

A SURVEY OF DIFFERENT SCHOOLS OF GRAMMAR IN LINGUISTICS

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<https://doi.org/10.37602/IJREHC.2024.5131>

ABSTRACT

This paper presents theoretically, a survey of various schools of grammar in linguistics. It highlights their peculiarities and unique features. The study reveals that the major schools of grammar are Traditional Grammar, Structural Grammar (Structuralism) and Transformational Generative Grammar. The study concludes that each of the three schools has its strengths and weaknesses.

Keywords: Traditional Grammar, Structural Grammar, Transformational Generative Grammar, Theories of Language.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Grammar is a language system which allows words to change their forms, order in a sentence and also combine words in new or different ways. It applies to both spoken and written language. English grammar was originally influenced by its Germanic ancestry. Now however, the rules rely on a general consensus like most languages.

Grammar can refer to a variety of phenomena. according to Byram, many grammarians have considerably divergent views concerning its nature, discussions but agree that it falls into three major areas: social, 'what is t be regarded as standard grammar and what is the status and role

of other varieties'; pedagogical, 'how is grammar learnt and how it should be taught'; linguistics, 'what is grammar and how does it work' (248).

All languages have their own grammar. The Grammar of one language is in one way or the other, entirely different to the other. According to Crystal, "Grammar is a central term in LINGUISTICS, but one which covers a wide range of phenomena. Several types of Grammar can be distinguished ...descriptive grammar...theoretical...competence...traditional...competence grammar...performance and universal grammar (174-175).

In this article, we survey different schools of Grammar. This is with interest in their unique characteristics.

2.0 COMPONENTS OF LANGUAGE

Theories of language and their rival claims have become a major topic of discussion in contemporary linguistics. Any and every theory of language is obliged, however, to recognise that language is made up of several components, namely: Syntactic, semantic and phonological components.

In the Standard Theory of Transformational Grammar, grammar is organised along three major components as follows:

- i. The syntactic component which deals with syntactic structure and rules ranging from base rules to transformational rules,
- ii. The semantic component which assigns semantic interpretation to the syntactic element using the structural properties of the lexical items in a language and
- iii. The phonological component which deals with rules of the sound system of the language. This gives the surface structure interpretation of the output of the syntactic component.

Chomsky (1965), states that the components of grammar are syntactic, semantic and phonological. The syntactic component of grammar is central while the semantic and phonological components are interpretative. This theory also states that the syntactic component of grammar interprets the deep structure (where the phrase structure rules are specified) while the phonological component interprets the surface structure (where the transformational rules are specified).

The relationship between the three can be represented in a diagram:

PHONOLOGICAL COMPONENT
SYNTACTIC COMPONENT (transformational component)
SEMANTICCOMPONENT (formation-rule component)

(Adapted from Olu Tomori, 107).

2.1 The Phonological Component of language

A fundamental question of phonology is: what mechanisms and principles must the theory of grammar contain so that the correct phonetic representation can be assigned to the utterances in any human language in such a way as to reflect the native speaker's internalized grammar as closely as possible? According to Kenstowicz and Kisseberth (25), it is important to note that:

One's knowledge of his native language cannot take the form of a memorized list of sentences on the grounds that there are an indefinite number of well-formed sentences in any language. The speaker's internalized grammar must be assumed to contain syntactic rules or; principles which enable him to construct novel sentences from a stock of stored items (morphemes, words, idiomatic phrases). But when one considers the phonological aspects of sentences, it is not nearly as obvious that rules must be invoked. Since the number of morphemes and words in a given language is finite, there is nothing incoherent about maintaining that the speaker simply memorizes the phonetic makeup of each item. After all, most aspects of pronunciation are clearly memorized in any case.

There is no principle of English phonology which predicts that the word 'cab' for example is composed of the three sounds /k/, /æ/, /b/, appearing in this particular order. In order to know how to pronounce this word, one must simply wait to hear it pronounced by someone else who already knows its pronunciation. We thus might assume that once the native speaker hears a given word pronounced, he simply memorizes what sounds make up the word and in what order those sounds are pronounced. This information would be stored in the lexicon of the speaker's grammar. The syntactic component would generate indefinitely many surface structures, where a surface structure would be a sequence of morphemes with an associated constituent structure (i.e. the morphemes would be organized into words and words would be organized into phrases and so on). Each morpheme in the surface structure would be assigned a pronunciation simply by looking up in the lexicon the pronunciation stored there. The utterance 'birds fly', for instance has its phonetic representation as [birdz flai]. It contains three morphemes: the noun root "bird", the suffix indicating plurality in nouns, and the verb root "fly". The speaker of English will have stored in the lexicon the information that the pronunciation of these three morphemes is /bird/, /-z/, and /flai/ respectively. By putting the pronunciations of these morphemes together in the order that the morphemes occur in the surface structure one arrives at the pronunciation of the entire sentence. Thus no phonological component of the grammar would be required. This is because the syntactic rules, which specify the order of the morphemes in the sentence, and the lexicon, which specifies the pronunciation of each morpheme, would jointly produce a pronunciation for each sentence.

