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EXPLORING SYNTACTIC AMBIGUITY ENABLERS IN NEWS HEADLINES**

Abstract
The language of news headlines incorporates a number of linguistic devices with the aim of attracting the reader's attention. Together with contracted syntax, which is typical of headline language, some of these devices often lead to more than one interpretation. This research sets out to analyze syntactic ambiguity enablers (Oaks 1994), or, in other words, linguistic phenomena leading to ambiguity in headlines, which is resolved by way of providing tree diagrams for each interpretation. The diagrams follow the rules posited in X-bar theory of syntax, which introduces the hierarchical phrase structure, allowing for disambiguation in cases where linear structures would fall short. The dataset analyzed consists of 38 headlines found on various websites. The results suggest that ambiguity in headline language is not incidental but rooted in structural patterns which are classified into five categories. The results also show that 57.9% of the headlines comprising the dataset fall into the category involving the ambiguity which stems from the capacity of some word forms to serve as different word classes.

Key words: enablers, syntactic ambiguity, news headlines, X-bar syntax, tree diagrams

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1. Introduction

Designed to capture the reader's attention quickly and convey essential information with minimal wording, news headlines incorporate a number of linguistic devices, including, among other things, ellipsis, rhyme, alliteration, sensational phrases, etc. Some of these specific strategies often result in different forms of intentional or unintentional ambiguity. To grasp how ambiguity, and at times humor, emerges in headlines, it is essential to first analyze the stylistic and structural conventions characteristic of headline writing.

To begin with, the abovementioned functions of the headline "specifically dictate its shape, content and structure", and as a result, it "operates within a range of restrictions that limit the freedom of the writer" (Reah 2002: 13). These restrictions "cause syntax to be reduced and contracted, with lexical words conveying the meaning and most grammatical words, such as determiners, conjunctions, and verbs (especially copulas, auxiliaries, and […] modals) omitted" (Bucaria 2004: 284–285). The omitted elements fall under what Taha refers to as "formal signals" (1983: 251). According to Taha, "[a] grammatical and unambiguous sentence must have some sort of formal signals which help the reader or hearer recognize the sentence structure. […] When such formal signals are not adequately used in the sentence, ambiguity arises" (Taha 1983: 251).

This paper explores the phenomenon of one particular type of ambiguity – syntactic ambiguity (to be defined in Section 2), examining how the abovementioned structural constraints, along with some additional syntactic notions, contribute to multiple interpretations of headlines. These syntactic notions will be referred to as *enablers*, as termed by Oaks (1994), who defines them as "devices for creating structural ambiguity" (1994: 378). Through the linguistic analysis of real-world examples, this study aims to shed light on how ambiguity functions in headlines, as well as to determine the main enablers that give rise to this ambiguity.

Although it is generally expected that communication should be clear and unambiguous, "there are some situations such as humor and advertising in which structural ambiguity is actually desirable" (Oaks 1994: 377). While this raises a question of whether ambiguous headlines are intentionally constructed this way or not, the present paper deals only with the syntactic analysis of such headlines and cannot address this issue, which is left for further research.

2. Theoretical Background and Previous Research

According to Stageberg, "[a]mbiguity in language means double or multiple meaning; thus an utterance is termed ambiguous when it conveys two or more different meanings" (1971a: 356). There are several types of ambiguity, but "[m]ost studies differentiate between lexical and syntactic ambiguity" (Bucaria 2004: 282). While both of these types can obscure meaning, they stem from fundamentally different sources. Since this paper deals exclusively with syntactic ambiguity, it is important to highlight the distinction between them. Saeed defines lexical ambiguity as a type of ambiguity that is created when "a word form is associated with more than one distinct sense or concept" (2016: 445). On the other hand, syntactic ambiguity is defined as the capacity of two strings of words to have the same linear structure, but to differ with respect to their phrase structure (Lyons 1970: 58). Grinder and Elgin posit that syntactic ambiguity occurs when a particular string of words that is ambiguous in *n* ways produces *n* underlying structures (1973: 117).

Although the primary focus of this paper is on syntactic ambiguity, it is important to acknowledge that "many syntactic ambiguities are triggered by lexical ambiguities" (MacDonald 1993: 692). Words that have multiple meanings, especially if they belong to different lexical categories, may lead to both the meaning and the syntax of the sentence becoming ambiguous. If such ambiguities were treated like lexical ambiguities, it would be expected that multiple syntactic/semantic interpretations are briefly activated (MacDonald 1993: 692–693). This overlap between lexical and syntactic ambiguity is exemplified in some of the examples listed in Section 4.

