**CHAPTER II**

**REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter presents reviews of related literature. The review of related literature consists of some relevant theories used to analyze the data and to answer the research problem including the definition of syntax, syntactic and lexical category, phrase structure tree, phrase structure rule and definition of communication and mass media. In the review of related research, the researcher cites an earlier related researches by Masngud (2011), Zeinuar (2009) and Lutfiatin (2006).

1. **Communication and Mass Media**

**1. Communication**

As the researcher has stated in the first chapter, humans as a social being needs to interact and communicate with others in the society. Human is destined to socialize and interact with each other. The intention in communicating with others is many, which one of those are to get information and to exchange information. Communication as a practice of conveying information is actually an old theme, as old as human civilization. For human being, communication conducted to share knowladge and experience with others. It is an important part that cannot be separated from human’s activity, both as an individual and a group. Even our 70% of conscious time used to communicate. Furthermore, our identity as a social being demands us to interact with others. Most of human life spent by communicating, with family member, friend, neighbour, colleague even with themselves. By communicating, human being will be able to exchange information, sharing, developing themselves and sharing other advantages. Without communicating, human being will never be improved. We can imagine, how lonely this life would be. Whereas, as a social being, we need others’ presence. An interaction with other human beings is advantageous to maintain our humanity existance. We exist and interact because of other’s presence. (Ngainun Naim: 2011).

The word “communication” came from Latin *cum*, a preposition which means with and together with, and *unus*, an sum refers to one. From those two words formed a noun *communio* which in English becomes *communion* means togetherness, unity, alliance, union, fellowship, and relationship. To form a *communio*, it is necessary to make an effort and work. From the word derived a verb *communicare* which mean share something with someone, giving something to anybody, exchanging, talking something to someone else, telling something towards others, speaking, discussing, make a relationship and make friend. The verb *communicare* finally form a noun *communication* in English. Based on those meanings of the word *communicare* which is the origin of the word communication, litterally communication means notification, talk, conversation, discussion or relation. (M. Hardjana: 2007).

Meanwhile, Gary Cronkhite defined 4 basic assumptions of communication which can help understanding communication. First, communication is a process. Second, communication is transactive. Third, communication is multi-dimensional. Fourth, communication is multiproposeful. Simple defined Emery Edwin (1971:40) “communication is the art of transmitting information, ideas, and attitude from one person to another.”

According to Hardjana (2007), in a prespective of exchanging meaning, communication can be defined as “a process of delivering meaning in a form of opinion or information from somebody towards others through a certain media.” As nowdays, media used to communicate for delivering meaning in a form of opinion or information is various, which one of those is mass media.

**2. Mass Media**

Mass media is a noun phrase that refers to any means of public communication that can reach a large audience. Mass media means reaching a large audience using different kinds of communication methods. In this developed era, the technologies through which this communication takes place varies. Broadcast media such as radio, recorded music, film and television transmit their information electronically. Print media use a physical object such as a newspaper, book, pamphlet, or comic to distribute their information. The digital media comprises both internet and mobile mass communication. Internet media provides many mass media services, such as email, websites, blogs and internet based radio and television.

In this global era internet holds a great role in communication. Many mass media outlets have a presence on the web, by such things as having TV ads that link to a website. In this way, they can utilise the easy accessibility that the internet has, and the outreach that internet affords, as information can easily be broadcast to many different regions of the world simultaneously and cost-efficiently.

As stated, that the media to deliver information varies, which one of those is newspaper, as well as internet holds a great role in communication and how accessible it is, newspaper happens to link to a website in order to make the audience get easy. One of the most popular newspaper website that has the most articles read, viewed and emailed by the reader is *The New York Times* or commonly also known as nytimes. It is also a long running newspaper since 1851. The articles here written by many writers and also provided by many information or news from around the world.

