Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Palackého

Structural Ambiguity in Novel Compounds

(Bakalářská práce)

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Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky

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Počet stran: 40

Olomouc 2018

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a uvedla úplný seznam citované a použité literatury.

V Olomouci dne …… Podpis …….

Motto *It's called a trash can, not a trash can't.*

I would like to thank my supervisor Jeffrey Keith Parrott, PhD. for his advice, kindness and supply of comic books, and also to my friends and loved ones who kept me sane.

V Olomouci dne …… Barbora Juřeníková

Abstract

The difference in interpretation between compounds such as *nurse shoe* and *alligator shoe* is dismissed as pragmatics in Harley (2009), who proposes the same syntactic structure for these compounds as she does for *truck-driver*. Looking to show a structural difference between these two kinds of compounds which could also shed light on their ambiguity, this thesis follows the Distributed Morphology framework first proposed by Marantz & Halle (1993; 1994) to take a syntax focused approach to compounding. The framework is introduced and described with a focus on the acategorical Roots theory within it. An opposing view to Harley (2009; 2014) is adopted: Roots cannot label phrases, as suggested by Chomsky (2013). Based on this assumption and the fact that Harley (2009) shows no structural difference between *nurse shoe* and *truck-driver* without satisfyingly addressing the difference in their formation and ambiguous nature, alternative structures are proposed showing an adjunct incorporation for *nurse shoe* and complement incorporation for *truck-driver*. Novel compounds from *Words of the Year* lists ranging from 2017 to 2013, published by the American Dialect Society, are applied to these structures, and their syntactic formation and ambiguity are discussed.

Key words

Distributed Morphology, compounds, Roots, projection, structural ambiguity, incorporation, adjuncts, complements, syntactic word-formation

Anotace

Rozdíl mezi interpretací složenin jako *nurse shoe* a *alligator shoe* je zavržen jako pouhá pragmatika v práci Harley (2009), která navrhuje totožné syntaktické struktury pro tyto dvě složeniny, stejně jako i pro *truck-driver*. Ve snaze přijít s návrhem struktur, které by ukazovaly syntaktický rozdíl mezi těmito dvěma typy složenin a zároveň mohly pomoct rozluštit jejich ambiguitu, tato práce využívá systém Distribuované Morfologie (Marantz & Halle 1993; 1994) a jeho syntaktický přístup ke tvoření složenin. Tento systém je představen a popsán v první kapitole a větší pozornost je věnována teorii bez-kategoriálních Kořenů. Zde se přikláním k opačnému názoru od Harley (2009; 2014): Kořeny nemohou být hlavičkami frází, jak tvrdí Chomsky (2013). Podle tohoto názoru a faktu, že Harley (2009) neukazuje žádné rozdíly ve strukturách pro *nurse shoe* a *truck-driver* aniž by uspokojivě vysvětlila rozdíl v jejich tvorbě a ambiguitě, byly navrženy alternativní struktury ukazující inkorporaci adjunktu pro *nurse shoe a* inkorporaci předmětu pro *truck-driver*. Nové složeniny ze seznamů *Words of the Year* z let 2017 až 2013, publikované American Dialect Society, jsou aplikovány na tyto struktury spolu s diskuzí o jejich syntaktickém složení a ambiguitě.

Klíčová slova

Distribuovaná Morfologie, složeniny, Kořeny, projekce, strukturální ambiguita, inkorporace, adjunkty, předměty, syntaktická slovotvorba

Contents

1 Introduction

When it comes to interpreting most compounds, we seem to rely heavily on our pragmatic knowledge of the world to assess the correct meaning. Compare compounds such as *baby oil* and *olive oil*, which appear to have the same structure on the surface, but are in fact ambiguous. The interpretation *oil for X* corresponds to *baby oil, face oil* or *engine oil*, while *oil (made) of X* fits *olive oil, almond oil* and *palm oil*. But there are also compounds such as *shoe maker* or *heart breaker*, which somehow seem to be quite transparent in their interpretation: *make(s) shoes* and *break(s) hearts*. Is there truly nothing else to it, but pragmatic knowledge that palm trees do not need to be oiled, while engines do, and that *shoe maker* is simply just clear in its meaning already?

Looking to answer this question I found "traditional" approaches towards compounding unsatisfactory with definitions describing compounding mostly as adding one base onto another (Quirk et al. 1985) and very little attention paid to their internal structure as it relates to meaning. It was Distributed Morphology and the acategorical Roots theory (Marantz 1993, Harley 2014) that seemed to lay the foundation for an answer, or at least give some insight into the structural ambiguity of compounds. Distributed Morphology (hereafter as DM) is a theoretical framework introduced by Alec Marantz and Morris Hale in 1993. One of its primary hypotheses is a purely syntactic approach to word formation using abstract acategorical Roots that need to be merged with a category-creating feature bundle (Harley 2014), eventually resulting in a word category with all its features. While the foundation is there, the issue of compound structure and the difference in interpretation is not satisfyingly addressed in DM literature, specifically in Harley's 2009 paper on compounding in DM. In this thesis, opposing views to Harley (2009) are suggested and explored by analysis of novel compounds selected from the *Words of the Year* lists published by the American Dialect Society, which publishes such lists since 1990.

The following chapter focuses on compounding and ambiguity found within them. In chapter 3 the DM framework is introduced with its core hypotheses. Special focus is given to the Roots theory and the issue of projection – can Roots project phrases? While Harley (2014) works on the assumption that they do, Chomsky (2013) opposes this notion, and this thesis follows the latter. Harley's (2009) paper on compounding is then

reviewed and certain issues are highlighted. Based on these issues and by adopting Chomsky (2013), two alternative structures for N+N compounds showing adjunct incorporation and N+V compounds showing complement incorporation are proposed. Chapter 4 analyzes compounds selected from the *Words of the Year* lists ranging from 2017 - 2013 by applying them to these structures, discussing their syntactic formation and ambiguity. From the analysis in chapter 4 it is then concluded that ambiguity stems from the adjunct PP incorporation and the interpretation of its preposition, rather than pure pragmatic knowledge.

2 Compounds

This section discusses compounds in general from a more traditional point of view. A discussion on structural ambiguity, nominal and verbal compounds is also included.

2.1 Definition and properties of compounds

Quirk et al. (1985, 1520) define compounding as "adding one base to another, such that usually the one placed in front in some sense subcategorizes the one that follows", and Huddleston & Pullum (2007, 283) say that compounding "forms a complex base from a combination of smaller bases – almost always two".

The definition in traditional linguistic textbooks revolves around combining or adding two bases, reminiscent of putting building blocks together. Compounds themselves can be defined in terms of their properties given in (1) which can be used to test whether a string of words is a compound.

(1) Properties of English compounds:

a. There is no inflectional morphology inside a compound.

b. Main stress is usually on the left-hand base.

c. They behave as a single unit in syntax and cannot be separated.

d. The head is the right-hand member in regular compounds.

(1a) tells us that the left-hand element does not inflect. This would be the case for compounds like *girlfriend* - **girlsfriend* or *selfie stick* - **selfies stick*. Exceptions such as *well-known – best-known* are based on irregular inflections and are not productive (Veselovská 2017).

The property in (1b) can also be quite problematic (see Jackson & Punske 2013), however for the purpose of this thesis we can assume the "rule" that compounds generally have stress on the left element, while phrases generally have stress on the right element, e.g. *the president lives in the WHITE House* vs. *my sister lives in the white HOUSE* (capitals denote stress placement). Examples of right-hand stress in compounds can be *apple PIE* or *knee DEEP*.

(1c) is possibly the most reliable criterion for recognizing a compound. While it is possible to insert *ugly* into *a black bird – a black ugly bird* – it is not possible to do so with the compound *a blackbird*, resulting in *an ugly blackbird* (Lieber & Štekauer 2012), since the former is a noun *bird* modified by an adjective *black* and denotes any bird of black color, and the latter is a compound denoting a specific kind of bird, therefore the special meaning of the compound would be lost.