A multitude of other authors have studied ambiguity in news headlines or similar registers, or the notion of ambiguity in general. Stageberg (1971a) was one of the earliest scholars to provide a comprehensive classification of the types of syntactic ambiguity. He differentiates between class ambiguity, pattern ambiguity, deep-structure ambiguity and script ambiguity (1971a: 357–358). Class ambiguity is the most relevant for the purposes of this paper and Stageberg defines it as a type of ambiguity that "occurs when a reader does not know the grammatical classification of a word, most frequently its part-of-speech classification" (Stageberg 1971a: 357). In another paper, he examines ambiguity arising from the suprasegmental features such as intonation, stress and juncture, particularly in teaching

English to speakers of other languages (Stageberg 1971b). Đorđević (1979) provides an extensive overview of the history of ambiguity research, as well as a classification of syntactic ambiguity in the English language, which differentiates between 127 different types, systematically arranged into three principal groups and nine subgroups:

- noun phrase ambiguity
  1. arising from subordination in NPs with lexical units as constituents
  2. arising from subordination in NPs with lexical units, phrases and clauses as constituents
  3. arising from coordination in NPs with nouns and noun phrases as constituents
- verb phrase ambiguity
  4. arising from having two objects in a sentence
  5. arising from subordination in VPs with lexical units, phrases and clauses as constituents
  6. arising from subordination in VPs that have infinitival constructions as constituents
  7. arising from coordination in VPs with lexical units, phrases and clauses as constituents
- sentence ambiguity
  8. arising from subordination in sentences with lexical units, phrases and clauses as constituents
  9. arising from coordination in sentences with lexical units, phrases and clauses as constituents

Taha (1983) presents his own taxonomy of the types of syntactic ambiguity, providing examples, many of which include newspaper headlines. Pepicello and Green (1984) explore riddles as a distinctive form of verbal art, which relies heavily on lexical and syntactic ambiguity. Attardo et al. (1994) examined the techniques employed to generate humor through ambiguity in their much-cited study of two thousand jokes. They also distinguish between lexical and syntactic ambiguity, and, among verbal jokes, only 5.2% account for those stemming from syntactic ambiguity (Attardo et al. 1994: 33). Attardo (1994) introduces the disjunctor/connector model as a framework for analyzing ambiguities. He defines the connector as any segment of text that can be given two distinct readings, and the disjunctor

as a segment that causes the passage from one of the possible actualizations of the connector to another (Attardo 1994: 96). Bucaria (2004) adopts this framework in her study of lexical and syntactic ambiguity in newspaper headlines. She also provides statistics indicating that 46.66% of the headlines result from syntactic ambiguity, which contrasts notably with the findings of Attardo et al. (1994). In a more recent study, Chang and Mutty (2022) explore how ambiguous headlines concerning COVID-19 vaccines affect the readers' interpretation.

While the studies discussed in the previous paragraph focus on providing different theoretical frameworks or taxonomies of ambiguity, as well as on adopting these frameworks in analyzing ambiguity in various registers, including headlines, riddles or jokes, this paper takes on a different approach. Rather than concentrating on interpretation or the reader's response, this study centers around linguistic factors that contribute to the creation of ambiguity. By analyzing specific syntactic features, the aim is to uncover how ambiguity is structurally encoded in headline language, thereby offering a more form-based perspective on the phenomenon.

3. Methodology and Dataset

The dataset consists of headlines found on various websites on the internet through searching for "ambiguous headlines" in the search engine. The websites cover topics such as entertainment, geology, military and education. Some of the headlines were taken directly from their original sources, which date from 2022 to 2025, while others were obtained indirectly from humorous headline collections and could not be assigned a specific time frame. The results provided a multitude of headlines, but some restrictions had to be placed since many of them merely recounted humorous or incredible events and were thus excluded from the study, as they did not contain any ambiguity. In addition, headlines featuring only lexical ambiguity were also excluded, since this research deals primarily with syntactic ambiguity. Some of the headlines that the dataset consists of are analyzed in detail in Section 4. The selection was made according to the classification of enablers contributing to ambiguity (also provided in Section 4), ensuring that each category was represented by at least one example. The complete list of headlines is provided in Appendix 1 of this paper, while Appendix 2 contains the sources from which they were collected.

