
A Study of Null Constituents in American News Articles**Key words: Null constituents, American news articles.**

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Abstract

Like other registers, American journalistic texts, including newspapers, are characterized by certain textual and stylistic features. They often have their own organization, wording, choice of vocabulary, syntactic structures, etc. News writers usually tend to manipulate language to achieve their own goals. They often use special expressions to shape or frame readers' emotions and ideologies into certain direction, to achieve certain effects that can help to change their attitude. To achieve their aims, news writers may use various devices. They may even deviate from language norms to attract reader's attention. Among the textual syntactic devices used in newspaper are null constituents.

This paper is an attempt to study null constituents in selected news articles quoted from five American newspapers: New York Times, The Washington Post, The wall street Journal, USA Today, and Houston Chronicle. The study aims at finding out the extent to which null constituents are employed in these articles, the purposes behind using them as well as finding out the most and least frequent types of these constituents.

The results of analyzing the selected articles show that that C_{null} and Aux_{null} are the most frequent null constituents in the headlines of news articles. As for the body of the articles, the results show that S_{null} is the most frequent null constituent in the body of news articles. Aux_{null} has been found to be the least frequent in the body of news articles.

1. Introduction

In spite of the wide use of journalistic texts in our daily life, and in spite of the increasing studies that deal with this type of texts, no thesis, to the researcher's best knowledge, has addressed the topic of null constituents. Thus, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent are null constituents frequently used in American news texts?
2. What are the most frequent null constituent in American news texts?
3. What is the least frequent null constituent in American news texts?
4. To what extent does the content or type of the article determine the frequency of null constituents ?

The study aims at finding out:

- 1- The extent of using null constituents in American News articles.
- 2- The most and least frequent null constituents in American News articles.
- 3- The influence of the article type on the frequency of null constituents.
- 4- The type of article which manifests the most frequent use of null constituents.
- 5- The reasons behind the high or low frequency of null constituents in the texts under study.

The study hypothesizes that:

- 1-Null constituents are frequently used in American News articles .
- 2-Null subject constituent is the most frequent one in American News articles .
- 3- Null complement is the least frequent constituent in the texts under study.
- 4- The content or type of the article decides to a large extent the frequency of null constituents in the texts under study.
- 5-The high or low frequency of null constituents employed in journalistic texts can be due to the textual and stylistic features of the articles as well as the writers' attempt to influence their reader.

Data of this work is collected from five American newspapers: New York Times, The Washington Post, The wall street Journal, USA Today, and Houston Chronicle.

The analysis will cover null constituents in the headlines, and then in the body of these articles. As for the body of the selected articles , the analysis will cover the five types of sentences available in these articles : declarative, interrogative imperative , exclamatory and operative sentences.

2. On Defining Constituents

Quirk et al., (1985: 39), Radford (2004: 330) and Crystal (2008: 104), among others define constituents as a group of words that function together as a unit.

These units can form phrases, clauses sentences or large construction, as in:

(1) The students have skipped the classes recently .

The words *the, students, have skipped, the classes* and **recently** are constituents and the relation between these constituents is called constituency.

3. Sentence constituents

Native speakers can recognize the internal structure of a sentence . They can also identify different constituents that belong to the same category(Falk, 2007:182).

Yule (2014: 81) identifies eight constituents at the word level Hewings (2002: 265) adds an extra constituent to the list identified by Yule(2014)

3.1 Nouns (henceforth N)

Words are constituents that refer to objects, people, places, phenomena and even abstract ideas. Proper nouns are always written with a capital letter. The N can function as Subject (S), Direct Object (Od) or Indirect object (Oi), as in:

(2) *Mary* (S) went to London last year.

Ns can be merged with determiners (Det) to form a larger constituent called Noun Phrase (NP), as in:

(3) *The bank* gave George a warning.

3.2 Articles (Arts)

Arts are words (*a, an, the*) used with Ns to compose NPs, as in :

(4) You can have *a* cup of tea or *a* cup of coffee?

3.3 Adjectives (Adj)

Adjs are words that precede the Ns to provide a description to the things referred to, as in :

(5) The *beautiful* (Adj) girl (N) is playing in the field.

Adjs are merged with degrees to form adjectival phrase (Adj P), as in:

(6) The car is *very beautiful* (AdjP).

3.4 Auxiliaries (Auxs)

Quirk et al., (1985:80) and Hewings (2002:265) identify the Aux as a V used with the main V to compose a different aspect, voice or mood, etc. Auxs take the tense position in tree diagrams in English .

There are two types of Auxs : the basic Aux Vs (such as be, have, and do) and modal Vs (such as can could, may, might , etc) Auxs submit to the operation of S Aux Inversion (S Aux I) to form questions. They are also used to make negation, as in:

(7) George *is* drinking a cup of coffee .

(8) Mary *didn't* leave for London last week .

3.5 Verbs (Vs)

Strunk and White (2000:92) define Vs as words that refer to different types of action. Quirk et al., (1985 :62-96) and Crystal (2003 :490) state that Vs have their own characteristics. Vs in finite Verb Phrases (VP) show tense, mood, aspect and voice by using the inflectional forms (e.g.; write, writes, wrote, written) as in:

(9) Jessica *smashed* the mirror.

(10) Maria *works* at the equipment store.

3.6 Adverbs (Adv.)

Words that are used with Vs to inform more about actions, states, and events. They can be used with Adjs to modify information about things as in:

(11) I had a *very strange* dream last night.

There are two types of adverbials :

S-related Adverbial and O - related Adverbial, as in:

(12) He (s) was *at the hospital* (Adv.S).

(13) Her mother (s) puts the letters (Od) *on the table* (Adv.O).

3.7 Prepositions (Prep.)

A class of words that are used with Ns in phrases to indicate time, place, and other connections (at, in, on, near, with, without), as in:

(14) Jon arrived to class *at* 5 o'clock.

(15) The owl sets *near* the window.

3.8 Pronouns (PRN)

Words that can be used as substitute for Ns or Nps. They typically refer to people and things already known, as in:

(16) She is so proud of *herself* .

3.9 Conjunctions(conj.)

Conjunctions are words used to connect events and refer to relationship between events (such as and, but, because, when), as in:

(17) He couldn't score a goal *because* he didn't train well.

Some of these constituents are obligatory while others are optional. Advs are optional while Cs are obligatory.

