A re-evaluation of Arad’s argument for roots*

Ezer Rasin, Omer Preminger, and David Pesetsky

1. Background

The overarching question we are concerned with in this paper is whether there are category-neutral roots in the syntax. In other words, whether there exist bona fide syntactic objects, which (i) correspond to the notion of ‘root’ familiar from morphology; and (ii) lack a syntactic category.

This paper will not deliver a decisive answer to this question. Our goal here is a more modest one: to re-evaluate the arguments in favor of an affirmative answer to this question advanced in Arad (2003, 2005). We believe it is worth revisiting this particular body of work because it has been extremely influential, is widely cited, and has played a crucial role in debates about locality restrictions on semantic and phonological interpretation (Borer 2009, Harley 2014a,b, Marantz 2013, among many others). It is for this reason that we consider such a re-evaluation valuable, even close to two decades after the publication of the original work. And we will argue that the claims in this work do not, ultimately, stand up to scrutiny.

The conclusion will therefore be that if there are indeed category-neutral roots in the syntax, this has to be argued for on a different basis.


The central claim in Arad (2003, 2005), building on a proposal by Marantz (2000), is the following:

(1) CLAIM: There are semantic and phonological asymmetries between:
   a. what can happen up to the first categorization of a root; and
   b. what can happen higher up in the structure

To see this in more detail, let us consider (abstractly) the case of a root-derived (henceforth, de-root) verb on the one hand, versus the case of a de-nominal verb, on the other:

(2) a. De-root: \[ \sqrt{v} \]
    b. De-nominal: \[ \sqrt{n} \]

Semantically, it is claimed that a root can acquire multiple idiosyncratic interpretations up to the first categorizing head (in this case, \( v \)), but that re-categorizing an already categorized stem (as in (2b)) will have a predictable interpretation. Specifically, the interpretation will have to be one that is directly based on the fixed interpretation of the already categorized stem.

Phonologically, it is claimed that a root may undergo idiosyncratic/non-productive phonological changes up to the first categorization, but that re-categorizing an already categorized stem (as in (2b)) will only result in predictable/fully-productive phonological changes (see also Marvin 2013).

As Arad notes, these claims, if true, can then be captured in terms of phase theory. In particular, if all categorizing heads are phase heads, and roots are bona fide syntactic objects whose first categorization

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must take place in syntax (and not in any other component of grammar), then the semantic and phonological claims above follow from Chomsky’s (2000, 2001) Phase Impenetrability Condition (PIC). That is because the semantics and phonology of the lowest categorized domain (nP, in the case of (2b)) cannot be altered after that phase has been spelled out.¹

In what follows, we argue that the empirical claims reviewed here are incorrect. Specifically, we re-examine the kind of data in Hebrew and in English discussed in Arad (2003, 2005), and show that the predicted correlation between attachment height on the one hand, and semantic or phonological predictability on the other, does not pan out.

3. Hebrew

3.1. The semantic claim for Hebrew

According to Arad, the de-root and de-nominal morphology presented in the previous section correspond to two modes of word formation in Hebrew. We review them briefly before turning to Arad’s semantic claim (the phonological claim will be discussed after the semantic claim, in Section 3.3).

The first mode of word formation is the so-called root-and-pattern morphology found more generally in Semitic languages, where a consonantal root is combined with a template to form a word. Arad’s example in (3) shows the Hebrew root √sgr in a variety of verbal and nominal environments. In (3a), this root is combined with the template CaCaC (where capital C stands for a consonantal slot), giving the verb sagar, which means ‘close’.² In (3b), the template is hiCCIC and the verb is hisgir, which means ‘extradite’. The remaining examples are of other words with the same three consonants.

(3) √sgr

a. CaCaC (v) sagar v, ‘close’
b. hiCCIC (v) hisgir v, ‘extradite’
c. hitCaCCeC (v) histager v, ‘cocoon oneself’
d. CeCeC (n) seger n, ‘closure’
e. CoCCayim (n) sgrayim n, ‘parentheses’

Arad analyzes root-and-pattern morphology as de-root morphology, where the root combines with a categorizing head that introduces the template. The proposed structures for the examples in (3) are given in (4), using a verbal v head that forms a verb and nominal n head that forms a noun.³

(4) a. De-root verb: ⌈v

    v

    √sgr

    ⌊v

b. De-root noun: ⌈n

    n

    √sgr

    ⌊n

On Arad’s theory, these structures allow the root to acquire idiosyncratic interpretations. This is indeed the case in (3), as it is difficult to identify a core meaning for the root from which all the different meanings can be predictably derived.

