The Syntax, Semantics and Pragmatics of the Get Verbs in English and Arabic:
A Contrastive Study

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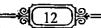A Contrastive Study

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Abstract

The main objective of the present study is to identify the syntactic and semantic properties of the *Get* verbs in English and Arabic. Basically, verbs of the same semantic class are found to share some common semantic features but differ in some other meaning components which determine the number of arguments required by a verb as well as its syntactic properties. The present study aims at highlighting the role played by a verb's meaning in determining its syntactic properties. It is concluded that English *Get* verbs allow for the benefactive alternation but do not allow for the locative alternation. As for the dative alternation, the *Get* verbs in English only permit the DO construction. Unlike English, MSA does not allow for the benefactive, the dative and the locative alternations. Finally, the *Get* verbs in the two languages allow for the use of a *from* phrase and a sum of money as their subject with some restrictions.

Key words: *Get* Verbs, Verb Classes, Thematic Roles, Contrastive Analysis, Verb Alternation, Pragmatics.

1. Introduction

This study is mainly concerned with the class of verbs. The syntax and semantics of this class are mutually linked to each other that either of them is a key to understanding the other. Once the properties of one of them are revealed, the properties of the other are

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immediately uncovered. Interestingly, this intimate tie "between verb behavior and verb meaning is not particular to English" (Levin 1993: 10). Arabic also exhibits this interaction because verb meaning determines verb behavior. The pragmatics of the class of verbs is of chief importance as it allows for the realization of "different information structures" (Krifka 2003: 13). The present study compares and contrasts the semantic, syntactic and pragmatic properties of the *Get* verbs in both English and Arabic to detect the similarities and differences between the two languages. As a matter of fact, this class of verbs is very productive. "By 'productive' we mean simply that the classes exemplified by the verbs . . . are well represented in the English lexicon" (Hale and Keyser 1999: 50). The productivity of Arabic *Get* verbs is also unquestionable as it is shown in Appendix 3.

1.1 The interaction between meaning and grammar

Bloomfield (1932: 274) confirms the connection that exists between meaning and grammar stating that "the lexicon is really an appendix of the grammar, a list of basic irregularities. This is all the more evident if meanings are taken into consideration." This extract entails that the connection between meaning and grammar is reciprocal. That is, meaning determines grammar and grammar is predicted from meaning (Levin 1993: 5). Dixon (2005: 6) also

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seconds this interrelation between meaning and grammar confirming that "as language is used, meaning is both the beginning and the end point." He also adds:

> When a speaker of a language encounters a new word they may first of all learn its meaning, and will then have a fair idea of the morphological and syntactic possibilities. Or they may first of all learn something of how to use the word grammatically, and this will help them to work out its meaning (Dixon 2005: 6).

As far as grammar is concerned, words in a language are sorted into classes which share common meaning elements. Accordingly, they are further arranged into semantic types. Again, this twofold classification assures the interaction between the semantics of words and their syntactic properties.

1.2 The objective of the present study

The main objective of the present study is to identify the syntactic and semantic properties of the Arabic *Get* verbs. The identification of the similarities and differences between English and Arabic with respect to verb alternations is also dealt with in this study. The pragmatic properties of the *Get* verbs in both English and Arabic are also referred to.

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2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

It is well-known that the meaning of a sentence is determined by the meanings of its constituent parts. The thematic roles assigned to the individual arguments in a sentence help in determining the meanings of these arguments and consequently, in determining the meaning of the entire sentence. "The list of thematic roles associated with a particular word is called a thematic grid" (Fasold and Connor-Linton 2006: 143). For example, in *John hit the ball*, the verb *hit* has the thematic grid: <agent, patient> represented by *John* and *the ball*, respectively. Again, in *the sun ripened the fruit*, the verb *ripen* has the thematic grid: <cause, theme> represented by *the sun* and *the fruit*, respectively. A third example is *the fruit ripened*, in which the verb *ripen* has the thematic grid: <theme>. Because the verb *ripen* has two thematic grids, it can be used, as shown in the examples above, both transitively and intransitively. This is how "the meaning of a word often influences how it fits into syntax" (Fasold and Connor-Linton 2006: 144).