The spelling in the *blackbird* example or in general is not a plausible criterion to identify a compound, because it is very inconsistent and no unifying rules exist. It is therefore possible to see the same compound in three spelling variations: a single word, two words or with a hyphen, e.g. *flowerpot, flower pot, flower-pot*.

(1d) is the right-hand head rule. The head sets the category of the whole compound and takes inflectional morphology, e.g. *selfie sticks*, since *stick* is the head, and in *blackbird* the right-hand element is a noun, giving category to the compound. The exceptions here are usually borrowings from languages like French, in which it is possible for the head to be on the left, e.g. *passers-by, attorneys-general*.

2.2 Structural ambiguity

Ambiguity in general refers to more than one possible meaning. Lexical ambiguity is the ambiguity on a word level with words like *match* having a variety of uses depending on the chosen meaning, e.g. *football match*, *strike a match*, *matching outfits*. These have different lexemes and distinct dictionary entries (Radford et al. 2009).

Structural ambiguity implies more than one possible structure. It is usually best demonstrated on a sentence level, for example *Mary hit the boy with a stick.* It is ambiguous whether Mary hit the boy that held a stick or used a stick to hit him, resulting in two structures: *Mary hit [the boy [with a stick]]* and *Mary hit [the boy][with a stick]*, the difference lying in whether the adjunct PP (prepositional phrase) *with a stick* is an adjunct of the VP *[hit the boy]*, or an adjunct of the DP *[the boy]* (Radford et al. 2009).

When it comes to ambiguity and compounds, the focus is usually on where the compound is in a string words or which part modifies what. In *American history teacher*, it is ambiguous whether this is a teacher of history from America, or a teacher

of unknown nationality that teaches American history. Compounds have a corresponding phrase which describes the relationship between the individual parts. For the former interpretation, the phrase could be *teacher of history who is American*. In the example from the paragraph above, the ambiguity comes from the modifying relationship of the adjunct PP. This issue with bracketing is not limited to compounds consisting of more than two words or whole phrases. When trying to decipher the meaning of a compound by finding the corresponding phrase it was created out of, the ambiguity comes from all the possible phrases a "simple" compound may have as its interpretation. This seems to hold true especially in the case of Noun + Noun compounds like *baby oil*.

2.3 Noun+Noun and Noun+Verb compounds

Compound nouns are much more common than compound verbs, specifically Noun+Noun compounds, e.g. *dumpster fire*, *shitpost* or *locker-room banter*, and the analysis in Chapter 4 deals mostly with these compounds.

In a N+N compound, two nouns form a complex base. The relationship between N1 and N2 can be ambigous and our pragmatic knowledge of the world is seemingly required to assess the correct one. Punske (2016) illustrates this with *horseshoe* in (2) below.

(2) *horseshoe*

a. shoes designed for a horse

b. shoes made in the shape of a horse

c. shoes made out of horse skin

Just like my *baby oil* and *olive oil* examples from the introduction, *horseshoe* clearly shows the same ambiguity and three different possible interpretations. Though the interpretation of both *horseshoe* and the *oil* examples is highly conventionalized, these very different interpretations are still possible (Punske 2016).

Verbal compounds contain a head derived from a verb; the compound is formed from a verb and its argument, and the meaning is quite transparent (Veselovská 2017, 45), e.g. *long lasting* formed from *lasts long* by incorporating the adjunct or *shoe maker*

formed from *make shoes* by incorporating the object. Suffixes such as *–ing* and *–er* are often used to nominalize them.

In English, this is typically not a productive way to create new compound verbs. There are however many verbs created by backformation, a process in which a supposed affix is removed to create a new word thought to be the "original" affix-less one, e.g. *to baby-sit* backformed from *baby-sitter* and became productive: *house-sit, dog-sit*. These words then appear as though they have been made through the incorporation process, e.g. *to binge-watch* or *to slut-shame*, but there is no *verb *to long-last* or **to shoe make.* The form of these verbs does not give away any hints as to which ones were formed by backformation and which by compounding, therefore this matter is more related to their historical formation rather than their structure, because structurally they are all still compounds (Huddleston & Pullum 2007), except on the surface it seems they are following different rules.

This section has provided an overview of compounds, their formation and structural ambiguity. While compounds seem to have several defining behaviors, there are still many exceptions and mysteries. Punske (2016) notes that the many exceptions cause the lack of a universally agreed upon definition but their general pattern is easily explained. What then makes the interpretation of N+V compounds more transparent than N+N compounds? Nothing so far seems to suggest clear answers, and so now we turn to Distributed Morphology.

3 Distributed Morphology

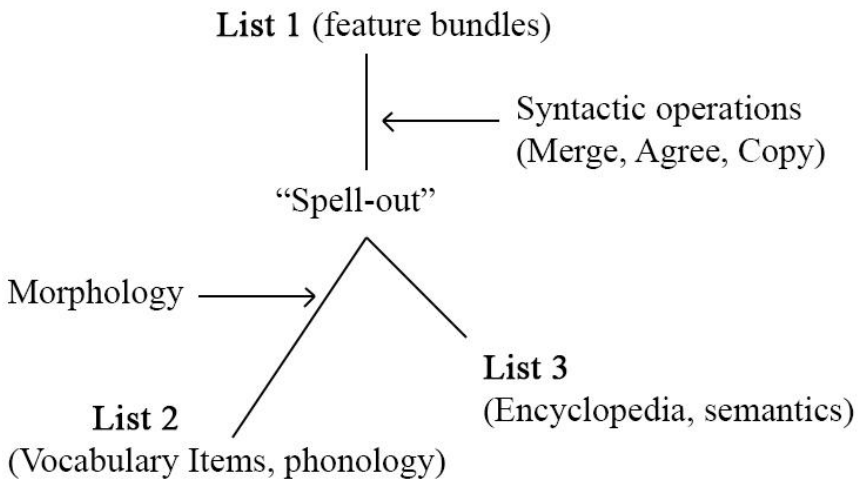
Introduced by Marantz & Halle (1993; 1994), Distributed Morphology is a theoretical framework focusing on syntax as the primary force of composition in grammar. In the following section, DM is described briefly with focus on Roots. This section is based on the works of Marantz & Halle (1993; 1994), Marantz (1995; 1997), Harley (2009; 2014) and Bobaljik (2015).

3.1 The Distributed Morphology framework and Y-model

In *No Escape from Syntax* (1997), Marantz proposes DM as a better alternative to Lexicalism, which works with a Lexicon consisting of some structure and meaning connections, while the rest (phonology, other aspects of structure and meaning) is derived in the syntax.

The traditional notion of the Lexicon, where word-formation happens and creates a storage of words + meanings that are then arranged by syntax into structures, is not present in the DM framework. Instead, Marantz (1995) separates three lists of items: the (pure) Lexicon (List 1), the Vocabulary (List 2) and the Encyclopedia (List 3). These are inserted into the "Y-model" of DM, illustrated below based on Harley (2014):

(3) *The Distributed Morphology Y-model*



In the "pure" Lexicon lies a list of feature bundles which are used by syntactic operations using the Minimalist terminology proposed by Noam Chomsky.

List 1 contains feature bundles (also called abstract morphemes or terminal nodes) and Roots (Harley 2014). An example of a Tense terminal node is the [+past] feature. Roots (symbolized by √) are terminal nodes which carry some non-grammatical meaning content, and can be understood as "instructions to access certain kinds of semantic information" (Harley 2009, 4) and are discussed further in section 3.2.

List 2, or the Vocabulary, is a list of Vocabulary Items which provides phonological realizations to the abstract elements of List 1 after they have been given to syntax, so that √CAT can be realized as */kæt/*.