4. Constituent analysis

Quirk et al., (1985:40) , Aitchison (2003: 65) and Yule (2014:85) define constituent analysis as an approach in which sentences are divided into their small components or constituents. While, Crystal (2008 :104) identifies constituent analysis based on the distributional criteria in which sentence analysis will reveal a series of constituents, such as:

(18) S + predicate (PRE)

Or Np + Vp , etc ...

These analyzed units can be broken down into further constituents, in a hierarchical way such as a Det which builds a constituent with Ns, and degree which builds a constituent with adverbs, as in:

(19) The (Det) cat (N).

(20) Very (Degree) slowly (Adv) .

The major branches of the large construction are known as immediate constituent (IC) , and the small elements that result from the analysis are known as ultimate constituents (UC) of the structure (Ibid), as in:

(21) The car has stopped. (Crystal, 2008: 104)

In the sentence(21) above, the ICs are *the car* and *has stopped*. *The car* has *the* as its IC, the second one *has* is the IC of stopped. Stopped can be divided into *stop_* and *_ed*, as in:

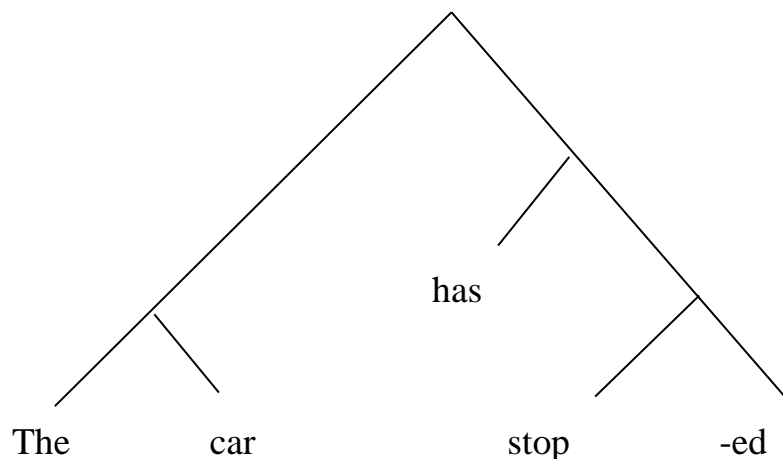


Figure (1) Immediate constituents (cited from Crystal, 2008 : 104)

5. Test of constituency

Aitcheson (2003:65) and Radford et al., (2008:263) raise a question of how one can test whether the tree analysis of certain structure is correct or not. There are many traditional tests that are designed to determine this. But the only phenomenon or test that is related to this study is co-ordination or cliticization.

Falk (2007 :217) defines co-ordination as the process that is used to combine two or more constituents of the same type by conjunctions like *and*, *but* and *or*. The resulting structure is the same as its major constituent. In co-ordinate phrases, the same type can be conjoined as (NP, PP, AdjP) or simple sentences that have the same deep structure, as in:

(22) Julia eats salty peanuts and drinks cold cola.

The sentence above has the same deep structure, as in:

(23) Julia eats salty peanuts.

(24) Julia drinks cold cola .

Radford et al., (2009 :263) propose a grammatical restriction which states that "only link constituents can be conjoined ; non – constituent string being a

constituent. "The constraint above has two rules: the first includes only similar constituents (of the same type) which can be co-ordinated. The second includes words that are not a constituent and hence cannot be co-ordinated, as in:

(25) Jana and Katherian studied very hard for the final exam. (conjoined NP)

(26) A: What are you doing?

b- *Ring up the ambulance and up the fire department.

In (25) the co-ordinated constituent occurs because both *NPs* are of the same type. While in (26b) the phrases *Ring up the ambulance* and *up the fire department* are of different type phrases *Ring up* is *VP* and *up the fire department* is *PP*, i.e. heterogeneous constituents.

The significance of constituency test in this study is to work as an evidence that null constituent occurs in English sentences.

6- Null (or PRO)

Null or PRO are not new born concepts in the area of syntax. They have been tackled by many linguists in different theories. PRO is similar in structure to ellipsis in which there are some elements which are realized grammatically but not phonologically.

Crystal (2008 :335) and Radford (2004: 89) define "Null" as a term found in generative grammar which means Empty or Zero category. Null results when the element carries deep structure specification and logical form, but lacks the phonetic form. It is there in deep structure, yet it is not pronounced.

There are five types of Null constituents with their subtypes as stated below:

1- Null subject pro or PRO (S_{null}).

2- Null auxiliary (Aux_{null}).

3-Null Tense (T_{null}).

a- T_{null} in Auxiliariless Finite clauses.

b- T_{null} in Bare Infinitive Clauses.

4-Null complement (C_{null}):

a- C_{null} in finite clause.

b- C_{null} in non _finite clause.

5-Null determiners (Det_{null}).

The Pro-drop parameter also known as the "Null Subject Parameter" (henceforth S_{null} parameter) is one of the principles and parameters theory that specifies whether or not a language permits the pronunciation of S realized by pronouns (Crystal,2008:389).

Biberauer et al., (2010: I) explain that languages in this parameter are divided into two types: Pro-Drop languages (S_{null} languages) and Non-pro-drop languages. The first type is indicated when the S of finite clause is spelled out (deleted) as in Italian language, while the second type (Non- S_{null} -language) is indicated when the S of finite clause cannot be deleted and English is an example of this type.