Moreover, thematic roles are also useful in detecting the minute difference in meaning between synonymous lexical items. Hudson (2000: 277) differentiates between the meanings of verbs *listen to* and *hear* in *The man listened to the song* and *The man heard the song* by stating that the subjects of the two sentences are

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not semantically the same. In the first sentence, the subject has the thematic role *agent* whereas the subject of the second has the thematic role *experiencer*. In other words, the thematic role of the subject states whether the subject's participation in the action described is active or passive. Another interesting issue mentioned by Hudson (2000: 285) is the case when the thematic roles *agent* and *patient* are assigned to the same noun phrase at the same time as in *Tom shaved*. (= *Tom shaved himself*.)

2.2 Verb Valency

The valency of verbs refers to "the number of noun phrases they require to complete a sentence" (Richards, J., Platt, J. and Weber, H. 1985: 76). Lyons (1977: II/486) extends this definition to include not only the number of arguments but their semantic roles as well. He states:

> But valency covers more than simply the number of expressions with which a verb may or must be combined in a well-formed sentence-nucleus. It is also intended to account for differences in the membership of the sets of expressions that may be combined with different verbs. For example, 'give' and 'put', in their most common uses, both have a valency of 3, but they differ with respect to one of the three expressions which . . . they may be said to govern: 'give' governs a subject, a direct object and an indirect object; and 'put' governs a subject, a direct object, and a directional locative.

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In the above-mentioned case, although both 'give' and 'put' govern the same number of noun phrases, they are said to differ in valency which means that they are grouped under two different valency-sets.

Moreover, Comrie (1985: 312-313) claims that the same verb participates in forming "semantically well-formed sentences" (312) with a change in valency. He states:

> For instance, the verb *read* can appear with only a direct object (*Mother is reading a book*), with no object at all (*Mother is reading*), or with an indirect object, usually in addition to the direct object (*Mother is reading a book to John*). In English, as so often, these differences in valency are not marked by any changes in the forms of the verb.
>
> (313)

In Arabic, however, the case is different. An example is the case when prefixing the causative prefix /?a/ at the beginning of the triliteral verb as in the following example:

(1) a. xafiyaa   l-qamar-u   (one argument)

      hid   Def.-moon-Nom.

      'The moon is out of view.'

  b. ?axfaa   s-sahaab-u   l-qamar-a   (two arguments)

      hid   Def.-cloud-   Def.- moon-Acc.

           Pl-Nom.

      'The clouds hid the moon.'

(translation mine; Hasan 1996: II/165)

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It is worth mentioning that there is another verb with the same meaning as /xafiyaa/ 'hid' which is /?ixtafaa/ 'hid' and it also takes one argument as follows:

c. ?ixtafaa   l-qamar-u   (one argument)

    hid   Def.-moon-Nom.

   'The moon is out of view.'

The only difference between the two verbs is in form but they have the same meaning and the same number of arguments.

(The variety of Arabic used in the present study is Modern Standard Arabic. See Appendix 1 for the phonemic symbols used in the transcription of Arabic forms).

Fillmore (1977: 89) relates this issue of "valence" description to the so-called "selection restrictions." He states that "we need to know for each word [verb] what scene, or cluster of linked scenes, is to be activated by it; how, with a given meaning relative to a given scene, it is to be combined with other lexical elements, and what grammatical relations these will hold with each other." He also believes that this sort of information is "required of a notation system for the lexicon."

2.3 Semantic roles

Verbs are sorted together in one semantic type if they require the same semantic roles. Dixon (2005: 10) cites that "all GIVING

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verbs require a Donor, a Gift and a Recipient, as in *John gave a bouquet to Mary.* . . . All ATTENTION verbs take a Perceiver and an Impression . . ., as in *I heard the crash.*" In other words, all *giving* verbs require three semantic roles, while all *attention* verbs require only two. These semantic roles correspond to some grammatical functions at the syntactic level. In the above extract, the **donor** *John* corresponds to the subject, the **gift** *a bouquet* corresponds to the direct object and the **recipient** *Mary* corresponds to the indirect object. Moreover, Levin (1999: 224) claims that syntactic notions like "object", for example, are not very indicative with respect to theta-roles and that some arguments have multiple theta-roles. She cites the following sentences as an example. These sentences have the same subject and the same object but they have different verbs. This results in assigning the object of every sentence a different thematic role as follows:

(2) The engineer cracked the bridge. (patient)

The engineer destroyed the bridge. (patient/consumed object)

The engineer painted the bridge. (incremental theme . . .)