List 3, the Encyclopedia, is "where non-compositional meaning of linguistic representations is stored," (Marantz 1995, 5). It gives instructions for interpreting terminal nodes in context. It also includes knowledge of idioms and the special meaning of Roots in their specific context. Therefore, in the Encyclopedia, it could be argued that √KICK gets special meaning *die* when in the context of √BUCKET, which then has no meaning in context of √KICK (Bobaljik 2015). √PUNCH does not get a special meaning in this context however, so there are no special meanings for all lexical contexts, therefore DM offers a potential explanation as to why it sees the possibility of a verb **to cat*, but there does not seem to be one in use. Bobaljik (2015) suggests that √CAT happens to have a conventionalized meaning in the context of the nominalizing *n* head, but lacks it in the context of the verb forming *v* head.

Marantz (1995, 17) argues that all content words are in fact phrasal idioms, and "an Encyclopedic entry provides the connection between a piece of an entire linguistic interpretation … and special meaning," with the non-special meaning being only features such as "singular, animate" since these are relevant to syntax, and the speaker can choose which Root with these features to use, making √dog and √cat equally suitable anywhere where the features "singular, animate" are required. Harley (2014) argues against this notion of free-choice, claiming that Roots must be individuated in all three Lists and in competition with each other, using Root suppletion (a Root having two different phonological forms) as the main argument, e.g. √GO is the Root from which *went* is realized, rather than from √WENT. See Harley (2014) for details.

3.2 Roots

Harley (2014) came to the conclusion that Roots are only used for syntactical computation, and lack any phonological or semantic content. Roots have no category and need to be merged with a category-creating feature bundle or functional head ("little" *n, a, v*) in List 1, and then they are realized by the Y-model. According to Harley's (2014) basic case example, Roots can be notated with numbers such as $\sqrt{}_{279}$ and this is how they appear in List 1. Such Root "will have an invariant pronunciation across different contexts, and an invariant interpretation as well" (243). It then Merges with a categorizing functional head, and in List 2 the $\sqrt{}_{279}$ receives instructions to assign the phonological form /tejp/ based on its morphosyntactic context, and List 3 instructions give it the realized form *tape*. Put simply and more relevantly for the purpose of this thesis, √LAUGH could merge with *n* to create the noun *a laugh*, or with *v* to create the verb *to laugh,* illustrated below:

(4) (a) a laugh (b) to laugh

Therefore even a "simple word" has internal syntactic structure, in (4) it is [[√LAUGH] *n*]$_{nP}$. The terminal node signifying the category of noun and verb is null and not expressed. While the verb *to marry* also contains a null *v* head like in (4), the noun marriage is [[√MARRY] *n*]$_{nP}$ like in (4), only the *n* head is overt and realized as *-age* (Bobaljik 2015). These feature bundles can add a variety of semantic information, e.g. bundle *a* adds meaning 'able to be' in *observ-able*. They also compete for insertion with each other, such as the plural terminal node being realized as either *–s* or as ∅ (Harley 2009), depending on whether it merged with *cat* or *sheep*. Lastly, they can be stacked, e.g. *modern-ize-able*, stacking *a* feature bundle realized as *–able* on the *v* feature bundle realized as *–ize*.

3.2.1 Roots and projection

There is much discussion going on surrounding the topic of Roots and their features, but this chapter so far has been mostly based on the work of Harley (2009; 2014) and

Marantz (1993; 1997). There is one fundamental proposal by Harley however, where I am inclined to agree with an opposing hypothesis.

In her work, Harley concludes that Roots can project a phrase (see Harley 2014), in other words give it a label and identify its category, which she also uses in her analysis of compounds discussed in detail in the following section. Harley (2014, 269) says that based on her analysis in the paper, "roots can indeed combine with internal arguments directly, without the need for mediation by a functional category of any kind". The result is then √P, a Root phrase, which is then manipulated further by syntax.

In *Problems of projection*, Chomsky (2013) takes an opposite stance. He claims that labeling provides information about the kind of a syntactic object (SO) we are interpreting. Therefore for a syntactic object to be interpreted, it needs a categorical label, since different categories create different interpretations (Zeller 2017), e.g. the √LAUGH example from (4), or $[[\sqrt{\text{RECORD}}]\ n]_{nP}$ (e.g. an achievement) vs. $[[\sqrt{\text{RECORD}}]\ v]_{vP}$ (e.g. to store information). Chomsky (2013) proposes a minimal search labeling algorithm LA (43) which selects labels from within SOs. In the case of SO = {H, XP}, H a head and XP a phrase, LA selects H as the head automatically since it is the closest element. When SO = {XP, YP}, result of Merging two phrases, Chomsky suggests (43-45) two approaches: raising either XP or YP, thus modifying it so that only one of the heads is visible to LA, or alternatively they can be labeled if they share a prominent feature (Zeller 2017, see Chomsky 2013 for details).

An issue appears in {H, H} SOs, where both heads could qualify as labels. If the SO = {D, N}, Merging determiner *the* and noun *man* forming DP *the man*, there is no clear easy way for LA to choose the label (Zeller 2017). However, adopting proposals about Roots within the DM framework, that Roots merge with a categorizing head, seems to be a plausible solution, since *man* would in fact be a complex structure of √MAN and a categorizing *n* head. Chomsky suggests that Roots cannot be labels and therefore the categorizing head is the label as intended, because it is the only element visible to LA (47), e.g. labeling the Merge of *n* with a √ Root as nP, rather than √P, as illustrated in (4) above.

This thesis adopts Chomsky's (2013) views that Roots do not project and cannot label a phrase.

3.3 Distributed Morhpology and compounding

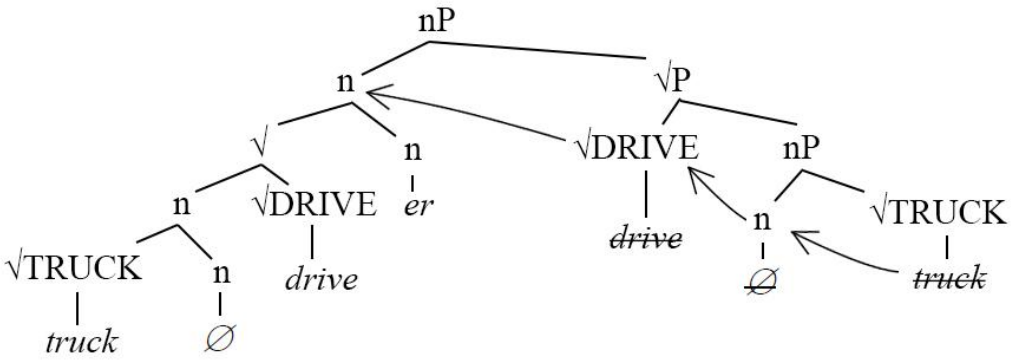
3.3.1 Harley (2009) on compounding in DM

This section is a summary of relevant parts from *Compounding in Distributed Morphology*, Harley 2009. Harley says that "compounds are formed when Root(-containing) heads incorporate" (7). According to this paper, compounds are the result of Merge with a Root before that Root is combined with a category-creating terminal node.

3.3.1.1 Synthetic compounds

Harley (2009) describes these compounds as nominalized or adjectivalized verbs together with their internal arguments in N+N or N+A formations, such as *truck-driver* or *grass-clipping (machine),* and that "the complement noun composes with its root before the root is Merged with the categorizing n°[1] head" (11). The structure of *truck-driver* is presented as:

(5) Structure of *truck-driver* (Harley 2009, 11)



Harley then describes the process: √TRUCK merges with a nominalizing *n* head which creates the complement of √DRIVE. This structure merges as the argument of √DRIVE, and incorporates into it syntactically. Then the complex head $[[[\sqrt{\text{TRUCK}}]_{\sqrt{}}\ n]_{nP}$ $\sqrt{\text{DRIVE}}]_{\sqrt{P}}$ merges with the categorizing *n* with an agentive "flavor" realized as *–er*, moves into it and creates the complex head $[[[[\sqrt{\text{TRUCK}}]_{\sqrt{}}\ n]_{nP}\ \sqrt{\text{DRIVE}}]_{\sqrt{P}}\ n]_{nP}$ which is finally realized thanks to Vocabulary Insertion as *truck-driver*. Harley also points out that were the argument of √DRIVE a DP such as *the truck*, or *trucks*, there would be no incorporation into the Root and "the argument would be stranded to the right of the

[1] *Lowercase letters without the superscript symbol are preferred in this thesis, since it is common across DM literature.*

head" (12), resulting in *driver of the truck* or *driver of trucks* instead of *the-truck-driver* or *trucks-driver*.

