subjunctive mood. The passive is formed when an instrumental postposition ‘To’ and the compound postposition ‘(De) kolo’ follow the subject of the active sentence; the main verb changes to past participle form with the explicator verb ‘jaa’ means ‘Go’. The explicator gets endings that must agree with tense and aspect. In Punjabi, unlike English, both transitive and intransitive sentences can be changed to passive voice.

2.13.2.7. Auxiliary verbs

In Punjabi, auxiliaries are used for present and past tense; for present tense, for example, 'Hai' and for past tense, 'Sii' are used. The former shows the present tense and the latter past tense. The auxiliaries take inflections for number and person like 'Hai for singular and Hain for plural' 'Sii' for singular, and 'Sen' for plural'. However, for different genders, the forms remain the same, for example, 'Karna' and 'Kita' (ibid, 2013).

2.13.2.8. Punjabi Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word that puts together two words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. The conjunctions do not take any inflections and are classified into co-ordinate and subordinate conjunctions. The examples of co-ordinate conjunctions are 'Aur' means 'and' 'Par' means 'But'; the instances of sub-ordinate conjunctions are 'Lai' means because 'Jadon' means 'when'. In Punjabi and Urdu, conjunctions are called 'Haroof e ataf'. Generally, the use of conjunctions in both Punjabi and English is similar (Badakhshani, 1973).

2.13.2.9. Punjabi Gender

In Punjabi, there are two genders, namely masculine and feminine. The system of gender is semantically as well phonologically based, and the general rule is that the masculine gender takes noun ending in '-Aa' as an inflection, as in 'Munda' means *boy,* while the feminine gender takes the noun ending in 'ii' like 'Kuri' means *girl*. Among the two systems, the semantic criterion is more employed than the phonological one. However, in most cases, it is difficult to predict the criteria used to determine a noun as masculine or feminine, for example, the noun book (Katab in Punjabi) which does not end in '-ii' and someone says *a thin book* in English, and Punjabi, it is 'Patli katab'. This shows that the general rule of denoting a noun as masculine and feminine has exceptions like any other rule. The same applies to the noun 'Kamm', which means 'Work' and it does not end in '-aa' and someone wishes to say 'Good job', which is 'Changa kamm' in Punjabi. In this case, a masculine form of the adjective is used to modify a noun. Another noun, 'Admii' ends in '-ii', but it is a masculine noun though it takes a feminine ending; the feminine noun 'Maa' takes a masculine ending, but it belongs to the feminine gender.

Moreover, there are some words that are used as masculine noun in one context and feminine in another. For example, the noun *Punjabi* is feminine while *Punjabi ethnicity* is masculine; however, some nouns may be preceded by either a masculine or feminine adjective, for example, 'Ucha or Uchi rona' means '*loudly weep'*. According to Bhatia (2013), all professions are generally termed as masculine gender in Punjabi like 'Pangii means sweeper, 'Sunaar' means goldsmith, 'Luddr' means ironsmith, 'Madaarii' means juggler, etc. The feminine counterparts of these professions are derived through suffixes.

2.13.2.10. Interjection

Interjections are used to express sudden feelings and emotions. Like English, interjections are also used in Punjabi. The most common interjections used in Punjabi are 'Hai', which means *oh*, 'Hain' is used to show surprise; 'Oh' means to show pain; 'Wah wah' is used to show pleasant surprise; 'Subhan Allah' is used to express one's happiness, 'Masha Allah' to show happiness and thanks (Badakhshani, 1973).

2.13.2.11. Tone

Tone, which is the presence of pitch contours, is one of the unique features of Punjabi, along with different modern South Asian languages; the tone system of Punjabi is far less complex than Chinese, which is called a tone language. In Punjabi, tones are of three types, namely high, low, and neutral: in the high tone, the pitch of the voice increases above normal level and falls back in the following letter; on the contrary, in the low tone, the voice lowers below the normal pitch and then rises back the syllable follows it. In the neutral tone, the normal pitch remains the same, and no fluctuation occurs during the utterance of a word. Due to the change in tone to high and low, the meaning of the word changes; for example, low tone 'Koraa' means *horse*, mid-tone 'Koraa' means *whip*, and high tone 'Koraa' means *leper*; likewise, low tone 'Kar' means *chisel*, mid-tone 'Malaa' means *mix* and high tone 'Malay' means *boatma*. These examples show that the tonal variation may lead to semantic differences in Punjabi (Punjabi et al., 2011)

2.13.2.12. Cardinals

Cardinals and ordinals are used with nouns as modifiers; cardinals are used without showing any inflectional change for gender; however, in different cases, they take inflections.

Cardinals examples in Punjabi include ‘Ikk’ means ‘one’; ‘do’ means ‘two’, ‘Tinn’ means ‘three’, ‘Caar’ means ‘four’; and so on (ibid, 2013)

2.13.2.13. Ordinals

Unlike cardinals, ordinals inflect for both gender and case. Ordinals are mostly used with a singular number. For example, ‘Pehla’ means first, ‘Dosra’ means second, ‘Teesra means third, ‘Dasvim’ means tenth, ‘Satarveen’ means seventeenth, and so on. From the above, it is evident that cardinals and ordinals are used in the same way in Punjabi and English language, though there are certain differences with regard to inflections for cases and gender in Punjabi.

2.13.2.14. Quantifiers

According to Bhattia (2013), the following are some of the examples of quantifiers in Punjabi. For example, ‘Kujj’ means some, ‘Kaii’ means many, ‘Bot’ means a lot of, ‘Har’ means every, ‘Sablsaaraa’ means all/whole, and ‘Caare/Caaro four of them. This shows that like English, quantifiers are also used in Punjabi.

After discussing some of the aspects of Punjabi language and grammar, the next section includes a review of some of the research conducted in Punjabi. The rationale for including this section is to provide a review of the previous research that has been conducted in Punjabi. This would identify a research gap in the existing body of literature and put the present research in context.

2.14. Review of Some Punjabi Studies

This section includes a review of some of the research studies conducted in Punjabi. These research areas include a comparison of Punjabi and English phonemes, the attitude of the people towards Punjabi in Pakistan, Punjabi lexicons, application of transformation model in analyzing imperative constructions, comparative study of Hindi and Punjabi language, Punjabi language during British rule and comparison of Punjabi and English about Chomsky’s minimalist program. Despite the aforementioned research and some others that have not been mentioned here, it is clear that not so much research has been conducted in Pakistan in Punjabi. This has been supported by Butt (2017) that in spite of its comparative size, there has been

very little work on the Punjabi language and its closely related languages like Siraiki and Pothwari.

Chohan and Isabel (2019) conducted research titled *'Phonemic Comparison of English and Punjabi'*. The researchers tried to explore the differences between English and Punjabi phonemes. For this research, the Levenshtein algorithm framework was used. The inventories of both languages were used to determine the phonemic differences and similarities. The theoretical framework was used to analyze the inventories and to measure the ratio of similarities and discrepancies. The research findings show that both languages have a similarity level of 56.25 while the phonemic difference is 43.75. The result of this research work indicates that there are more phonemic similarities than differences. The similarities between the two languages facilitate the learning process for Punjabi students, and the phonemic differences make the English learning task challenging and daunting.

Hanan, A., Ali, Z., & Atta, F. (2021) conducted research on Punjabi's (an Indo-Aryan language) subject-verb agreement. In order to investigate verb agreement in Punjabi, the study focuses on transitive and intransitive verbs in the past, present, future simple, and continuous tenses. The method used to get information from native Punjabi speakers is the unstructured interview, which can be conducted in person or by video conference. The X bar theory (Haegeman, 1994) has been employed as a theoretical framework to build three diagrams and analyze the verb phrase, particularly on INFL. The current work uses an exploratory and descriptive research approach (Creswell, 2014). The paper's findings indicate that in person, transitive and intransitive verbs agree. number, gender, and tenses in the past, present, and future.

Chomsky's Theory of Universal Grammar (UG) (1993, 1995) incorporates some universal principles for grammatical descriptions of all potential human languages. This is due to the possibility that not all facets of human languages are universal, and this hypothesis also provides some guidelines for how languages might differ from one another. Grammatical rules and representations are created according to minimalist principles, such as the concept of economy, the principle of uniformity, and the search for simplicity, which are followed by the Minimalist Program (MP) (Chomsky, 1993) as part of UG. The present study used the

Minimalist Program (MP) as a theoretical framework to evaluate Punjabi interrogative sentences in order to identify commonalities between Punjabi and English.

An ethnographic study was conducted at NUML by Fakhira Riza (2011) titled '*Punjab Language: A Study of Language Desertion'*. The main aim of this study is to explore the status of Punjabi and the attitude of the urban and rural Punjabi native speakers towards the language. A sample of ten families was selected: five from the urban area and the remaining five from the rural area. The theoretical framework used for the research was a constructivist qualitative model; the data were collected through semi-structured recorded interviews. The researcher has concluded that the participants from urban settings do not consider Punjabi significant for communicative and commercial purposes; however, the participants from rural settings showed a strong affiliation and ownership towards Punjabi.

The result of the research shows that the attitude of the urban residents was negative towards the local language, while the rural residents' attitude was very positive. From the research study, it is evident that the attitude of the urban residents towards their native language was not positive and encouraging, and they do not let their children speak Punjabi at home and in their educational institutions. However, the rural residents' attitude was very positive and supportive, and they own their native language.

Din & Ghani (2017) conducted research on the topic: '*A Social Study of the Diminishing Features of the Punjabi Lexicon'*. In this research, the researcher highlighted the linguistic changes in the Punjabi lexicon over a few decades. For assessing the assumed lexical changes, the researchers have used two strategies: the lexicon used in old Punjabi movies like 'Heer Ranja' songs and the questionnaires filled out by 110 educated Punjabi speakers. In the questionnaire, the respondents' opinions were sought regarding the perceived changes that have taken place over a few decades. The findings of the study show that considerable and noticeable lexical changes have taken place due to advancements in education, industry, and technology, especially because of electronic media. The conclusion shows that other languages like English, Urdu, and Arabic have influenced Punjabi and plenty of words from these languages have been borrowed and adopted by Punjabi speakers. Moreover, the existing lexicons have been replaced with lexicons from the aforementioned three languages.

Goyal and Leha (2008) conducted research titled '*Comparative Study of Hindi and Punjabi Language Scripts'*. Both Hindi and Punjabi belong to the same Indo-Aryan family of languages. Hindi is written in Devanagari, and Indian Punjabi is written in Gurmukhi and Shahmukhi scripts. Both these languages are among the major languages spoken in India and share a number of features. The results of the study show that the writing systems of both Hindi and Indian Punjabi scripts are the same; however, there are a few significant and interesting discrepancies. The most striking differences in writing include initial vowels, writing of tone, germinate clusters, and other clusters. This comparative study was significant and beneficial for the development of the machine translation system from Punjabi language to Hindi and versa.

Bashir, E., & Conners, T. J. (2019) wrote a comprehensive book titled *'A Descriptive Grammar of Hindko, Panjabi, and Saraiki.'* This book is a detailed account of three languages, i.e., Hindko, Punjabi, and Saraiki, with respect to various grammatical aspects, and compares and contrasts the three languages. The grammatical aspects covered in this book include phonology and orthography of the three languages, nouns and various noun cases, adjectival and adverbial modifications, postpositions used in the three languages as SOV languages are head-final languages in contrast to SVO languages; verbs, which include various verbs forms used in three languages and the kind of tenses. The sentential syntax encompasses word order, simple sentences, various dependent and independent clauses and their types, and morphosemantics. From the contents of the book, it is evident that it is quite a comprehensive book that may be used for instruction and as a reference book. As far as the chapter on sentential syntax is concerned, it has provided a brief but comprehensive inventory of the sentence types used in these three languages. The book also offers significant data about Punjabi syntactic constructions; however, the data are not exhaustive as it does not cover only the Punjabi language. Nevertheless, the book is an amazing resource that could be used for a variety of purposes, and the writers have put in a painstaking job.

A research article has been written by Rehman (2007) on Punjabi during British rule in India. According to the researcher, Punjabi has never attained a dominant position despite having plenty of native speakers and a long history. During British rule, Urdu, in spite of Punjabi, was declared a language of domination, administration, and business. Moreover, the

Muslims of the Punjab selected Urdu as their cultural insignia. Iqbal and subsequently Zafar Ali Khan and Akhtar Sheerani, and after the independence of the country in 1947, most renowned poets, namely Faiz Ahmed Faiz, Majeed Amjad, and Munir Niazi, composed mainly Urdu poetry. This shows that most poets and writers opted for Urdu as a medium of expression instead of Punjabi. Moreover, the language of the media in Pakistan was also Urdu. Due to these factors, Punjabi was marginalized. On the contrary, in the Indian state of Punjab, it has been used in some domains of power. It has been considered as the language of underprivileged classes as it used to be during British rule.

A study was conducted to compare Punjabi and English with regard to Chomsky's minimalist program. Since these languages are different, they exhibit different linguistic properties, but the universal grammar approach postulates some universal principles and parametric deviations between the two languages. By using the minimalist version of universal grammar and principles and parameters, the study has undertaken non-finite *Tdef* structures in Punjabi and English. The findings of the study show that non-finite elements of participle and infinitival structures in Punjabi may be elaborated under *multiple agree operations*. In English, Tdef elements, especially raising and exceptional constructions, are valued under the same principle. The difference between these languages with regard to Tdef constructions is that in Punjabi, these elements are not pronounced, while in English, non-finite constructions are shown by an overt tense element, 'to' (Khan & Kousar, 2019). The core of universal grammar and P&P is to identify the similarities and structural differences between languages. There are some features that are universal to all languages, but they are different with regard to parameters.

The aforementioned studies carried out in Punjabi indicate that there have been various aspects of the Punjabi language that have been researched in the past; in some of the given research, there is a comparison between one of the aspects of Punjabi like phonology and lexicons with English. The status of the Punjabi language during British rule and the attitude of the Punjabi speakers towards their language are also researched in other research; the remaining studies are either on the influence of other languages or the application of minimalist programs on Punjabi syntactic constructions. Having said this, despite all this research on various aspects of Punjabi, the number of studies carried out in Punjabi is significantly less,

especially in Pakistan, as this language has never got a prestigious position and has been a language of the marginalized. From the review of the research, it is also clear that no research has been carried out on Punjabi syntactic constructions, namely negative, passive, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory constructions, by using the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar. The present research undertakes the comparison of the above-mentioned Punjabi constructions with English syntactic constructions by utilizing the aforementioned theory of transformational generative grammar model proposed by Noam Chomsky (1977). In other words, the present research intends to bridge the existing research gap in the literature. In the following section, a comprehensive review of the syntactic constructions used in the Punjabi language has been discussed. The related literature has been taken from the book titled *'Descriptive Grammar'* by Bhatia (2013).

2.15. Kind of Syntactic Constructions in Punjabi

2.15.1. Negative Syntactic Constructions in Punjabi

Negation in Punjabi generally expressed by two particles namely 'Naii' and 'Na'. The former particle is unmarked and is similar to 'not' in the English language. The particle 'Naii' is pronounced with low tone in some of the dialects of Punjabi. 'Na' is used in the subjunctive, conditional imperative, infinitive phrases, and neither / nor structures, while 'Naii' is used in all other cases. In the following sentences, the negative sentences with 'Na' particle are given (ibid, p.117).

a. Tuu na jaa (You don't go.)
b. Main chanda haan ki na javaan (I do not want to go.)
c. Mera otthe na jaauNA thiik ai (It is right for me not to go there.)

When negative constructions are formed from affirmative structures, several deletion processes are triggered. This includes the deletion of an auxiliary, copula deletion and the deletion of operator non-specification. The following examples will illustrate this deletion process:

a. Main jaandaa haan. (I go.)
b. Main naii jaandaa (I do not go.)
c. Oh ja riaa ai (He is going.)
d. Oh naii ja riaa (He is not going.)

e. Oh utthe ai (He is there.)

f. Oh utthe naii (He is not there.)

The difference between construction 'A' and 'B' besides affirmation and negation is that in structure 'B' the auxiliary 'Haan' is deleted and is replaced by a negation particle 'Naii'. The same rule of auxiliary deletion is applied in 'D' construction. However, the rule of copula deletion is applied to structure 'F' where the copula verb 'Ai' is deleted to form a negative construction. By comparing these constructions with their English counterparts, it is clear that no such deletion operations are performed in English. Besides expressing negation by 'Na' and 'Naii', negative sentences can be formed by using 'Binna' which is a negative marker. The use of 'Binna' has been shown in the given constructions:

a. Oh binaa khaande boliaa. (He spoke without eating.)

b. Oh khaande binaa boliaa (He spoke without eating.)

The position of the negative particle 'Binna' is different in these two sentences. However, both constructions are grammatical and are often used.

2.15.2. Passive Syntactic Constructions in Punjabi

The passive is constructed in two ways. The first type of passive is formed when the subject of the active construction is followed by either postposition 'to' an instrumental postposition, or a compound postposition (de) kolo means 'by', and the past participle form of the main verb is used for example the verb 'Jaa' means go would change into 'Giaa' which is past participle form. The following constructions elaborate on these rules (ibid, 234)

a. Oh to/de kolo khat naii likhia gia. (The letter was not read by him or he was not able to read the letter.)

b. Ali to/de kolo naii uthaya gia. (Ali could not get up.)

In Punjabi, unlike English, passive voice is used with both transitive and intransitive verbs. The construction 'A' contains a transitive verb 'Likhia' whereas the verb in the sentence 'B' has an intransitive verb. The use of passive voice is Punjabi is sometimes ambiguous like the sentence 'A' reflects passive as well as internal or external capability. The second sentence with intransitive verb conveys only capability. Such kinds of sentences are included in active voice sentences. For example, consider the following example:

a. Khat naii paRiaa Giaa. (The letter was not read.)

This syntactic construction is agentless and shows mere capability. The second type of passive is formed by putting ‘To/de, kolo immediately after the verb; either the bare stem or the oblique infinitive form of the verb is used with the explicator ‘Ho’ be. To show tense agreement, the explicator shows tense-aspect agreement endings.

b. Oh to/de kolo kattab naii paRan hunda. (The book is not (cannot be) read by him.

There is a difference between the former passive constructions used with ‘Jaaunaa’ and the latter with ‘HoNaa’ passive. The latter passive construction is rarely used without an agent in negative sentences and gives the meaning of capability; the latter passive sentence shows the attitude of the speaker towards the referent. The sentence ‘Oh to/de kolo kattab naii panRan hunda’ implies that the referent is very lazy and therefore will not read the book. By comparing these Punjabi passive kinds with English, the passive sentences in the latter language usually do not express capability meaning or interpretation, whereas the element of capability is there in Punjabi.

2.15.3. Interrogative Syntactic Constructions in Punjabi

There are two main types of interrogative constructions in Punjabi as are found in English: yes-no questions and question-word questions. Between these two types of constructions, there are different systematic intonations with various manifestations. In the following sections, these two principal kinds of sentences have been discussed briefly.

2.15.4. Closed-ended Syntactic Questions in Punjabi

Yes-no questions can be classified into two basic types according to a particular type of expected answer. There are neutral yes-no type questions, and are employed by using these neutral questions. The speaker does not intend to have an answer. However, the leading yes-no questions are ones through which a speaker expects either an affirmative or a negative response. The basic particle which differentiates the former kinds from the latter ones is the use of ‘Na’, meaning ‘Isn’t it/is it’?’ with the former. In forming yes-no questions, the question word ‘Kii’ is optionally placed in the initial position of an affirmative construction. In Punjabi, the question word ‘Kii’ has the same phonetic shape as the question word ‘What’ in English. The main difference between the yes-no question ‘Kii’ and the interrogative word ‘What’ is their position in a construction. In Punjabi, the yes-no question does not create any change in

word order from an affirmative structure; however, putting the question word 'Kii' requires a rising intonation, especially on the verbal element at the end of the construction. The question word 'Kii' is never put at the end of a question. The following points have been illustrated in the given Syntactic constructions (ibid, p.5).

a. Tusi ajj kahani suNaavoge (You will tell a story today)
   You today story tell (future 2nd person masculine singular)
b. Kii tusi ajj kahani suNaavoge? (Will you tell a story today?)
   Q word you today story tell (future 2nd person masculine singular
   Will you narrate/ tell a story today?

From the above examples, it is clear that the question word is used to make an interrogative construction from declarative; however, the use of the question word 'Kii' is optional; interrogative constructions may also be constructed by using a rising intonation in declarative constructions and the question word 'Kii'. On the contrary, interrogative structures will be ill-formed if the question word 'Kii' is used and a rising tone is absent. The resulting construction which is formed gives the impression of a 'Wh' question instead of a yes-no question (ibid, p.5). Consider the following example:

a. Tussi ajj katab parro Gay? (interrogative sentence with a rising intonation at the end)
b. Kii dasyaa ne? (absence of rising tone)
   Q word tell past form 3rd person masculine singular
   What did he tell? Instead of 'Did he tell?

From the above constructions, it is clear that the role of intonation, be it low or high is very significant and the only use of question word without rising intonation at the end of the structures will not yield a yes-no question.

2.15.5. Leading Closed-ended Questions

These questions are constructed by adding 'Na', which means *not* at the end of a construction that acts as a question tag in English. This negative particle 'Na' is the short version of the negative particle 'Naii' meaning *not*. The negative particle 'Na' shows an abridged version of 'Naii', which is called an unmarked negative particle, and remains the same with regard to the preceding positive or negative postpositions. If an affirmative reply is expected, it is expressed by a positive statement followed by a particle 'Na.' (ibid, p.6)

a. Aaj tussi kam koroge, na?

Today you work do (future form) negative

'You will work today, won't you?'

On the contrary, if a negative response is expected by the speaker, a negative statement precedes the negative particle as is expressed in the following example:

a. Ajj tusin kam na karoge, na"

Today you work neg. be (future form masculine singular), neg.

'You will not work today, will you?'

An alternative way to construct a yes-no question is by putting an expression like 'Ja ki naii' meaning 'or not' after an affirmative statement as in the following construction:

a. Tusi ajj kitab paroge ja ki naii?

You today book read (future form 2nd person masculine plural) or/that neg

*Kii tusi ajj kitab paroge?

The last construction is ungrammatical since this structure starts with 'Kii, ' meaning what or which. So instead of getting a yes-no sentence, we have got a wh-question by putting this question word 'Kii.' Moreover, it is evident that 'Kii', which is used in positive and negative yes-no questions, is a disjunctive particle 'Jaa' means 'Or'. The main purpose of such questions is to make a request to an affirmation denial of one of two alternatives to request a commitment of either choice. Due to these, sometimes the constructions may yield more than one interpretation. Consider the following constructions:

a. Tusii aaj kitab paroge jaa/ki naii

You today book read (future simple) or/that neg.

Will you read a book today or not?

The first interpretation of this construction could be that the questioner shows more consideration from the answer, or the questioner knows that the respondent has a very bad record of not reading a book and the respondent would behave in the same way.

2.15.6. Open-ended Syntactic Constructions in Punjabi

The interrogative constructions started with the wh-question words, which are called k-questions in Punjabi, as these question words start with the k-sound. These question words do not alter any word order, which is seen in English wh- questions. In Punjabi, interrogative constructions are generated by substituting a question word in the place of the constituent which is questioned. The main wh- questions words used in the Punjabi language are 'Kii' means what, 'Kaun means who, 'KiRaa' means which, 'Kittthe means where, 'Kive' means how, and 'Kid' means why, 'Kinj' means how, 'Kio jia' means what kind, 'Kinnaa' means how much 'Kiddar means what direction and 'Kad' means when. The stress is always put on the question words. Following are some of the questions used in Punjabi language (ibid, p. 9).

a. Tuaadaa naa kii ai? (What is your name?)
   Your name what is
b. Lahore kitthe ai? (Where is Lahore?)
   Lahore where is
c. Isdaa kina mull ai? (What is the price of this?)
   This how much price is
d. O utthe kyn giaa? (Why did he go there?)
   He there why go (past tense)
e. Tu eh kitab kive likhii (How did you write this book?)
   You this book how write (past form)

According to Bhatia (2013), question words such as 'Kii' mean *what*, and 'KauN' means *who* expresses a range of case relations when postpositions are added to them. The postposition changes the question word phonetically, which is called the oblique case. The oblique form of question words like 'Kii' and 'KauN' reflect number and gender: the oblique singular forms of these question words are 'Ks/kii', and the oblique plural form is 'Kinaa' for both 'Kii and KouN.' The different oblique forms of the question words for both singular and plural are given as follows:

a. Kis nuu (question word singular) accusative/ dative marker 'Whom'
b. Kis to (question word singular) from 'From what/whom
c. Kis ne (question word singular) ergative/agent marker 'Who' and 'what'

d. Kis te (question word singular) ‘On what’
e. Kinaa nuu (question word plural) acc. Dative marker ‘Whom’
f. Kinna to (question word plural) ‘From whom’
g. Kinna ne (question word plural) ‘Erg/agentive marker’ ‘Who’
h. Kinna te (question word plural) ‘On what

From the above description of both question words, ‘Kii and KauN’, it is evident that they change phonetically from ‘Kii’ to ‘Kis’ and ‘KauN to Kinna’ with various case markers. The first four examples of ‘Kis’ with different postpositions are examples of singular cases whereas the last four instances are used for plural cases respectively. Interrogative constructions are one of the most frequently used constructions in both Punjabi and English, along with declarative constructions. However, the interrogative constructions used in Punjabi do not undergo any structural changes, which are normally observed in English. There is no inversion of question and auxiliary words in Punjabi. In other words, there is no structural change when interrogative structures such as yes-no and ‘What’ are formed from affirmative sentences. The structural differences between Punjabi and English concerning the inversion of question words and auxiliaries in the English language may cause problems to Punjabi students while learning English structures. Since there is no inversion involved in Punjabi and the native speakers of Punjabi apply the same rules of their own language to English, this may lead to the production of ungrammatical structures. However, after discussing interrogative sentences, the negative sentences are discussed in the next section.

2.15.7. Imperative Syntactic Constructions in Punjabi

Imperative constructions are sensitive to person, number, the degree of imperiousness and politeness. The following five kinds of imperative constuctions are used in addition to the unmarked, true or basic imperatives. The kinds of imperative structures used in Punjabi are as under (ibid, pp.34-41).

a. The unmarked imperative
b. The future imperative
c. The subjunctive imperative
d. The obligatory imperative
e. The prohibitive imperative

2.15.7.1. The Unmarked Imperatives

These imperative constructions take second person pronouns 'Tuu' and 'Tusii'. It is to be noted that 'Tussi' is used for plural second-person pronouns as well as for singular second-person to show respect. The same form, 'Tussi', is used in the standard Majhi dialect. The form of the verb takes a root or base form for singular nouns and for plural nouns, and 'O/ov' is added to the stem. The second-person pronouns mentioned above are usually deleted, but it is not obligatory. The pronoun is not deleted in case of extra-formal speech or rude speech. The subject is retained as in

a. Tuu kam kar (You do work)
   You work do
b. Tussi kam karo
   You (plural as well as singular for showing respect) work do
   You work.

2.15.7.2. The Future Imperatives

The future imperative constructions are similar to infinitive form and take 'Naa' with the base verb.

a. Kal jaNaa (Go tomorrow)
   Tomorrow go (future imperative)
b. KhaaNaa khaa ke katab parNaa. (After having your meal, read the book.)
   Food eat having book read (infinitive)

2.15.7.3. Subjunctive Imperatives

In subjunctive constructions, a wish or suggestion is conveyed rather than a direct command. The following constructions are the examples of subjunctive sentences.

a. Oh chetti khaae. (He should eat quickly.)
   He quickly eat
b. Chalo ghar chalie. (Let us go home.)
   Go *imperative form*, home, go, *subjunctive 2nd person*,

From the above examples, it is clear that there is no difference between ordinary plural imperative and subjunctive imperative. However, the latter is milder as compared to the former.

2.15.7.4. Prescriptive and Compulsive Imperative

These kinds of constructions express moral, social and communal obligations and duties. In these structures, compound verbs/serial verbs are used. The following sentences are used to express obligation as under:

a. Oh nuu aaNA chaaidaa ai. (You should/ought to come.)
   You to (dative) come ought to/should
b. muNDE nuu khanna khanna pavegaa. (The boy will have to eat the meal.)
   Boy (masculine singular) to a (dative) meal, eat, compulsion
c. Tussi aaNaa ai. (You need to/have to come.)
   You come is

2.15.7.5. Negative Imperatives

These kinds of structures do not utilize the ordinary negative particle 'Naii' instead 'Na' is used to make negative imperative. The following constructions are used to illustrate this point:

a. Na oaao. (Don't come)
   Negative come
b. HasaNa maNaa ai. (Laughing is prohibited)
   Laughing prohibited is

The aforementioned five kinds of imperative structures are mainly used in the Majhi dialect of Punjabi. After illustrating these kinds of constructions, the last type of structures are exclamatory sentences which have been discussed in the next section.

2.15.8. Exclamatory Syntactic Constructions in Punjabi

Exclamatory syntactic constructions are one of the minor types of sentences along with interjectional, vocative and elliptical constructions. An exclamatory s consists structure of a noun or a noun phrase. An example of an exclamatory sentence is as under (ibid, p. 161).

a. Kinni soNii gaddiai! (What a beautiful car!)
   How beautiful car!
b. Kinni uchaa minarai! (What a tall minaret!)
   How tall minaret!

The exclamatory constructions are used to show sudden human feelings and emotions of happiness, joy, pain, etc. At the end of constructions, an exclamatory sign is used instead of a period to express one's emotions. The present section has covered some kinds of syntactic constructions like interrogative, negative, passive, imperative, and exclamatory constructions briefly. These kinds of constructions have been examined in the light of the transformation generative grammar and have been elaborated through the tree diagram in chapter 4. Moreover, these kinds of Punjabi constructions will be compared with their counterparts in English to find out the differences between the deep structures and surface structures of these sentences and the kind of transformations applied to these types to transform them from deep or underlying structures to surface structures.

2.16. Conclusion

It is concluded from the aforementioned review of the literature that transformational generative grammar is one of the important theories, and different researchers have conducted studies using this theory in different contexts to study syntactic constructions of different languages. The researcher has tried to review different versions and aspects of the theory. Moreover, there was a need to study the Punjabi syntactic constructions by means of the transformational generative theory. Punjabi is one of the major languages of the world, and this study would assist not only Punjabi speakers but also other major languages spoken in Pakistan. The present comprehensive review of the literature would be beneficial for students of syntax and teachers of English who aspire to further their research in the discipline of syntax.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Overview of the Chapter

After a detailed introduction and review of the related literature in the previous chapters, the research methodology is discussed in this chapter. The main points discussed in this chapter include the theoretical framework, research design, data collection and analysis procedures, and ethical considerations.

3.2. Theoretical Framework

According to Willis (2007), a framework is a broad set of concepts that always guide research. Since research starts from a particular paradigm, it helps a research process to move linearly. Moreover, a research paradigm informs a particular theoretical perspective that guides the researcher to choose a methodology. Guba (1990) defined a paradigm as a fundamental set of principles that guide action. The action may be common everyday acts or systematic actions taken to conduct a disciplined inquiry. Theoretical perspectives are the philosophical stance guiding the methodology and providing a context for the process and grounding its logic criteria (Crotty, 2020). Walter (2006) contended that under the influence of the paradigm, the methodology provides the frame of reference for the research and helps the researcher choose a specific methodology.

For the present research, the researcher has used the revised extended standard transformational generative theory. As mentioned in chapter 2, page No. 23, there are various versions of the theory of generative grammar, namely the classical theory of transformational generative grammar, the standard theory of transformational grammar, the extended standard theory of transformational grammar, and the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar etc. (Luraghi & Parodi, 2008). In the present study, the researcher has used the version of the theory titled the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar proposed by Noam Chomsky in (1977). This version of the theory is a modified dimension of the generative grammar, and the modifications were made to the

theory based on the developments in linguistics and criticisms levied against it by different linguists.

The main concepts included in the revised extended standard transformational generative theory (REST) are phrase structure rules, base rules and lexical rules, deep structure, transformational rules, surface structure, phonological rules, and semantic rules. These concepts have been defined and explained in the following section to operationalize the given theory.

3.2.1. Phrase Structure Rules

The phrase structure rules generate the deep structure of a construction. The phrase structure grammar or rules may be defined as the rules that specify the constituency of syntactic categories. These rules are also called rewrite rules, which specify that a noun phrase can be expanded to an optional article, adjective, and noun as a head of the phrase; likewise, a verb phrase may consist of a verb as its head word and an adverb. In other words, phrase structure rules specify what a particular phrase may consist of or include besides its headword. Phrase structure rules help in rearranging the constituents of a phrase (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

3.2.2. Base Rules

The first stage in the aforementioned theory is base rules, which signify that phrase markers are first generated by phrase structure rules. The phrase marker rules are also called category rules with empty slots. This preliminary stage is said to be pre-lexical structures. In the second stage, the empty nodes are filled with complex symbols, which consist of morphemes upon which lexical transformational rules are applied to have their semantic and syntactic features. In other words, the phrase structure rules give rise to phrase markers with empty slots. These empty nodes are filled with morphemes or words upon which the lexical transformational rules are applied to have deep structure or underlying structure of a syntactic construction (Rowe et al., D. P. 2018).

3.2.3. Deep Structure

The structural organization is an abstract level whereby all the semantic and structural interpretations are represented, which is called deep structure. In the earlier versions of transformational grammar, the meaning of an utterance is related to the deep structure;

however, in the latest version, the meaning of an utterance has been associated to the surface structure. As mentioned above, the deep structures are generated in two stages: the phrase markers are produced by phrase structure rules with empty slots showing phrase markers or lexical categories, and subsequently, these empty slots are filled with morphemes upon which lexical transforms are applied (Amin, 2012).

3.2.4. Transformational Rules

The transformational rules are applied to deep structures to explain ambiguity, synonymy, and assumed (deleted) elements in syntactic constructions to ensure that surface constructions are well-formed. Applying the base rules, an infinite number of deep structures are generated. Likewise, a large number of surface structures are produced by applying transformational rules to the underlying or deep structure. Transformational rules are applied to the earlier versions of transformational grammar. However, in this version of the theory, i.e., the revised extended standard transformational generative grammar, the moved constituent in deep structure, through applying transformational rules, has been indicated by trace. On the contrary, the concept of trace has not been applied in the earlier versions of the theory; therefore, this version is also called the trace version of generative grammar. To sum up, it is through base rules, deep structure, transformational rules, and surface structure that Chomsky has attempted to make some contributions to account for the fundamental abilities of a native speaker (Luraghi & Parodi, 2008).

In the present research, the Punjabi syntactic constructions, which include negative, passive, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative, are purposely selected. Subsequently, these five types of constructions have been analyzed through the revised extended standard transformational generative grammar. Moreover, the aforementioned Punjabi constructions have been compared to English syntactic constructions of the same kinds. While analyzing Punjabi constructions, the deep structure and the surface structures of Punjabi have been analyzed to show how surface structures emerged from underlying deep structures. The transitional rules of insertion/addition, promotion and demotion, deletion and embedding, etc., have been discussed in detail to generate surface structures from deep ones. Moreover, the transformational rules applied to Punjabi constructions have been compared to transformational rules to generate English constructions to ascertain dissimilarities and

similarities if any. In chapter four, a detailed and comprehensive analysis of the transition of surface structures from underlying deep structure has been given by means of the above-mentioned movement operations.

3.2.5. Surface Structure

As mentioned above, surface structures are generated by applying transformational rules to the underlying or deep structure; surface structures are the syntactic constructions that are spoken or written. There may be many surface structures generated from an underlying deep structure. Thus, an affirmative active construction can be transformed into negative, interrogative, passive, and imperative constructions by applying different transformational rules. The following sentence depicts how surface structures are generated from the given deep structure:

d. Sentence: Naveed seems to be a generous boy.
e. Deep structure: X (someone) seems {Naveed to be a generous boy}
f. Surface structure: Naveed seems {trace (t) to be a generous boy}

The sentence mentioned above, 'B', shows that 'Naveed' happens to be the subject of the embedded clause moved to the start of construction 'A' by applying transformational rules. The moved constituent leaves behind a trace, as shown in construction 'C' above. If more constituents are moved from different positions, such as from deep structure to surface one, different traces have been applied to show various movement operations. The surface structure has two representations: phonetic representation and semantic rule (Rowe et al., D. P. 2018).

3.2.6. Phonetic Representation

The phonological rules lead to the phonetic representation of the constructions, which means how a construction is spoken after phonological rules have been applied. The semantic rules have two aspects: first, the construction, when used alone, could be semantically acceptable by selecting and arranging all the constituents of a sentence. The first semantic aspect is also called the logical form (LF) of a sentence. The second aspect deals with the cognitive as well as contextual aspects. The cognitive aspect is related to the unconscious knowledge of a language, which enables a speaker to construct a grammatical construction,

and the contextual aspect deals with the context in which a structure is used so that a construction can be interpreted with the help of the context in which it is used (Rowe et al, 2018)

3.2.7. Semantic Rules

The semantic component is another part of the theory. According to Chomsky, the logical form (LF) is the first semantic rule which shows the relationship of the subject to the following predicate, assigns the scope of logical operators such as 'Which, that, who, and each,' etc.; they grant antecedents to different kinds of anaphora like 'one another, each other, his and their', etc. In other words, the first kind of semantic rule deals with the subject and predicate agreement; moreover, the internal cohesion of various constituents within a construction gives an acceptable and clear meaning; this semantic rule also relates to the knowledge of the grammar of a particular language which enables a native or non-native speaker to construct a semantically and grammatically acceptable construction. A syntactic construction can be grammatically correct but semantically incorrect, 'The dogs are playing cricket.' This syntactic construction is grammatically correct but semantically unacceptable.

The semantic rule 2 is related to performance, which includes two aspects: linguistic and non-linguistic. The linguistic aspect deals with reference in a construction which could be unbounded reference: for example, in the sentence such as 'Naveed likes his own car', the use of 'His' in unbounded anaphoric as both 'Naveed' and 'His' refer to a male referent. The non-linguistic dimension deals with reference to a construction found in earlier constructions, i.e., within discourse or situational context, which could assist a reader in successful comprehension. Moreover, the non-linguistic aspect is related to cognitive systems besides language, i.e., the speaker's belief. For completion, comprehension, and understanding of any construction, the linguistic and non-linguistic aspects are important.

To sum up, it is evident that the revised extended standard transformational generative grammar is more elaborate as compared to the earlier ones. Phrase structure rules, base rules, and morphological rules are all applied at the initial stage to generate deep structures. In the final version of transformational grammar, the component of morphological rules is applied at the final stage. Moreover, the transformations or movement of constituents has been indicated with traces. Moreover, the semantic aspect has two dimensions: linguistic and non-linguistic

aspects (Chapman, S. (Ed.), 2009). In short, the process of synactic constructions involves the formation of a deep structure, the application of transformational and movement rules, and the semantic aspect whereby a construction is syntactically and semantically acceptable.

3.3. Research Methodology

For the present study, qualitative research has been used. Qualitative researchers stress the reality which is socially constructed. They attempt to get an answer to the question which stresses how social experience is created in a given context (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Qualitative research deals with the representations of the world that are fundamentally related to linguistic studies (Heppner et al., 1999). Moreover, qualitative researchers aspire to study behavior or an existing phenomenon in a context, and for them, the interpretation of the context is a necessary process to be undertaken. Denzin and Lincoln (2006) commented that qualitative research is an approach that is interpretive and naturalistic in nature. This means that qualitative researchers carry out their studies in natural settings and try to interpret and make sense of the phenomenon with regard to the meanings people associate with them.

Qualitative research is used to investigate areas where very little is known, and a researcher attempts to know much in order to gain new knowledge and understanding about a given phenomenon in detail. The details may include feelings, emotions, and thought processes. Anselm and Corbin (1998) stated that there are three main components of qualitative research: data collection, data analysis, and reports. For collecting data, various sources are employed, such as observations, interviews, documents, films, and records. The second step includes the organization and interpretation of data through different procedures. The procedures include conceptualization, reduction of data, elaboration of categories with regard to their properties and aspects, and coding. Step three includes detailed reports about the research project which can be in written or verbal form. The results of the research are presented in the form of articles for journals, conferences, and books

Gay (2019) defined qualitative research as a process of selecting small data or a few participants for the study. The study is conducted in such a way that the subjects assist the research to understand and to get a deep insight into the phenomenon under investigation. Moreover, in qualitative research, narrative and visual data can also be collected, analyzed, and interpreted to gain knowledge and understanding about a particular phenomenon of study.

The main features of qualitative research are defining a given problem, understanding the research setting or context, collecting data from a small number of subjects that are purposely selected, and interpreting the data. Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research views the world as unstable, coherent but not uniform, and has many truths and interpretations.

For the present research, the researcher has selected a qualitative approach to explore different kinds of constructions by making use of Chomsky's transformational generative grammar theory. The deep structure and the surface structure of Punjabi syntactic constructions have been explored, as well as the kind of transformational rules applied to them to change them from deep or underlying structure to surface structure. Moreover, Punjabi syntactic constructions have also been compared to English structures, and the similarities and differences between the syntactic constructions of these two languages have been explored. The constructions included in the present study are negative, interrogative, passive, exclamatory, and imperative. The data for the present study has been selected from Punjabi grammar book titled '*Punjabi Descriptive Grammar'* by Bhatia (2013). This is a standard book on Punjabi grammar providing a comprehensive overview of standard Punjabi known as Majhi. Majhi is a standard dialect of Punjabi spoken in the Majha area which includes Lahore and Amritsar. The aforementioned syntactic constructions have been mainly selected from the book, and they have been studied and analyzed by using the revised extended standard transformational generative grammar. As it is a comparative study, Punjabi syntactic constructions have not only been analyzed but also compared to their English counterparts.

3.4. Research Design

Research design is a comprehensive plan or blueprint utilized to provide a guide to a research study toward its set objectives. There are many interrelated decisions involved in the process of designing a research study (Minocha, 2006). However, the most crucial decision is to select a research approach for a study since it dictates how the data will be collected. Once the research approach has been chosen, the other tactical research decisions are made (Blumberg & Schindler, 2008).

In the present study, a comparative-exploratory design has been used. In order to find similarities, differences, patterns, or links between various individuals, situations, or events, researchers in the social sciences and other domains employ a process known as comparative

study design. Researchers can learn more about how variables respond in various situations by using this strategy. Comparing two or more groups, conditions, or phenomena in order to identify commonalities, differences, or links between them is the main objective of a comparative study design. This may help in identifying trends, formulating forecasts, or comprehending causal connections.

The present study employs the comparative research design as the given topic is to draw a comparison between Punjabi and English syntactic constructions with regard to the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar. The syntactic constructions have been analyzed to find out the similarities and differences between the syntactic constructions of both languages. The transformations used to change deep structures to surface ones in the syntactic constructions of these languages have also been compared and contrasted. Besides this research design, exploratory research design has also been employed. When there is little to no prior knowledge or understanding about a subject matter, phenomenon, or issue, an exploratory research design is one sort of research approach that can be used to study it. Instead than testing certain theories or rendering firm conclusions, its goal is to investigate and produce ideas, hypotheses, or preliminary understandings on a subject. Expolatory research design has been used in this study to dig out the types and subtypes of syntactic constructions used in both languages. Moreover, the transformational and movement rules to generate surface structures from deep ones have also been explored. Through the exploratory research design, the researcher investigated the different kinds of Punjabi syntactic constructions used in the study, and subsequently compared them to their counterparts using the theory of transformational grammar to determine syntactic similarities and dissimilarities.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

The purposive sampling method has been used for the present study. Palys (1997) commented that all kinds of sampling are purposive because the identification of a target population invariably expresses the interests and the objectives of the researcher. ‘The purposive sampling technique includes the selection of participants who probably have rich, relevant, and meaningful information with regard to the study. The research participants share their knowledge to assist the researcher in comprehending a phenomenon under study. The participants are those ‘from which the most can be learned’ (Merriam, 2002, p. 12). The

knowledge and information from these participants provide significant and meaningful data. According to Maxwell (1996), purposive sampling is a strategy of selecting particular settings, persons, and events intentionally to provide meaningful information that may not be obtained from other options. The collected data can be used to answer their research questions.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) explained that selecting the sample through purposive sampling proves more effective than other kinds of sampling techniques like random and representative sampling since the latter suppress deviant cases. For the present study, the purposive sample collected are different kinds of syntactic constructions. As the research study is about the comparison between Punjabi and English syntactic constructions, they are taken mainly from a Punjabi grammar book titled *Punjabi a Descriptive Grammar* by Bhattia (2013). This book is one of the most widely used books written on Punjabi grammar and has been used in many Punjabi departments in Pakistan and India. Five different kinds of constructions, namely negative, passive, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory, have been purposely selected from this book. These syntactic constructions have been explored by using the revised extended standard theory of transformational generative grammar; moreover, they have been compared to English sentences selected from the book titled *'An Introduction to English Sentence Structure'* (2009) by Andrew Radford and *Syntax: A Generative Introduction (2013)* by Andrew Carnie. Radford has also written many books on syntax, and his books have been used widely. The second book is also widely read and used. The syntactic constructions taken from both these books have been analyzed and compared with their Punjabi counterparts to determine the differences and similarities between the syntactic constructions of Punjabi and English languages.

3.6. Sample

The qualitative data selected non-randomly for this research are syntactic constructions mostly taken from a Punjabi grammar book titled '*Punjabi Descriptive Grammar'* by Bhatia (2013). Besides this, another book titled *Punjabi Grammar* by Dr. Safdar Ali Shah (2015) has also been considered; however, the syntactic constructions have not been taken from this book as the book contains syntactic constructions used in West Punjabi (Landha), which is not recorgnized as a standard dialect. The third book used was 'Panjabi: A Comprehensive Grammar (2016)' by Mangat Rai Bhardwaj; this book is also essential; the syntactic

constructions and other data included in this book have been taken from a variety of books and speakers; the researcher has also taken very little material from the book title *Qawaid e Punjabi* by Professor Badkshani. In view of the above, it is evident that 'Punjabi Descriptive Grammar by Bhatia' has been mostly referred to for literature and data, and more than ninety syntactic constructions have been taken from this book. However, the aforementioned books have also been considered during this research. The reasons for selecting Bhatia's book are the following:

1. The aforementioned book is written in the standard Punjabi dialect, i.e., the Majhi dialect, which is spoken in the Majha area.
2. The book contains a comprehensive overview of most of the topics that come under the heading of grammar. The book includes a brief history of the Punjabi language, its dialects, all kinds of syntactic constructions, parts of speech, and a list of everyday Punjabi vocabulary, etc.
3. The book has been extensively used by different researchers in their studies, and it has been vastly referred to as well.
4. This book is easy to follow and understand as it is written in the English language, and all the Punjabi language examples have also been translated into English. The gloss has also been provided, which is essential for understanding the word order of Punjabi syntactic constructions.
5. In the data analysis section, a total of ninety-seven (97) syntactic constructions have been used; five English constructions (one for each syntactic category) and ninety-five 95 Punjabi syntactic constructions have been purposely selected for the present study.

For the comparison of Punjabi constructions with their English Counterparts, the book *Analyzing English Sentences'* (2009) by Andrew Radford, published in 2009 by Cambridge University Press, has been selected. English syntactic constructions of the aforementioned types have been taken from different chapters of the book. Andrew Radford is a renowned writer in the field of syntax, and this book is considered one of the best books on syntax. Besides this book, another book titled 'Syntax: A Generative Introduction 2013' by Andrew Carnie has also been used for data selection.

3.7. Data Analysis

Blaxter *et al.* (1996) contended that the interpretation of data is a process whereby the researchers put their meaning or interpretation on the data that have been collected, analyzed, and compared. According to Lofland (1996), in qualitative research, the themes and categories appear from the collected data, and these have not been predetermined before the data are collected. Data analysis and data collection go side by side: this means that one simultaneously collects and analyzes the data (Merriam, 2002). Palys (1997) stated that qualitative research is cyclical rather than repetitive. In qualitative research, data analysis is a creative process since the data highlights and separates the significant statements that could lead to meaningful, relevant, and dominant themes (Creswell, 2005).

Dawson (2002, p. 111) commented that 'for qualitative research, a researcher might analyze the data as the research moves on by continuously reorganizing and refining the data in the light of the analysis'. Qualitative data analysis is unlike quantitative data analysis whereby the data have been left to be analyzed till the entire data are collected. In other words, in qualitative research, the data have been collected and analyzed simultaneously and data have been collected in the light of emerging results during the data collection process. The assertion made here is similar to the one made by Merriam (2002) that qualitative research is a cyclical process, and a researcher has to move back and forth while collecting and analyzing the data.

In qualitative research, there should be three concurrent flow of actions, namely data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawn. Hence, in qualitative research, the data have been collected and subsequently codified or classified for reduction purposes. Through codification, the data can be easily managed and analyzed. After the reduction of the data through codification, the data have been analyzed by utilizing the data analysis framework. Finally, the results have been drawn and generalizations have been made. In qualitative research, these three steps are followed; however, these steps are not linear rather discursive, and the researcher moves back and forth on the basis of the data collection and analysis. In the present research, the researcher has followed the same steps in data collection and analysis.

Shahzad (2019) stated that qualitative data analysis is quite different from quantitative data analysis since the former includes words, observations, symbols, and even images. It is

nearly impossible to derive absolute meaning from such data, and therefore, it is utilized for exploratory research. In quantitative research, there is a distinct line between data collection and data analysis. In qualitative research, data analysis begins immediately after some data have been collected. The statement shows that there is a clear distinction between the way data are collected and analyzed in both qualitative and quantitative research. Finally, the analytical framework used to show transformational rules has been employed.

For the present research, the analytical framework for the analysis of different kinds of sentences, the X-bar notation tree, is used. In X-bar notation, there are three levels for each phrase, namely phrase level, bar level, and word level. A syntactic construction is divided into various phrases like complementizer phrase CP, tense phrase TP, verb phrase VP, determiner phrase DP, quantifier phrase QP, prepositional phrase PP, auxiliary phrase Aux P, adjective phrase Adj P, and adverb phrase Adv P. For English declarative and imperative constructions, the tense phrase construction is usually used; however, for interrogative and exclamatory constructions, the complementizer phrase CP construction is followed.

On the contrary, for SOV languages like Punjabi, the constructions have tense phrase patterns like English consntructions do. In English, the syntactic construction may have the arrangement of constituents like TP + VP + PP, and in interrogative construction, it is usually CP + TP + VP + PP. In Punjabi, syntactic constructions usually have the arrangement of the constituents like TP + PP+ VP; Punjabi interrogative constructions have more or less the similar arrangement of the constituents with question words added to the construction through the transformational rule of addition.

In the present research, X-bar tree diagrams have been used to analyze both Punjabi and English constructions as they are considered more elaborate than the phrase structure tree diagram used to show the constituents of syntactic constructions. In some instances, the simple tree diagram does not work, for example, constructions that contain one-replacement constituents, embedded constructions, and compound and complex syntactic constructions (Carnie, 2021). Moreover, to show the movement of different constituents and the application of different transformational rules, the X-bar tree diagram has been used by most renowned syntacticians such as Radford and Carnie. Therefore, for the present research, the X-bar model has been used.

Moreover, the bottom-up approach of constituents' merging has been used to draw an X-bar tree diagram. To draw a tree diagram, bottom-up and top-down techniques are employed; however, in the present study, bottom-up merging operation has been used whereby the minor constituents are merged into other constituents to form larger constituents. In English, the constituents from right to left are merged to show the formation of the deep structure of construction; on the contrary, in Punjabi, the constituents from left to right are merged into other ones to form larger phrases and clauses. The bottom-up merging operation of constituents has been used as it has been employed to show the formation of deep structures in English before they are transformed into surface structures. Radford (2004) stated that syntactic structures are derived in a bottom-up way, showing that constructions built up from bottom to top, in fact, are lower parts of a given construction forming before larger or higher parts.

3.8. Ethical Considerations

For the present research, the researcher has used a few Punjabi grammar books to select data. However, most of the data were mainly taken from the book written by Bhatia (2013) and the title of the book is *Punjabi Descriptive Grammar (2013)*. Most of the data have been selected/taken from this book. Keeping the ethical considerations in view, the researcher has given quotes and acknowledged the writer of this book. The research has used data from this book for research purposes. Besides, the book titled Panjabi: A Comprehensive Grammar (2016) by Mangat Rai Bhardwaj; an introduction to Punjabi (2010) has also been consulted. Furthermore, the researcher has taken very little material from the book titled *Qawaid e Punjabi* by Professor Badkshani. The book was published in Lahore in 1973 and has been used by teachers and students in the Punjabi department at the National University of Modern Languages (NUML). However, the researcher took very little data from this book, and most of the data have been taken from Bhatia's book.

3.9. Conclusion

It can be concluded from the aforementioned sections of this chapter that a thorough survey of various aspects of research methodology has been explained. The revised extended standard transformational grammar theory has been described as well as operationalized in 3.2. The research design, i.e., comparative-exploratory design, has been discussed in detail, along with its rationale for employing this design in this study. The researcher has used a non-random purposive data collection technique, and the data have been collected from the Majahi dialect, which is considered the standard dialect of the Punjabi language. The syntactic constructions have been purposively selected and analyzed through the X-bar tree diagrams. This analytical framework proposed by Carnie (2013) has been used to show the relationship of deep structures with surface ones, along with the transformational rules applied to the deep structures to have surface constructions. Finally, the ethical considerations for data collection have been briefly given.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the selected data for the present research have been analyzed. The purposive data selected for the study has been mainly taken from two books. For English constructions, *'An Introduction to English Sentence Structure'* (2009) by Radford has been used, and different kinds of syntactic constructions, namely negative, passive, and closed-ended interrogative constructions, have been selected and explored through the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar proposed by Noam Chomsky. For Punjabi constructions, '*Punjabi Descriptive Grammar'* written by Bhatia (2013) has been utilized. Moreover, some other latest books of Punjabi have also been selected for the data. Moreover, as mentioned earlier in chapter three qualitative approach has been used to select and analyze the data. According to Powell and Renner (2002), the central point in qualitative analysis is the categorization of the data. There are two ways used to categorize the data, which include preset category and emergent category. In the preset category, the researcher has various kinds of categories based on research questions and the review of the related literature. The former category assists the researcher in having preset categories before initiating the process of data collection. The latter category is an emergent category that is based not only on research questions and literature review but also on the constant interaction with the data. For the present research, the researcher has used both preset and emergent categories. The reason for using the preset category is that the main categories of both English and Punjabi constructions mentioned above have been in mind.

However, there are many subcategories of these syntactic constructions that have been observed and selected while analyzing the data. Therefore, the emergent categories have been used as new subcategories surfaced during the data analysis. The researcher has tried to analyze data based on his research questions: his focus was on the various primary and sub-syntactic constructions used in Punjabi and their comparison to English counterparts; the various kinds of transformations were used to change the aforementioned syntactic constructions from deep

structure to surface structure, and the comparison of Punjabi constructions with English constructions concerning various transformations were applied to change them from underlying structures to surface constructions. According to the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar, these are the primary transformations/movement operations used to change the crude form (deep form) of structure into a refined form or surface structure. In addition to these movement operations, the merging of various constituents with others to form phrases and clauses has also been analyzed. The clauses in English include CP (Complementizer phrase), TP (tense phrase), VP (verb phrase), QP (quantifier phrase), and PP (preposition/post-position phrase) (Radford, 2009).

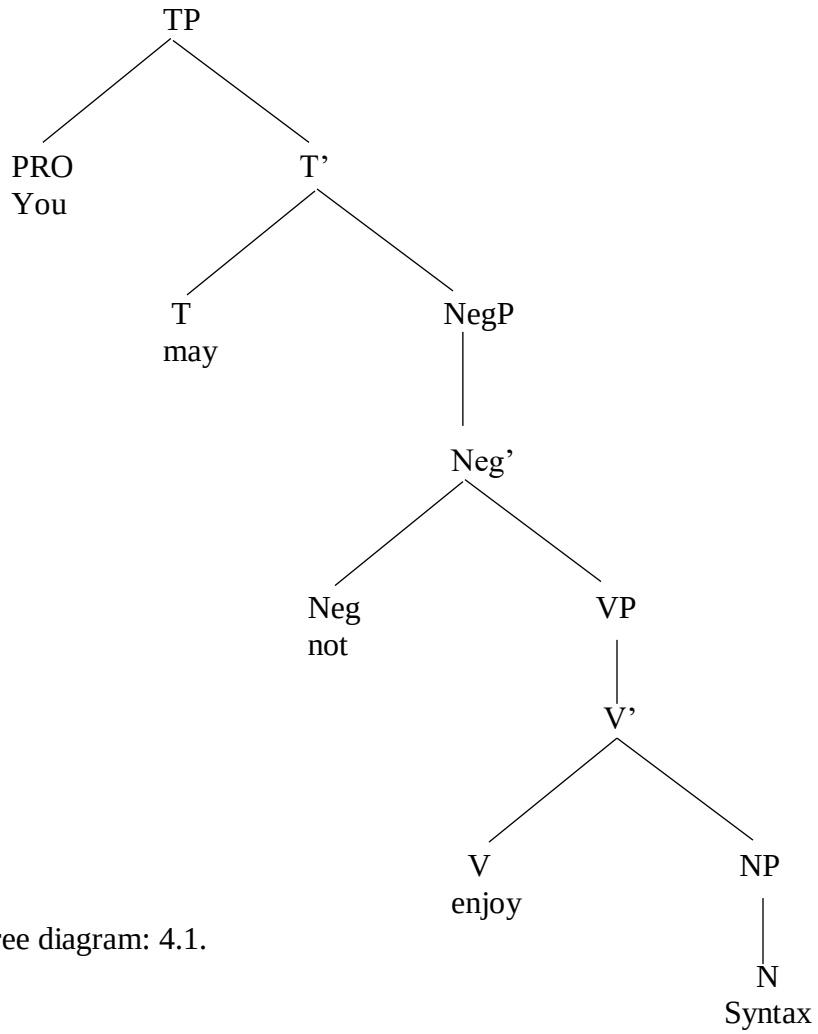
This chapter has been divided into three main sections, as three kinds of constructions have been transcribed and analyzed. As mentioned earlier, negative, passive, and closed-ended interrogative constructions are three kinds. Therefore, this chapter is divided into three main sections according to the various kinds of constructions. The scheme of each section is that first, an English construction(s) of a particular kind, like interrogative construction, is taken and analyzed through the X-bar theory. Subsequently, different syntactic constructions of each main category have been taken from Punjabi, and they have been further transcribed, analyzed, and compared to English constructions. At the end of each section, a brief review or summary that presents an overview of the whole section is given.