To disambiguate the headlines, a structural analysis method that relies on tree diagrams was employed. For each ambiguous headline, two or more separate tree diagrams are provided – each representing a distinct interpretation. This visual representation highlights the underlying syntactic structures leading to ambiguity, making the contrast between readings clear. Using tree diagrams to resolve ambiguity is a common analytic tool in the existing literature (Hirst 1987; Attardo et al. 1994; O'Grady 1997; Aarts 2001).

The tree diagrams in this paper follow the principles posited in X-bar theory of syntax, first introduced in Chomsky (1970), and later refined in Jackendoff (1977). The main characteristic of this theory is the hierarchical phrase structure, which Aarts considers "a major improvement on so-called 'flat' structures, i.e. structures where all the elements are on the same level" (Aarts 2001: 120). He illustrates the difference between the two structures in the example provided in Figure 1, adding that the upper diagram is a flat structure, whereas the lower diagram is a hierarchical structure which conforms to X-bar syntax (Aarts 2001: 120).

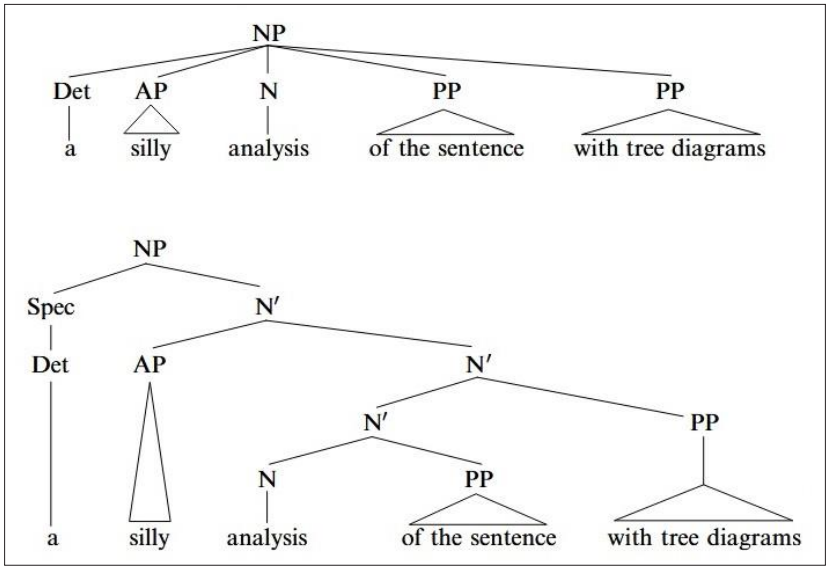

Figure 1. Flat structure vs. hierarchical structure
(Aarts 2001: 120)

The key difference between these two representations lies in the number of structural levels. Flat representations consist of only two levels (the Phrase and Head level), while hierarchical representations can accommodate additional layers. In the above example, the determiner does not relate just to the Head, but to all the elements on its right taken together, adding indefiniteness to the string of words "silly analysis of the sentence with tree diagrams" (Aarts 2001: 120). This places the determiner at the same structural level as the combination of everything else in this phrase, introducing an additional level of structure, which is intermediate between the phrase level XP and the head level X, and we call it X′ (read: X-bar) (Aarts 2001: 106). Multiple bar levels can appear within a phrase when additional elements are adjoined to the original bar-level node (as is the case with the example above) in a process called *adjunction* (Aarts 2001: 113).

This paper adopts hierarchical phrase structures rather than flat ones, as they offer a more precise representation of syntactic relations and allow for the differentiation of multiple interpretations in cases where ambiguity cannot be captured by flat structures alone. The effectiveness of X-bar syntax in resolving such ambiguities is demonstrated through several examples that the corpus consists of and is further discussed in Section 4.

4. Present Research and Results

A total of 38 syntactically ambiguous headlines were found. As already stated, not all of them lent themselves equally well to detailed analysis and disambiguation. The selection was made according to the categorization of enablers contributing to ambiguity, ensuring that each group was exemplified by at least one example. The categorization, along with the related statistics, is provided at the end of this section. In addition, particular emphasis is placed on the role of the contracted language of headlines in contributing to ambiguity.