3.3.1.2 Modificational synthetic compounds

Meant as a subtype of synthetic compounds, they supposedly suggest that the incorporated element does not have to be an argument of the Root (13). These refer to adjectival compounds like *quick-acting* or *odd-seeming*, where the modifier is the "first sister" of the verb, which means there can be no argument inserted in between them in the corresponding verb phrase (13), i.e. *it acts quickly* and *it seems odd*.

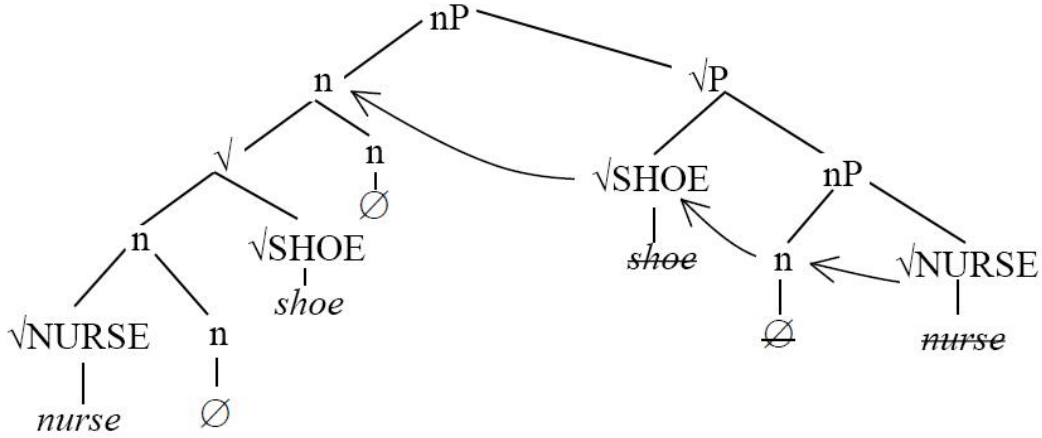
The structure given for *quick-acting* is surprisingly exactly the same as the structure of *truck-driver* given in (5), only the feature bundles *n* are changed to *a* in all cases (15). This however creates an issue which Harley addresses. The suffix *-ing* is treated as the realization of the feature bundle *a*, and despite its ability to only attach to verbs, and changing the categorizing head for √ACT to *v* would create a problem. Harley proposes one solution (16) that a null *v* head be inserted above √ACT, however that would not rule out the possibility of correctly creating **to quick-act*. Harley (16) then assumes that *-ing* can therefore attach to Roots as well as vPs, however this makes it possible for *-ing* to also attach to bound Roots, for which she uses the example **tract-ing* from the Root of *tract-or*, treating *–or* as a nominalizing suffix such as *-er* in *brok-er*. It is then assumed that the *v* feature bundle in English comes with particular restrictions that do not allow it to host incorporation, and another proposed solution is that the restriction restricts Roots "being realized in a *v* in its base position"(20), and so they have to move up into a different head like *a* (see Harley 2009, section 4 for more details).

3.3.1.3 Primary compounds

Primary compounds[2] are described by Harley (2009) as compounds where "the modifying nominal [is] introduced as sister to the Root of the head noun before it is categorized by its own n° head" (17), illustrated in (6).

[2] *Usually called "root compounds", however Harley (2009) uses "primary compounds" to avoid confusion with the usage of "root" within DM.*

(6) Structure of *nurse shoe* (Harley 2009, 17)



Here Harley discusses the difference between these primary compounds and argumental synthetic compounds (discussed in 3.3.1.1) mainly that due to the compounded noun being an argument of the head noun's Root, the synthetic compounds are not ambiguous (16)., but primary compounds are an "interpretive free-for-all" (16). I do not consider this a satisfying explanation and an alternative is proposed below.

3.3.2 Proposed alternative structures

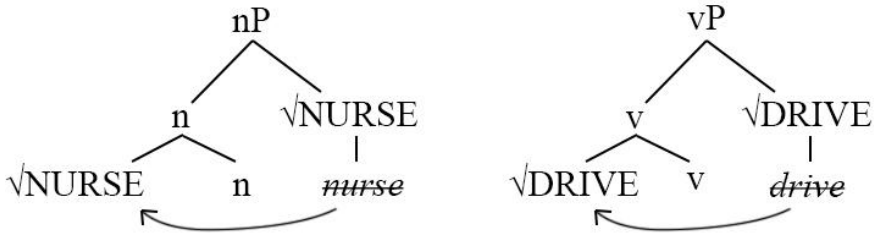
Harley's (2009) paper contains several question-raising curiosities. First, all the analyzed compounds end up with the same syntactic structure, despite being separated into different categories and having different relationships between the modifiers. Second, the issue of *–ing* not being attached to a *v* head in *quick-acting*, despite its ability to only attach to verbs formed as vPs in the structure, further discussed in 3.3.1.2. This is however a deeper issue that I have ran into as well in my analysis.

Lastly and most importantly for this thesis, Harley (2009) does not satisfyingly address why *nurse shoes* and *alligator shoes* have ambiguous interpretations, while *truck-driver* does not. Instead it is dismissed quite briefly by suggesting that it is necessary to combine Encyclopedic and pragmatic knowledge to assess the relationship of the two Roots (16). The nature of the relationship between the first two examples is considered purely pragmatic, while *truck-driver* is considered unambiguous due to the "compounded noun [being] an internal argument of the Root of the head noun" (16). A quick idea is then proposed, but quickly dismissed as unnecessary: adding a null P head

which selects the modifying noun before incorporation (17). I will however make use of a similar idea in my proposed alternative.

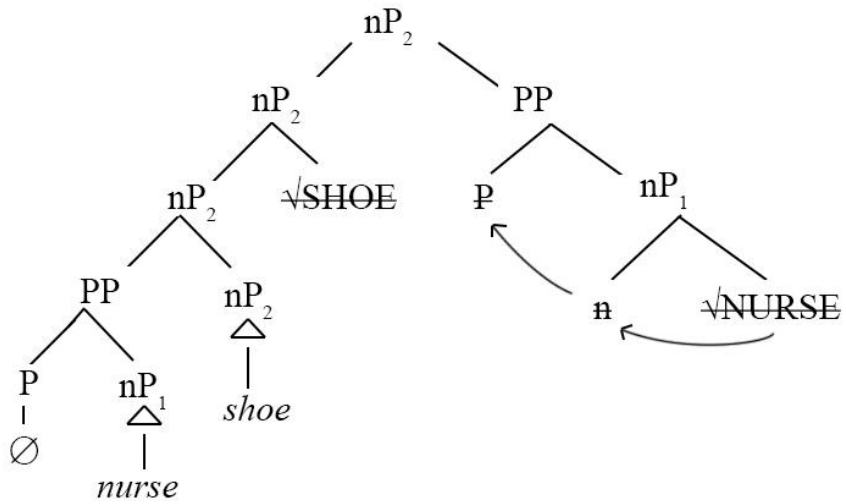
As stated in section 3.2.1, this thesis adopts the view of Chomsky (2013) that Roots cannot label a phrase, and therefore no √P phrases appear in my analysis. Instead, thanks to several discussions with Dr. Jeffrey Parrott (personal communication, July-August 2018), I propose to use a null P head which selects the modifying noun and then incorporates. First I want to establish the structure of the Root incorporating into its categorizing head, later symbolized in my structures as a simplified structure, i.e. a triangle. These structures contain the Root and will eventually be realized as nouns or verbs. In (7), I illustrated the formation of a nP an a vP per my examples, however this does apply to the *a* head forming an aP as well.