The engineer moved the bridge. (theme)

The engineer built the bridge. (effected object/factitive . . .)

The engineer washed the bridge. (Location/surface)

The engineer hit the bridge. (Location . . .)

The engineer crossed the bridge. (path)

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The engineer reached the bridge. (goal)

The engineer left the bridge. (source)

The engineer saw the bridge. (stimulus/object of perception)

The engineer hated the bridge. (stimulus/target or object of emotion)

Again the number of semantic roles determines the transitivity of verbs. Lyons (1977: II/486) states that "what is traditionally described as a transitive verb is a verb which has a valency of 2 and governs a direct object," as in *The little girl loves cookies*. This sentence presents a good example in which the verb *love* has a valency of 2 arguments and governs a direct object that is *cookies*. Accordingly, what is traditionally described as an intransitive verb is a verb which has one semantic role as verb *smile* in *The little girl smiled*.

2.4 Semantic classes of verbs:

Levin (1993) classifies English verbs into classes according to their semantic contents such as verbs of bodily processes, verbs of killing, verbs of emission, verbs of communication, verbs of searching, verbs of social interaction, verbs of existence and verbs of dressing. The investigation of verb classes in relation to verb alternation such as benefactive alternation, dative alternation and locative alternation leads to "the identification of the linguistically relevant meaning components which determine a verb's behavior"

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(Levin 1993: 15). This identification is of uppermost importance because verbs are basic elements in a sentence structure. Mahmoud (1999: 37) states:

> Not only do verbs determine the selection of arguments within a clause, but they also determine the way in which these arguments are organized in syntactic patterns. Thus, the investigation of the semantic classes of verbs and the syntactic alternations associated with them will help in reaching a better understanding of the interrelation between lexical semantics and syntax.

What needs to be kept in mind is that the internalized knowledge of the language, which includes knowledge of the meanings of individual lexical items including verbs and knowledge of syntactic rules, enables the language user to specify "the meaning components that determine the syntactic behavior of verbs" (Levin 1993: 11), and this is revealed in his/her linguistic performance. In this context, what needs to be stated is that "verbs belonging to the same class are syntactic 'synonyms'" (Levin 1993: 21).

2.5 Review of Literature

Among the studies that dealt with *Get* verbs in English, as cited by Levin (1993: 141) and including it, are Channon (1982): "3→2 Advancement, Beneficiary Advancement, and *With*"; Croft (1985): "Indirect Object 'Lowering'"; Fillmore (1977): "Topics in Lexical Semantics"; Ikegami (1973): "A Set of Basic Patterns for the Semantic Structure of the Verb" ; Jackendoff (1992): "On the Role

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of Conceptual Structure in Argument Selection: A Reply to Emonds"; Kimball (1973): "Get" ; and Levin (1993): "English Verb Classes and Alternations". As far as I know, no work was done on the Arabic *Get* verbs. Among the studies that dealt with verb classes and alternations in both English and Arabic are Mahmoud (1999): "A Contrastive Study of the Semantic, Syntactic and Morphological Properties of the Psych-Verbs in English and Arabic: Implications for Translation"; Mahmoud (1999): "The Syntax and Semantics of Some Locative Alternations in Arabic and English"; Mahmoud (2003): "The Syntax and Semantics of the Substance Removing Verbs in Arabic and English." and Mahmoud (2004): "The Syntactic and Semantic Properties of 'Oblique' Subject Alternations in Arabic and English."

