Marantz 1997

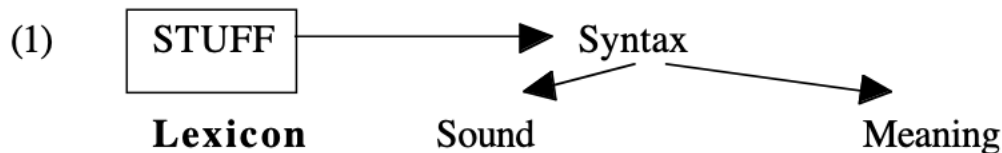## 0. Introduction

- Traditional generative architecture:

(1)

> **Lexicon**: place from which items are drawn for the syntax; the source of items used by the computational system of syntax (Marantz p. 1)
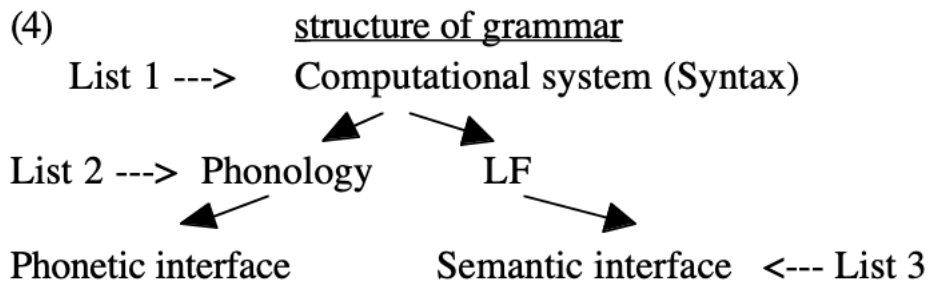
(2)   **Lexicalism**: "words are created in the Lexicon, by processes distinct from the syntactic processes of putting morphemes/words together. Some phonology and some structure/meaning connections are derived in the lexicon, while other aspects of phonology and other aspects of structure/meaning relations are derived in (and after) the syntax. " (Marantz 1997:1)

  - syntax manipulates internally complex words, not unanalyzable atomic units.
  - there has to be a list of sound/meaning connections for the atomic building blocks of language (=the "morphemes"). That list is the lexicon
  - The lexicon lists idiosyncratic properties associated with the building blocks
    - unpredictable/"unruly" composition (lexicon) vs. predictable/"ruly" composition (syntax)
  - We know things about words that we don't know about phrases and sentences; what we know about words is like what we would want to say we know about (atomic) morphemes.

(3)
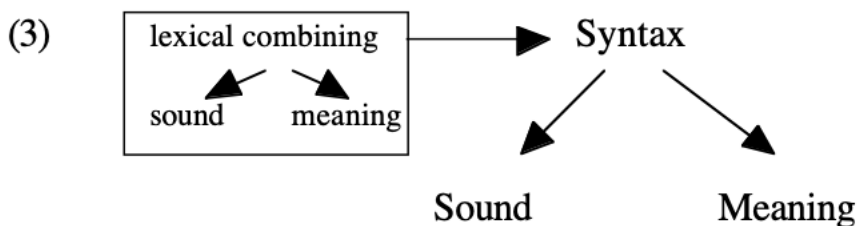
1. Distributed Morphology

- Distributed Morphology is a framework that assumes a grammar without lexicalist assumptions.
  - Still assumes a list of atomic elements (any theory must include one or more lists)
  - "Explodes" the Lexicon: assumes multiple, distributed, non-computational lists instead of a lexicon.

(4)   structure of grammar

List 1 ---> Computational system (Syntax)

List 2 ---> Phonology   LF

Phonetic interface   Semantic interface <--- List 3

- List 1 or the "**narrow lexicon**," most directly replaces the Lexicon (provides the units that syntax manipulates).
    - contains atomic roots and the atomic bundles of grammatical features
    - List 1 is "generative" (sets are freely formed, though subject to principles determined by UG and perhaps language-specific constraints [SB: recall Bobaljik paper])

- List 2 or the "**Vocabulary,**" provides the exponents for the terminal nodes in syntax (roots as well as bundles of grammatical features). Vocabulary items compete for insertion into syntax.
    - [SB: the vocabulary corresponds to the vocabulary lists we have worked with in Weeks 10-11]
    - The Vocabulary is non-generative but expandable.

- List 3 or the "**Encyclopedia**"—the list of special meanings.
    - lists the special meanings of particular roots, relative to the syntactic context of the roots, within local domains
    - Encyclopedia is non-generative but expandable.

- Marantz (p. 205): "imagine a theory in which the grammar constructs all words in the syntax by the same general mechanisms ("merge and move"; see Chomsky 1995) that construct phrases"
    - "whether you get a "zero-level category" (word-like unit) or a phrasal category by merging two constituents is a function of the (categories of the) constituents involved, not of the ... operation itself. "

2. Special sound, special meaning and special structure/meaning correspondences don't coincide in the word

- Lexicalism claims special status for word-size units:
   - Special sound

- o   Special meaning
- o   Special structure/meaning correspondences

- Marantz rejects the assumption that word-size units are special in these respects

2.1 Special sound: Lexicon as locus of prosodic words or of "lexical phonological rules"

- Units of various sizes play a role in phonology. (SB: E.g. prosodic phonology (involves units as small as moras and syllables and as large as phrases).
  - o   The general lesson from prosodic phonology is that it is always necessary to "construct" a prosodic structure at every level, including the word level.
  - o   Phonologists have never claimed that "phonological word" corresponds to an atom of syntax. Mismatches can arise.