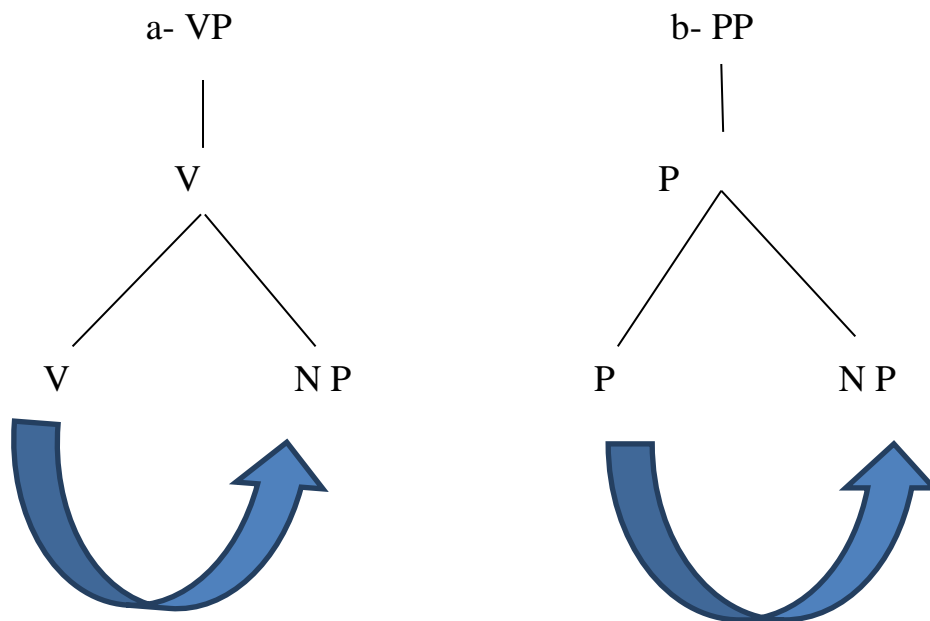
PRO is a term used in GB theory for Non-anaphoric Null. It is usually associated with S position in finite clause in PRO-Drop language (Crystal: 2008: 389).

Radford (2004 :91) states that PRO is a nominal element with restricted distribution that differs from other NPs. It is found only in S position of non-finite clauses but it cannot occur in object position, as in:

(27) * The dog chewed PRO.

(28) * The dog thinks [PRO chewed the slipper].

According to GB theory, the position of PRO must be governed by a particular element called the governor. Lexical heads, such as N, Vs, Adjs, and Ps are governors that govern their complement positions, as in:



Figure(2) Governors' lexical heads(cited from Cook & Newson, 2007: 88).

Cook & Newson (2007: 173) propose that PRO occupies only the ungoverned positions. According to the control theory, this part of theory makes it easy to distinguish PRO from other elements based on its referential capabilities because PRO is less flexible and its reference fixed to a specific element. It seems that PRO is the S_{null} of the Non-finite clause. This will be explained more in the S_{null} constituent.

7- Null constituents

Radford (2004:89) and Jaeggli & Safir(1989:9) point out that deleted parts of a sentence are called null constituents or empty categories, such as: S_{null} , Aux_{null} , C_{null} , etc..

The minimum building assumes that all elements in a particular structure should be clear. However, grammatical structure may also contain empty elements or empty clauses. Chomsky(2000 :92) defines Null constituents depending on MP as elements that have grammatical and semantic traits, yet they are not available.

Chomsky (1995 cited in Green, 2015 :3) states that humans can figure out the deleted elements such as S and Aux because they always exist inside our brains and this is what MP tries to prove through null constituent. But one of the reasons that a single element or even entire parts of a sentence can be deleted is language economy, yet this deletion is not always grammatical.

Nerbone & Mullin (2007: 148) assume that the null constituent has restriction, so it will not cause any difficulties with syntactic analyses in some situations. For example, the analyzer can only assume that null constituents come after Dets and Adjs. Given such assumption will make the analyzer conclude that such a constituent cannot appear more than once in the same line. Thus, the important cases of empty elements are proposed because they have lexical antecedents that shows the empty category to the reader, such as:

(29) Baker arrived late because the traffic held him up.

(30) Arrived late because the traffic held him up .

The pronoun *him* will show the reader that an element is missing (i.e.,S), yet it is understandable.

8- Nullization

It is the grammatical process of deleting certain elements for certain reasons. This process occurs only when certain conditions are present.

9- Nullization orientations in grammatical theories

9.1 Nullization & GBT

Aitcheson(2003:227) points out that the word 'government' includes the idea that some constituents have a control over others , and binding involves relating items to one another . He adds that the word government seems to have

connection with phrases . These heads control or have impact on others in their immediate locality, for example in:

(31) up the mountains.

(32) hit the ball .

The *P* in the **PP** governs the **NP** and the *V* *hit* governs the **NP**: It means that the word which comes first in the tree diagram governs the others, as in:

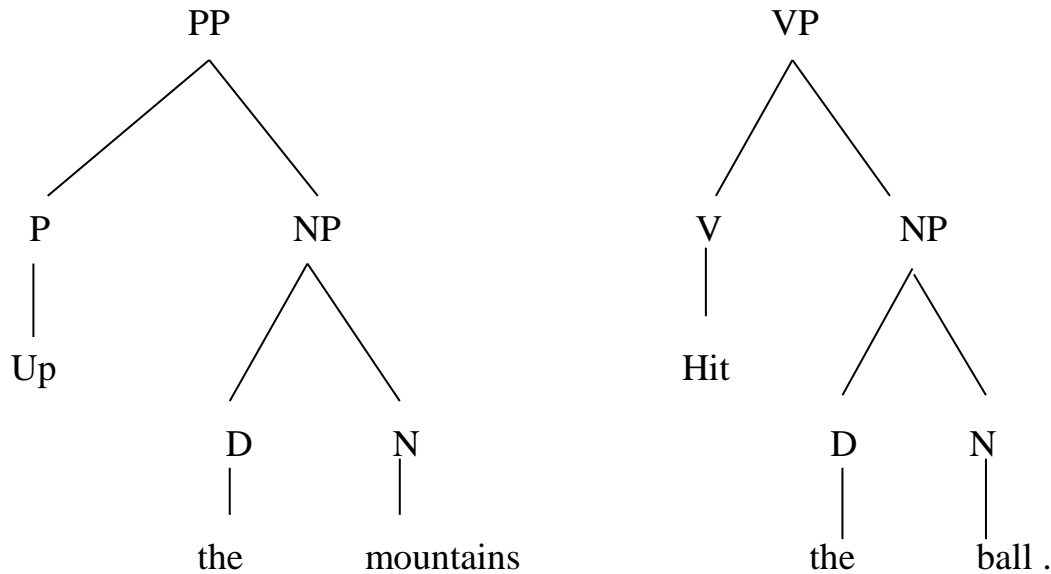


Figure (3) The government of some constituents over other .

10- Null subjects

Davidson (2006: 10), (Kim & Sells, 2007: 36), and Haegeman and Guéron (1999:127) state that English is considered as SVOC language. This is the common structure of any sentence in English and seems to be one in which the S performs the action denoted by the V. The S is one of the basic elements of a sentence and the V must agree with it, i.e., the S shapes the form of the V. Alexander(2003: 13) calls this agreement 'concord', and he shows that the O of the sentence can be the S of the V in passive voice, as in:

(33) The boy falls and breaks his arm (the S agrees with V).