(7)



My analysis of *nurse shoe* would therefore look like (8):

(8) *nurse shoe*



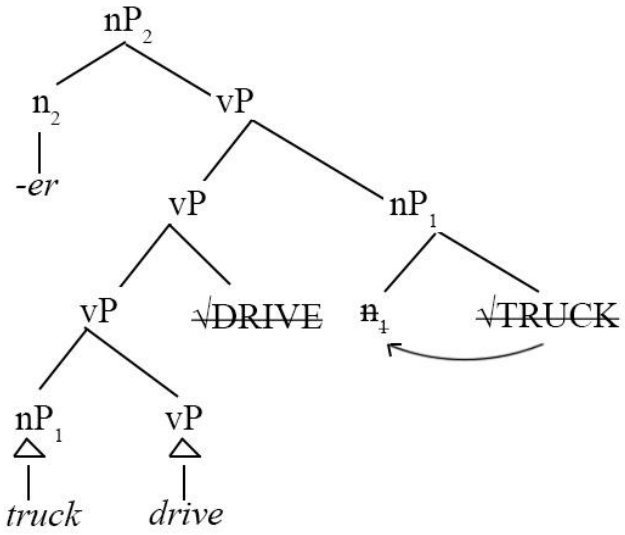
The N1 is first created by Merging a *n* head with the Root √NURSE and incorporating into the head, resulting in nP_1, according to (7). Then a null P head is added to label the

phrase PP and this structure incorporates to nP_2 where the Root √SHOE merged with its *n* head. Since √SHOE moved lower in the structure, nP_2 now remains the closest element for labeling and thus the result can be labeled as nP_2, finally realizing as a compound noun *nurse shoe*. The nature of the modifier relationship is now down to the semantic interpretation of the preposition in the corresponding phrase *shoes for nurses* or *shoes (made) of nurses*. The entire structure can then be merged with a Num feature, which could realize as null for singular number or as *–s* for plural. This also rules out the possibility of the Num feature appearing in between the two nouns, complying with the feature described in (1a).

Here I suggest that the compound was created by the head noun taking its PP adjunct (*for nurses*) and incorporating it. In X-bar theory, phrasal projection for all lexical categories is layered like so: XP → X′ →X, with X standing for N, V, A or P (Haegeman 1995, 104). Adjuncts combine with X′ to create X′ projections, unlike complements which combine with X to create X′ projections (Haegeman 1995, 105), and this also causes complements to appear lower in the structure than adjuncts. An adjunct structure appears in (8) where nP_2 combining with an adjunct PP results in another, higher nP_2 projection.

Now onto *truck-driver*. In Harley (2009) the structure of *truck-driver* and *nurse shoes* is exactly the same. Here the relationship is argumental, *truck* being the complement of *drive* in the corresponding verb phrase *drive trucks*. There is no ambiguity and Harley does suggest (16) that it is due to *truck* being an internal argument of *drive*, but does not expand this notion further and the structures shown in (5) and (6) are identical. Here I propose a structure showing the complement relationship, consistent with the X-bar theory as mentioned above:

(9) *truck-driver*



An issue here has to be acknowledged. While this structure accomplishes my goals – to show a different structural relationship compared to primary compounds – it does not in fact prevent the entire vP structure to merge with another *v* head instead of n_2 as shown here, resulting in a verb **to truck drive*. It is possible that Harley (2009) is correct in assessing that perhaps the *v* head has certain restrictions in English that limit incorporation. What these restrictions are and how they operate is a matter of further research and not the aim of this thesis, and will not be pursued further here, but it had to be acknowledged.

This section has provided alternatives to the structures from Harley (2009). While Harley's structures do not show a structural difference between primary compounds and synthetic compounds, these alternatives do. In doing so, a clearer explanation seems to appear as to why primary compounds have ambiguous interpretations while synthetic compounds do not. The former have an adjunct relationship between the modifiers, and in the case of N+N compounds the ambiguity comes from the interpretation of the specific preposition used in its interpretation. The latter have an argumental relationship and the interpretation is based on the verb – argument pair's meaning.

4 Analysis

4.1 Methodology

In 3.3.2 two alternative structures were proposed for N+N compounds with an adjunct relationship and for N+V compounds with a complement relationship. Selected novel compounds taken from the *Words of the Year* lists are applied to the proposed structures in (8) and (9) respectively, and their corresponding interpretation showing the adjunct or complement relationship is established. A discussion is provided under each compound, commenting on their ambiguity and other possible interpretations, whether and how they fit the proposed model, and whether there are any irregularities. In the following subsection more information on the *Words of the Year* (hereafter *WotY*) is provided.

4.1.1 Words of the Year

The American Dialect Society (ADS) votes on the *WotY* at their annual conference every January since 1990. Their criteria for choosing the *Words* are (according to their website AmericanDialect.org, n.d.): demonstrable novelty, prominent use, reflection of the popular discourse, and not a complaint about the words' overuse or misuse.

The lists are separated into several categories such as "Most likely to succeed" or "Most creative". A winner is chosen for each category and then one overall, however this was not considered for this thesis. The chosen words are all N+N and N+V compounds that appeared in lists ranging from 2017 to 2013, and appear in such order in each section of the analysis. The only criteria for a word to be selected for analysis here was absolute certainty the word is either N+N or N+V. Each entry provides a definition, e.g. *tweetstorm*:

> **tweetstorm**: series of connected tweets about a particular subject, often a passionate rant. (ADS, 2016)

In the commentary under each entry, the provided definition is paraphrased from the one given in *WotY* unless another source is cited, i.e. a dictionary.

4.2 Analysis

4.2.1 N + N compounds

(10) *pussyhat – hat in the shape of a pussy(cat)*

These hats were worn by demonstrators at the Women's March in January 2017, using the double meaning of *pussy* effectively by creating pink hats with cat ears as well as referencing female genitals. The structure corresponds to (8) easily, PP structure containing $nP_1$with √PUSSY incorporated into nP_2 containing √HAT, and the interpretation matches one of the possibilities given to *horseshoe* in (2b) by Punske (2016) and both of its other ambiguous meanings could be applied to this structure.

(11) *blockchain – chain of blocks*

Blockchain is the name of the technology used by cryptocurrencies, and its visual representation looks like a literal chain of connected blocks. The constituent containing √BLOCK was incorporated into nP_2 with √CHAIN and corresponds to the structure in (8). Compare with *bicycle chain* which corresponds to *chain for bicycles* instead.

(12) *emergency podcast – podcast (recorded) because of an emergency*

Listening to podcasts has become quite a popular type of entertainment. During 2017 and its many political breaking news stories, the compound *emergency podcast* came into use to inform the listener of a change in their regular schedule, postponing planned topics to discuss new events. Once again the structure fits (8) with the PP containing √EMERGENCY incorporating into the nP_2 with √PODCAST. This meaning is quite different from most other compounds containing √EMERGENCY as their N1. *Emergency room*, *emergency vehicle* or *emergency protocol* all correspond to *N2 for (handling) emergencies*. This suggest the N2s are prepared in advance to be ready for an emergency situation, while the meaning in (12) suggest an emergency situation happened first (i.e. was the cause), then the N2 was prepared as a result.

(13) *dumpster fire – fire in a dumpster*

The interpretation is perhaps slightly more ambiguous than in the previous compounds. Though the conventionalized meaning is given in (13), it seems just as plausible to assume it is *a dumpster on fire* (though this meaning is not that far off from the conventionalized one) or a *fire (made) of dumpsters*, as in the conventionalized meaning

of *tire fire*. The structure corresponds to (8), however the compound as entered into the *WotY* means "horrible or chaotic disaster". As was discussed in section 3.1, Marantz (1995) argues that Roots can gain special meanings in syntactic contexts of other Roots. Based on that it seems that √FIRE gains the special meaning "disaster" due to its destructive nature, and √DUMPSTER gains the meaning "horrible" to add even more unpleasantness to the imagery of the compound.