4.2. Negative Syntactic Constructions

In English, negative syntactic constructions are formed by usually adding a negative particle ‘not’ to the affirmative constructions. As mentioned in the earlier section, clauses in English consist of CP (complementizer phrase), TP (tense phrase), VP (verb phrase), and QP (quantifier and prepositional/post-positional) phrases. In the following section, English syntactic constructions have been analyzed. The deep or underlying structure of syntactic construction is formed through a merging operation whereby one constituent or phrase is merged into its nearby constituent to form larger constituents. The process of merging operation continues till the entire syntactic constructions are formed. This means that constituents or phrases change to form clauses and subsequently to sentences to have deep or underlying structures. Different transformational rules are applied to these deep structures to

have surface structures. Radford (2009) summed up that syntactic structures are generated in a bottom-up fashion, where deep structures are derived. To say that a syntactic structure is derived in a bottom-up fashion is to say that the structures are derived from bottom to top, with lower parts of the structure being generated before the higher parts.

a. She may not enjoy syntax. (Radford, 2009 p. 160).



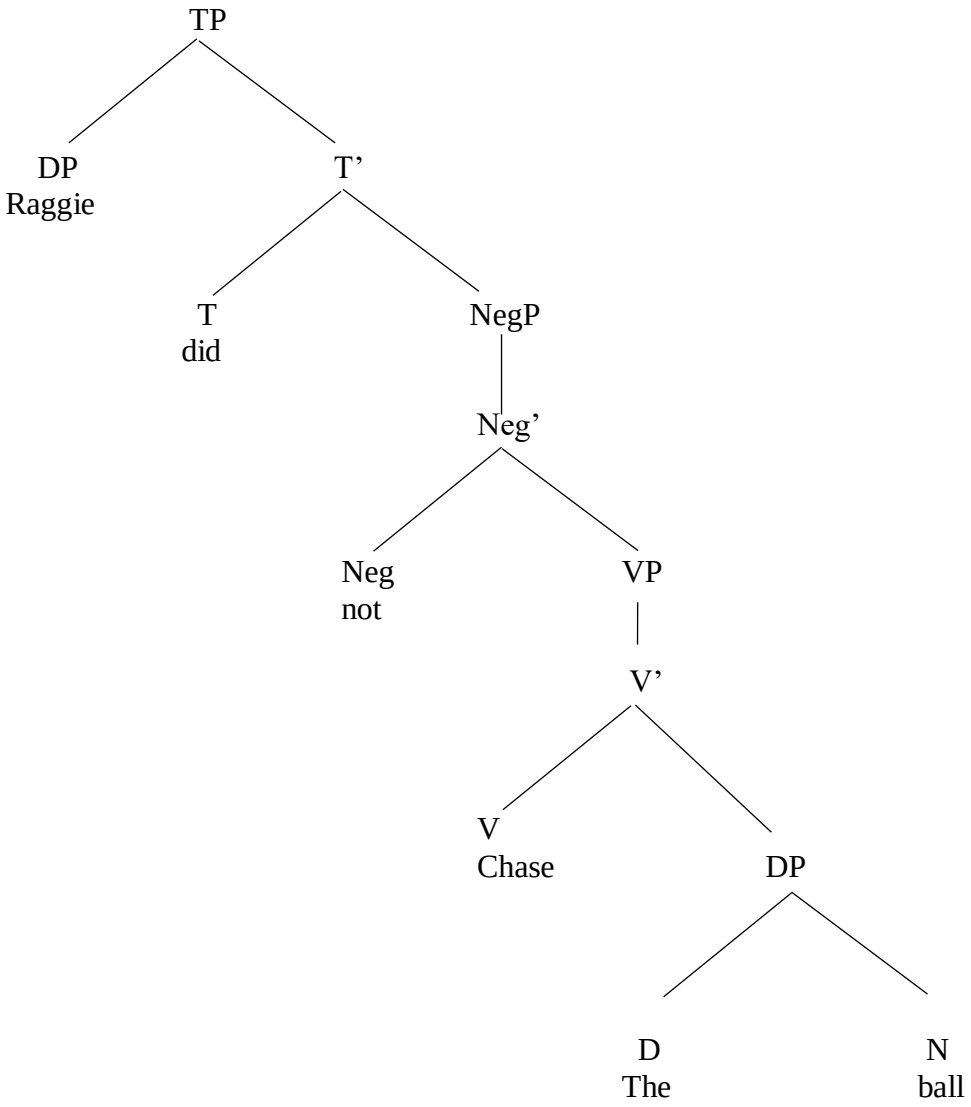
Tree diagram: 4.1.

First of all, the pronoun 'syntax' merges with the verb 'enjoy' to form V bar, this V bar 'enjoy syntax' merged with given negative particle 'not' to form a negative phrase; the resulting negative phrase 'not enjoy syntax' merged with the modal verb 'may' to have a T bar; the given T bar 'may not enjoy syntax' further extends to form TP 'She may not enjoy syntax' which is a complete sentence just like ordinary simple sentences. Eventually, TP

extends to form the CP (complementizer phrase). Besides these merging of constituents to form larger phrases, the transformational rule of addition has been applied and as a result, the negative particle ‘not’ has been added to the affirmative construction.

By looking at another English construction, it is necessary to elaborate how helping verbs like ‘Did’ and the negative phrase are used to show negation. The following structure has been a great help when analyzing Punjabi construction by means of a tree diagram.

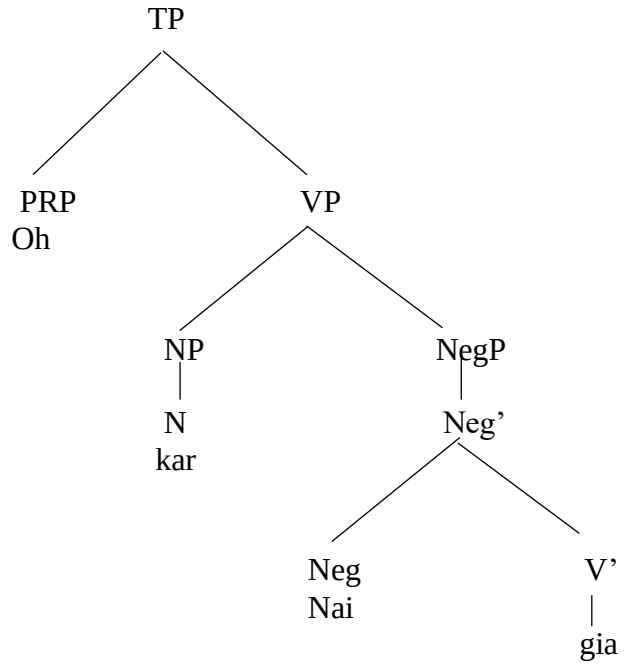
b. Raggie did not chase the ball.” (Carnie, 2013, p. 276).



By using the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the verb merges with the determiner phrase to have a verb phrase. The verb phrase subsequently merges with the negative particle to have a negative phrase, the negative phrase then integrates with the tense projection to construct a T bar showing the auxiliary verb; finally, the tense bar pairs up with pronoun to have a tense phrase (TP). In the formation of the surface structure, there are two transformational rules, i.e. the addition of the constituent rule has been applied whereby the adverb 'Not' has been added to that; moreover, the dummy auxiliary 'Did', has been added to the construction through affixing hopping rule to show tense. Consequently, the morphological rule has also been applied to the past form of the main verb due to the dummy auxiliary: the form of the verb has been transformed to the base form of the verb. In the next section, the Punjabi negative construction has been analyzed by employing the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar.

Punjabi, as already discussed in detail in chapter two, is an Indo-Aryan language, and its syntax is quite different from that of English. The syntax of Punjabi has an SOV structure in comparison to the syntax of English which has an SVO structure. To express sentential negation, two negative particles, namely 'Naii' and 'Na' are used. The negative particle 'Naii' is an unmarked negative particle and is similar to the English negative particle 'not'. It is pronounced with a low tone 'Naii' in some of the dialects of Punjabi. The negative particle 'Na' is used in 'subjunctive, conditional, imperative, infinitive phrases and 'Neither…….. nor' construction, whereas the negative particle 'Na' is used in all other cases (Bhatia, 2013). The analysis of Punjabi negative syntactic constructions by employing the revised extended standard transformational theory has been given in the following section.

c. Oh kar nai gia (Bhatia, 2013 p. 118) ('He did not go home.')
   He home not went



Tree diagram: 4.3.

By employing a bottom-up merging operation to have a derived structure, it is evident that the negative particle merges with the past form of the verb 'Gia' to have a negative phrase. The negative phrase combines with the noun 'Kar' to have a verb phrase; subsequently, the verb phrase integrates with the noun used as a subject, 'Oh', to have a tense phrase TP. The merging of various constituents forms larger constituents like phrases, and subsequently, the sentence can be summarized as S = TP + VP+ NegP; the arrangement of the constituents has been given in the tree diagram 4.3 above.

The derived structure shows that there is no movement of the constituent, and only the negative particle 'Nai' has been added to the affirmative syntactic structure to have this negative construction. In other words, the transformational rule of insertion of the negative constituent has been applied here. By comparing this arrangement of a constituent of Punjabi negative construction to its counterpart in English provided in the parenthesis above, it is evident that the Punjabi structure has a different arrangement of constituents than English. Since it has an SOV structure, the subject follows a noun, resulting in two NPs followed by a negative phrase and a VP. It is also significant to note that the Punjabi language usually does

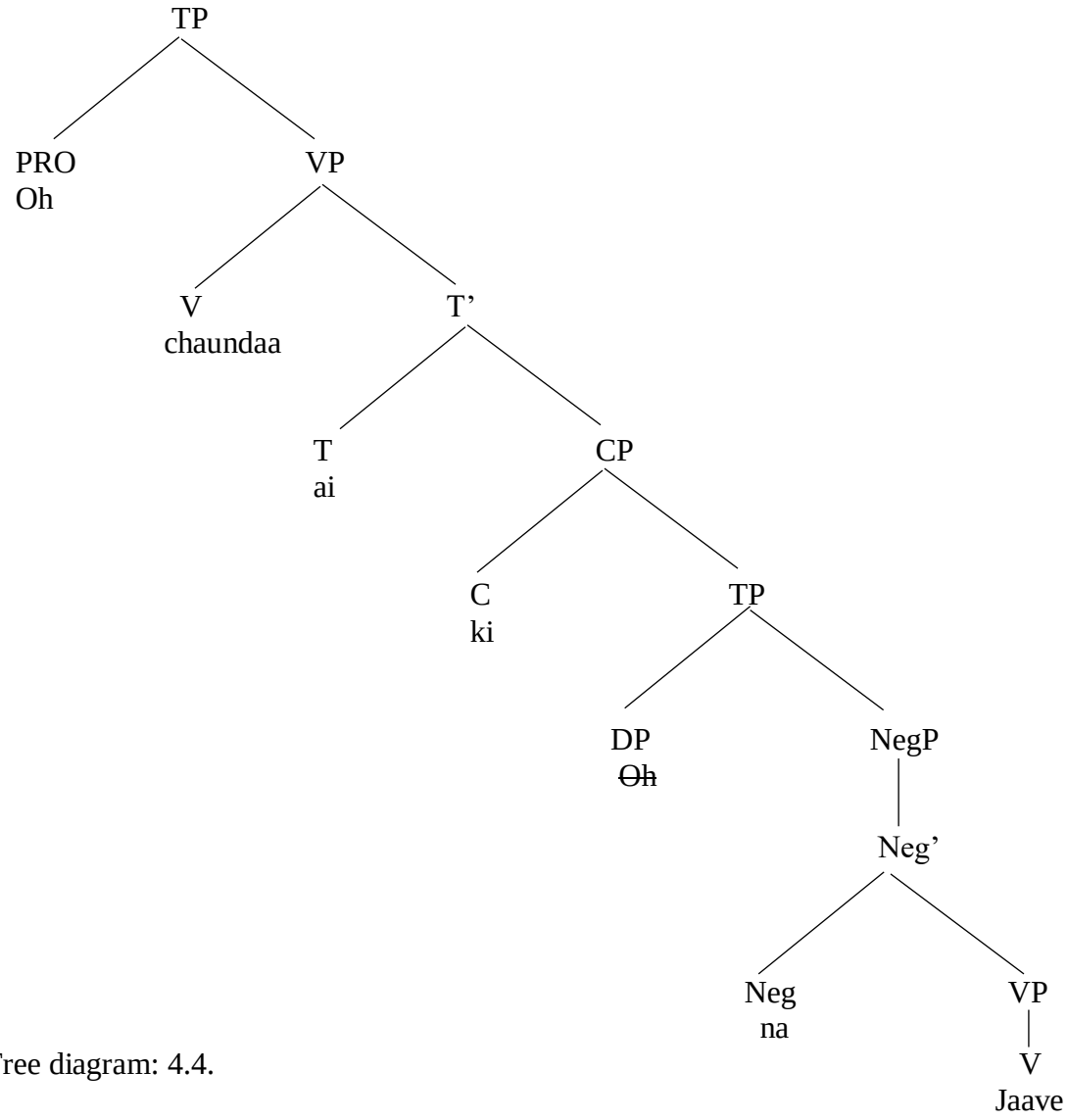
not use auxiliary to form negative constructions, and the verb shows an action or state, gender, or tense in negative constructions. In the Punjabi construction above, the gender is indicated by the verb and not by the pronoun ‘Oh.’

In English, auxiliaries are often used to form negative constructions, and after that, the base form of the verb is used, but in the case of Punjabi, negative constructions are generated only through verb phrases. In other words, one constituent is inserted in Punjabi negative constructions, whereas in English, two constituents, for example, an auxiliary and negative particle are inserted to construct negative sentences. Moreover, in English syntactic construction, the form of the verb has changed morphologically due to the impact of the auxiliary, whereas no such morphological transformation has taken place to the Punjabi verb ‘Gia’. However, the transformational rule of insertion has been employed in both languages.

As mentioned earlier, the negative particle ‘Na’ is used in the subjunctive, imperative, conditional, neither ……. nor construction, and infinitive phrases.

d. Oh chaundaa ai ki na jaave (ibid, p. 117) (‘He does not want to go.’)

He wants is that not go



Tree diagram: 4.4.

The bottom-up merging operation of the constituents shows that the adverb ‘Na’ merges with the subjunctive form of the verb ‘Jaave’ to form a negative phrase; the negative phrase then pairs up with the pronoun ‘Oh’ to have a tense phrase; the tense phrase then integrates with the complementizer to have a complement phrase. The complement phrase subsequently merges with the auxiliary to have a tense bar; this tense bar then pairs up with the main verb to form a verb phrase; the verb phrase finally merges with the subject of the construction to

have a tense phrase (TP). In this construction, the second clause, which is also called the complement phrase, is used to show negation; the first clause is an independent clause when it is followed by a complement phrase. Moreover, the auxiliary follows the main verb, which shows that Punjabi is the head-final language.

Although there is no apparent movement operation carried out to derive this surface structure, yet in the second part of the construction, the subject 'Oh' of the complement phrase has been deleted to avoid the repetition of the pronoun. Therefore, the first pronouns could be considered a subject for the complement phrase. Moreover, the negative particle 'Na' is added to affirmative construction to change this into negative construction. This shows that the transformational rules of deletion and addition have been applied to derive this surface structure. On the contrary, in English construction given in the brackets above, two constituents have been added: the auxiliary 'Does' and the negative particle.

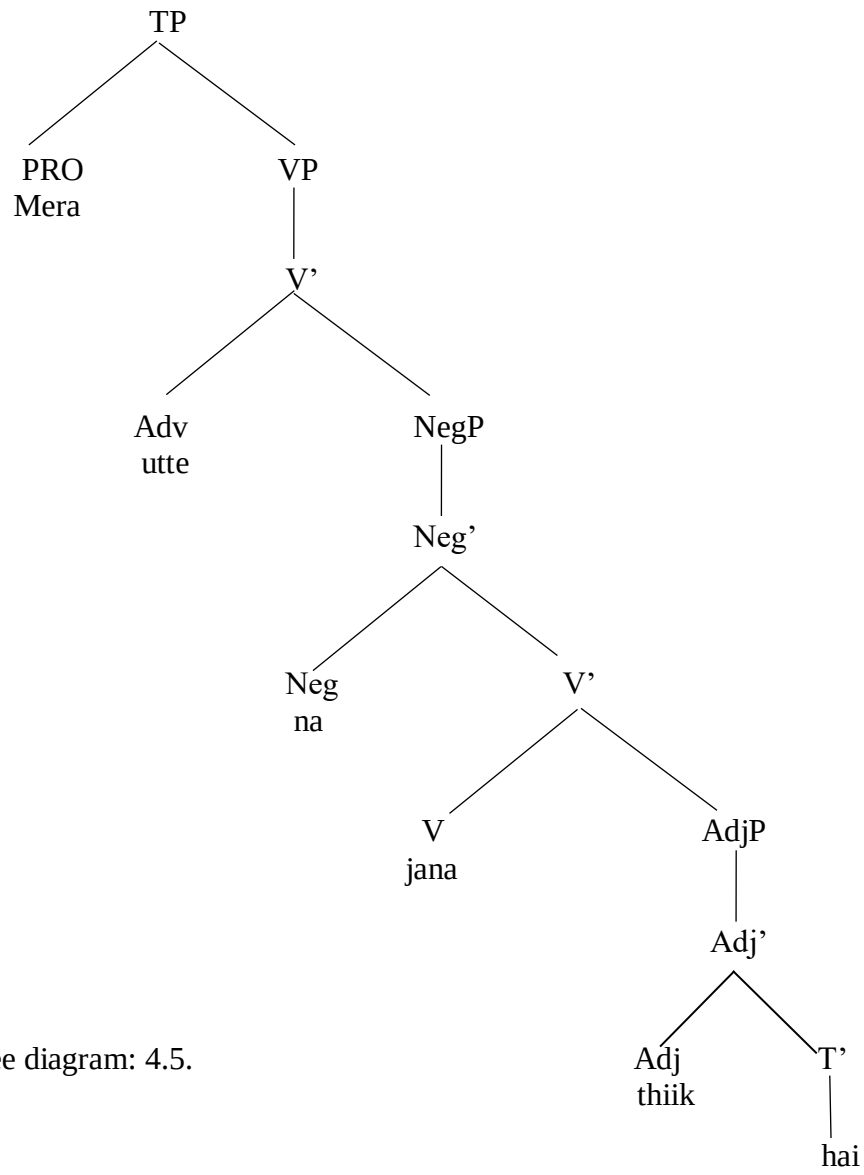
Moreover, the verb of English construction in the parenthesis above, 'Want' has been complemented by an infinitive form of the verb 'to go', whereas in Punjabi construction, a complement phrase 'Ki na jaave' has been employed to complement the sense of the verb. Finally, Punjabi is the head-final language; therefore, the auxiliary verb 'Ai' is used after the main verb 'Caundaa'. On the contrary, English is a head initial language, and as a result, the auxiliary verb along with the negative particle has been used before the main verb 'want'.

e. 'Mera utte na gana thiik hai.' (ibid, p. 117). ('It is good for me not to go there.')
My there not go right is

Before analyzing this syntactic construction by using a tree diagram, the analysis of the constituents of the construction is important. In the above construction, the word 'Mera' is a noun that is used for masculine singular and is used as a subject; 'Utte' means there, and it is an adverb, and is used as an adjunct here, and 'Na' is a negative phrase/particle used to show negation. Further, 'Gana' is an infinitive form of the verb. 'Thiik' is an adjective, and 'Hai is an auxiliary verb.

By using the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the adjective 'Thiik' merges with the auxiliary verb 'Hai' to form an adjective phrase; the adjective phrase merges

with the verb ‘Ganna’ to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently merges with the negative particle ‘Na’ to have a negative phrase; the negative phrase pairs-up with an adverb of place to have a verb phrase, and finally, the verb phrase merges with the pronoun to have a tense phrase. This hierarchal arrangement of the constituents has been given in tree diagram 4.5.



Tree diagram: 4.5.

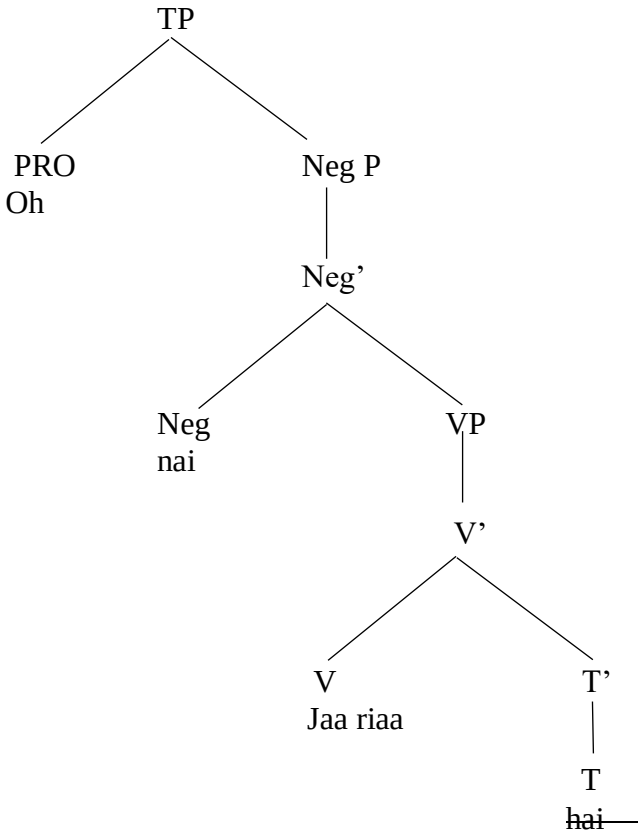
By comparing this construction with the English translation provided in the parenthesis, it is evident that the English structure is more embedded, especially the phrase ‘not to go there.’ In Punjabi construction, the adverb is used right after the subject, whereas in English, it is used at the end of the structure. There is also a split between the main verb ‘Gana’ and the helping

verb, and an adjective is placed in between them. Due to the split between the main verb and the auxiliary verb ‘Ai’, the T bar has to be used at the end of the construction; the auxiliary also shows a neuter gender. As Punjabi is the head-final language, the auxiliary is used after the main verb, as shown in the tree diagram. On the contrary, English is a head initial language, so the auxiliary is employed before the main verb. Moreover, the expletive ‘It’ is used in English construction; however, the Punjabi construction does not make use of an expletive, and a proper subject is used to construct this structure.

There are some constituents that undergo a deletion process as construction is transformed from affirmative to negative. These constituents include auxiliary deletion, copula deletion, and operator non-specification (Bhatia, 2013). In the following construction, the auxiliary is deleted as the sentence takes a negative particle, ‘Naii’.

f. Oh naii jaa riaa. (ibid, p. 118) (‘He is not going.’)

He not go ing



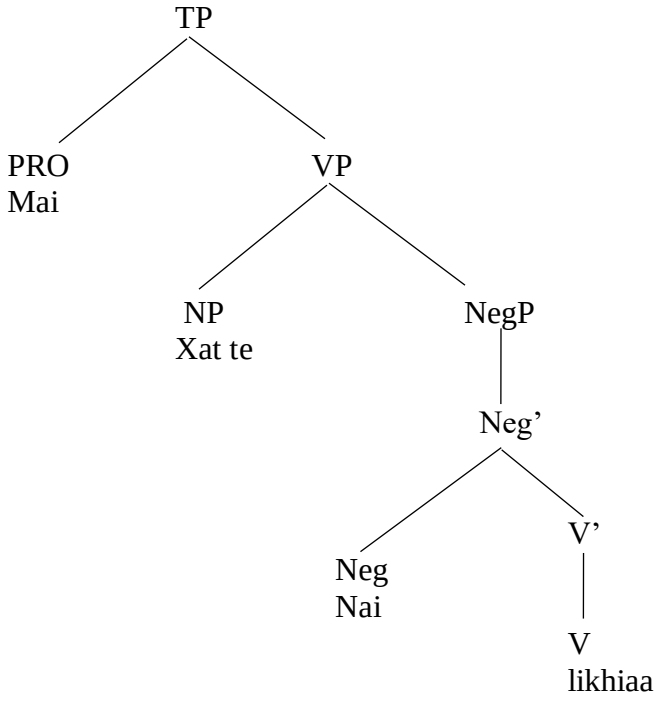
Tree diagram: 4.6.

By employing the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the verb ‘Jaa riaa’ merges with the auxiliary ‘Hai’ to form a verb phrase. Subsequently, the verb phrase integrates with the negative particle to make a negative phrase; finally, the negative phrase pairs up with the pronoun to have a tense phrase (TP). By paying closer attention to the given construction, it is clear that the deep structure of this construction could be ‘Oh naii jaa ria ai.’ The auxiliary verb ‘Ai’ was deleted as the surface structure is derived from the deep one. However, no such auxiliary deletion takes place in English construction. The Punjabi construction makes use of two constituents, for example, ‘Jaa’ and ‘Riaa’, to express continuous tense, whereas English uses one continuous form of the verb for continuous tense. The Punjabi auxiliary not only shows tense but is also a gender marker showing a masculine gender in this construction. In short, it is observed that the deletion of particles takes place to have a negative construction in Punjabi. However, no such deletion operation is observed in English construction.

A contrastive particle ‘Te’ is used with negative construction, and the particle attracts negation to the phrase that follows it.

g. Mai xat te naii likhiaa. (ibid, p. 119) (‘I did not write a letter.’)

I letter contra part not write past form



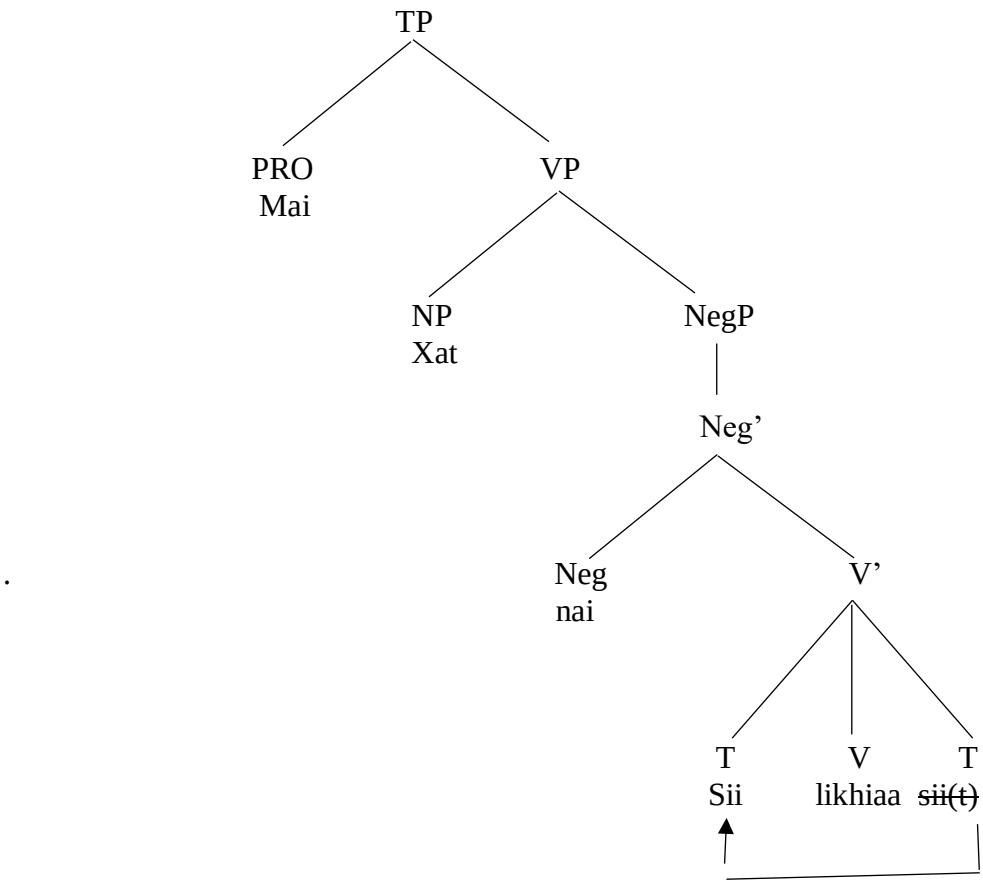
Tree diagram: 4.7.

The bottom-up merging operation shows that the negative particle ‘Naii’ merges with the past form of the verb ‘Likha’ to form a negative phrase; the negative phrase subsequently pairs up with the noun used as an object of the construction to form a verb phrase (VP); finally, the verb phrase integrates with the subject of the sentence to have a tense phrase (TP). The underlying or deep structure of this construction could be ‘Mai xat likhaa.’ This shows that two particles, for example, the contrastive particle ‘Te’, and negative particle ‘Naii’ are added to the deep structure to have this construction. This shows that the transformational rule of addition has been applied. However, no movement of the constituent is observed during the transformation process. On the contrary, no such contrastive particle has been employed in English construction, as shown in the construction given in the brackets above. Nevertheless, the negative particle and the auxiliary have been added to the English construction. It means that the transformational rule of addition has been employed to both constructions to express negation. The Punjabi verb ‘Likhaa’ shows masculine gender, whereas the English verb only shows tense and aspect.

In Punjabi, the auxiliary verbs are often used after the main verb; however, in certain negative constructions, an auxiliary move to a pre-verbal position, so in such cases, the post-verbal negation is not employed (Bhatia, 2013). This has been elaborated in the given example:

h. Mai xat nai sii likhiaa (ibid, 2013, p.121) (‘I had not written a letter.’)

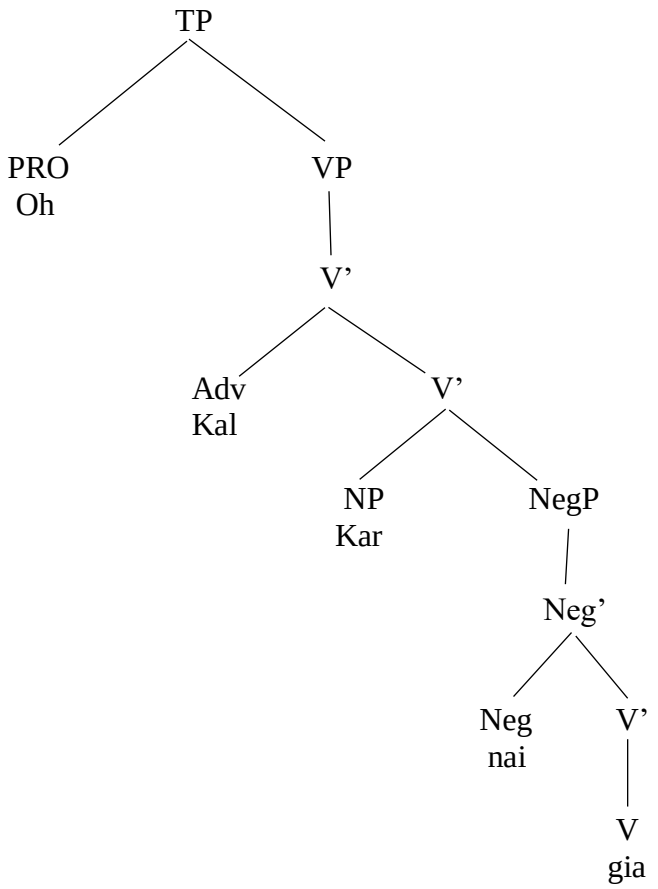
I letter not was write



Tree diagram: 4.8.

The application of bottom-up merging operation shows that the past participle form of the verb ‘Likhiaa’ merges with the auxiliary verb ‘Sii’ to form a verb bar; the verb bar merges with the negative particle to have a negative phrase ‘Nai sii llikhiaa’; subsequently, the negative phrase pairs up with the object of the construction to have a verb phrase (VP); the verb phrase subsequently merges with the subject of the sentence to have a tense phrase (TP). The underlying or deep structure of the aforementioned construction could be ‘Mai xat likhiaa sii.’ In this affirmative construction, the auxiliary is placed after the main verb; however, in the negative construction, it has moved to the pre-verbal leaving behind a trace of itself in the position out of which it is moved. This kind of movement operation is called auxiliary fronting. This shows that there are two transformational rules that have been applied to Punjabi construction: addition and auxiliary fronting.

i. Oh **kal** kar naii gia. (ibid, p. 120) (‘He did not go home **yesterday’**).
He yesterday home not went



Tree diagram: 4.9.

On the contrary, in English construction given in the parenthesis ‘I’ above, the auxiliary verb occupies its usual position, i.e., preverbal, and no movement of any constituent has taken place to derive the aforementioned English constructions. However, the negative particle ‘Not’ has been added to the underlying affirmative construction to derive a negative structure in English.

Before the next construction ‘J’ is analyzed, it is important to pay attention to various syntactic forms used in this construction along with their functions. The first word, ‘Oh,’ is a pronoun and the subject of the construction, followed by an adverb, ‘Kal’ means *yesterday*, which is used as an adjunct here. The word ‘Kar’ is a noun and performs the function of a

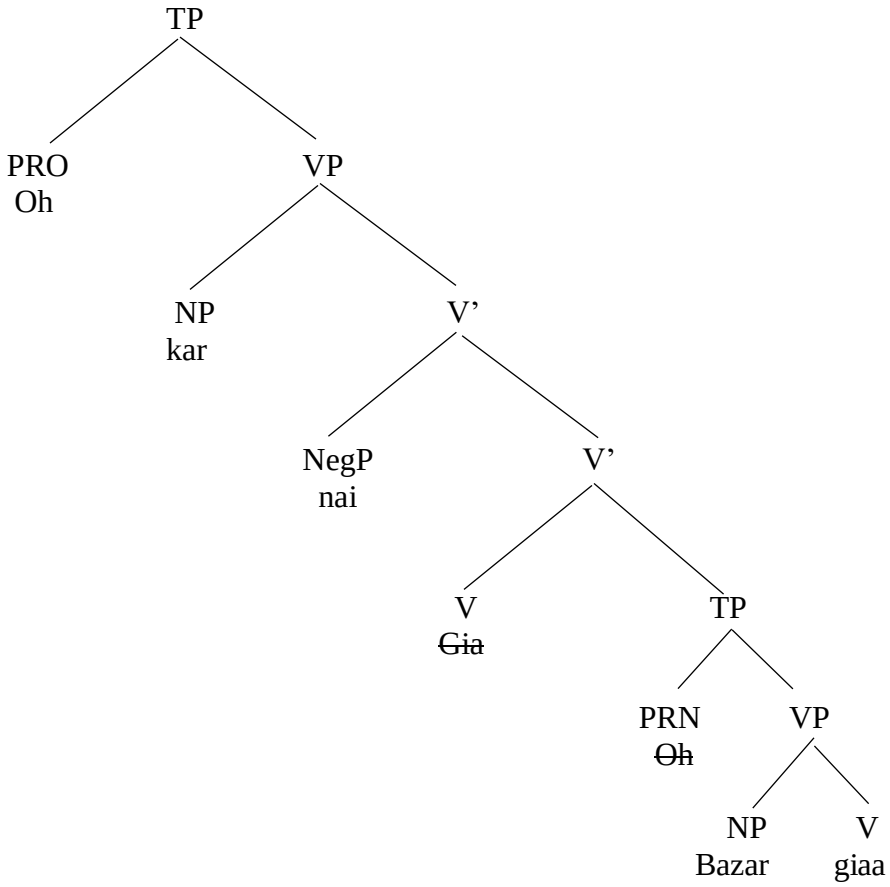
complement; the word ‘Naii’ is a negative particle, and ‘Gia’ is used as an intransitive verb. The rationale for providing the syntactic forms and the function of different words is pivotal as it guides us to draw a tree diagram and to establish a relationship between different constituents.

The application of the bottom-up merging operation reveals that the negative constituent ‘Naii’ merges with the past form of the verb ‘Gia’ to have a negative phrase; the negative phrase merges with the noun ‘Kar’ used as a complement here to form a verb bar; the verb bar merges with an adverb to have a verb phrase, the verb phrase finally pairs up with the pronoun ‘Oh’ to have a tense phrase. The hierarchal arrangement of the constituents has been given in the tree diagram. By comparing the aforementioned construction with its counterpart in English, it is evident that, once again, the word order is different; the adverb is placed immediately after the subject and before the complement, which rarely happens in English.

In this construction, the adverb is also printed in bold, which shows the adverb has been highlighted here to reveal that ‘*He did go there* but *not yesterday.’* The speaker does not deny someone’s going home, but the denial is about the day. Similar sorts of syntactic constructions are found in English, but negation by means of highlighting a constituent is common in Punjabi (Bhattia, 2013). Once again, in the Punjabi construction, the negative constituent is added, so the transformational rule of addition of the constituent is applied here. On the contrary, English syntactic construction shows the application of two transformational rules: first, the auxiliary and negative constituent is added and second, the form of the verb has undergone a morphological transformation. The base form of the verb is used due to the impact of the auxiliary. However, the Punjabi verb does not change its morphological form. Moreover, the verb is also a gender marker in Punjabi. The following Punjabi syntactic construction also highlights the aforementioned assertion.

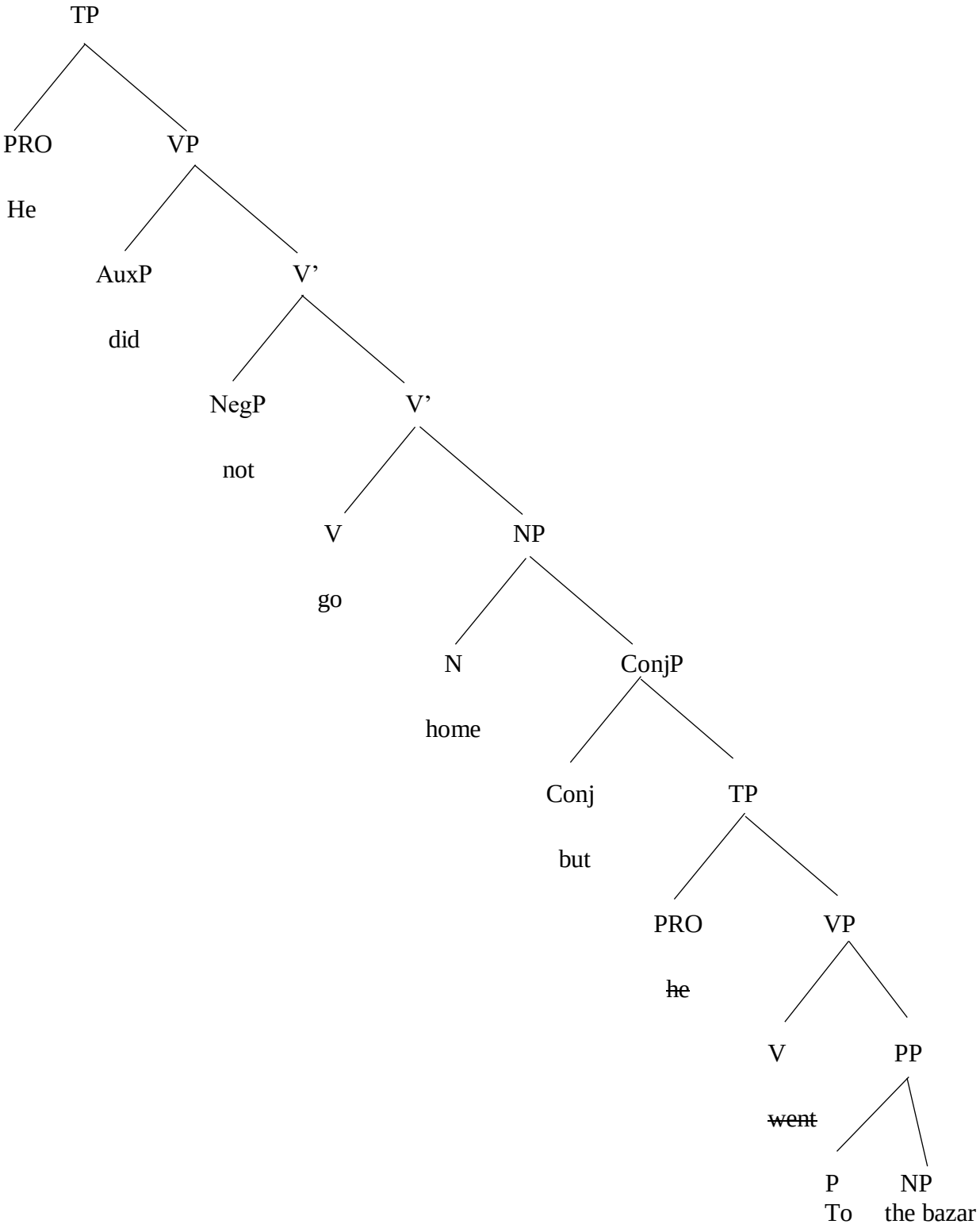
j. Oh **kar** naii bazar gia. (ibid p. 120) (‘He did not go **home** but to the bazar.’)

He home not bazar went



Tree diagram: 4.10

The underlying or deep structure of the aforementioned syntactic construction is 'Oh kar nai gia oh bazar gia'. The application of the bottom-up merging operation reveals that the noun 'Bazar' used as a complement here merges with the verb 'Gia' to have a V phrase; the verb phrase merges with the pronoun 'Oh' to yield a tense phrase, the tense phrase subsequently pairs up with the verb 'Gia' to have a verb bar, the verb bar then integrates with the negative particle 'Na' to form a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with another noun used as a complement to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase integrates with the subject of the construction 'Oh' to have a tense phrase TP. Two constituents such as 'Gia and Oh' got deleted to generate this surface structure. The tree diagram 4.10A given below is the description of the English construction provided in construction 'H' above).



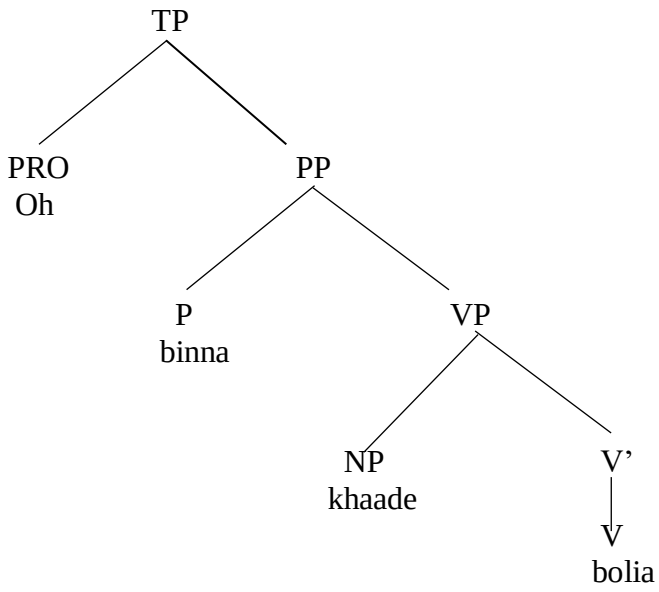
Tree diagram: 4.10A

By comparing this Punjabi construction to the English one, it is evident that the transformation rule of addition of the constituent ‘Naii’ is applied, and as a result, a negative Punjabi construction is derived from the affirmative one. On the other hand, the English construction employs the addition of two constituents: the dummy auxiliary and the negative particle. Due to the addition of an auxiliary in English construction, the verb has also undergone morphological change, i.e., the base form of the verb has been used. Moreover, another transformation rule of deletion has also been applied to both constructions. By analyzing the Punjabi construction, it is evident that the deep structure is like ‘Oh kar naii gia oh bazar gia.’ The transformational rule of deletion has been applied to this deep structure, and as a result, constituents like ‘Gia and oh’ got deleted, and the surface structure is derived. The deletion transformation is also said to be used as an elliptical operation by which different constituents do not acquire phonological form and are not spelled out.

The same deletion transformational rules are applied to English construction as the underlying or deep structure of the aforementioned construction is like ‘He did not go home, but he went to the bazaar.’ To derive the surface structure from the given deep structure, it is clear that the constituent like ‘he went’ got deleted to avoid the repetition of the constituents. This means that these deleted constituents do not have a phonological form and are not spelled out. Thus, it can be concluded that both Punjabi and English constructions are alike as for as the deletion of the constituents is concerned, despite other disparities.

In addition to the aforementioned Punjabi construction in which negative particles, for example, ‘Naii’ and ‘Na’ are used to express negation, one of the ways is the use of the preposition ‘Binna’ meaning *without* showing negation; the same is shown in the following syntactic construction:

k. Oh binna khaaude/khaaudiaa bola. (ibid, p. 120) (‘He spoke without eating.’)
He without eating spoke



Tree diagram: 4.11.

Firstly, it is required to mark the constituent of the construction with regard to their syntactic forms and functions to avoid any confusion during the analysis. The subject of the sentence is ‘Oh’, which is a male singular noun as it agrees with the number, gender, and tense with the verb; the word ‘Binna’ is a post-position used immediately after the subject, i.e., ‘Khaaude/khaaudiaa’ both words have the same meaning and form with is a present participle. As these two words are used with a slash and are the same, the first one has been used in the tree diagram. By applying the bottom-up merging operation, it is clear that the noun ‘Khaaude’ merges with the verb ‘Bolia’ to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase pairs up with the postposition to have a post-postitional phrase. The post-postitional phrase pronoun ‘Oh’ to have a tense phrase. The hierarchical arrangement of the constituents has been given in the tree diagram 4.11 above.

By comparing the syntax of the two languages, it is evident from this example that the post-position has been used before the main verb in Punjabi syntactic construction, whereas it

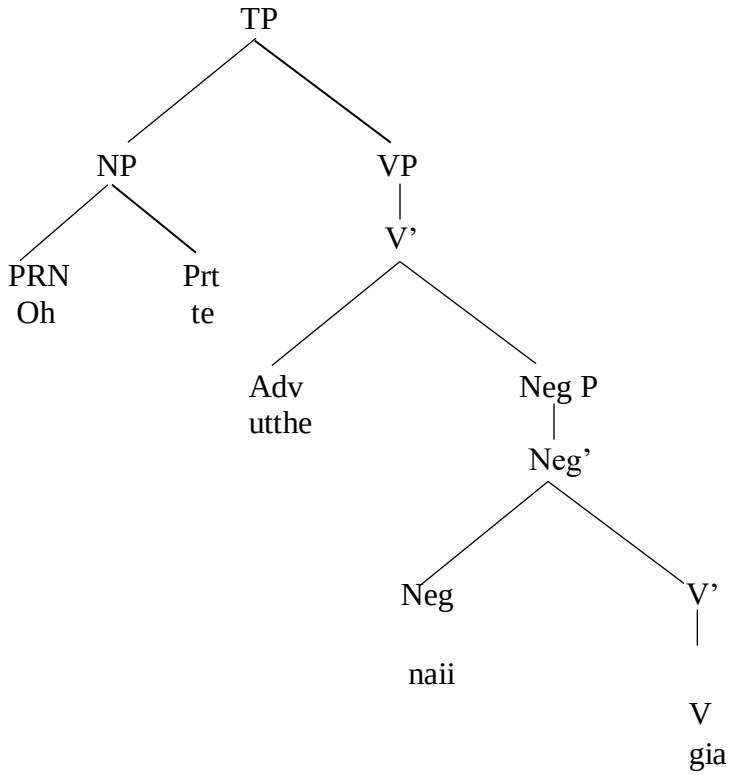
has been placed after the verb in English. Moreover, as usual, the tense, gender, and number have been shown by the Punjabi verb, and the verb agrees with the subject. By using this preposition (in Punjabi, it is postposition), 'Binna' is one of the usual ways of expressing negation. In English, the preposition 'without' is also used to show negation; however, particles such as 'not' and 'no' are quite common in English. The aforementioned sentence of Punjabi may be spoken by slightly altering the word order in the sentence like 'Oh khaande/khaandiaaa bina bola'. (He spoke without eating). Both Punjabi constructions are common to express negation (ibid, p. 120).

To change this construction into negative, a postposition has been used in the Punjabi syntactic construction. This means that the transformational rule of *addition* has been applied here. There is no movement of any constituent in this Punjabi construction. Both aforementioned Punjabi and English syntactic constructions are affirmative or declarative, but they convey a negative sense and are used to show negation.

Negation in Punjabi is also expressed by employing a contrastive particle 'Te' after the subject and before the negative marker Naii. The use of this contrastive particle is given in the following sentence:

l. Oh te utthe naii giaa. (ibid, p. 121) ('He did not go there.')

He there not went



Tree diagram: 4.12.

As usual, before drawing a tree diagram, let us figure out the syntactic forms and grammatical functions of the parts of speech in the above construction. 'Oh' is a masculine singular pronoun and the subject of the sentence; 'Te' is a contrastive particle; 'Utthe' is an adverb but used as an adjunct; 'Naii' is a negative particle, and Giaa is a past simple form of the verb. The verb agrees with the subject with regard to tense, number, and gender.

The bottom-up merging operation shows that the negative particle 'Naii' merges with the past form of the verb to form a negative phrase; the negative phrase merges with an adverb to have a verb bar as its mother. This is because the adverb is used as an adjunct and needs to be the sister to and daughter of an X'; finally, the verb phrase merges with the noun to have a tense phrase carrying a contrastive particle 'Te' with the pronoun 'Oh'. This means that the person does go somewhere, but not at the place that is understood by the listener. By comparing this syntactic construction with its English counterpart given in brackets above, it is evident that no contrastive particle has been used in English construction. It is a plain construction; the

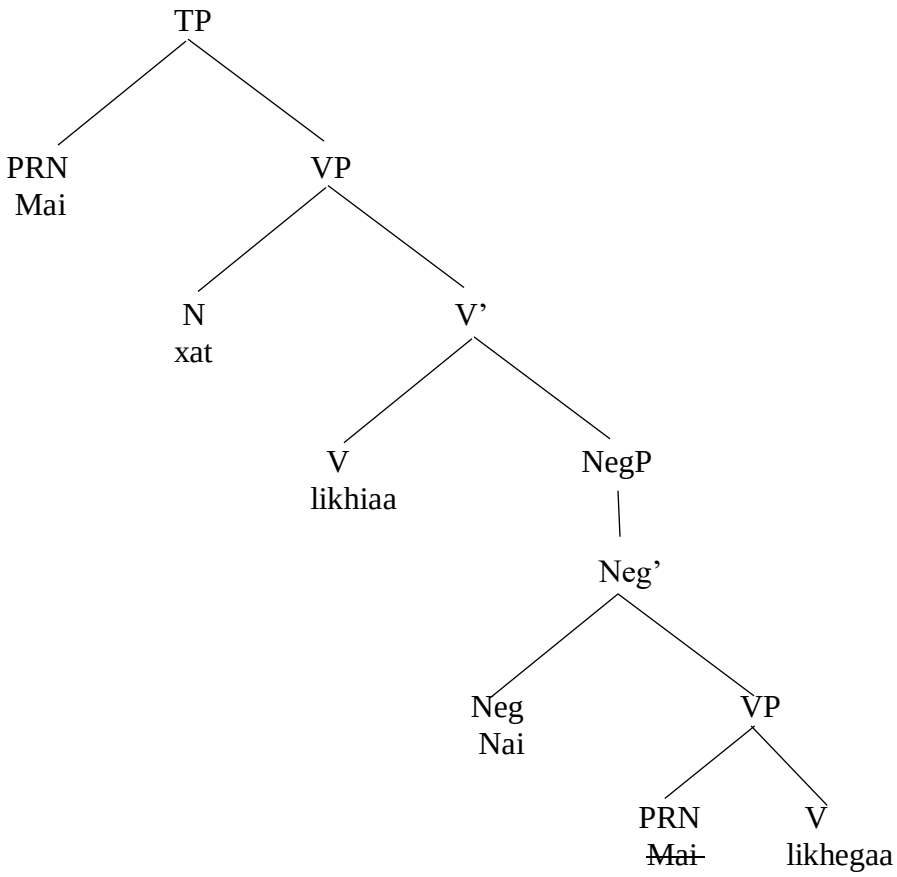
main words which have been emphasized in this Punjabi construction are ‘Oh te utthe’ as Punjabi is one of the tonal languages. In other words, negation has been implied by means of the contrastive particle alongside the negative particle ‘Naii’.

A negative particle like ‘Naii’ usually precedes verbs in the construction given above; the negative particle for negation has been added to the affirmative construction. This means that this particle has been added to the affirmative construction to have negative construction. On the other hand, the aforementioned English construction provided in the brackets shows that two constituents have been added to the underlying or deep structure to derive the surface structure provided in the brackets. The auxiliary verb, as well as the negative particle have been added. The form of the verb in English construction has also undergone morphological change, and the base form of the verb ‘go’ has been employed due to the auxiliary. From the above, it can be concluded that the transformational rule of addition has been applied in both Punjabi and English syntactic construction to express negation. The tree diagram 4.12 describes the hierarchal arrangements of the above Punjabi construction.

The Punjabi construction ‘K’ given below shows that the negative particle ‘Nai’ follows the main verb ‘Likhiaa.’ Moreover, the Punjabi construction consists of two clauses and the second clause has been embedded to the first one; whereas, the English construction given in the parenthesis above shows that the two clauses are joined by a coordinate conjunction/complementizer.

By employing the bottom-up merging operation to the Punjabi construction, it is evident that the pronoun ‘Mai’ integrates with the future form of the verb ‘Likhegaa’ to have verb phrase, the verb phrase joins with the negative particle ‘Nai’ to have a negative phrase; subsequently the negative phrase pairs up with the verb to have a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with the noun used as an object to form a verb phrase. The VP further extends and merges with the noun to form a tense phrase. The underlying or deep structure of the aforementioned Punjabi construction could be ‘Mai xhat likhiaa nahii, mai likhagaa’, whereas its counterpart English construction’s deep structure could be ‘I did not write a letter, but I will write a letter.’

m. Mai xhat likhiaa nahii, likhaagaa. (ibid, p.121) (‘I did not write a letter, but will do so.’)
I letter write not will write



Tree diagram: 4.13.

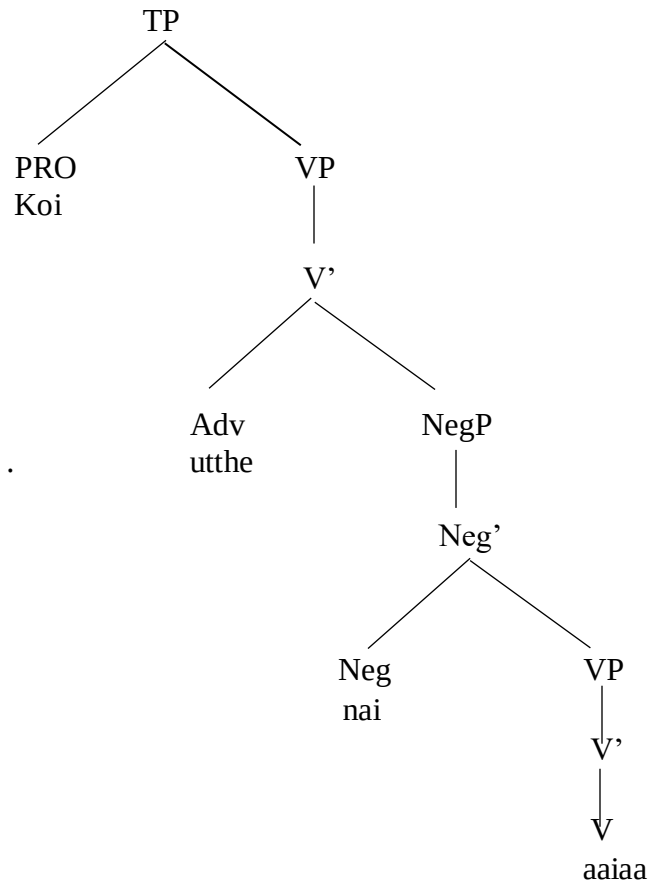
To form a surface structure from the above deep structures, it is evident that the transformational rule of deletion has been applied to both Punjabi and English constructions, and as a result, some of the constituents got deleted to have the surface structure. For example, constituents such as ‘Mai’ were deleted from the second clause to avoid the repetition of the subject in both clauses. This deletion phenomenon is also called ellipsis and is used quite often in most languages of the world. On the contrary, the transformational rule of deletion has also been applied to the aforementioned English construction. Apart from the deletion rule, the transformational rule of insertion has also been applied, whereby the negative particle ‘Nahii’ has been added to the Punjabi construction.

Two constituents, for example, the dummy auxiliary ‘Did’ and ‘Not’ have also been added to the deep structure of English construction. Due to the auxiliary, the English verb undergoes a morphological transformation. However, no morphological transformation has been observed in the Punjabi construction. Finally, the transformational rule of embedding has been applied to Punjabi construction, and the second clause has been embedded to the first one, whereas the two clauses have been conjoined by employing a coordinate conjunction/complementizer to English construction. Thus, we can conclude that the transformational rules of addition, deletion, and embedding have been employed to the Punjabi construction, while addition and deletion are applied to the aforementioned English construction.

In addition to the aforementioned devices, indefinite quantifiers such as ‘Kujj, koii, kaddi and kitthe’, which means something, someone, ever, and somewhere, respectively, are capable of inducing negation. These indefinite pronouns are usually employed with negative particles to express negation. The use of these devices has been given in the following syntactic constructions:

n. Koii utthe naii aaiaa. (ibid, p. 121.) (‘No one came there.’)