(34) a- A thief stole the lady's purse. (Active)

b- The lady's purse was stolen by the thief. (Passive)

A S_{null} phenomenon is the absence (or apparent absence) of a S in a sentence. It is found in different constructions and contexts, especially in spoken English. Visser (1963 cited by Harvie (1998:15) states that S_{null} are in fact found in

Old, Middle and Modern English, but are restricted to the deletion of identical S found in the same syntactic surrounding, especially if the referent is similar to the preceding clause, as in:

(35) Young of years as *he* was, fled away into the wilderness.

Radford(1997:119) and Haegeman & Ihsane (2001; cited in Bailey, 2011: 39) state that English shows some differences concerning S_{null} in its history, and the sentence structure where S_{null} may take place. S_{null} has its roots in many languages but it is still a new concept in English. In modern English, the study of S_{null} has been restricted to particular registers: such as diaries, telegrams, recipes and instruction manuals, and newspaper headlines.

The works of Radford (2009:82) and Baily(2011:25) on the distribution of S_{null} is very proximal. They arrived at three types of S_{null} :

1- The first type of S_{null} occurs in finite clauses. According to Quirk et al.(1985:724) and Huddleston & Pullum(2002:238), imperative and coordinate sentences in English contain an implicit S that can be estimated as second-person expression(you) or third-person expression like (anyone), as in (36a):

(36) a- S_{null} come here . (Imperative)

b- Joana ate her dinner and S_{null} went for a walk.(Coordinate)

Holmberg (2003:20) suggests that S_{null} is restricted by a constraint on processing, as " recoverability of deletion " . Applying his suggestion to the sentences above , the S_{null} in (36b) has an antecedent in the first clause which is *Joana*. This entails that the S of the second conjunct cannot be deleted unless it is co-referential with the S of first the clause.

2- The second type called truncated S_{null} because it is dropped in sentence-initial position. A sentence can be truncated (i.e. cut) by deleting the PF of S pronoun. The truncation occurs only with Ss such as *I/you/he/they*(Radford,2009:82), as in:

(37) a- I can't find my phone.

b- S_{null} can't find my phone.

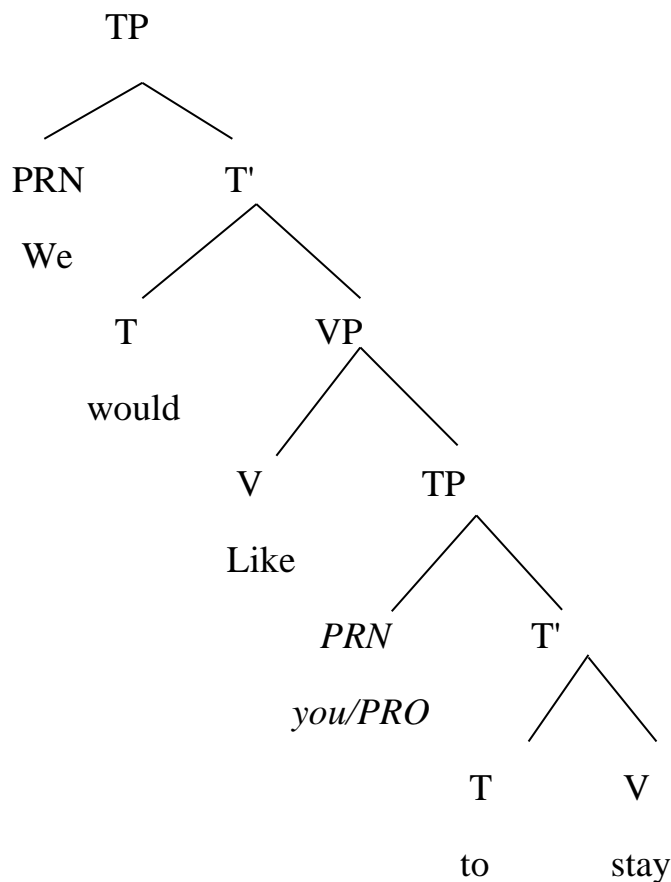
3- The third type of S_{null} occurs in non-finite clauses. Brinton(2000:24) states that sometimes non-finite clauses miss obligatory elements such as S or Od because they are derived structures from complete clauses by nullization.

Radford's(2009:91) assumption is slightly different from Brinton (2000:24), he depends on the equivalence of structures to specify the S_{null} of infinitive complement, as in:

(38) We would like[you to stay].

(39) We would like[S_{null} to stay].

In the examples above(38)and(39), both non-finite clauses have the same grammatical and referential features. S_{null} in (39) can be indicated as big PRO, as shown in the tree diagram below:



Figure(4):T'(predicate),T(Tense Marker), TP(tense phrase)(cited from Radford, 2004: 91).

Radford(2009:84) states that the PRO in the infinitive complement (C) is controlled by the V *Like*. The same thing happens to the C clause with PRO called as a control clause. Radford (2004:91) argues that the reason behind positing such assumptions is that the V '*stay*' has an understood S. He also states that the S_{null} of the infinitive becomes overt when it is replaced by finite clause, as in:

(40) He is sorry [*PRO* to have kept you waiting].

(41) He is sorry [*he* would have kept you waiting].

According to Harvie(2000:16) and Radford(2009:84) one of the requirements for a language to have S_{null} is the existence of a rich agreement between constituents in order to allow referential S_{null} . They assume that these requirements mean that the verbal inflectional paradigm Ns must identify each person. Another requirement is locality Principle (LP) which means that the reflexive anaphora must have a local antecedent to refer back to the same bracketed clause (i.e. *self/selves as in yourself/ourselves/myself, etc.*), as in:

(42) We want[George to help *himself*].

(43) * We want [George to help *ourselves*].

The sentence (42) is grammatical because it satisfies the LP in which the S(*George*) and the reflexive *himself* occur in the same bracketed clause, while (43) is ungrammatical because it violates the LP. *George* the S of the bracketed clause is not the antecedent of the reflexive *ourselves*. There is one exception that makes the second sentence grammatical : when the big PRO is replaced instead of the S of the bracketed clause. Then the reflexive pronoun *ourselves* will refer back to the S of the matrix clause, as in:

(44) We want [PRO to prove *ourselves*].