1. **Syntax**

**1. Definition of Syntax**

 Regarding the definition of syntax, there are many of this. Linguists define the word *syntax* variously. They defined it based on their own prespective. Syntax is one of the division of micro lingustics which study about sentence. Here are some definition of syntax proposed by linguists.

a. In [linguistics](file:///%5C%5Cwiki%5CLinguistics), syntax (from [Ancient Greek](file:///%5C%5C%5C%5Cwiki%5C%5CAncient_Greek%22%20%5Co%20%22Ancient%20Greek) [σύνταξις](file:///%5C%5Cen.wiktionary.org%5Cwiki%5C%CF%83%CF%8D%CE%BD%CF%84%CE%B1%CE%BE%CE%B9%CF%82) "arrangement" from σύν *syn*, "together", and τάξις *táxis*, "an ordering") is "the study of the principles and processes by which [sentences](file:///%5C%5C%5C%5Cwiki%5C%5CSentence_%28linguistics%29%22%20%5Co%20%22Sentence%20%28linguistics%29) are constructed in particular [languages](file:///%5C%5C%5C%5Cwiki%5C%5CNatural_language%22%20%5Co%20%22Natural%20language)". Based on the explanation above, that based on the Greek syntax is a setting out together or arrangement. When we concentrate on the structure and ordering of components within a sentence, we are studying the **syntax** of the language. (Yule, G: 1994).

b. Pateda (1988:85) said that the word syntax derived from Dutch, which is *syntaxis.*

c. Syntax is a study of language that identify the relation between words and phrases in one unity of sentence. (Verhaar, 1982: 70).

d. Syntax is a study of a basic principle of combination of word to be a bigger combination, which are phrase and sentence. (Moeliono, 1976: 103).

e. Chaer (2007) explained that syntax originally come from Greek “*sun*” means “*together*” and “*tattein*” means “*place* (v)”. Means that place some words together to become a group of word (sentence).

f. The other experts also have the other definition about syntax. Anderson and Lightfoot (2002) stated that syntax was largely a promissory note to the effect that such sign-based analysis would eventually encompass the larger unit of phrases, sentences, etc.

g. Based on the Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, syntax is the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence.

h. While the other opinion said that it is the study of structure of phrases and sentence. (Fromkin: 1997). Syntax also means the study of the arrangement of words into phrases and sentences or syntactic constructions.

i. The term ‘syntax’ is from the ancient Greek *syntaxis*, a verbal noun which literally means ‘arrangement’ or ‘setting out together’. Traditionally, it refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence. (Robert: 2004)

j. Syntax is the study of the structure of the order of components within a sentence of language. (Maharsi: 2002)

k. Syntax is the ways words are combined into larger structures including sentences. (Berk: 1999)

Syntax has to do with how words are put together to build phrases, with how phrases are put together to build clauses or bigger phrases, and with how clauses are put together to build sentences. Based on those definition of syntax, it can be inferred that syntax is a study about word, phrase, clause, and sentence.

**2. Grammar**

Grammar is rules of a language governing the sounds, words, sentences, and other elements, as well as their combination and interpretation. The word grammar also denotes the study of the abstract features or a book presenting these rules. In a restricted sense, the term refers only to the study of sentence and word structure (syntax and morphology), excluding vocabulary and pronunciation. A common contemporary definition of grammar is the underlying structure of a language that any native speaker of that language knows intuitively.

1) Structural Grammar

Structural grammar is a means of analyzing written and spoken language. It is concerned with how elements of a sentence such as morphemes, phonemes, phrase, clauses, and parts of speech are put together. Under this form of linguistic analysis, it is how these elements work together that is most important, as the relationships between the elements typically have a greater meaning than any of the single elements. The study of this method therefore is an important tool for improving clarity in communication.

Structural grammar operates under the assumption that what is seen on the surface is also the straightforward meaning behind the words of a sentence. Everything is accepted literally and at face value, and no attempt to identify implied meaning is made. The fact that the choice and arrangement of sentence elements creates absolute meaning makes structural grammar a foundation for beingunderstood. One a person has the absolute meaning, he can look beyond it to implied meaning if desired.

2) Transformational Grammar

 Transformational grammar, also called Transformational-generative grammar, a system of language analysis that recognizes the relationship among the various elements of a sentence and among the possible sentences of a language and uses processes or rules (some of which are called transformations) to express these relationships.