No one there not came



Tree diagram: 4.14

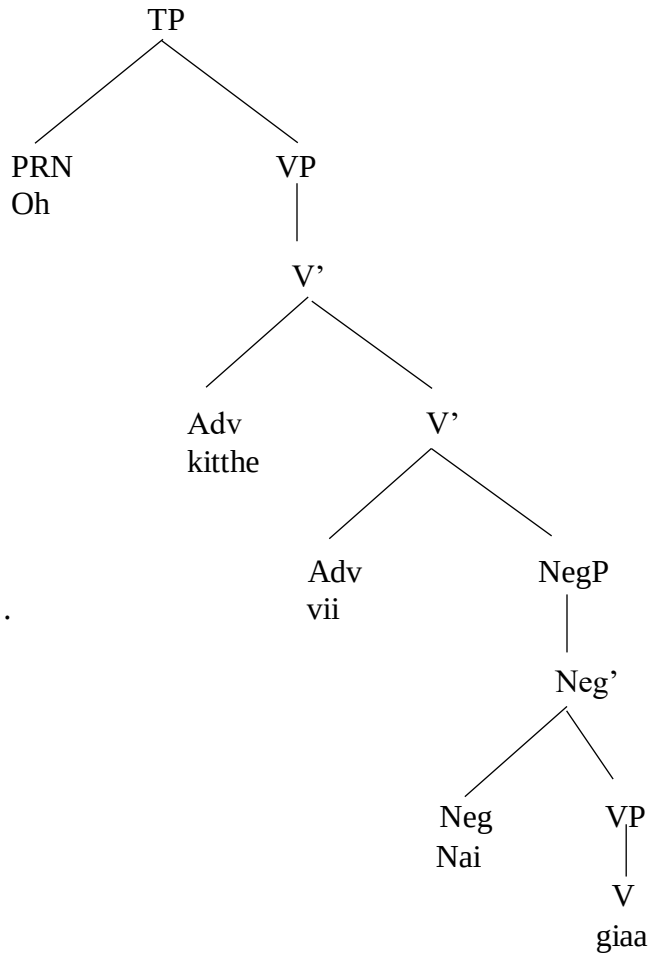
In this construction, ‘Koii’ is the singular subject, ‘Utthe’ is an adverb of place and has the role of an adjunct, ‘Naii’ is a negative particle, ‘Aaiaa’ is the main verb showing past tense. First, the negative particle/adverb ‘Naii’ merges with the past form of the verb ‘Aaiaa’ to form a negative phrase; the negative phrase subsequently merges with the adverb of place to have a verb phrase. The verb phrase finally pairs up with the pronoun ‘Koii’ to have a tense phrase TP. As an adverb is an adjunct, the adverb should be sister to and daughter of X’. In the formation of this construction, it is evident that no movement of the constituent is involved. Only the negative particle has been added, so the transformational rule of addition has been added here. Moreover, an indefinite pronoun has been employed here rather than a proper

pronoun. On the contrary, the negative particle has been added to the English construction, and negation is achieved by means of using an indefinite pronoun. In other words, it can be said that the English construction is positive, but it provides a negative meaning. Moreover, there is no movement of any constituent that is involved, and no transformational rule is applied to English construction to derive this structure. The arrangement of the constituent in Punjabi construction has been provided in the tree diagram.

Indefinite quantifiers like 'Koii' 'someone', 'Kujj' 'something' and 'Kitthe' 'somewhere' or 'Kadii' 'ever' have the capability to induce negation. These indefinite particles behave like negative incorporated items, for example, nowhere and nothing.

o. Oh kitthe vii naii giaa (ibid, p. 121) ('He did not go anywhere/ He went nowhere.')

He anywhere/nowhere also not went



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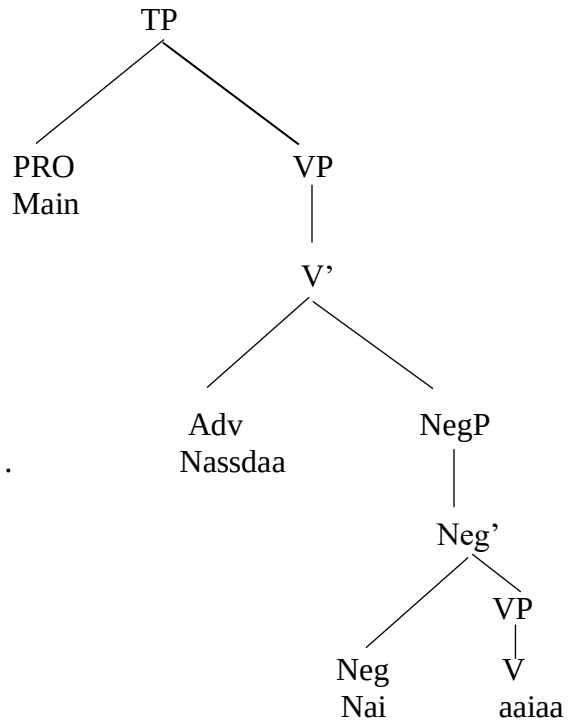
Tree diagram: 4.15.

The analysis of this construction by bottom-up merging operation reveals that the negative particle merges with the main verb ‘Gia’ to have a negative phrase ‘Naii giaa’; the negative phrase then merges with the adverb ‘Vii’ means ‘also’ to form a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with another adverb ‘Utthe’ to have a verb phrase, and finally the verb phrase pairs up with the pronoun to have tense phrase TP. There are two adverbs used in this construction. Since they perform the grammatical function of an adjunct, they have to have an X bar as their sisters and mothers, as indicated in the tree diagram. To derive a negative surface structure, three constituents have been added to the deep one. The three constituents include the adverb of place ‘Kitthe’, the adverb ‘Vii’, and the negative particle ‘Naii’. On the contrary, in English construction, three constituents, for example, the auxiliary verb, the negative particle, and the indefinite pronoun of place, have been added. Another device used to express negation is by means of participle adverbials, which allow the matrix verb to be negated to express subordinate negation and participle negation (Bhatia, 2013).

p. Oh nasdaa/nasdiaa naii aaiaa. (ibid, p.122) (‘He did not come running.’)
He running not came



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Tree diagram: 4.16.

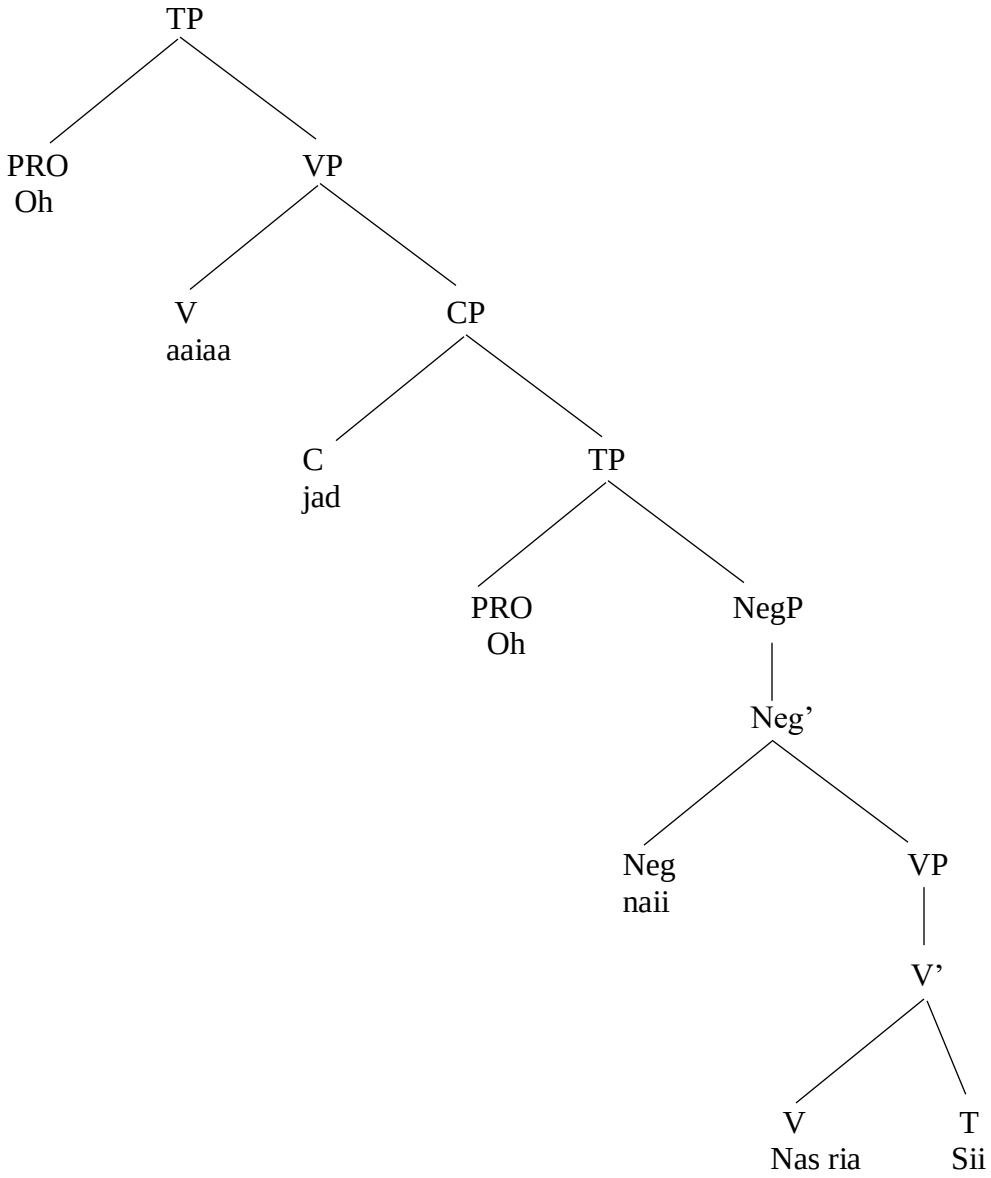
The syntactic categories and functions of each word in the above sentence are like that ‘Oh’ is a pronoun and subject; ‘Nassda/nasdiaa’ are present participle adverbials and perform the function of an adjunct; ‘Naii’ is a negative particle and ‘Aaiaa’ is the past form of the verb.

The bottom-up merging operation shows that the negative particle ‘Naii’ merges with the past form of the verb to have a negative phrase; the negative phrase subsequently integrates with the present participle adverbial ‘Nasdaa/nasdiaa’ to form a verb phrase; the verb phrase pairs up with pronoun ‘Oh’ to have a tense phrase. ‘Nasdaa’ provides extra information; therefore, it is an adjunct and needs to be the sister to and daughter of an X’ as shown in the tree diagram 4.16.

The deep structure of English construction could be ‘He did not come while he was running.’ The constituents like ‘While he was’ got deleted as ‘running’ got embedded into the main clause of the construction. Moreover, the auxiliary verb ‘Did’, has been added to a deep structure along with the negative adverb ‘not’, and as a result, the morphological form of the verb ‘Came’ was transformed. However, the Punjabi verb did not undergo any such change, and no auxiliary has been inserted into it. From the above, it can be concluded that the transformational rules of addition, deletion, and embedding have been applied to the aforementioned Punjabi and English constructions to derive surface structure. Furthermore, the position of participle adverb is different in both these constructions: in Punjabi, it is after the argument, and in English, it is placed at the end of the construction.

Negation in Punjabi may also be expressed when participle adverbials allow the matrix verb, i.e., the verb of the topmost or main clause, to be negated to express subordinate negation or participle negation (Bhatia, 2013). The following construction illustrates the same point where negation is expressed by a subordinate clause acting as a complement of the verb.

q. Oh aaiaa jad oh nai nas riaa sii. (ibid, p. 122.) (‘He came while he was not running’.)
   He came when he not running was



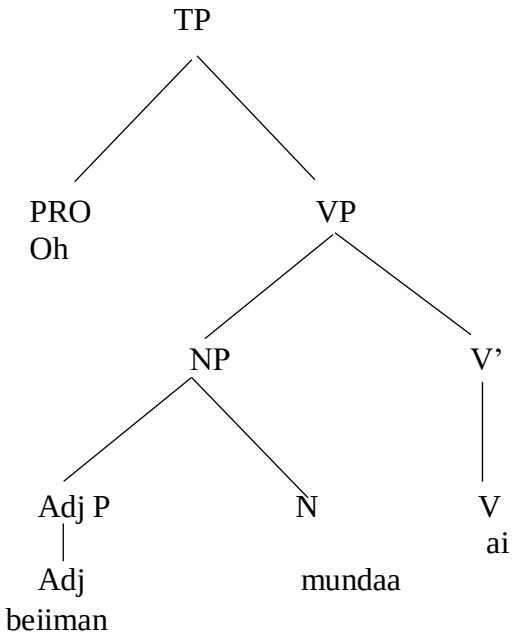
Tree diagram: 4.17.

By applying the bottom-up merging operation to this clause, it is evident that the participle form of the verb 'Nas riaa' merges with the auxiliary verb 'Sii' to have a verb bar leading to the verb phrase; the verb phrase subsequently joins with the negative particle to form a negative phrase; the negative phrase pairs up with the subject of the clause to have a tense phrase (TP); the tense phrase merges with the complementizer/conjunction to form a complementizer phrase 'Jad oh nas riaa sii.' The complementizer phrase subsequently pairs up

with the verb to form a verb phrase, and finally, the verb phrase merges with the subject of the construction to have the tense phrase TP. The aforementioned Punjabi construction is a complex construction, and there appears to be no transformational rule applied here to derive this surface structure. However, the negative particle ‘Nai’ has been added to the dependent clause through the transformational rule of addition. By comparing the Punjabi construction to its English counterpart, it is evident that in both cases, complex constructions have been used, and the negative particle has also been added to the English construction. In Punjabi, as usual, the auxiliary ‘Sii’ follows the main verb as Punjabi is a head-final language; on the contrary, the auxiliary is used as a headword in English as it is the head-initial language. However, despite the syntactical disparity, there is no difference as such in both constructions.

Negation in Punjabi constructions has been expressed by means of negative particles, which may also be called morphological negation. The common negative prefixes used in the Punjabi language are ‘bad’; ‘be’ ‘un’, which transform an affirmative construction into a negative one.

r. Oh bimimaan munda ai. (ibid, p. 122.) (‘He is a dishonest boy.’)
He dishonest boy is



Tree diagram: 4.18.

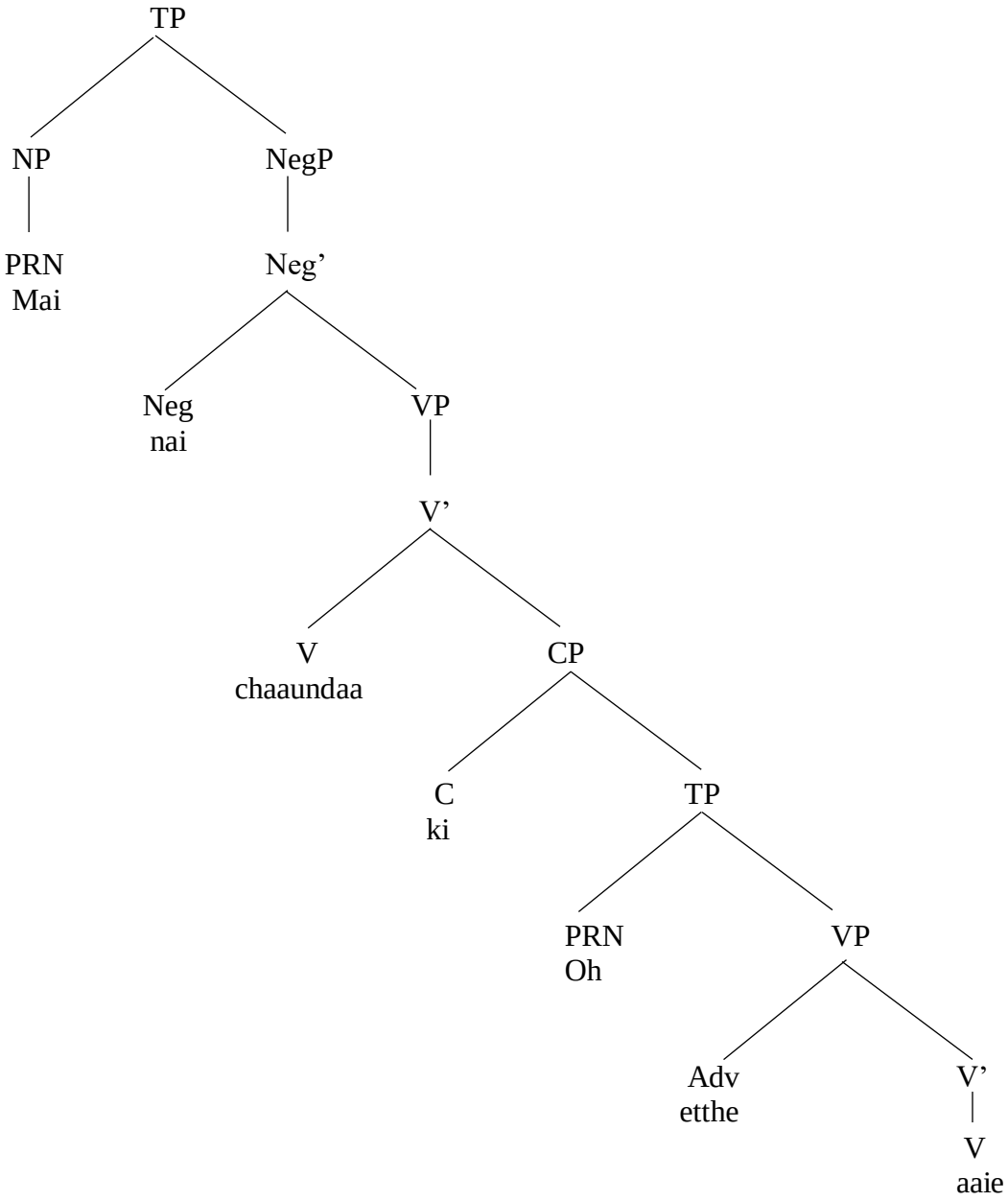
In the given sentence, ‘Oh’ is a subject or argument as well as a pronoun; ‘Bimimaan’ means *dishonest* and is an adjective and an adjunct; ‘Munda’ is a noun as well as a complement, and ‘Ai’ is the main verb. The application of bottom-up merging operation reveals that the noun phrase ‘Beiiman munda’ merges with the verb to have a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase merges finally with the pronoun ‘Oh’ to have a tense phrase. The aforementioned syntactic construction can be summed up as TP + VP. To derive this surface structure, no transformation of any constituent is involved. Only an adjective carrying a negative prefix has been added to the construction to achieve negation. The same device has been used in English structure, where a negative prefix has been added to the adjective to express negation. This shows that the transformational rule of addition has been employed in both constructions. Both Punjabi and English constructions are affirmative but convey negative meanings.

Finally, the matrix verb, i.e., the verb of the main or principal clause, can be negated to express the negation of the subordinate clause. The verbs of the main clause include verbs of

opinion ‘SamajNaa’ ‘to consider’, ‘Xayaal hoNaa’ ‘to have an opinion, expectation/intension ‘CaauNaa’ ‘to consider’ and perception, ‘LaggNaa’ ‘to seem.’ (Bhatia, 2013). The following syntactic constructions illustrate this:

s. Mai naii caaundaa ki oh etthe aae. (ibid, p. 124.) (‘I do not want that he comes here.’)
I not want that he here come

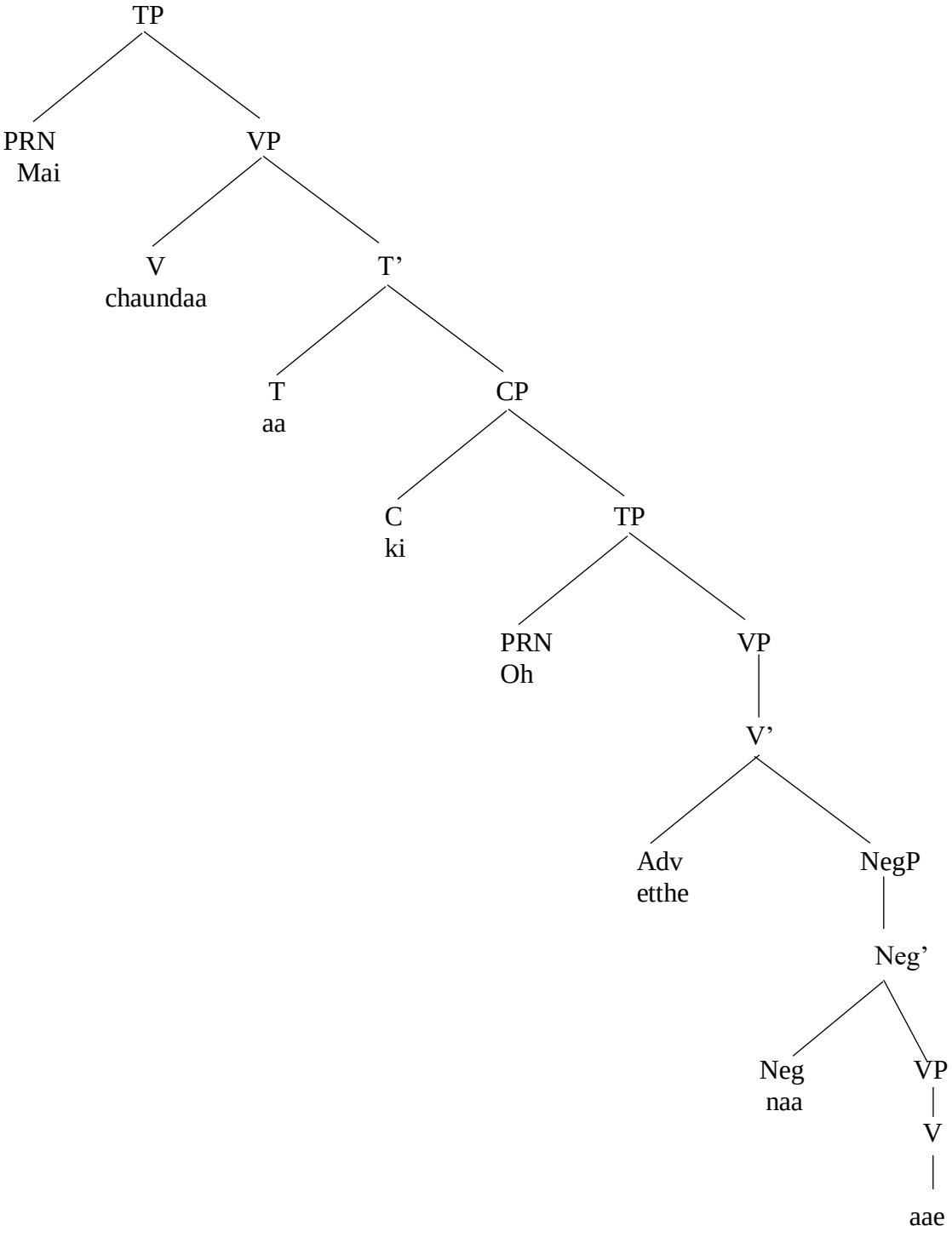
By applying the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the adverb of place ‘Etthe’ merges with the verb to form a verb phrase; the verb phrase pairs up with the pronoun to have tense phrase TP; the tense phrase subsequently merges with the complementizer/conjunction to have a complementizer phrase CP. The CP merges with the matrix verb to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase pairs up with the negative particle to have a negative phrase; the negative phrase finally merges with the subject of the construction ‘Mai’ to have final tense phrase TP. The aforementioned Punjabi construction is a simple one in which the subordinate clause is used as a complement of the verb; the same is the case with English construction. In the Punjabi construction, the negative particle ‘Naii’ is added to the first clause to show the negation of the dependent clause. Therefore, the transformational rule of addition is used here. The English construction is similar to the Punjabi construction; however, there are two constituents, for example, the auxiliary ‘Do’, and the adverb ‘not’ have been added through the transformational rule of addition. The arrangement of the constituents in Punjabi construction has been given in the following tree diagram 4.19.



Tree diagram: 4.19.

In the aforementioned syntactic construction, the negative particle 'Naii' is used in the main clause. However, the negative particle, for example, 'Na' may also be put in subordinate clauses. This means that the negative particle is raised to the main clause. In the following construction, the negative particle 'Na' is used in the dependent clause.

t. Mai caaundaa aa ki oh etthe na aae. (ibid, p. 124) (‘I want him not to come here.’)
I want am that he here not come



Tree diagram: 4.20.

By applying the bottom-up approach, it is evident that the negative particle ‘Na’ merges with the present form of the verb ‘Aae’ to form a negative phrase; the negative phrase merges with the adverb of place to have a verb phrase; subsequently, the verb phrase pairs up with the pronoun ‘Oh’ to form a tense phrase TP. The tense phrase merges with the complementizer/conjunction to have a complementizer phrase; the complementizer phrase then pairs up with the auxiliary to have a tense bar; then the tense phrase that merges with the main verb ‘Caaundaa’ to form a verb phrase, and finally, the verb phrase merges with the personal pronoun ‘Mai’ to have the final TP. This means that the entire structure of this syntactic construction is TP + CP.

By comparing the aforementioned Punjabi constructions to their corresponding construction in English given above in the brackets, it is evident that the accusative form of the pronoun ‘him’ is employed in English construction in comparison to the complement phrase used after the verb in Punjabi construction. In English construction, the accusative pronoun is followed by a predicative complement; however, no such complement is found in Punjabi construction. Moreover, there is no movement of any constituent which is involved to form both Punjabi and English constructions. However, the transformational rule of *addition* has been used as the negative constituents have been added to both these constructions to change them from affirmative to negative ones. Finally, as Punjabi is a head-final language, the auxiliary ‘Aa’ is employed after the main verb ‘Caaundaa’; however, no auxiliary is used along with the main verb ‘want’ of the first clause.

After discussing Punjabi negative syntactic constructions at length, the main points concerning Punjabi negative syntactic constructions and their counterparts in English have been summarized below:

a. Negative constructions in the Punjabi language are usually formed by adding negative particles ‘Naii’ and ‘Na’. Mostly, the first negative particle ‘Naii’ is used to generate negative constructions. As far as ‘Na’ is concerned, it is used in subjunctive, imperative, conditional, neither…….. nor constructions and infinitive phrases (Bhatia, 2013).

b. Negation in Punjabi constructions is also expressed by stressing the constituent, such as ‘Kal’, alongside a negative phrase/particle. The purpose of stressing the constituent is that someone did not perform a particular action at a particular time. The time is being emphasized to show negation.
c. In addition to the negative particles given above in ‘A’ a postposition ‘Binna’ is used to express negation in negative constructions with any other constituent. This negative particle is just like the preposition ‘without’ in English.
d. A contrastive particle ‘Te’ is also used to express negation along with the negative particle ‘Naii’. The negative particle ‘Naii’ is usually employed before the verb to express negation. However, it is also used in a post-verbal position to express a constituent’s negation. The contrastive particle is used with the subject of construction.
e. Negation in Punjabi syntactic constructions may also be expressed by using indefinite quantifiers like ‘Koii, Kujj, Kaddi, Kitthe’, meaning someone, something, ever, and somewhere, respectively. Besides, this negative particle like ‘Naii’ is also used to express negation.
f. Participle adverbials such as ‘Nasdaa/nasdiaa’ may also be employed along with the negative particle ‘Naii’ to express negation in Punjabi.
g. Prefixes such as ‘bad, be, un’ are also used to express negation. Words like ‘Bimaan, Badmash’ are used to express negation as, in this case, prefixes ‘bi…., bad’ are used to give a negative meaning. The English language also utilizes these sorts of prefixes to express negation.
h. Regarding the differences between Punjabi and English, Punjabi is a head-final language. Therefore, the tense projection emerges after the main verb. On the contrary, English is a head-initial language, and auxiliaries are positioned before the main verb in the tree diagram. The same is the case with ad-positions: in Punjabi, postposition is used, whereas preposition is used in English constructions.
i. Punjabi usually does not use an auxiliary; therefore, the T bar is hardly used in tree diagrams to show tense. Instead, a negative particle is usually used before a verb.
j. The tense, number, and gender are usually expressed by the verb, and mostly the subject agrees with the verb with regard to these aspects. This behavior of Punjabi verbs is

different from the corresponding English ones. In English, number and tense are expressed by verbs; however, gender is hardly expressed by a verb.

k. As mentioned earlier, Punjabi basic sentence structure is different from English's. In Punjabi, it is SOV. At times, adverbs and complements are also used along with the negative particles. However, the position of these adverbs and complements are different from the positions found in English constructions.

l. Before drawing a tree diagram, it should be borne in mind that the grammatical categories, such as nouns, adjectives, and pronouns as well as their function like complement, adjunct, and modifier, should be clear.

m. In negative constructions, no movement of constituents is usually involved. So, it can be said that movement rules are not often applied to negative sentences. However, the translational rule of addition has been applied to add a negative particle to transform affirmative syntactic construction into a negative one.

n. The transformational rules applied to generate negative constructions involve insertion/addition, deletion, and embedding. In English, constructions not only the negative particle is added but also dummy auxiliaries are also impended to the construction through the affix hopping rule. However, in Punjabi constructions, only negative particles are usually added, and there is no use of auxiliary verbs.

o. Due to auxiliary verbs in English constructions, the following verbs undergo a morphological transformation and the past form of the verb is changed to infinitive forms because of the impact of the auxiliary. However, no such morphological transformations take place in Punjabi negative syntactic constructions.

p. The transformational rule of deletion is also employed, and some of the constituents get deleted due to deriving the surface structures. However, the deletion rule is not quite common and is applicable in some cases.

q. The embedding transformational rules are also employed by both Punjabi and English constructions. However, this rule is limited to some constructions.

4.3. Passive Syntactic Constructions

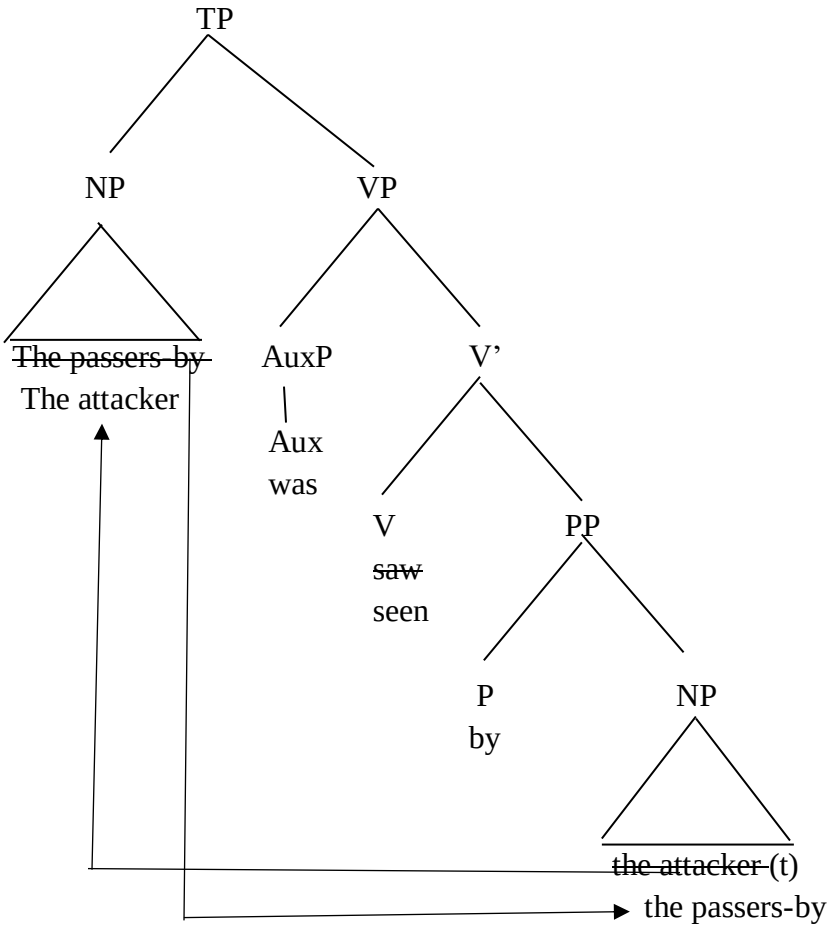
The second type of constructions included in the present research are passive. According to the revised extended standard theory of transformational grammar, the active

voice and passive syntactic constructions share the same deep structure. The structural differences between these two types of constructions are not due to their underlying structures but due to the transformations applied to the deep structure (Radford, 2009). By analyzing the passive structure of English, it is evident that there are four main differences between active and passive voice constructions. First, passive constructions generally include auxiliary 'Be' in different forms; second, passive constructions contain the past participle form of the verb; third, a passive construction or clause usually but not always has a 'By phrase', i.e., *by* as preposition followed by an agent used as a subject in the corresponding active construction; the fourth difference is that the phrase which acts as an object of active voice structure appears as a subject in the corresponding passive sentence (Radford, 2004).

These transformational rules are used to change active English sentences to passive and vice versa. In this section, the formation of passive syntactic constructions of English has been given as an example, followed by Punjabi passive constructions. The following passive construction illustrates the aforementioned rule regarding passive structures.

a. The attack was seen by hundreds of passers-by. (Radford, 2004, P.133)

The active form of this syntactic construction is 'Hundreds of passers-by saw the attack.' From this underlying active construction, the passive is formed when the complement of the active sentence moves from the DP position of the verb phase to the spec-TP position. This type of movement operation is generally referred to as passivization/constituent promotion. Since the DP moves from the complement position to the subject position, this type of movement in which a constituent moves to the specifier position within TP is traditionally referred to as A-movement or argument movement (Radford, 2004). The change from deep structure, i.e. 'The passers-by saw the attack', to the surface structure, which is 'The attack was seen by the passers-by', is due to transformational rules. Apart from the argument movement, the auxiliary 'Was' and the preposition 'By' have been inserted through the transformational rule of insertion. The form of the verb also undergoes morphological transformation, and the past form of active construction transforms into the past participle form of a passive verb. Finally, the subject of the active construction moves to the end of the construction after the preposition, as indicated in the tree diagram.



Tree diagram: 4.21.

Apart from changing active construction to passive, the structure of passive structures can be altered by means of using transformations. To illustrate this point, the following two passive constructions have been given which share the same surface structure.

a. No evidence of corruption was found. (ibid, 134)
b. There was found no evidence of corruption.
c. The names of the teachers are given below. (ibid, p. 260)
d. Below are given the names of the teachers.

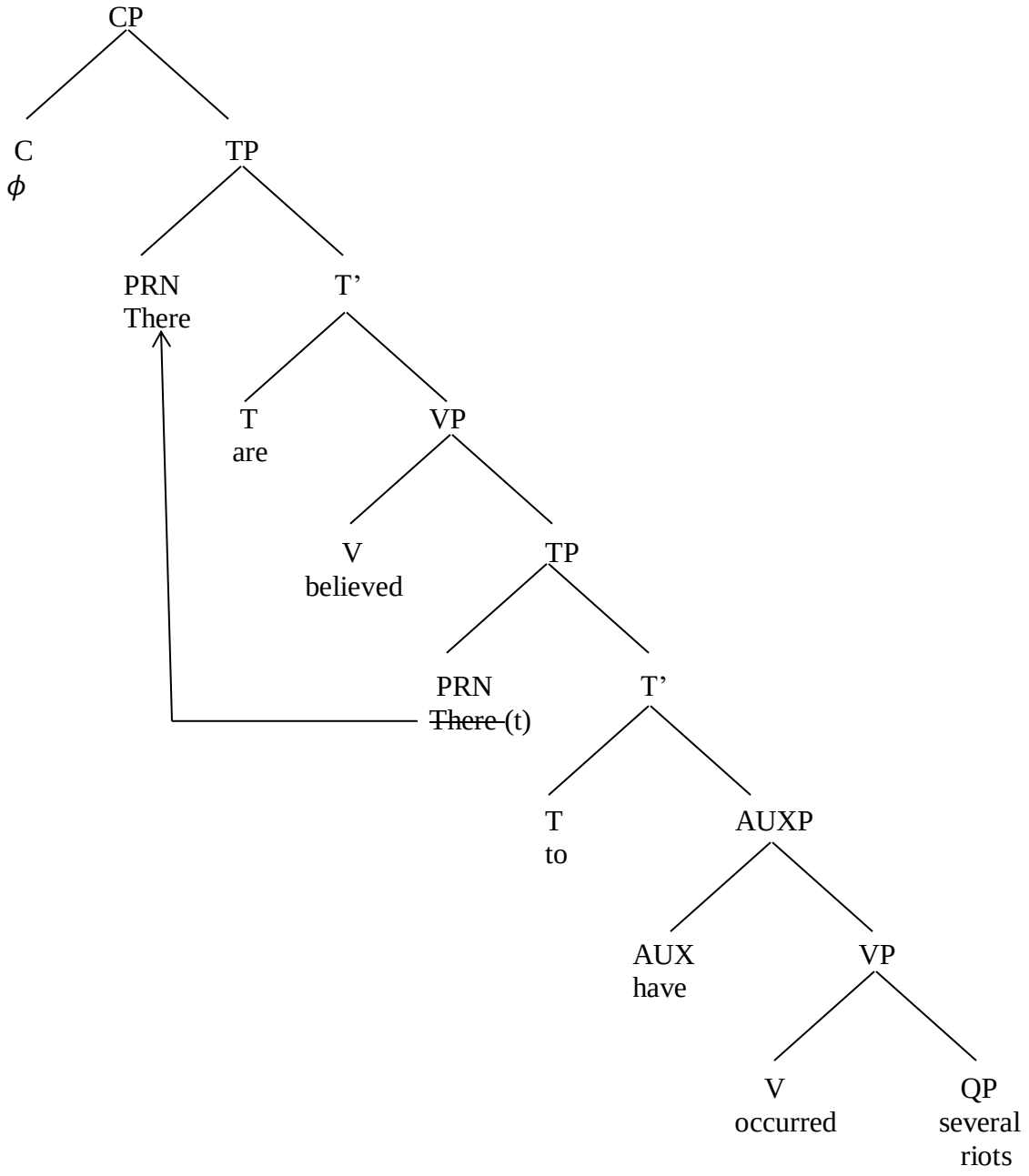
In this syntactic construction, 'A', the passive subject, is used as the subject of the construction and occupies the pre-auxiliary subject position; however, in the sentence 'B', the same subject appears as the complement of the verb. From the above-mentioned constructions,

the question arises of how the subject of the passive clause in construction 'A' becomes the complement of the passive participle in construction 'B'. The answer to this question is that passive subjects move from complement position within VP to subject position within TP by means of transformations. In the second construction, the expletive pronoun 'There' has been used as a subject of the construction. The differences between the surface structures are due to various transformations applied to the given structures to bring about changes. This type of movement operation is carried out in passive constructions where a complement of a verb phrase like 'No evidence of corruption' in sentence 'b' moves to the initial position in 'a' is said to be passivization or argument movement or A-bar movement.

The aforementioned passive constructions show the movement of a constituent from the complement position to the subject position by means of transformation and is a movement within a clause. However, passivization is also able to apply certain types of clause boundaries. This is illustrated in the following syntactic constructions:

a. There are believed to have occurred *several riots*. (ibid, p. 136)
b. *Several riots* are believed to have occurred.

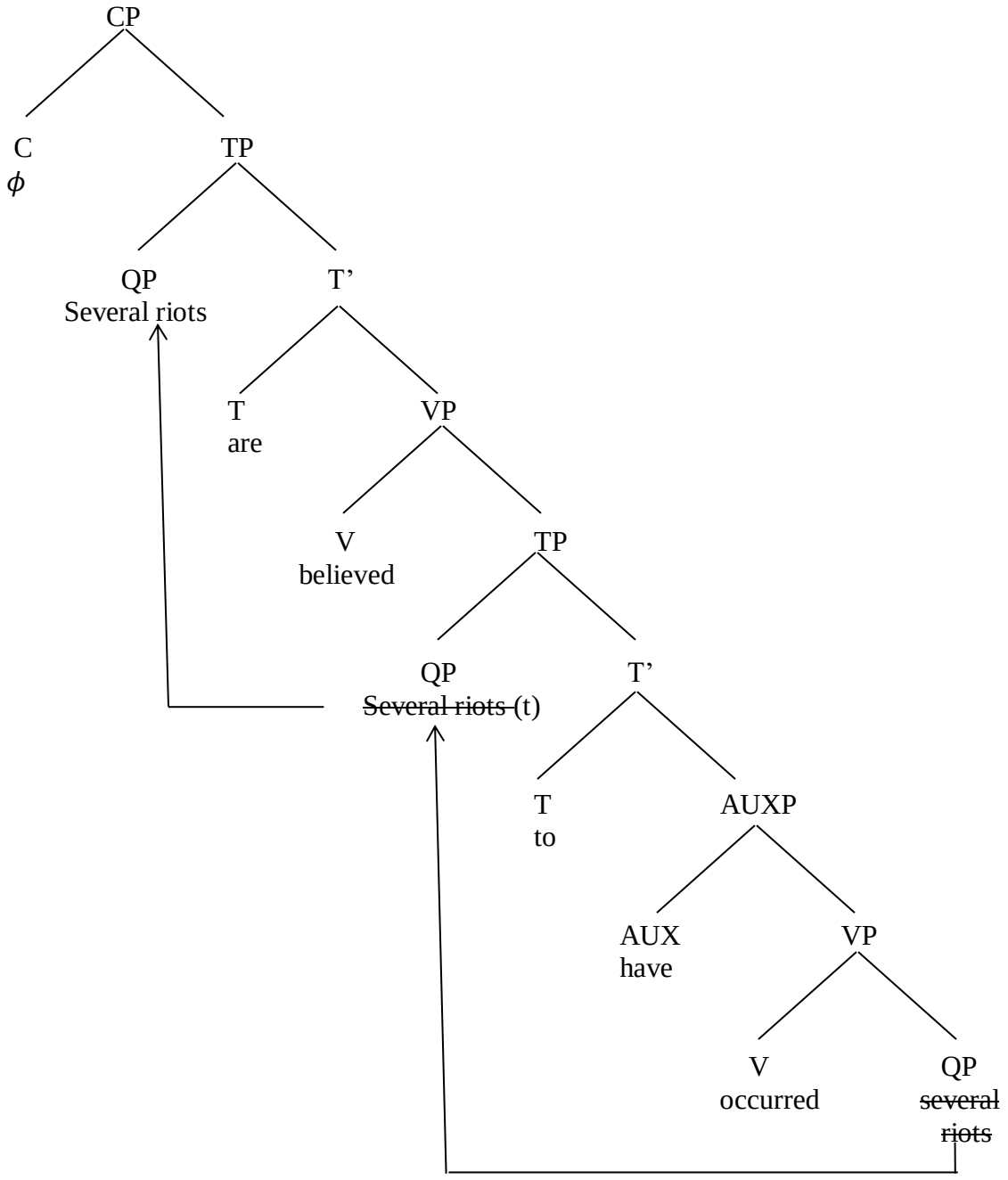
It is evident from the syntactic construction 'A' that 'several riots' is the thematic complement of the un-accusative verb 'occurred.' In the construction 'A,' the complement of the verb follows the verb, but in 'b', the same complement occupies the subject position. Before drawing a tree to show how these structural changes have taken place, it is important to see how sentence 'a' was derived through merging operations (Radford, 2004). The movement of the constituents is shown in the following tree diagram 4.22; however, the more elaborate movement of the constituents is shown in the tree diagram 4.23.



Tree diagram: 4.22

The quantifier ‘several’ merged with the noun ‘riots’ to form QP ‘several riots, the QP merged with the intransitive verb to form VP ‘occurred several riots’; subsequently, VP merges with the perfect auxiliary to form a T-bar phrase ‘have occurred several riots, the auxiliary phrase merges with infinitival particle ‘to’ to form a T bar ‘to have occurred several riots. The infinitival ‘to’ has an EPP (extended projection principle feature), which needs it to have a

noun or pronoun as its subject position. To fulfill this condition, one way is that the expletive ‘there’ is merged at the position to form a TP ‘there to have occurred several riots’. The resulting TP merges with another passive verb, ‘believed’, to have a VP; consequently, the T merges with the resulting VP to form a T bar; the T bar also has an EPP feature, and the T bar needs a subject of its own at TP. There are two subjects (there are several riots), and one of them could be moved to the specifier position at TP. According to the condition, the subject closest to TP will move to this position rather than a QP, which is far away from TP (Radford, 2004).



Tree diagram: 4.23

The second passive construction, as shown in the tree diagram 4.23, 'Several riots are believed to have occurred' can also be elaborated by means of merging operation (bottom-up approach). The QP 'several riots' merged with the verb 'occurred' to form VP, the VP merged with the auxiliary to form the T bar phrase; the resulting T-bar phrase merged with the

infinitival particle ‘to’ to form an infinitive phrase; this infinitive phrase also has an EPP feature mentioned above, so it also needs a subject to form TP. To fulfill this condition, the QP ‘several riots’ moves from the complement position to the TP position. The resulting TP merged with the verb ‘believed’ to form a VP, and this VP merged with an article ‘are’ to form a T bar. Now, this auxiliary also has an EPP feature, so it attracts the subject from the TP position of the following phrase. By moving QP ‘several riots’ to the final TP position results in the formation of the second sentence, ‘Several riots are believed to have occurred’. The operations that move a noun or pronoun expression into spec-T are examples of A-movement operation; long-distance passivization includes a number of applications of the same sort of A-movement operation. The movements in these passive sentences are the instances of A-movement (Radford, 2004).

This section discusses the transformational rules of making English passive voice from active voice constructions in detail. As mentioned earlier that active and passive voice constructions share the same deep structure; however, the difference between the surface structures is due to transformations applied to active voice. Moreover, by applying transformations, the surface structure of a passive sentence may be altered, as mentioned in the second example. In the third example, A-movement (argument movement) has been discussed in detail, and it is established that the constituent close to the T bar will be moved to the subject position, and this movement of argument is due to the EPP feature that the T-bar has. After giving some examples of English passives, the passive sentences used in Punjabi have been discussed in the next section.

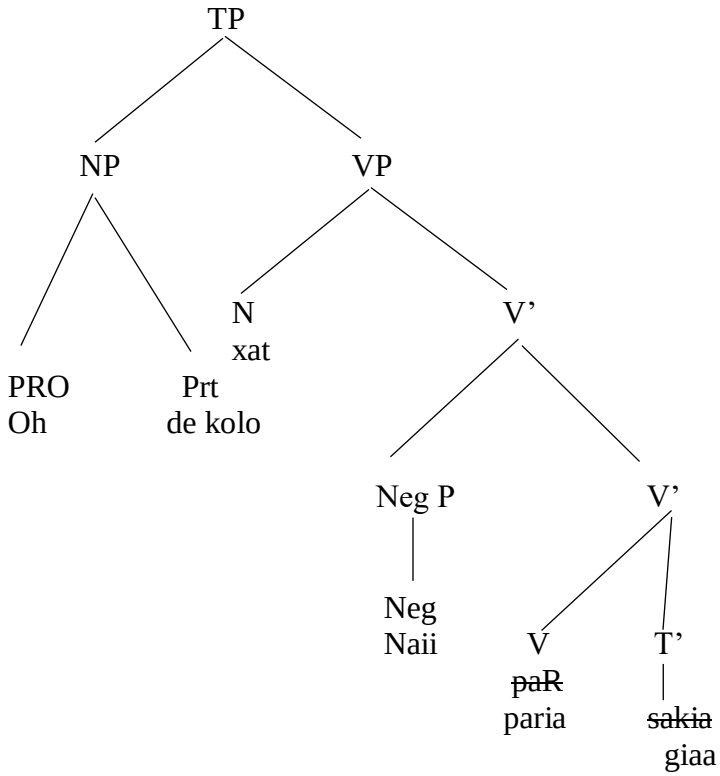
In Punjabi, passive constructions are formed in two ways. The most common passive constructions are constructed when the subject of an active construction is followed either by the instrumental postposition ‘To’ or the compound postposition ‘(de) Kolo’ meaning ‘By.’ The second is when the past participle form of the verb, along with the explicator verb ‘Jaa’ meaning ‘Go’, is applied. The explicator receives endings showing agreement, tense, and aspect (Bhatia, 2013).

On the contrary, the subject of active voice moves from a subject to object place in passive preceded by a postposition but remains an agent while the object of active voice

precedes the verb phrase; the main form of the verb always has past participle form, and the auxiliary verb agrees with subject and tense. In the following pages, the different syntactic constructions are analyzed utilizing X-bar tree diagrams. By means of these diagrams and the comparison of active constructions with their corresponding passives, the transformational rules applied in passive voice have been inferred.

a. Oh to/de kolo xat naii paRiaa giaa. (Bhattia, 2013, p. 234) (He was not able to read the letter; the letter was not read by him). (*He from letter not read past*)
b. Oh xat nai paR sakia. (Active voice as well as deep structure)
   (He letter not read could)

By applying the bottom-up merging operation to the aforementioned passive construction (given in the tree), it is evident that verb merges with the auxiliary to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently merges with the negative particle to have another verb bar; the verb bar then joins with the object of the construction to have a verb phrase (VP), and finally the verb phrase pairs up with the subject to have a tense phrase.



Tree diagram: 4.24

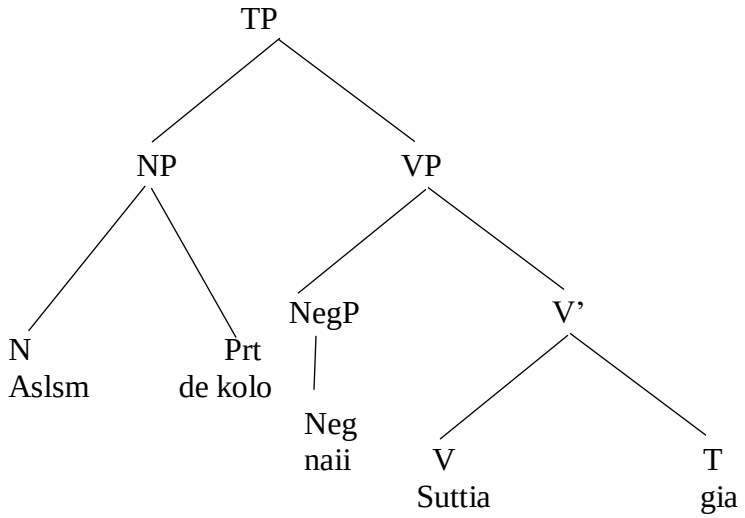
By paying attention to these two structures in Punjabi and their equivalents in English given in the brackets, it is clear that the Punjabi construction 'A' shows passivity as well as one's inability to perform an action; however, two English constructions have been used in the brackets to show passivity as well as one's inability to perform an action. This shows that Punjabi passive constructions sometimes show this ambiguity, and such constructions are employed as passive constructions. The possible active construction of the above Punjabi structure 'a' is 'Oh xat nai paR sakia. There is no movement of any constituent is invoked to generate this surface structure. However, the transformational rule of addition is applied whereby the particle 'De kolo' has been added to the subject, leading to the change of noun case, i.e., oblique case. Moreover, two morphological rules have been used, causing some minor alterations. By paying attention to the passive sentence 'A' and its' corresponding active

sentence, the transformational rules can be derived. The transformation rules for active to passive voice are as follows:

X1, X2, X3, X4, X5 ⟶ X1 (oblique case), X2, X3, X4 (past participle form), X5 (explicative ending)

In the given equation, it is evident that there is not much difference between Punjabi active and passive construction since passive construction looks like an active one, though it is passive. The only difference is the disparity of the noun cases employed in both active and passive construction. However, its equivalent in the English language given in the parenthesis above shows that the object is used in the place of the subject and vice versa; moreover, auxiliary and past participle forms of the verb have been used, and the structure does not show any ambiguity whatsoever with regard to passivity or capability as is the case with Punjabi construction. To further elaborate on the point of Punjabi construction showing passivity as well as ability, consider the following syntactic construction.

c. Aslam to/de kolo naii suttia gia (Aslam could not sleep). (ibid, p. 235)
Aslam from not sleep past

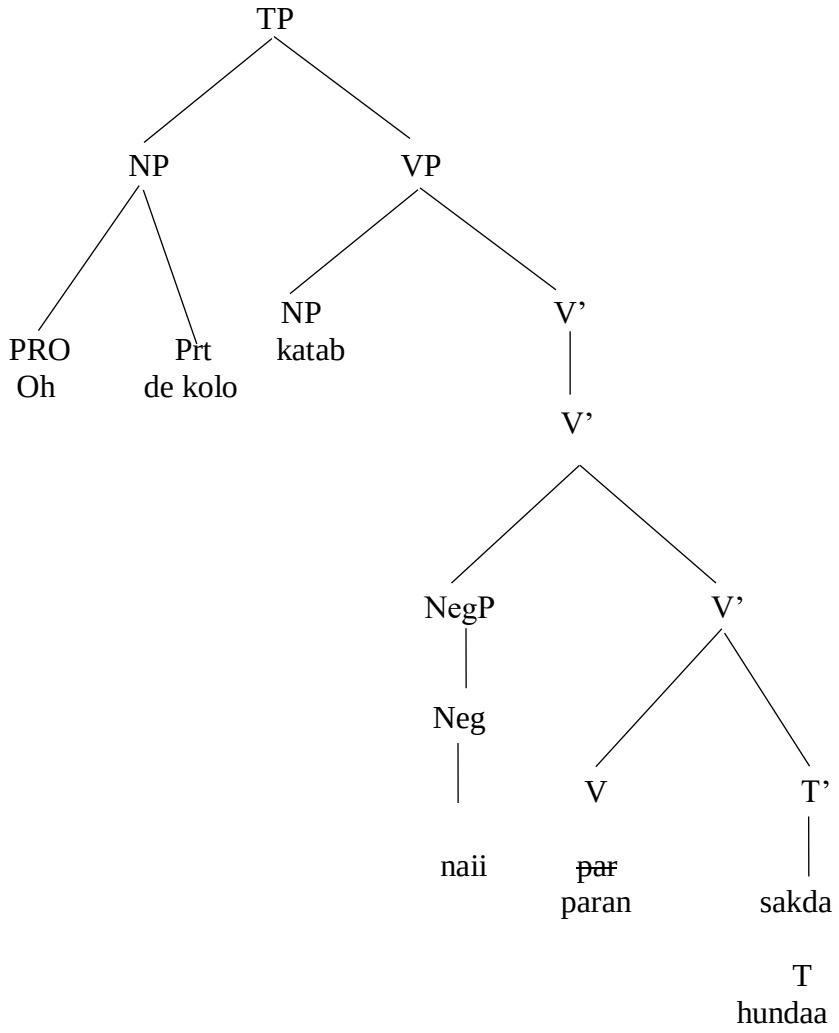


Tree diagram: 4.25

By paying attention to the translation of this Punjabi construction to English, it is evident that the English construction is active, whereas its counterpart in the Punjabi language is taken as a passive voice. The bottom-up analysis of the Punjabi construction reveals that the verb and tense bar having an auxiliary merge to have a verb bar; the verb bar then pairs up with the negative particle to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase finally merges with the subject of the construction 'Aslam to/de kolo' to have a tense phrase. This Punjabi construction has TP + VP + V' structure; the construction reveals that it does not have an object, which means that the Punjabi language uses such constructions as passive voice. This means that in Punjabi, syntactic constructions with and without objects may be used as passive voice. The above construction 'B' shows passivity as well as the capability of someone to do something. As the Punjabi language is one of the split-ergative languages, such languages utilize constructions without objects as passive constructions. So, it may be safely assumed that no transformational rule has been applied; only a different noun case has been used. Moreover, as Punjabi is a head-final language, the auxiliary 'Gia' is placed after the main verb; in English, it is the other way around as it is the head-initial language. The next syntactic construction also reiterates the aforementioned point of ability in passive constructions.

d. ‘Oh de kolo kittab naii paRan hundaa’. (ibid, p.235) ‘The book is not (cannot be) read by him.’

He from book not read is



Tree diagram: 4.26

The difference between the previous passive constructions and this one is that the constructions from ‘A to C’ are rarely used without an agent and negative particles and generally show the person’s ability or inability to do something. However, the construction ‘D’ above shows not only the agents' inability but also their attitude towards something. The sentence such as ‘D’ gives the impression that the subject is too lazy to read the book. However, such construction is not used in progressive tense (Bhatia, 2013).

The deep structure of this syntactic construction could be ‘Oh kittab nai par sakda.’ The difference between the active and passive construction is the difference of noun cases used in active voice and passive voice. In active voice nominative noun case is used, whereas in passive, oblique case has been employed as the particle ‘De kolo’ has been added to the noun. Moreover, the verb and auxiliary have also undergone morphological change. Overall, the syntactic arrangement of the constituents is almost similar in both active and passive constructions. The analysis of the construction by employing bottom-up merging operation shows that the verb merges with the auxiliary at a tense bar to form a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently integrates with the negative particle to have a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with the noun used as an object to form a verb phrase, and finally, the verb phrase merges with the subject to have a tense phrase.

As no transformational rules are applied except for the differences of noun cases in the active and passive voice; however, there is a difference between the active and passive verb as the passive verb undergoes a morphological transition. The aforementioned active and passive constructions are represented as:

X1, X2, X3, X4 ⟶ X1, X2, X3, X4

The following structure provided in ‘E’ is a passive construction but is not grammatically acceptable as constructions have progressive tenses and are not usually employed to form passive in Punjabi. This is one of the differences between the two languages: English usually utilizes progressive construction to form passives. In Punjabi, such constructions are ungrammatical. Instead of these sentences, active constructions are possible such as ‘Oh to/de kolo xat naii paRiaa giaa’ (Bhattia, 2013).

e. * Oh to/de kolo kittab paRan naii ho raii ai. (ibid, p. 235) ‘The book is not being read by him.’

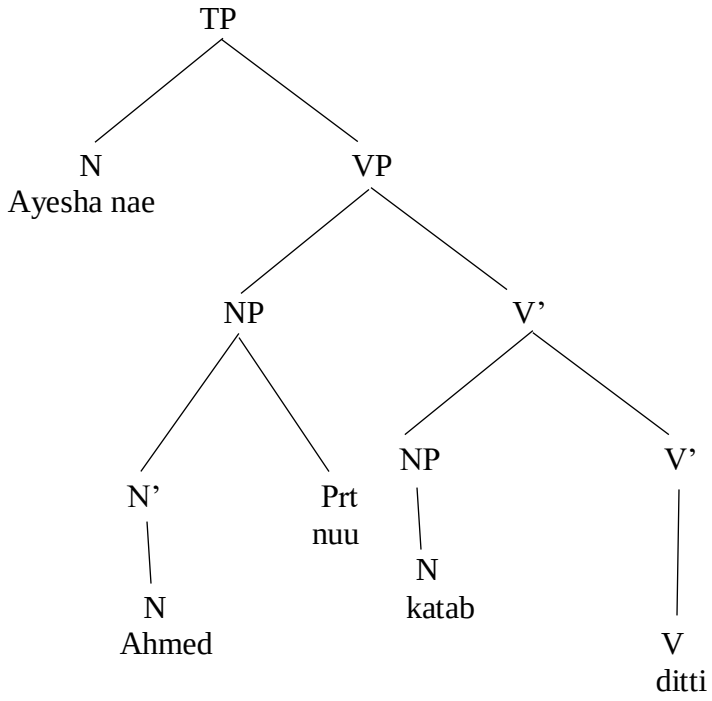
He from book read not be ing is

Besides the ungrammaticality of Punjabi present progressive passive, there are some other rules which are quite contrary to English rules. One of such rules is bi-transitive verbs: a verb that takes two objects namely direct object and indirect object; in Punjabi indirect objects

cannot be used as subjects to form passive voice: the construction ‘H’ given under is marked as ungrammatical because the indirect object has been used as the subject of the construction. This means that only a direct object may be brought at the pre-verbal position to form a passive voice. This transformational rule has been demonstrated in the following sentences.

f. Ayesha nae Ahmed nuu kataab dittii. (ibid, p. 236) (‘Ayesha gave a book to Ahmed.’)
   Ayesha from ahmed to book gave
g. Kitaab Ayesha to kolo Ahmed nuu dittii gaii. (‘The book was given by Ayesha to Ahmed.’)
   Book Ayesha from Ahnmed to gave was
h. *Ahmed Ayesha to kolo kattab dittii gaii. (‘Ahmed was given the book by Ayesha.’)
   Ahmed Ayesha from book gave was

To understand the movement of the constituent in passive voice, the understanding of the deep structure, i.e. active voice is very important. The aforementioned construction ‘F’ is active, whereas the construction ‘G’ is the derived passive form of the construction ‘F’’. The bottom-up merging operation reveals that the noun used as direct object ‘Kitab’ merges with the verb to form a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with indirect object ‘Ahmed nuu’ to form VP; subsequently, the VP merges with the subject of active voice sentence ‘Ayesha’ to form a TP. To form passive voice from the given active voice ‘Ayesha Ahmed nuu kitaab ditti.’ As discussed above that in Punjabi, only a direct object is brought to the beginning of the construction to form a passive voice. So, the direct object ‘Kattab’ moves from the head position of the verb phrase to the head position at tense phrase. The tree diagram given below shows the arrangement of the constituents in active voice.