Spyropoulos(2001:85) and Cook&News(2007:89-90) state that in certain structures S_{null} have arbitrary reference and this property is found in all S_{null} Locations. It involves *pro* with arbitrary index.GB theory studies the semantic and syntactic features of arbitrariness in Romance language. The allowance of arbitrary S_{nulls} depends on the analyses of the Projection Principle and the mechanism of government at the DS level. In arbitrary cases, PRO is interpreted as having generic reference, equivalent to the reference of the PRN *one*, as in:

(45) *PRO* to leave would be impolite (for *one* to leave would be impolite).

11- Null Auxiliary

Radford (2009 :86) assumes that all clauses have tense projection (TP) whether they are finite or nonfinite. The most important question raised by Radford is how to analyze finite clauses that have no explicit Aux . He gives an answer depending on ellipsis especially the form of "gapping" which is a grammatical operation permitting the head of a phrase to be deleted (or unpronounced) when the same element occurs in another place within sentence . It is called gapping because it leaves an apparent gap in the phrases (the gap is the head of the phrase) (Ibid :87), as in:

(46) He was laughing and she –Aux_{null} crying .

(45) John can play the piano , and Jessica –Aux_{null} play the violin .

(46) He could have helped her , or {She –Aux null- have helped him} (Radford , 2009 :93) .

In (46) the second clause contains Aux_{null} represented by the modal *could* . It is nullized because *could* of the main clause is found in the preceding sentence . In gapping, nullization and ellipsis meet but the later works on meaning i.e. , the reader will figure out that the element is missing depending on the whole meaning of the sentences , while nullization works on the deep structure of

sentences since it is considered that missing elements are phonetically deleted but they ought to be revealed in tree diagram , as in :-

(47) [she Aux_{null} helped him] .

(48) [She Aux_{null} crying]

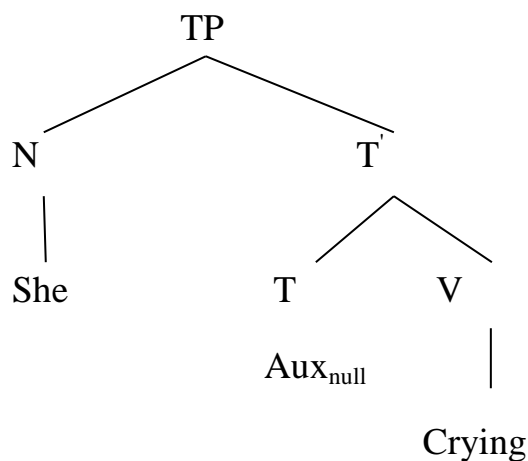
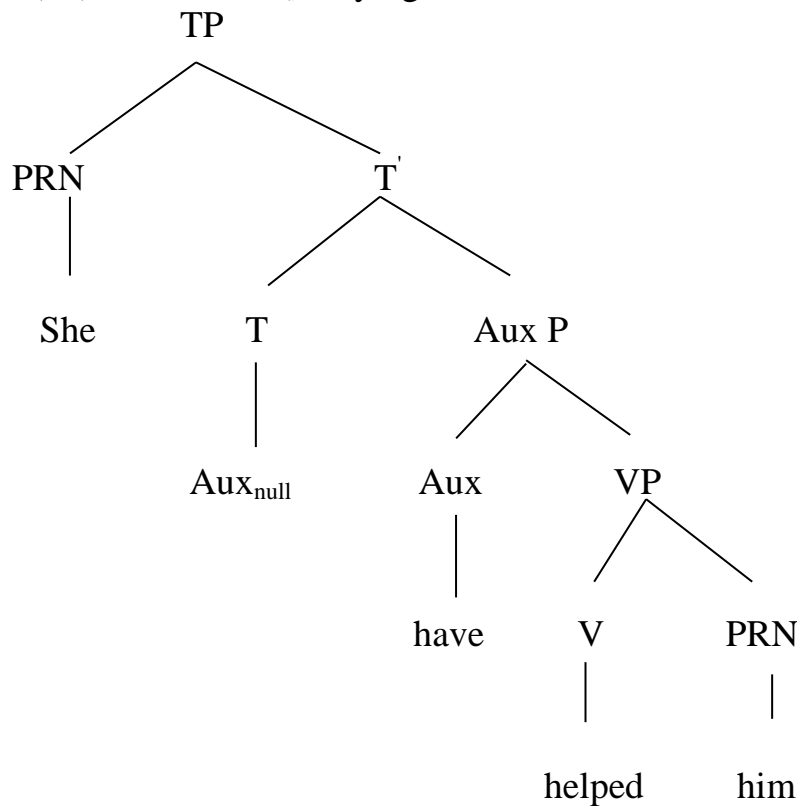


Figure (5) Aux_{null} in subordinate clause(cited from Radford,2004:94).

Radford(2004:93) presents an evidence that the Aux_{null} "could" is nullized through cliticisation of the Aux *have*. The cliticisation of "have" onto the S pronoun "She" in the bracketed clause is blocked because cliticisation happens only when the Aux and S pronoun are immediately adjacent. This means that the bracketed clause contains a null counterpart of could intervening between *She* and *have* preventing them from being cliticised.

Aux_{null} in declarative sentences does not move from T to C position and stays in its position. It is not qualified for deletion.

12- Null Tense (T_{null})

12.1 T_{null} in Auxiliaries finite clauses

Radford (2009 : 89) hypothesizes that : " all finite clauses are TPs headed by an (overt or null) T constituent" .This hypothesis does not have impact on Auxs in T position such as modals like (*could , would , etc .*) but it has an impact on finite clauses with no Auxs in T position . The only difference between finite clause and Aux_{null} is that it does not contain a null element of specific Aux like 'could ' as in :

(49) John enjoys syntax .

(50) John enjoyed syntax .