- Lexical vs. Post-lexical phonology (SB: this corresponds to our morphologically-sensitive (MS) vs across-the-board (ATB) phonology from Week 4) arguably does not neatly distinguish lexical items from larger structure.
  - o   There are cases of MS rules targetting elements larger than words
  - o   There are cases of ATB rules targetting elements smaller than words
  - o   But even if it were established that actually MS rules target words and ATB rules target larger units, this could still be captured without assuming lexicon (it could implemented post-syntactically).

2.2 Special meaning: Lexicon as locus of idiosyncratic "word" knowledge

- Lexicalist idea : lexicon provides sound/meaning correspondences for word-size units; syntax does so for larger units made up of words.
  - o   words can have special meanings of the sorts that roots might have
  - o   syntactic structures must have meanings predictable from the meanings of their parts and of their structures

- Marantz: The special meanings of phrasal idioms are no different from the special meanings of words. There is no sharp divide between them.

(5) a.   Take a leap
     b.   Take a leak
     c.   Take a piss
     d.   Take a break
     e.   Take five
     f.   Take cover, issue, heart, over, up, down.......

- Meanwhile, it's not true that special meanings can obtain just anywhere. Both within phrases and within words there are domains where special meanings cannot occur.

(6)   boundary for domain of special meaning

   agent

                           v

        head projecting agent
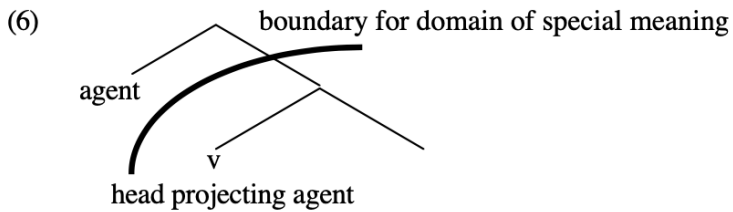
(7) a. No idioms with fixed agents
        (root in agent position, context for special meaning within
        the VP)
    b. No eventive-passive idioms, but possible non-eventive
        stative idioms

    c. No idioms with causative morpheme and lower agentive
        verb, but possible idioms with causative and lower non-
        agentive verb

Prediction (7a): idioms can't include ("fixed") agentive pieces (follows from (6))
        — root material in the agent phrase would have to be getting a special meaning
          (from Encyclopedia) in the context of some structure below the boundary in (6)
          (i.e. below head that introduces the agent)
        — e.g. "The shit hit the fan," must be non-agentive ("the shit" is fixed part of the
          idiom, but most be introduced below the boundary in (6))

Prediction (7b): suported by the literature on differences between so-called "adjectival"
passives" and "syntactic passives."
        — "adjectival"—really, stative—passives are "created with a functional head
          merging below the head that projects agents"
        — eventive (agentive) passives are "formed with a functional head merging above
          (or as) the head which projects agents."

Stative passive idioms in Chichewa:

(9) a. Chimanga chi- ku-   gul -idwa ku-msika.
         corn   AGR-PROG-buy-PASS   at-market
        'Corn is being bought at the market.'
        [no idiomatic reading, and none possible with passive]
    b. Chimanga chi- ku- gul -ika   ku-msika.
        corn   AGR-PROG-buy-STAT at-market
        'Corn is cheap at the market.'
        [idiomatic reading of 'buy' in the context of STAT]
    c. Chaka chatha chimanga chi- na-   lim -idwa.
        year   last   corn   AGR-PROG-cultivate-PASS
        'Last year corn was cultivated.'
    d. Chaka chatha chimanga chi- na-   lim   -ika.
        year   last   corn   AGR-PROG-cultivate-STAT
        'Last year corn was bountiful.'

2.3 Special structure/meaning correspondences: Lexicon as locus of computation with the same function as syntactic computation, only different

- Structure cannot have special meaning assigned to it, it must be interpreted in a systematic way.

p. 212: "Thus, for example, "transmission" can't mean what "blick" could mean and "kick the bucket" can't mean "die" (cf. Ruwet 1991 and Nunberg et al. 1994)."
  — "Nouns like "transmission," "ignition," and "administration" carry the semantic implication of their internal structure, which includes an aspectual pre-verb, a verbal stem, and a nominalizing suffix. If these words refer to things, then these things should be for accomplishing something—and this is in fact the case."
  — "... "die" does not have the same aspectual properties as "kick the bucket," which itself carries the semantic implications of a transitive verb phrase with a definite direct object (and thus "kick the bucket" is aspectually similar to "pass away," whereas "die" is more like "jump" or, perhaps, "fall"). So one can say, "he was dying for three weeks before the end," but not, "*he was kicking the bucket for three weeks....""

- "No one has shown or even tried to argue that words have special structure/meaning correspondences in some sense that phrasal idioms don't."
  — "...I would like to insist that neither phrasal idioms nor derived words have special structure/meaning correspondences. However, it is sufficient that this issue of special structure/meaning correspondences doesn't pick out the Word. The same issue arises for phrasal idioms. "

- Marantz (p. 212-213_ "What about the intuition behind lexicalism, that words are special? I think this intuition results from the mistaking the role of roots in the language for the role of Words. Things with special meaning are roots. Generally (or, often), there's one root/Word. The functional categories that attach to roots in Words often include boundaries that separate domains of special meaning. So Words often are islands of special meaning, and Words are usually also identified by their root content, where the roots are the items subject to special contextual meanings."