 Two superficially different sentences are shown in these examples.

*Charlie broke the window.*

*The window was broken by Charlie.*

In traditional grammar, the first is called an active sentence, focusing on what *Charlie* did, and the second is a passive sentence, focusing on *The window* and what happen to it. The distinction between them is a difference in their **surface structure**, that is, the different syntactic forms they have as an individual sentences. Although sets such as this active and passive sentences appear to be very different on the surface (*i.e.*, in such things as word order), a transformational grammar tries to show that in the “underlying structure” (*i.e.*, in their deeper relations to one another), the sentences are very similar. This superficial difference in form disguises the fact that two sentences are very closely related, even identical, at some less superficial level.

Transformational grammar assigns a “surface structure” and a “deep structure” to show the relationship of such sentences.

a) **Surface strucuture** is the structure which describes the sentence as it is actually produced or spoken.

b) **Deep structure** takes into account of transformation and contains all the units and relationship that are necessary for intrepeting the sentence.

Thus, “I know a man who flies planes” can be considered the surface form of deep structure approximately like “I know a man. The man flies airplanes.” The notion of deep structure can be especially helpful in explaining ambiguous utterances; *e.g.,* “Flying airplanes can be dangerous” may have a deep structure, or meaning, like “Airplanes can be dangerous when they fly” or “To fly airplanes can be dangerous.”

**b. Grammatical Units**

The grammatical units of English are words, phrases, clauses, and sentences.

A FLIGHT ANNOUNCEMENT

 *‘Good evening, ladies and gentleme. On behalf of British Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Start Herald Flight to Southampton. Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes, and we should be climbing to an altitude of eight thousand feet and cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles per hour.’*

(from M. Underwood and P. Barr *Listeners*)

 1) Words

The words in the announcement are *good, evening, ladies, and, gentlemen, on* etc.

 2) Phrases and Clauses

We use phrase to build a clause. Here is an example.

Subject Noun Complement

(noun phrase) (verb phrase) (noun phrase)

*Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes*.

Here the noun phrase *our flight time* is the subject of the clause. A clause has a subject and a verb.

 3) Sentences

 A sentence can be a single clause.

*On behalf of British Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Start Herald Flight to Southampton.*

We can also combine two or more clauses in one sentence. For example, we can use *and* to link the clauses.

*Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes,* ***and*** *we should be climbing to an altitude of eight thousand feet* ***and*** *cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles per hour.*

**c. Word Classes**

There are different classes of words, sometimes called ‘part of speech’. Some words belong to more than one word class. For example, *test* can be a noun or a verb.

 *He passed the* ***test****.* (noun)

 *He had to* ***test*** *the machine.* (verb)

 There are eight main word classes in English.

 1) Verb : *climb, eat, welcome, be*

 2) Noun : *aircraft, country, lady, hour*

 3) Adjective : *good, British, cold, quick*

 4) Adverb : *quickly, approximately*

 5) Preposition : *to, of, at, on*

 6) Determiner : *the, his, some*

 7) Pronoun : *we, you, them, myself*

 8) Conjunction : *and, but, so*

 There is also small class of words called ‘interjection’. They include *oh, ah, mhm* etc.

**C. Syntactic Analysis**

Syntactic analysis is a process to break (a sentence) down into its component parts of speech with an explanation of the form, function, and syntactical relationship of each part. Having reviewed some important concepts in the study of syntax, we can now look at some of the way in which syntactic analysis is presented.

**1. Structural Ambiguity**

Let’s say we had two distinct deep structures. One expresses the idea that ‘Annie had an umbrella and she whacked a man with it.’ the other epresses the idea that ‘Annie whacked a man and the man happened to be carrying an umbrella.’ Now, these two different versions of events can actually be expressed in the same surface structure form: *Annie whacked a man with an umbrella.* This sentence provides an example of **structural ambiguity.** It has two distinct underlying interpretations that have to be represented differently in the deep structure.