According to Chomsky (1965), the role of phonological component of a Generative Grammar is to assign a phonetic interpretation to the string of words generated by the syntactic component. Phonological component relates a structure generated by the syntactic component to a phonetically represented signal, and the semantic component relates the generated structure to a certain semantic interpretation.

2.2 The Semantic Component of language

The oldest version of Transformational Syntax is presented by Chomsky (1957), as a theory which is completely formal and non-semantic. In this theory, semantics was clearly put outside grammar but Chomsky has long abandoned this notion that grammar is best formulated as a self-contained study independent of semantics. Chomsky did not fully disregard the

interconnection between syntax and semantics but refuses to build grammar on the foundations of meaning, especially meaning in a broad interpretation. He excluded semantic phenomena (like synonym et.c.) from the grammar and transferred them to another branch of linguistics (a parallel semantic theory) and suggests that a correlation between formal and semantic features be studied in some higher discipline of linguistic science, a more general theory of language. The avoidance of semantics was soon recognised as a serious deficiency (realised more in American and European linguistics). This has to be remedied if linguists are to achieve an adequate model of language as a mechanism generating well-formed sentences.

Chomsky extended and deepened his formulations and proposed an essential reformulation of Transformational Generative Grammar, taking into account criticisms and recent developments in semantic theory in 1965. He conceives Generative Grammar as a system of rules that can generate an indefinitely large number of structures. This T.G.G. consists of three major parts; phonological, semantic and syntactic components.

The semantic component is regarded as a direct part of T.G.G. but the syntactic component remains central and the 'only really generative component'. The other two components are regarded as purely interpretive. They utilize information provided by the syntactic component concerning formatives (words), their inherent properties and their interrelations in a given sentence.

Chomsky (1966) says the theory of semantic interpretation is in a less developed state than the phonological component. Chomsky deals primarily with the syntactic component which must generate deep and surface structures (underlying structure and superficial structure) and must inter-relate them. This is to say the syntactic component must specify for each sentence a deep structure that determines (through its grammatical relations and functions) the semantic interpretations, and a surface structure that determines its phonetic interpretation. The semantic interpretation should be produced by a projective means assigning a meaning for each lexical item in a string, then for the constituents in the string and finally for the string as a whole. Chomsky (139-40) asserts that: "the system of Generative rules must not be regarded as a point-by-point model for the actual model of performance (speech), but rather a model of competence (language)". This implies that Generative Grammar is no more of the speaker than it is a model of the hearer.

2.3 The Syntactic Component of Language

Several levels of language have been proposed by various linguists. Denham and Lobeck (2010) recognise five, including syntax (the "syntactic component" (Chomsky (1965))). Chomsky summarizes his proposed structure of a grammar as follows:

a grammar contains a syntactic component, a semantic component and a phonological component ... The syntactic component consists of a base and a transformational component. The base, in turn, consists of a categorial subcomponent and a lexicon.

In initial formulations of generative linguistics, the syntactic component is one of three major organizational units within a grammar (the others being phonological and semantic) containing rules for the generation of syntactic structures (such as phrase-structure, P-S rules and transformational rules, T-rules).

Crystal (1970) asserts that the exact nature of the syntactic rules within this component varies from one grammatical theory to another. Syntactic structures (patterns or constructions) are analysable into sequences of syntactic categories, or syntactic classes, established on the basis of the syntactic relationships linguistic items have with other items in a construction. Whatever the other argument(s) is/are, what is basic is that the syntactic component of a language deals with how individual words and their most basic meaningful units are combined to create sentences. As words are grouped together when we communicate, they must follow the rules of grammar for our language. In other words, we must follow its syntax. It is the knowledge of syntax that allows us to recognize two sentences, while containing different word order and levels of complexity, have the same fundamental meaning. In other words, they have the same 'deep' structure while they have different 'surface' structures. This is true, for example, on the following two sentences:

The cat chased the rat.

The rat was chased by the cat.

Generativists argue that they have the same deep structure, from which is derived the 'active' sentence (1), while (2) is derived from it on a 'passive transformation'.

3.0 TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

Until recently, students of language, along with researchers and learners proceeded on a body of assumptions which we now label 'traditional grammar'. Traditional Grammar derives from ideas about the parts of speech deriving in turn from the 'Ancient Greek and Roman' grammarians. In addition, it derives from ideas about meaning stemming from the scholastic debates of the middle Ages. It also derives ideas about the relationship between language and mind deriving from seventeenth century philosophical controversies between rationalists and imperialists. Traditional Grammar also gets ideas about correctness in language coming from the eighteenth century grammars of English, etc.