The second way to create words discussed by Arad involves the creation of verbs (or other categories) from a noun rather than a root. Example (5) shows the noun misgeret ‘frame’ which seems to be de-root as in the previous examples, and the verb misger ‘frame’.

(5) √sgr

a. miCCeCet (n) misgeret n, ‘frame’
b. CiCCeC (v) misger v, ‘frame’

¹ Because the next categorizer is also, by hypothesis, a phase head, it does not matter in this regard whether we adopt the so-called ‘strong’ or ‘weak’ versions of the PIC.
² All Hebrew verbs in this paper are given in their unmarked inflectional form – the third person singular masculine in past tense. This will not be reflected in our glosses.
³ We will ignore the question of how this derivation might proceed in the phonology. See Kastner (2019) for a possible implementation.
In this case, Arad claims that the verb is derived from the noun rather than from a combination of a root and a template. This claim is based on the observation that the templatic \([m]\) of the noun \(misgeret\) carries over to the verb. There is no independent verbal template in Hebrew that begins with an \([m]\) in which the root \(\sqrt{sg}r\) can be placed to form the verb, so the noun can be the only source for the initial \([m]\) of the verb.

On Arad’s theory, this and other similar verbs are analyzed as de-nominal. The root first combines with a categorizing \(n\) head to form a noun, and then the resulting noun is combined with a \(v\) head to form a verb, giving the structure in (6).

(6) De-nominal verb

\[
\begin{array}{c}
v \\
\phantom{v} \\
n \\
\sqrt{}
\end{array}
\]

Since the verb \(misger\) is de-nominal, Arad’s theory predicts that its semantics should be predictable from the meaning of the noun. This indeed seems to be the case, since ‘frame’ roughly means ‘put in a frame’, which is a possible general verbalization of the noun ‘frame’.

Arad’s empirical semantic claim for Hebrew, stated in (7), is that the correlation between attachment height and semantic predictability holds in Hebrew in general. This means that morphology that can be identified as root-and-pattern can have unpredictable interpretations, whereas other morphology must have predictable interpretations. In the specific case of de-nominal verbs, this means that the interpretation of the verb must be predictable from the meaning of the noun. We will now argue that upon a closer look at the Hebrew data, this claim does not hold.

(7) CLAIM:

   a. Root-and-pattern morphology can have an unpredictable interpretation.

   b. Other morphology must have a predictable interpretation.

3.2. Problems with the semantic claim

We will argue that there are two kinds of problems with the main examples that Arad uses to support the empirical claim in (7). First, there is no support for the de-nominal status of some verbs with predictable semantics that are provided. They might also be de-root. The de-root status of verbs with predictable semantics does not contradict Arad’s claim, because de-root verbs are allowed to have predictable semantics. Rather, it weakens Arad’s claim, because it reduces the number of positive examples of de-nominal verbs with predictable semantics, and these are the verbs that support the asymmetry between de-root and de-nominal verbs.

The second type of problem is more serious. We provide examples where de-nominal verbs and adjectives in Hebrew, including ones discussed by Arad, have a meaning that is not predictable from the meaning of the noun. This directly contradicts the semantic claim, and challenges the theory that excludes idiosyncratic meanings above the first categorizing head.

3.2.1. First problem: no evidence that reported semantically predictable de-nominal verbs are de-nominal

For an example of the first kind of problem, consider the root \(\sqrt{xzq}\) – one of Arad’s leading examples – which can appear in a variety of adjectival, verbal, and nominal templates, as shown in (8). The resulting words have diverse meanings such as ‘strong’, ‘hold’, and ‘maintenance’.
We conclude that verbs of the form tiCCeC are ambiguous between de-root and de-nominal morphology and therefore do not constitute positive examples supporting the correlation between attachment height and semantic predictability.