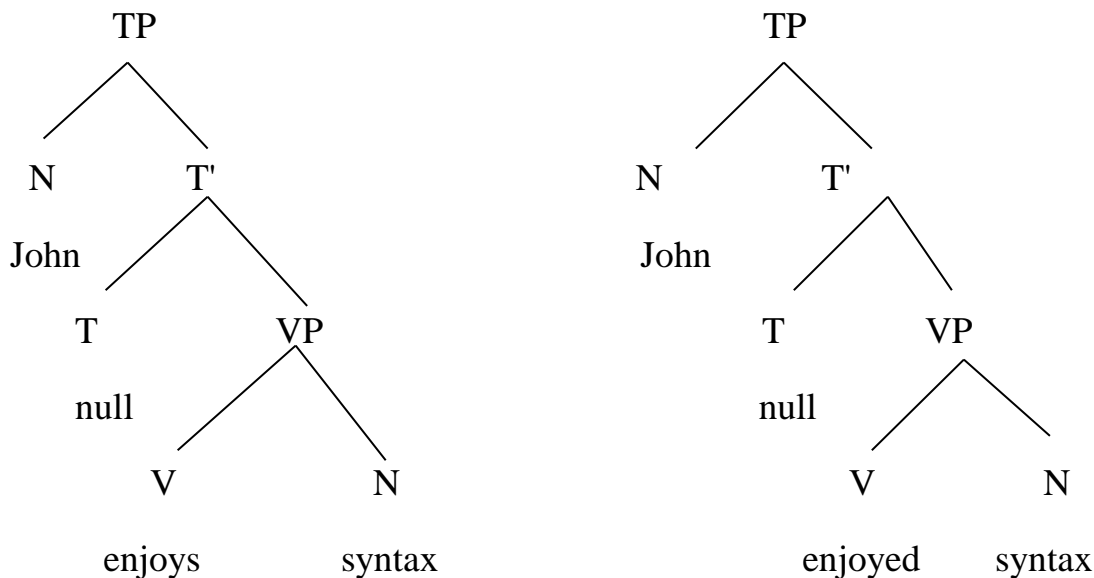


Figure (6) refers to T_{null} constituent.

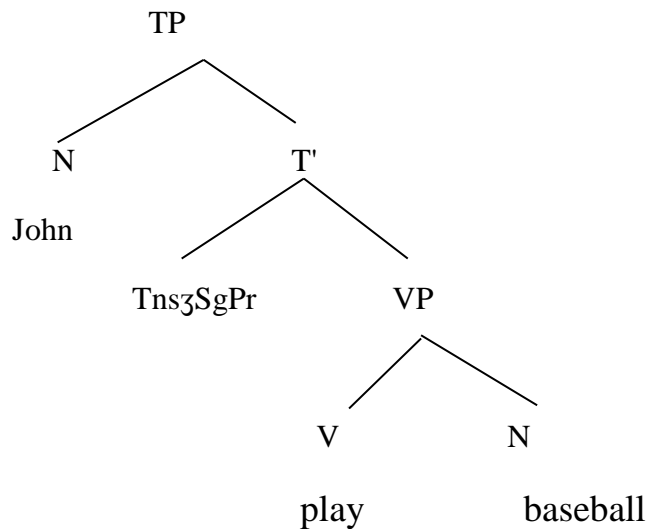
Chomsky (1981 :65) and Rizzi (1982 : 91) show that a sentence structure must have a T agreement and their Vs hold T affix . Radford (2009: 94) points out that if the structure contains an Aux such as (*do*) the T is attached to the Aux and if the structure contains no Aux the T affix is attached to the main V, as in :

(51) John enjoys syntax .

(52) John *does* enjoy syntax .

According to Chomsky (1957 : 46) and Harwood (2014 :2), the V in (51) carries the present tense affix as an (-s) inflection is attached to the V. Radford

identifies this phenomenon as affix hopping which is " a morphological affix in T position is lowered onto a verb " (Radford, 2009 : 95), as in:



Figure(7) Affix hopping (cited from Radford,2009:95).

Radford (2009 :93)states that finite Aux takes the position of the head T of the TP, while the main V takes the position of the head V of Vp. There is an interesting way to test this hypothesis concerning the behavior of elements that come as an Auxs in some cases or as Vs in other cases as in :

(53) We have seen the volcano .

(54) They had their first exam yesterday .

Radford(ibid) distinguishes between the Aux *have* and the V *have* stating that *have* can be distinguished as Aux when it submits to S Aux I. If *have* is a V it cannot submit to these tests, as in:

(55) We've seen the volcano.

(56) Have we seen the volcano?

(57) *They've their first exam yesterday .

12.2 Null T in bare infinitive clauses

The form without *to* is called bare infinite , as in:

(58) she wants to go to the meeting early . (with particle to)

(59) He must go there . (without particle to)

Liceras et al, (2006 : 8)clarify that RIs have no T. Therefore, RI clauses show some restrictions while finite clauses do not . For example , Auxs and copular Vs cannot come with RIs. They are generated in T or need to rise to T. The Ss

cannot appear in non – finite clauses . Consequently , agreement errors in these constructions would consist of the presence of an overt S with RI, as in:

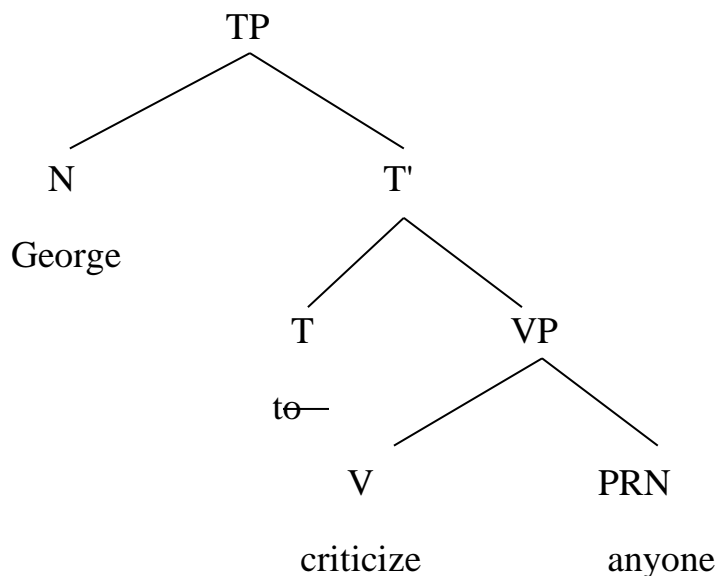
(60) * Maria *is* want to go to the library .

(61) They *are* must have their eyes examine at the clinic .