Traditional grammars generally classify words into parts of speech. They describe the patterns for word inflection and the rules of syntax by which those words are combined to form sentences. Typically, traditional grammars name eight parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. These groupings are based on categories of function and meaning in Latin and Indo-European languages like Germanic, Celtic and Indo-Iranian languages. Some traditional grammars however include other parts of speech such as articles, and determiners which were added in the 20th century by grammarians like Jespersen, a Danish linguist who specialized in the grammar of the English language and whose approach was fundamentally traditional. The traditional definitions of parts of speech refer to either the meaning or the function of words in sentences, or both.

- i. Nouns name living and non-living things including people and places
- ii. Pronouns are used in place of nouns
- iii. Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by describing the things named by nouns or pronouns
- iv. Verbs serve as predicates, used to ask questions or make assertions
- v. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs

- vi. Prepositions specify the relationship between a noun or pronoun and another word. This other word may be a noun or a pronoun, a verb or an adjective.
- vii. Conjunctions join parts of sentences or sentences into larger units
- viii. Interjections serve to yell, shout, scream, holler and express emotions.
- ix. Determiners are now included in the classification of words. It is worthy of note that contemporary linguists argue that classification based on a mixture of morpho-syntactic function and semantic meaning is insufficient for systematic analysis of grammar.

This implies that such definitions are not sufficient on their own to assign a word an unambiguous part of speech.

Radford (1-2) observes that:

within traditional grammar, the syntax of a language is described in terms of a taxonomy (i.e. classificatory list) of the range of different types of syntactic structures found in the language. The central assumption underpinning syntactic analysis in traditional grammar is that phrases and sentences are built up of a series of constituents (i.e. syntactic units), each of which belongs to a specific grammatical category and serves a specific grammatical function.

This implies that the task of the linguist in analysing the syntactic structure of any given sentence is to identify each of the constituents in the sentence and (for each constituent) to say what category it belongs to and what function it serves.

Words in traditional grammar are assigned to grammatical categories (called parts of speech) on the basis of their semantic properties (meaning), morphological properties (the range of different forms they have) and syntactic properties (word-order properties relating to the positions they can occupy within sentences). This implies that a set of words which belong to the same category would have a number of semantic, morphological and syntactic properties in common. Traditionally, there are said to be two different types of words, namely content words (contentives) and function words (functors). According to Radford (2):

The differences between the two can be illustrated by comparing a contentive like car with a functor like they. A noun like car has substantive lexical content in that it denotes an object which typically has four wheels and an engine, and it would be easy enough to draw a picture of a typical car; by contrast, a pronoun such as they has no descriptive content (e.g. you can't draw a picture of they), but rather is a functor which simply marks grammatical (more specifically, person, number and case) properties in that it is a third person plural nominative pronoun.

Content words often have lexical semantic content, and so have antonyms (opposites) – for example, the adjective tall has the antonym short, the verb increase has the antonym decrease, and the preposition inside has the antonym outside. A typical function word, like the pronoun me on the other hand has no obvious antonym.

The weaknesses of traditional grammar include the following:

- i. It provides a poor model for the grammars of languages that differ from the model language.
- ii. It does not adequately distinguish between all the linguistic levels—phonetic, morphological, syntactic, descriptive, etc.
- iii. It is normative and prescriptive rather than explicit and descriptive. Its rules are illogical; it is inconsistent and inadequate as a description of actual language in use.
- iv. It neglects not only the contemporary uses but also the functional and social varieties of language.
- v. It cannot resolve the ambiguity existing in the grammatical forms. Its methods are inaccurate, incomplete and inconsistent, and the descriptions are inexplicit and intuitive.

4.0 STRUCTURAL GRAMMAR (STRUCTURALISM)

In the twentieth century, as to inadequacies of traditional grammar came to be recognised, many linguists developed their theory which goes on the name ‘structuralism’. Hence we can now speak of ‘structural grammar’. Early proponents of structuralist theory like Ferdinand de Saussure argue that individual elements of language are largely arbitrary; therefore the best way to study language is through systemic structure. Saussure is generally referred to as the founder of the modern structuralist tradition in Europe even though the principles of structuralism did not originate with him.

Structural Grammar is essentially a grammar of segmentation and categorization; it is a grammar of lists, of an inventory of elements, and of a class of sequences of elements. Structural Grammar describes the grammar of a particular language based on the analysis of the description of the ‘structure’ of the sentences. The Structural model proposes that language can be studied based on structure; on the assumption that meaning can be literally derived. The classification of language components into well-defined structure is a major marker of this model and it also distinguishes it from traditionalist framework.

The structural model uses a descriptive approach and prioritises hierarchy and order. Lyons explains that the relational perspective of language structures adopted by the structuralists was a distinctive feature that made a name for many linguists in the early- mid 1900s. Lyons, 220 says:

‘Structure’ in this sense, is more or less equivalent to ‘system’: a language is a two-level system of syntagmatic and substitutional (or paradigmatic) relations. It is this sense of ‘structure’ –the sense in which particular emphasis is given to the internal combinatorial and contrastive relation within a language-system that makes the term ‘structuralism’ appropriate to several different twentieth century schools of linguistics....