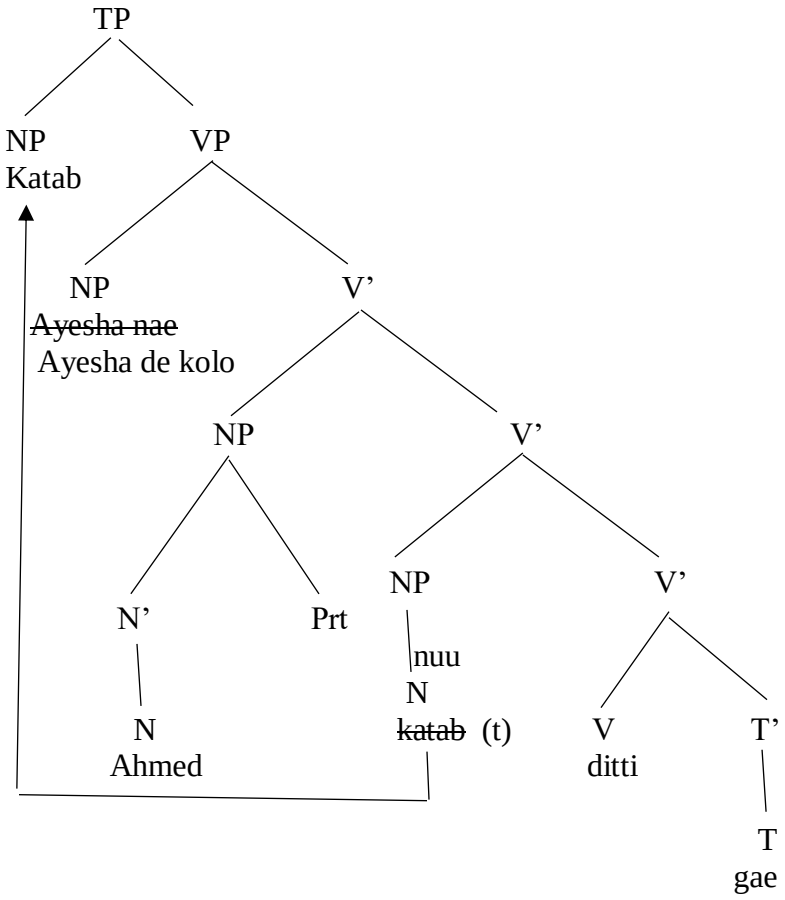


Tree diagram: 4.27

To form passive from the above 4.27 tree diagram, it is evident that the movement of 'Kataab' from one head position, i.e., from verb bar to another head position at tense phrase; another movement operation which takes place to form passive is that the subject of the active voice 'Ayesha nae' which moves from TP to VP. (as shown in the tree diagram 4.28). In other words, the promotion and demotion of the constituents have taken place to form passive voice from the given Punjabi active construction. The same kind of transformational operations takes place to change active construction to passive in English constructions. Another transformation that takes place is the change of verb form 'Ditti' to the past participle form 'Ditti gaii. The agent of the construction used at the VP position in the tree diagram takes the instrumental suffix 'De kolo'. However, in English construction, the agent noun does not change its noun case and is only preceded by a preposition 'By.'

Kitaab Ayesha to kolo Ahmed nuu dittii gaii. (‘The book was given by Ayesha to Ahmed.’)

Book Ayesha from Ahnmed to gave was



Tree diagram: 4.28

Moreover, English passive constructions use auxiliaries before verb form to show sentence; however, in Punjabi, the tense marker, for example, ‘Gaii’ is used after the verb. Moreover, in active construction given in tree diagram 4.27, the ‘T’ bar is missing, but in the above tree diagram 4.28 of passive construction, the ‘T’ bar is there. Punjabi passive constructions are mostly similar to Japanese as both languages have mostly identical syntactic constructions, i.e., head-final languages. Lastly, English passive constructions can be possible by bringing either direct or indirect objects to the beginning construction; in Punjabi passive, however, this indirect object cannot be used as a subject to form passive constructions. The

transformational rules applied to change the aforementioned sentence into passive voice can be summarized as X1, X2, X3, X4 =X3, X1, X2, X4, X5

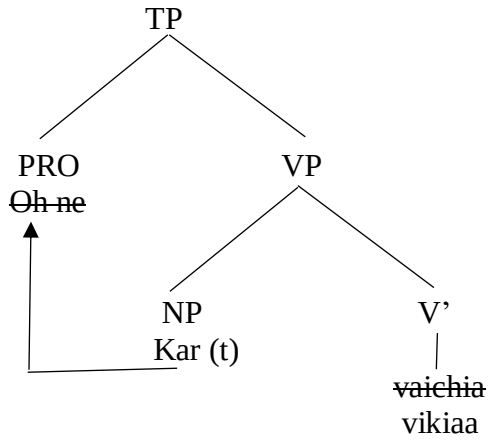
Punjabi makes use of passive constructions which contain a null subject. The following structure illustrates this point.

Kar vikiaa. ('The house was sold.')

House (masculine singular), sold pp masculine singular

The above Punjabi passive construction contains only the subject and passive form of the verb. The underlying or deep structure of this passive construction could be 'Oh ne kar vaichia' or 'He sold the house.' By applying the bottom-up merging operation to the given deep structure, it is evident that the object 'Kar' merges with the past form of the verb 'Vaichia' to form a verb phrase as shown in the tree; subsequently, the verb phrase merges with the subject of the syntactic construction 'Oh ne' to form TP. To form a passive from the given deep structure, the object moves from VP position to TP; however, the TP subject 'Oh ne' does not move to the end of the construction rather, it gets deleted. Thus, it may be said that the promotion of the object 'Kar' has taken place whereby it moves from one head position to the other head position, called as A-movement. Moreover, the verb also undergoes morphological transformation. Also, the deletion rule eliminates the subject of the active sentence i.e., 'Oh ne.'

By comparing this Punjabi passive construction with the English construction given above in the parenthesis, it is evident that the same kind of movement and deletion transformational rules have been applied. However, the use of auxiliary is not usually used in Punjabi construction, whereas in English passive constructions, it is mandatory. The transformational rules applied to the aforementioned sentence can be summed up as X1, X2, X3 =X2, X3.



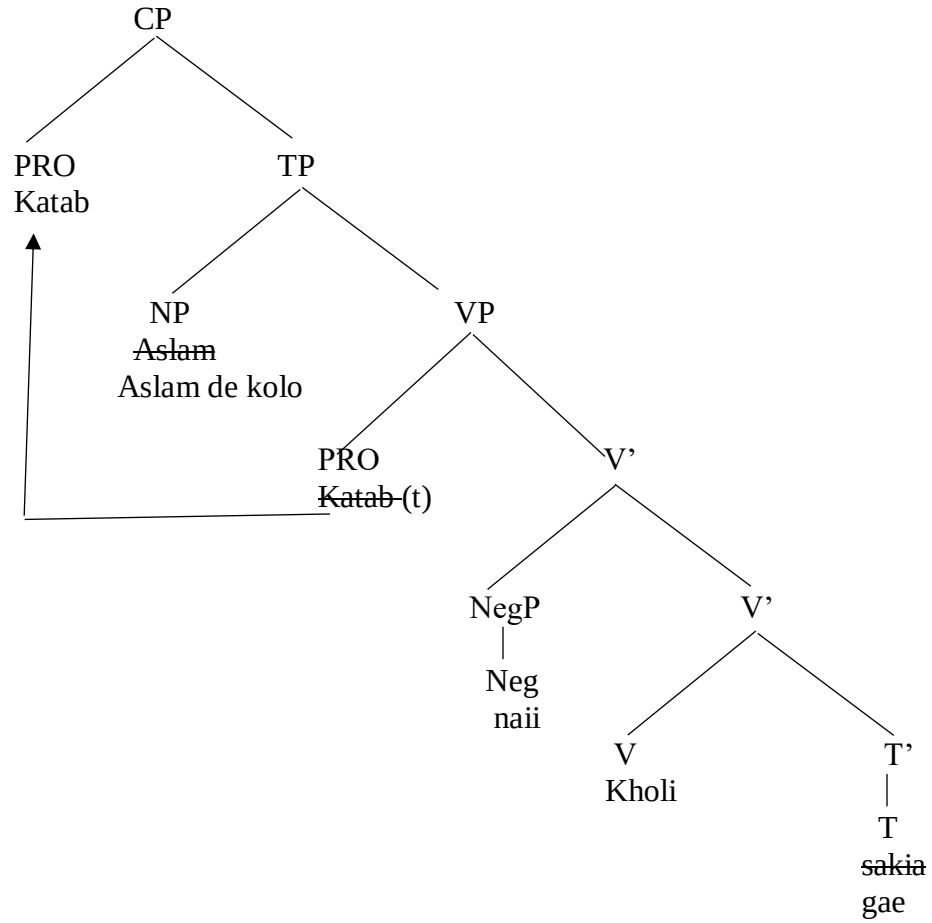
Tree diagram: 4.29

The aforementioned point of the movement of the constituent from one head position to another has been further elaborated in the following passive syntactic construction.

i. Kitab Aslam de kolo naii kholi ghae ('The book was not opened by Aslam.')

The book Aslam from open not was

The underlying or deep structure of this construction could be 'Aslam kAtab naii khol sakia'. By applying the bottom-up merging to this construction, it is evident that the verb merges with the tense bar to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently combines with the negative particle 'Naii' to form another verb bar; the verb bar merges with genitive noun case 'Aslam de kolo' to have a verb phrase; phrase finally pair up with the subject of the construction to form a TP; the subject of the passive voice occupies the specifier position within CP. This shows that to generate passive form, the object of the active voice 'Katab' which occupies a head position within TP, has moved to the specifier position within CP. This movement operation shows that the constituent at CP has moved to the specifier position at TP to form this passive construction and vice versa. This movement operation is said to be A-movement. This promotion of the constituent whereby a constituent has been used at the beginning of the construction is termed a permutation, so the transformational rules applied to Punjabi construction can be summed up as X1, X2, X3, X4, X5 = X2, X1, X3, X4, X5. The movement of the constituents called as argument movement is shown in the tree diagram 4.30.



Tree diagram: 4.30

By drawing a comparison between the two aforementioned constructions, it is evident that these two constructions are similar as far as the movement of the subjects and objects is concerned. The negative particles have also been added to these constructions by applying a transformational rule of addition; the past particle forms of the verbs have been utilized in both cases; however, there are certain dissimilarities that could also be noticed here. The genitive noun case has been used in the Punjabi construction 'Aslam de kolo', whereas the English noun takes an accusative case preceded by a preposition. In Punjabi construction, postpositions are not used. Moreover, Punjabi is a head-final language as the auxiliary follows the verb.

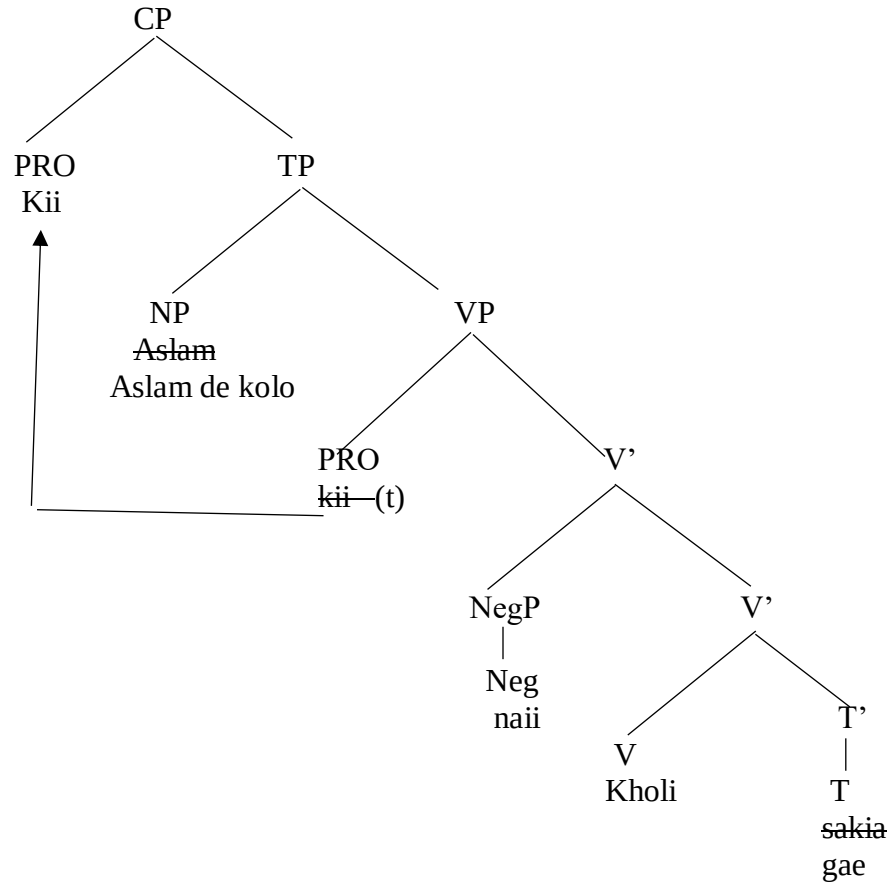
On the other hand, in English construction, the given auxiliary precedes the given verb. Moreover, the Punjabi constructions provide the interpretation that the agent was not capable of undertaking an action; however, English construction does not yield such an interpretation.

In short, it may be said that despite the movement of the operator from one position to another, the transformational rule of addition has also been applied.

To further investigate the movement operation in Punjabi construction, the aforementioned Punjabi construction has been transformed to passive voice to discern the movement of various constituents:

j. Kii Aslam de kolo naii kholi gae? (ibid, p. 235) ('What was not opened by Aslam?')
What Aslam by not open was

The possible deep structure of the construction 'K' could be 'Aslam kii nai khol sakia.' By employing the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the verb 'Kholi' merges with the past form of the verb 'Gae' to form a verb bar, the verb bar 'Kholi gae' merges with the negative particle 'Naii' to have another verb bar; this verb bar merges with the interrogative pronoun 'Kii' to have a verb phrase; subsequently the verb phrase combines with the subject of the construction to generate the tense phrase. To generate surface structure from this underlying deep structure, the question word 'Kii' moves from the verb phrase to the specifier position within CP. This movement operation is called the 'Wh' movement. In such Punjabi interrogative construction, the structure behaves like English passive construction. The arrangement of the constituents has been shown below:



Tree diagram: 4.31

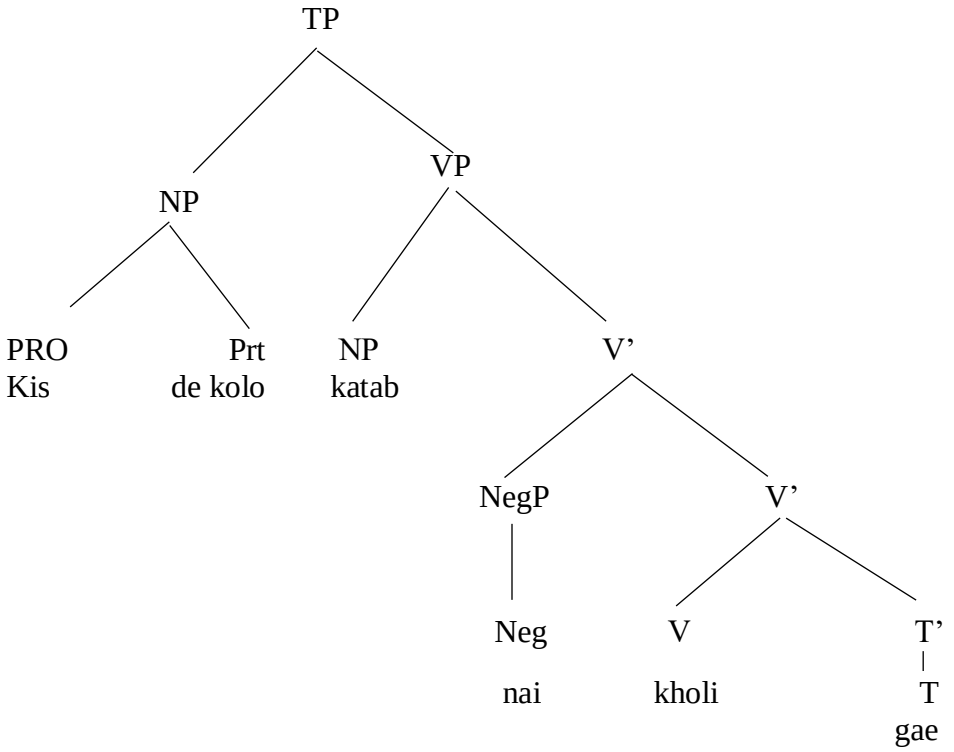
By drawing a comparison between the aforementioned given instructions, it is evident that in both Punjabi and English constructions, the question word has moved to the beginning of the construction. This kind of movement is called 'Wh'; the question word is the subject of the construction. However, the Punjabi subject takes a genitive instrumental case, while the English subject/agent takes an accusative case preceded by a preposition. The disparities between these two syntactic constructions have implications for Punjabi students who aspire to learn the English language.

The subject 'Aslam de kolo' of the aforementioned syntactic construction may be replaced with a question word 'Kis de kolo' to generate the following construction 'K'. This replacement has been shown in the following syntactic construction:

k. kis de kolo katab naii kholi gae? (ibid, p. 236) (‘By whom was the book not opened?’)
By whom book not open was

Once again, by employing the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the verb ‘Kholi’ merges with the auxiliary ‘Gae’ to form a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with the negative particle to have another verb bar, the verb bar combines with the noun ‘Katab’ to have verb phrase, and finally the tense phrase merges with the interrogative pronoun ‘Kis de kolo’ to have a tense phrase. To generate this Punjabi construction, no movement of any constituent is involved as Punjabi is one of the in-situ languages; however, the question word has been used to replace the subject of the construction. This means that the transformational rule of substitution has been used to generate this Punjabi syntactic construction.

By drawing a comparison between this Punjabi and English constructions, it is evident that Punjabi construction does not involve the movement of any constituent as it is one of the in-situ languages. The question phrase ‘Kis de kolo’ is the subject of the construction and has been substituted in place of the noun or pronoun through the transformational rule of substitution. On the contrary, the English construction involves ‘Wh’ movement along with the preposition. Such a kind of movement is called pied-piping as the question word has dragged the preposition along with it. No such movement of pied-piping takes place in Punjabi construction. Moreover, in English construction, the auxiliary verb also moves from one head position to another head position. The movement of ‘Wh’ word along with the auxiliary is also called operator movement. However, no such operator movement takes place in Punjabi construction. As English is a head-first language, the auxiliary has been employed before the main verb, whereas the auxiliary follows the main verb as it is a head-last language. Finally, the accusative form in the interrogative phrase has been used, while Punjabi interrogative questions take the instrumental genitive form. The arrangement of the constituent in the aforementioned Punjabi construction has been provided in the tree diagram 4.32.



Tree diagram: 4.32

From the above discussion of the passive constructions in Punjabi and English, the following differences can be established:

a. In Punjabi, the passive constructions are formed by putting instrumental particles/postpositions such as 'To' and '(De) kolo', which change the subject of the construction into an oblique case. However, in English constructions, no oblique noun case is used rather, nominative and accusative noun cases are used. The nominative noun case moves to the accusative position and vice versa to form passive from active constructions in English.
b. In Punjabi, the past participle form of the main verb is used like the English language passive constructions. In the Punjabi language, besides the main verb, an explicative verb is used, which shows tense, gender, and number. In English, its counterpart is the

verb form ‘be’, which is used to show number and tense; however, the tense marker is not indicative of gender marker in English.

c. Constructions with both transitive and intransitive verbs can be transformed into passive voice in Punjabi. This is one of the common features of split-ergative languages. In English, an active construction usually has to have a transitive verb so that it can be transformed to passive constructions. Intransitive verbs are not usually used in passive constructions.

d. Passive constructions in Punjabi are ambiguous: transitive passives express passivity as well as the inability of the subject to perform an action. No such ambiguity with regard to interpretation is found in English passive constructions.

e. In English, present and past progressive passive constructions are frequently used; however, in the Punjabi language, though the progressive forms of present and past passive may be possible, they are not frequently used. Instead the use of present and past simple is quite common.

f. In English, the constructions containing two objects after the verb di-transitive may be transformed to passive voice by utilizing any of the two given objects; however, in Punjabi, only a direct object is usually employed in passive construction; the use of an indirect object may lead to an ungrammatical construction. This indicates that while forming passives in Punjabi, the indirect noun is not attracted to the higher place; rather the noun which is farther is attracted to make it the subject of passive structures.

g. The transformational rules applied to transform active to passive constructions in Punjabi involve the movement of the question word from VP and CP positions. This movement of the constituent is called argument movement. Moreover, When the question word is the subject of the constructions, both Punjabi and English constructions do not move; this shows that the English language may behave like Punjabi, which is an in-situ language.

4.4. Interrogative Syntactic Constructions in English

There are two kinds of interrogative questions in English, namely close-ended and open-ended questions. The former type of questions is also called ‘Yes-no questions’ and the latter types of questions are called ‘Wh-questions’ because these questions start with ‘Wh words such as ‘where, why and when, etc.

4.4.1. English Closed-ended Syntactic Questions

In this section, the first kind of questions, i.e., yes-no questions used in English, have been elaborated by employing the revised standard theory of transformational generative grammar. As mentioned earlier, yes/no or closed-ended questions are formed by applying the transformations to the deep structure or to the affirmative constructions. In this section, the movement of the constituents from T bar to C has been discussed. After discussing a few English closed-ended questions briefly, a comprehensive and detailed discussion on Punjabi closed-ended questions has been given. The movement of the constituent has also been discussed, and Punjabi and English questions have been compared concerning their surface structures and transformations.

An affirmative sentence such as ‘They will guide me’ is transformed into an interrogative one. To do this, the formation of this affirmative construction would be described by using the bottom-up approach. Both bottom-up and top-down approaches are used to describe and analyze the structure of the constituents of synaptic constructions. However, in this context, the bottom-up approach has been discussed to show the merging of words to form phrases. The rationale of using the bottom-up approach is to show how headwords combine with their complements to form phrases and how a constituent moves from one position to another by means of transformations.

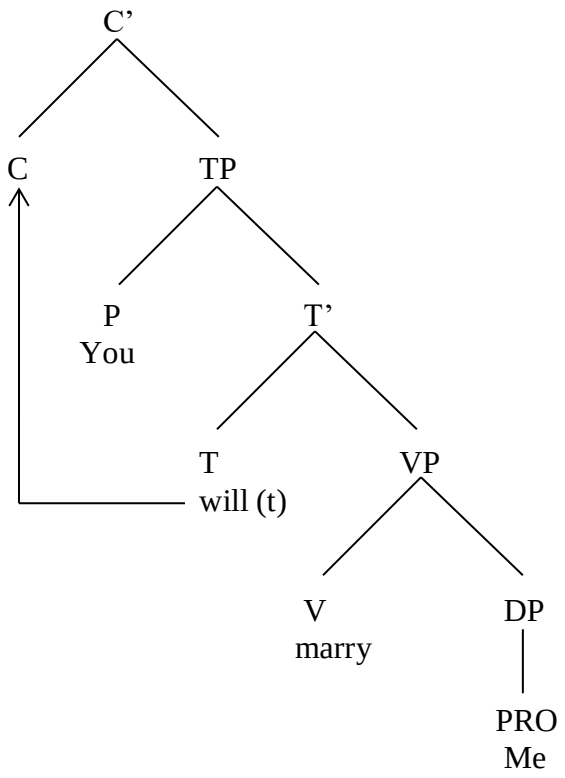
Coming back to the aforementioned simple affirmative constructions, ‘You will marry me’, the verb ‘guide’, which is the headword here, merges with its complement ‘me’ to form a verb phrase ‘guide me’. The resulting verb phrase merged with the auxiliary verb ‘will’ to form a tense bar, and finally, the tense bar ‘will guide me’ merged with the pronoun to form TP, i.e. tense phrase. The merging operation results in a simple affirmative construction. However, the process is not over there, as the transition of interrogative construction from a

simple one has not been completed. Therefore, the TP merged with a null complementizer to have CP (complementizer phrase). The complementizer phrase has a ‘C’ bar to accommodate the auxiliary ‘Will.’ To attract the auxiliary for the T node to the C node, the C needs to have a TNS feature, as C does have this feature, so the auxiliary moves from the head position at the T bar to the C bar position.

The T node has the auxiliary, which moves from the T node of the T bar to T node of the C bar to have an interrogative construction. This movement of the auxiliary is from T to C is called auxiliary inversion or head movement (Radford, 2009). The above movement operation from the T to C position is shown in the tree diagram below.

a. ‘You will marry me’. (Radford, 2009 p.144)

b. ‘Will you marry me’?



Tree diagram: 4.33

The question that arises here is that the movement of T to C leads to the vanishing of the T-bar completely. By doing so, it has violated two principles, i.e., the headedness principle and the binarity principle. According to the headedness principle, every non-terminal node in a syntactic structure is the extension of the head, whereas the binarity principle relates to the notion that every non-terminal node in a syntactic structure is a binary branching (Radford, 2009). The transformational rule for the above close-ended questions is as follows: TP + T' + VP into C' + TP + VP. This shows that to transform an affirmative construction to an interrogative one, the 'C' has been added to the structure, and the transformational rule applied here is said to be auxiliary inversion/movement.

The tree diagram 4.33 given above shows that it has violated the headedness principle in that TP and T bar are non-terminal nodes, and in spite of this, the T head does not have the constituent, and it has also violated the binarity principle as the T bar does not have binary branches when the auxiliary moves from T to C bar position. The reason for such movement is a composite operation in that the auxiliary at the T bar position is copied and moved to the C position; subsequently, the copy to the auxiliary at the T bar gets deleted and finally becomes unpronounced. So, this movement of the auxiliary involves two operations of: copying of the constituent for movement purposes and the deletion of the T bar. This phenomenon is the cornerstone of Chomsky's copy and deletion theory. The arrangement of the constituents and the application of the transformational rule have been given.

To elaborate the above point further, the following affirmative construction is given to elaborate the point of auxiliary movement/ auxiliary inversion in interrogative sentences.

c. 'He could have helped her'. (ibid, p. 147)
d. 'Could he have helped her'?

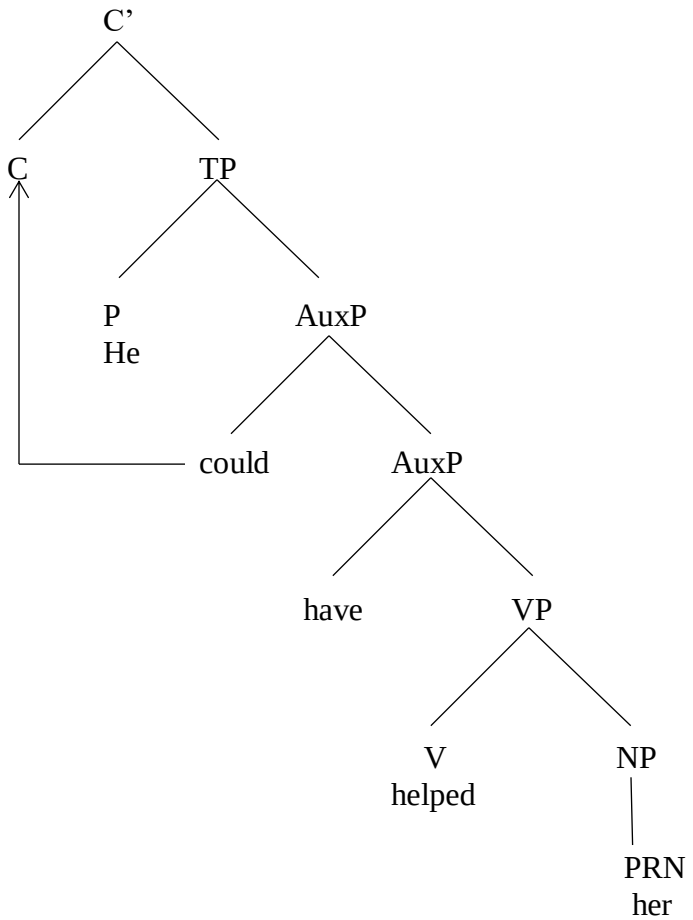
By using the bottom-up approach, the affirmative sentence 'C' can be analyzed as the verb 'helped' merged with the pronoun 'her' to form a VP. The resulting VP merged with the auxiliary verb 'have' to form an auxiliary phase; the auxiliary phrase paired up with 'Could' to have a T-bar; subsequently, the T bar integrates with the pronoun 'He' to have TP. However, the process is not over, and TP merged with CP, which has a C node as a null constituent.

However, this null constituent has a TNS feature, so it can attract ‘Could’ from the T bar position to the C node position.

The following transformational rules for English interrogative syntactic constructions from the positive ones can be derived from these two aforementioned syntactic constructions

i. X1, X2, X3, X4 sequence of constituents in an affirmative sentence into X2, X1, X3, X4
ii. X1, X2, X3, X4, X5 sequence of constituents in positive sentence into X2, X1, X3, X4, X5

He could have helped her.



Tree diagram: 4.34

Interrogative constructions in Punjabi, like English, can be categorized into two groups: yes-no questions and wh-questions. There are systematic intonation variations among the different manifestations of these two main types of constructions.

4.4.2. Punjabi Closed-ended Syntactic Constructions

Yes-no questions can be divided into two fundamental kinds based upon a particular type of answer expected. The two basic kinds of yes-no questions include neutral yes-no questions, which do not induce a particular answer, and leading yes-no questions, where either a positive or negative answer is expected. The main structural difference between these two kinds of questions is the employment of the confirmatory particle, i.e., 'Na' isn't it/ is it?

4.4.2.1. Punjabi Neutral Questions

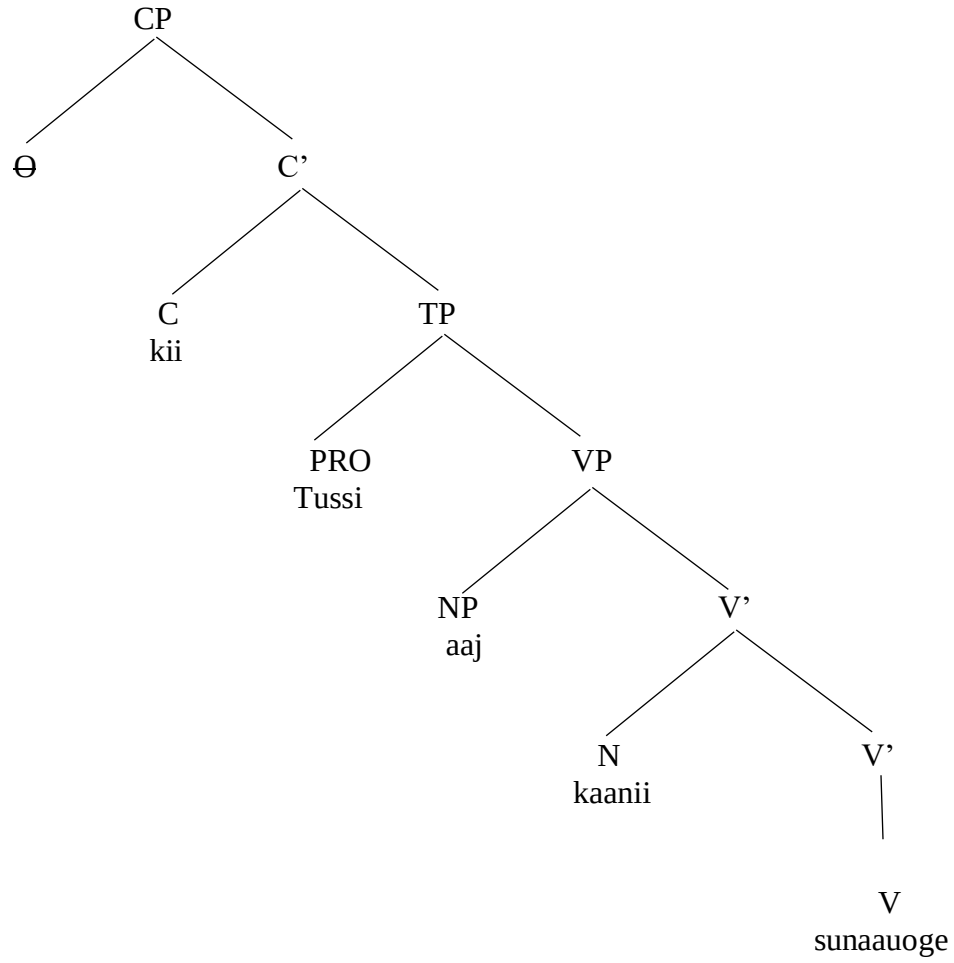
Neutral yes-no questions do not induce any response from the listener/ addressee, and are constructed by optionally placing the question word 'Kii'. The Punjabi question word 'Kii' is similar to the English question word 'What', but the main difference between these two is their position in the construction. In Punjabi, the use of the question word 'Kii' does not induce any word order changes from the declarative construction. However, it requires a rising intonation at the end of the sentence. The question word 'Kii' is never used at the end of an interrogative structure (Bhatia, 2013).

b. Tussi aaj kaanii suNaavoge. (Bhattia, 2013, p. 5) ('You will tell a story.')
   You (formal) today story tell will
c. Kii tussi aaj kaanii suNaavoge. ('Will you tell a story today?')
   Will you (formal) today story tell will
d. *Tusii ajj kaanii suNaavoge kii? ('You will tell a story today will.')
   You (formal) today story tell will will

As indicated in the aforementioned 'A to C' Punjabi syntactic constructions that neutral questions are formed by adding/inserting a question word 'Kii' to the affirmative construction. The syntactic construction 'A' above is an affirmative construction to which a question word 'Kii' has been added as is indicated in construction 'B'. There is no movement of any

constituent involved to form this interrogative Punjabi syntactic construction. In Punjabi, neutral questions are also formed by raising the tone, especially at the end of the construction, without using the question word.

By employing the bottom-up merging analysis, it is evident that the noun ‘Kaanii’ merges with the future form of the verb ‘SuNaavoge’ to form a V bar, and the V bar subsequently pairs up with the adverb of time to have a verb phrase. The verb phrase subsequently merges with the formal form of the second person pronoun to have a tense bar TP, and finally, the tense bar pairs up with the question word to have a complementizer phrase.



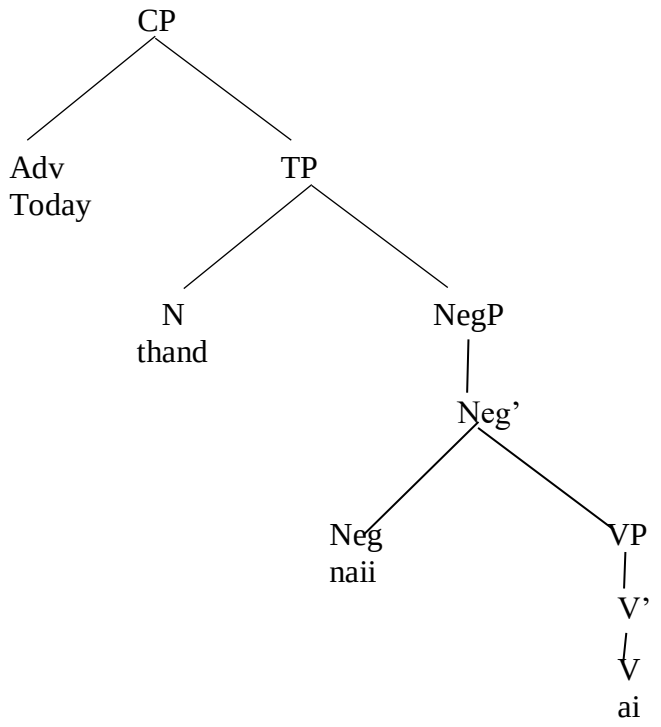
Tree diagram: 4.35

By comparing Punjabi neutral questions with their corresponding English yes-no question, it is clear that the aforementioned Punjabi 4.35 syntactic construction is formed by adding a question word ‘Kii’ to the affirmative construction, and there is no movement of any constituent involved to form this question. On the contrary, the English syntactic construction provided in the parenthesis above in ‘B’ shows that English yes-no questions are formed through a transformational rule called auxiliary inversion/head movement. This kind of movement is called head movement, whereby the auxiliary ‘Will’ moves from the T bar position to the C bar position as the C bar has a TNS feature that attracts an auxiliary from the T bar position to form yes-no question. No such auxiliary inversion is observed in Punjabi construction. Another point is that Punjabi has proper future form while English employs different means to express future tense. The arrangement of the constituents of the aforementioned Punjabi syntactic construction has been given in the tree.

As mentioned above the negative yes-no in English questions invoke a number of responses from the listener depending upon the context and purpose. By paying attention to the structure of Punjabi negative yes-no question, it is seen as simple negative construction, but has the force of negative yes-no question as its counterpart in English is a negative yes-no question. The given structure illustrates this point:

d. Aaj ThaND naii (ai)? (ibid, p. 5) (‘Isn’t it cold today?’)

Today cold not is



Tree diagram: 4.36

The main verb provided in the brackets is optional, so the construction is possible without the main verb, especially in spoken form. The analysis of this structure by using a bottom-up approach shows that the negative particle ‘Naii’ merges with the main verb to form a negative phrase. The resulting negative phrase merges with the noun ‘Thand’ to have a tense phrase; finally, the tense phrase integrates with the adverb of time to have a complementizer phrase. By comparing the two constructions of both Punjabi and English given above, it is evident that English construction starts with the main verb and the clitic form of the negative particle; it follows the pronoun ‘It’ and the adjective ‘Cold’ and finally the adverb. Moreover, the Punjabi construction is just like an ordinary negative construction, and there is no movement of the main verb, unlike English, at the beginning of the structure, but it has the force of an interrogative construction.

Therefore, it may be assumed that there is no transformation of the constituent involved as far as the Punjabi construction is concerned. However, the English construction involved

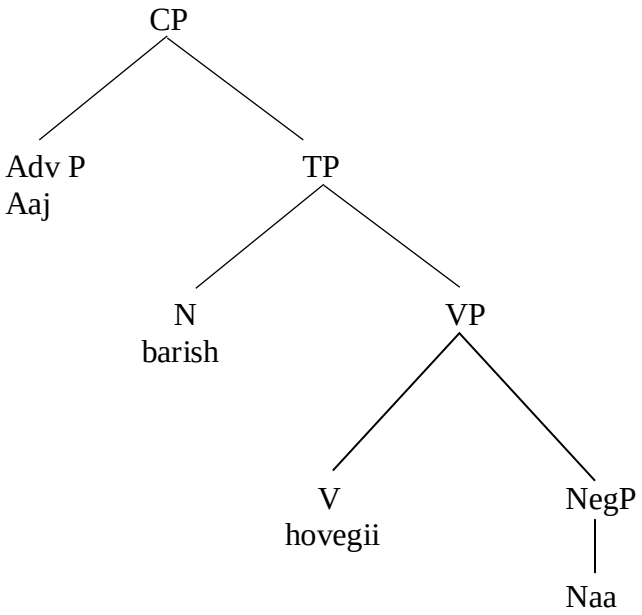
the movement called auxiliary inversion, which has been discussed earlier. The auxiliary followed by the negative particle is moved out of its positions in deep structure, whereas in Punjabi neutral interrogative construction, no movement of any constituent has taken place. Further, a high tone has been used to invoke a question since Punjabi is a tonal language, and interrogative questions may be constructed by altering the tone of affirmative constructions. Besides, neutral questions normally do not invoke any response from the listener. However, in this case, a number of responses are found from the listener.

4.4.2.2. Punjabi Leading Questions

Leading questions, in Punjabi, are formed by adding 'Na' at the end of an affirmative construction. In the following synactic construction the negative particle has been added at the end of an affirmative construction to generate a leading question in Punjabi. This negative particle acts as a question tag and is the abbreviated form of the 'Naii'. If the expected response is positive, the negative particle follows an affirmative statement. This is shown in the given construction.

a. Ajj barish hovegii na? (ibid, p. 7) ('It will rain today, won't it?')
   Today rain be will not

This Punjabi syntactic construction shows that the negative particle 'Na' given at the end has the same force as the question tag in an English structure. The bottom-up analysis of this sentence shows that the verb 'Hovegii' merges with the negative particle 'Na' to form a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase merges with the noun 'Barish' to form a tense phrase; subsequently, the tense phrase combines with the adverb phrase to form a complementizer phrase. As far as transformational rules are concerned, in Punjabi, the negative particle has been inserted into the affirmative construction; therefore, the transformational rule of insertion/addition of a constituent is applied here. However, in English construction, the inversion of an auxiliary and negative particle is evident in the parenthesis above.



Tree diagram: 4.37

However, if a speaker expects a negative reply, a negative statement precedes the negative particle ‘Na’.

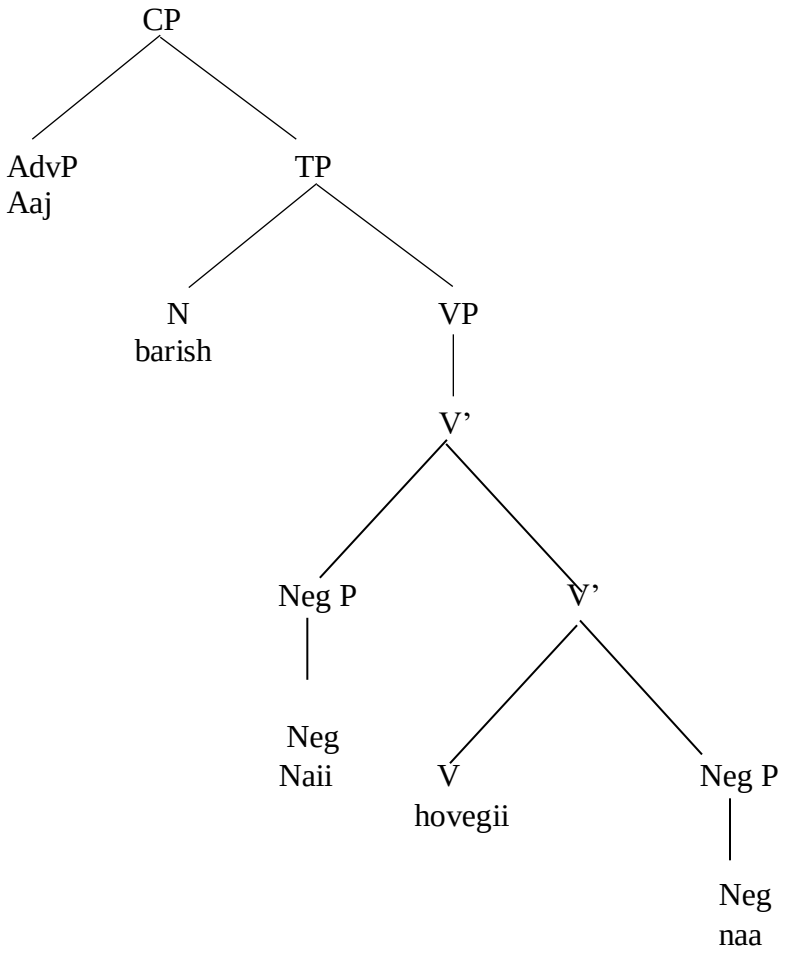
There are some differences between leading questions and neutral questions. In the leading question, there is no use of intonation at the end of the construction, while in neutral questions, the use of intonation is imperative; neutral questions may also be formed without question words like ‘Kii’, whereas leading questions are not possible without using ‘Na’. Finally, the position of the neutral question word is at the beginning of the construction. On the contrary, the position of the question particle in the leading question is usually at the end of a construction. Moreover, neutral questions induce a variety of responses that leading questions do not have (Bhattia, 2013). The leading questions in Punjabi are similar to the question tags in English.

The following leading yes-no question reveals that negative particle ‘Nai’, as well as another negative particle, are used as a question tag.

b. Aaj barish naii hovegii na? (ibid, p. 7) (‘It will not rain today, will it’?)

Today rain not be will not

The analysis of this syntactic construction by employing a bottom-up approach shows how constituents have merged with each other at each stage to form longer chunks of a construction. The main verb combines with its complement ‘Na’ to form a verb bar ‘Hovegii na’. The resulting verb bar pairs up with the negative particle to form another verb phrase; subsequently, the verb phrase integrates with the noun ‘Barish’ to form a tense phrase; finally, the tense phrase combines with the adverb of time ‘Aaj’ to form a complementizer phrase. The composition of this syntactic construction can be summarized as CP + TP + VP + V’



Tree diagram: 4.38

By employing the transformational rule to figure out the movement operation in this construction, it is evident that, once again, there is no movement of constituents involved as

far as Punjabi construction is concerned. Therefore, it may be assumed that the surface and deep structure of the above-mentioned sentence are more or less the same. However, the negative particle has been added to the affirmative construction to have an interrogative force to it. By comparing the Punjabi structure with its corresponding English construction, it is evident that the construction consists of two parts: the main clause and its question tag. As far as the main clause is concerned, there is not any movement operation involved, as we have discussed in the case of English negative construction above. However, the part of the construction is a question tag, and this part involves the movement operation called auxiliary inversion. The auxiliary inversion movement operation in English constructions has also been discussed above.

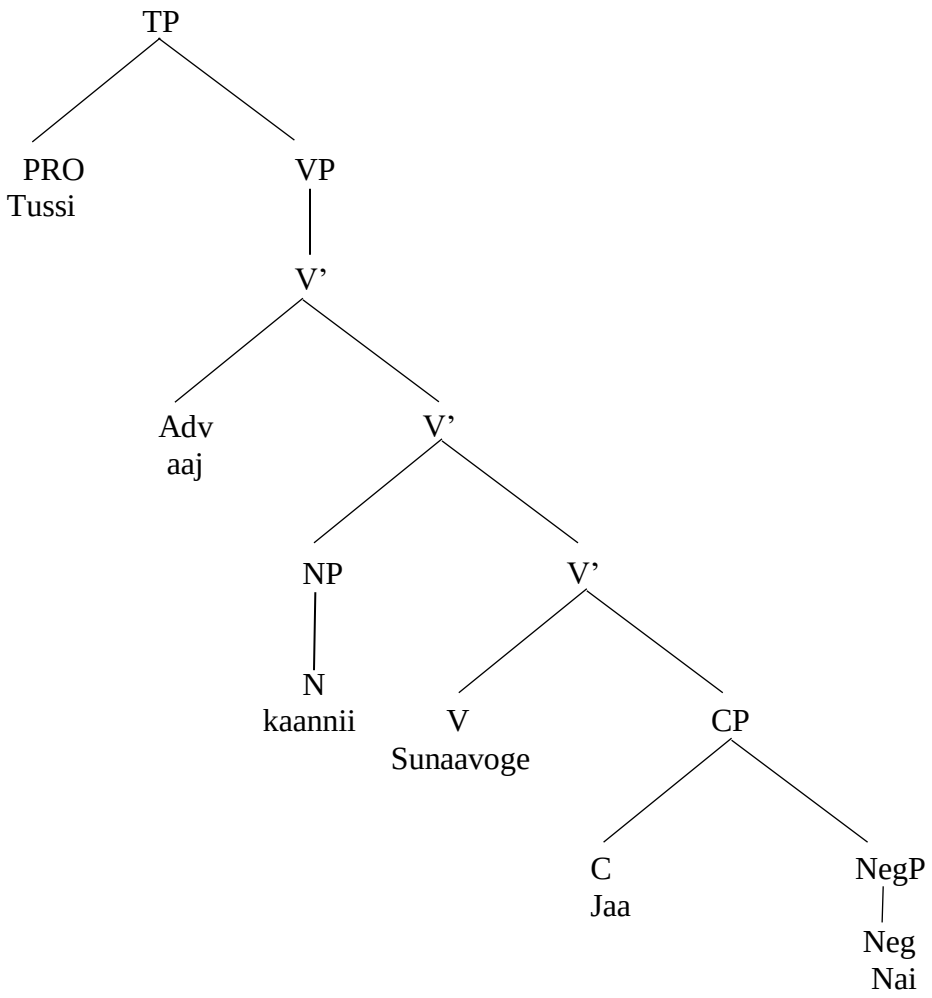
4.4.2.3. Punjabi Alternative Questions

After discussing neutral questions and leading yes-no questions in Punjabi, the third type of question used in Punjabi is alternative questions. The alternative questions are formed by attaching an expression 'Jaa/ki' meaning 'Or/That' to the right of an affirmative construction. The slash sign between these two conjunctions shows that either of the constituents can be used to form questions; moreover, the negative particle 'Naii' is also used and gets a high-raising tone (Bhatia, 2013). Furthermore, the interrogative word 'Kii' is neither used at the beginning nor at the end of the construction as this use of question at these positions may lead to ungrammatical constructions, as have been shown in the following construction:

c. Tusii aaj kaanii suNaavoge jaa/ki naii? (ibid, p. 7) ('Will you tell a story today or not?')
   You (Formal) today story tell will or not
d. * kii tussi aaj kaani suNaavoge jaa/ki naii? ('Will you tell a story today or not?')
   Will you (formal) today story tell will or not
e. *Tussi ajj Kaani suNaavoge jaa/ki naii kii? ('Will you tell a story today or not?')
   You (formal) today story tell will or not will

The constituents 'Jaa and Ki' are conjunctions; however, in syntax, they are taken as complementizers instead of conjunctions. The analysis of the construction 'A' by making use of the bottom-up approach reveals that the complementizer (formerly labeled as conjunction) 'Jaa' meaning 'Or' merges with the negative particle to form a complementizer phrase. The

complementizer phrase pairs up with the main verb to form a verb bar, and the resulting verb bar combines with the 'Kaanii' to form another verb bar; this verb bar pairs up with the adverb 'Aaj' to have a verb bar leading to the verb phrase; the verb phrase integrates with the pronoun 'Tussi' to have a tense phrase. The arrangement of the constituents in this construction can be summarized as TP + VP + V' + V' + CP. This arrangement has been depicted in the given tree diagram 4.39.



Tree diagram: 4.39

By applying the revised standard theory of transformational grammar, it is evident that there is no movement of any constituent involved to form the above-mentioned interrogative Punjabi construction, and it is formed by simply adding a complementizer/conjunction and a negative particle. The transformational rule of insertion has been applied here. The structure

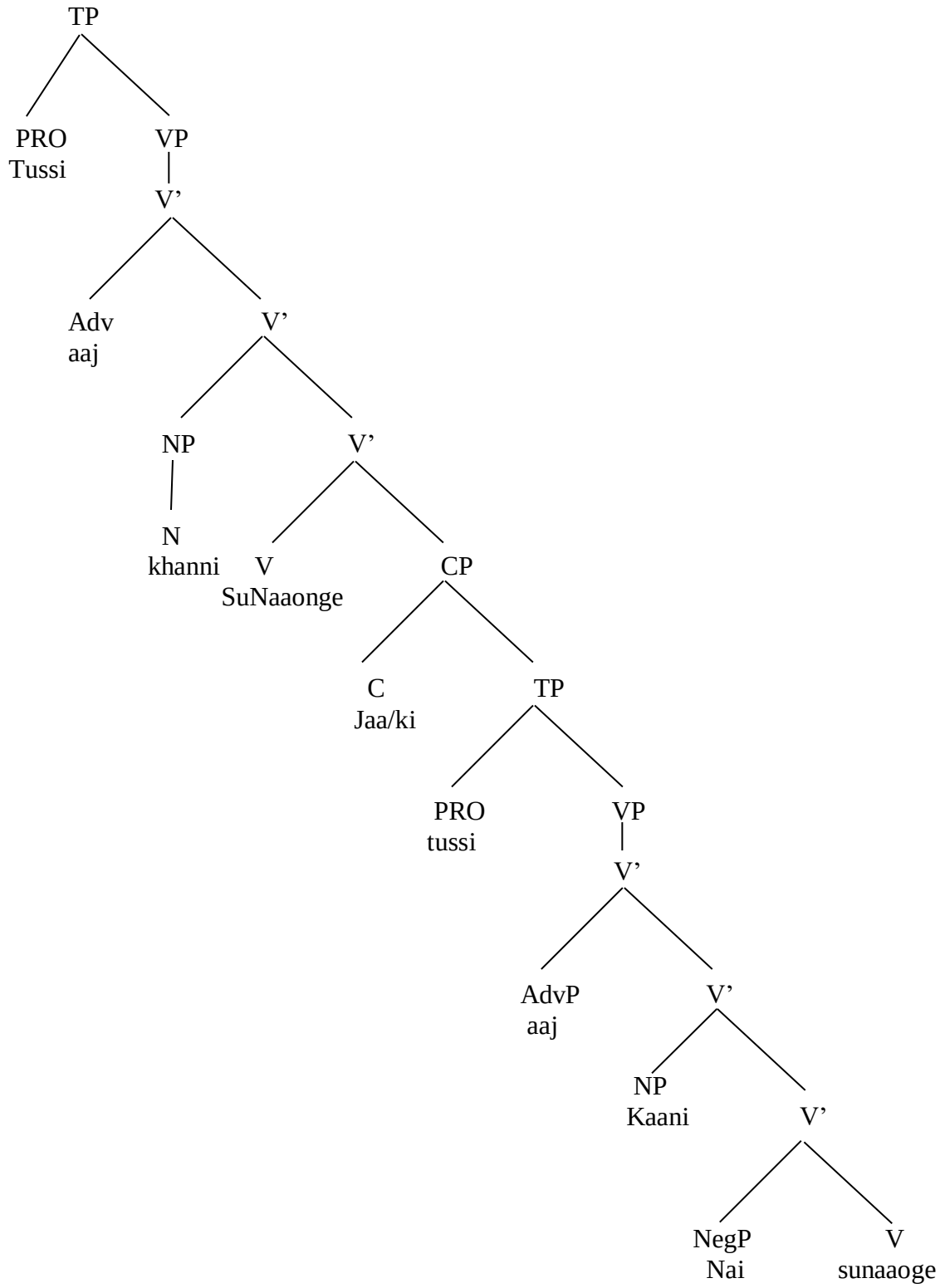
of this Punjabi syntactic construction shows that it is like a negative construction but is used as an alternative type of interrogative question. This means that an interrogative structure has been formed by adding a conjunction showing alternative propositions. By comparing this Punjabi construction to its corresponding English structure, it is clear that English uses a yes-no question with the addition of a complementizer/conjunction used to show a possible alternative. Moreover, English interrogative construction has undergone a movement operation called auxiliary inversion/head movement to form this surface structure from the underlying affirmative construction. However, no such auxiliary movement operation is seen in this Punjabi construction.

Alternative questions, in Punjabi, can also be formed by adding an affirmative clause to a negative one by means of a conjunction 'Jaa/ki' means 'or/that'. The purpose of using these compound interrogative constructions is to request an affirmative reply or to make the listener deny a given proposition.

f. Tusii ajj kaanii suNaavoge **jaa/ki** tusii ajj kaani naii suNaavoge? (ibid, p. 8)
   You today story tell will or you todat story not tell will
   ('Will you tell a story today or you will not tell a story today?')

From the merging operation of the constituents, it is evident that the negative particle 'Naii' merges with the verb 'SuNaavoge' to form a verb bar. The verb bar subsequently pairs up with the noun 'Kaani' to have another verb bar. Subsequently, the verb bar combines with the adverb of time 'Ajj' to form yet another verb bar leading to the verb phrase. The adverb 'Aaj' is used as an adjunct here. The verb phrase then integrates with the formal pronoun 'Tussi' to generate a tense phrase; the tense phrase subsequently pairs up with the conjunction to have a complementizer phrase. The merging operation up to this point is just like the merging operation of Punjabi negative constructions. As this is a compound construction, and the two independent clauses are put together through a complementizer/conjunction. The complementizer phrase further extends and pairs up with a verb from the verb bar; the verb bar merges with the noun 'Kaanii' to form another verb bar, and finally, the verb bar pairs up with the pronoun 'Tussi' to have a noun phrase. The arrangement of the constituents in this complex

construction can be summarized as TP + V' + V' +'V (VP) + CP + TP + VP + V' + V' in the tree diagram 4.40



Tree diagram: 4.40

The above merging operation and analysis of the resulting interrogative Punjabi construction show that the aforementioned construction consists of two independent clauses conjoined by a coordinate conjunction. The first clause is an affirmative construction, and the second is a negative one. By comparing this construction with the English interrogative one given above, it is clear that the English structure also consists of two independent clauses joined by a preposition 'or'. The two English clauses are, in fact, two yes-no interrogative questions rather than a combination of affirmative and negative, as is shown in Punjabi construction. Furthermore, the analysis of the English compound construction shows that the auxiliary has undergone the movement operation called auxiliary inversion; however, no such movement operation of any constituent is evident in the Punjabi construction. However, the negative particle and the complement have been inserted into Punjabi clauses; therefore, the insertion rule has been applied here in the Punjabi construction. English interrogative construction, as given above in the parenthesis, is hardly used; instead, the second clause is usually reduced to a negative particle after the conjunction. This means that the negative particle in English is usually used in place of a clause to attain brevity, and the remaining constituents of the clauses have been deleted/eliminated through deletion rules. As a result, the whole second clause has been understood but not spelt out.