**2. Recursion**

The rules of the grammar will also need the crucial property of **recursion.**  Recursive (‘repeatable any number of times’) rules have the capacity to be applied more than once in generating a structure. For example, we can have one prepositional phrase describing location (*on the table*) in the sentence *The gun was on the table*. We can also repeat this type of phrase, using different words (*near the window*), for as long as the sentence still makes sense (*in the bedroom*). So, in order to generate a sentence such as *The gun was on the table near the window in the bedroom*, we must be able to repeat the rule that creates a prepositional phrase over and over again.

We must also be able to put sentences inside other sentences. For example, when we produce a sentence such as *Cathy knew that Mary helped George*, we do so with the sentence *Mary helped George*  inside it. and those two sentences can be generated inside another sentence such as *John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George*. In principle, there is no end to the recursion that would produce ever longer versions of complex sentences with this tructure.

**3. Symbol Used in Syntactic Description**

There are some symbols we should be deal with in syntactic analysis. For examples are ‘S’ (= sentence), ‘NP’ (= noun phrase), ‘N’ (= noun), ‘Art’ (= article), and so on. There are three more symbols that are commonly used in syntactic description.

a. The first in the form of an arrow . It can be interpreted as ‘consists of’ or ‘rewrites as’. It is typically used in the following type of rule:

**NP Art N**

This is simply a shorthand way of saying that a noun phrase (NP) such as (for example) *the dog* consicts of or rewrites as (🡪) an article (Art) *the* and a noun (N) *dog.*

b. The second symbol is a pair of round brackets ( ) which what is inside the brackets is optional.

 **NP 🡪 Art (Adj) N**

This expresses the idea that a noun phrase rewrite as (🡪) an article (Art) and a noun (N), with the option of including an adjective (Adj) in a specific position between them. We use the round brackets to indicate that the adjective is optional.

c. The third symbol is in the form of curly brackets { } means *only of the elements enclosed within the brackets must be selected.*

**NP Art N Art N**

 **NP Pronoun NP 🡪 Pronoun**

 **NP Proper Noun Proper Noun**

It is important to remenber that, although there are three constituents in these curly brackets, only one of them can be selected on any ocassion. This list of symbols and abbreviations is summarized below.

**S** sentence **NP** noun phrase **PN** proper noun

**N** noun **VP** verb phrase **Adv** adverb

**V** verb **Adj** adjective **Prep** preposition

**Art** article **Pro** pronoun **PP** prepositional phrase

**4. Tree Diagrams**

A tree diagram also exhibits the subgroupings and sub-subgroupings of the word in the sentence that called hierarchical structure. To create a more explicit representation of the hierarchical organization of one structure, shown in a labeled and bracketed format on the left below, we can use a **tree diagram,** shown on the right below.

**NP NP**

 **Art N**

 [The] [girl] **Art N**

*The girl*

Although this kind of ‘tree’, with its ‘branches’, shown on the right, seems to grow down rather than up, it functions rather well as a diagram representating all the grammatical information found in the other analysis on the left. It also shows very explicitly that there are different levels in the analysis. That is, there is a level of analysis at which is a constituent such as NP is represented and a different, lower, level at which a constituent such as N is represented. This type of hierarchical organization can be ilustrated in a tree diagram for a whole sentence, beginning at the top with S.

 S

 NP VP

 Art N V NP

 Art N

 The girl saw a dog

If we start at the top of this tree diagram, we begin with a sentence (S) and divide it into two constituents (NP and VP). In turn, the NP constituent is divided into two other constituents (Art and N). Finally, one word is selected that fits the lable Art (*the*) and another that fits N (*girl*).

*The child found the puppy* belongs to the syntactic category of sentence. It can be illustrated in a tree diagram by specifying the syntactic category label of each word grouping.

The child found the puppy

 S

 the child found the puppy

 NP VP

 the child found the puppy

 Art Noun Verb NP

 the puppy

 Art N

A diagram with syntactic category information provided is called **phrase structure tree**.

**5. Syntactic Categories**

Syntactic rules determine the order of words in a sentence. The word of sentence can be divided into two or more groups, and within each group the word can be divided into subgroups until only single word remains. Sub division may occur until only the individual words of the sentence remain.