In is vital to note that early proponents of Structuralist theory such as Ferdinand de Saussure argue that individual elements of language are largely arbitrary; and therefore the best way to study language is through its systematic structure. Saussure is commonly referred to as the founder of the modern structuralist tradition (in Europe) even though the principles of structuralism did not originate with him. Lyons (1977a:231) made a notable contribution to the understanding of language which is the distinctions he made between ‘langue’ and ‘parole’,

‘substance’ and ‘form’, and with ‘paradigmatic’ and ‘syntagmatic’ relations within a language system. He explains that while ‘langue’ is supposed to be the form, which is the expressive elements inherent in a language, ‘parole’ is the substance, which is the language behaviour or performance of a language user. He stresses that proper and appropriate sentence is sine qua non to effective and normative communication.

Leonard Bloomfield (1933), also named among the pioneers of American structuralism views language as a form of human behaviour in which meaning is the outcome of the interface of stimulus and response. This idea is embedded in the behaviourist theory of language-learning he proposed, and which many other structuralists adopted for language description. In trying to develop an improved principle of language description, the structural model overlooked the classification of constituents according to their classes and functions, and thereby, failed to adequately and explicitly project the interrelationships among the elements its doctrine advocated.

While Structural Grammar studies the surface structure of a sentence and analyses only what is seen (the real sentence), transformational Grammar studies both the surface and the deep structures of a sentence and gives additional explanation that we do not see in the sentence. It analyses the sentences with the phrase structure rules and applies transformational rules to get the surface structure. Although it is very strong in giving structural description of language, it has its shortfalls as follows:

- i. It is deficient in generative capacity.
- ii. It is incapable of accounting for all the intentions of native speakers.
- iii. It fails to disambiguate some ambiguities.

5.0 TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

Generative grammar is an approach to the study of syntax which was developed by an American linguist, Noam Chomsky and his followers. In contrast to the taxonomic approach adopted by Traditional Grammar, Chomsky developed Generative Grammar It began in the late 1950s out of the understanding that language learning is creative and generative and not primarily imitative. In the sense in which Chomsky used the term, it is a rule system formalized with mathematical precision that generates, without need of any information that is not represented explicitly in the system, the grammatical sentences of the language that it describes, or characterises and assigns to each sentence a structural description or grammatical analysis.

The term “generative” according to Chomsky (1965) refers to the capacity of a grammar to define (i.e., specify the membership of) the set of grammatical sentences in a language. Technically, a generative grammar is a set of formal rules which projects a finite set of sentences upon the potentially infinite set of sentences that constitute a language as a whole, and it does this in an explicit manner, assigning to each a set of structural descriptions. The idea of a generative grammar, generally, is to provide for the generation, or production, of an infinite number of sentences—including novel sentences—from a limited set of rules. Otherwise, one would have to generate a set of rules for “each and every” sentence.

According to the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, Generative Grammar is defined as:

A linguistic theory that attempts to describe a native speaker's tacit grammatical knowledge by a system of rules that in explicit and well-formed or grammatical sentences of a language while excluding all ungrammatical or impossible sentences.

The generativist aims at descriptive adequacy which seeks to give a comprehensive and plausible description of the structures of the language. The generativist is therefore inherently interested in comparing one language with another and also in developing a general theory of grammar.

By a generative grammar, Chomsky (4) means "a system of rules that in some explicit and well defined way assigns structural descriptions to sentences" He believes that every speaker of a language has mastered and internalized a generative grammar that expresses his knowledge of his language. He posits that "thus a generative grammar attempts to specify what the speaker actually knows not what he may report about his knowledge" (8). To generate according to him is to predict what could be the possible sentences of language while he views transformation is a kind of process that transforms one sentence into another, using a finite number of rules to produce infinite number of sentences.

In other words, generative grammar analyses the data of a given corpus by a deductive approach, unlike structuralism which is primarily corpus bound, meaning it analyses its data by inductive methods. Generative grammar attempts to explain how the competence of a native speaker of a language can enable that speaker to provide an infinite number of sentences from a finite set. This school of thought considers the relation between form and meaning as crucial in the generation of sentences that are both grammatical and meaningful.

Chomsky has over the years, revised the model a number of times. There have been five models proposed by Chomsky within generative grammar. These five models are: the Syntactic Structures, the Standard Theory, the Extended Standard Theory, the Revised Extended Standard Theory and the theory of Government and Binding.