4.1. Ambiguity Resolution

(1) British left waffles on Faulkland Islands

This headline is a classic example of syntactic ambiguity. It also illustrates the overlap between lexical and syntactic ambiguity, as delineated in Section 2 of this paper. The confusion arises from the fact that some orthographic words can act as different word classes. In this particular case, there are two such words. The first one – *left* – can refer to the political left (in which case it serves as a noun), but can also refer to the past tense form of the verb "to leave". The second word – *waffles* – can refer to the popular dish (a pluralized noun), but can also act as the third person singular of the verb "to waffle", which means being "unable to make a decision" (Cambridge Dictionary n.d.). These meanings, along with the sentence structure, result in three different interpretations of the sentence, all of which have their unique tree diagram. The intended meaning of the headline interprets "British left" as a political faction in Britain, which is said to be indecisive about the issue concerning the Faulkland Islands. The second possible reading sees the Faulkland Islands as the location where the act of waffling took place, in which case, the topic of the indecision is unknown. And finally, the third interpretation is humorous and construes the headline as meaning that some British people left food on the Faulkland Islands. It is worth noting that the contracted language of headlines does not account for the ambiguity of this example, as the headline would still be ambiguous even if it were worded as "The British left waffles on the Faulkland Islands".

The corresponding tree diagrams are provided in Figure 2 and they prove that every interpretation has its own unique diagram. The first two meanings display two diagrams that are almost identical. The noun phrase "British left" is the subject in both cases (this is what differentiates them from the third interpretation), but what separates them is the prepositional phrase "on Faulkland Islands", which is a complement of the verb phrase in the first meaning, and adjoined to the lower V′ in the second, functioning as an adverbial modifier of place. This example is a testament to the accuracy of X-bar syntax, since its hierarchical phrase structure can account for the syntactic differences in the first two meanings, something that the flat phrase structure would fall short of because it would provide the same tree diagrams for two different interpretations. The third meaning is completely different and sees "British" as the subject of the sentence, which is the key

distinction when compared to the first two meanings. "Left" is the main verb and "waffles" is a complement in the verb phrase functioning as a direct object. The prepositional phrase "on Faulkland Islands" once again functions as an adverbial modifier and is adjoined to the lower V′.

The verb "to waffle" can also mean "to talk or write a lot without giving any useful information or any clear answers" (Cambridge Dictionary n.d.), which brings about two additional meanings of this headline. However, their corresponding sentence structures and tree diagrams are exactly the same as those of the first two meanings described in the previous paragraph. This means that they syntactically stay the same and therefore fall into the category of lexical ambiguity, rather than syntactic ambiguity.

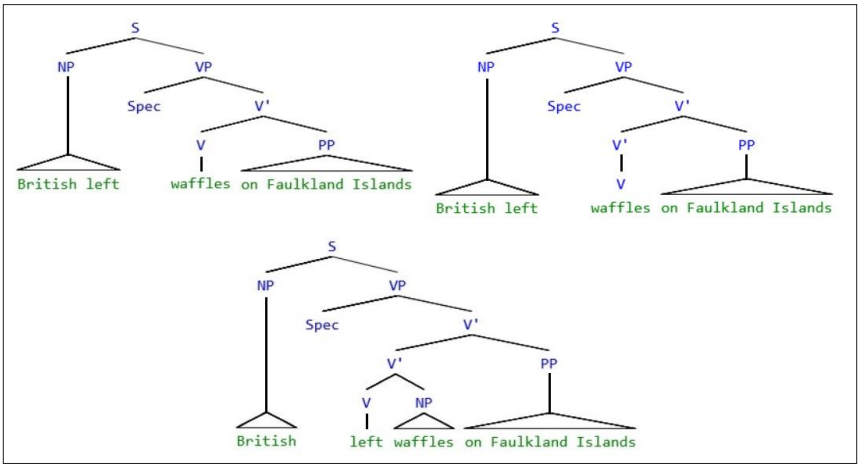

Figure 2. The ambiguity of "British left waffles on Faulkland Islands"

(2) SQUAD HELPS DOG BITE VICTIM

The ambiguity in this headline is once again rooted in the flexibility of word forms to serve as multiple word classes. Therefore, just like in the previous example, the syntactic ambiguity of this headline is triggered by its lexical ambiguity. In this case, the word *bite* can act both as a noun and a verb and this is what creates confusion, resulting in two different meanings. Firstly, the headline can be understood as conveying that the squad in question was trying to help the person that had been bitten by a dog, which is the intended meaning. And secondly, the headline can also mean that the squad actually assisted the dog in biting the victim,

which is a humorous reading that causes ambiguity. As opposed to the previous example, omitting certain words from this headline is actually an ambiguity enabler, since the sentence “The squad helps a dog bite victim” is perfectly clear and unambiguous. In addition, omitting the hyphen between words “dog” and “bite” also serves as an ambiguity enabler, as the hyphen would indicate “dog-bite” to be a compound word, which would make the meaning of this headline clear.