After discussing the compound interrogative construction, there is another kind of alternative question construction used in which the negative particle is not employed. However, the complementizers/conjunctions 'Jaa/ki' is retained as shown in the following Punjabi interrogative construction:

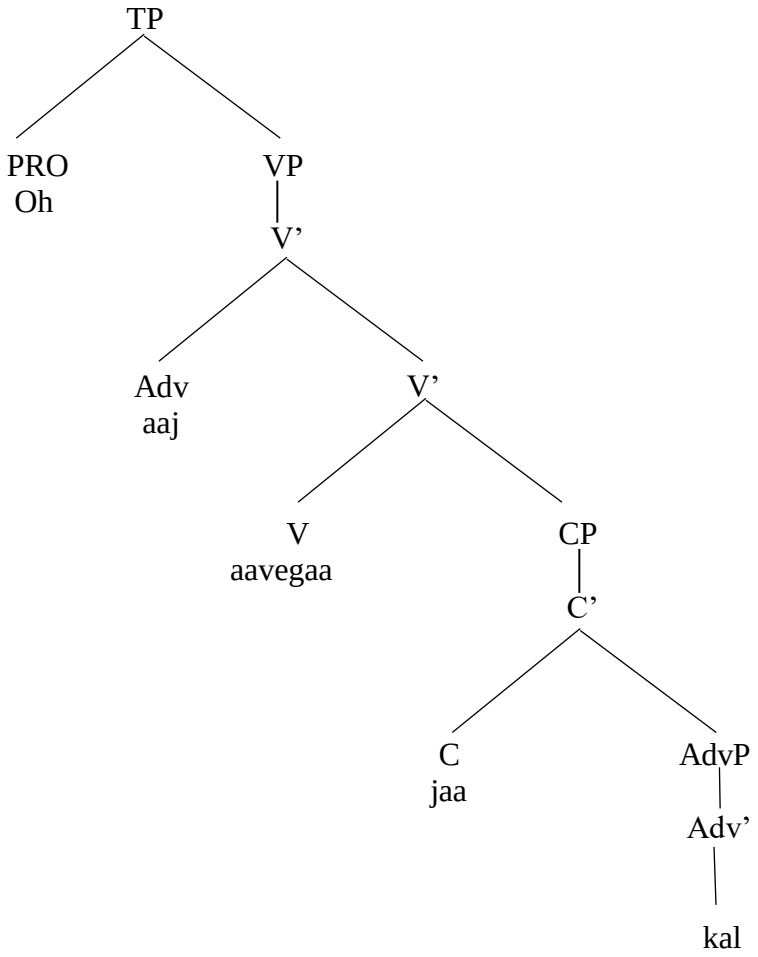
g. Oh ajj aavegaa jaa/ki kal? (ibid, p. 9) ('Will he come today or tomorrow?')
   He today come will or tomorrow

The deletion of the negative particle from this construction conveys the meaning that the person being talked about will definitely come on either of the given days, and the question of his not coming is negated here. However, the structure of the Punjabi interrogative

construction is like an affirmative construction, as is usually the case; however, it has the force of an interrogative structure.

By employing a bottom-up approach, the analysis of the aforementioned Punjabi construction shows that the complementizer/complement ‘Jaa’ merges with the adverb ‘Kal’ to form a complementizer bar. The resulting C bar merges with the verb ‘Aavegaa’ to have a verb bar; the verb bar further extends and pairs up with another adverb of time, ‘Aaj’ to form a verb bar, and finally, the verb bar merges with the noun ‘Oh’ to form a tense phrase. By comparing this Punjabi construction with its corresponding English, it is clear that the latter is a yes-no question, and according to the revised extended theory, the surface structure is the result of the movement operation called auxiliary inversion. However, no movement of any constituent is seen in the Punjabi construction and syntactically, it is like an affirmative construction but has the force of an interrogative construction.

However, the complement ‘Jaa’ has been added after the first clause, so the transformational rule of insertion/addition of constituent has been applied. Moreover, the second clause has been expressed by employing only the adverb ‘Kal’. This means that the subject of the clause ‘Oh’ and the following verb ‘Aveegaa’ have been deleted through the deletion transformational rule. Once again, the complete clause has been understood but is not spelled out. Besides, the positions of both the adjuncts, i.e., adverbs of time used in both Punjabi and English constructions, are also quite different, and this is due to a structural disparity between the two languages. The arrangement of the constituents of the aforementioned construction has been given below in the tree diagram 4.41. The arrangement of the constituent in the following construction can be summarized as TP + VP + V’ + CP. The following tree diagram illustrates the points of various constituents in tree diagram 4.41.



Tree diagram: 4.41

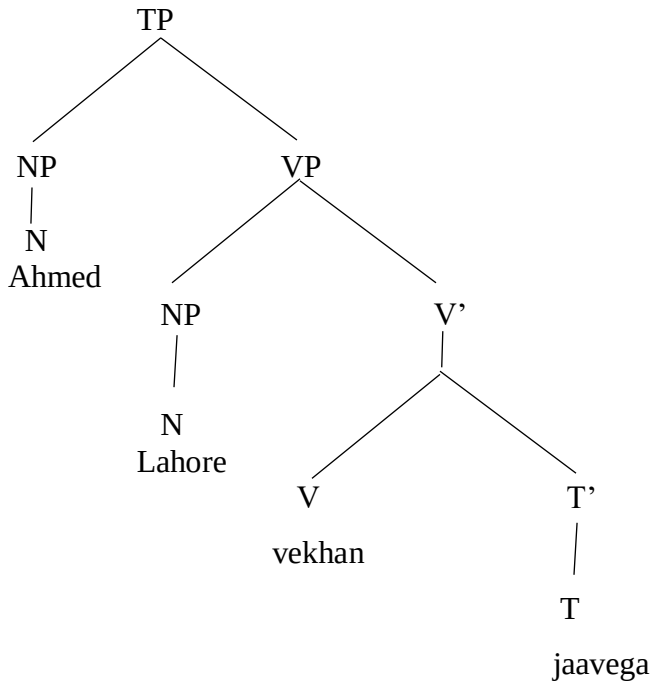
4.4.2.4. Punjabi Echo Questions

The fourth kind of question used in Punjabi is echo questions. These questions are used not by the first speaker instead by the second one to seek clarification of what has been said by the first speaker. The echo questions entail the repetition of complete or some of the constituents spoken by the first speaker. The utterances produced by two speakers are usually in the form of affirmative statements. This means that an affirmative statement by the first speaker is followed by more or less the same affirmative statement. The statement uttered by the second speaker is usually taken as an echo question in Punjabi. The elements which are selected to be clarified by the questioner are retained with the rising tone. The other constituents of the sentence may be deleted (Bhatia, 2013).

a. Ahmed Lahore VehKan jaavegaa. (Bhattia, 2013, p. 28). (‘Ahmed will go to visit Lahore.’)
   Ahmed Lahore visit go will
b. Ahmed Lahore veKan jaavegaa? (‘Will Ahmed go to visit Lahore?’)
   Ahmed Lahore visit go will
c. Lahore VeKan jaavegaa? (‘Will go to visit Lahore?’)
   Lahore visit go will
d. VeKan jaavegaa? (‘Will go (to visit Lahore)?’)
   Visit go will
e. Jaavegaa? (will go)
   Go will
f. Ahmed (jaavega)? (‘Ahmed (will go’)
   Ahmed (go will)
g. Lahore (jaavega)? (‘Lahore (will go’)
   Lahore (go will)

The constituent ‘VeKan’ has been written in this way to show stress on the second syllable. The construction ‘B’ above is the ditto copy of structure ‘A’; however, it is taken as an echo question. The different variants of the echo questions from ‘B’ to ‘D’ have been analyzed utilizing a bottom-up merging approach. The construction ‘D’ above syntactically looks like an affirmative structure, but is taken as an echo question, and its X-bar analysis would be the same as the analysis of an affirmative construction. The infinitive verb ‘Vekan’ merges with the tense bar ‘Jaavegaa’, showing future tense to have a verb bar. As Punjabi is a head-final language, the tense bar follows the verb bar; the resulting verb bar merges with the noun phrase ‘Lahore’ to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase finally pairs up with the noun ‘Ahmed’ to form a tense phrase. The aforementioned construction can be summed up as TP + VP + V’. On the contrary, in English construction, the auxiliary ‘will’, has been used to show tense, whereas in Punjabi, as usual, tense is marked by adding a suffix to the main verb ‘Javegaa’. The suffix ‘Gaa’ is used to show future tense.

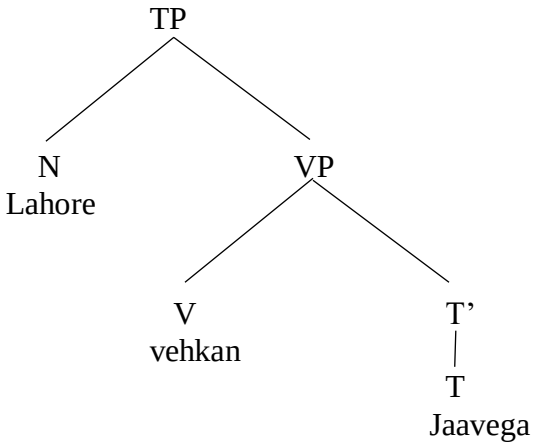
By comparing this echo question to its counterpart question in English given in the brackets above, it is clear that the echo question is in the form of a plane statement, which has the force of an interrogative question. The echo question uttered not by the first speaker but by the listener induces the first speaker to respond back to his earlier assertion. As the echo question is syntactically similar to an affirmative statement, no movement of constituent takes place in forming this question. On the contrary, its counterpart in English has undergone a movement operation called auxiliary inversion, and the auxiliary 'will' move from the T bar position to the C position in CP. Another syntactical difference observed here is the arrangement of the main and infinitival verbs in both constructions. In Punjabi construction, the infinitival verbs precede the main verb, as shown above, and in English construction, the infinitival verbs follow the main verbs. The tree diagram below shows the arrangement of the constituents of the aforementioned syntactic construction:



Tree diagram: 4.42

Moreover, the construction 'C' 'Lahore VeKan jaavegaa? (Will go to visit Lahore)?', given below, shows the echo construction is used without subject: The noun in this structure has not been used as the second speaker does not want to repeat the noun, or the noun may be

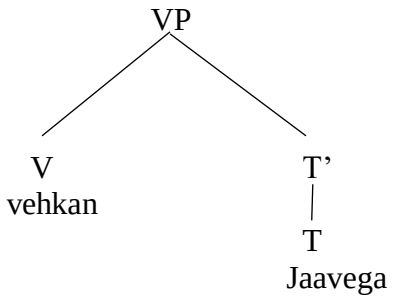
understood. This shows that the transformational rule of deletion has been applied to this tense phrase, and as a result, the noun has been deleted. In other words, the noun has been assumed by the speaker, and has not been spelled out. By employing the bottom-up X bar model, it is evident that the infinitival verb ‘Vekan’ merges with the auxiliary form showing future tense ‘Jaavegaa’ to constitute a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase merges with the noun ‘Lahore’ to have a tense phrase. The corresponding construction in English given above in the brackets is also used without a subject. The arrangement of the constituents in this construction can be summarized as TP + VP. The verb phrase of Punjabi construction consists of a verb and an auxiliary as a complement. This is because Punjabi is a head-final language. The tree diagram below shows the arrangement of the constituents of the aforementioned Punjabi syntactic construction.



Tree diagram: 4.43

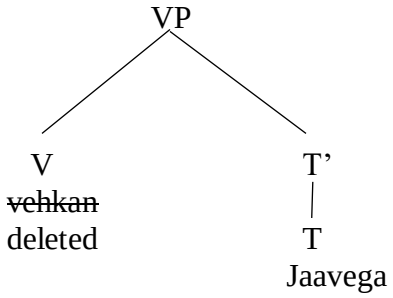
The Punjabi construction ‘D’ ‘VeKan jaavegaa? (Will go?)’ given above is a combination of auxiliary verb plus verb and other constituents which are not stated here, but this verb phrase has the force of an echo question. In this case, as mentioned above, the main verb ‘Vehkan’ merges with the auxiliary verb ‘Jaavegaa’ to have a verb phrase. The other bars, like an adverb and noun bars in this case are null and are not spelt out. This shows that the deletion rule has been applied here, and as a result, the subject and the complement ‘Lahore’ got deleted. The same is the case with its corresponding English verb phrase where the tense auxiliary merges with the main verb to form a tense phrase; the other constituents like adverb

and noun remain null and, therefore are not spelled out and got deleted due to the application of deletion rule. The arrangement of the constituents of the aforementioned Punjabi syntactic construction has been given below:

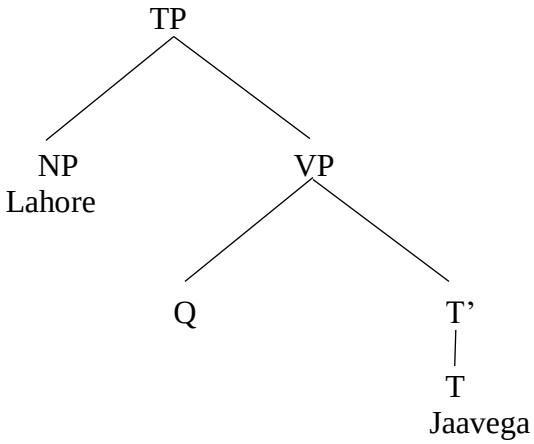


Tree diagram: 4.44

Finally, the construction 'E' and 'F' respectively are also instances of echo questions whereby the echo questions have been formed by using the main verb 'Javegaa' in 'E' and a noun 'Ahmed' in 'F'. In the Punjabi construction 'G' above, the echo question is a constituent, i.e., a noun 'Lahore', whereas the verb 'Javegaa' is optional. This means that these constituents of the constructions have been spelled out, and the remaining constituents, though understood, are deleted by applying the deletion rule. The deletion rule has also been applied to the English clauses, where only one of the constituents has been retained while the other constituents got deleted. All these echo questions show that the second speaker utters a complete construction or parts of it to ask a question or, rather to clarify a proposition put forward by the first speaker.



Tree diagram: 4.45



Tree diagram: 4.46

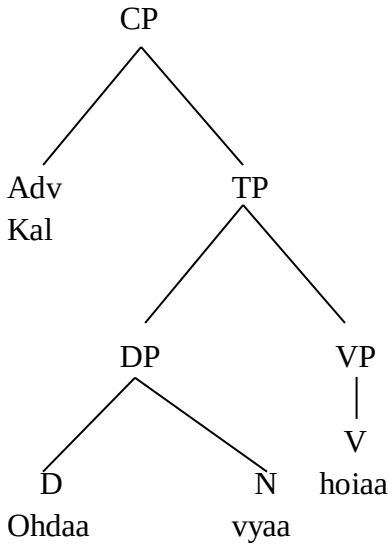
Besides these four kinds of yes-no questions, expressions like ‘Sac (i)’ means ‘True’, ‘Te’ means ‘So’, and ‘Eve ai’ means ‘It is So’ may be preceded by a statement to constitute echo questions. The statement combined with these particles is usually the same one uttered by the first speaker (Bhatia, 2013, p. 29). Any of these particles mentioned above may be utilized to form an echo question like the one uttered by the speaker ‘B’ which is as follows:

Speaker A: Kal oh da vyaa hoiaa. (ibid, p. 29). (‘Yesterday, he got married yesterday.’)

Yesterday his marriage be was

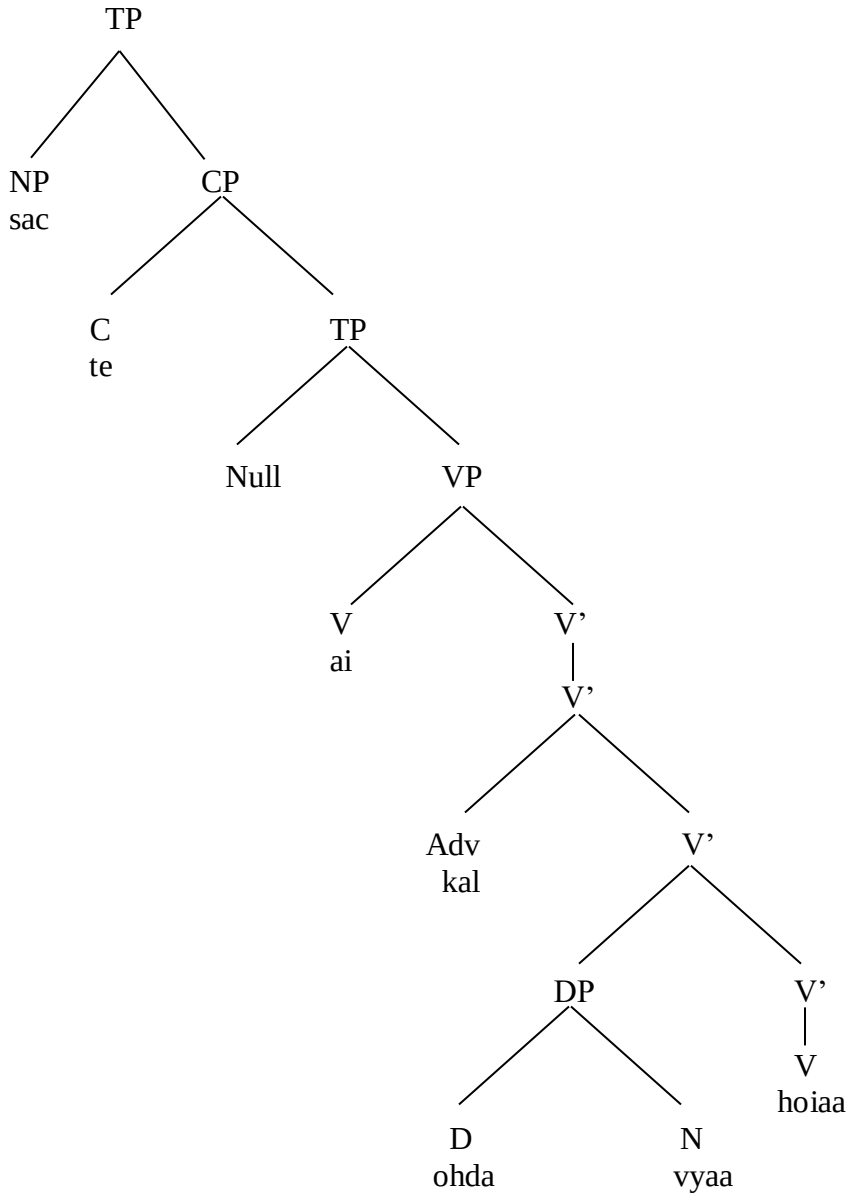
Speaker B: Sac (i)/te/eve ai kal oh da vyaa hoiaa? (‘True/so/is it so that yesterday he got married?’) *True so/it is yesterday his marriage be was*

As mentioned earlier by, adding anyone of the given particles, for example, ‘Sac (i)/te/eve’ to the statement of the first speaker, results in the formation of an echo question. The analysis of Punjabi construction by using the bottom-up merging operation shows that the determiner phrase ‘Oh da Vyaa’ meaning ‘His/her marriage’ merges the past form of the verb ‘Hoiaa’ ‘was’ to form a tense phrase. The resulting tense merges with the adverb ‘Kal’ to have a complementizer phrase. The hierarchical arrangement of the constituents in the tree diagram can be summarized as CP + TP + VP.



Tree diagram: 4.47

By applying the bottom-up merging operation of the constituents to the statement spoken by speaker ‘B’ above ‘Sac (i)/te/eve ai kal oh da vyaa hoiaa?’, it is evident that the verb ‘Hoiaa’ merges with the determiner phrase ‘Oh da vyaa’ to have a verb bar; the resulting verb bar pairs up with the adverb to have another verb bar. The verb bar pairs up with the verb ‘Ai’ to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase then combines with the complementizer to have a complementizer phrase, and finally, the complementizer phrase integrates with the noun to have a tense phrase. The arrangement of the constituents in the statement spoken by speaker ‘B’ can be summarized here as TP + CP + TP + VP + V’ + V’

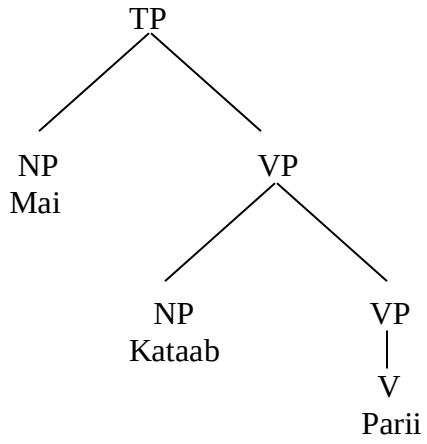


Tree diagram: 4.48

Finally, the yes-no echo questions are formed by responding to the previous speaker's questions by changing the intonational patterns. The echo questions like these may be constructed by either using a different intonational pattern to clarify whether the previous speaker has asked a question or by appending a statement to the beginning of the initial question as shown in constructions 'B' and 'C', respectively (Bhatia 2013).

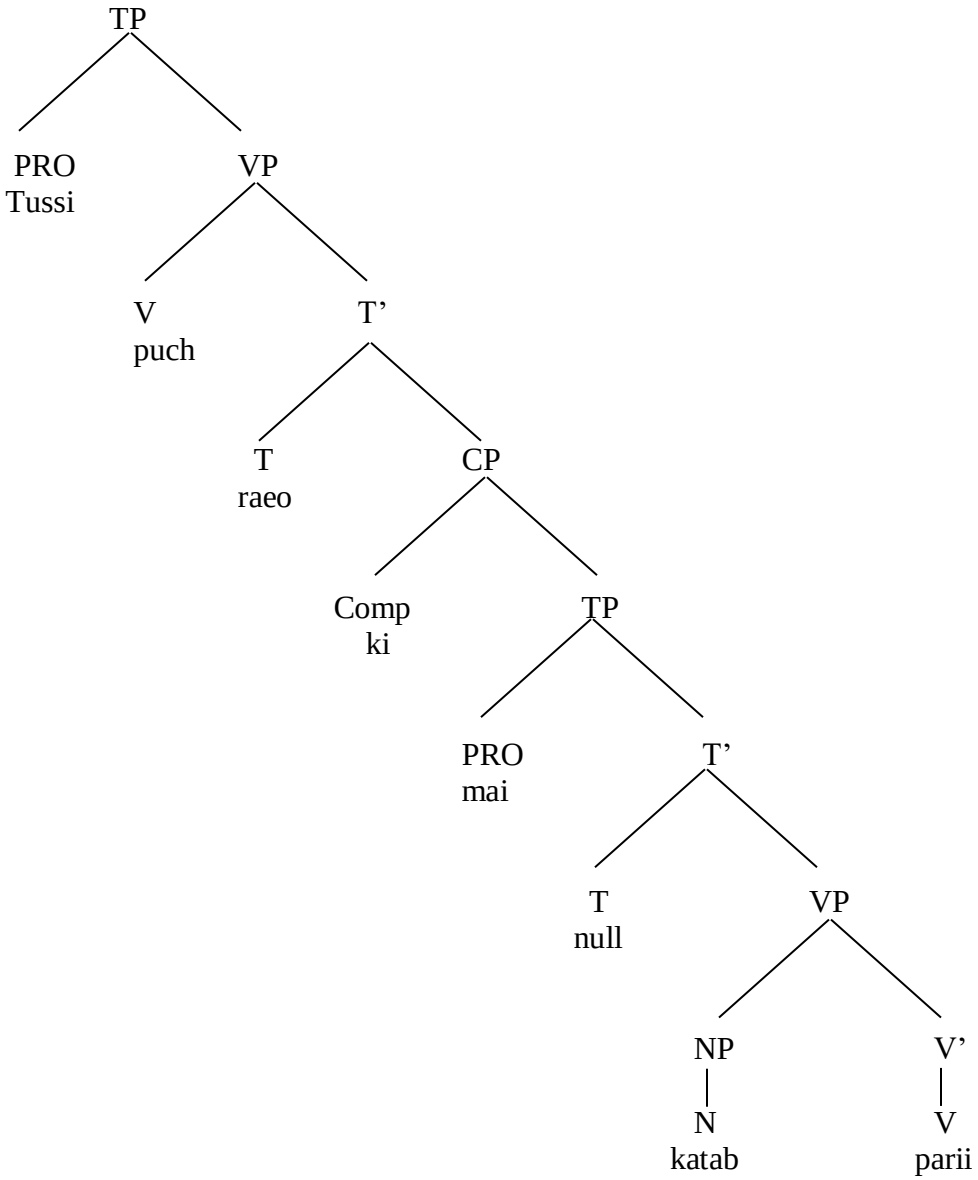
a. Tussi kataab paRii? (ibid, p. 31) (‘Did you read the book?’)
   You (formal) book read
b. Mai Kataab paRii? (‘Did I read the book?’)
   I book read
c. Tussi puch rae o kii mai kataab paRii? (‘Are you asking whether I read the book?’)
   You (formal) ask ing whether I book read

The bottom-up analysis of the aforementioned sentence ‘B’ shows that the accusative noun ‘Kataab’ merges with the verb ‘PaRii’ to form a verb phrase. The resulting verb phrase merges with the pronoun ‘Mai’ to form a tense phrase. Apparently, it is seen as an affirmative construction, but it is the echo of the statement given in ‘A’; therefore, it is used as an echo question in Punjabi. Syntactically, it is an affirmative construction as it does not involve the movement of any constituent, and it may be assumed that the surface and the deep structures, in this case, are identical. By comparing it its corresponding English constructions given in the brackets above, it is evident that the movement of the auxiliary is involved from the T bar position to the C bar position within CP. As mentioned earlier, such movement of constituent is called auxiliary inversion. This disparity of Punjabi and English syntactic structures at the surface level may have an impact on learners learning the English language -- they may not use auxiliary inversion in generating questions.



Tree diagram: 4.49

The structure of Punjabi construction ‘C’ above shows that it is a combination of a dependent clause ‘Tussi puch rae o’ followed by an independent clause ‘Mai kataab paRii’. The two clauses are joined by the conjunction ‘Kii’. This syntactic construction, despite its structure, itself shows echo questions, and the assertion of the previous speaker ‘A’ is also understood by this. By applying the analytical model, it is evident that the Punjabi echo question is a combination of TP plus CP, as this complex construction consists of two clauses connected by a complementizer. On the contrary, its corresponding construction in English (given in the brackets above) shows that syntactically, it is different from the Punjabi structure. The English construction consists of an interrogative clause followed by a dependent clause as a complement to the preceding clause. The interrogative construction shows that the movement of the auxiliary from the T bar to the C bar within CP is involved. As a result, the resulting structure of English construction would be CP plus TP in comparison to the Punjabi structure, which is TP plus CP. From the comparison, it is also evident that the frequency of echo questions is less in English as compared to their frequency in Punjabi. The following tree diagram shows the arrangement of the constituents in Punjabi construction.



Tree diagram: 4.50

After discussing Punjabi closed-ended syntactic constructions at length, the main points with respect to Punjabi these syntactic constructions and their counterparts in English have been summarized below:

a. There are four different kinds of closed-ended questions namely neutral questions, leading questions, alternative questions, and echo questions used in Punjabi. Neutral questions are formed by adding the question word 'Kii' to the beginning of the

question, and it does not invoke any response. The question word ‘Kii’ is equivalent to the English question word ‘What’. The question word ‘Kii’ is used at the beginning and not at the end of a question because it would lead to ungrammatical construction in Punjabi. The deep and surface structures of these kinds of neutral questions are identical, and there is no movement of the constituent involved to generate surface structures. This is because Punjabi is one of the in-situ languages and does not involve the movement of question words to form interrogative constructions.

b. The neutral questions are also formed by using a negative statement along with a rising tone. In such constructions, the question word ‘Kii’ is not used. In other words, a negative statement with a raising intonation at the end of the construction is used as a neutral question in English. In comparison to these structures, English uses yes-no interrogative questions, which means that English auxiliary and negative constituents are used at the beginning of the question by undergoing the auxiliary inversion transformational rule. In Punjabi, no such transformational rules are applied to this sort of question. However, English also makes use of raising tone to ask questions by employing raising tone; nevertheless, the use of tone to ask questions in Punjabi is quite common as it is one of the tonal languages.

c. Punjabi leading questions are formed by inserting/adding the negative particle ‘Na’ at the end of the construction. Punjabi-leading questions correspond to question tags in English. From the surface structure of Punjabi leading questions, it is evident that the deep structure and surface structure are the same in this regard except for the transformational rule of addition of a constituent ‘Na’, which is added to generate leading questions in Punjabi. On the contrary, the corresponding question tags in English undergo transformational rule, i.e., auxiliary inversion in tags.

d. Punjabi alternative closed-ended questions are formed by appending complementizers/conjunctions such as ‘Jaa/ki’ followed by a negative particle ‘Naii’ to the end of an affirmative statement. This means that the transformational rule of addition/insertion has been applied here once again as the complementizers ‘Jaa/ki’ and the negative particle to the affirmative syntactic construction; on the other hand, English yes-no questions are generated by making use of the same complementizer

'Or' and a negative particle 'Not' to the end of the question as well as the auxiliary inversion rule. Thus, English constructions utilize addition and auxiliary inversion rules to form such constructions.

1. To form alternative questions in Punjabi, conjunctive particles such as 'Ja/ka' are used to combine two independent clauses; the resulting structure would be an independent clause plus a complement/conjunctive particle and an independent clause. The first of these clauses is usually an affirmative one, and the following clause is a negative one. Due to their being declarative clauses, the structure would be TP + CP. This shows that no transformation of the constitution has taken place in forming this kind of alternative question. In other words, the surface structure and the corresponding deep structure in Punjabi with regard to this syntactic construction remain almost the same. By comparing this compound interrogative structure of Punjabi with its corresponding English construction, it is evident that the transformation rule, i.e., auxiliary inversion has taken place in both clauses; therefore, the resulting arrangement of the constituent in English would be CP + CP.
2. The alternative questions in Punjabi are also generated by using the conjunctive particle 'Jaa/ki' and by deleting the negative particle. The resulting construction would be similar to the affirmative structure, but the use of tone at the end of the construction has the force of an interrogative construction. Once again, no movement of any constituent is involved, but the transformational rules of addition and deletion are applied. The conjunctive particle is added, and the negative particle is deleted to generate this structure; however, its corresponding construction in English does undergo auxiliary inversion movement, as is usually the case. The only difference between this kind of alternative construction in Punjabi and the one mentioned above is the deletion of the negative particle in this case and the retention of the particle in the former case.
3. The fourth kind of yes-no question in Punjabi is called the echo question. The echo questions are formed by repeating the same statement by speaker 'B', which was earlier uttered by speaker A. In echo questions, the whole statement or some parts of the statement are repeated by the second speaker according to the kind of information he

wants to confirm. In other words, echo questions are asked to get confirmation from the first speaker about the proposition he has made. By asking the question, the second speaker wants to get confirmation. The echo question is in the form of an affirmative construction with a rising tone at the end; however, its corresponding structure in English is a proper direct yes-no question. This means that in the case of the Punjabi close-ended syntactic constructions, there is no difference between a surface structure and a deep structure, whereas in the case of an English sentence, the auxiliary inversion movement rule has been applied to the deep structure.

4. Finally, the echo questions may also be formed by employing particles such as 'Sac (i), 'te' and 'Eve ai' meaning 'true, so, is it so' respectively to the beginning of a statement uttered by speaker B in response to Speaker A's statement spoken earlier. The Punjabi constructions formed in this way may be in the form of an affirmative statement but are used as a form of echo question. On the contrary, the English construction is also an affirmative structure when the aforementioned particles are added to it; however, in the case of the third particle 'is it so', the construction changes to an interrogative one. This shows that by using this particle, the movement operation called inversion of the auxiliary is also observed here. Otherwise, both constructions yield more or less the same qualities.

The bottom line is that there are a variety of yes-no questions used in Punjabi, and most of them are declarative constructions whereby negative and conjunctive particles are added through the transformational rule of addition. However, due to the raising tone at the end of these constructions, they have been used as interrogative constructions. As discussed above, mostly, different yes-no questions used in Punjabi do not involve any movement of the constituent, and as a result, the deep structure and the surface structure remain the same.

4.5. Conclusion

It is concluded from the analysis of the Punjabi and English negative, passive, and closed-ended syntactic constructions that Punjabi and English are two distinct languages. The negative constructions of both languages have more similarities despite a few differences. This means that it is not challenging for Punjabi learners to learn English negative constructions; Punjabi passive constructions have more dissimilarities in comparison to English passives, except for a few similarities. Therefore, Punjabi learners would have to make a conscious effort and reinforcement to master English passives. Finally, the closed-ended constructions of both languages also have dissimilarities; however, they do not pose much challenge to SOV learners.

Chapter 5

Data Analysis

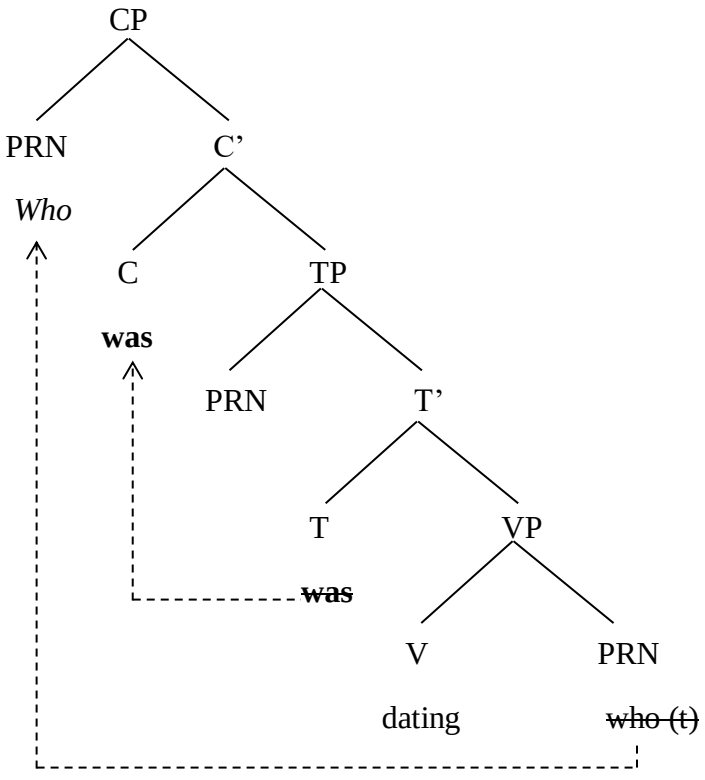
This chapter is an extension of the previous chapter; in chapter 4, the three types of syntactic constructions, i.e., negative, passive, and closed-ended Punjabi syntactic constructions, have been analyzed through the X-bar model to ascertain the transformational and movement rules applied to the deep structures to generate surface structures. Subsequently, the three types of Punjabi constructions have been compared to their counterparts in English to study the syntactic variations and transformational and movement rules applied to these syntactic constructions. In this chapter, the remaining three types of Punjabi syntactic constructions, namely open-ended, imperative, and exclamatory, have been studied by applying the theory of the revised extended standard transformational generative grammar to discern how surface structures are generated from underlying or deep structures by applying transformational and movement rules. In this regard, first the examples of English constructions have been given followed by a thorough analysis of Punjabi syntactic constructions.

5.1. Open-ended Syntactic Constructions in English

In English, 'Wh' or open-ended questions are usually formed by moving the 'Wh' word to the beginning of the construction followed by an auxiliary denoting the tense of the construction; the surface structure of 'Wh' questions is different from its corresponding deep structure in English as in deep structure the 'Wh' words are usually placed at the end of the construction. The movement of the 'Wh' word in interrogative sentences is due to transformational rules applied to the underlying or deep structure. For example, the deep structure of a sentence like 'Who was she dating' is 'She was dating who'. From the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the verb 'dating' merges with the pronoun 'Who' to form a verb phrase, the resulting verb phrase merged with the helping verb 'Was' to form a tense bar; subsequently, the T bar merges with the pronoun 'Who' to form the final TP. The resulting TP merged with interrogative C, and subsequently, C merges with CP to form a

complementizer phrase. To alter this deep structure to the surface structure, transformational rules are applied. By applying the transformational rule, the auxiliary located at the T bar in the deep structure moves from there to the C bar position. The movement operation is due to the C bar having the feature of TNS, which attracts the auxiliary from the T bar to the C bar. Moreover, 'Who', which is a pronoun moved from VP to CP, is also due to transformational rules. The CP has a 'Wh' feature, and as a result, it may attract a 'Wh' word from the end to the beginning of the construction. The first movement, which moves auxiliary from the T bar position to the head C position, is called head movement. The second movement, which moves the 'Wh' word from the VP position to the final CP position, is another kind of movement operation called 'Wh' movement/operator movement (Radford, 2009). The same has been depicted in the following tree diagram:

a. Who was he dating? (Radford, 2009 p. 183)



Tree diagram: 5.1

5.1.1. WH-movement as Copy and Deletion

The movement operations in the above construction 'A' are examples of head movement where an auxiliary is moved, and secondly, the 'Wh' movement where a question word moves from the final position to the specifier position within the complementizer phrase, which is called 'Wh' movement or operator movement. In the earlier works of Noam Chomsky from the 1970s to 1980s, Chomsky's copy theory of movement involves two sub-operations: copying and deletion. According to this theory, the moved constituent leaves behind a trace from where it is originally moved. According to this, a trace is fully copied from where it is extracted and leaves behind a null copy of the trace. In other words, it leaves behind nothing from its place of extraction. The analysis of the following syntactic construction illustrates the concept of copy deletion operation (Radford, 2009).

b. What hope of finding survivors could there be? (Radford, 2009 p. 189)

c. What hope could be there of finding survivors?

Analyzing the first construction, it is evident that 'What hope of finding survisors' is used as a quantifier phrase. This quantifier phrase is used at the end of the construction in deep structure, and the whole phrase is moved to the initial position by means of a transition called 'Wh' movement. This shows that the movement operation is simple in the first sentence. However, if we pay attention to the second construction, the older version of the theory does not help us in explaining it. This is because half of the 'Wh' phrase moved, leaving behind half of the remaining phrase. The answer to this kind of movement is provided by the copy and deletion theory. According to this, half of the phrase has been copied and is placed at the beginning of the sentence, which results in the following interrogative syntactic construction:

d. What hope ~~of finding survisors~~ could there be ~~what hope~~ of finding survisors?

By applying this theory, the initial part of the phrase 'What hope' has been moved to the initial position while the remaining part of the quantifier phrase retains its position at the end of the construction. The part of the phrase that is moved is deleted, while it is the remaining

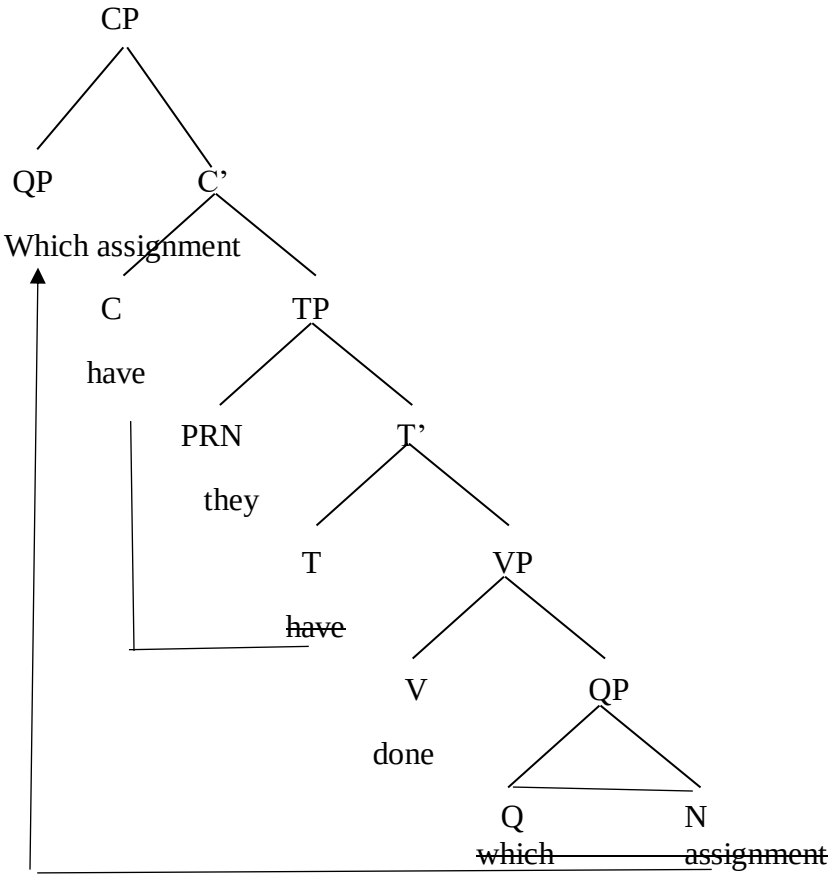
part of the phrase that remains undeleted (Radford, 2009). The phenomenon of the copy and deletion can also be explained by observing the speech of the children uttering such structures. At the initial stage, they copy a part of the phrase and use it at the beginning of the sentence, but they do not delete the same part of the sentence at the end of the sentence. In other words, they apply the rule of the copy but are unable to apply the deletion rule. However, at a later stage, they manage to fix this issue on their own or with the help of someone.

5.1.2. Pied-Piping and Convergence

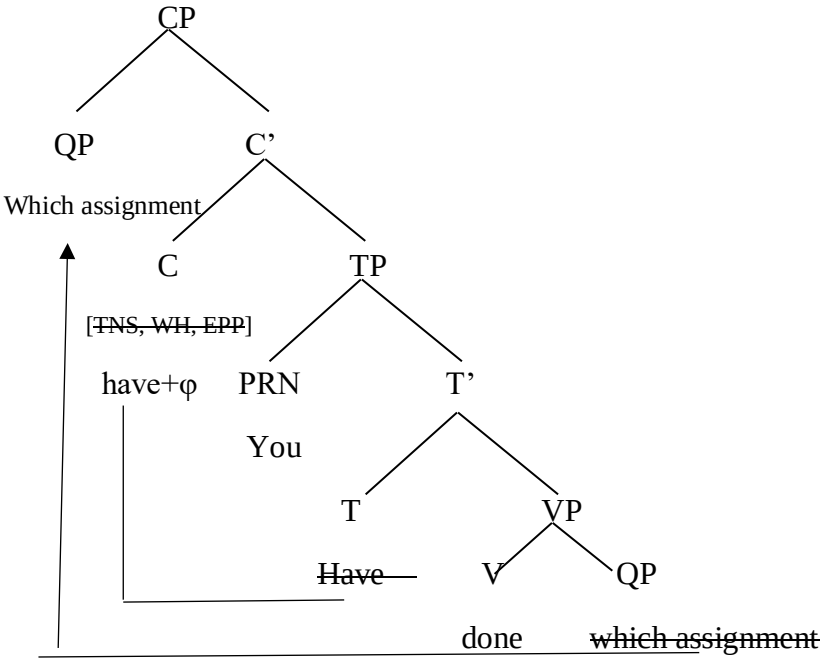
This kind of movement involves the movement of the quantifier phrase to the initial position in surface structure. In deep structure, the quantifier phrase is placed at the end of the construction, and through transformational movement, the whole of the phrase is moved (Radford, 2009). To understand this sort of movement, let us analyze how the following surface structure merged from the deep structure.

e. Which assignment have they done? (Radford, 2009 p. 198)

The deep structure of this sentence is ‘They have done which assignment.’ The analysis of this sentence through the X bar theory shows that the quantifier phrase ‘Which assignment’ is used as a complement of the verb merged with the verb to form a verb phrase. The resulting verb phrase merges with the tense constituent ‘Have’ to form a T bar; subsequently, the T bar merges with the pronoun ‘They’ to form the final TP. To change this deep structure to surface structure, two movement operations need to be performed: head movement of auxiliary at T bar to C bar, and the movement of quantifier phrase from verb phrase position to CP. The important aspect is the quantifier phrase is fully moved to the CP position instead of just the ‘Wh’ word. Such a kind of movement in which the whole phrase is moved from verb phrase position to CP position is said to be pied-piping. The movement of the auxiliary from the T bar position to the C bar position is due to the fact that C has a TNS feature which allows it to move the auxiliary from T to C; moreover, the CP has a ‘Wh’ feature, which allows it to attract ‘Wh phrase’ at the initial position. The movement operations have been shown in the X bar tree diagram 5.2 below.



Tree diagram: 5.2



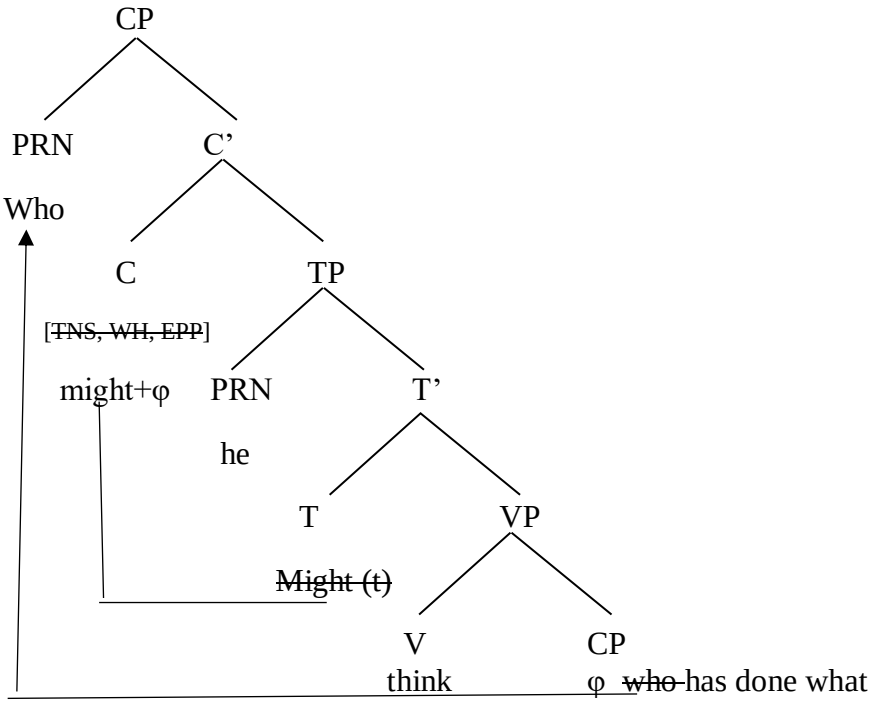
Tree diagram: 5.3

5.1.3. Attract Closest Principle

From the above interrogative English constructions, only one ‘Wh’ word has been used to form an open-ended question. The question arises in a structure where more than one ‘Wh’ words have been used. To generate such a construction that is grammatically acceptable, the attract-closest principle is used. According to this principle, the ‘Wh’, which is near the pronoun in the deep structure shall be moved to the CP position rather than the other ‘Wh’ word, which is located at a distance. To explain this principle, the following construction is analyzed to show how it is transformed from deep structure to surface structure

c. Who might he think has done what? (Radford, 2009 p. 215)

The deep structure of this construction is ‘He might think who has done what’. From the merging operation of the constituents, it is evident that the question word ‘What’ which is used as a pronoun here, merged with the verb ‘Done’ to form a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase merged with the auxiliary ‘Has’ to form a T bar; the T bar merges with the interrogative pronoun ‘Who’ to form TP. The resulting TP merges with the verb ‘Think’ to form a verb phrase; subsequently, the verb phrase merges with the auxiliary ‘Might’ to form a T bar; the resulting T bar merges with the pronoun ‘She’ to form TP. As mentioned earlier in this affirmative sentence, two ‘Wh’ words have been used. To make a grammatical construction, one of the given constituents will be moved to the initial position, followed by an auxiliary to make an interrogative construction. The attract-closest principle helps in solving this issue and allows the closest question word ‘Who’ instead of ‘What’ move to the initial position. The auxiliary used in the main first clause also moved from the T bar position to the C position. This movement of the auxiliary is said to be a head movement, which is due to C having a TNS feature. It helps to attract auxiliary movement. Thus, the resulting construction, which has been formed from the aforementioned merging operation is analyzed (Radford, 2009).



Tree diagram: 5.4

In the above section, four kinds of transformational rules have been discussed. These include auxiliary movement, also called head movement, and question word movement from quantifier position to CP which is called copy and deletion. In this movement, a part of a phrase that has been copied is moved to another position; the copy leaves behind a trace of itself that has been deleted. The third kind of rule is called pied-piping, whereby not only the question word but also its complement has been moved to the quantifier position with a verb phrase to CP. Pied-piping means that the question word and its complement move to the initial position to form interrogative questions. The last kind of movement involves the attract-closet principle. This principle is used when there are two question words and is used in the give deep structure. To make a grammatical surface structure, this principle is applied, which states that the nearest question word moves from its deep structure's position to the initial position followed by an auxiliary. After discussing open-ended questions in English briefly, Punjabi open-ended questions have been discussed in detail in the next section to figure out the kind of movement operations used there; moreover, the similarities and dissimilarities with regard to question words in both languages have also been highlighted.

5.1.4. Punjabi Open-ended Syntactic Constructions

The structure of Punjabi question word interrogative construction is quite different from the syntax of English open-ended question words for two basic reasons: the question word is not usually used at the beginning of the questions, and there is usually no auxiliary movement, which is called head movement in the English language. To find out more syntactical discrepancies and similarities (if any), Punjabi open-ended interrogative constructions have been analyzed and discussed on the basis of bottom-up merging operations used in the X-bar theory.

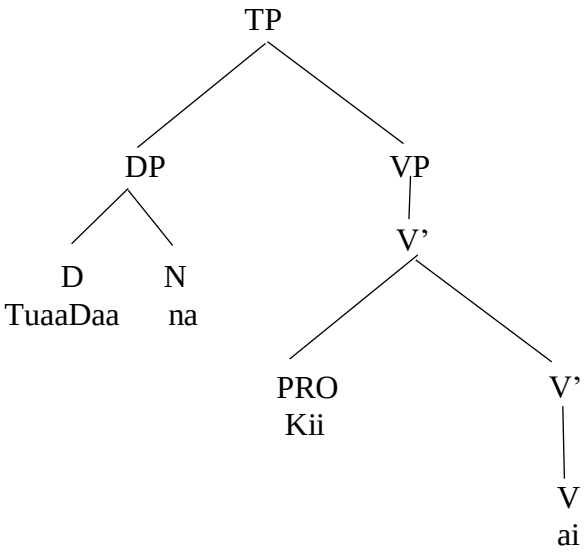
a. TuaaDaa naa kii ai? (Bhattia, 2013, p. 9). (‘What is your name?’)
Your name what is.

The analysis of the aforementioned surface structure shows the subject ‘Tuaadaa naa’ is used as a complement here; the noun is followed by the question word ‘Kii’ used as a pronoun, and this is followed by the main verb ‘Ai’ which indicates number and tense. The possessive adjective ‘TuaaDaa’ is used for both masculine and feminine; therefore, the verb does not show the gender of the subject. As Punjabi is a wh-in-situ language, the question word ‘Kii’ will remain intact and does not move. In other words, the deep and the surface structures for most Punjabi interrogative syntactic constructions remain the same. The wh-in-situ language can be defined as languages whose WH elements remain in the position where they have been generated in the deep structures, for example, Chinese, Japanese, Korean Punjabi, etc. (Gao, 2009). So, the deep and surface structures of the aforementioned Punjabi construction are the same.

The bottom-up merging operation is employed to find out how small constituents merge to form phrases and, subsequently, syntactic constructions. The pronoun ‘Kii’ used as a complement here merges with the main verb ‘Ai’ to form a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase merges with the noun ‘TuaaDaa naa’ used as a subject of the construction here to have a tense phrase. As Punjabi is an in-situ language, the question word ‘Kii’ does not change its position. The evidence of this is the answer to this question. For example, the answer to this question can be ‘Mera naam Ahmed ai, ‘My name is Ahmed.’ The noun ‘Ahmed’ has been

replaced by the interrogative pronoun ‘Kii’ in the answer, and there is no change in the position of the question word and its answer in the syntactic order.

By comparing this Punjabi syntactic construction to its counterpart in English provided in the brackets ‘What is your name?’ shows that not only the question word ‘What’ has moved to CP position from verb complement position in deep structure but also the main verb ‘Is’ moves between the interrogative pronoun and the subject. This disparity of the syntactic constructions between Punjabi and English has implications for Punjabi speakers who wish to learn the English language: they might commit mistakes in constructing English constructions due to interference of their mother tongue. The surface structure of Punjabi can be summarized as TP + VP. The transformational rule whereby the deep structure transforms to surface structure for the aforementioned Punjabi syntactic construction has been given as under X1, X2 = X1, X2. The same has been depicted in the following tree diagram 5.5.



Tree diagram: 5.5

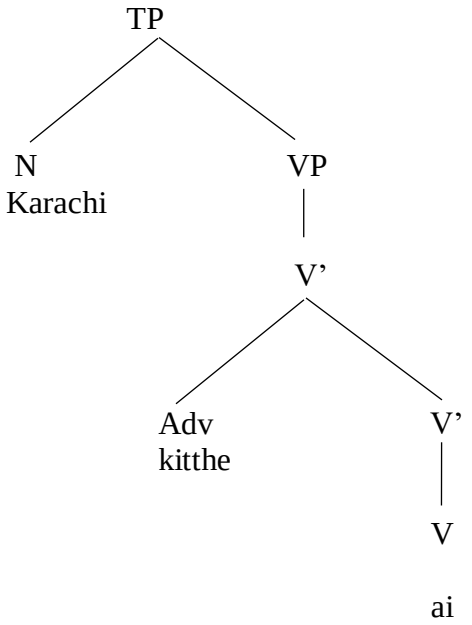
The analysis of another syntactic construction which contains a ‘Wh’ word as an adverb is given below.

b. Karachi kitte ai? (ibid, p. 9). (‘Where is Karachi?’)

Karachi where is

In this syntactic construction, ‘Karachi’ is a noun used as a subject; ‘Kitte’ is a question word and is an adverb. This question word is followed by the main verb ‘Ai.’ The adverb or question word ‘Kitte’ merges with the main verb ‘Ai’ to form a verb bar; the resulting verb bar merges the pronoun ‘Karachi’ to form a tense phrase. There is no movement of the constituent to have this surface structure, as surface and deep structures are the same in SOV languages like Punjabi, Japanese, Chinese, etc. The interrogative constituent, Kitte’ is used as an adverb and is the complement of the construction; therefore, it has to have a bar as its mother and sister to a phrase according to the X bar model used to draw a tree diagram.

As mentioned earlier, Punjabi open-ended questions are less complex than their corresponding English open-ended interrogative syntactic constructions: in Punjabi constructions, the ‘Wh’ word and the main verb remain intact and do not change their position. By comparing it to its corresponding English structure, it is evident that English is syntactically a different language. The tree diagram is also different due to syntactic disparity. The arrangement of the constituents is shown in the tree diagram.

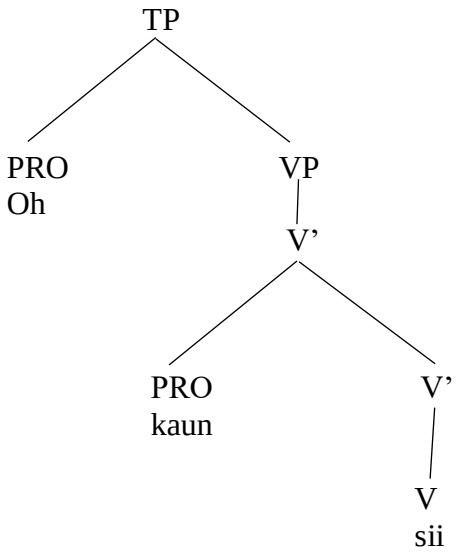


Tree diagram: 5.6

The analysis of another Punjabi syntactic construction by employing the bottom-up merging operation is given in the following construction:

c. Oh kon si? (ibid, p. 9) (‘Who was he?’)
He what was

This syntactic construction is more or less similar to the previous one. The deep and the surface structures of this construction are the same. By using the bottom-up merging approach, it is evident that the question word ‘Kon’ merges with the past form of the verb ‘Sii’ to have a verb phrase as the question word ‘Kon’ is a complement, and it has to be the daughter of X bar and sister to a phrase; the noun bar subsequently merges with another pronoun used as the subject of the construction to have a complement phrase. Once again, there is no movement of any constituent involved in generating this Punjabi construction. The arrangement of the constituents has been given in the tree diagram.



Tree diagram: 5.7

The verb ‘Sii’ shows that it is past tense and is used for a singular person but the gender is not clear as it is used for both genders. The arrangement of constituents in the aforementioned Punjabi syntactic constructions may be summarized as TP + VP. The

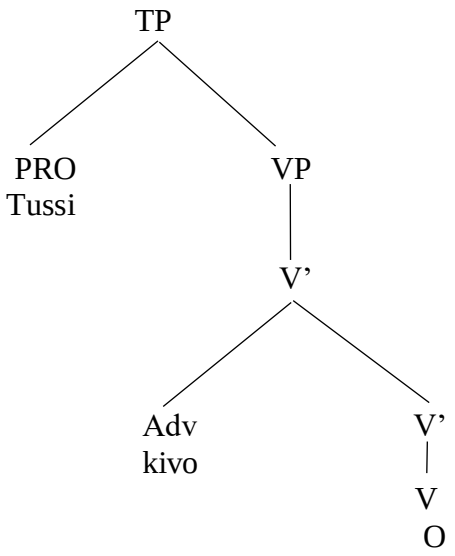
transformational rules which transform the aforementioned Punjabi sentence from deep structure to surface structure may be given as X1, X2 = X1, X2.

The analysis of another syntactic construction would reveal the aforementioned rules stated above.

d. Tussi kive o? (ibid, p. 10) (‘How are you?’)

You (formal) how are?

By using the bottom-up merging operation, it is clear that the adverb ‘Kivo’ merges with the verb ‘O’ to have a verb bar. This is because the verb s used as an adjunct and has to be the daughter of and sister to X bar according to X bar rules. Subsequently, the X bar merges with the pronoun to have a tense phase as shown in the tree diagram below.



Tree diagram: 5.8

The subject of this construction ‘Tussi’ is the second form, but this form is formal and shows respect towards the speaker, unlike the English language which employs the same second-person pronoun for all sorts of contexts. By comparing the surface structures of both syntactic constructions, it is evident that both constructions are syntactically different. The syntactic structure of Punjabi construction includes TP + VP, whereas the surface structure of English structure includes adverb phrase + Verb phrase + Noun phrase. The tree diagram shows this syntactic disparity between the two languages.