5.1 Early Version of the Generative Model

The original model of generative grammar was presented in Chomsky's 1957 book, Syntactic Structures. This established the notion of 'generative grammar' itself, with its emphasis on explicit 'generative', formal description through 'rewrite rules' such as $S \Rightarrow NP VP$. This version made a separation between phrase structure rules that generated the basic structures, and transformations which altered these in various ways by turning them into passive or negative sentence; hence its popular name was Transformational Generative Grammar or TGG. Its most memorable product was the sentence

5.2 Colourless green ideas sleep furiously.

This was to demonstrate that sentences could be grammatical but meaningless and hence that syntax is independent of semantics.

The Syntactic Structures was outmoded by the model called Standard Theory (first known as the Aspects Model after Chomsky's 1965 book, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax). A core aspect of the Standard Theory is a distinction between two different representations of a

sentence called ‘Deep Structure’ and ‘Surface Structure’ and these two representations are linked together by Transformational Grammar. Chomsky has argued that the syntactic Deep Structure, serves as the only input to meaning, and that it is at this level that we can relate active and passive sentences He also points out that the only difference between an active sentence and its related passive sentence would be the absence or presence of an element. For example, the sentence Mary played the ball is to be viewed in terms of Mary, play, (past tense), the ball while The ball was played by Mary is to be viewed in terms of Mary, play, (past), the ball and passive.

The Standard Theory evolved into the Extended Standard Theory (EST), which refined the types of rules that were employed. This model was formulated in the late 1960s to early 1970s presented in Chomsky’s. Chomsky in this model eliminated phrase structure rules and replaced them with X-bar syntax. After the Extended Standard Theory is the new model, Revised Extended Standard Theory (REST) from 1973 to 1976. This model in turn transformed into the Government/Binding Model, after Lectures on Government and Binding of Chomsky, 1981.

Early generativists were to a great extent concerned with the development of phrase structure rules, ie rules generating various phrases, Their model is even sometimes known as ‘phrase structure grammar’. PS rules generate grammatical strings and provide a constituent analysis of the strings, specifying the hierarchical structure of a sentence and the linear sequence of its constituents.

Various Phrase structure rules were proposed in generative grammar in these early days. Thus, a sentence, according to these rules, is made up of a noun phrase and a verb phrase (subject and predicate) which is symbolised by a rewrite rule as

$S \rightarrow NP \quad VP$. Each element could further be rewritten as:

$NP \rightarrow (\text{Det.}) (AP) N (PP)$

$VP \rightarrow V (NP) (NP) (AP) (PP) (ADVP)$

$AP \rightarrow (\text{ADV}) A (PP)$

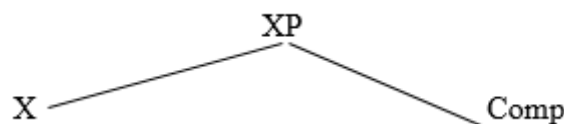
$PP \rightarrow (\text{ADV}) P (NP)$. Where the arrow symbol (\rightarrow) means “consists of”.

From the phrase structure rules above, it would be observed that in all the phrase types, all the elements in brackets are optional but the heads of the phrases which are not in brackets are always obligatory elements.

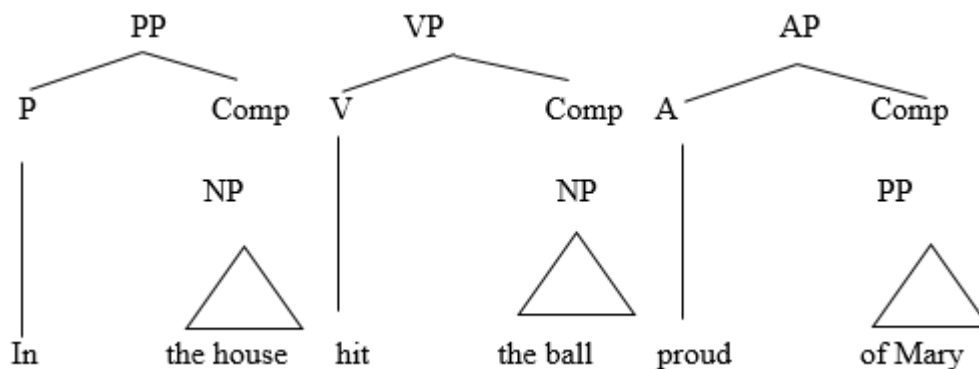
In English, there are different phrasal categories and each has its peculiar structural components. The basic phrasal categories include Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjectival Phrase (AP), Adverbial Phrase (AdvP) and Prepositional Phrase (PP). These basic phrasal categories have their corresponding lexical categories: Noun (N), Verb (V), Adjective (A), Adverb (Adv) and Preposition (P). The Noun is the head of a Noun Phrase, a Verb is the head of the Verb Phrase, an Adjective is the head of an Adjectival Phrase, an Adverb is the head of an Adverbial Phrase and a Preposition is the head of a Prepositional Phrase. The phrasal category in each case is the ‘maximal projection’ of the lexical category which is the head.

Brown and Miller (1991) say that "... there is nothing noun-like smaller than N and nothing noun-like bigger than an NP". This implies that under the phrase structure are only two levels of structure: XP and X.