3. Analysis of the *Get* verbs in English

The *Get* verbs constitute a subclass of the verbs of obtaining which, in turn, constitute a subclass of verbs of Change of Possession. As indicated by Levin (1993: 141-142), the class members of the *Get* verbs share a set of properties and exhibit some syntactic alternations as shown in the next part.

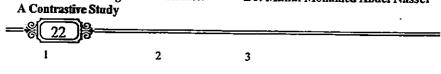3.1 The number of arguments required by the *Get* verbs in English

1	2	3
recipient	theme	field/content

(3) Ahmed got an M.A. (in medicine).

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1	2	3
agent	patient	location

(4) Maryam booked a ticket (at the railway station).

1	2	3
agent	patient	location

(5) Maryam picked some flowers (at the garden).

1	2	3
recipient	theme	field/content

(6) Ahmed gained experience (in business management).

1	2	3
agent	theme	location

(7) Ahmed found the keys (at home).

In the above examples, the *Get* verbs take three arguments. However, the third argument is optional. Toivonen (2013: 503) states that a "frequently cited criterion for argumenthood is obligatoriness." However, by means of the so-called "the alternation test, PPs that alternate with subject or object NPs are arguments" (505).

3.2 The Use of a *from* phrase with the *Get* verbs

(8) Ahmed got an M.A. in medicine from Assiut Unversity.

(9) Maryam booked a ticket from the railway station.

(10) Maryam picked some flowers from the garden.

(11) Ahmed gained experience from abroad.

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(12) *Ahmed found the keys from home.

As shown in the above examples, most *Get* verbs allow a *from* phrase (Levin 1993: 142). The only exception is example no. (12) which is marked as ungrammatical. This is because verb *find* does not allow a prepositional phrase headed by *from* which indicates 'source'. However, it allows a prepositional phrase headed by *in* which indicates 'containment' and 'enclosure' as in the following example:

(13) Ahmed found the keys in his pocket.

3.3 Benefactive Alternation

(14) a. Ahmed got the golden cup for his team.

b. Ahmed got his team the golden cup.

(15) a. Maryam booked a ticket for her mother.

b. Maryam booked her mother a ticket.

(16) a. Maryam picked some flowers for her mother.

b. Maryam picked her mother some flowers.

(17) a. Ahmed gained some profits for his company.

b. Ahmed gained his company some profits.

(18) a. Ahmed found the keys for his father.

b. Ahmed found his father the keys.

As shown in examples (14-18), the members of the *Get* verbs participate in the benefactive alternation. The benefactive argument is expressed in sentences (14.a, 15.a, 16.a, 17.a, and 18.a) in a

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prepositional phrase headed by *for*. While in sentences (14.b, 15.b, 16.b, 17.b and 18.b), it is expressed as the first object, in the double object variant, represented by *his team, her mother, her mother, his company* and *his father*, respectively. Obviously, the benefactive alternation allows for a variation in information structures and accordingly, it performs a pragmatic function. In the (a) sentences (14-18), the benefactive argument appears in the end-focus position, while in the (b) sentences (14-18), it is the theme that occupies the end-focus position.

Levin (1993: 49) states that the benefactive alternation "resembles the dative alternation, and it is even sometimes subsumed under it. It differs from the dative alternation in involving the benefactive preposition *for* rather than the goal preposition *to* in the prepositional variant." The benefactive preposition *for* imposes the thematic role, beneficiary on the nominal it governs (Otsuka 2006: 260). "Beneficiary" is used to "designate that argument in the initial structure for whose benefit an action is performed" (Channon 1982: 272). As for the notion of *change of possession* which is a covering term of the *get* verbs in Levin's (1993) classification of verbs, it is manifested in the double object construction. Partee (2005: 6) claims that "the DO construction implies resulting possession, whereas the PO construction does not."

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3.4 *Dative Alternation

(19) a. *Ahmed got the golden cup to his team.

    b. Ahmed got his team the golden cup.

(20) a. *Maryam booked a ticket to her mother.

    b. Maryam booked her mother a ticket.

(21) a. *Maryam picked some flowers to her mother.

    b. Maryam picked her mother some flowers.