3.2.2. Second problem: de-nominal verbs and adjectives with unpredictable meanings

The second, more serious problem can be exemplified with the root $\sqrt{xzr}$, which occurs in the list of words in (11) (among other words).

\[
\sqrt{xzr} \\
\begin{array}{lll}
a. & \text{CaCaC (V)} & xazar & \text{v, ‘return’} \\
b. & \text{CiCCeC (V)} & xizer & \text{v, ‘court’} \\
c. & \text{CiCCeC (V)} & xazar & \text{N, ‘rehearsal’} \\
d. & \text{maCCoC (N)} & maxzor & \text{N, ‘cycle’} \\
e. & \text{CiCCeC (V)} & mixzer & \text{v, ‘recycle’} \\
\end{array}
\]

The verb mixzer ‘recycle’ is given by Arad as an example of a semantically predictable de-nominal verb derived from the noun maxzor ‘cycle’. Here the claim that this is a de-nominal verb is sound for the same reason that the verb misger ‘frame’ we discussed in Section 3.1 was de-nominal: there is no other source for the initial [m] other than the corresponding noun. But here the semantic claim does not go through, since the meaning of the verb ‘recycle’ is not predictable from the meaning of the noun. Like its English counterpart, mixzer can be used when talking about the conversion of waste to reusable material, or about reuse more generally (e.g., reuse of a text), but its use is limited to the particular concept of ‘reuse’. In contrast, the noun maxzor ‘cycle’ can be used in variety of contexts, listed in (12), but none of them has to do with reuse.
A possible response to this argument is that speakers infer the narrow meaning ‘recycle’ from context, given a verb head that has the general semantic contribution ‘X’ $\mapsto$ ‘put Yi in X’ when combined with the noun ‘cycle’. On this view, mixzer means ‘put Y in a cycle’, and from ‘put a paper in a cycle’, when uttered in the right context, speakers infer the narrow meaning ‘recycle’. This account incorrectly predicts that mixzer can have other, comparably specific meanings when these are made salient. For example, mixzer sefer ‘recycle a book’, which on this account would mean ‘put a book in a cycle’, would be predicted to permit the meaning ‘he returned a book to the library’ when uttered in a context that makes the library checkout-and-return cycle salient. But this is not so: the phrase only has the same narrow meaning as the English phrase ‘recycle a book’. We conclude from this example that de-nominal verbs can have unpredictable semantics, a conclusion that directly contradicts the main semantic claim.

Another example that poses a similar problem is the adjective yalduti ‘childish’ from the root $\sqrt{\text{yl}d}$, given by Arad as an example of a semantically predictable de-nominal adjective. This root occurs in a variety of templates, as shown in (13).

While Hebrew morphology is mostly non-concatenative, there are some suffixes that follow the stem linearly. Arad illustrates with the noun yeled ‘child’ and some of its derivatives in (14).

The adjective yalduti ‘childish’ seems to be derived from the noun yaldut ‘childhood’ through the addition of the productive adjectivalizing suffix -i. According to Arad, its meaning, ‘childish’, can be paraphrased as ‘pertaining to childhood’, and therefore can be said to be semantically predictable from the meaning of the noun yaldut ‘childhood’. However, like in English, the Hebrew word for ‘childish’ has a subtly narrower meaning than ‘pertaining to childhood’. For example, referring to a disease common during the period of childhood as a childish disease ($\#\text{maxala yaldutit}$) is not possible in Hebrew, but it is incorrectly

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4 The list of meanings is taken from the online Hebrew-English dictionary Morfix (https://www.morfix.co.il).
5 On the traditional account of the noun yeled, its underlying representation is /yaldi/, which remains unchanged under suffixation. Here we follow Arad’s presentation and ignore the phonology responsible for the alternation between yald- and yeled. As far as we can tell, this does not affect our main claim.
predicted to be possible if yalduti means ‘pertaining to childhood’. This suggests that ‘childish’ is semantically derived from ‘child’ rather than from ‘childhood’, and therefore that the meaning of the de-nominal adjective yalduti is not predictable from the meaning of the noun it is derived from, in direct contradiction with the semantic claim.

3.2.3. Hebrew: interim conclusion

We have seen two types of problems with the semantic claim, basing our discussion on examples provided by Arad. First, some reported de-nominal verbs (specifically, in the template tiCCeC) are ambiguous between de-root and de-nominal morphology and therefore cannot provide positive support for the claim even when their meaning is predictable from the meaning of the noun. Second, there are direct counterexamples to the claim, in the form of de-nominal verbs and adjectives with a meaning that cannot be derived from the meaning of the noun.