Akmajian (215) proposes that a general schema for phrasal categories would be: $XP \rightarrow X \text{ Comp}$, where Comp, which stands for a complement, could be for example a PP or an NP. The X here stands for a lexical category. The structure for the schema is as follows:



He states that 'XP' could be a PP, a VP, an AP or an NP. When X equals P, then XP is a PP and so on. He presents this using tree diagrams as follows:



(Adapted from Akmajian, 216).

The PS rules must always conform to this schema which captures a generalization of English syntax, namely that the head of a phrase, whether a PP or a VP is to the left of its complement.

The GB Model claim that human languages consist of principles that are the same for any grammar and parameters that allowed grammars to vary in limited ways and also revised deep and surface structure into the more technical notions of D-structure and S-structure.

X-bar Theory

As time went on, linguists began to notice some inconveniences with the lexical and phrasal categories. The problem was that another kind of category between lexical and phrasal categories is needed to account for intermediate categories, and this new level is called the x-bar category.

Phrasal categories

X-bar categories

Lexical categories

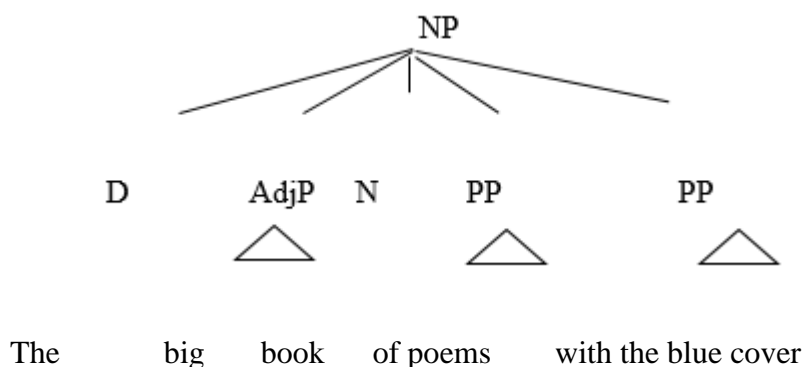
X-bar theory arose as a fundamental theoretical element in the GB (Government and Binding) framework of the late 1970s. The earlier Standard Theory evolved into the Extended Standard Theory (EST), which refined the types of rules that were employed. This model was presented in Chomsky's 1972 book, *Studies on Semantics in Generative Grammar*. In this model, Chomsky eliminated phrase structure rules and replaced them with X-bar syntax. The preoccupation of this module in GB Theory according to Riemsdijk and Williams, (41) is the structure of phrases. Before the emergence of X-bar Theory, Chomsky had proposed a Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) as an illustration of a generative device. Where PSG made different rules for different phrases, the X-bar Theory has just one schematized rule that accounts for the structure of every phrase.

According to Aarts (119), X-bar theory stipulates that all the major phrase types are structured in the same way. This theory, which is an alternative to the old phrase structure rules, replaces the separate structures for NP, VP and all the rest with a single structure, thereby constraining the set of possible phrase structure rules. A head X (such as a word) combines with one maximal projection (its complement) to form the intermediate projection, (X-bar), or X'. X' combines with another maximal projection (its specifier) to form the maximal projection, represented as XP, or as (X-double bar) or as X". The variable X ranges over syntactic categories of two types: lexical categories N(oun), V(erb), A(djective), P(reposition); and functional categories such as I(nflection) or C(omplementizer). This implies that 'X' represents an arbitrary lexical category, but when we are analysing a specific sentence, specific categories are assigned in such a way that the X may stand for a Noun, a Verb, an Adjective, an Adverb or a Preposition as the case may be.

Carnie (153) observes that the phrase structure theory has some empirical inadequacies which imply that it cannot account for all the data. This can be seen in the example below:

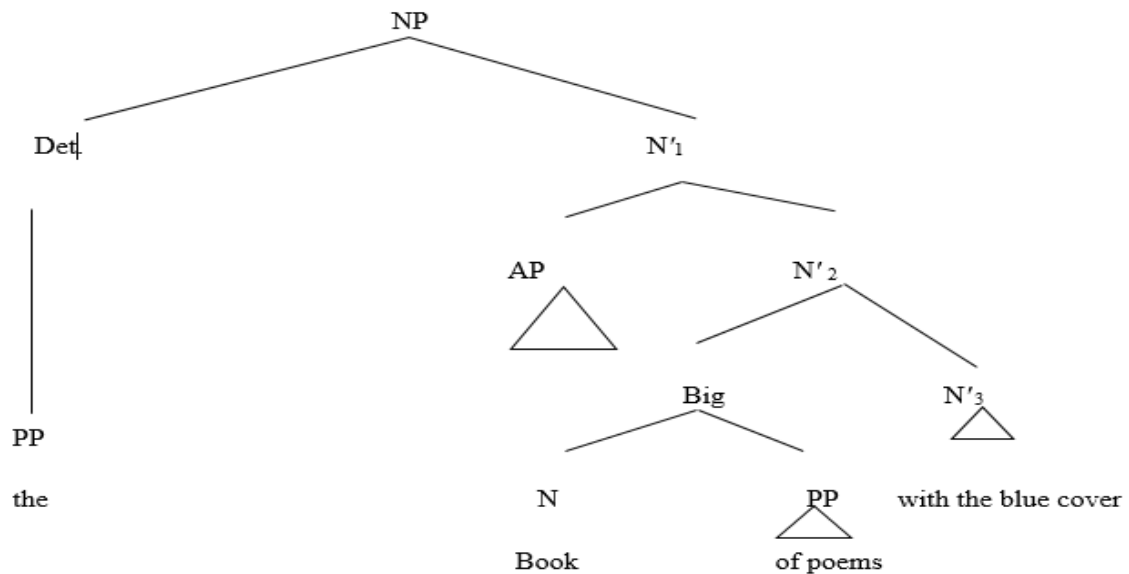
[The big book of poems with the blue cover] is on the table

The structure of this NP according to the NP rule is:



The problem with this analysis is that we have a 'flat structure'. The PP, of poems and the PP, with the blue cover are all on the same level of hierarchy which implies that there is no distinction between them in terms of 'dominance'. These two PPs are also 'flat' with respect to the head word book which is not supposed to be.

In X-bar, this structure will be represented as follows:

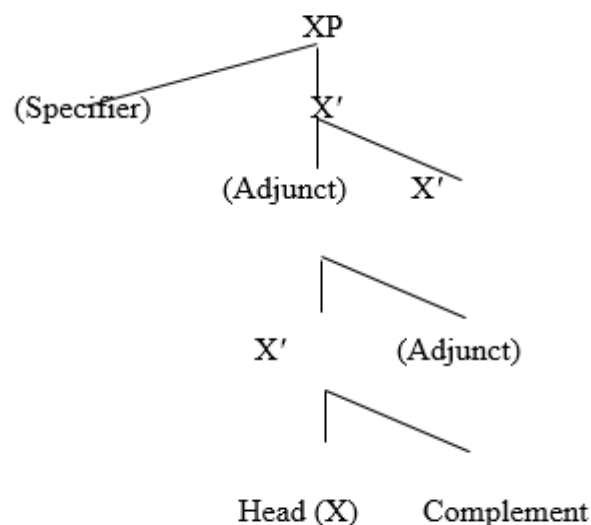


(Adapted from Carnie 153-54)

This analysis is a much deeper one that shows the hierarchy of different relationships between phrases. In this analysis, the first PP of poems and the second PP with the blue cover are not on the same level. The second PP is higher in hierarchy than the first.

In intermediate levels of structure (X-bar syntax), Brown & Miller (99) are concerned with two issues: first, whether it is helpful to identify categories intermediate between lexical and phrasal and secondly, whether they can usefully identify a more elaborated system of functional relationships. Brown & Miller conclude by attesting to the fact that these two issues are possible with the x-bar theory.

In X-bar syntax, constituents are built up according to the following schema:



The following are important details of the X-bar model:

Head - This is the word that is the “core” of the phrase which determines the type of phrase (X is the head of XP, for any X).

Complement - This is the phrase that is the sister of X (the head). A complement is a phrase that the head requires inside its own phrase. Examples: Direct object (complement of V); object of preposition (complement of P).

Specifier - This is the phrase that is the daughter of an XP. A specifier is a subject-like phrase that occurs with a head. Examples: Possessor (spec of N); certain adverbs (spec of V, A, P).

(d) Adjuncts- According to (Crystal, 12) an adjunct is a term used in grammatical theory to refer to an optional or secondary element in a construction. This means that an adjunct may be removed without the structural identity of the rest of the construction being affected. For example:

(13) a. Jane ate the rice yesterday.

b. Jane ate the rice.

In Example (13a), yesterday functions as the adjunct, giving additional information about the sentence. Example (13b) indicates that the adjunct yesterday is optional and can be omitted without affecting the meaning of the sentence.

We may therefore summarize the X-bar schema as follows:

XP (X" double bar projection) = the maximal projection (phrasal category) of its corresponding lexical category (Head). It must not iterate and may also have as its daughter, a specifier.

X' (single bar projection) = the intermediate category. It dominates modifiers and may iterate as many times as possible.

X (zero bar projection) = it is the lexical projection and may have complements as its sister.

The difference between specifiers, complements and adjuncts within the X-bar framework, according to Radford,176 can be given as follows:

Specifiers expand a category X –bar into X-double-bar

Adjuncts expand X-bar into X-bar

Complements expand X into X-bar

The schema above shows that XP (any phrase) has the structure: (Specifier) + (Modifier) + HEAD + (Complement) + (Modifier), which implies that every type of phrase can fit into the schema where the phrase type is usually determined by the Head which is the only obligatory element. All the other elements are functional and not structural elements.