For example: The child found the puppy

 the child found the puppy

 the child found the puppy

 the puppy

Each of the natural groupings in the diagram above is a member of a large family of similiar expressions. A family of expressions that can substitute for one another without loss of grammaticality is called a **syntactic category**.

*The child* above belongs to the syntactic category Noun Phrase (NP), one of several syntactic categories in English and every other language in the world. There are other syntactic categories. The expression *found the puppy* is a Verb Phrase (VP). Verb Phrases always contain a Verb, which may be followed by other categories, such as Noun Phrases. This shows that one syntactic category may contain other syntactic categories.

Other syntactic categories are Sentence (S), Article (Art), Noun (N), Verb (V), Prepositional Phrase (PP), and Adjective (Adj). Some of these syntactic categories should be familiar; they have traditionally been called “parts of speech.”

The phrase of the structure tree above is correct, but it is redundant. We can streamline the tree by writing the words only once.

 S

 NP VP

 Art N V NP

 The child found

 Art N

 the puppy

There are several tens of thousands of categories in a language, maybe even millions. Thus the number of rules that we have to write is far too large to be written one by one. First, words fall into roughly two handful of so-called **lexical** or **major categories**. The ones we shall be using are: noun (N), verb (V), adjective (Adj), adverb (Adv), perposition (Prep), complimentizer (C), determiner (Det) and tense (T).

**6. Phrase Structure Rules**

Phrase Structure Rules are a way to describe a given language's [syntax](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syntax) and are closely associated with the early stages of [Transformational Grammar](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transformational_Grammar). They are used to break down a natural [language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language) sentence into its constituent parts (also known as [syntactic categories](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syntactic_categories)) namely [phrasal categories](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syntactic_category) and [lexical categories](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syntactic_category) (aka [parts of speech](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Part_of_speech)). As the name suggests, these rules state that the structure of a phrase of a specific type will consist of one or more constituents in a particular order. We can use phrase structure rules to present the information of the tree diagram in another format, as we saw when we introduced some new symbols earlier. That is, the information shown in the tree diagram on the left can be expressed in the phrase structure rule on the right.

 **NP**

 **NP 🡪 Art N**

**Art N**

According to this rule, “a noun phrase rewrites as an article followed by noun.”

 The first rule in the following set of simple (and necessarily incomplete) phrase structure rules states that “a sentence rewrites as a noun phrase and a verb phrase”. The second rule states that “a noun phrase rewrites as either an article, an optional adjective and a noun or pronoun or a proper noun”.

a. Rules for rewriting noun phrases

We can now characterise and exemplify certain types of NP.

Noun (N): *Karen, spoons, justice, swimming*

Determiner (DET) + Noun: *that spoon, a judge, some gnomes*

Determiner + Adjective (ADJ) + Noun: *an old farmer, her aged instructor, the flying saucer*

Determiner + Adjective + Noun + Prepositional Phrase (PP): *the coldest weather of the year, the first woman on the moon*

One way of representing these various NP patterns is by the use of **phrase structure rule** (also called *rewrite rules*) like the following:

1. NP 🡪 N (NP consists of N)

2. NP 🡪 DET N (NP consists of DET + N)

3. NP 🡪 DET ADJ N (NP consists of DET + ADJ + N)

4. NP 🡪 DET ADJ N PP (NP consists of DET + ADJ + N+ PP)

These four rules can be collapsed into a single rule if we place parantheses around optional elements (that is, around elements that need not be present). Notice that the only constituent required each NP phrase-structure rule is N; the other constituents \_\_\_  are optional and must be placed in parantheses. The abbreviated rule looks like this:

5. NP 🡪 (DET) (ADJ) N (PP)

Because DET, ADJ and PP are each optional, we can rewrite NP not only as in 1, 2, 3 and 4 above, but also in other ways, including 6 and 7.