Radford(2009:89) assumes that all finite clauses are TPs preceded by T whether it is overt or abstract. Therefore, clauses containing infinitival *to* are also TPs (with *to* working as a nonfinite tense particle) . Generalizing Radford's assumption to include both finite and infinite clause to be TPs has some reservations in analyzing bare infinitives (i.e . *to – less*).

Quirk et al., (1985 :992 -3) and Radford (2009 :94) suggest that all finite and infinitival clauses are indeed TPs. Bare infinitive clauses like those bracketed below will be TPs headed by a null constituent .Therefore, the relevant T_{null} constituent requires the(italicized) V in the bracketed clause to be in the infinitive form. It is considered as a null counterpart of infinitival *to* (Radford , 2009:94) ,as in :-

(62) We have never known [George *criticize* anyone]



Figure(8) Null to-infinitive (cited from Radford,2004:101).

According to Quirk et al.(1985:1061) Vs like *know*, *let*, and *see* take an infinitival complement preceded by the infinitive particle(*to*). Following Radford's theory that all infinitive clauses preceded by null particle means that these Vs take an infinitive null particle too. Radford(2009:95) argues that Vs like *expect*, *enjoy* ,*judge*, *report*, *believe* etc. take a complement preceded by an overt particle, as in:

(63) She *expects*{me to win}.

(64) They *reported*{the cat to be missing}.

Radford (ibid) differentiates between the optional null infinitive particle and the obligatory overt infinitive particle. Transformation of C from active to passive voice shows the particle overtly, but when the C is TPs of active transitive V the particle is optional, as in:

(65) We have never known[George(to) criticize anyone].

(66) George has never been known[to criticize anyone].

In sentence (65) the S *George* of infinitive clause is overt and the particle *to* is optional and marked between brackets while in(66) the particle is obligatory because the S of infinitive is absent because of passivization.

13- Null Complementizers (C_{null})

Crystal(2008:121).defines complementizer projection ($C_{zr}P$) depending on government's binding theory of the contemporary terms as "the maximum projection of C ". CP is the biggest unit of grammatical analysis that it is equal to S in earlier GB , and in lexical grammar and generalized sentence rules.

According to Radford (2016: 171), all syntactic structures contain overt or null elements. There are many reasons for positing empty element but the main reason is to achieve the complete consistency. C_{null} is a type of EC found in embedded clauses. Each finite clause has a CP constituent that it is headed by C like *if*, *that* or by a null constituent. If the sentence is declarative there will be many types of C_{null} . This implies that the C *that* can be deleted phonetically in certain circumstances , although it is present in DS as a null constituent, as in:

(67) John hopes(that)he will win.

(68) John hopes he will win.

Lasnik(2009:528) demonstrates that the distribution of C_{null} is very limited and it depends on ECP analysis. It is stated that the C_{null} takes place when it is governed by the V properly. If it is not governed by the V then C_{null} is not licensed. Some of these Vs are neutral in allowing and disallowing C_{null} of the same time, as in:

(69) He believes C_{null} he likes mathematics.(allowing null C *that*)

(70) He believes *that* he likes mathematics.(allow overt C *that*)

The root of the assumption that complementiserless clauses have a C_{zrnull} was tackled more than four decades by Stockwell, Schachter and Partee (1973:599). Also, it is known that the deleted C in English has restricted rules concerning the distribution of C_{null} . There are cases which allow null C and overt C as shown in the examples above(69)and(70) ,other cases which disallow C_{null} .

Lasnik(2009:527) identifies the clauses that disallow C_{null} , as follows:

a- S clauses

(71) * [C[He likes mathematics]] is widely believed.

b- Extraposed clauses

(72) * I believe in that area [C[the Russians had left]].

c- Pseudoclefted clauses

(73) * What the manger believes is[C[they will finish the paper by tomorrow]].

d- Right node raised clauses

(74)*We suspected and they believed[C[Ali will visit his grandparents]].

e- Clauses preceded by a gapped verb(V ellipsis)

(75) *Anna believed Mary graduated from school and Peter [C[Mary got a job]].

All the above sentences disallow C_{null} because according to ECP analysis the C_{null} is not governed by the V properly.

13.1 Null C in non – finite clauses

Quirk et al ., (1985 : 1078) and Davidson (2006 :157) point out that what makes non – finite clauses different from finite clauses is that the V – element they contain cannot function as the main V of an independent sentence – This means that non – finite clauses are subordinate clauses introduced by subordinators .

Quirk et al., (2985 : 992 – 993) classify non – finite clauses into four types:

1- ing participle clauses , as in :

(76) Her aunt *having left* room , I asked Ann for some personal help .

2- ed participle clauses , as in :-

(77) *covered* with shame , He walked away .

3- To – infinitive clauses , as in :-

(78) He left early *to catch* the plane .

4- Bare infinitive clauses

(79) He must *find* a solution.

Radford (2009:105) states that non-finite forms found in subordinate to – infinitive clauses are considered CP, introduced by the particle *for*. He assumes that all finite clauses whether main or Cs are CP introduced by overt or null C_{zr} , as in :

(80) He will arrange {for her to see the doctor} .

Brinton (2000 : 241)states that the C after the main V *want* does not look as a C because it is not headed by the infinitive C_{zr} . A closer look Shows that there is a C_{null} , as in :

(81) He wanted {her to apologize} .

(ii) pseudo – cleft sentence

This test is by making the C at the V *want* the focus of pseudo – cleft sentence then *for* will appear on the SS , as in :

(82) What he really want was *for* her to apologize ?

14- Null Determiners (Det_{null}) .

Chomsky (1995 :74) states that Det_{null} can be studied based on X – bar theory in GB . X-Bar theory was made to capture the generalities found across categorical structure, such as the head in English which always precedes its complement but X – bar theory does not specify which complement should go with which head .

In modern grammar the Dets are considered the head of the phrase not the Ns . Therefore, they are called determiner phrases instead of NP . Following this hypotheses, each labeled node (NP) in tree diagram would be controlled by a Det . Chomsky (1995 : 108) states that in some contexts , Ns appear without Det Known as bare nominal's (Ns that contain no overt Det or quantifier Q). He assumes that these bare nominal's are preceded by Dets or Qs null , as in :

(83) Det_{null} Sincerity may frighten the boy .

In sentence (83) above the bare noun *Sincerity* is modified by a Det_{null} .