These problems go beyond the examples discussed in this paper. The challenge of templates that are ambiguous between de-root and de-nominal morphology is more general and also holds for templates of the form ?iCCeC and jiCCeC, which are ambiguous in the same way that tiCCeC is. Another set of verbs with predictable semantics provided by Arad are loanwords like ibstrect ‘make abstract’ (from the noun abstract ‘abstract’), which have been argued by Bat-El (1994) to be de-nominal on phonological grounds. As recent borrowings, loanwords might not have had enough time to acquire idiosyncratic meanings, so we believe that they do not provide strong support for the claim. This state of affairs makes it difficult to argue for the semantic claim in Hebrew more generally.

3.3. The phonological claim for Hebrew

To support the phonological claim, Arad argues that phonological processes like n-deletion in Hebrew idiosyncratically apply in de-root but not in de-nominal verbs. She discusses contrasts as in (15), where pre-plosive n-deletion applies in the verb hicil ‘save’, which is argued to be de-root, but not in the verb hinciax ‘make eternal’, which is argued to be a de-nominal verb deriving from the noun necax ‘eternity’.

(15) Root/Base Pattern Verb
  a. √nicl - hiCCiC hicil v, ‘save’
  b. necax (N) ‘eternity’ hiCCiC hinciax v, ‘make eternal’

This supposed correlation between attachment height and the idiosyncratic application of a phonological process faces two problem. First, the verb hinciax, which should be de-nominal for the correlation to hold, has a narrow meaning that cannot be predicted from the meaning of the noun necax, as it specifically refers to the concept of ‘commemoration’. If I ask you, say, to “eternalize a disaster” (like an earthquake) using the analytic form laasot nicxi, ‘make eternal’, my request is that you find a way to make the disaster last forever. If I ask you to eternalize a disaster (like an earthquake) using hinciax, my request is that you make sure that the disaster is remembered forever, perhaps by performing a yearly ceremony. The second problem has to do with the assumption that the verb hicil ‘save’ is derived from the root √nicl. This assumption is confounded by the existence of the Hebrew noun nicol ‘survivor’, whose meaning is close to the meaning of the verb. We are not aware of evidence suggesting that the verb is derived from the root rather than that noun.

To summarize our response to the phonological claim regarding the correlation between n-deletion and attachment height presented by the contrast in (15), there is no good evidence for the assumption that the verb hicil, in which deletion applies, is indeed de-root. As for the verb hinciax, if it is de-root, then it does not support the correlation because deletion does not apply to it. If, alternatively, hinciax is de-nominal, then while supporting the phonological claim its unpredictable semantics would contradict the semantic claim. Our conclusion is that the facts of n-deletion do not support the phonological claim in the language. As before, we believe that the challenge goes beyond the examples discussed here and points at a general problem in arguing for a correlation between attachment height and predictability in Hebrew.
4. English

Arad’s arguments from English mirror those from Hebrew, but once again, we argue that the actual patterns of data do not support the hypotheses as claimed. These arguments focus on verb-noun pairs that are homophonous, a common and productive phenomenon in English. Once again, these pairs are claimed to fall into two classes that differ in both semantic and phonological behavior:

(16) a. some homophonous V∼N pairs result from distinct categorizations of a category-neutral root (de-root verbs, de-root nouns)
b. others result from application of a null categorizing morpheme to a pre-categorized base (de-nominal verbs, de-verbal nouns).

We discuss the semantic claim first. Arad notes that in certain cases, the semantics of the verb and noun deviate unpredictably. Specifically, she follows Kiparsky (1982a,b) in noting the existence of homophonous pairs in which the N alternant names an object, but the V alternant is not limited to describing a situation involving that object — claimed to be a sign that both alternants are independently derived by categorizing a category-neutral root as a noun or verb.

(17) CLAIM: De-root → N meaning not necessarily contained in V meaning (building on Kiparsky 1982a,b)
   b. String him up with a rope!
   c. She anchored the ship with a rock.
   d. He hammered the nail with a rock.