6. NP 🡪 ADJ N

7. NP 🡪 DET N PP

b. Prepositional Phrase

The notation PP stands for prepositional phrase, example of which include *in the car, from Ethiopia, in the attic, to his brother, with the earring* and *by the judge*. Because of every PP consists of a preposition (PREP) and a noun phrase (NP), the phrase structure rule for PP is this:

PP 🡪 PREP NP

c. Infinitival TP (infinitival tense phrase)

Infinitival *to* is a non-finite tense particle (belonging to the category T) and if *to* is the head of the phrase *to help you,* the structure formed by merging the infinitival T-particle *to* with the verb phrase/VP *help you* will be TP in below:

 TP TP 🡪 T VP

T VP

 V Pro

to help you

d. Rules for rewriting sentences and verb phrases

To capture the fact that sentences and clauses have two basis constituent parts, we formulate the following phrase structure rule:

S 🡪 NP VP

Every phrase structure rule can generate a tree diagram, and this phrase stucture rule (rewrite S as NP and VP) would generate the following tree.

 S

NP VP

Having seen various expansions of NP, we turn now to the internal structure of VP to explore its expansions and the rewrite rules necessary to accommodate them. The following expansions for identifying VPs reveal that the structures on the right are VPs; the labels under parts of the VPs indicate the categories of constituents of those structures.

 V

VP 🡪 V NP

 V NP PP

Using parantheses to enclose optional elements, we can collapse these three phrase structure rules in to a single rule, which says that a VP must have a V and may have an NP or a PP, or both an NP and a PP.

VP 🡪 V (NP) (PP)

We have now formulated four phrase structure rules.

S 🡪 NP VP (PP)

NP 🡪 {Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}

VP 🡪 V (NP) (PP) (Adv)

PP 🡪 Prep (NP)

These rules represent the fact that every sentence has an NP and a VP; that every NP has an N; that every VP has a V; and that every PP has a Prep. According to those rules, other possibilities are optional.

 Many generalizations about English are contained in those rules. For example, Noun Phrases always contain a Noun, Prepositional Phrases a Preposition, and Verb Phrases a Verb. Put more clearly, X phrases always contain an X, where X stands for Noun, Preposition, or Verb. The X of an X phrase is called the **head** of that phrase. thus the head of a Noun Phrase is a Noun, of a Prepositional Phrase is preposition, and so on which is not surprising. Every phrasal category must contain at a minimum its lexixal category head. It may, of course, contain other elements. A VP may or may not include an NP or a PP but it must always contain a Verb.

**7. Complement Phrases**

*Mary helped George.*

*Cathy knew that Mary helped George.*

*Cathy believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.*

The word *that*, as used in the sentences above, is called **complementizer** (C). The role of *that* as a complementizer is to introduce a **complement phrase** (CP). For example, in the second sentence (*Cathy knew ...*), we can identify one CP which contains *that* plus *Mary helped George*. We already know that *Mary helped George* is a sentence (S). So we are now in a position to define a CP in the following way: “a complement phrase rewrites as a complementizer and a sentence”, or CP 🡪 C S.

We can also see from the same sentence that the complement phrase (CP) comes after a verb (V) IknewI. This means that we are using the CP as part of a verb phrase (VP), as in Iknew that Mary helped GeorgeI. So, there must be another rule that says: “a verb phrase rewrites as a verb and complement phrase”, or VP 🡪 V CP.

If we now look at these two new rules in conjunction with an earlier rule, we can see how recursion is built into the grammar.

**S 🡪 NP VP**

**VP 🡪 V CP**

**CP 🡪 C S**

We begin with S on the left and, as we rewrite symbols, we eventually have S on the right, allowing us to go back to the beginning and go through the set of rules again (and again).

S

NP VP

PN V CP

 C S

 NP VP

 PN V CP

 C S

 NP VP

 V NP

 John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George

**D. Transformation**

*Mary saw George recently*

*Recently Mary saw George*

We can think of the adverb *recently* as having been moved to the beginning of the second sentence. In order to make this possible in grammar, we need other rules that will change or move sonstituents in the structure derived from the phrase structure rules. These are called **transformational rules.** Essentially what they do is take a specific part of stucture, like a branch of the tree, away from one part of the tree diagram and attach it to a different part. As shown below, we use the symbol => to indicate that a transformational rule id being used to derive a new structure from the basic structure.