The tree diagrams representing the syntactic structures of the two meanings are provided in Figure 3. The key difference between the diagrams is that the string of words “dog bite victim” acts as a constituent at the single-bar level in the first meaning (functioning as a direct object), whereas the same string of words does not form a constituent at any level in the second. This string of words is made up of two constituents at the zero-bar level in both cases, but these sets of constituents are different (“dog bite” and “victim” in the first, “dog” and “bite victim” in the second). In the first reading, “dog bite” operates as a complement within the noun phrase and it modifies the word “victim”, which is the head of the noun phrase. In the second interpretation, both “dog” and “bite victim” serve as complements within the verb phrase, but only “dog” functions as a direct object.

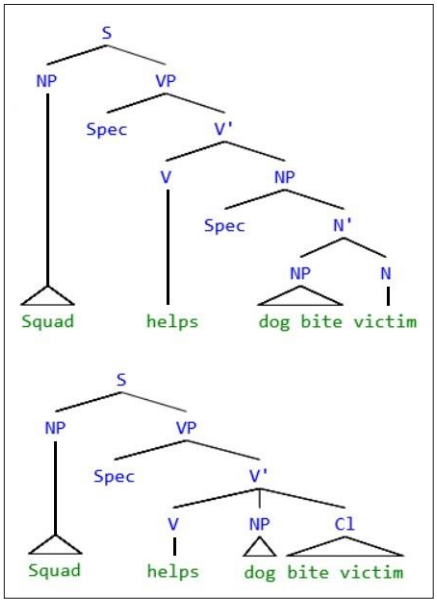

Figure 3. The ambiguity of “Squad helps dog bite victim”

(3) Enraged cow injures farmer with axe

The ambiguity in this headline is different from that of the previous two examples in that it is not centered around word forms taking the role of different word classes. Instead, the confusion lies in the attachment of the prepositional phrase "with axe", which can modify the main verb "injures", but also the noun "farmer", bringing about two different interpretations. The intended meaning of this headline conveys that the cow injured the farmer who was carrying an axe at the time of the injury. The second reading is humorous and sees the axe as a weapon that was used by the cow to injure the farmer. Once again, just like in the first example, the omission of articles does not play any part in creating the ambiguity.

As already mentioned, the main difference between the tree diagrams that correspond to the two readings of the headline lies in the attachment of the prepositional phrase "with axe". In the first interpretation, the PP is attached to the noun "farmer" creating a constituent "farmer with axe", which functions as a direct object. The PP serves as a complement in this noun phrase and modifies "farmer", which is the head of the NP. In the second meaning, the PP functions as an adverbial modifier of manner and is therefore adjoined to the lower V′, which consists only of the main verb "injures" and its complement "farmer", which functions as a single-word direct object.

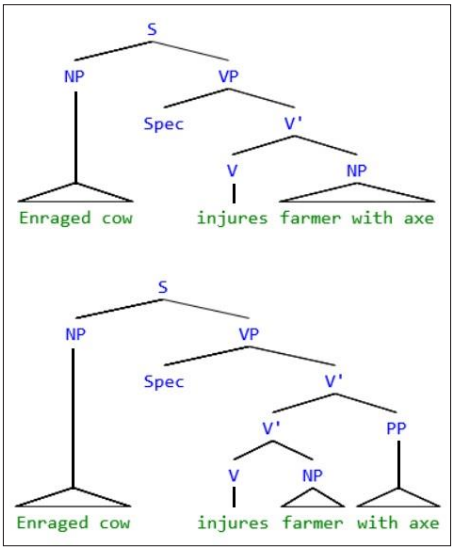

Figure 4. The ambiguity of "Enraged cow injures farmer with axe"

(4) Jumping bean prices affecting poor

The ambiguity in this headline arises from the two competing internal structures of the noun phrase "jumping bean prices". Although headed by the same word, the way we parse this phrase affects the meaning of the entire headline. The intended reading sees the rapid increase in the bean prices affecting the low-income groups of the population. The second meaning, although not humorous, is entirely distinct from the first one, as it refers to a completely different product – jumping beans, which are unrelated to actual beans. They refer to a plant seed that jumps as a result of the movement of a moth larva which develops inside of it. The contracted syntax of headlines does not play any role in creating ambiguity in this example.