By contrast, still building on Kiparsky (1982a,b), another class of homophonous N∼V pairs are claimed to lack this semantic freedom. Instead, the semantics of the N alternant must be a subconstituent of the semantics of the homophonous V — claimed to be a sign that the verb in such pairs is derived from an already categorized noun:

(18) CLAIM: De-nominal → N meaning contained in V meaning (still building on Kiparsky 1982a,b)
   a. *She taped the picture to the wall with pushpins.
   b. *They chained the prisoner with a rope.
   c. *Jim buttoned up his pants with a zipper.
   d. *Screw the fixture to the wall with nails!

The semantic contrast between these two classes of alternations is claimed to correlate with a phonological contrast, in a now-familiar fashion. Those N∼V pairs claimed to be de-root because they tolerate semantic discrepancies also tolerate a phonological discrepancy in the form of a stress difference. By contrast, those pairs claimed to involve derivation of the V from an already categorized N show no stress difference; the verb inherits its stress from the corresponding noun:

(19) CLAIM: De-root → stress difference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. combine</td>
<td>combine</td>
<td>e. projet</td>
<td>projet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. déféct</td>
<td>déféct</td>
<td>f. rebél</td>
<td>rebél</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. subjéct</td>
<td>subjecct</td>
<td>g. condúct</td>
<td>condúct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. recórd</td>
<td>récord</td>
<td>h. prodúce</td>
<td>pródüce</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(20) CLAIM: De-nominal → stress inheritance
discipline, cónact, dócument, expériment, bálance, cόmment, hérald…(V & N)

We believe, however, that both the semantic and phonological sides of this argument should be understood differently, leaving no argument from these facts for the de-root vs. de-nominal distinction proposed by Arad. Once again, we begin with the semantic side of the argument. Though the contrast between (17) and (18) is real, it has a different source. Though scotch tape need not be used in order for an event to
be described as the *taping* of one object to another, *stickiness* must be relevant. Likewise, an event of *chaining* need not require a manufactured object called a *chain*, but there must be catenative structure to the fetter. To qualify as an act of *buttoning*, there must be a buttonoid linker between two flattish items, even if the linker was not created in a *button factory*. Finally, one is not *screwing* one object to another unless rotation is a crucial part of the attachment process, even if one is improvising by not using an item called a *screw* purchased in a hardware store. When these criteria are met, it is not required that the item conventionally named by the homophonous noun actually be a participant in the event invoked by the verb, as the contrast between (18) and (21) below shows. See Harley & Haugen (2007) for very similar observations (discussed also by Bleotu & Bloem 2020).

(21) a. She taped the picture to the wall with sticky yucca leaves.
    b. They chained the prisoners together with a vine.
    c. Jim buttoned up his shirt with paper clips.
    d. Screw the fixture to the wall with this bonsai pinecone!

Crucially, very similar requirements hold of the allegedly de-root verbs in (17):

(22) a. *I paddled the boat with an outboard motor mounted on the stern.
    b. *String him up with a thumbtack!
    c. *She anchored the boat by rowing against the current.
    d. *He hammered on the door with a strand of cooked spaghetti.

It is, of course, a fascinating and important task to understand what attribute of the object denoted by the noun is also crucial to the meaning of the verb in homophonous N–V pairs. Our much more modest goal here is simply to observe that there is no evidence that the mystery is any different in nature for tape/chain/button/screw than it is for paddle/string/anchor/hammer. We see no evidence for distinct classes of N–V pairs in the data discussed by Arad.

We believe that the phonological side of the proposal faces difficulties of comparable severity. Though there is indeed a contrast between stress-shifting N–V pairs and those with identical stress in both forms, initial stress is also observed in nouns clearly derived from end-stressed forms that are already categorized as verbs.

The forms in question are verb-particle combinations, which also have segmentally homophonous nominal counterparts. Crucially, these pairs show (what appears to be) the same stress shift as the alleged de-root pairs in (19) above:

(23) Verb-particle V–N pairs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>screw úp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>try óut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>send óff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td>run awáy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td>sit ín</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>tear dówn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g.</td>
<td>show óff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h.</td>
<td>throw úp</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The semantics of these pairs is also often unpredictable in a manner reminiscent of Arad’s claim concerning de-root derivation. While the verbs in the pairs below have compositional (as well as some other) meanings, the nouns are more or less limited to the meanings indicated (which in some cases, such as push-over are entirely unavailable to the verb).