 S S

NP VP => Adv NP VP

 V NP Adv V NP

*Mary saw George recently Recently Mary saw George*

We also use a transformational rule to derive English question structures of the type illustrated in the second sentence below.

*You will help Cathy.*

*Will you hel Cathy?*

In order to describe this process, we need to expand our phrase structure rules to include an **auxiliary verb** (Aux) such as *will* as part of the sentence. This new rule is written as: S 🡪 NP Aux VP. Although there are other forms of auxiliary verbs in English, a rudimentary lexical rule might be a s follows:

Aux 🡪 {*can*, *should*, *will*}

With this components, we can specify the transformational rules that creates this basic type of English question as: NP Aux VP => Aux NP VP. We can illustrate this change in terms of the tree on the right below being derived from the tree on the left.

S S

NP Aux VP Aux NP VP

 V NP => V NP

Pro PN Pro PN

You will help Cathy Will you help Cathy

Another transformational rule is used for relative clause transformation. English relative clauses contain (and are usually introduced by) a relative pronoun, such as *who* (or *whom* or *whose*), *which* or *that*.

 I sent your book to my aunt my aunt lives in Dublin

 I sent your book to my aunt who lives in Dublin

As in the sentence above, the pronoun can be omitted in certain structures. Relative clauses modify nouns, and the noun that the relative clause modifies is called the *head noun*. In English, the head noun is repeated in the subordinate clause, where it is ‘relativised’. A relative clause is part of the same noun phrase as its head noun. The structure of the resulting noun phrase can be represented as the diagram below.

 NP

DET N S

 NP VP

 V PP

 PREP NP

 My aunt who lives in Dublin

**E. Review of Related Research**

In conducting this research, the researcher needs to review some related researches. There are three related researches cited by the researcher. The first one is a research carried out by Masngud (2011) from Institute Islamic College of Tulungagung entitled “A Comparison Study on Structure of Modification used in Reading Text of English Book for Senior High School and Structure of Modification Used in Scientific Text”. This research purpose is to describe the types of structure of modification as well as its frequency of occurance in both Reading Text of English Book of Senior High School and Scientific Text. And the result presented in the division of structure of modification in simple and complex pattern analysis. The occurances of structure of modification used in Scientific Text based on simple pattern shows 68,99% and Reading Text of English Book shows 99,05%. Then in complex pattern, the occurance of structure of modification in Scientific Text shows 99,4% and in Reading Text of English Book shows 105,52%.

The second previous research cited by the researcher here is a research by Zeinuar (2009) from Petra Christian University entitled “Syntactic Structures in the Six Rap Songs of *Rage Againts the Machine*”. This research is intended to analyze the types of syntactic structures on the lyric of “Rage Againts the Machine”, particularly on its structural patterns. The researcher is trying to find out what types of syntactic structures are found and the most predominant type of syntactic structures in the related song. To be able to analyze the rap songs, he applies the basic four types of syntactic structures based on Francis’s theory. They are structure of modification, structure of predication, structure of complementation and structure of coordination. Finally he finds that structure of predication is the most predominant type of all that reaches more than 50%, followed by structure of modification, structure of complementation, and the least predominant is structure of coordination.

The third previous research is by Lutfiatin (2006) entitled “An Analysis on the Structural English Texts Used at Cigarette Package”. This research is intended to analyze the syntactic structure and the phrase structure tree as well. Later, in her research she will present how the syntactic structures construct the meaning of english text written at cigarette package. In her findings, she also presents the structure of modification based on simple and complex pattern as Masngud does.

In the present research, the researcher uses the same area of Linguistics but different field. If both Masngud and Zeinuar focus on the syntactic structures, Lutfiatin’s research seems to be a bit similar with this current research. Since in this present research, the researcher will find the occurrances of phrase structure pattern in article headline by analyzing the data using phrase structure tree as Lutfiatin does. However, if Lutfiatin only break down into tree diagram without mentioning the syntactic categories constructing the tree, here the researcher will break down the headline by explaining both the syntactic and lexical categories and the pattern as well. The researcher here will also find out the occurrances of every pattern and present it in percentage strating from the most frequently appeared pattern until the least one.