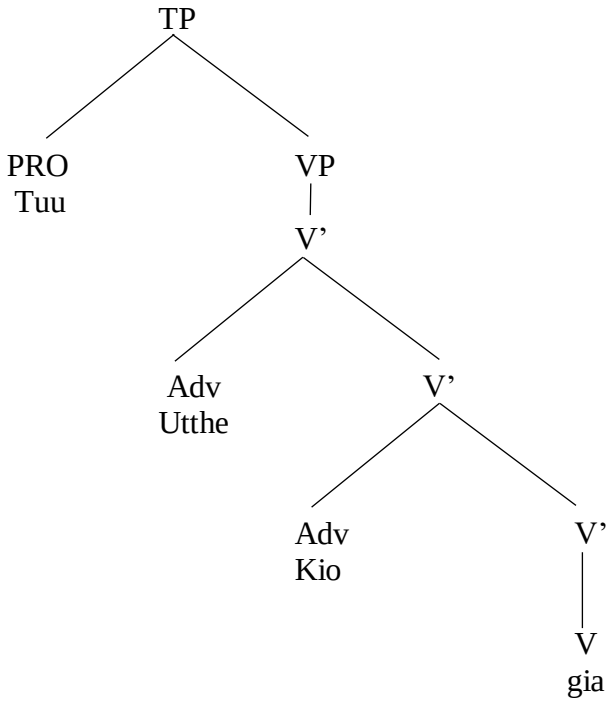
To further elucidate this point, consider the following syntactic construction.

e. Tuu utthe kio gia (ibid, p. 10) (‘Why did you go there?’)
You there why went

The bottom-up merging operation for this tree diagram would be that the adverb ‘Kio’ merges with the past form of the verb ‘Gia’ to have a verb bar as the question word is an adjunct and has to be the daughter of the X bar and sister to X bar to fulfill the condition; the verb bar subsequently pairs-up with another adverb of place ‘Utthe’ to have another verb bar; finally the second verb bar leading to the verb phrase merges with the informal pronoun ‘Tuu’ to have a tense phrase. The arrangement of the constituent in this syntactic construction is TP + VP + V’. Once again, no movement of any constituent is involved in generating this surface construction.

By comparing this construction to the corresponding English one, it is clear that the structure of English construction is different. The question word ‘Why’ has been transformed to the initial position by means of Wh-movement; the dummy auxiliary ‘Did’, has also been inserted after the question word, and the form of the verb also undergoes morphological change: from past tense to base form. In other words, to have an English surface structure, there are two movement operations involved: Wh-movement and auxiliary inversion.

On the contrary, in Punjabi constructions, there is no movement of the ‘Wh’ word. This disparity of the movement of the constituents between English and Punjabi constructions may have implications for learners who aspire to learn English. The arrangement of constituents in the aforementioned Punjabi syntactic constructions may be summarized as TP + VP + V’.

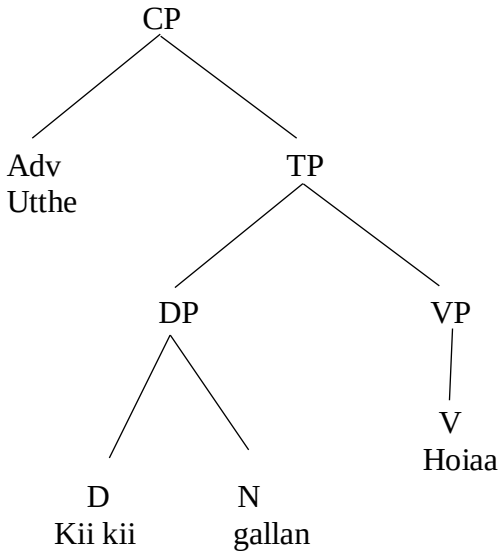


Tree diagram: 5.9

Another Punjabi interrogative syntactic construction shows the use of the whole phrase rather than a question word.

f. Utthe kii kii gallan hoiaa? (ibid, p. 11) ('What kinds of things were discussed there?')
There what what things were (discussed).

In Punjabi, when the expected answer to a question is in the form of a list of things, people, events, etc., the question word is reduplicated. This property of reduplication is quite common in Punjabi and many other languages spoken in the South Asian subcontinent (Bhatia, 2013). By using the bottom-up approach, it is evident that the entire interrogative phrase 'Kii kii gallan' merges with the verb phrase to have a tense phrase; the tense bar subsequently integrates with the adverb of place to have a 'C' leading to the complementizer phrase. To have this surface structure, there is no movement of any constituent is involved.



Tree diagram: 5.10

By comparing this Punjabi construction with its corresponding English structure, it is clear that there is no movement of the entire interrogative phrase, for example, 'Kii kii gallan', and the entire interrogative phrase remains intact. The movement operation of the English interrogative phrase 'What things' whereby the entire interrogative phrase transforms from one position to another to have a surface structure is said to be pied-piping. The above tree diagram 5.10 shows that the entire phrase has not been pied-piped and has remained intact to have this surface structure. On the contrary, the equivalent of this Punjabi syntactic construction in English undergoes the movement operation called pied-piping. This kind of movement is also called operator movement. Moreover, the auxiliary 'Were', also undergoes a transformation called auxiliary inversion.

Furthermore, the Punjabi syntactic construction starts with a complementizer phrase followed by the subject and the verb. The arrangement of the constituent in the aforementioned Punjabi construction can be summarized as CP + TP + VP. The Punjabi verb shows the action and the tense; however, English construction makes use of two constituents, for example, 'Were' and 'Discussed', and is in passive voice. The Punjabi construction is also passive voice but does not utilize auxiliary, and passivity is expressed through one verb. This shows that Punjabi verbs show an action, tense, and voice and agree with the plural subject. To further

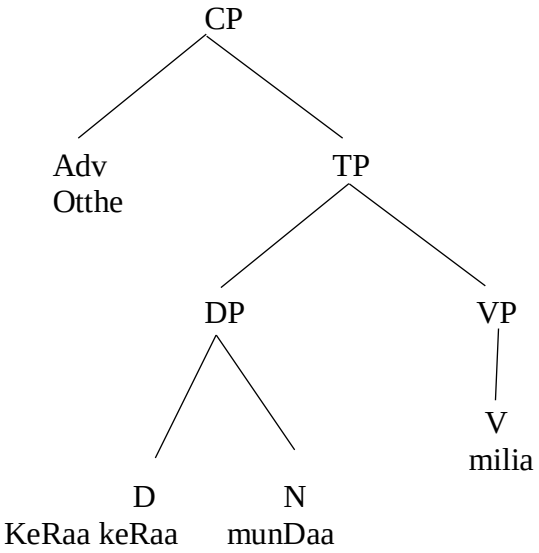
substantiate the point of the absence of pied-piping in Punjabi construction, another Punjabi syntactic construction is being analyzed by using a bottom-up merging operation.

a. Utthe keRaa keRaa munDa milia? (ibid, p. 12) (‘What boys did you meet there?’)
   There what what boy met

Using the merging operation of the constituents, it is again clear that the interrogative phrase ‘Kehra kehra munDa’ merges with the past form of the verb ‘Milia’ to form a tense phrase. The tense phrase integrates with the adverb of place to have a ‘C’ bar leading to the complementizer phrase. This shows that to have this surface structure, there is no movement of any constituent, and both deep and surface structures are identical. The arrangement of the constituents can be summarized as CP+ TP + VP. The aforementioned construction shows the absence of pied-piping as the whole interrogative phrase does not move to generate the surface structure.

By comparing Punjabi surface structure, it is evident that the reduplication of constituents is a unique property of the Punjabi language; however, English does not have such characteristics. Moreover, the helping verbs are not usually used in forming questions and are negative in Punjabi, which is witnessed in English. Due to the occasional absence of auxiliaries in Punjabi interrogative construction, there is no movement of auxiliary inversion. There is also a difference in the position of the adverb in Punjabi and English.

Lastly, the form of the Punjabi verb ‘Milia’ also does not undergo any morphological change in interrogative constructions as it does in the English language. By comparing English syntactic construction with its counterpart in Punjabi, it is evident that there are syntactic disparities. In English, the syntactic arrangement of the aforementioned Punjabi construction is like CP + TP + VP, whereas its counterpart in English also has the same arrangement of the constituents as CP + TP +VP. This arrangement of the constituents shows that the main difference between the two syntactic constructions, in this case, is the position of the adverb phrase and the addition of the complementizer phrase in English construction.



Tree diagram: 5.11

Another syntactic construction that contains ergative agentive subject such as ‘Kis ne’ means ‘who’ has been analyzed by utilizing the same bottom-up merging operation.

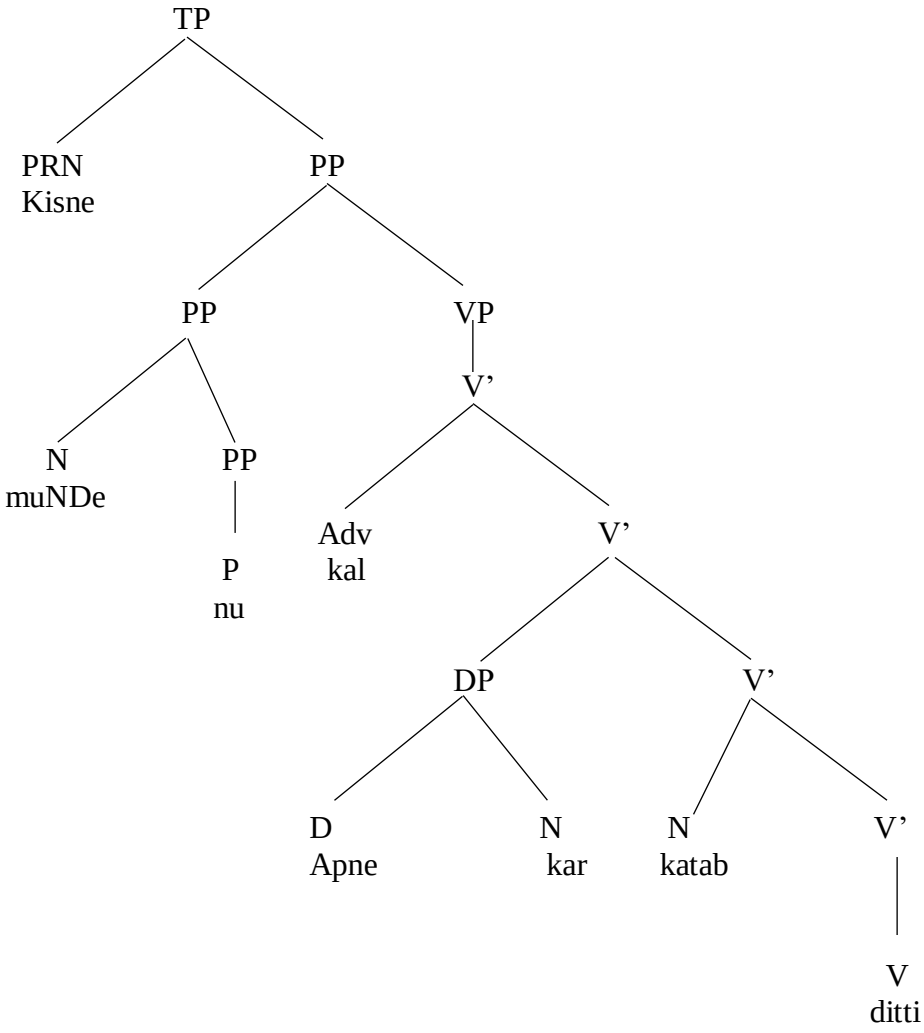
b. Kis ne muNDe nu kal apne kar kitab ditti? (ibid, p.12) (‘Who gave a book to the boy
Who to boy yesterday her house book gave yesterday in her house?’)

By applying the bottom-up merging operation to this construction, it is evident that the noun ‘Kitab’, which is the direct object of the construction, merges with the verb bar ‘Ditti’ to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently pairs up with an adverb of place ‘Apne kar’ to form another verb bar; the adverb of place is used as an adjunct; therefore, it has to be the daughter of and sister to an X bar; the adverb bar then merges with another adverb of time ‘Kal’ to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase subsequently merges with the noun ‘MunDae nuu’ used as an indirect object of the construction to have a postposition phrase and finally the postposition phrase pairs up with the interrogative pronoun ‘Kis ne’ to generate a tense phrase. The generation of this Punjabi surface structure construction does not involve any movement of any constituent, as Punjabi is one of the Wh-in-situ languages.

The given syntactic construction is different from all the preceding interrogative constructions because the question word used in this interrogative construction is the subject

of the surface sentence; in all the above given interrogative sentences, the question words were used either as adverbs or indirect objects, etc. The arrangement of the constituents in this Punjabi syntactic construction can be summarized as TP + PP+ VP + V'+ V'. The arrangement of the constituents has been given in the tree diagram 5.12 below.

By comparing the surface structure of Punjabi and English syntactic constructions, it is evident that the English syntactic construction provided in the parenthesis above in 'M' is identical to both Punjabi and English syntactic constructions. The question words in both Punjabi and English constructions are subjects. The answers to these two question words will also be the subject of the syntactic construction. This shows that this interrogative syntactic construction has identical deep and surface structures. In other words, English behaves like a Wh-in-situ language like the Punjabi language. The same idea has been elaborated by Baltin, M., & Collins, C. (2008 p. 207) that wh-in-situ is not limited to languages like Chinese and Japanese. Multiple questions in English-type languages also involve Wh-in-situ as construction, like 'Who bought what?' As these interrogative English and syntactic constructions are identical, so Punjabi learners may not have difficulty to master these kinds of sentences. Moreover, there is no auxiliary inversion involved as the English subject is followed by the verb; therefore, it may be convenient for Punjabi-speaking learners to master these English constructions.



Tree diagram: 5.12

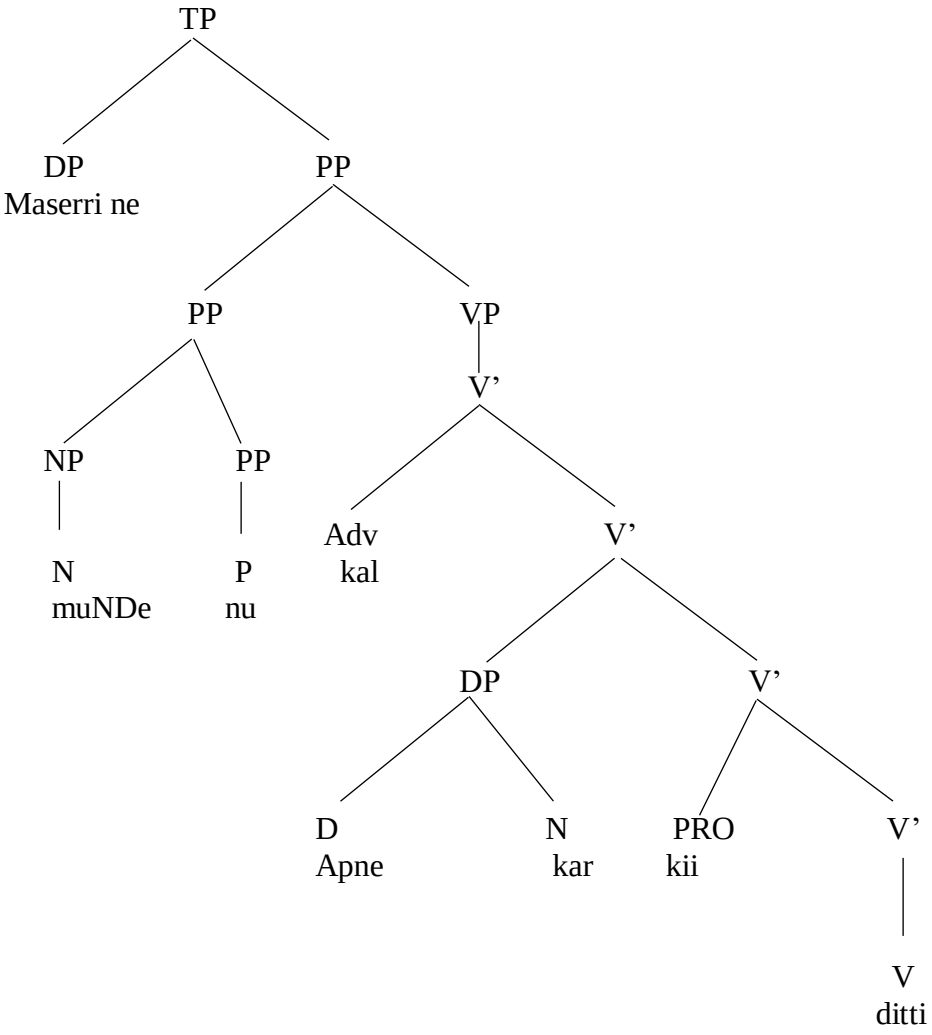
The following syntactic construction contains a question word and is used referring to the object of the construction.

a. Maserri ne muNDe nuu kal apne kar kii ditti? ('What did the boy give to the girl in her
Girl to boy yesterday her house what gave? house yesterday?')

Once again, the surface and deep structures of the syntactic construction 'I' are similar; the application of bottom-up merging operation shows that the interrogative pronoun 'Kii' merges with the past form of the verb 'Ditti' to form a verb bar; the verb subsequently pairs-up with the adverb of the place 'Apne kar' to form another verb bar. The adverb of place is

used as an adjunct, and it has to be the daughter of and sister to the X bar, as shown in the tree diagram 4.63; the adverb of place subsequently merges with the adverb of time ‘Kal’ to have a verb phrase. The verb phrase pairs up with the indirect object ‘MunDe nu’ to have a postpositional phrase, and finally, the postpositional phrase merges with the subject of the construction ‘Maseri ne’ to have a tense phrase.

The arrangement of constituents in the aforementioned Punjabi syntactic constructions may be summarized as TP+PP + VP + V’ + V’, which has been depicted in the tree diagram below.

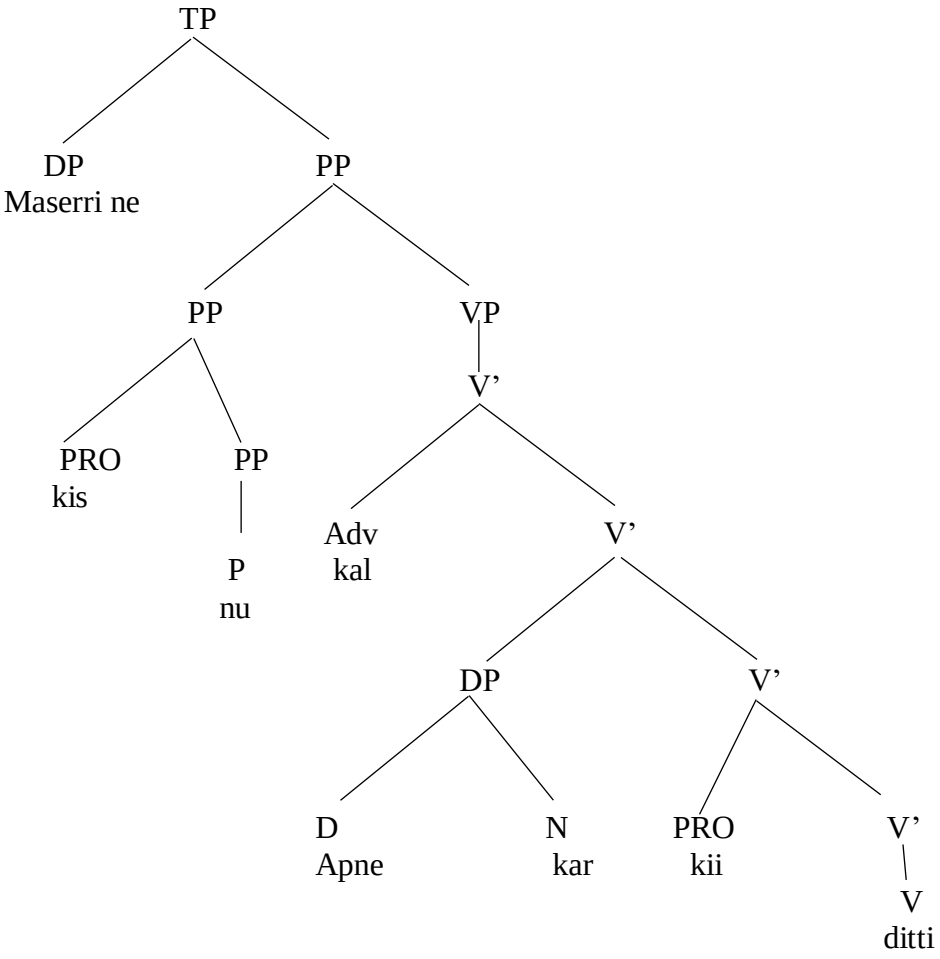


Tree diagram: 5.13

By comparing this Punjabi syntactic construction with its corresponding English structure provided in the parenthesis in syntactic construction 'I' above, it is clear that there are two transformational operations used to generate English construction's surface structure from the deep one. Firstly, the Wh-movement or operator movement whereby the question word 'What' has moved to the initial position, whereas the Punjabi question word 'Kii' is placed at the end of the construction just before the main verb. A dummy auxiliary 'Did', has also been inserted after the question word in the English construction, while no such dummy auxiliary has been used in Punjabi construction. The auxiliary verb shows the tense also fulfills the condition of interrogative construction. Due to this auxiliary 'Did', the main verb 'Gave' also undergoes morphological changes, and the base form of the verb 'Give' is employed instead of the past form of the verb. However, no such morphological transformations are applied to Punjabi verb, and it retains its past form. As a result of these transformational rules and morphological changes, Punjabi learners find it challenging to master such interrogative constructions. Another Punjabi interrogative syntactic construction which shows that indirect object is being used to ask a question.

b. Meserri ne kis nuu kal apne kar kitab ditti? (ibid, p.12) ('Who did the girl give the book to?')

   Cousin to whom yesterday her house kitab ditti?



Tree diagram: 5.14

The aforementioned Punjabi syntactic construction 'J' is also another example of Wh-in-situ language where the question word 'Kis nu' retains its position in both deep and surface structure. This is because the answer to this question, the word 'Kis nu' has been used in the same syntactic position. By applying the merging operation to this Punjabi construction, it is evident that the noun 'Katab', which is also the direct object of the construction merges with the past form of the verb 'Ditti' to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently merges with the adverb of place 'Apne Kar' to have another verb bar. The verb bar then pairs up with the adverb of time 'Kal' to have a verb phrase. Subsequently, the verb phrase merges with the PP 'Kis nu' to form a prepositional phrase. Finally, the prepositional phrase integrates with the subject of the construction 'Maserri ne' to have a tense phrase. As Punjabi is a Wh-in situ language;

therefore, no transformational rule is applied to change deep structure to surface one. In other words, the deep and the surface structures are identical in Punjabi language as far as interrogative constructions are concerned.

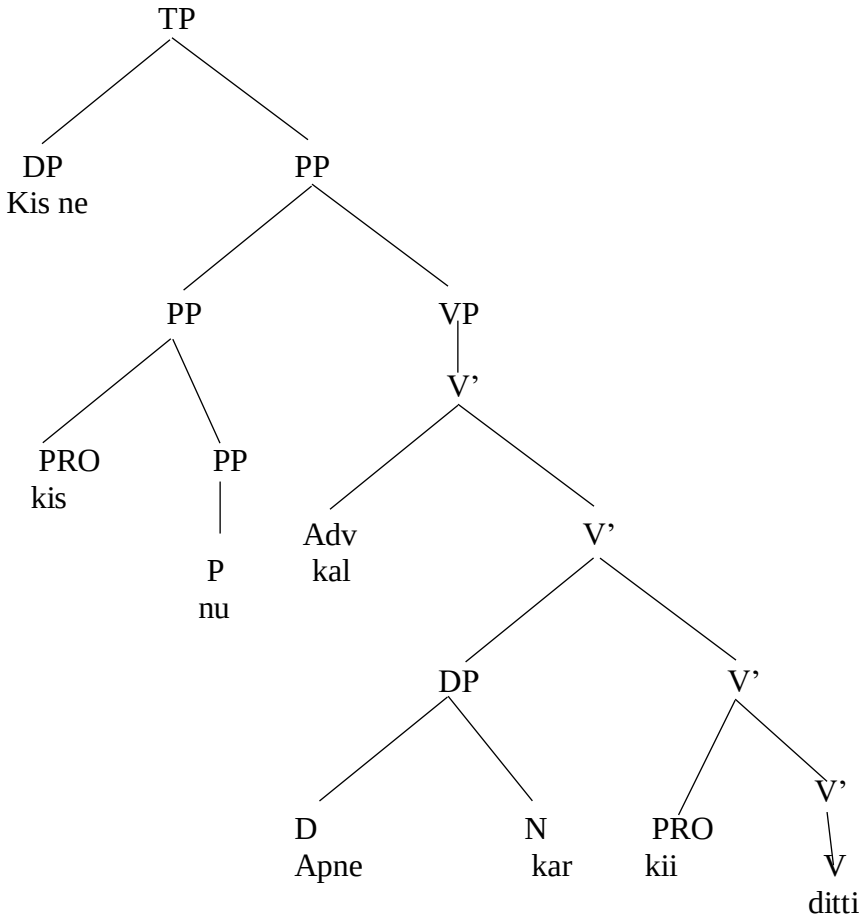
By comparing this Punjabi syntactic construction with its equivalent English construction provided in the parenthesis in construction 'J', it is evident that to generate an English surface structure from the given deep one, there are two kinds of transformational rules applied. Firstly, the Wh-movement is applied whereby the question word moves from noun complement position to the specifier position within the complementizer phrase; secondly, the auxiliary verb 'Did', which is called a dummy auxiliary has been inserted after the question word to mark the tense of the construction. The use of this past auxiliary leads to morphological transformations to the verb 'Gave': the past form changes to the base form. No such transformational rules are applied to Punjabi constructions to transform them from deep structures to surface ones. There is another aspect that is evident in this English construction.

The aforementioned English synaptic construction 'J' 'Who did the girl give the book to' shows partial pied-piping: the question word 'Who' moves to the initial position leaving behind the preposition 'To'. The pied-piping operation can be fully applied by transforming this construction to 'To whom did the girl give the book?' In this construction, the question word and the preposition have moved to the initial position. No such piped-piping construction is applied to the provided synaptic construction.

c. Kis ne kis nuu kal apne kar katab ditti? ('Who gave the book to whom in her/his house?')
   Who to whom yesterday his house book gave

In this interrogative syntactic construction, two interrogative pronouns are used as subject and object, respectively. The first interrogative pronoun, 'Kis ne', is used as a subject of the construction, whereas the second one, 'Kis nuu' is used as an object. By applying the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the noun 'Katab' merges with the verb to have a verb bar; subsequently, the verb bar pairs up with the determiner phrase to have another verb bar. Since the adverb is used as an adjunct, it has to be the daughter of and sister to an X bar. This verb bar integrates with the adverb of time, 'Kal', to project the verb phrase. The verb

phrase merges with the pronoun to have a postpositional phase, and finally, the postpositional phrase pairs up with the subject of the construction to have a tense phrase. The arrangement of the constituents in this tree diagram can be summarized as TP + PP + VP + V'+ V'. There is no movement involved to generate this syntactic construction as Punjabi is a Wh-in-situ language.



Tree diagram: 5.15

By comparing this Punjabi syntactic construction to its corresponding English structure provided in the brackets above in ''K, it is evident that English construction is more or less the same despite syntactic disparity. The above construction starts with the interrogative pronoun 'Who', which could easily be replaced with the subject pronoun to have an affirmative/deep construction. Likewise, the indirect object interrogative pronoun 'To whom' can also be

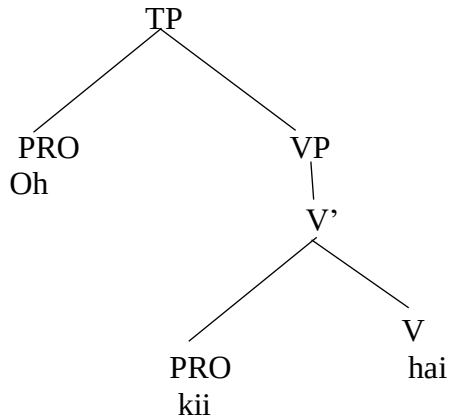
replaced with a noun or pronoun. Moreover, there is no use of an auxiliary to show tense, and tense has been indicated through the verb. From the above, it is evident that English, in certain syntactic constructions, may behave like a Wh-in-situ language like Japanese and Punjabi, as there is no movement of any constituents to generate surface structure from the deep one. Since Punjabi and English languages do not show any movement operation to generate surface structures, as is evident in this context, Punjabi and other SOV languages, learners find it convenient to learn these sorts of syntactic constructions in English.

To further elaborate Punjabi interrogative constructions, consider the following syntactic construction:

d. Oh kii hai. (ibid, p.14) (‘Who is he?’)

He who is

The above construction consists of the pronoun ‘Oh’, the interrogative pronoun used as a complement, ‘Kii’, and the main verb. By applying the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the question pronoun ‘Kii’ merges with the main verb to have a verb bar leading to a verb phrase. The verb phrase pairs up with the subject of the construction to have a tense phrase. The arrangement of the constituents is summarized as TP + VP. There is no movement operation involved to generate this interrogative syntactic construction from the deep structure as Punjabi is one of the Wh-in-situ languages. The arrangement of the constituents has been depicted in the tree diagram 5.16 below.

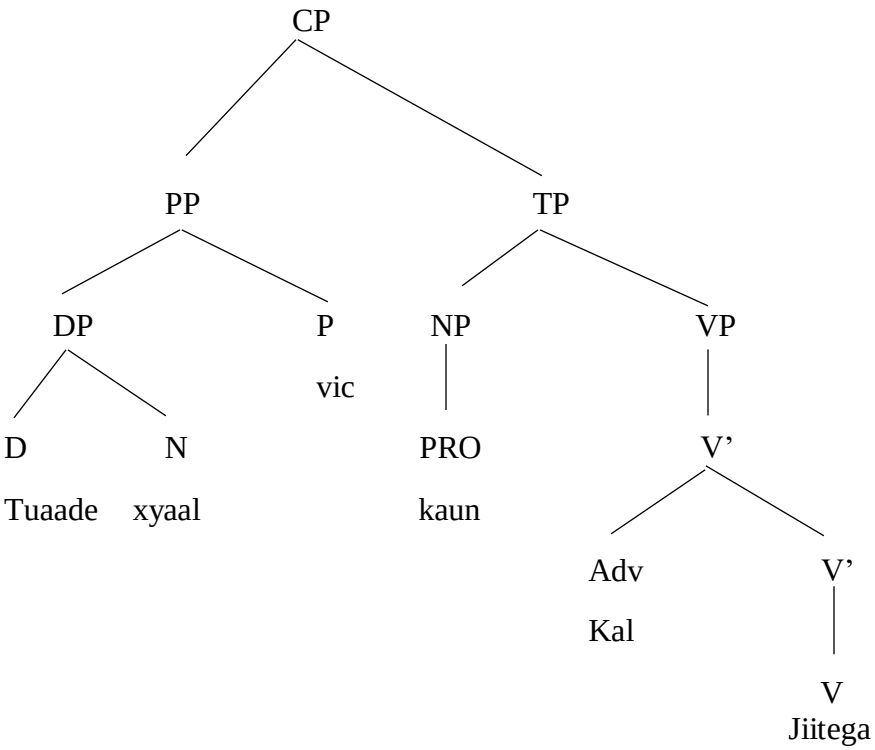


Tree diagram: 5.16

On the other hand, the English construction undergoes two transformational rules: from the movement of the interrogative pronoun ‘Who’ from the complement position at the verb phrase to the specifier position at CP. The movement of ‘Who’ is Wh-movement or operator movement. Moreover, the main verb ‘is’ moves from the verb position to the T position. This transformation of the main verb from verb phrase to T is said to be the head movement. The arrangement of the constituents in this English construction can be summarized as CP + C + TP + VP. The surface structure and the transformational rules applied here are evident that English is not a Wh-in-situ language.

After discussing the simple sentence, the following sentences have an independent clause embedded into a post-positional phrase projecting a complementizer phrase.

e. Tuaade xayaal wic kauN kal jiitega (‘In your opinion who will win tomorrow?’)
Your opinion in who tomorrow will win



Tree diagram: 5.17

Once again, the deep and surface structure of this interrogative Punjabi construction are similar as no movement of any constituent involved. The bottom-up merging operations reveal that the adverb of time, 'Kal, 'merges with the verb to have a verb phrase. Subsequently, the verb phrase pairs up with the interrogative pronoun 'Kaun' to form a tense phrase; the tense phrase merges with the post-position to have a complementizer phrase. Thus, the arrangement of the constituents of this Punjabi interrogative construction is CP + TP + VP. As Punjabi is a Wh-in-situ language, so the interrogative pronoun 'Kaun' remains intact. The arrangement of the constituents of both questions and its answer remains the same, as no movement of the constituent is involved.

By comparing the Punjabi construction 'R' to its counterpart provided in the brackets above, it is evident that the surface structures of both these constructions are more or less the same despite some minor syntactic disparities. The Punjabi construction contains post-positions as it is a head-final language, whereas the English language, being a head-first language, utilizes the preposition phrase. The independent or interrogative clauses used in both constructions use interrogative pronouns as subjects followed by the future form of the verbs. English, being the head first language, places the auxiliary 'Will' before the main verb 'Win'; however, the English language does not have a proper future form, and the future is expressed through different means. On the contrary, Punjabi does have a future form, which is expressed by appending the suffix 'Gaa' to the base form of the verb 'Jeetay.'

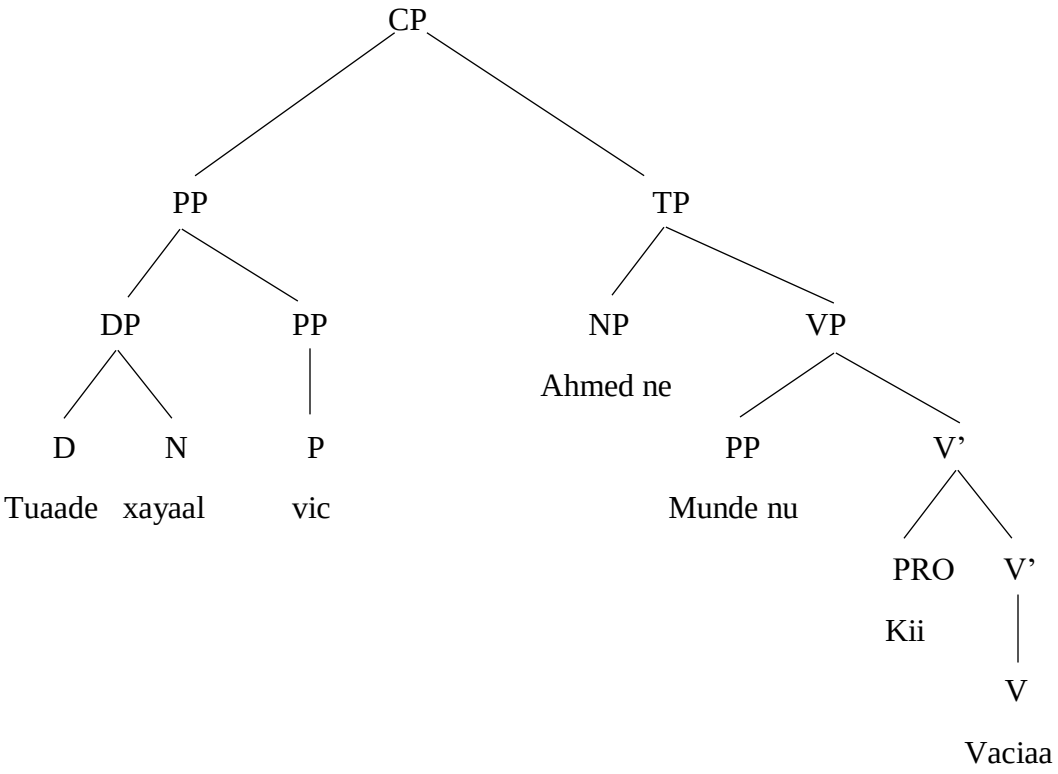
Another identical syntactic construction has been analyzed by employing the bottom-up merging operation.

f. Tuaade Xayaal wic Ahmed ne muNDe nu kii veciaa. (ibid, p.15) ('In your opinion what did

your opinion in Ahmed boy to what sold to the boy Ahmed sell to the boy?')

The bottom-up merging operation of the constituents reveals that the interrogative pronoun 'Kii' used as a direct object merges with the verb to have a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with the indirect object 'MunDe nuu' to have a verb phrase, the verb phrase subsequently merges with the determiner phrase to have a tense phrase. The tense phrase finally integrates

with the postpositional phrase to project the complementizer phrase. Once again, there is no movement of constituent involved to generate this deep structure. In other words, both the surface and deep structure are similar, as Punjabi is one of the Wh-in-situ languages. The arrangement of the constituents of this Punjabi interrogative construction can be summarized as + CP + TP + VP + V'.



Tree diagram: 5.18

By comparing the aforementioned Punjabi and English constructions given in the brackets in 'S' above, it is clear that there are two transformational rules are applied to the surface structure of the English construction: the Wh-word moves from the verb complement position to the specifier position within CP. This kind of movement is called Wh-movement or operator movement;

A dummy auxiliary 'Did' is placed at the C' position to indicate tense. This auxiliary morphological transformation is used for the verb 'Told'; In the beginning of the English

construction, the prepositional phrase is used as English is one of the head-initial languages in contrast to the Punjabi, which is the head last language.

After discussing Punjabi open-ended syntactic constructions at length, the main points with respect to Punjabi these syntactic constructions and their counterparts in English have been summarized below:

a. Like the English language, there are different question words used in the Punjabi language to ask questions. These question words include ‘Kii’ (what), ‘Kon’ (who), ‘Kitte’ (where), ‘Kiv’ (how), ‘Kio’ (why), ‘KauN (who), etc.
b. Punjabi question words are usually used after the subject of the structure, like ‘Oh kon ai’ (Bhatia, 2013, p.9); this syntactic structure is quite different from that of English which usually employs ‘Wh’ question word at the beginning of the construction.
c. Punjabi interrogative syntactic structure is canonical, whereas the structure of English interrogative syntactic constructions is non-canonical.
d. Punjabi is a wh-in-situ language, while English is not, as the transformational rules are applied to English constructions to generate surface structure. However, in some cases, the interrogative syntactic constructions of English behave like wh-in-situ language, especially when the question word is the subject of the construction.
e. Punjabi syntactic constructions may also start with question words as a subject of the construction, like in the sentence ‘Kis ne muNDe nu kal apne kar kitab ditti’ (Bhatia, 2013, p. 12) (Who gave a book to the boy yesterday in her house). Similarly, in the English language, the question word can also be used as a subject of the construction. This means that in such constructions, the word order of English construction is canonical.
f. Moreover, like English interrogative syntactic constructions, Punjabi question words may be used at different positions within a construction depending upon what is being asked.
g. Another feature of Punjabi question word interrogative construction is the absence of auxiliary verbs. This may be due to the fact that Punjabi verbs show not only action or

state but also number, gender, and tense. English will sometimes have to make use of auxiliary verbs to show the tense and the subject of the construction.

h. Due to the absence of auxiliary verbs in Punjabi interrogative constructions, the T bar is usually null or empty and does not have a TNS feature that could attract an auxiliary to T bar position, as is witnessed in English constructions.

i. The absence of auxiliary verbs in Punjabi constructions has implications for Punjabi students who aspire to learn the English language. While forming English question word interrogative constructions, Punjabi students can use question words quite successfully; however, they usually do not use auxiliaries. This interference of the mother tongue with regard to the formation of English interrogative sentences leads to incorrect structures in the target language.

j. There is another feature that differentiates Punjabi interrogative constructions from English open-ended questions is the reduplication of question words. Punjabi, unlike English, makes use of duplicating question words in interrogative constructions. Punjabi, like many other South Asian languages, has a reduplication feature (Bhatia, 2013). The examples include ‘Kii kii’ (What kind of), ‘KeRaa keRaa’ (What) (Bhatia, 2013, p.12); this indicates the reduplicated words in Punjabi are translated into question phrases such as (What kind of), and single question word such as (What).

k. The movements of the interrogative constituents, for instance, pied-piping and the attract closest principle, have been observed in English interrogative construction; however, no such movement is seen in Punjabi interrogative constructions.

l. In short, there are four main features that differentiate Punjabi open-ended interrogative constructions from the corresponding English ones: the position of question words, the absence of auxiliary, the reduplication of question words, and the number of transformational rules applied.

5.2. Imperative Syntactic Constructions

Imperative constructions are usually used to ask others to do something in response to the speaker’s command or request. According to Keraf (2001), a command is a statement that demands a person to perform an action for the speaker; the command given by the speaker shows that the speaker has power over the listener. Commands are also conveyed in written

form and are usually shown by means of a period or a sign of exclamation. Imperative constructions, especially affirmative imperative, are used to a given command, a piece of advice, a request, an invitation, a direction, and a suggestion. Negative imperative constructions are used for prohibition, suggestion, invitation, and instruction (Downing & Philip, 2006).

English imperatives are usually used without the second person pronoun 'You' as the subject; the unspoken second person is taken for granted and is not usually spelled out. The absence of a subject in an English imperative construction is called a null subject. According to Radford (2009), a null subject in imperative constructions seems to be a silent counterpart of 'You'; this means that the pronoun 'You' can have a null spell out when it is used as a subject of an imperative construction in English.

From the aforementioned definitions, it is evident that imperative constructions are used without second-person pronouns; however, the pronoun 'You' is understood and is found in the deep structure. The following imperative sentence illustrates this assertion.

a. Don't lose your nerve. (Radford, 2009 p. 93)

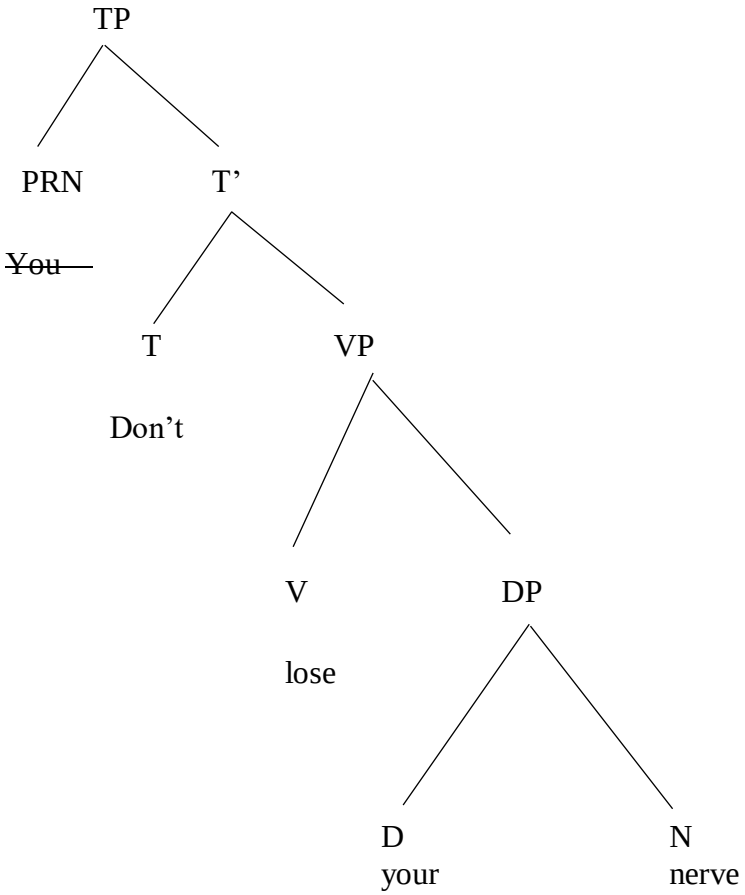


Figure 5.19

The deep structure of these constructions may be like 'You don't lose your nerve' and 'You place the book on the table.' The pronoun in the deep structure gets deleted in the surface structure because of the subject null constituent properties of English about the aforementioned imperative constructions. The bottom-up merging operation of syntactic construction 'A' reveals that the noun phrase 'Your nerve' merges with the verb to form a verb phrase, the verb phrase pairs up with the auxiliary to form a tense bar; the tense bar finally merges with the pronoun 'You' to generate this deep structure. To generate surface structure from this deep one, the pronoun 'You' gets deleted through deletion transformations and is not spelled out. This leads to the generation of surface structure. On the contrary, some South Asian languages, such as Punjabi and Urdu, etc. The second-person pronoun is usually spelled out, which have been discussed in the next section.

The analysis of structure ‘B’ ‘place the book on the table’ shows that the preposition of position ‘on’ merges with the noun phrase ‘the table’ to form a prepositional phrase; subsequently, the prepositional phrase pairs up with the noun used as an object ‘the book’ to constitute a noun phrase; the resulting noun phrase merges with the verb ‘place’ to form a verb phrase. The pronoun position, once again, at TP is empty or null due to the subject null constituent feature of English, so the pronoun is not spelled out. The transformational rule used here is called the deletion rule, whereby the subjects of imperative constructions like the ones above get deleted and are not overtly expressed. In most imperative constructions, the deletion rule is applied.

Imperative syntactic constructions in Punjabi are sensitive to number, person, degree of imperiousness, and politeness. In addition to the unmarked, true, or basic imperatives, four kinds of imperative constructions are used. The principal kinds of imperative constructions used in Punjabi are as follows:

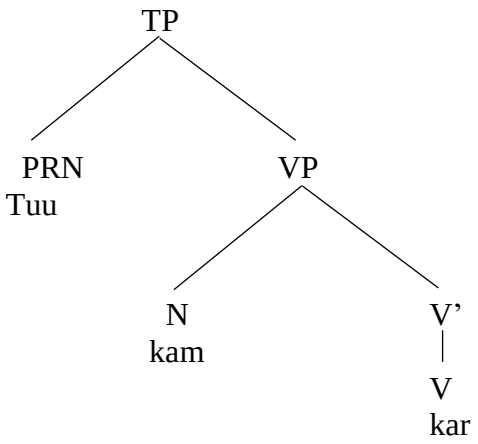
a. The unmarked imperative
b. The future imperative
c. The subjunctive imperative
d. The obligatory imperative
e. The prohibitive imperative

5.2.1. The Unmarked Imperative Constructions

This kind of construction usually takes second-person pronouns like ‘Tuu’ as singular and informal and ‘Tussi’ as plural or singular to show respect towards the speaker. In the Majahi dialect, the same standard form of the second-person pronoun ‘Tussi’ is used. As mentioned above, Punjabi imperative constructions are sensitive to numbers or persons; with the singular second-person pronoun ‘Tuu’, the verb takes its root form, and in the case of a plural subject, the suffixes like ‘O/ov’ are added to the stem. In Punjabi, unlike English, the pronouns in imperative constructions are not deleted; however, in the case of rude or very formal speech, these pronouns are not used. The analysis of unmarked imperative syntactic construction is given below:

b. Tuu kam kar (‘Do work’) (Bhattia, 2013, p.35)

You work do



Tree diagram: 5.20

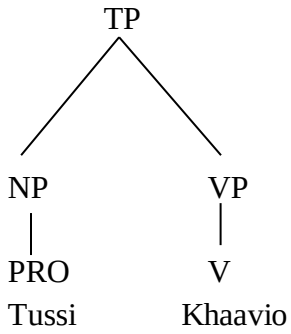
From the above imperative construction, it is evident that is there is not much difference between the surface structures and deep structures of such kinds of structures. Syntactically, it is similar to affirmative constructions in Punjabi; however, the function of imperative constructions is different. By analyzing this construction through bottom-up merging operations, it is evident that the noun ‘Kam’ merges with the verb ‘Kar’ to form a verb phrase ‘Kam kar.’ The resulting verb phrase pairs up with the informal pronoun ‘Tuu’ to form TP. There seems to be no movement of any constituent, and the application of transformational rule applied to this Punjabi construction to form a surface structure. On the contrary, its equivalent in English given in the brackets shows that the pronoun or subject gets deleted, so the transformational rule of deletion is applied to the aforementioned English construction. The arrangement of the constituents of Punjabi construction is summarized as X1, X2 = X1, X2.

Although most Punjabi dialects do not have distinct polite forms, the ordinary plural form is used for polite imperatives. Majhi dialect does have distinct polite singular and plural forms, and hence the polite singular imperative form of the verb is a stem, for instance, ‘Jaa’ meaning ‘Go’; however, the polite plural imperative form of the verb takes suffixes like ‘O/OV’ to the stem. (Bhatia, 2013). The polite plural imperative construction has been given as follows:

c. Tusii khaavio. (‘You eat.’) (ibid, p. 35)

You plural eat imperative polite

This imperative construction shows that the imperative has been conveyed by an overt pronoun in Punjabi. The merging operation of the constituents shows that the plural form of the pronoun 'Tusii' merges with the verb phrase to form a tense phrase (TP); this means that this tree has two branches that accommodate noun phrases and verb phrases, respectively. This construction looks like an affirmative construction but does have the force of imperative construction. To have this surface structure, no transformational rule has been applied and only morphological transformations are used to have the appropriate form of the verb and pronoun. By comparing this Punjabi construction with its English counterpart, it is evident that the transformational rule of deletion has been applied whereby the pronoun 'You' gets deleted and has not been overtly pronounced. Only the imperative form which is used for both singular and plural subjects is used along with the exclamation 'please' to make it polite. As mentioned above that Punjabi does have a polite form for imperative constructions, whereas English does not have any polite form as such. As there are no transformational rules used except morphological ones, the deep and surface structure of Punjabi construction could be summarized as X1, X2 = X1, X2. The position of the noun and verb phrases has been given in the following tree diagram.



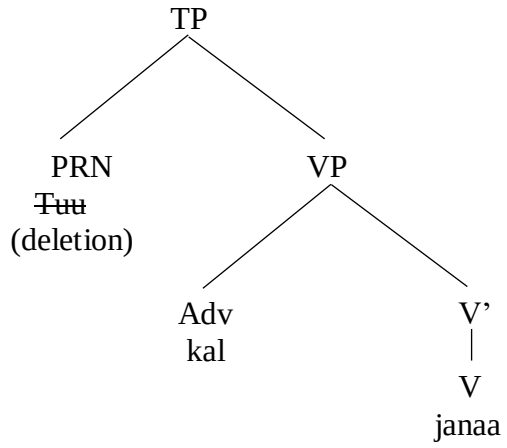
Tree diagram: 5.21

5.2.2. The Future Imperative Constructions

In Punjabi, future imperative constructions are constructed by appending a future suffix 'Naa' to the base form of the verb as well as the time adverb 'Kal', etc. The future imperative has been expressed by means of the affix 'Naa' appended to the verb and the time adverb as in the following construction:

d. Kal jaNaa ('Go tomorrow.') (ibid, p.35)
Tomorrow go

The given syntactic construction shows that future imperative may be used without the subject pronoun, which is understood. The subject of the aforementioned syntactic constructions gets deleted due to the application of the deletion rule. The deletion of the constituents takes place in both Punjabi and English constructions. The merging operation of the constituents indicates that the verb 'JaNaa' merges with the adverb of time 'Kal' to have a verb phrase. In the deep structure, the subject of the construction is employed, but gets deleted due to the transformational rule of deletion. The Punjabi construction is in the form of a verb phrase as the adverb of time, 'Kal' and the verb of the construction are used at the beginning of the construction, whereas in English, the adverb of time is placed after the verb phrase. The formation of surface structure from the underlying deep structure can be summarized as X1, X2, X3 = X2, X3. This shows that the subject of the construction was there in a deep structure, which got deleted to form the given surface structure.



Tree diagram: 5.22

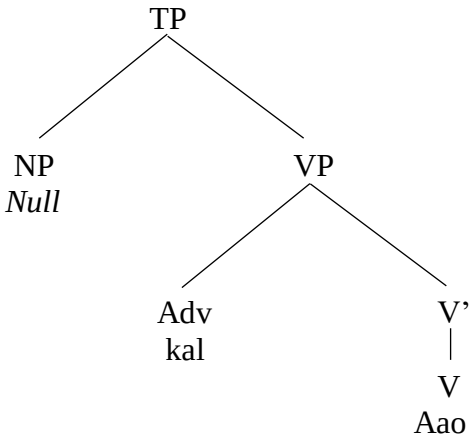
Moreover, by comparing the aforementioned Punjabi construction with its counterpart in English, it is clear that constructions in both languages are similar with regard to the absence of subject pronouns in surface structures. Syntactically, the imperative structures in both languages are different as is shown in the above example. Another morphological difference between the two languages is that the future tense in Punjabi is expressed by means of adding a suffix to the base form of the verb as well as the adverb of the time; on the contrary, in English, future is expressed by using the adverb of time 'tomorrow' with the base form of the verb. In other words, the future tense has not been used but is conveyed through the adverb of time.

Besides the suffix 'Naa' to express imperative, the suffix 'O' is attached to the base form of the verb to construct plural imperative; the time adverb has also been retained in such constructions to express future. This has been shown in the given construction:

a. Kal aao ('Come tomorrow.') (ibid, p. 36)
   Tomorrow come

The aforementioned construction consists of a verb phrase, which is further divided into an adverb and a verb phrase. To form this construction, the verb 'Aao' merges with the adverb of time 'Kal' to have a verb phrase. The subject of this construction, 'Tusii' has not been overtly spelled out. The underlying or deep structure could be 'Tussi kal aao.' To have a surface structure, the pronoun 'Tusii' gets deleted due to deletion transformation. Besides deletion transformation, the morphological transformation is also applied, which alters the singular verb form to the plural form of the verb.

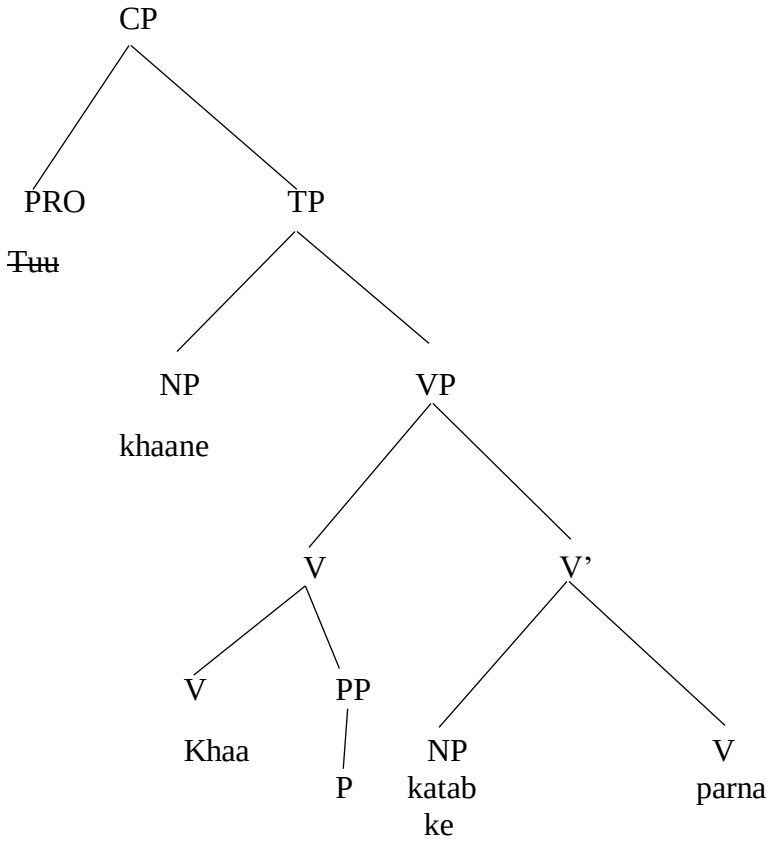
On the other hand, the English counterpart is also the same as given in the parenthesis above. The English syntactic construction also does not have an overt subject, which means that the same transformational rule of deletion is applied. However, the English verb 'come' does not undergo any morphological change, and the base form of the verb is retained with a plural subject. The deep and surface structures of the aforementioned construction have been summarized as X1, X2, X3 = X2, X3. In the transformational process, X1 gets deleted, and only two constituents are retained to generate the above construction. The position of the constituents, along with transformational rules have been provided in the tree diagram below:



Tree diagram: 5.23

Future imperatives are also constructed by putting together two clauses: one of the clauses is a non-finite clause, and the other is a finite one. In Punjabi, the finite clause is in the future tense, while the English finite clause is in the present tense. Though the English construction conveys a future sense, it does not in the case of conditional constructions. The following future imperative construction consists of non-finite and finite clauses.

b. KhaaNaa khaa ke katab parNaa. (ibid, p. 36) (After having your meal, read the book.)
   Food eat having book read will



Tree diagram: 5.24

The above Punjabi construction is a simple sentence as it contains a main clause, 'Katab parNaa', which is preceded by a postposition; however, the English constructions given in the parenthesis are different, i.e., the imperative constructions start with a preposition. The analysis of the aforementioned Punjabi construction by using bottom-up merging operation reveals that the noun 'Katab' merges with the future form of the verb 'ParNaa' to constitute a verb bar as well as an independent clause which acts as a complement here; subsequently, the verb bar 'Katab parNa' merges with the verb of the postpositional phrase 'Khaa ke' to constitute a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase merges with the noun 'KhaaNaa' to form a tense phrase which is evident in the tree diagram. The surface structure shows that the subject pronoun is missing and has not been overtly spelled out, which means that it gets deleted while forming surface structure from the underlying or deep structure. Besides the deletion rule, the morphological rules are applied to the Punjabi imperative verb, whereby a suffix 'Naa' is added to the base

form of the verb. However, no such morphological rules have been applied to English imperative verbs.

The deletion transformational rule has been applied to both clauses of the aforementioned complex Punjabi construction. On the contrary, the same deletion rules are applied to both the clauses of English construction, i.e., non-finite and finite clauses, since the construction contains two clauses; therefore, compound commands have been used in both Punjabi and English constructions. Moreover, the Punjabi construction shows that the postposition is employed after the verb since Punjabi is a head-final language, and the preposition is used at the beginning of the clause since it is a head-first language. Finally, Punjabi verbs show future forms by appending suffixes to the root form, whereas to express future, present simple tense has been used in English imperative construction.