Massan and Ghomeshi (2009 :70) state that proper names and pronouns do not have a Det, but they are still part of DetP. Therefore , the null constituent takes the determiner position as the head of the phrase , as in:

(84) Det p {*Det_{null}* Julia} .

(85) Det P {*Det_{null}* He } .

Dets_{null} are the simplest case to be considered . The Ns occur in the same positions of DetPs, and can be replaced with PRNs , as in :

(86) John likes {*Det_{null}* cheese} . He likes it .

The fact that NPs can be substituted by PRNs and can appear in the same places as other DetPs . This means that they must also be DetPs but with a *Det_{null}* .

Radford (2004 : 115) assumes that some Dets can qualify certain types of Ns, as in :

(87) We don't have {*Det_{null}* enough} machinery .

(88) We don't have {enough} *machines* .

Radford (2009: 111) points out that bare Ns with a Det null as the head of the phrase contains some semantic interpretation . This assumption holds both covert and explicit components, as in :

(89) Meat is fattening .

(90) I had *Det_{null}* meat for lanch .

15- Analysis of the Selected Article News

Table (1) below shows that null constituents occur 8 times in the headlines of selected news articles .The most frequent null constituents are C_{null} and Aux_{null} each occurring 3 times representing (37.5%) of the total number of null constituents occurring in the selected texts.

As for the body of the articles , Table (5) shows that the total number of null constituents is 178. S_{null} has been found to be the most frequent null constituent in the body of news articles , occurring 84 times and representing (47.19%).

The next frequent null constituent is C_{null} which occurs 55 times representing (30.89%). Aux_{null} has been found to be the least frequent in the body of news articles , occurring 39 times and representing (21.91%).

Table (1)

Frequency and Percentage of Null Constituents in News Articles

News Article No	Headline						Body					
	Null subject		Null complement		Null auxiliary		Null subject		Null complement		Null auxiliary	
	Freq	Percentage	Freq	percentage	Freq	percentage	Freq	percentage	Freq	percentage	Freq	percentage
N1	1	50%	1	33.33%	1	33.33%	20	23.8%	12	21.81%	9	23.07%
N2	0	0%	1	33.33%	0	0%	16	19.04%	14	25.45%	8	20.51%
N3	0	0%	0	0%	1	33.33%	18	21.42%	9	16.36%	10	25.64%
N4	0	0%	0	0%	1	33.33%	14	16.66%	7	12.72%	7	17.94%
N5	1	50%	1	33.33%	0	0%	16	19.04%	13	23.63%	5	12.82%
Total	2	100%	3	100%	3	100%	84	100%	55	100%	39	100%

16- Discussion of Results

Discussion of the results obtained in this study is organized in the form of replies to the research questions stated in the introduction.

16.1. " To what extent are null constituents frequently used in American news texts?

The results of analyzing the selected text have shown that null constituents are frequently used in the selected sample . Table (1) shows that S_{null} , C_{null} and Aux_{null} constituents occur 86, 58 , 42 times respectively in the selected texts . Such high frequency of null constituents validates the first hypothesis adopted in this study which states that " Null constituents are frequently used in American news texts".

16.2. "What are the most frequent null constituent in American news texts?

The results have shown that S_{null} constituent is the most frequent null constituent in the selected texts. It occurs 86 times :2 times in the headlines and 84 times in the body of articles (see Table 1).

These results validate the second adopted hypothesis which states that " Null subject constituent is the most frequent one in American news texts."

16.3. "What is the least frequent null constituent in American news texts?

The analysis of results as shown in Table (1) indicates that Aux_{null} is the least frequent constituent . It occurs 42 times : only 3 times in headlines and 39 times

in the body of the selected articles. This result disproves the third adopted hypothesis which states that " Null complement is the least frequent constituent in the texts under study."

17- Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study , the following conclusions can draw:

- 1-Null constituents are frequently used in American news articles.
- 2- The high frequency of null constituents in News articles can be due to the textual features of these texts : limited space , style of the texts , and writers' attempt to influence readers.
- 3- Null subject constituent is the most frequent constituent in American articles due to writers' attempt to create a state of curiosity over the identity of the subject or to keep him/her hidden.
- 4- Null Auxiliary constituent is the least frequent constituent in the texts under study.
- 5.The content or type of the American article doesn't seem to be a decisive factor that can determine the amount of null constituents to be used in the articles.

العناصر المصفرة في المقالات الاخبارية الاميركية

الكلمات المفتاحية: العناصر المصفرة ، المقالات الاميركية، الاخبارية

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المخلص

كغيرها من النصوص ، تمتاز النصوص الصحفية الاميركية بخصائص نصية واسلوبية معينة. فلهذه النصوص طريقتها الخاصة في تنظيم النص واختيار المفردات والتراكيب النحوية، الخ. ويميل كتاب هذه النصوص عادة الى استخدام اللغة لتحقيق اهداف معينة. فهم يستخدمون تعابير معينة لقولبة مشاعر القراء وايديولوجياتهم نحو اتجاه معين بغية تغيير اتجاهاتهم. ولغرض تحقيق اهدافهم يستخدم كتاب هذه النصوص وسائل لغوية مختلفة وقد ينزاحون عن احكام اللغة لغرض جلب انتباه القراء. ومن بين هذه الاساليب اللغوية المستخدمة في النصوص الاخبارية العناصر المصفرة.

وتعد هذه الدراسة محاولة لدراسة العناصر المصفرة في مقالات اخبارية مختارة من خمسة صحف اميركية هي نيويورك تايمز ، ذا واشنطن بوست، ذا وول ستريت جورنال، يو اس اي تودي و هاوستون كرونكل. وتهدف هذه الدراسة الى معرفة مدى استخدام العناصر المصفرة

قي النصوص موضوع الدراسة وكذلك الغرض من استخدامها وكذلك معرفة العناصر الأكثر والأقل استخداماً في هذه النصوص.

وأظهر التحليل الإحصائي لنتائج الدراسة أن عناصر التتمات والأفعال المساعدة المصفرة هي الأكثر شيوعاً في عناوين هذه المقالات. أما بالنسبة لمحتوى هذه المقالات فقد أظهرت النتائج أن عنصر الفاعل المصفر هو الأكثر شيوعاً في حين أن الأفعال المساعدة المصفرة هي الأقل شيوعاً في محتوى هذه المقالات.

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