With these X-bar rules, we now have a synchrony of the older Phrase Structure Rules component. In the X-bar schema, for each of the major phrase types (NPs, VPs, AdjPs, Advps and PPs), three other rules can be generated, where the first and second rules serve to introduce intermediate categories:

NP → (D) N'

N' → (AdjP) N' or N' (PP)

N' → N (PP)

VP → V'

N' → V' (PP) or V' (AdvP)

V' → V (NP)

AdvP → Adv'

Adv' → (AdvP) Adv'

Adv' → Adv' (PP)

AdjP → Adj'

Adj' → (AdvP) Adj'

Adj' → Adj' (PP)

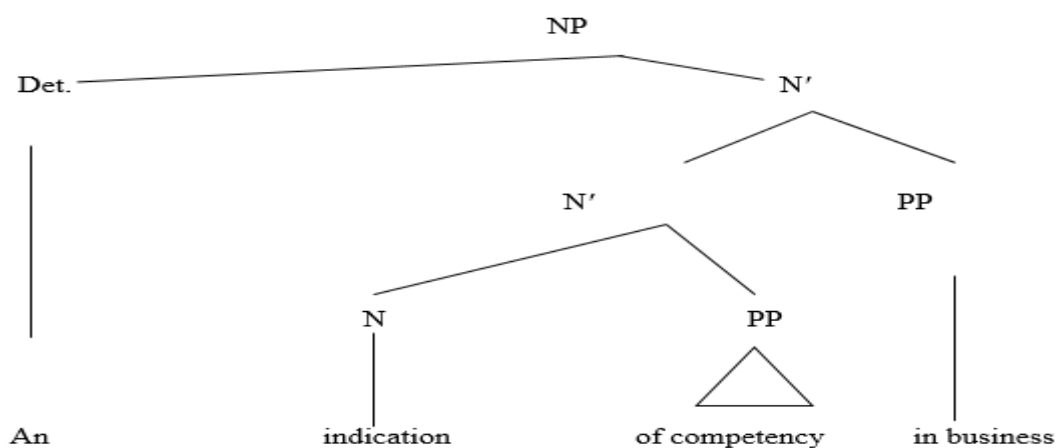
PP → P'

P' → P' (PP)

P' → P (NP)

2.4.3 Generative Grammar and Systemic Functional Grammar

The X-bar elaboration of generative grammar contrasts sharply with Systemic Functional Grammar, which is closely associated with M.A.K Halliday. This describes grammar as systems not as rules. Systemic Functional Grammar represents the structure of a phrase as: (M) + H + (Q), which gives us a flat structure which conceal deeper relationships, X-bar theory goes further to distinguish specifiers and modifiers in order to establish a more plausible and elaborate system of functional relationships. For example, the phrasean indication of competency in business can be represented thus:



Other phrases which can fit into the schema include:

Very excited to see you(AP)

Not kill the lady intentionally (VP)

Quite in control of the home obviously (PP).

These examples above buttress the fact that all the major phrase types are structured in the same way. Since all the elements in brackets are optional, it means that there is an infinite number of possible structures that could be generated depending on the structural composition of a given phrase. This implies that there may be smaller trees that omit optional parts, structures with multiple modifiers or complements and also additional layers of X-bars of various types. Examples are:

The girl

The slim girl

The slim girl in a fitted black suit

The slim pretty girl in a fitted black suit

The slim pretty girl in a fitted black suit sitting on the chair et.c. All these are noun phrases but have different structures.

The X-bar version of generative grammar, as already explained, is a theory that is concerned with the formation of phrases. In a phrase, there is a head, which is accompanied by other modifiers such as Specifiers, Adjuncts and Complements. The complements, which are obligatory, combine with the head to form a higher-level constituent. The adjuncts and specifiers may be optional. Thus in a complex noun phrase like [a [[student] [of mathematics]]], the head noun student might be labelled N (with bar-level zero), the noun-plus-complement group student of mathematics might be labelled N' (with bar-level one; primes are used throughout this paper instead of over bars for typographical convenience), and the full phrase a student of mathematics might be labelled N" (with bar-level two).

6.0 CONCLUSION

This article surveys different schools of grammar. Traditional Grammar is the collection of prescriptive rules and concept about the structure of language that is commonly taught in schools. It is a school of grammar that is largely based on the principles of Latin Grammar, not on modern linguistic research in English. It defines what is correct in English language but does not account for culture or modernity.

Thus, the major schools of grammar are TG, SG and TGG. this, according to Alduaisid as a result of great influence on the field of language teaching (35). each school of Grammar has its strengths and weaknesses and has proved more powerful in particular for teaching certain levels: TG for non-native speakers, SG for native speakers and TGG for advanced level earners in both cases of native and non-native speakers (Alduaisid 35).

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