5.2.3. Subjunctive Imperative Constructions

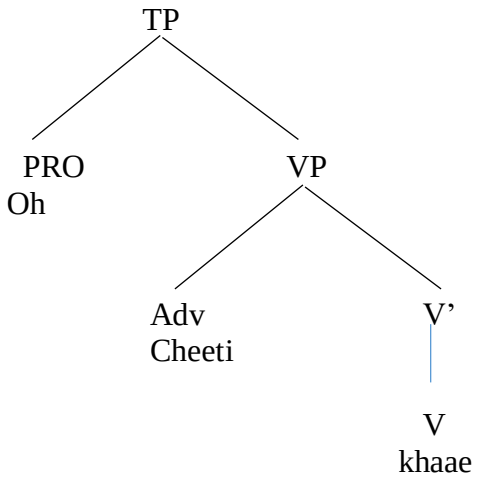
As mentioned in the definitions of imperative constructions, they are not only used to give a command or make a request but also can be employed to give suggestions or a wish. The following construction shows the wish of the speaker expressed through the use of a subjunctive imperative structure.

c. Oh chetti khaae. (ibid, p. 36) (‘He should eat quickly; I wish he ate quickly.’)
He/she quickly eat

The analysis of this construction by using bottom-up merging operation shows that the future form of the verb ‘Khaae’ merges with the adverb of manner ‘Chetti’ to form a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase pairs up with the third person pronoun to form a noun phrase at TP position. The deep and surface structures of Punjabi seem identical. Syntactically, the Punjabi construction looks like an affirmative structure; however, it performs the functions of subjunctive imperative in Punjabi. The Punjabi verb ‘Khaae’ is not only a form of verb but also shows suggestions and wishes expressed by the speaker. The Punjabi form of the verb ‘Khaae’ shows that the suffix ‘Ae’ has been appended to the base form of the verb through morphological rules. However, no such morphological rule has been applied to English verbs, so it retains its base form. Moreover, the aforementioned syntactic construction also looks like

an affirmative construction but contains a modal auxiliary to show a suggestion or a piece of advice.

The second English construction given in the brackets shows the wish on the part of the speakers. Both Punjabi and English syntactic constructions show that no movement rule has been applied. However, the positions of adverbs of manner in both these constructions are different. In Punjabi constructions, adjuncts are usually employed after the subject; however, in English constructions, adjuncts are usually placed at the end of the construction. The surface and deep structure of Punjabi constructions can be summarized as X1, X2 = X1, X2. This equation shows that there is no movement of any constituent involved in the formation of the Punjabi construction. The aforementioned Punjabi construction has been visually described in the following tree diagram.



Tree diagram: 5.25

Besides the aforementioned construction, the subjunctive imperative can also be expressed through the following construction.

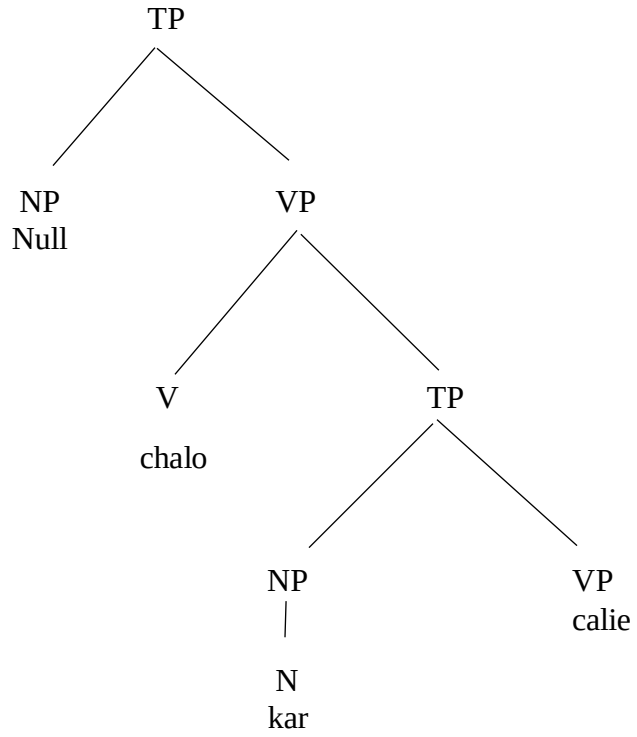
a. Chalo kar calie. (ibid, p. 36) ('Let us go home.')

Let us home go

These kinds of imperative constructions are used with first-person pronouns and are often used to give suggestions. By analyzing the aforementioned Punjabi imperative

construction, it is evident that the noun ‘Kar’ merges with the infinitive form of the verb ‘Calie’ to constitute a tense phrase; the resulting tense phrase merges with the imperative verb ‘Chalo’ to form a verb phrase; the verb ‘Chalo’ shows the verb form as well as a plural form of the first person. Both forms of the verbs ‘Calie and Chalo’ have been derived from the base form of the verb ‘Chal.’ This means that the morphological rules are applied, and thereby, the base form of the verb is transformed into future subjunctive forms of the verb. However, no such morphological rules are applied to English verbs.

By comparing this Punjabi construction to its corresponding English, it is evident that ‘Let’ is a verb followed by the first-person plural form ‘Us’. In other words, the Punjabi language uses of one word, ‘Chalo’, to show the person and imperative form of the verb, whereas the English language capitalizes two words for this purpose: ‘Let us.’ As far as transformational rules are concerned, once again, no movement operation is involved in the above Punjabi construction: the deep structure and the surface structures are more or less the same. Its corresponding English construction is also the same with regard to these transformational rules. The Punjabi construction is just like a verb phrase and does not includ an overt subject. This means that the specifier position at TP would be empty or null. The Punjabi construction can be summarized as X1, X2 = X1, X2, which show that both deep and surface structures are identical, and no transformational rule has been applied here. The aforementioned Punjabi construction has been visually described in the following tree diagram.



Tree diagram: 5.26

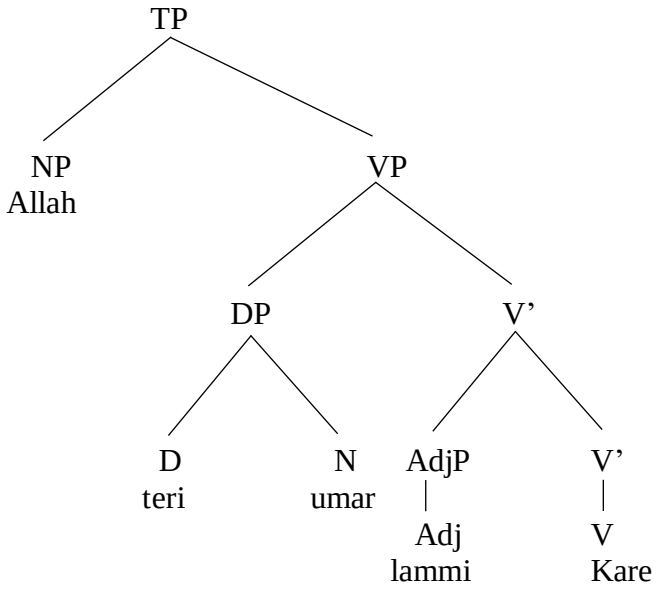
Besides the aforementioned constructions, Punjabi does make use of subjunctive constructions which are equivalent to English optative constructions used to send prayers to someone. The following construction is subjunctive to express prayers.

b. Allah terii umar lammii kare. (ibid, p. 36) (‘May Allah bless you with longevity?’)
Allah your age long do subjunctive 2nd singular

The bottom-up merging operation shows that the adjective phrase ‘Lammii’ merges with the verb ‘Kare’ to have a verb bar; the verb bar pairs up with the noun to have a verb phrase, and finally, the verb phrase merges with the proper noun ‘Allah’ to have a tense phrase. The aforementioned syntactic construction is like an affirmative construction as it does not involve the movement of any constituent to have this surface structure. However, an affix ‘e’ is added to the main verb ‘Kar’ to have a subjunctive form ‘Kare.’ This shows that morphological rules have been applied to change the root form of the verb to a subjunctive one. However, the English verb ‘bless’ does not undergo any morphological change, and to achieve a subjunctive mood, the auxiliary ‘may’, has been brought to the beginning of the

construction. The inclusion of the modal verb shows that the transformational rule of addition has been applied to have this surface structure.

As there are no movement or transformational rules applied except morphological rules, the surface and deep structures for the aforementioned construction would be the same. Thus, the Punjabi subjunctive constructions could be summarized as X1, X2, X3 = X1, X2, X3. The positions of various constituents have been shown in the given tree diagram 5.27.



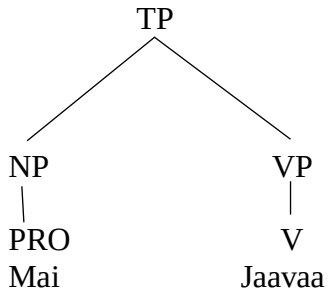
Tree diagram: 5.27

The constructions used to seek permissions are also placed under subjunctive imperatives in Punjabi. The following syntactic construction illustrates this point.

c. Mai jaavaa? (ibid, p. 36) ('May I go?')
   I go subjunctive

By using the merging operation of the constituents, it is evident that the subject 'Mai' merges with the subjunctive form of the verb 'Jaavaa' to form a tense phrase. The deep and the surface structure for this construction seems similar; however, the morphological rules have been applied to the base form of the verb 'Jaa', and a suffix is added to the root to the aforementioned Punjabi subjunctive form. Syntactically, this construction looks like an

affirmative one, but it has the force of subjunctive and is employed to seek permission. The form of the verb not only shows action but also indicates permission. On the contrary, the English construction given in the brackets above is in the form of an interrogative construction. The deep or underlying construction could be 'I may go'; to transform this deep structure to surface one, the auxiliary moves to tense bar positions to 'C' bar position to have this construction. This kind of movement is called head movement/auxiliary inversion. The aforementioned construction may be summarized as X1, X2 = X1, X2. The tree diagram illustrates the position of various constituents.



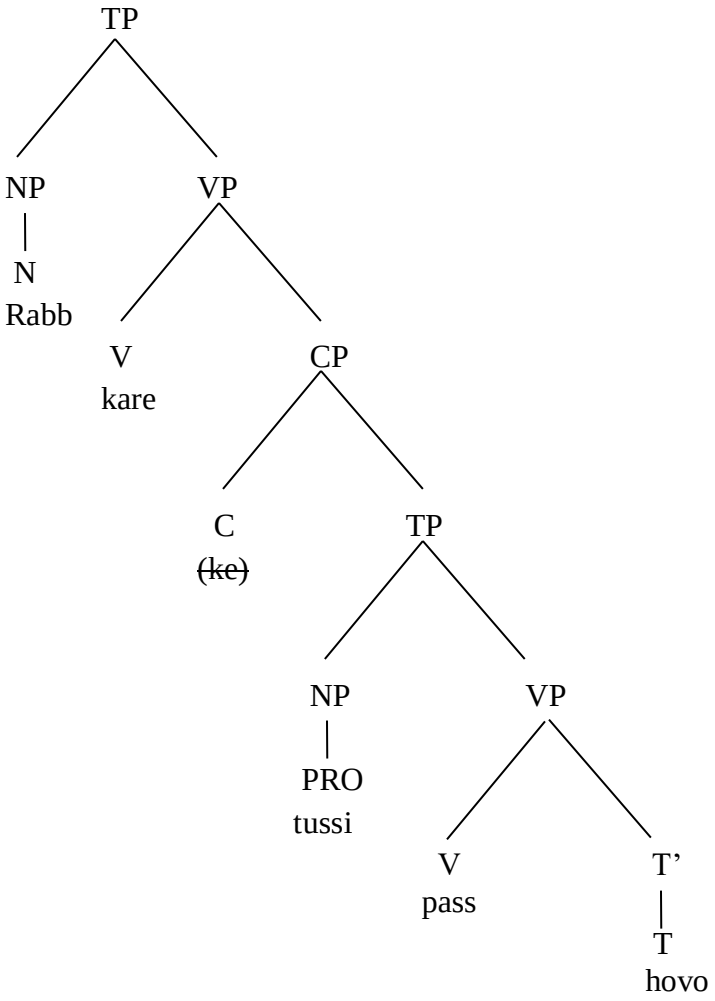
Tree diagram: 5.28

The English construction apparently looks like an interrogative one but is used to seek permission from the speaker. The base form of the verb is used following the modal verb and the equivalence of Punjabi verb is achieved through modal verb and root form of the verb. The Punjabi construction is in the form of an affirmative construction, while the English construction takes an interrogative form, though both constructions perform the same function.

There is no difference between the ordinary plural form of the verb such as 'Hovo' and the second person plural subjunctive form of the verb. However, when this subject-verb combination is employed, the subject in subjunctive constructions it is milder than command and is employed to give a suggestion or express a wish. The aforementioned form of the verb is used in the following construction.

d. Rabb kare tusii pass hovo. (ibid, p. 36) ('May Allah bless you with success!')
Allah do subjunctive 3rd person you pass be subjunctive 2nd person

By employing the merging of the constituents, it is clear that the verb ‘Pass’ merges with the auxiliary ‘Hovo’ to form the verb phrase; the verb phrase subsequently, pairs up with second person pronoun ‘Tusii’ to form a tense phrase (VP); the resulting tense phrase pairs up with the optional unpronounced complementizer/conjunction to have a complementizer phrase; the complementizer phrase, thereafter, integrates with the verb ‘Kare’ to have a verb phrase, and finally, the verb phrase merges with the subject or noun phrase to have a tense phrase as the surface and deep structure of this construction is the same except the unpronounced/optional CP which gets deleted to have the surface structure. Moreover, the morphological rule is applied to the form of the verbs such as ‘Kare and Hovo’ respectively. The suffix ‘e’ is added to the base form of the verb; ‘Kar’ and ‘Vo’ are appended to the root form ‘Ho’ to have these subjunctive forms. The pronoun ‘Tussi’ has also undergone a morphological change, and ‘Sii’ has been added to the base form, i.e., ‘Tu.’ The above Punjabi construction may be summarized as X1, X2, X3, X4, X5 = X1, X2, X3, X4. The tree diagram illustrates the position of various constituents.



Tree diagram: 5.29

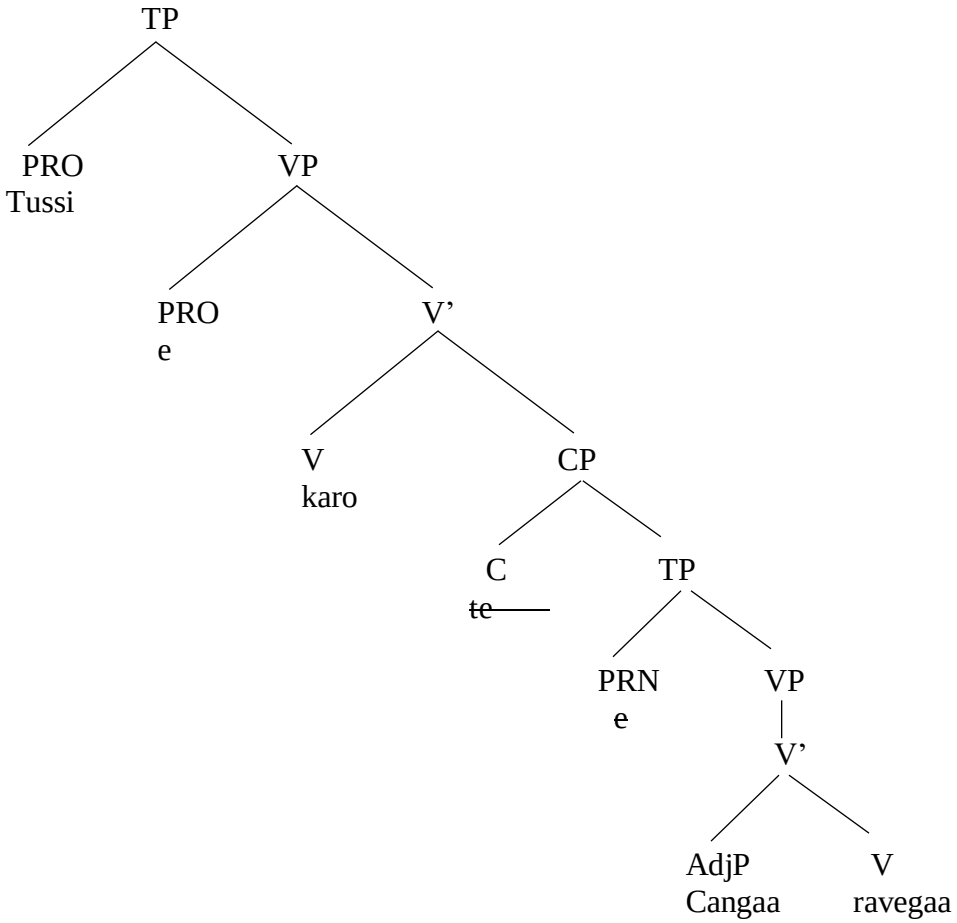
In this construction, only one root form of the verb 'bless' is used and the verb does not undergo any morphological change; the modal auxiliary 'may', is used to convey an optative force rather than the form of the verb. The underlying or deep structure of this could be 'Allah may bless you with success!' To change this into a surface structure, the modal verb has been moved from T bar position to C bar position. This kind of movement is called head movement. However, no such movement of any constituent has taken place in the aforementioned Punjabi construction.

The subjunctive and future forms of Punjabi verbs may be used to convey that something is necessary to do or a better course of action needs to be taken. Such Punjabi

constructions are in the form of complex structures. The following construction illustrates this point.

e. Tussi e karo, can gaa ravegaa. (ibid, p. 37) (‘You ought to do this, it will be good for you.’)
You this do good live future masculine

By employing the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the adjective phrase ‘Can gaa’ merges with the future form of the verb ‘Ravegaa’ to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently pairs up with the pronoun ‘E’ to yield a tense phrase which then integrates with the complementizer ‘Te’ to have a complementizer phrase. To have the second clause the complementizer phrase merges with the verb ‘Karo’ to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently combines with the pronoun ‘E’ to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase finally integrates with the subject of the construction ‘Tussi’ to have the tense phrase. There are two clauses in this construction: the first one is dependent, and the second one is an independent one. This Punjabi construction does not undergo any movement rule; however, there are two constituents which get delected by applying the transformational rule of deletion. Moreover, the suffix ‘O’ is added to the root of the verb to have a subjunctive form, and the future form of the verb in the second clause is formed by appending the future suffix ‘Gaa’ to the base form of the verb ‘rave.’ The aforementioned Punjabi construction may be summarized as X1, X2, X3, X4, X5, X6, X7 = X1, X2, X3, X4. The position of various constituents has been given in the tree diagram 4.79 below. The tree diagram of the aforementioned construction is given below:



Tree diagram: 5.30

The tree structure above shows that the punjuabi construction construction consists of two clauses and the same goes for the its equivalent construction in English. The form of the verb 'Do', does not convey subjunctive mood; rather, the modal auxiliary 'ought to' is used. The future is also expressed in the second clause through a model auxiliary. Moreover, the expletive 'it' has been used in English construction; however, no such pronoun is used in Punjabi construction. There is no movement rule applied to this English construction as they are syntactically affirmative clauses, though the first one conveys the idea of necessity through the use of modal auxiliary.

5.2.4. Prescriptive and Compulsive Imperatives

These types of syntactic constructions also come under the heading of imperative constructions, but they express moral, communal, and social duties and obligations. Such

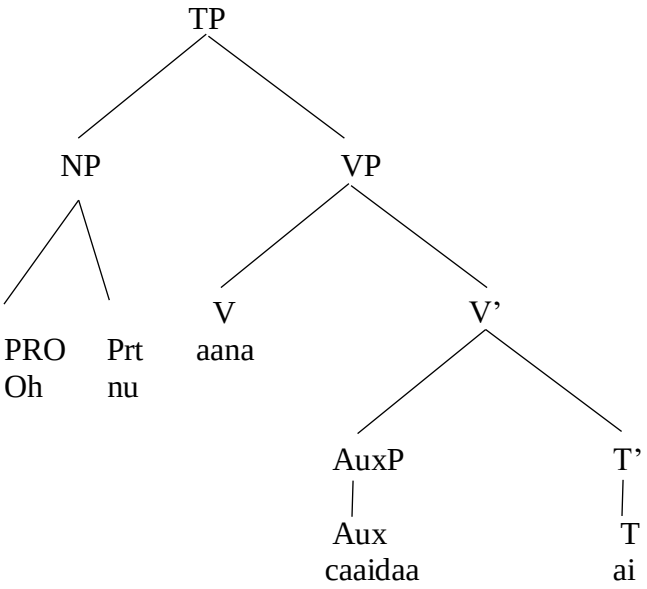
structures employ compound verbs/serial verbs. The following construction expresses someone's obligation and duty:

f. Oh nuu aaNA caaidaa ai. (ibid, p. 37) ('He should/ought to come.')

He to (dative) come ought to/should

By analyzing this syntactic construction using the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the modal auxiliary verb 'Caaidaa' merges with the tense bar to have a verb bar, the verb bar merges with the verb 'AaNA' to form a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase merges with the dative form of the subject 'Oh nuu' in Punjabi to project a tense phrase. This Punjabi subject is in contrast to the nominative form of the subject in English. As far as transformational rules are concerned to change deep structure to surface structure, there is no rule applied to form the above constructions of both languages. Moreover, Punjabi is a head-final language, so the auxiliary verb 'Ai' is used at the end of the construction to show the present tense. This means that the T bar in Punjabi is used after the main verb in the tree diagram.

On the contrary, the English construction employs the auxiliary 'ought to' to show obligation as well as tense, and no separate constituent has been used to indicate tense. On the contrary, in the Punjabi syntactic construction provided above in 'M', there are two seperapte constituents such as 'Caaidaa' meaning ought to and 'Ai' is used to show tense. Furthermore, English is a head initial language. The modal auxiliary is placed before the main verb. The Punjabi construction can be summarized as X1, X2, X3 = X1, X2, X3, which shows that both deep and surface structures are identical, and no transformational rule has been applied here. The aforementioned Punjabi construction has been visually described in the following tree diagram 5.31.



Tree diagram: 5.31

Punjabi language also uses constructions to show obligations on the part of the speaker. The following syntactic construction illustrates the following point:

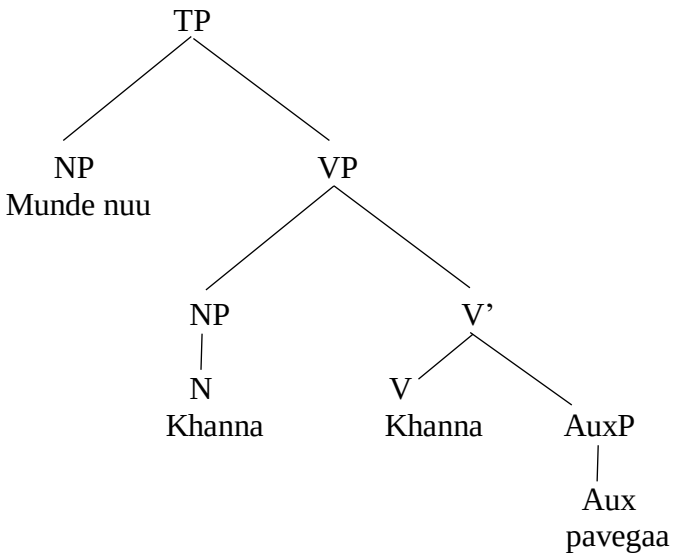
g. MuNDE nuu khanna khanna pavegaa. (ibid, p. 37) ('The boy will have to eat meal.')

Boy (masculine singular) to a (dative) meal, eat, compulsion

This synt construction shows compulsion in the indefinite future. The sentence 'F' also shows future obligations which may take place in the near future. However, in this construction, the future time is indefinite as well as it may take place in the distant future. The bottom-up merging operation of this construction shows that the main verb 'khanna' merges with the modal auxiliary indicating future compulsion 'pavegaa' to form a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently merges with the noun 'Khanna' to have a verb phrase; finally, the verb phrase pairs up with the preceding noun to have a tense phrase. In Punjabi, the auxiliary show compulsion as well as tense through 'Pavegaa'. The English language utilizes two words to show the future and the compulsion 'will have to.' The above Punjabi construction is like an affirmative structure despite having different functions. Therefore, no transformational rules are applied to change the aforementioned deep structure to a surface structure. Its

corresponding construction in English also does not undergo any transformational rules to have its surface structure.

As mentioned above that, Punjabi is a head-final language, and the constituent 'Pavegaa' 'will have to show future compulsion, which is placed after the main verb, while in English construction, the modal auxiliary verbs have been placed before the main verb 'eat'. The Punjabi construction can be summarized as X1, X2, X3 = X1, X2, X3, which shows that both deep and surface structures are identical, and no transformational rule has been applied here. The aforementioned Punjabi construction has been visually described in the following tree diagram 5.32.



Tree diagram: 5.32

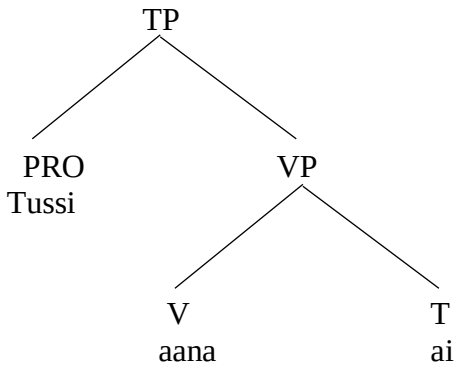
Apart from Punjabi constructions used for obligation, duty, and morality, there are simple imperative constructions that show need and compulsion. These syntactic constructions consist of a subject and a verb followed by an auxiliary 'Ai'. The following construction is one of the instances of such type.

h. Tussi aaNaa ai. (ibid, p. 37) ('You need to come/you have to come.')

You come is

Using the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the main verb ‘AaNaa’ merges with the auxiliary ‘Ai’ to constitute a verb phrase; the verb phrase pairs up with the formal subject to constitute such constructions. Like other above-mentioned structures from ‘A’ to ‘G’, this construction also does not undergo any transformation. In other words, no transformational rules are applied to transform this structure from deep structure to surface structure. Moreover, the idea of necessity or compulsion has been expressed by the main verb ‘aaNaa’; the tense is also shown by using an auxiliary ‘ai’, which is indicative of the present or future tense. The verb particle or auxiliary is usually placed after the main verb because Punjabi is a head-final language.

By comparing this construction to its corresponding English structure, it is clear that the second person pronoun ‘You’ is used; however, modern English does not make use of different pronouns for formal and informal contexts, but Punjabi does employ separate pronouns for both formal and informal contexts. The Punjabi construction can be summarized as X1, X2 = X1, X2, which shows that both deep and surface structures are identical, and no transformational rule has been applied here. The aforementioned Punjabi construction has been visually described in the following tree diagram 5.33.



Tree diagram: 5.33

In addition to the aforementioned syntactic constructions, an obligation is also highlighted by inserting an adverb such as ‘Zaruur’ into the construction. This insertion of the adverb makes the construction more emphatic and forceful (Bhatia, 2013). The following Punjabi imperative construction illustrates this point:

i. Tuaa nuu zaruur jaaNa cacidaa ai. (ibid, p. 38) (You must go.)
You plural to (dative) definitely go should is

By employing the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the auxiliary verb 'Cacidaa' merges with the tense auxiliary to form an auxiliary phrase; the main verb 'JaaNa' integrates with the auxiliary phrase 'Cacidaa ai' to form a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently merges with the adverb 'Zaruur' to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase finally pairs up with the subject of the construction used as a noun dative case to form a tense phrase (TP). The construction looks like an affirmative one, and no transformational rule is applied to its constituents. However, morphological rules have been applied to the form of a verb, and as a result, a suffix 'Na' is appended to the base for the verb 'Jaa.' Although the construction shows some sort of suggestion, the use of the adverb 'Zaruur' has given it an emphatic or emphatic connotation.

By comparing this syntactic construction with its English counterpart provided above, it shows that there are a number of syntactic disparities despite having the same interpretation or meaning. First, there is a diffidence of noun cases: in English nominative noun case is used, while Punjabi construction uses a dative noun case as the subject; the idea of obligation has been conveyed through the modal auxiliary verb 'must', whereas in Punjabi construction the modal verb 'Caaidaa', as well as the adverb of necessity 'Zaruur', have been utilized to have compulsive or emphatic sense. As English is a head-first language, the modal auxiliary 'must' have been placed before the main verb, and in Punjabi construction, the auxiliary verbs such as 'Caaidaa and Ai' have been used after the main verb 'JaaNaa' since it is a head last language. Finally, English uses only one modal auxiliary, while Punjabi makes use of two auxiliaries, 'Caaidaa and Ai'; the former is modal while the latter is a primary auxiliary. As the Punjabi construction does not undergo any transformation, the aforementioned construction can be summarized as X1, X2, X3, X4 = X1, X2, X3, X4.

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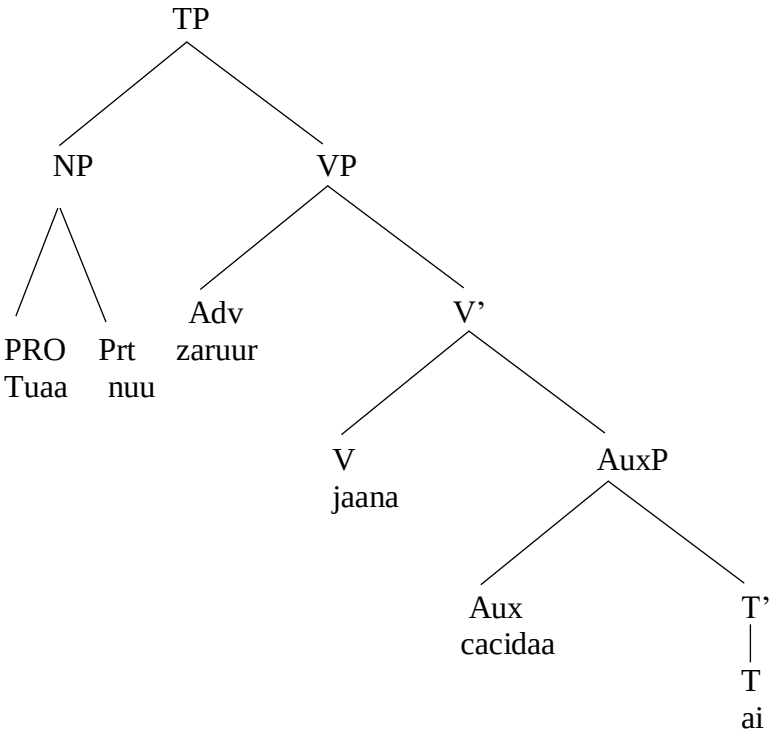


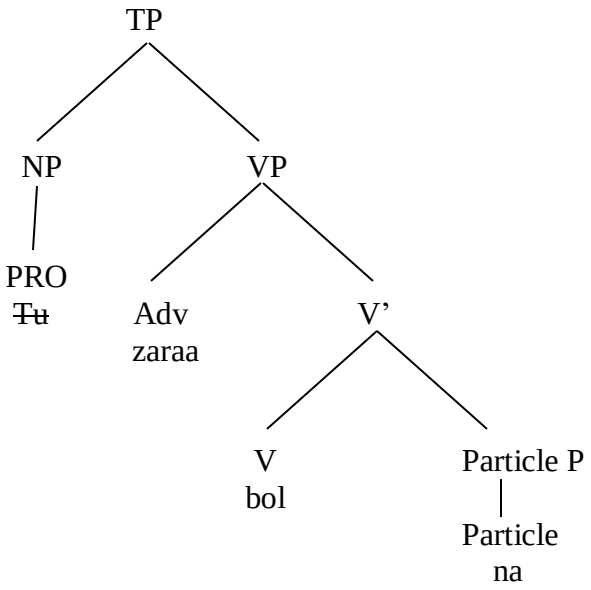
Tree diagram: 5.34

Despite the aforementioned imperative used for obligation and prescription, there are other kinds of imperatives employed to weaken the force of imperative. These types of imperatives are constructed by appending the lexical item 'Zaraa' 'a bit/only' or a tag question marker 'Na' to imperative constructions. When the above lexical items are used they create a greater impact in weakening the force of imperative (Bhattia, 2013). This has been illustrated in the following imperative:

j. Zaraa bol na? (ibid, p. 39) ('Please speak, won't you?')
A bit *speak* *tag*

By employing the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the verb 'Bol' merges with the tag particle 'Na' to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently merges with the adverb 'Zaraa' to have a verb phrase. Finally, the verb phrase pairs up with the verb phrase to project a tense phrase. To generate this surface structure, it is evident there is a transformational rule of deletion applied, so the assumed pronoun 'Tum/Tu' gets deleted to have this surface structure. If it is assumed that the deep structure of this construction is 'Bol na zaraa,' then it

can be said that the adverb ‘Zaraa’ moves from one head position to another head, leaving behind a trace at its moved position. On the contrary, by assuming that deep construction comprises only the imperative form of the verb ‘Bol,’ then the transformational rule of addition has been used here, and two constituents, for example, ‘Zaraa and Bol’ are added to the deep structure to have the aforementioned imperative construction. The two constituents are added to soften the force of imperative construction.



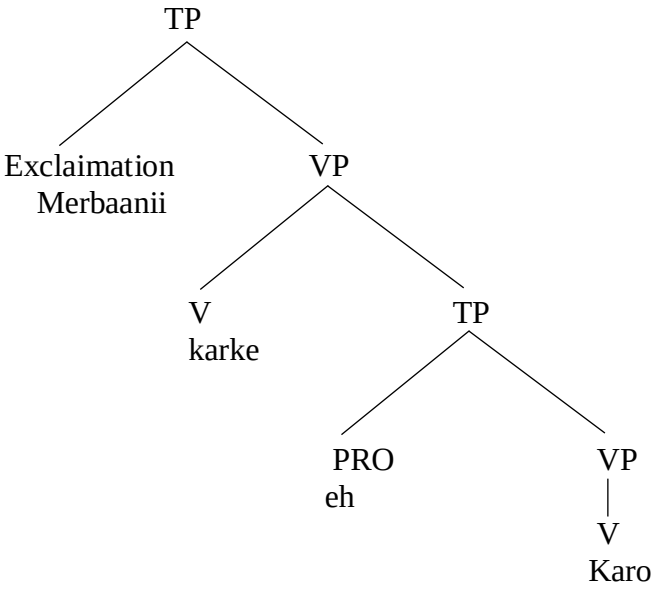
Tree diagram: 5.35

By paying attention to the English polite imperative construction provided in the brackets above, it is clear that the exclamation ‘Please’ and question tag have been added to the imperative verb to soften its force. By doing so, the two aforementioned constituents are added to the imperative verbs through the transformational rule of addition. In this regard, both Punjabi and English constructions are the same. However, in Punjabi construction, the adverb ‘Zaraa’ is employed, whereas the English construction does make use of the exclamation ‘please’ to achieve politeness.

In addition to ‘Zaraa’ and question tag, another expression, ‘merbaaNii karke’ is added to the initial position of imperative construction to induce further politeness and formality. The same has been demonstrated in the given example.

k. MerbaaNii karke eh karo. (ibid, p. 39) (‘Kindly do it.’)
Kindness do this do imperative ordinary plural

The merging of the constituents shows that the demonstrative pronoun ‘Eh’ merges with the imperative form of the verb ‘Karo’ to have a verb bar; the resulting verb bar pairs up with the verb ‘Karke’ to have another verb phrase; finally, the verb phrase merges with the noun ‘MerbaaNii’ to have a noun at tense phrase (TP) position. The provided construction has been made polite by appending the initial dependent clause ‘MeherbaaNii karke.’ As far as transformational rules are concerned, the transformational rule of embedding/addition has been applied here, whereby the independent clauses have been added/appended to the beginning of the dependent clause. The verb of the main clause also undergoes morphological transformation and an affix ‘O’ has been added to the root form of the verb ‘Kar.’ The deletion rule has also been applied and the second-person pronoun ‘Tussi/tuu’ has been deleted and is not spelled out. However, the un-spelt-out pronoun is understood.



Tree diagram: 5.36

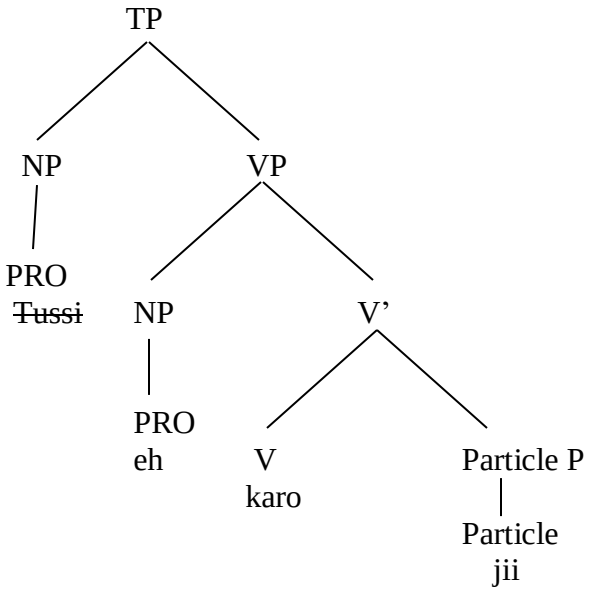
By comparing the aforementioned Punjabi construction with its English counterpart, it is evident that English construction makes use of an exclamation ‘Please’ in comparison to a dependent clause used in Punjabi construction. The English verb ‘Do’ does not undergo any

morphological change; the deletion rule of pronoun has also been applied to English construction. In Punjabi construction, the subject of the independent clause precedes the main verb, whereas in English construction, the verb precedes the pronoun 'It.' The formation of Punjabi construction from deep structure to surface structure has been summarized in the equation like X1, X2, X3, X4, X5 = X1, X2, X4, X5. In the surface structure, X3, which indicates the second-person pronoun, gets deleted as a result of the transformational rule. The position of various constituents of the aforementioned Punjabi construction has been provided in the above tree diagram 5.36.

In addition to the above-mentioned expression 'merbaaNii karke,' the particle of respect such as 'Jii' has been placed at the end of the Punjabi construction to have a polite imperative construction. The following examples illustrate this point:

l. Eh karo jii. (ibid, p. 39) ('Please do it.')
This do imperative ordinary plural particle of respect

By employing the bottom-up merging approach to the above Punjabi construction, it is evident that the verb 'Karo' merges with the particle of politeness to have a verb bar; the verb bar subsequently connects with the demonstrative pronoun to have a verb phrase VP. The verb phrase, finally, pairs up with the subject of the construction to project a tense phrase TP. This tense phrase is unpronounced in the surface structure due to the application of the deletion transformation. Moreover, the transformational rule of addition of the constituent has been applied, whereby the polite particle 'Jii' has been inserted/added to the end of the construction to make it polite. Moreover, the verb also undergoes a morphological transition and an affix 'O' has been appended to the root of the verb 'kar' to give the interpretation of the plural imperative verb. Once again, the object of the clauses precedes the verb 'Karo.'



Tree diagram: 5.37

By comparing this Punjabi construction to the English construction provided above in the parenthesis, it is clear that the transformational rule of insertion/addition has been applied here, and as a result, the exclamation 'Please' has been added to the beginning of the construction, whereas the same rule was applied to its Punjabi counterpart. However, the particle for politeness has been appended at the end of the construction. The deletion rule has also been applied to both English and Punjabi constructions, and the second-person pronouns have been deleted and are not spelled out. Finally, in English construction, the main verb 'Do' precedes the object 'it,' whereas, in Punjabi construction, it is the other way round. The aforementioned Punjabi construction, by considering deep as well as surface structure, may be summed up in the equation like X1, X2, X3, X4 = X2, X3, X4. In this equation, the constituent 'X1' has been deleted as the second-person pronoun has not been pronounced.

5.2.5. Negative Imperative Constructions

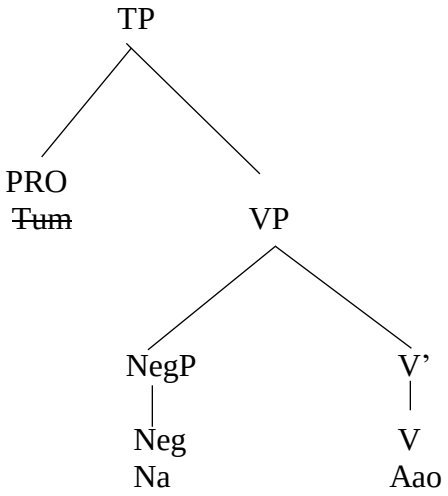
Along with affirmative kinds of imperative structures, negative imperative constructions are used in both Punjabi and English languages. In this section, the negative forms of Punjabi constructions have been discussed with respect to transformational grammar, and subsequently, these Punjabi constructions have been compared to their corresponding English negative imperative constructions. It has already been discussed in the Punjabi negative

structures section that negative particles such as ‘Naii’ and ‘Na’ are used in negative constructions. These negative particles are also utilized in negative imperatives. The functions of negative imperative constructions are to show prohibition, order, and command; the listener is expected to listen to the commands or instructions and to comply with them. The following construction is used to show prohibition in Punjabi.

m. Na aao. (ibid, p. 40) (‘Do not come.’)

Negative come

By analyzing this simple imperative construction, it is clear that the negative particle ‘Na’ merges with the main verb ‘Oaao’ to form a verb phrase. The second-person pronoun has been deleted by employing the deletion transformation. Therefore, the Punjabi deep structure could be ‘Tuu/tusi na aao’. By deriving surface structure from the given deep structure, it is evident that the deletion rule is applied, and as a result, the pronoun at the specifier position within TP is not pronounced. Likewise, the deep structure for the aforementioned English construction could be ‘You do not come.’ By deriving surface structure from the underlying deep one, it is evident that the pronoun ‘You’ gets deleted due to the transformational rule of deletion, and the specifier at the TP position gets empty or null. Thus, it can be concluded that both English and Punjabi constructions are similar to each other with regard to the deletion of the pronoun constituent. The absence of subject pronouns in both constructions shows that the pronouns do not have a phonological representation. Therefore, they are not spelled out. Further, Punjabi does not make use of auxiliary verbs like English does (do is used as an auxiliary). In this case, it may have implications for Punjabi native speakers who are aspirants to learn English: they may utter ‘not come’ instead of ‘do not come’. The deep and surface structure of the aforementioned Punjabi constructions can be summarized as X1, X2, X3 = X2, X3, which means that the subject ‘X1’ got deleted and is not pronounced in the surface structure. The visual representation of this Punjabi construction is given under:



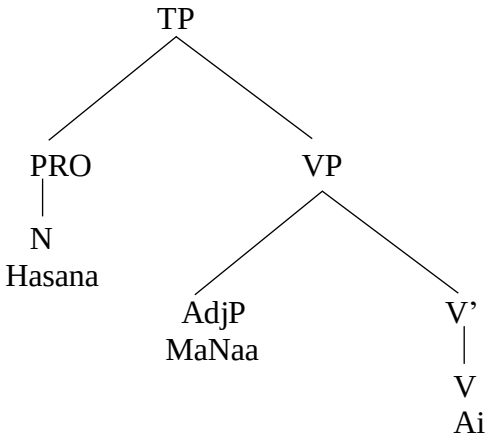
Tree diagram: 5.38

Punjabi negative imperative constructions are also used to show prohibition as indicated in the following:

n. HasaNa maNaa ai. (ibid, p. 40) (Laughing is prohibited)

Laughing prohibited is

The adjective or adjunct 'MaNaa' merges with the main verb 'Ai' to form a verb phrase; the resulting verb phrase 'MaNaa ai' pairs up with the subject to form a tense phrase (TP). Despite the syntactic disparity, the above Punjabi and English constructions are more or less the same. As far as transformational rules are concerned, no transformational rule is applied to Punjabi and English structures to change them from deep to surface structure. These two negative imperative constructions use subjects not found in the above-mentioned construction 'I'. The aforementioned Punjabi negative imperative construction may be summarized as X1, X2= X1, X2, which means that there is no transformational rule applied to have the surface structure. The arrangement of the constituents in this construction has been diagrammed in the following tree diagram.



Tree diagram: 5.39

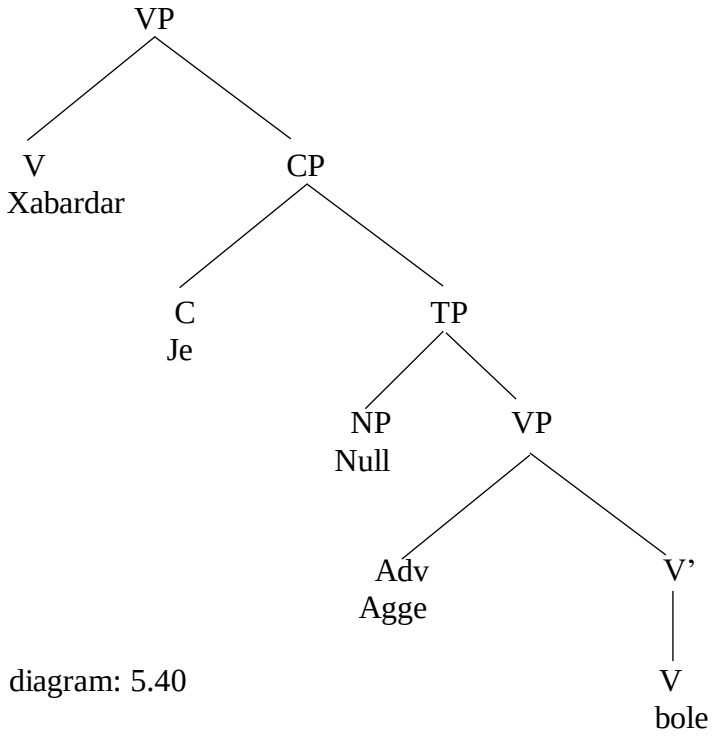
Besides the aforementioned constructions, the prohibitive imperatives have also been expressed by means of expressions such as 'Xabardaar' meaning 'beware' (Bhatia, 2013). The following syntactic construction illustrates this point:

o. Xabardaar je agge bole. (ibid, p. 40) beware if you talk further.)
Beware if further speak conditional 2nd person

By employing the bottom-up merging operation, it is evident that the adverb 'Agge' merges with the verb bar to have a verb phrase; the verb phrase pairs up with the complementizer to have a complementizer phrase; the complementizer phrase subsequently merges with the verb form to have a verb phrase. It may be noted here that after the complementizer 'if' the pronoun 'Tusii' or 'Tuu' have been deleted due to the transformational rule of deletion. Consequently, the tense phrase TP is null or empty. This means that the deep structure of this Punjabi construction could be 'Xabardaar je tusii agge bole'; while forming the surface structure, the second-person pronoun gets deleted. The same deletion rule has been applied to English construction, where the pronoun bar at the tense phrase is empty or null. Moreover, the morphological rule has also been applied to Punjabi construction to make it a prohibitive verb; a bond morpheme '' has been attached to the base form of the verb 'Bol' to provide it an imperative force. However, the English construction does make use of the base form of the verb 'speak' to convey a prohibitive sense.

As the transformational rule of deletion is applied to the aforementioned Punjabi construction, the given construction can be summarized as X1, X2, X3, X4, X5 = X1, X2, X4,

X5. This means that in deep structure, ‘X3’ is evident, which gets deleted in surface structure. The tree diagram below shows the positions of various constituents at different bars.



Tree diagram: 5.40

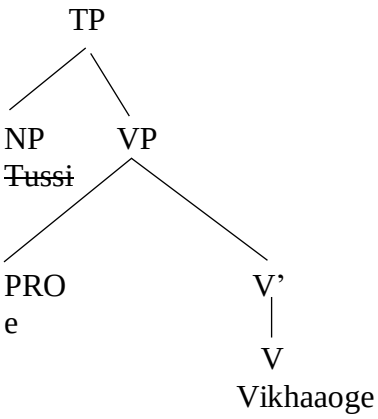
Besides various types of imperative constructions given above, there are other means of expressing the future. One of them is yes-no questions with a future tense form to indirectly convey the force of imperative constructions (Bhatia, 2013). The following syntactic construction illustrates this point:

p. e’ vikhaaoge? (ibid, p. 40) (Will you show this?)
This show (future 2nd masculine plural)

The surface structure of this construction is straightforward; however, the deep structure of this could be ‘Tussi e’ vikhaaoge?’ The bottom-up merging operation shows that the demonstrative pronoun ‘E’ merges with the future imperative form of the verb to have a verb phrase VP; the verb phrase subsequently merges with the subject of the construction used as a pronoun to project a tense phrase (TP). To have surface structure from this underlying

deep structure, the second person, ‘Tussi’ and the pronoun gets deleted. So, the second-person pronoun is not spelled out but is understood. Moreover, the morphological rule has been applied to the base form of the verb, and as a result, ‘Vikhaao’, which is a present imperative form, gets transformed to a future form by appending the suffix ‘Ge’ to the above-mentioned imperative form.

On the contrary, the English constructions do not show any deletions of the pronoun as is indicated in the construction given in the brackets above. The base form of the verb is used, so no morphological rule is applied, and the future is conveyed by means of a modal auxiliary used at the beginning of the construction. No such auxiliary is used at the beginning of Punjabi constructions. This syntactic disparity may have implications for Punjabi learners who wish to learn English. The language teacher needs to highlight this disparity to facilitate the learning process. As the transformational rule of deletion has been applied here, the aforementioned Punjabi constructions could be summarized as X1, X2, X3 = X2, X3. The equation shows that X1 used as a pronoun, gets deleted to have the surface structure. The tree diagram 5.41 below shows the positions of different constituents at various bars.



Tree diagram: 5.41

In addition to the above, suggestions expressed through negativized yes-no questions also have the force of imperative constructions. In English, these constructions come under the heading of ‘Wh’ questions instead of ‘Yes-no’ questions in Punjabi.

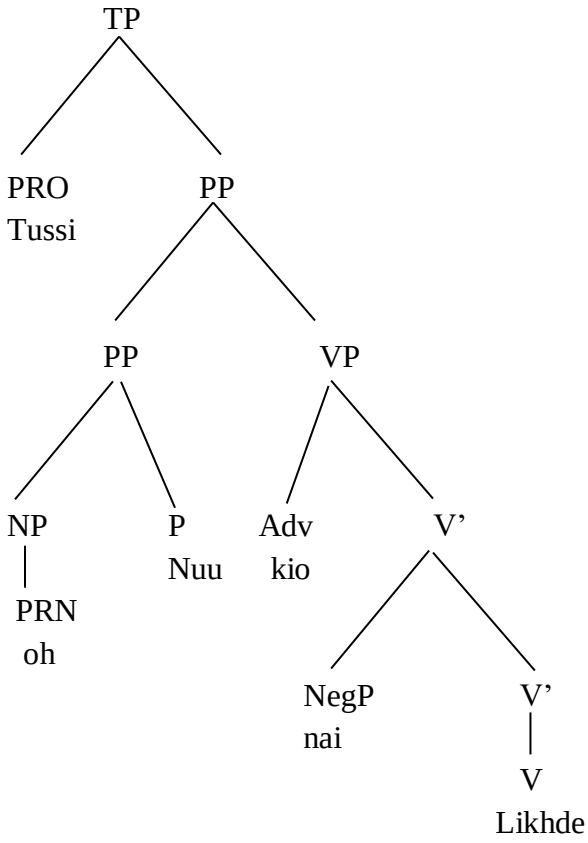
The aforementioned points discussed regarding both positive and negative imperative constructions have been summarized below to enlist the similarities and differences between the imperative syntactic constructions of both languages. The same is illustrated in the following syntactic construction of Punjabi (Bhatia, 2013).

q. Tusii oh nuu kio naii likhde? (ibid, p. 40) (‘Why don’t you write to him?’)
You he acc pp why not write present tense 2nd person masculine plural

The construction mentioned above can be analyzed by employing the bottom-up merging operation as the verb ‘Likhde’ merges with the negative particle to have a verb bar; subsequently, the verb bar pairs up with the adverb ‘Kio’ to have another verb phrase; the verb phrase merges with the object of the construction to yield prepositional phrase and finally the prepositional phrase merges with the subject of the structure to have a tense phrase. As Punjabi is a wh-in-situ language, the constituent ‘Kio’ retains its position and does not move its position to generate surface structure.

By comparing the aforementioned Punjabi constructions with their counterparts, English construction is given in the parenthesis. It is evident that in English construction, there is a movement of the ‘Wh’ question word to the beginning of the construction; the movement of this construction is called the ‘Wh’ movement/operator movement. The question word is followed by the addition of an auxiliary verb, showing the tense of the construction. This shows that there are two transformational rules which are used to have the surface structure. The Punjabi verb undergoes morphological rule and an affix ‘de’ has been appended to the root form of the verb ‘Likh.’ The form of the verb not only shows the tense but also the gender, i.e., the masculine plural form of the verb is used.

This syntactic disparity may have implications for Punjabi learners who aspire to learn English: they may employ question words at the beginning of the construction, but they may not use an auxiliary after the question word as no auxiliary is used in such Punjabi constructions. The above Punjabi construction may be summarized as X1, X2, X3, X4 = X1, X2, X3, X4. The arrangement of the constituents has been given in the tree diagram 5.42.



Tree diagram: 5.42

The analysis of the Punjabi and English imperative syntactic construction can be summed up as follows:

a. There are five kinds of imperative constructions used in Punjabi: unmarked imperative, future imperative, subjunctive imperative, obligatory imperative, and prohibitive imperative sentences. The same kinds of imperative constructions are also employed in the English language.
b. The singular second-person pronoun 'Tuu' is used with the base form of the verb, whereas the plural second-person pronoun 'Tussi', takes the verb 'O/ov' as a suffix with the basic form of the verb. No such attributes with regard to the form of the verb and different pronoun forms are seen in English.
c. Second-person pronouns are sometimes used in imperative constructions in Punjabi, whereas in English, these pronouns are not usually employed and get deleted through

the transformational rule of deletion to generate surface structure. This shows that the English language usually has a null specifier within TP while in Punjabi syntactic constructions, second-person pronouns are sometimes found. The English second-person pronoun is understood but is not overtly spelled out.

d. In future imperative constructions, second person pronouns are not used in Punjabi. So, both Punjabi and English languages are similar to each other in this regard. To delete the pronouns in such constructions, the transformational rule of deletion is used, and as a result, the second-person pronoun does not acquire phonetic form and is not spelled out.
e. In Punjabi, the future is expressed by adding 'Naa' as a suffix to the base form of the verb, while in English, the future is shown by the use of an adverb of time such as 'Tomorrow.' This shows that there is a proper form of future in Punjabi, whereas in English, the future is either expressed through auxiliary verbs or time adverbs. However, in some Punjabi constructions, time adverbs are also used to express the future along with the imperative form of the verb.
f. Future imperatives, in Punjabi, are also expressed by inserting/adding a suffix to the base form of the verb, such as 'E' to the verb 'Khaa', whereas for expressing future imperatives in English modal the verb like 'Should' is used. This means that there are various suffixes used with the base form of the verbs to denote the future in Punjabi. Future imperatives in such constructions are expressed by employing complex constructions in both Punjabi and English.
g. The use of suffixes to the root or base form of Punjabi verbs shows that morphological rules are applied, whereby the root forms of the verb change to future imperative verbs; however, no such morphological rules are applied to English verbs, and these verbs retain their root or base forms.
h. Punjabi subjunctive imperative constructions are used to express necessity, prayer, and permission on the part of the speaker. These functions are expressed by Punjabi verbs when different suffixes are added to them. However, in English, such language functions are achieved through employing modal auxiliaries.

i. In prescriptive and compulsive imperatives, the dative form of the noun, such as ‘Oh nuu’ is used as a subject of the construction; on the contrary, a nominative form of the pronoun is used in English. With Punjabi verbs suffixes such as ‘Naa’ and ‘Na’ are used to convey imperative meaning; on the contrary, in English modal verbs and question tags are used to construct prescriptive and compulsive imperatives.

j. Negative imperatives are derived by employing a negative particle ‘Naa’ with the main verb, whereas English makes use of an auxiliary plus ‘Not’ with the main verb to form negative imperatives. The absence of auxiliary verbs in Punjabi with regard to negative imperative has implications for Punjabi speakers who aspire to learn English. The auxiliary is added to the English construction through the transformational rule of insertion/addition. However, no such transformational rule is used in Punjabi constructions.

k. Although Punjabi negative imperative constructions do not often undergo any movement of the constituents, in some constructions, the movement of various constituents does take place. Consequently, the movement of ‘Wh’ constituent from the complement position to the specifier position takes place, which is termed the ‘Wh’ movement.

l. By looking at the surface structure of Punjabi imperative constructions, it is evident that these kinds of constructions have features similar to declarative (affirmative and negative) structures; therefore, it may be assumed that movement rules are mostly used to change deep structures to surface structures in both these languages. Nevertheless, the transformational rules of insertion/addition and deletion have been applied to derive surface structures from the deep ones. In a few constructions, ‘Wh’ movement is also observed.

m. The absence of second-person pronouns is observed in unmarked imperatives in the English language, whereas second-person pronouns are used in Punjabi in these kinds of constructions. However, in future imperative constructions, the absence of pronouns is observed in both Punjabi and English.

n. The absence of pronouns in various kinds of syntactic constructions in both languages shows that they share the attribute of null subject language, especially with regard to

imperative constructions. In general, these two languages are not included in the null subject category.

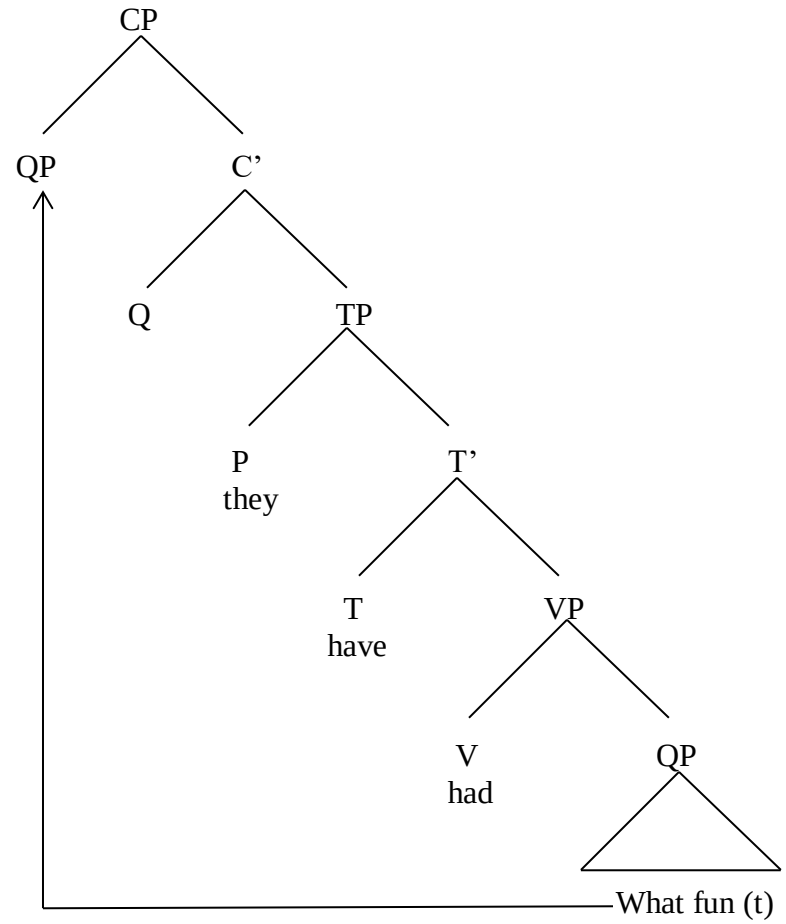
The aforementioned five kinds of imperative sentences are mainly used in the Majhi dialect of Punjabi. After illustrating these kinds of sentences, the last type of syntactic constructions are exclamatory ones, which will be discussed in the next section.