The tree diagrams that capture the two meanings are provided in Figure 5. The subject and predicate of both diagrams are the same, but the internal structures of the noun phrase that functions as a subject are different, which brings about the two interpretations. In the intended meaning, the present participle "jumping" modifies the lower N′ "bean prices" and is adjoined to it. On the other hand, the same participle modifies only the word "bean" in the second reading, forming a constituent "jumping bean", which complements the head "prices" of the corresponding noun phrase.

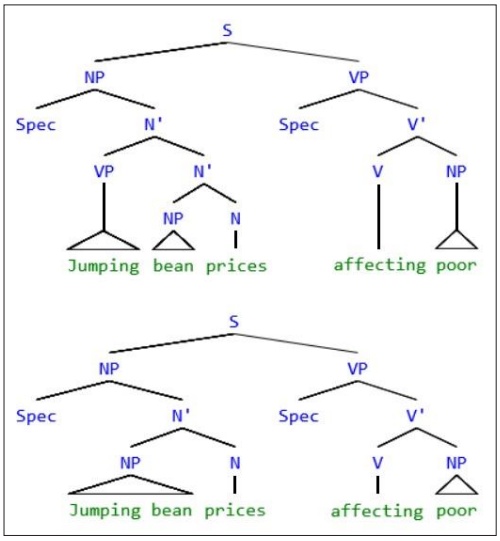

Figure 5. The ambiguity of "Jumping bean prices affecting poor"

(5) Complaints about NBA referees growing ugly

In this example, the confusion stems from the two possible prepositional complements that can be attached to the head "about", which produces two different interpretations. The first reading is centered around the complaints about NBA referees and the fact that they become more serious or bitter, which is the intended meaning. The humorous meaning also sees NBA referees as the target of the complaints, but in this case, the reason behind these complaints is the observation that referees become less visually appealing. Although the lack of articles does not contribute to the creation of this ambiguity, the contracted language of headlines does play a part in it, since it is also characterized by the absence of auxiliary verbs, which is the case in this example. In other words, the sentence "Complaints about NBA referees are growing ugly" would never be misinterpreted, as it is not an ambiguous sentence.

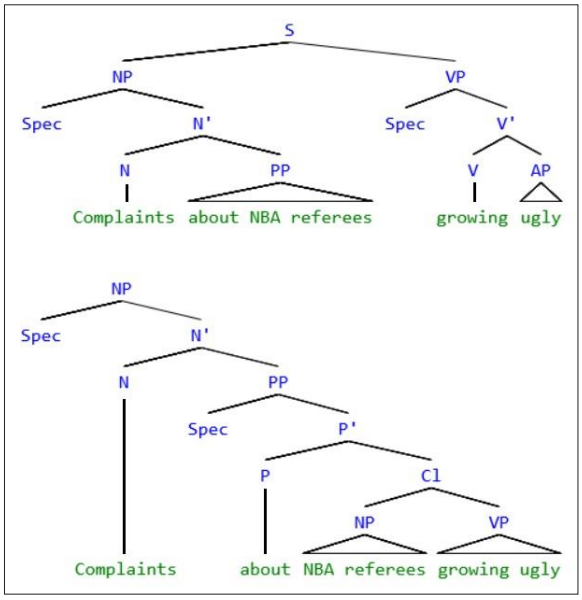

Figure 6. The ambiguity of "Complaints about NBA referees growing ugly"

The tree diagram of the intended meaning sees the string of words "Complaints about NBA referees" as a constituent that functions as a

subject. The contracted verb phrase functions as a predicate and consists of the copular verb "growing" and its complement "ugly" which functions as a nominal predicate. On the other hand, the humorous interpretation shifts the entire syntactic structure drastically, as the headline is no longer a sentence. Instead, it is only a noun phrase, headed by the noun "Complaints". The complement of the NP is a lengthy prepositional phrase that takes a non-finite participle clause as a prepositional complement.