(14) *tweetstorm – storm of tweets*

Due to the nature of the social media platform Twitter, for a person to express themselves angrily or passionately on a particular topic, one has to separate one's thoughts into several tweets. A series of such tweets is a *tweetstorm*. *Storm* refers to a disturbance or outburst (Merriam-Webster, s.v. "storm," accessed August 1, 2018) and can therefore be specified in compounds such as *thunderstorm*, *snowstorm* or *rainstorm*, all of which correspond to the interpretation in (14) and to the structure given in (8), and the compound does not seem to be different from the other conventionalized meanings of the compounds it is based on.

(15) *gaslight – light from (burning) gas*

Gaslight is an interesting case. While the interpretation given in (15) is a N+N compound referring to a type of lamp which burns illuminating gas (Merriam-Webster, s.v. "gaslight," accessed August 1, 2018), and as such it corresponds to the structure in (8), in *WotY* and modern use it is a verb *to gaslight*. This verb was created by conversion, a process where the base of a certain category is also used as a base of a different category (Huddleston & Pullum 2007), though DM seems to propose a more elegant description based on its core hypothesis that Roots are acategorical and Merge with a categorizing head, as was shown in (4) with √LAUGH. Here, the noun *a gaslight* was created via the structure in (8), and then assigned a *v* head to create *to gaslight*. In the context of the *v* feature bundle, *gaslight* gains the special meaning "to psychologically manipulate someone" in the Encyclopedia, based on Marantz (1995).

(16) *locker-room banter – banter in a locker-room*

This compound was infamously used to downplay the importance of a lewd conversation about women by then presidential candidate Donald Trump, suggesting that such talk is normal in a closed men-only environment like a locker-room. The

usage of *locker-room* as the modifying N1 with N2s such as *talk, humor, language* goes back to the early 1900s and around the 1930s it started to gain the meaning of "vulgar talk" (Fatsis 2016). Merriam-Webster (s.v. "locker-room," accessed August 2, 2018) also has a definition of *locker-room* as an attribute as "of coarse or sexual nature". Again, based on Marantz (1995), it would seem *locker-room* gains this meaning when present in the context of a communication-related noun. The N1 *locker-room* was first created through the structure in (8), since the interpretation corresponds to *room for lockers*, which is a PP adjunct. This complex nP_1 then goes through the structure in (8) again as it incorporates into nP_2 *banter*.

(17) *manbun – bun (hairstyle) on a man*

Since the bun hairstyle, a knot in the shape of a bun (Merriam-Webster, s.v. "bun," accessed August 1, 2018), was associated with women, it seems that the nP_1 containing √MAN was incorporated into nP_2 containing √BUN to subcategorize it as the male version (this feature of compounds was mentioned in 2.1). Another interpretation is possible based on *manservant* (*a male servant*), resulting incorrectly in *a male bun*.

(18) *God view – view (from the perspective) of God*

The ride-sharing service Uber uses the *God view* display mode to show Uber users' location to Uber employees. The compound appears to be similar to *bird's-eye view* in its interpretation. √GOD appears to gain the meaning "from above" in the context of √VIEW. Another possible interpretation could be based on *seaside view (view of the seaside)* meaning "seeing the seaside" and not "from the perspective of the seaside".

(19) *selfie stick – stick for (taking) selfies*

A very popular invention that helps to take photos of oneself from a greater distance. I assume that *selfie* was formed from √SELF Merging with a *n* head realized as *–ie* and this results in nP_1 that is then further manipulated by syntax as per (8). The interpretation also corresponds to *walking stick* (*a stick for walking*).

(20) *Obamacare – (health)care by Obama*

Obamacare was the nickname given to the American healthcare overhaul proposed by the administration of then-president Barack Obama, the Affordable Care Act. Interestingly, this compound is based on *healthcare* by changing √HEALTH into

√OBAMA, which is a productive way to create compounds, e.g. *skincare, haircare, nailcare*. All mean *care for (one's) N1* (Merriam-Webster, s.v. "health care," accessed August 2, 2018). Per these compounds created with a nP_2 containing √CARE, *Obamacare* should be interpreted as *care for Obama* and this is not the case, therefore it does not adopt the conventionalized meaning of the compound it was based on.

(21) *struggle bus – bus of struggles*

According to the *WotY* list, "to ride/drive the struggle bus" means "to go through a difficult situation". To choose the best possible interpretation is a bit of a struggle as well. I would suggest *bus of struggles* as the best corresponding adjunct, since the interpretation seems to suggest one is in a place (*bus*) full of struggles and goes through the day with it. Another possible interpretation could be *bus for struggling (people),* which expands on the bus metaphor. I prefer the first interpretation since it is simpler and √STRUGGLE would be treated as nP_1.

(22) *catfish – fish with cat(-like) features*

Catfish is a very similar to (15). The interpretation and corresponding adjunct refer to a kind of fish which resembles a cat due to its whiskers, hence the N+N compound. However, *to catfish* became a popular verb thanks to a 2010 documentary of the same name where a woman pretended to be a different person online (Merriam-Webster, s.v. "catfish," accessed August 2, 2018). This has created a verb "to misrepresent oneself online" especially to attract potential romantic relationships. Since this is also a conversion like *to gaslight*, I assume they are created in the same way: the "original" N+N compound is formed through the structure in (8), resulting in nP_2 which then Merges with a covert *v* head, forming a vP. In the context of this *v* feature bundle, the previously mentioned special meaning is obtained by the compound.

(23) *revenge porn – porn (published) as revenge*

This compound refers to sexually explicit material posted vindictively on the internet without the person's consent as a form of revenge. This interpretation is different from other regular *N1 porn* compounds, where *N1* usually denotes the specific kind of porn, as in *homosexual porn* or *fetish porn*. Nothing in the content of the materials published as *revenge porn* will contain actual revenge; therefore *revenge* only refers to the intent of the publishing and not the content. The structure fits the one in (8).

(24) *thigh gap – gap in between thighs*

Here the compound is quite transparent and has no special meanings attached to its parts. √THIGH-containing nP_1 Merges with √GAP-containing nP_2 and the compound is formed.

4.2.2 N+V compounds

(25) *to shitpost – to post shit (content)*

This compound was entered into *WotY* as a verb, but it also exists as the noun *a shitpost* (MacMillan Dictionary, s.v. "shitpost," accessed August 2), both referring to posting worthless content online. As is the case with most internet slang words, it is unclear how it exactly originated. I am going to assume that since the verb *to post* was first used as "to publish, announce" before it became a noun *a post* referring to a piece of online content (Merriam-Webster, s.v. "post," accessed August 2, 2018), √POST in this compound is treated as a verb first, therefore fitting the structure proposed in (9). If the *n* head is added like in *truck-driver*, the noun *a shitpost* is formed. If a *v* head is added, the verb *to shitpost* is formed instead.

(26) *mic drop – dropping a microphone*

Mic drop refers to the act of dropping a microphone after a speech or performance which creates a dramatic impressive ending (Cambridge Dictionary, s.v. "mic drop," accessed August 3, 2018). It is also possible figuratively to mean a dramatic ending to a discussion after making a discussion-ending point. The structure corresponds to (9). *Microphone* is clipped and √MIC Merges with a nominal head to create nP_1 which then incorporates into vP with √DROP, and gets a *n* head to from the noun *mic drop*. Unfortunately, this structure allows Merging with a v head to create **to mic drop* incorrectly, though it allowed *to shitpost* correctly in the previous example.