5.3. Exclamatory Syntactic Constructions

Besides interrogative constructions in English, there is another kind of structure called exclamatory constructions. According to Wren & Martin (2000), exclamatory construction is used to express strong feelings. Syntactically, English constructions look like interrogative ones in English and usually start with a 'Wh' word; however, 'Wh' words usually do not follow an auxiliary as they usually do in the case of interrogative structures. Moreover, an exclamatory construction ends with a sign of exclamation, unlike interrogative constructions, which have a question mark at the end. The following are some of the instances of exclamatory structures

a. What fun they have had! (Wren, P. C., & Martin, W. 2005 p. 221).
b. How politely she is talking!
c. How they aspire to meet them again!
d. What fun they have had! (Wren, P. C., & Martin, W. 2005 p. 221)

The deep structure of the aforementioned sentence 'A' is 'We have had what fun!'. The aforestated construction, 'A' given above, can be analyzed by bottom-up merging operations. The quantifier 'What' merges with the noun 'Fun' to form a quantifier phrase; subsequently, the quantifier phrase (QP) merges with the main verb 'Had' to form a verb phrase. The resulting verb phrase merges with the auxiliary verb 'Have' to form a T bar 'Have had what fun'; the T bar merges with the pronoun 'They' to form a TP; the final TP merges with 'C' to form a C bar; the C bar has WH and EPP feature which enables it to attract the quantifier phrase to the beginning of the construction (Radford, 2004). The transformation of surface structure from deep structure by means of transformations has been shown in the tree diagram 5.43 below:



Tree diagram: 5.43

According to Wren and Martin (2005), exclamatory constructions are ones used to express strong human emotions. These emotions can be happiness, grief, excitement, joy, etc. A similar definition of exclamatory constructions has been given by Radford (2004), who said that an exclamatory structure is a type of structure employed to show surprise, delight, annoyance, etc. Exclamatory constructions in English mainly begin with 'Wh', exclamatory words such as 'How, what', etc. Although exclamatory construction begins with a 'Wh' word, they do not attract an auxiliary to move to the T bar position as it does in the case of English interrogative constructions.

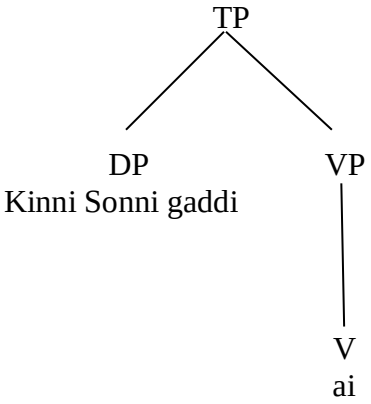
Exclamatory constructions, along with other minor types of structures such as interjectional, vocative, and elliptic constructions, are one of the minor types of constructions. An exclamatory structure usually includes a noun or a noun phrase but may contain a verb at

the end of the construction. As mentioned above, exclamatory constructions start with exclamatory words such as ‘What. How etc.’, and end with a sign of exclamation to show emotions or feelings instead of a full stop or a question mark. The following are some of the examples of Punjabi exclamatory syntactic constructions:

g. Kinni soNii gaddi ai! (Bhattia, 2013, p. 161) (What a beautiful car it is!)

What beautiful car is!

The surface and the deep structure of the aforementioned exclamatory Punjabi construction ‘C’ are the same. As Punjabi is a Wh-in-situ language, there is no movement of the ‘Wh’ phrase to form the surface structure. The analysis of the aforementioned Punjabi construction by employing the bottom-up merging approach shows that the determiner phrase ‘Kinni soNii gaddi’ merges with the main verb of the construction ‘Ai’ to form a tense phrase TP. The arrangement of the constituents has been given in the tree diagram 5.44



Tree diagram: 5.44

By comparing the Punjabi syntactic construction to its corresponding English structure provided in the brackets in ‘C’ above, it is evident that Punjabi is a Wh-in-situ language while English is a Wh-ex-situ language: in English, the quantifier phrase moves from verb complement position to complementizer phrase position; however, in Punjabi exclamatory syntactic construction, there is no such movement of the Wh-phrase. Moreover, in English

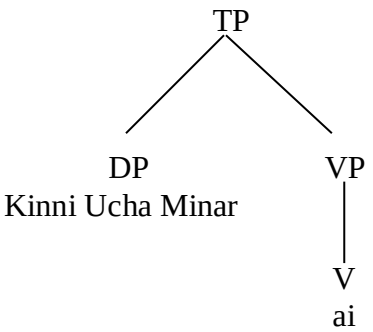
construction an expletive ‘it’ has been used, whereas no such pronoun has been added to the Punjabi construction. An indefinite article ‘a’ has been used in English construction, while no such article is employed in Punjabi construction. Such minor disparities have implications for Punjab learners who wish to learn English.

The following imperative syntactic construction reinforces the idea of how imperative constructions are formed from the underlying deep structures.

h. Kinni uchaa minar ai! (ibid, p. 161) (How tall the minaret is!)
   What tall minaret is!

This Punjabi syntactic construction is similar to the syntactic construction ‘C’ above. The bottom-up merging operation reveals that the determiner phrase ‘Kinni uchaa minar’ merges with the main verb ‘Ai’ to form a tense phrase. The surface and the deep structures of this Punjabi construction are the same, as no movement of any constituent is involved to generate this structure. By comparing this Punjabi syntactic construction with its corresponding English syntactic construction provided in the brackets ‘D’ above, it is evident that the surface structures of both Punjabi and English exclamatory syntactic constructions are the same. However, to generate English syntactic construction, the determiner phrase moves from verb complement position to complementizer phrase as English is a Wh-ex-situ language. However, no such movement of the quantifier phrase takes place to have a surface structure. The arrangement of the constituents has been provided in the tree diagram 5.45.

Kinni uchaa minar ai! (ibid, p. 161) (How tall the minaret is!)
What tall minaret is!

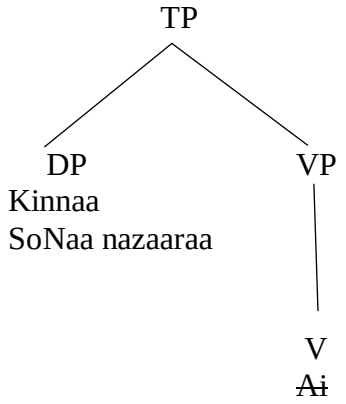


Tree diagram: 5.45

Besides, the aforementioned imperative constructions which consist of noun and verb phrases along with quantifier phrases to express exclamatory, exclamatory constructions can also be used in the form of a noun phrase. This means that the predicate is not overtly spelt out. The following Punjabi imperative construction reveals this fact.

a. Kinnaa soNaa nazaaraa! (ibid, p. 161) (What a gorgeous scene!)
   What beautiful scene!

Applying the aforementioned criterion of bottom-up merging operation, it is clear that the determiner phrase (QP) 'Kinnaa soNaa nazaara' merges with the main verb 'Ai' to form a tense phrase. To generate the surface structure, the main verb gets deleted, which leads to the aforementioned Punjabi exclamatory surface structure. In other words, the transformational rule of deletion is applied to generate both Punjabi and English syntactic constructions. The arrangement of the constituents and the deletion rule have been provided in the tree diagram 5.46 below.



Tree diagram: 5.46

The analysis above of Punjabi and English exclamatory constructions can be summarized as follows:

a. The exclamatory syntactic constructions are used in both English and Punjabi, but their use is less common than other kinds of constructions. In both languages, exclamatory

constructions are considered as one of the minor types of constructions along with vocatives and elliptical kinds of constructions (Bhatia, 2013).

b. There is no movement of the 'Wh' phrase or determiner phrase in Punjabi exclamatory syntactic constructions, as Punjabi is a Wh-in-situ language. This means that the deep and surface structures of the Punjabi exclamatory constructions are usually the same.
c. However, English is a Wh-ex-situ language: the determiner phrase having 'Wh' constituent moves from verb complement position to complementizer phrase.
d. The exclamatory constructions are syntactically unlike interrogative constructions, as the 'Wh' exclamatory phrases are not followed by the main verb or auxiliary. This is because of the fact that 'C' bar in English exclamatory constructions does not have TNS feature, which attracts an auxiliary after the quantifier phrase.
e. Unlike interrogative constructions, the auxiliary or main verbs are employed at the end of exclamatory constructions in both languages. This shows that both languages have similarities with regard to this aspect of exclamatory constructions.
f. In English exclamatory constructions, the expletive 'it' is used; however, null pronouns are not used in Punjabi constructions. This disparity, with regard to the use of an expletive, may have implications for Punjabi native speakers who are aspirants to learn English.
g. In both Punjabi and English, exclamatory constructions can be in the form of a noun phrase and do not have an overt verb.
h. The absence of verbs in such constructions shows that it is deleted during the transformational process. This means that in such constructions, the transformational rule of deletion is employed along with the head movement rule.

5.4. Conclusion

From the analysis of the open-ended, imperative, and exclamatory syntactic constructions of both languages, it is evident the Punjabi open-ended constructions have more dissimilarities in comparison to their counterparts in English. The question words, in Punjabi constructions, usually do not move, whereas English question words undergo movement quite often. Along with a few other differences, this discrepancy has repercussions for Punjabi speakers who desire to learn English. Punjabi and English imperative and exclamatory syntactic constructions have more similarities, regardless of a few differences. It is the job of the teachers to highlight these syntactic discrepancies to facilitate the learning process and to make full use of the syntactic similarities of both these languages.

Chapter 6

Findings and Discussion

In this section, I have briefly discussed the main findings of the present study, cross-referenced earlier studies with the results of this study, applied the theoretical work to the present research, surveyed the implications of the study for Punjabi speaking learners, undergraduate and graduate students, and carried out a comparison of the findings of the current research to the results of the previous studies to show how the present endeavor has contributed to the existing literature by providing explanations, address limitations and suggest future research.

The five syntactic constructions discussed in the present research are negative, passive, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. To express negation in the Punjabi language, various means are used: first, Punjabi uses negative particles which are equivalent to negative phrases in English; second, Punjabi employs a contrastive particle with the pronoun, whereas no such particle is used in English; third, prefixes are used to show negation, fourth, Punjabi verb is sensitive to tense, gender and number while English verb is only sensitive to number and person. Fifth, no dummy auxiliaries are used to generate negative constructions, as with English constructions. Finally, Punjabi verbs do not undergo any morphological change as do the English verbs due to dummy auxiliaries. The transformational rule of insertion/addition has been used in Punjabi and English, whereas the transformational rule of dummy auxiliary is not employed in Punjabi negative constructions.

Besides negative constructions, passive syntactic constructions have also been included in the present study. First, Punjabi passive constructions utilize oblique noun cases to have passive constructions, while English employs nominative and accusative cases to have passive constructions; second, Punjabi language utilizes both transitive and intransitive verbs in passive constructions as it is one of the split-ergative languages; however, English language simply uses transitive verbs to have passive structures; third, Punjabi language does not allow indirect object to be brought to the beginning of the constructions to generate passive sentences

while English language does. Finally, Punjabi verbs show both inability, unwillingness, and passivity, whereas English verbs show passivity. Regarding similarities, both languages use past participle forms of the verbs in passive constructions, and the A-movement rule, whereby the object moves to the initial position. To generate passive constructions in other SOV languages like Japanese and Chinese, the constituents undergo demotion and promotion processes whereby the passive surface structures are formed; however, Japanese, like the Punjabi language, does not use nominative and accusative noun cases to have passive constructions. Instead, the Chinese language uses nominative and dative noun cases to form basic passive constructions (Tallerman, M. 2019).

The third type of syntactic constructions can be divided into two sub-types: closed-ended questions and open-ended. The closed-ended questions are of four types: neutral, leading, alternative, and echo questions. Neutral questions are formed by inserting the question word ‘Kii’ into the statement, and such questions do not induce any response. A negative particle is added to the end of the construction to form Punjabi leading questions; in English, this negative particle is replaced by a question tag to form an interrogative structure. This means that the transformational rule of addition/insertion has been used in Punjabi construction. In contrast, the transformational rule of embedding has been applied in the English leading question, whereby the question tag has been embedded to the statement. Moreover, there is an auxiliary inversion and the deletion of the verb to have a question tag.

Punjabi alternative interrogative constructions are formed by joining two independent clauses with a complementizer/conjunctions and a negative particle ‘Naii’. Its equivalent in English is also formed in the same manner. However, Punjabi alternative constructions consist of two affirmative independent clauses, while both the clauses in English leading constructions are closed-ended questions combined with a complementizer. Finally, there are echo questions that are the same or parts of the statements repeated by the speaker ‘B’ with a rising tone that was earlier uttered by the speaker ‘A.’ This repetition leads to echo, which is why these questions are named so. Usually, the deletion rule is applied to generate a surface structure of

these questions in both languages, whereby some constituents get deleted. However, if the speaker ‘B’ repeats the same statement as the speaker ‘A’, no deletion rule is applied.

Besides closed-ended questions, open-ended interrogative constructions utilize question words similar to English open-ended question words. However, in Punjabi, the question words are placed right after the subject in most interrogative constructions. The question words in Punjabi open-ended questions do not undergo any movement operation as it is one of the wh-in-situ languages along with Chinese, Japanese, etc. In other words, the place of question words and their answers is the same. On the contrary, English open-ended questions undergo movement of question words. Such movement operation is called ‘Wh’ movement or operator movement. Moreover, in Punjabi syntactic constructions, the auxiliaries or main verbs are not usually inverted to generate surface structure; however, English auxiliaries are usually either inverted or dummy auxiliaries are employed to create surface structures.

These findings align with the conclusion drawn by Youn, J. H., & Meng, W. (2015), who conducted a study on open-ended questions of the Chinese language. In their research, the Chinese language was compared to the English language concerning open-ended syntactic constructions; to generate open-ended constructions in English, subject-auxiliary inversion, do-support, and Wh-movement are needed; however, these sorts of transformations are not required in their counterparts in Chinese, and the findings are the study has implications for Chinese speakers who intend to learn English language as they have to readjust their syntactic parameters to learn English open-ended syntactic constructions. The findings above have been validated by Tallerman, M. (2019), who commented that just as the echo question in English, the Wh-phrases do not move in Chinese and Japanese languages, and the question words remain in the normal position of the phrase being questioned. Moreover, in multiple open-ended questions, the same rule of structural formation applies in SOV languages, i.e., the question words do not move to the initial position.

Another distinctive feature of Punjabi open-ended interrogative constructions is the reduplication of the question word, such as ‘KeRaa keRaa’. The reduplication of the question

word is one of the prominent features of South Asian languages, including Japanese, Punjabi Urdu, etc. The repetition of the question word shows emphasis; however, in English, no such feature exists for open-ended questions.

In addition to the movement of question words, there are other kinds of movement operations such as pied-piping and attract-closest principle are used in open-ended questions in the English language, while in Punjabi, no such movement of question words takes place because Punjabi is a wh-in-situ language. In the pied-piping movement, the whole 'Wh' phrase, for example, 'What colors' rather than a question word, is moved to pre-subject positions. In the attract-closest principle, two question words are used in the construction, and the question word closer to the subject is moved to the initial position.

Besides open-ended questions, there are imperative syntactic constructions of four kinds: unmarked, future, subjunctive, obligatory, and prohibitive imperatives. In Punjabi, the imperative constructions are sensitive to number, gender, and tense, while in English, the subject agrees with the verb concerning number and tense. The second-person pronouns 'Tuu' and Tussi' are usually retained by Punjabi imperative constructions; however, the English second-person pronoun 'You' gets deleted due to the transformational rule of deletion to have a surface structure. In unmarked imperative constructions, the verb takes suffixes, for example, 'O/ov' to the base form of the verb. On the contrary, no such suffixes have been added to the base form in English comparatives.

Future imperative constructions are formed by adding two suffixes, ' Naa' and 'E', to the verb's base to have a future form. It is evident that the Punjabi language has a proper future form, while in English, the future is expressed through various means; however, there is no future form of the verb in English. In addition to future imperatives, subjunctives and imperatives indicate necessity, permission, and prayer.

The prescriptive imperatives in Punjabi employ a dative noun case as the subject of the construction; however, in English, no such dative case is used in such imperative structures. Instead, the subject in the nominative case gets deleted. In such constructions, Punjabi verbs take suffixes such as 'Naa' and 'Na' to give imperative connotation; however, in English, no such suffixes have been employed. Instead, the question tags are used in place of these suffixes

to have prescriptive imperative constructions. A negative particle is used to form prohibitive or negative imperatives in Punjabi. However, in English negative imperatives, a dummy auxiliary and negative particle are employed. The subjects in Punjabi and English negative imperative constructions get deleted and not spelled out.

Finally, the exclamatory syntactic constructions are used in both Punjabi and English. The 'Wh' word and an adjective are usually moved from the verb complement position to the specifier position within CP as it has a 'Wh' feature. The 'Wh' phrase movement is common in English only. On the contrary, the exclamatory expression remains in situ in Punjabi and does not undergo any movement as it does in English exclamatory syntactic constructions. In some exclamatory constructions, the expletive 'It' has been used in English; however, no such expletive is employed in Punjabi exclamatory constructions.

Comparing the findings/results of the study to the revised, extended standard transformational generative grammar framework used for the present study, it is evident that the main aspect of the framework is transformational and movement rules. Punjabi is an in-situ language, and applying these rules to generate Punjabi syntactic constructions is limited: not all the rules included in the theory are applicable. The most common rules used are insertion/addition, deletion, and A-movement rules to generate Punjabi syntactic constructions. The wh-movement rule, head movement, prepositional phrase, and adverbial preposing rule are rarely used to produce Punjabi syntactic constructions.

After briefly summarizing the main points, the study also has implications for Punjabi learners aspiring to learn English. Regarding negative constructions of English, Punjabi-speaking students may encounter difficulty using dummy auxiliaries and forms of the verbs in English following the dummy auxiliaries. This is because dummies are not utilized in Punjabi, and forms of Punjabi verbs hardly undergo morphological change after dummy auxiliaries. Regarding the variety of negative syntactic constructions, both Punjabi and English use several syntactic constructions to express negation. Concerning acquiring English passive constructions, Punjabi learners might not face much difficulty as both languages use a form of 'Be' and the past participle form of the verbs. However, Punjabi is a split-ergative language that employs transitive and intransitive verbs to generate passive constructions. Punjabi learners may generalize this rule and commit mistakes in English passive constructions.

Regarding Punjabi closed-ended constructions, the Punjabi student may not find it challenging to master English closed-ended structures. Despite syntactic variation and several transformational rules applied to generate both English and Punjabi construction, there may not seem to be a big challenge for the learners. However, English open-ended may pose some challenges for Punjabi-speaking learners. Two transformational rules are often not applied to Punjabi open-ended constructions: the wh-movement rule and head movement whereby an auxiliary move from 'T' bar to 'C' bar position. Nevertheless, the English syntactic structures may be highlighted and compared to Punjabi open-ended syntactic constructions to help students draw comparisons and make necessary parametrical adjustments to produce English grammatical constructions.

As for English imperative constructions, Punjabi speakers may find it a manageable task to learn them despite the difference in some suffixes, future forms of the verbs, and noun cases used to generate Punjabi constructions. However, a study may be conducted whereby the learners would be asked to translate some of the Punjabi imperative constructions into English to determine if the learners might feel any challenges. Moreover, English exclamatory constructions might be relatively easy for Punjabi speakers.

In addition to language learners who aspire to learn English, undergraduate, and graduate Pakistani students whose books are replete with syntactic constructions from various occidental and oriental languages do not find studying syntax relevant. Through this comparative study, the students may find syntax relevant, and they can compare other SOV languages spoken across Pakistan to the English language.

The following section compares the present study to the existing studies carried out in the light of transformational generative grammar. Sharma Yadav, M., & Yadav, M. K. (2020) conducted a study titled 'The Role of the transformational generative grammar and other language learning theories in English language teaching'. The researchers believe that teaching English to non-native speakers is a daunting task as the learners are preoccupied with their native language. Moreover, transformational grammar is an integral aspect of learning English but is effective at an advanced level. The study advocates that the three kinds of grammar, such as traditional, structural, and transformational, are essential to learning the English language.

The learners can get assistance from these kinds of grammar in learning a foreign language at an advanced level.

The present study has analyzed five kinds of syntactic constructions in light of the revised, extended standard model of transformational grammar to ascertain the syntactic similarities and dissimilarities between Punjabi and English. These are syntactically distinct languages and use identical and different transformations to generate surface structures from the given deep structures. The syntactic commonalities between these two languages facilitate learning as the learners readily acquire English constructions identical to Punjabi. However, the syntactic dissimilarities, which are more, may pose extra challenges to the learners as they consciously readjust the parameters of their language to learn the English language. In this regard, the role of the teachers is pivotal as they can highlight the dissimilarities between two languages concerning syntax to facilitate the learning process.

Kinandi is an SVO language mainly spoken in Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Western Kenya. Kibiwott (2011) wrote a book on Kinandi syntax titled *Transformational Grammar: An Analysis of Some Aspects of Kinandi Syntax*. The results of the study revealed that various transformational and movement rules, for example, noun phrase movement, wh-movement, topicalization, raising, and prepositional phrase pre-posing and adverb pre-posing are used; the researcher also revealed that the transformational process possesses various constraints whereby the transformational rule could not displace a constituent from a relative clause. Moreover, the Kinandi language forbids the extraction of constituents from adnominal clauses, and finally, the Kinnandi language is subject to subjacency conditions. These syntactic attributes of this language show several similarities between Kinnandi and the English language. These two languages have the same basic syntax, i.e., SOV. Moreover, there are similarities between the Kinnandi and English languages regarding the aforementioned transformations and movement rules. This shows that learning English for a Kinnandi-speaking learner is a manageable task due to the identical features of these languages.

On the other hand, Punjabi and Kinnandi languages are two distinct languages. First, syntactically, these are two different languages; second, these two languages are different concerning transformational rules to generate surface structure from the underlying deep

structures. The transformational/movement rules of 'Wh' movement, pre-posing of prepositional and adverbial phrases are not usually observed in Punjabi. The question words usually remain unchanged in both surface and deep structures as it is one of the in-situ languages. Furthermore, prepositional and adverbial pre-posing is not traditionally used as it is one of the tonal languages, and the emphasis on a particular constituent is placed using tone. This means that such transformations are rare in the Punjabi language.

Handoko, H., & Andalas, U. D. (2010) conducted a study titled 'Transformational Generative Grammar Analysis of English Imperative as Found in—Lie to Me‖ season 1 TV Series'. This study analyzes the imperative constructions used in the TV series through the transformation generative theory. The research focused on the deep structures of imperative constructions by applying phrase structure and transformational rules. The analysis of the data shows that there are a variety of imperative structures generated through various transformational rules. The result of the study indicates that the subject is the main focus of the study of imperative constructions and plays a pivotal role in forming imperative sentences. In the present study, the researcher has also included Punjabi imperative constructions and has compared them to their English counterparts. In Punjabi, four kinds of imperative constructions are used. These include future, subjunctive, obligatory, and prohibitive imperatives. Imperative constructions in Punjabi are sensitive to number, gender, and tense, whereas English imperative constructions are sensitive to number and tense, not gender. Another difference between English and Punjabi constructions is that Punjabi language may form imperatives with or without second-person pronouns. The study above analyzed imperatives used in TV programs that may be conducted in local contexts, especially comedies.

Another study was conducted to analyze the style of two newspapers by utilizing transformational generative grammar theory. Ezeh and Udaba (2016) believe that a language has three significant aspects: phonology, syntax, and semantics. For the analysis of various languages, several syntactic theories have been used. The sample of their study was selected from the editorial section of the local English newspaper 'Towards Enduring Peace in the Nigar Delta', to address issues like grammaticality, acceptability, and ambiguity through the transformational generative theory. The researchers concluded that the linguistic intricacies could be resolved through transformational generative grammar. Applying the researchers'

findings to Punjabi syntactic constructions shows that only those constructions are acceptable and used by the native speakers of Punjabi as they have unconscious knowledge of their own language. For example, many constructions seem odd, but they are used in Punjabi as the grammar of the language attests to the grammar of those structures. For instance, transitive and intransitive verbs are used to generate passive constructions; an indirect object cannot be used as a subject of a passive construction; the 'Wh' word does not move to have an interrogative structure, and reduplication feature is also permissible in Punjabi. This shows that each language has its peculiarities, which may be similar or different from other languages, which are allowed by the grammar of that language. The issue of syntactic ambiguities could also be resolved in the Punjabi language through transformational generative grammar as it does in English.

By employing the transformational generative grammar theory Dong and Yating (2019) studied the literary style of two novels by Henry James and Mark Twin respectively. The stylistic features of the literature have been compared and contrasted through transformational grammar, and the use of various transformational and movement rules in both these novels has been studied. This shows that transformational grammar has the power to analyze two different novels' literary styles. Based on this comparison, the writer's literary style can be differentiated from the other. By comparing this study to the present research, it is assumed that transformational grammar can be applied to all kinds of texts, including less privileged languages like Punjabi. In other words, it adds another dimension to the existing body of literature.

Punjabi is considered a less privileged language in urban Punjab in Pakistan as the parents usually do not allow their children to speak the Punjabi language at home. Fakhira Riza (2011) researched *Punjab Language: A Study of Language Desertion* in this context. The study aims to ascertain the attitude of the Punjabi urban and rural population towards their mother tongue; the qualitative data have been collected from five rural and five urban families through semi-structured interviews. The study results reveal that the urban population does not consider the Punjabi language significant for communicative and commercial purposes. In contrast, the rural population shows a strong bondage towards Punjabi language. The study aimed to develop the population's sensitivity towards their mother tongue, as disowning the language

may lead to its distinction. The present study is an endeavor to analyze the Punjabi language and subsequently compare it to English. The study has academic, social, and linguistic significance, and in the future, it is expected that Punjabi grammar may be studied by using various grammar theories. Moreover, many other aspects of the Punjabi language may be undertaken to motivate native speakers not to feel shy and less privileged while using this language.

As for the study's limitations, the first deals with the basic five types of syntactic constructions; the other kinds of Punjabi and English constructions, which include complex, compound, and complex-compound constructions, have yet to be included. Moreover, relative clauses, conditional constructions, subjunctive, non-finite, and non-defining clauses have yet to be included. Secondly, the five kinds of syntactic constructions have been studied through the revised, extended standard transformational generative grammar, and it has a limited scope. To make it exhaustive, other transformational and non-transformational grammar theories may be used to study the five kinds of syntactic constructions. Moreover, the study deals with the syntactic constructions of the standard dialect of Punjabi, the other dialects of the Punjabi language spoken in Pakistani Punjab, and different other oriental languages spoken across Pakistan could be studied and compared to the English language to discern syntactic similarities and discrepancies between languages.

Chapter 7

Conclusions, Suggestions and Recommendations

7.1. Conclusions

This chapter consists of three sub-sections: conclusions drawn from this study, suggestions for ELT practitioners, and recommendations for future research. In the present study, the syntactic constructions taken as sample are negative, passive, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory constructions. These five kinds of syntactic constructions are analyzed using the revised extended standard transformational generative theory and then compared to their counterparts in English to figure out their syntactic disparities and similarities and use of transformations. As there are three research questions, the following sections are the conclusions drawn from the findings of the study, and the conclusions also answer the three research questions posed in the first chapter. The first research question is, 'What are different kinds of syntactic constructions used in Punjabi?' As mentioned earlier that different kinds of syntactic constructions are used in the Punjabi language; however, there are five kinds of constructions included in this study. The first type of syntactic constructions investigated is negative constructions. In Punjabi, two primary constituents are used to express negation, i.e., 'Naii, Na', which are equivalent to English negative constituents 'Not, No.' This means that both languages are similar in this regard.

Besides these negative particles, negation is shown by employing a postposition like 'Binna' means 'Without'. In English, prepositions are used after a verb and before an object or complement. However, in Punjabi, a postposition may be employed before a verb. This is evident in construction such as 'Tu binna khaaude bolia.' The construction shows that the postposition is used before the verb and complement. Additionally, negative structures are also formed by employing 'Te' called a contrastive particle, along with the negative particle 'Naii'. The negative particle may or may not be used before or after the main verb. The contrastive particle is used after the subject of the sentence. The use of contrastive particle is shown in sentences such as 'Oh te utthe naii rehnda', 'Koii utthe naii gia' (Bhattia, 2013)

To express negation, indefinite quantifiers and a negative particle such as ‘Naii’ have been used. The indefinite quantifiers used in Punjabi are ‘Kitthe’, ‘kaddi, kujj’ and ‘koii.’ In English, these indefinite quantifiers are usually replaced by ‘Someone, somewhere, something and ever.’ The indefinite quantifiers are used in negative sentences such as ‘Koii utthe naii gia’, ‘Oh ne kujj utthe naii vekya. Like indefinite quantifiers, participle adverbials such as ‘Nasdaa and nasdiaa’ are used with negative particles to express negative constructions in Punjabi. These particle adverbials are used as an adjunct since they provide additional information. Examples of negative constructions having these adverbials are ‘Oh nasdaa naii gia’, and ‘Tu nasdia kyon naii aaiaa. (Bhatia, 2013).

Besides these participle adverbials, specific prefixes expressing negative meaning are used to form negative constructions. As negation is shown with these prefixes, negative particles such as ‘Naa’ and ‘Naii’ are not used. Examples of such constructions are ‘Tu bimimann munda aiin’ and ‘Oh badmash ai.’ These structures are made differently in English. In most cases, the negative particles such as ‘Naii’ and ‘Naa’ are also used to make negative constructions. Sometimes, these negative particles are employed in insolation, and in some other cases, some other particles are also used along with these negative particles. There are two cases where these negative particles are not used. These include the use of postposition ‘binna’ and negative prefixes such as ‘bad…..’ and ‘bi…...’

From the above description of the negative constructions, it is concluded that there are a variety of constituents used to express negation in Punjabi, which include particles like ‘Na, naii, kal, binna, kitthe, koi bad, bii etc.’ In comparison to these Punjabi devices, the English language uses ‘no, not, without, someone, somewhere, and prefixes like ‘Dis ….il……, im…….’ It is clear that both languages employ a number of techniques to generate negative constructions, and in most cases, the equivalents negative constructions are found in both languages, and the SOV learners do not find it challenging to acquire negative constructions of the English language despite syntactic variation and disparity. After concluding the discussion on different kinds of negative constructions used in Punjabi along with their ways of formation, the second kind of structure of Punjabi, namely the passive voice, has been discussed in the following paragraphs.

As far as the formation of Punjabi passive constructions is concerned, they are formed by using instrumental postpositions, namely ‘To’ and ‘De’ kolo, which change the subject case from nominative to oblique. Additionally, the past participle form of the verb is used in Punjabi, just like in English. Moreover, an explicative form of the verb is used in Punjabi, which provides information about number, tense, and gender.

Moreover, Punjabi passive constructions are formed by employing both transitive and intransitive verb forms, and at times, the syntax of Punjabi structures looks like the structure of active constructions. Passive structures denote passivity as well as the capability of the given subject to do something or otherwise. Furthermore, in Punjabi, the practice of using present and past continuous passive is less frequent, though it is possible. The progress actions may be expressed by using present and past indefinite tenses. Finally, constructions containing two objects, namely direct and indirect objects, after the verb are used. However, while making passive constructions from the given active, only the direct object is used as a subject. In contrast, the indirect object cannot be used as it leads to ungrammatical constructions. After concluding passive constructions, the following section sums up closed-ended constructions.

It is concluded from the analysis that Punjabi closed-ended (yes-no) questions are classified into four types: neutral questions, leading questions, alternative questions, and echo questions. The formation of neutral question constructions involves the addition of the question word ‘Kii’ to the beginning of a question. Besides the question word ‘Kii’, the formation of neutral questions involves the use of negative statements uttered with a rising tone. The rising tone is used at the end of the construction to invoke questions by employing a negative construction. Hence it is concluded that tone is used to invoke neutral questions as Punjabi is one of the tonal languages. The use of tone is common in English but not that frequent in English. This shows that the use of intonation may change the meaning of an utterance.

Apart from the neutral questions, there are leading questions, the construction of which involves the use of the negative particle ‘Na’. These types of questions are used just like English question tags. The third type of open-ended questions includes alternative questions formed by adding coordinate conjunctions ‘Jaa/Ki’ along with a negative particle ‘Naii’ to a positive construction. In other words, alternative questions are like positive statements followed by the complementizers ‘Jaa/Ki’ followed by a native particle ‘Naii’. In addition to

alternative questions, there is another kind of yes-no questions called echo questions. In these questions, the statement or a question is repeated by speaker ‘B’, which was uttered earlier by speaker ‘A’; however, sometimes, the complete question is repeated by the second speaker or part of the question in the form of a phrase or a word. In other words, an echo question is a kind of confirmation sought by speaker ‘B’ about the statement uttered by speaker ‘A’. To ask an echo question, the speaker uses a rising tone at the end of the statement.

To sum up, it may be concluded that the Punjabi language makes use of a variety of yes-no or closed-ended questions, and these are mainly in the form of affirmative constructions. However, there are interrogative, negative, and conjunctive particles, along with intonation, that are used to make them interrogative. In English, there are primarily proper interrogative constructions that are used to invoke questions; however, the use of tone and conjuctions to show alternative and echo are also employed to have closed-ended interrogative constructions.

In addition to closed-ended constructions, there are open-ended syntactic constructions; it is summed up from the analysis that different question words such as ‘Kii’, ‘kitte’ (where), ‘kiv’ (how), ‘kio’ (why) and ‘kauN (who) are usually employed after the subject. However, a question word may be placed in the beginning of the construction if it is the subject of an interrogative construction. Moreover, the place of a ‘Wh’ word may be altered within constructions depending on the purpose. The question words are usually not followed by auxiliary verbs, as the T bar does not have TNS feature. Therefore, it does not attract an auxiliary at T bar position. This means that the T bar in Punjabi constructions is often null or empty.

Another distinctive feature of Punjabi open-ended constructions is the reduplication of question word, for example, ‘Kii kii’ and ‘KeRaa keRaa.’ This is one of the prominent features of most of the languages spoken in South Asia (Bhatia, 2013). The above points may be summed up as that the main attribute of Punjabi open-ended constructions is the position of the question word which is usually after the subject. The null or empty T bar shows that an auxiliary is absent after the question word, the question word is reduplicated, and the transformational rules are not usually applied as Punjabi is a wh-in-situ language.

Besides Punjabi open-ended syntactic constructions, imperative syntactic constructions are used to give order, command, suggestion, direction, instruction, etc. In Punjabi, five kinds of imperative constructions are used, namely unmarked imperative, future imperative, obligatory imperative, subjunctive imperative, and prohibitive imperative. These kinds of imperative constructions are used in English, too. Imperative constructions employed in Punjabi are sensitive to person, number, and gender. There are two second-person pronouns used in Punjabi for example, 'Tu' and 'Tussi'; the former is a singular (informal) pronoun, whereas the latter is a plural as well as a formal (singular) second-person pronoun. The base form of the verb is used with a singular second-person pronoun, while the verbs take 'O/ov' as a suffix with the plural or formal pronoun.

Punjabi imperative constructions sometimes employ second-person pronouns, and in some cases, the pronouns are absent. For expressing future imperative, the base form of the verb takes 'Naa' as a suffix to the base form of the verb. This means that Punjabi has the future form of the verb, which can be expressed by adding the aforementioned suffix to the base form of the verb. In addition to the suffix 'Naa', Punjabi imperative constructions may also be formed by appending another suffix, 'E', to the base form of the verb. For example, the verb 'Khaa', which means 'to eat' may be transformed to the future form by adding 'E', and this makes the verb 'Khaae'.

For expressing compulsive and prescriptive, the dative noun case like 'Oh nuu' has been employed as a subject of the construction in the imperative form. However, a nominative noun case has been used in English to express compulsion and prescriptiveness. Besides the aforementioned types of imperative constructions, negative imperatives are generated by employing the negative particle 'Naa' with the main verb. However, with this negative particle, an auxiliary verb is often not used as is found in English. The Majhi dialect of Punjabi makes use of the aforementioned kinds of imperative constructions. After discussing this, the following type of syntactic constructions are exclamatory constructions which have been discussed in the next section.

Exclamatory constructions are not frequently used in Punjabi; these constructions are taken as minor types of construction besides vocative and elliptical ones (Bhatia, 2013). Unlike

English, there is no expletive pronoun employed in Punjabi to form exclamatory constructions. Moreover, in Punjabi and English, exclamatory constructions can be in the form of statements showing exclamation and may be in the form of a phrase as the other constituents get deleted.

After discussing the various Punjabi syntactic constructions included in the study, the following section draws conclusions based on the second research question: 'How are Punjabi syntactic constructions different from English constructions in terms of the revised extended standard transformation grammar theory (REST)?' the first kinds of constructions discussed are negative constructions.

Although Punjabi and English are two syntactically distinct languages, there are similarities and dissimilarities with regard to transformational rules applied to generate negative, passive, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory constructions. From the data analysis, it is concluded that Punjabi employs two constituents such as 'Na, and naii' which are used to generate Punjabi negative constructions, which are equivalent to negative particles used in English 'No and Not.' Besides these, there are a number of constituents used to form negative constructions in Punjabi. These include 'Kal, binna, kitthe, koi, bad etc.' These constituents have their counterparts in English, which means that these similarities lead to making the learning of the English language easy learning for Punjabi speakers. However, the syntactic disparity and the place of various aforementioned constituents in the syntactic constructions of both languages may create some challenges in learning the English language.

In addition to negative constructions, there are differences between the passive constructions used in Punjabi and English language. In Punjabi, an oblique noun case is used in comparison to a nominative noun case in English passive constructions; Punjabi constructions, in some cases, are used to express the passivity and capacity of a person in contrast to English structures which do not exhibit such ambiguity. In some cases, Punjabi constructions with intransitive verbs are used to show passivity, while in English, only transitive verbs are considered to be altered to passive voice and vice versa. These dissimilarities among the passive constructions of both languages may make the learning of English's passive challenging for Punjabi speakers. However, there are some similarities, which include past participle forms of the verbs, auxiliaries, and promotion and demotion of the constituents.

Apart from Punjabi passive constructions, Punjabi and English closed-ended syntactic constructions are also compared. The four closed-ended Punjabi syntactic constructions are neutral, leading, alternative, and echo. The neutral questions in Punjabi are quite different from English closed-ended questions. The former constructions are generated by adding a question word 'Kii' to a negative statement, while for the latter, a proper closed-ended question with the auxiliary in the beginning is used.

Punjabi leading constructions are equivalent to English question tags constructions; the alternative closed-ended questions in Punjabi and English are formed by adding complementizers/conjunctions. In this respect, both constructions are similar; however, Punjabi alternative questions are in the form of affirmative constructions, whereas their equivalent in English are in the form of closed-ended questions. This constructional disparity may have implications for Punjabi and other SOV languages in that they might use affirmative constructions while trying to produce English alternative closed-ended questions due to overgeneralization. Finally, echo questions, mostly used in Punjabi, are quite different from their counterparts in English. Constructions in the former language are produced by employing expressions like 'Sac (i), te and eve ai' by speaker 'B' to the statement uttered by speaker 'A' or by repeating the statement or part of the statement with a rising tone while English echo questions are in the form of yes-no questions. This shows that a variety of techniques are used to have Punjabi echo questions, while the English language utilizes a few of these. The entire discussion with reference to closed-ended constructions used in Punjabi and English indicates that the two languages are distinct, though there are a few similarities.

Aside from Punjabi closed-ended constructions, there are open-ended syntactic constructions or question word constructions. The question words used in Punjabi to form open-ended questions are more or less the same as those employed in English. As Punjabi is syntactically different from English, the position of the question word is mainly after the subject of the construction. However, sometimes the question word in Punjabi is employed at the beginning of the interrogative construction, and the auxiliary verb is often missing from the interrogative questions, so the T bar is often not indicated in tree diagrams of Punjabi constructions. As Punjabi is a wh-in-situ language, no transformation/movement of question

words takes place to generate surface structure: the position of the question words and their answers usually remain the same. On the contrary, in English constructions, questions, and auxiliary verbs often move to different positions through movement rules to have surface structures.

Punjabi open-ended interrogative constructions also have the reduplication feature, i.e., question words such as ‘Kii kii’ and ‘KeRaa keRaa’ are sometimes duplicated in Punjabi; on the contrary, English does not have the reduplication feature. In short, it may be concluded that there are four main differences between Punjabi and English open-ended interrogative constructions: the position of question words, the absence of auxiliary, the reduplication of question words, and the disparity of transformational rules. In addition to open-ended constructions, there are imperative constructions.

The five kinds of imperative constructions are unmarked, future, subjunctive, obligatory, and prohibitive imperatives. English also employs these kinds of constructions. However, unlike English, Punjabi imperative verbs are sensitive to person, number, and gender; the pronouns ‘Tuu’ and ‘Tussi’ are used. The use of second-person pronouns is often deleted in English imperative constructions but understood without being pronounced.

The second-person pronouns are not used in both Punjabi and English future imperative constructions; this shows that the pronouns get deleted due to the transformational rule of deletion. Moreover, Punjabi does have a future form, while English does not have a proper future form. The use of suffixes to the base form shows that Punjabi verbs undergo morphological transformations, while no such transformations take place to English verbs for future imperatives.

Besides Punjabi future imperatives, subjunctive imperatives are used to express necessity and prayer, etc., by putting various suffixes to the base forms of the verbs. In English, such imperatives are expressed by employing modal auxiliary to the base form of the verb. Moreover, to generate compulsive imperatives in Punjabi, dative noun cases are used as a subject of construction, whereas nominative noun cases are used in English constructions. To form prescriptive and compulsive imperatives, question tags are used in English constructions, while suffixes such as ‘Naa’ and ‘Na’ are employed with Punjabi verbs to have such

constructions. To form negative imperatives, the negative particle such as ‘Naa’ is employed with the main verb, while in English, ‘Not’ and auxiliary verbs are often employed. This means that T bar is empty or null in most Punjabi negative imperatives.

In short, it can be concluded that Punjabi imperative constructions are more or less similar to affirmative constructions, though the former have imperative force. Second-person pronouns may be used in some cases, and in others, they are found absent due to deletion transformation. Punjabi does have future imperative verb forms, while English expresses future imperative through other means. Apart from imperative syntactic constructions, there are exclamatory constructions used in both Punjabi and English.

These are the minor constructions alongside vocatives and elliptical constructions in both languages and are employed to express human emotions. An exclamatory constituent is usually employed in the beginning of both Punjabi and English imperative constructions. The auxiliary verbs are hardly used in English constructions as the tree has an empty or null T bar, and the verb is placed at the end of both Punjabi and English constructions. Also, only noun phrases could be used to form exclamatory constructions in both languages, as overt verbs are not employed; the absence of verbs in such constructions is due to the deletion rule applied to the deep structure.

In the next section, the conclusions have been drawn based on the last research question: ‘What different transformational rules/movement rules are applied to generative Punjabi surface structures from deep ones?’ There are a number of transformations and movement rules applied to derive surface structure from the given deep ones. Some of the transformations or transformational rules applied to have the surface structure in English and other languages include deletion, insertion/addition, substitution, and embedding. The movement rules include passivization/argument movement, operator movement, head movement/auxiliary inversion, raising long-distance movement, Wh-movement, topicalization, N-movement, pre-posing, and affix hopping, etc. In this section, the application of transformational and movement rules has been concluded in both Punjabi and English to determine the differences and similarities between the syntactic constructions of these two languages.

Negative particles such as ‘Naii’ and ‘Na’ are mainly used to form negative constructions in Punjabi. This means that these particles are inserted/added to the affirmative constructions. In other words, the transformational rule of insertion/addition has been used to derive negative constructions from the deep structures. The arrangement of the constituents of Punjabi constructions remains the same, and there is no movement of any constituent involved. On the contrary, in English constructions, the transformational rule of insertion/addition is applied, whereby the negative constituents are added; moreover, the dummy auxiliaries are inserted through the affix hopping rule in some constructions to generate surface structures.

In addition to the negative particles, postpositions such as ‘Binna’ and contrastive particles such as ‘Te’ have been inserted into the affirmative constructions to derive negative constructions. The equivalent of these Punjabi constructions in English are formed by adding a preposition ‘Without’, and no contrastive particle is inserted to have negative constructions. Moreover, Punjabi constructions are also generated by inserting indefinite quantifiers like ‘Koii, Kujj, Kaddi, Kitthe’ along with negative particles to derive negative constructions; their equivalents in English are possible. Also, expressions like ‘Bimimaan’ and ‘Badmash’ are inserted into the affirmative constructions to derive negative constructions. Their counterparts, in English, are possible.

Besides the transformational rule of insertion/addition, the transformational rule of embedding is also applied to some of the constructions in Punjabi and English to have negative constructions. Participle adverbials such as ‘Nasdaa/nadiaa’ are used with the negative particle ‘Naii’ to derive negative constructions. English also generates such constructions through transformational rules of embedding. Thus, the two languages are similar to each other in this regard. While applying the transformational rule of embedding, some of the constituents get deleted, and it may be concluded that the transformational rule of deletion may also apply.

From the above, it is concluded that the transformational rules of insertion/addition, embedding, and deletion are applied to derive negative constructions in both Punjabi and English. However, in English, dummy auxiliaries are also used through affix hopping, which may lead to the morphological transformation of English verbs. Punjabi verbs do not undergo any morphological change to have negative constructions. In addition to negative constructions,

passive constructions are generated through the application of transformational and movement rules.

In Punjabi passive constructions, instrumental postpositions are inserted/added to change the nominative noun case to the oblique case. No such alteration of noun cases has been used in English. To form passive constructions in English, the object is moved to the subject position through the transformational rule of passivization / A-movement; the same transformational rule is applied to Punjabi, but not in most cases. This is because Punjabi is a split-ergative language that utilizes both transitive and intransitive verbs to generate passive constructions. The past participle form of the verbs is employed in both Punjabi and English to have passive construction. The auxiliary verbs are inserted in most cases, into English constructions through the transformational rule of insertion.

Transformational rules are also applied to have Punjabi and English closed-ended syntactic constructions. To form Punjabi-neutral questions, the question word like 'Kii' remains in-situ as Punjabi is a Wh-in-situ language. This means that in neural questions, there is no movement of any constituent. However, its counterpart in English is a question starting from an auxiliary verb which means that such kind of movement is called head movement or auxiliary inversion. The question word 'Kii' is equivalent to the English question word 'What'. The question word 'Kii' is used at the beginning and not at the end of a question because it would lead to ungrammatical construction in Punjabi.

Punjabi leading questions are generated by inserting/adding a particle 'Na' at the end of an affirmative statement. This shows that the transformational rule of insertion has been used to have the above-mentioned interrogative constructions; on the contrary, its equivalent in English uses a positive statement followed by a question tag. This shows that the transformational rules of insertion and embedding have been employed here. Besides leading questions, Punjabi alternative open-ended interrogative constructions are formed by adding/inserting complementizers 'Jaa/kii' and a negative particle. This shows that the transformational rules of insertion/addition as well as deletion rules are applied here as there is a complementizer clause, but some of its constituents get deleted, and a complementizer phrase is left behind. The counterpart of this kind of question in English is a yes-no question, and a negative particle/adverb 'Not' is used at the end of the construction. For a yes-no

question, the transformational rule of head movement/auxiliary inversion is used as well as the insertion rule.

Punjabi alternative open-ended questions are formed by appending complementizers/conjunctions such as ‘Jaa/ki’ followed by a negative particle ‘Naii’ at the end of an affirmative statement. This means that the transformational rule of insertion/addition has been applied here once again as the complementizers ‘Jaa/ki’ and the negative particle are inserted into the affirmative syntactic constructions; on the contrary, English yes-no questions are generated by making use of the same complementizer ‘Or’ and a negative particle ‘Not’ at the end of the question as well as the auxiliary inversion rule. Thus, English constructions utilize the addition and auxiliary inversion rules to form such constructions.

The alternative questions may also be formed by inserting a conjunctive particle/complementizer and by deleting the negative particle. To provide a negative force, a rising tone is used at the end of the construction. This means that two transformational rules are applied here: insertion and deletion. Its counterpart in English, a yes-no question is followed by a complementizer and adverb of time ‘tomorrow’. This shows that the head movement/auxiliary inversion has been used here along with the transformational rule of insertion, embedding, and deletion. The complementizer is inserted, the adverb of time is embedded, and some of the constituents with an adverb of time get deleted.

The last type of yes-no questions in Punjabi are echo questions. Echo questions are in the form of the same statement or parts/part of the statement uttered by the second speaker, along with a rising tone. This shows that no transformational rule of insertion/embedding has been used; however, the transformational rule of *deletion* is employed, whereby one or some of the constituents get deleted in Punjabi to generate echo questions. Its counterparts in English are in the form of yes-no questions or some parts of the question with a rising tone, which could mean that the head movement rule or auxiliary insertion rule is applied, as well as the deletion rule, whereby some of the constituents get deleted. Moreover, to form echo questions in Punjabi, some particles such as ‘Sac (i), te, eve ai’ have been inserted/added by the second speaker to the beginning of the statement uttered earlier by the first speaker. This means that the transformational rule of insertion has been used here to have Punjabi echo questions. To form their counterparts in English, the equivalent of these particles is inserted/added to the

beginning of the statement spoken by the first speaker. Thus, the same transformational rules are applied in both languages to generate this echo question. Besides closed-ended syntactic constructions, there are open-ended constructions

The various question words used in open-ended interrogative constructions are ‘Kii’ (what), ‘Kon’ (who), ‘Kitte’ (where), ‘Kive’ (how), ‘Kio’ (why), ‘KauN (who), etc. Both English and Punjabi make use of the same sorts of question words; however, their positions in the syntactic constructions are different as the two languages are syntactically different. To generate Punjabi syntactic constructions of this kind, there is no movement of any interrogative constituent as Punjabi is a wh-in-situ language: the position of question words and their answers usually remain the same. However, In English, the Wh-words usually move from the verb complement position to the specifier position within CP, leaving behind a trace, i.e., at the verb complement position. Moreover, the inversion of the auxiliary usually takes place just after the Wh-words, and in some cases, a dummy auxiliary verb is inserted to mark the tense. This means that there are two movement operations involved in English. Moreover, English verbs, as a result of auxiliary use, are morphologically transformed, but no morphological rules are applied to Punjabi verbs.

There are some instances where question words are used as a subject of the constructions. In such cases, the position of the question word and its answer do not change in Punjabi or English. This shows that English behaves like a ‘Wh-in-situ’ language in such cases as Punjabi usually does.

Apart from open-ended syntactic constructions, there are imperative constructions. The most common transformational rule used in both Punjabi and English imperative constructions is deletion. In English imperative constructions, the second-person pronoun is often deleted to have the surface structure; the same deletion rule is mostly applied to Punjabi constructions; however, some second-person pronouns are overtly used in Punjabi constructions.

The future imperative constructions, in Punjabi, are generated by adding a suffix ‘Naa’ to the base form of the verb to show the future tense. The second-person pronouns also get deleted to generate surface structure. This means that the deletion rule is used to have future

imperatives. Punjabi subjunctive imperatives are formed by adding a suffix to the base of the verb to show necessity or desire; its counterpart in English uses a modal auxiliary to have a surface structure. The second-person pronouns are retained by both languages in future construction. This means that no transformational rule is applied to Punjabi construction, whereas the transformational rule of insertion/addition is applied to English construction, whereby the modal auxiliary is inserted. To form prescriptive and compulsive imperatives, dative noun case is used in Punjabi construction, while English employs normative case. This means that the transformational rule of deletion is not used here.

In Punjabi, negative imperatives are formed by inserting/adding a negative particle 'Naa' to the construction. This shows that the transformational rule of insertion is used. In both constructions, second-person pronouns are not used, which indicates that the transformational rule of deletion is employed to have surface structures. However, English constructions also use the auxiliary verb 'Do', which means that a dummy auxiliary is employed. No such dummy auxiliary is used in Punjabi construction.

As far as the movement of the constituents is concerned, imperative constructions can be in the form of structures showing criticism like 'Tusii oh nuu kio naii likhde? (Why don't you write to him?)' In such constructions, the Punjabi question word 'Kio' does not move, which means that surface and deep structures for the given Punjabi construction remain the same. This is because Punjabi is one of the wh-in-situ languages, and its question words remain in place. On the contrary, the English construction given above in the brackets undergoes 'Wh' movement or operator movement along with the auxiliary insertion. The use of a dummy auxiliary to show tense takes place through the affix hopping rule. No such dummy auxiliary is employed to generate Punjabi construction.

The last type of syntactic constructions used is exclamatory ones. The movement operation in English exclamatory syntactic constructions is the same as in open-ended English syntactic constructions. The exclamatory phrase carrying 'Wh' constituents along with adjectives and nouns moves from verb complement position to specifier position within the complementizer phrase. On the contrary, in Punjabi exclamatory syntactic constructions, there is no movement of the exclamatory phrase, and it remains in-situ. In other words, the surface

and deep structures of Punjabi exclamatory syntactic constructions are the same, and there is no movement of any constituents take place. Moreover, the exclamatory phrase in English exclamatory constructions does not follow auxiliary verbs as it does in English interrogative constructions. This is due to the fact that 'C' bar does not have TNS feature, which could attract the auxiliary. The exclamatory phrase in both Punjabi and English exclamatory syntactic constructions is followed by the main verbs.

In English exclamatory constructions, the expletive 'It' has been used; however, there is no use of such empty pronouns in Punjabi constructions. In both Punjabi and English, some exclamatory constructions can be in the form of a noun phrase and do not have an overt verb. The absence of verbs in such constructions shows that they may be deleted during the transformational process. This means that in such constructions, the transformational rule of deletion is employed along with the head movement rule in English constructions. In short, the transformational rule of deletion is employed in both Punjabi and English constructions. Based on the conclusion drawn regarding the five kinds of aforementioned syntactic constructions, some valuable suggestions to ELT practitioners have been extended to facilitate the learning process.

7.2. Suggestions for ESL Practitioners

A number of suggestions for ESL teachers are extended on the basis of the findings of the study:

a. They need to highlight the syntactic variations that exist between the two languages.
b. The head-initial and head-final notions can be brought to the notice of the learners.
c. The use of dummy auxiliaries and morphological changes to the verbs as a result of dummies may also be identified as dummy auxiliaries are not used in Punjabi syntactic constructions.
d. The Punjabi language uses both transitive and intransitive verbs to generate passive constructions, whereas English employs only transitive verbs in passive sentences. This difference needs to be emphasized.
e. However, the similarities between passive constructions, i.e., the use of auxiliary and past participle forms of the verbs in both languages, may also be foregrounded.

f. The disparity with regard to closed-ended syntactic constructions of both languages may also be pinpointed.

g. Punjabi open-ended constructions may pose some challenges to Punjabi native speakers and other SOV language learners due to wh-movement, head movement, dummy auxiliaries' insertion, operator movement, copy and deletion, pied-piping movement and attract-closest principle in English, which need to be highlighted to help learners acquire English open-ended syntactic constructions as most of the aforementioned transformational and movement rules are not used to generate Punjabi open-ended syntactic constructions. On the contrary, the reduplication feature of the Punjabi language is non-existent in the English language.

h. Punjabi and English languages both have five kinds of imperative constructions; second-person pronouns are deleted as well as retained in Punjabi, while in English, the second-person pronoun is mainly deleted. Moreover, there are different Punjabi pronouns used according to the levels of formality, whereas the English language does use a single pronoun, 'You' for all cases. These aspects of Punjabi and English imperative constructions need to be foregrounded. Also, English uses the base form of the verbs in imperative constructions, while Punjabi verbs take various morphological forms i.e., suffixes in such constructions. These disparities should be pinpointed to facilitate learning. Finally, the difference of noun cases at the subject position may be compared and contrasted. Punjabi and English syntactic constructions share some similarities like the application of the transformational rule of deletion, the form of the verbs, and sub-types of imperative constructions, which shows that Punjabi language speakers may acquire English imperative constructions easily.

i. Punjabi and English exclamatory syntactic constructions are somewhat similar; however, there are some disparities that need to be focused on. The exclamatory phrase moves from the verb complement position to the specifier position through the wh-movement rule, while no such movement of the exclamatory constituent takes place in Punjabi. The auxiliary or main verbs in both languages do not move, which needs to be highlighted to SOV language speakers. In English constructions, the expletives 'It and there' are used, whereas no such expletives are employed. The language teacher needs

to foreground this difference to avoid any problems. Finally, the transformational rule of deletion is used in both Punjabi and English exclamatory constructions whereby the main verbs are deleted. This similarity should be exploited.

j. From the above discussion, it is evident that Punjabi and English share some syntactic similarities despite differences. The role of a language teacher is to highlight the disparities to make learners conscious of the parametrical variations so that the learners make conscious efforts to learn the target languages. On the contrary, the syntactic similarities should be exploited to make learning the foreign language less daunting. The role of syntax, and especially comparative syntax, is pivotal in learning a language. The conscious application of transformational and movement rules may make the learners proficient in the language as these rules are applied to generate all spoken and written discourses.

7.3. Recommendations for Future Researchers

Based on the present research, the following recommendations are suggested to future researchers:

a. This study is limited to five types of syntactic constructions (negative, passive, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory) of Punjabi language concerning the transformational theory. Other syntactic constructions like compound, complex, compound-complex, dependent clauses, and conditional constructions can be used by applying different syntax theories to conduct studies.

b. The revised extended standard transformational grammar theory (REST), can be applied to the Urdu language, a national language and lingua franca in Pakistan, and to other regional languages. The structural analysis of the major languages spoken in Pakistan may be compared to English in light of the theory above.

c. As Punjabi is a head-final language while English is head-first, a comparative study of different phrases of both Punjabi and English may be studied.

d. Coordination, subordination, anaphora, reflexivity, and reciprocity in Punjabi may be compared and contrasted to English syntax constructions based on the revised extended transformational theory (REST) and other grammatical theories.

e. The principle and parameter theory, the X-bar theory, the government and binding theory, etc., may be applied to compare and contrast Punjabi and English languages. The application of these theories to Punjabi syntax may be beneficial for the development of the language.

f. During this study, it has been observed that Punjabi and Japanese languages share several similarities concerning syntax. Therefore, an investigation may be conducted to explore syntactic similarities and differences between these two languages.

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