(6) Kicking baby considered to be healthy

The confusion in this headline emerges from the flexibility of the word "kicking" to serve both as a gerund and a present participle, which leads to two different meanings. The intended reading suggests that fetal movement (the baby moving energetically in the womb) is a sign of good health, i.e. the baby is the agent of kicking. The humorous meaning, on the other hand, sees the baby as the patient of kicking. In other words, it implies that the action of kicking a baby is considered to be healthy. Once again, the contracted language of headlines enables the ambiguity, since the sentence "A kicking baby is considered to be healthy" needs no disambiguation.

The corresponding tree diagrams differ with respect to the form by which the subject is realized. In the intended meaning, the word "kicking" acts as a present participle and is adjoined to the lower N′, modifying the head "baby". In the humorous meaning, the word "kicking" is a gerund, which shifts the form of the subject completely, as it is no longer a noun phrase, but an -ing verb phrase instead. The word "baby" complements the main verb, functioning as a direct object within the verb phrase. Similarly to (1), this example attests to the precision of the hierarchical phrase structure of X-bar theory. Since the string of words "kicking baby" forms a constituent functioning as a subject in both readings, the flat representations of the two meanings would have the same branching (different nodes, though). In contrast, the upper tree diagram provided in Figure 7 clearly demonstrates the additional bar layers in the structure of the subject, whereas the lower diagram has only one bar level, since there is no process of adjunction in the second meaning.

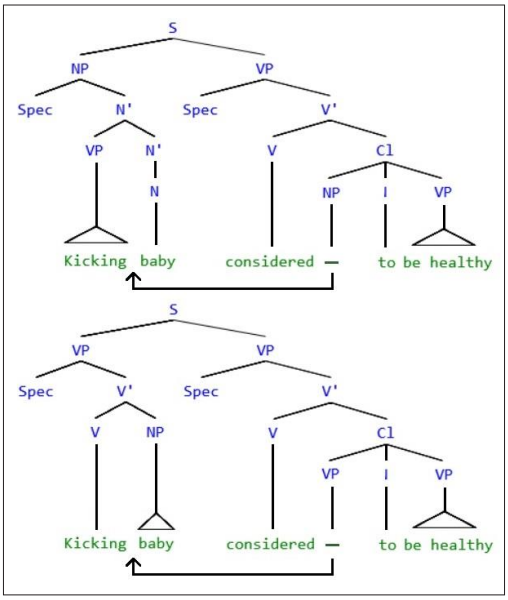

Figure 7. The ambiguity of "Kicking baby considered to be healthy"

4.2. Results

The examples analyzed in this section illustrate several enablers that contribute to the creation of syntactic ambiguity. Thus, the headlines comprising the dataset are classified into five categories, each defined by a distinct linguistic feature. These categories reflect different sources of ambiguity and account for varying proportions of the overall dataset, which consists of a total of 38 headlines. The categories are as follows:

1. class ambiguity – 57.9% (22/38; 11 enabled by contracted syntax)
2. prepositional phrase attachment – 23.7% (9/38; 1 enabled by contracted syntax)
3. noun phrase internal structure – 10.5% (4/38; 2 enabled by contracted syntax)
4. participle/gerund ambiguity – 5.3% (2/38; 1 enabled by contracted syntax)
5. prepositional complement ambiguity – 2.6% (1/38; 1 enabled by contracted syntax)

In addition, the role of contracted syntax in the emergence of syntactic ambiguity is also analyzed in this section. The analysis reveals that while syntactic compression can serve as an ambiguity enabler in some cases, it does not play any role in creating ambiguity in others. Overall, contracted syntax accounts for the ambiguity in 16 headlines included in the dataset (42.1%).

5. Discussion

The analysis of the dataset reveals that syntactic ambiguity in headlines arises from a range of linguistic features. Among the 38 headlines examined, distinct patterns emerge and the classification into five categories enables a more systematic understanding of the linguistic mechanisms at play. The ambiguity observed in each category is, to varying degrees, attributable to the recurring presence of contracted syntax.

More than half of the headlines (22 headlines, 57.9%) exhibit ambiguity resulting from class ambiguity (see Section 2 for the definition). Although not explicitly stated in Bucaria (2004), her results indicate a rate of 53.9%, which is slightly lower than the percentage found in the present study. The most common pair of word classes that can be confused with one another is the noun-verb pair, which accounts for the ambiguity in 21 out of 22 examples. The elliptical structure of headlines underlies the ambiguity in 11 examples from this category (50%).