(24) Verb-particle V–N pairs: semantic idiosyncracies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>push óver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>read óut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>come dówn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td>send óff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td>drive ín</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>run awáy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The semantics of these pairs is also often unpredictable in a manner reminiscent of Arad’s claim concerning de-root derivation. While the verbs in the pairs below have compositional (as well as some other) meanings, the nouns are more or less limited to the meanings indicated (which in some cases, such as push-over are entirely unavailable to the verb).

By Arad’s criteria, this N-particle–V-particle alternation must represent independent de-root nominaliza-
tion and verbalization, since we see distinct phonology and unpredictable semantics across the alternation. As far as we can tell, however, the non-nominal member of the pair (virtually) always has a use in English as a verb-particle combination. There is a noun *ramp-up because there is a verb-particle combination to ramp up. There is no *lamp-up because there is no verb to lamp up. Likewise there is the noun pay-off and a corresponding verbal form to pay off; but no noun *day-off because there is no verb *to day off. Likewise, given the absence of corresponding (particle-stressed) verbs.

6 Indeed, it is our subjective judgment that if the context creates a nonce form such as a verb to lamp up (meaning, perhaps, to fill a room with lamps), the corresponding noun (with initial stress) would be acceptable as well.

7 We are aware of only a very few counterexamples. One is the British balls-up, defined as “a bungled or badly carried out task or action; a mess”, which has no corresponding verb+particle alternant, and in fact has a nominal plural as its first component. Another is chin-up, as the name of an exercise, perhaps coined on the model of push-up and pull-up, also exercises, but not counterexamples to the claim that noun+particle combinations have verbal counterparts.

8 Of course stress was not marked in the web occurrences of these examples, but we are quite sure that the relevant forms are pronounced tape-up, chain-up, button-down and screw-in.

9 It is important to distinguish noun+particle combinations from collocations in which a noun is modified by a single-word directional adverbial: the way out, our journey home, my day off in the sense ‘my non-workday’. Neil Myler (personal communication) also notes the possibility of non-redundative -able adjectives with stranded prepositions, which show initial stress, but once more should be distinguished from verb+particle constructions: e.g. the house is liveable in.

10 Karlos Arregi and Donca Steriade (personal communications), as well as a WCCFL reviewer have suggested that the noun-particle stress pattern might result from an entirely different process than whatever yields the alternations in (19) — namely, the English compound stress rule. This rule also yields initial stress in two-word compounds (dog leash). If noun+particle were generated independently from verb+particle combinations, it is possible that the stress pattern of the nouns in (24) and (26) might result from the compound rule instead. Our observation that noun+particle combinations almost always have verbal counterparts already militates against independent generation, of course — as does the observation that the semantics of the nominal alternant almost always builds on the semantic idiosyncracies of the verbal variant, despite the measure of unpredictability discussed in the text. Also probably relevant is the fact that
those in (19), the verb is basic, and the noun derived from it, while when no stress shift is observed as in (20), the noun is basic, and the verb is derived from the noun. Like Arad, he posits a derivational distinction between these processes, with V→N derivation applying at “Level 1” of a level-ordered morphology, and N→V derivation at “Level 2”. One might imagine updating such a proposal with “Level 1” processes preceding and “Level 2” processes following a phase boundary, and then searching for new reasons why the phonology might be sensitive to this architecture. Our goal in this section has been more modest: to establish merely that this boundary is not the locus of part-of-speech categorization, since verbs are verbs both below and above this boundary.

5. Conclusion

We have shown that the empirical claims in Arad (2003, 2005) are not convincingly supported by the data. In particular, the claimed correlation between idiosyncratic and unpredictable semantics and phonology on the one hand, and root-derived (“de-root”) status on the other, does not seem to be borne out, both because of confounds in examples that were given as positive support for the correlation, and because of counterexamples that directly contradict it. We therefore conclude that these arguments, at least, fail to support the existence of category-neutral roots in the syntax.

References


to the extent that overt nominalizing morphemes are possible in particle constructions (with the well-known puzzle of affix reduplication), they preserve the verbal stress pattern: *picker-upper, putter-downer, pissed-offedness*. This suggests some property specific to zero derivation is at stake in the stress shift under discussion, not the compound stress rule.