(27) *sugar-dating – dating sugar (daddies/mommas)*

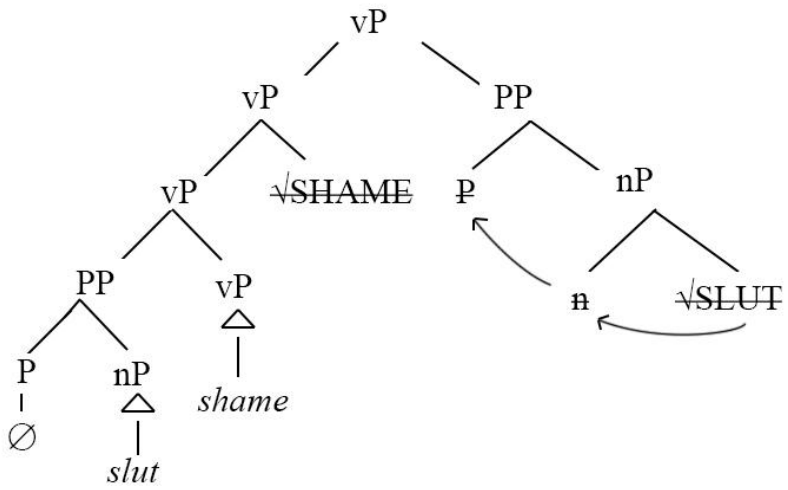
Sugar-dating refers to aspects of a relationship with a wealthy older person who spends a lot of money on a younger partner. Compounds with nP_1 *sugar* appear in this particular dating scene: *sugar daddy, sugar momma, sugar baby*, and now *sugar-dating*, giving a name to the entire thing. Once one is familiar with the special meaning √SUGAR is given here, the compound appears unambiguous, and corresponds to (9)

where nP_2's n_2 head realizes as *–ing* and forms a gerund. A verb form **to sugar-date* does not seem to be in use.

4.2.2.1 N+V compounds in an adjunct relationship

Only very few compounds from *WotY* appear to follow the same structure as (9). The following compounds are still N+V, however they are in an adjunct relationship, following the structure in (8) with some changes, illustrated below:

(8a) *to slut-shame*



The only change is in labeling, since √SHAME is a verb and therefore forms a vP. Once again this structure does not rule out the option of verb formation, and this was addressed in 3.3.2.

(28) *trigger-warning – warning against triggers*

In this case, √TRIGGER refers to potentially distressing content which could set off a negative response in the viewer, and this interpretation is gained in the context of √WARN. The structure is the same as (8a) and a nominalizing head is Merged with it, realized as *–ing* to form the gerund. This does not rule out **to trigger-warn*, which does not seem to be in use.

(29) *manspreading – spreading of a man's legs*

This compound refers to men spreading their legs too widely on public transit which blocks other people from sitting next to them. nP containing √MAN was incorporated into vP √SPREAD and a *n* head realized as *–ing* was added to form the gerund. √MAN

was added to specify that the action of *spreading* is limited to men, though this creates ambiguity. If the compound was for example **legspreading*, the meaning would be transparent and the interpretation would clearly point to *spreading legs*, suggesting a complement incorporation took place. The incorporation of √MAN into √SPREAD excludes the argumental relationship (*spreading of man*), interestingly.

(30) *slut-shaming – shaming for acting like a slut*

–shaming proved to be quite productive in novel compounds and was in fact entered in *WotY* as such with two other examples: *fat-shaming* and *pet-shaming*. If slut-shaming was to be considered as a complement relationship, the interpretation would be *shaming sluts*. However, the compound is not used only to stigmatize promiscuous women, but also involves what the speaker perceives as promiscuous behavior (Oxford Dictionaries, s.v. "slut shaming," accessed August 3, 2018). The other very popular example of this kind of compound, *fat-shaming*, does not involve *shaming fat (itself)* but rather *shaming for being fat*, similar to *slut-shaming*. This compound was used as the example in (8a). It can be used as a verb *to slut-shame* since it was likely formed via backformation, therefore a T feature bundle could be added onto the structure, creating TP. *Pet-shaming* (also *dog-shaming* or *cat-shaming*) is a strange case, however. It involves sharing photos of pets online which show their misbehavior, such as destroying shoes (Dictionary.com, s.v. "shaming," accessed August 3, 2018). The interpretation *shaming pets (for misbehavior)* seems more likely in this case.

(31) *to binge-watch – to watch in a binge*

A complement relationship (*watch a binge*) would not fit the interpretation here. Going to the etymology of the nP realized as *binge*, its usage allegedly goes back to the 19th century meaning "to drink heavily" or "excessive indulgence" (Merriam-Webster, s.v. "binge," accessed August 2, 2018). *Binge-drinking* therefore means what only *binge* used to mean, and now *binge* seems to be used mostly as the second interpretation with the following verb specifying what one is indulging in. The nature of √BINGE seems to be creating the adjunct relationship. Compounds such as *bird watching* or *whale watching* seem to be unambiguous due to being formed from a complement relationship, i.e. *watching birds* and *watching whales*.

4.3 Discussion

This section discusses the observations stemming from the analysis above.

Most of the analyzed N+N compounds were quite ambiguous as expected. All of them seem to have been created from an adjunct relationship with a PP, therefore the ambiguity appears to come from the interpretation and various possibilities for different prepositions. Interestingly, several times a compound was formed from a word with a conventionalized meaning by changing N1, e.g. in (20) *Obamacare*, and this change caused a very different interpretation, though still in an adjunct relationship. (15) and (22) were examples of conversion, which DM can describe quite elegantly thanks to the theory of acategorical Roots.

I found very few N+V compounds in *WotY* 2017 – 2013 overall, much less those that would fit the structure of *truck-driver* in (9), and therefore were formed via complement incorporation. Still, (25) - (27) were much less ambiguous than N+N compounds. It could be assumed that their more transparent nature makes them less interesting to be chosen for *WotY* lists or particularly stand out amongst other novel words. The examples from *WotY* discussed here all had some kind of a figurative meaning attached, which could support this notion. N+V compounds like *king-slayer*, *shoe-maker* or *truck-driver* are still clearly unambiguous, unlike N+N compounds.

For (28) - (31), a structure based on (8) was proposed in (8a), since these N+V compounds were formed by adjunct incorporation and not complement incorporation. From the analysis it can be seen that the adjunct relationship introduced ambiguity, even in compounds derived from the analyzed word, e.g. in (30) with *slut-shaming* and *pet-shaming*. Both are derived using *–shaming*, however one seems to be formed via adjunct incorporation and the other via complement incorporation.

Both possible structures for N+V compounds do not rule out the possibility of verb formation. As was mention in 3.3.2., it is possible that there are some kinds of restrictions placed on the *v* feature bundle, but finding these is not the focus of this thesis. However, the proposed structures allow the formation of verbs *to slut-shame and to shitpost*, but do not rule out **to mic drop*. Based on the arguments of Marantz (1995), I will assume that all words gain idiosyncratic meaning from their syntactic context. As Bobaljik (2015) suggests, there does not seem to be a grammatical explanation as to

why the verb **to cat* is absent from English (but *to dog* is used); it could be that while it gains conventional meaning in the context of the nominalizing head, it does not have one in the context of the verbal head. This could possibly be the case with these compounds, though further research needs to be done here

5 Conclusion

Looking to find why compounds like *nurse shoe* are very ambiguous but *truck-driver* are not, I came to the conclusion that it is due to their incorporation of different constituents: the former is an example of adjunct incorporation, while the latter is complement incorporation. With adjunct incorporation comes ambiguity when the adjunct is a PP, then the interpretation relies on the interpretation of the preposition. This question arose from my reading of Harley (2009), who uses these examples in the Distributed Morphology framework, but presents the same exact structure for both compounds, and dismisses the ambiguity of the former as pragmatics. I wanted to show a structural difference between them, as well as provide a suggestion why the interpretation of *nurse shoe* and *alligator shoe* is not purely based on pragmatic knowledge of whether nurses or alligators wear shoes.