The ambiguity in the second major category stems from the attachment of prepositional phrases (9 headlines, 23.7%). Bucaria (2004) does not provide the figure directly, but her findings imply that 15.9% of her examples arise from the same linguistic feature. What is particularly striking in the results is that compressed syntax enables ambiguity in a significantly smaller proportion compared to the previous category, as only 1 out of 9 ambiguities can be attributed to headline language.

The remaining three categories contain considerably fewer examples than the previous two. They present ambiguities resulting from the internal structure of noun phrases (4 headlines, 10.5%), different prepositional complements attached to the same head of a prepositional phrase (1 headline, 2.6%), as well as from the overlap between gerunds and present participles (2 headlines, 5.3%). The contracted language of headlines accounts for the confusion in 50% of the examples ambiguous due to the

internal structure of noun phrases and participle/gerund ambiguity. It also underlies the ambiguity in the sole example ambiguous on account of different prepositional complements being attached to the same head of a prepositional phrase.

6. Conclusion

This study set out to examine syntactic ambiguity in news headlines through the analysis of a dataset consisting of 38 headlines made available online. The aim was to identify and classify the linguistic sources of ambiguity. These underlying features are effectively visualized through syntactic tree diagrams, which are used as a means of disambiguation.

The abovementioned classification includes five categories, each based on the linguistic phenomena enabling the ambiguity: class ambiguity, prepositional phrase attachment, noun phrase internal structure, participle/gerund ambiguity and prepositional complement ambiguity. This classification is not based on any previously established classifications, but rather emerges from the results of the present research.

The findings suggest that syntactic ambiguity in headline language is not incidental but often rooted in predictable structural tendencies, which usually exploit the compressed, telegraphic nature of headline syntax. Moreover, the distribution of the examples across categories indicates that certain grammatical configurations are more prone to multiple interpretations, especially in the absence of disambiguating context. Namely, class ambiguity predominates in the dataset, comprising over half of the headlines analyzed. Within this category, ambiguity was found to involve class alterations between nouns and verbs in all but one example.

The results presented in this study are derived from a limited dataset and are not intended to support broad generalizations beyond the analyzed examples. This research lays the groundwork for future study involving more diverse corpora or possibly laying emphasis on whether ambiguities are intentional or not.

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Appendix 1

Class ambiguity

1. British left waffles on Faulkland Islands
2. Lung cancer in women mushrooms
3. Teacher strikes idle kids
4. Stud tires out
5. Soviet virgin lands short of goal again
6. Shot off woman's leg helps Nicklaus to 66
7. Reagan wins on budget, but more lies ahead
8. Squad helps dog bite victim
9. Dealers will hear car talk at noon
10. Carter plans swell deficit
11. Chester Morrill was fed secretary
12. Chou remains cremated
13. Henshaw offers rare opportunity to goose hunters
14. Hershey bars protest
15. Lawmen from Mexico barbecue guests
16. Lawyers give poor free legal advice
17. Lie detector tests unreliable, unconstitutional hearing told
18. PLO invited to raid debates
19. Women abuse topic of speech
20. Young makes Zanzibar stop
21. Eye drops off shelf
22. American ships head to Libya

PP attachment

23. Dr. Ruth to talk about sex with newspaper editors
24. Enraged cow injures farmer with axe
25. Grandmother of eight makes hole in one
26. Two sisters reunite after eighteen years at checkout counter
27. Twelve on their way to cruise among dead in plane crash
28. Iran and the US hold a second round of negotiations over Tehran's nuclear program in Rome
29. Geologists rewrite textbooks with new insights from the bottom of the Grand Canyon
30. 72-year-old fends off grizzly bear with handgun while picking huckleberries
31. Florida man busted after masturbating inside of a Miami Beach Starbucks

NP internal structure

32. Child teaching expert to speak
33. Hospitals sued by 7 foot doctors
34. Jumping bean prices affecting poor
35. Man eating piranha mistakenly sold as pet fish

Prepositional complement ambiguity

36. Complaints about NBA referees growing ugly

Participle/gerund ambiguity

37. Kicking baby considered to be healthy
38. Tuna biting off washington coast

Appendix 2

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