I have introduced compounds and compounding in chapter 2. In chapter 3, I described the main hypotheses of the Distributed Morphology framework. Particular attention was given to the issue of acategorical Roots, where Chomsky (2013) and Harley (2014) disagree. Then follows a section on the 2009 paper by Harley, and the ideas in it this thesis opposes. Following Chomsky (2013), I adopted the notion that Roots cannot be labels of phrases, which Harley (2014) opposes, I proposed alternative structures to the ones given in Harley (2009), using X-bar theory, to show the different structures. Chapter 4 consists of the analysis and discussion of novel compounds, their ambiguity and application on the proposed structures. It is shown that both N+N and N+V compounds are ambiguous when a PP adjunct is incorporated to form it.

There is still much room for research. The proposed structures did not rule out ungrammatical verb formation, such as **to truck drive* or **to mic drop*, which is an issue Harley (2009) encounters as well. Since novel compounds were analyzed, there is not much reliable information on their formation or etymology, and I had to rely on definitions given in the *Words of the Year* lists or in several online dictionaries. The *WotY* lists themselves are not the biggest corpus of novel words, especially when it came to N+V compounds formed via complement incorporation, which offered only three examples. A deeper study would benefit from a much larger corpus.

6 Resumé

Při snaze rozluštit význam anglických složenin se často opíráme o pragmatické znalosti. Když srovnáme složeniny jako *baby oil* a *olive oil* zdá se, že následují jakousi stejnou předlohu, a naše pragmatické znalosti nám dodají význam: dětský olej je *olej pro děti*, zatímco olivový olej je *olej z oliv*, a to už jsou dvě rozdílné interpretace. Složeniny jako *engine oil* a *face oil* sedí k interpretaci olej pro N1. *Palm oil* a *almond oil* zase odpovídají druhému příkladu, olej z N1. Pokud se ale podíváme na složeniny jako *truck-driver* nebo *shoe maker*, interpretace se zdá jasná: *drives trucks* a *makes shoes*. Opravdu za tím není nic jiného než pragmatické znalosti, které nám řeknou, že z dětí se nedělá olej, ale z oliv ano? A jak tomu je u *shoe maker*? Je to pouze tím, že složenina je transparentní a význam je tedy ihned zřetelný?

Tato bakalářská práce se snaží najít alespoň směr, který by vedl k odpovědi na tyto otázky. Tradiční zdroje věnují mnoho pozornosti lexikální ambiguitě, dvojsmyslnosti na úrovni slov, a strukturální ambiguitě na úrovni vět. Strukturální ambiguita ukazuje více možných struktur nejen na úrovni vět, ale také ve složeninách, jelikož v řadě slov může být hranice nejasná, např. *American history teacher*. Je učitel Američan, nebo je odjinud a učí americkou historii? Diskuzí tradičního pohledu na slovotvorbu složenin a strukturální ambiguitu se zabývá druhá kapitola.

Do tohoto problému se dá jít hlouběji díky Distribuované Morfologii (DM), systému představeném v roce 1993 Marantzem a Hallem. Ve třetí kapitole je DM popsána se svými hlavními teoriemi. Nejdůležitější z nich je tvrzení, že syntax pohání i slovotvorbu, a proto by se skrz tento systém dalo nahlédnout do složenin hlouběji než jen řešit, kam umístit závorky v řadě slov. V tomto systému pracuje Harley (2009; 2014), která rozvinula teorii Kořenů. Kořeny slov (značeny √) jsou abstraktní, nemají žádné vlastnosti ani kategorii – toto všechno obdrží pomocí kategorizujících svazků vlastností („malé“ *n, v, a*), které určí kategorii a dodají Kořenu možnost vyjádřit všechny vlastnosti této kategorie. Například kořen √LAUGH se může pomocí funkce Merge spojit s hlavičkou *n*, čímž může vzniknout podstatné jméno *a laugh*, nebo s hlavičkou *v* pro sloveso *to laugh*. Dále je ve třetí kapitole rozebrána práce Harley (2009), která se dívá na složeniny z pohledu DM a navrhla syntaktické struktury pro složeniny *nurse shoe* a *truck-driver*.

Tyto struktury jsou ovšem naprosto stejné, a Harley (2009) připisuje problematiku interpretace k pragmatickým znalostem. Proto je v další části práce navržena alternativní struktura založena na X-bar teorii a myšlence Chomskeho (2013), že Kořeny nemohou být hlavičkami frází. Dále je tu navrženo, že rozdílnost v interpretaci těchto dvou typů složenin (N+N a N+V) je založena na vztahu mezi jejich částmi: buď se jedná o inkorporaci adjunktu, nebo inkorporaci předmětu. Složeniny vytvořené pomocí inkorporace adjunktu jsou složitější na interpretaci, která záleží na interpretaci konkrétní předložky v PP adjunktu. Naopak při inkorporaci předmětu získáme interpretaci přísudek – předmět, a není třeba nic hádat. √P fráze z Harley (2009) jsou nahrazeny nP nebo vP frázemi, a je využita nulová PP místo používání Kořenů jako hlaviček.

Ve čtvrté kapitole jsou využita vybraná slova ze seznamu *Slova roku* publikovaná American Dialect Society, s rozsahem od roku 2017 do 2013. Tyto nové složeniny jsou aplikovány na navržené struktury a je diskutován jejich vznik, interpretace a strukturální ambiguita. Ačkoliv složeniny strukturám odpovídají, nezabraňují tvorbě negramatických sloves tvořených inkorporací předmětu, jako **to truck-drive* nebo **to mic drop*. Vzhledem k tomu, že analyzované složeniny jsou nově vzniklé, bylo složité najít spolehlivé zdroje ohledně jejich etymologie. Byla jsem tedy nucena spoléhat na definice ze *Slov roku* a online slovníků. Samotná *Slova roku* nedodaly obrovské množství složenin, a proto by pro hlubší studii bylo třeba většího korpusu.

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Appendix

Words of the Year and their definitions given by the American Dialect Society

2017:

blockchain	Technology underlying cryptocurrencies like bitcoin, which exploded in value this year.
emergency podcast	An audio show prepared at a moment of dire political need.
pussyhat	Pink knitted hat worn by demonstrators at the Women's March.
shitpost	Posting of worthless or irrelevant online content intended to derail a *conversation* or to provoke others.

2016:

dumpster fire	An exceedingly disastrous or chaotic situation.
gaslight	Psychologically manipulate a person into questioning their own sanity.
locker-room banter	Lewd, vulgar talk (used by Trump to downplay Access Hollywood tape), euphemizing discourse about harrassment of and aggression toward women.
tweetstorm	Series of connected tweets about a particular subject, often a passionate rant.

2015:

manbun	Man's hairstyle pulled up in a bun.
mic drop	Definitive end to a discussion after making an impressive point.
trigger warning	Alert for potentially distressing material.

2014:

God view	Display mode used by ride-sharing service Uber providing employees with real-time information on all users.
manspreading	Of a man, to sit with one's legs wide on public transit in a way that blocks other seats
selfie stick	A pole to which a smartphone is attached to take selfies from a distance.
sugar-dating	Pay-to-play relationship between an older, wealthier person (sugar daddy/momma) and a younger partner (sugar baby).

2013:

binge-watch	To consume vast quantities of a single show or series of visual entertainment in one sitting.
catfish	To misrepresent oneself online, especially as part of a romantic deception.
Obamacare	Term for the Affordable Care Act that has moved from pejorative to matter-of-fact shorthand.
revenge porn	Vindictive posting of sexually explicit pictures of someone without consent.
-shaming	(from slut-shaming) Type of public humiliation (fat-shaming, pet-shaming).
strug(gle) bus	Metaphor for a difficult situation, as in "I'm riding the struggle bus." Also a verb.
thigh gap	A space between the thighs, taken by some as a sign of attractiveness (also *box gap*).