(22) a.*Ahmed gained experience to his colleagues.

    b. Ahmed gained his colleagues experience.

(23) a. *Ahmed found the keys to his father.

    b. Ahmed found his father the keys.

As shown in the above examples, the dative alternation has two frames: the prepositional object frame which is shown in sentences (19.a, 20.a, 21. a, 22. a and 23.a) and the double object frame which is shown in sentences nos. (19.b, 20.b, 21.b, 22.b and 23.b). Partee (2005: 3) claims that "the PO frame expresses **movement** of an object **to a goal**; the DO frame implies **change of possession**." In other words, the NP denoting the theme in the PO frame must undergo movement. The reason why sentences (19.a, 20.a, 21.a, 22.a, and 23.a) are marked as ungrammatical is that there is no implied movement, in these sentences, of an object to a goal.

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Rappaport Hovav and Levin (2008: 129) assign each dative alternation frame a distinct meaning described as follows: "a caused possession meaning realized by the double object variant and a caused motion meaning realized by the *to* variant." They call this approach "the multiple meaning approach" and consider it to be currently dominant. They elaborate the notions of possession and motion stating that in the PO frame using Goldberg's (1995) characterization: "an agent causes a theme to move along a path to a goal, where the movement and path are interpreted in the possessional field," whereas in the DO frame an agent causes "a recipient to possess an entity, with the notion of possession construed broadly" (Rappaport Hovav and Levin 2008: 130).

Otsuka (2006: 258) differentiates between the two dative alternation frames from the point of view of thematic roles. Otsuka states that "the difference between the prepositional dative and the double object dative forms is simply which thematic role, Goal or Recipient, is profiled." As for the *goal* phrase, it sometimes represents a kind of restriction when the indirect object is used as the first object in the DO construction. Levin (1993: 48) calls this restriction "an animacy restriction . . . where the notion animate extends to include organizations and corporate bodies." Consider the following example:

(24) a. Beth sent a package to London.

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b.* Beth sent London a package.

The reason why sentence (24.b) is ungrammatical is that the NP representing the indirect object "must satisfy the **selectional restrictions** for possession" (Krifka 2003: 3). However, the same sentence could be acceptable if "*London* is used to represent via metonymy the London office of a company or the British government . . . " (Levin 1993: 48). In sum, there must be a possession bond between the direct and the indirect objects. As for the verb, it must require "a transfer of possession of the direct object from the subject to the indirect object and the indirect object must be capable of possession" (Daultrey 1997: 7). The capability of possession is exactly what Levin (1993: 48) refers to as the animacy restriction.

Commenting on the constraints on dative constructions in English, Larson (1988: 369) claims that "the oblique-double object alternation is not fully productive in English." He also states that "there are well-known verbs like *donate* and *distribute* that appear in the oblique dative construction but have no double object counterpart . . . and there are verbs like *envy* and *spare* that occur in double object constructions with no well-formed oblique 'source' . . .." As for the *Get* verbs, the only permissible frame is the DO construction which implies change of possession while the PO

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frame is not acceptable because the direct object must undergo movement which is not implied in the meanings of the *Get* verbs.

3.5 *Locative Alternation

(25) a. Ahmed got an M.A. in medicine from Assiut University.

b* Ahmed got Assiut University of an M.A. in medicine.

(26) a. Maryam booked a ticket from the railway station.

b.*Maryam booked the railway station of a ticket.

(27) a. Maryam picked some flowers from the garden.

b.* Maryam picked the garden of some flowers.

(28) a. Ahmed gained experience from abroad.

b. * Ahmed gained abroad of an experience.

(29) a. Ahmed found the keys in his pocket.

b.*Ahmed found his pocket of the keys.

The above examples (25-29) show that the *Get* verbs in the (a) sentences make well-formed sentences that include the locative argument expressed in a PP headed by *from* that indicates source, except for the last example in which it is headed by *in* that indicates 'containment'. However, alternation between the locative argument and the theme represented by the direct object is not allowed. That is why all the (b) sentences in examples (25-29) are marked as ungrammatical.

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Although the *Get* verbs do not allow for the locative alternation, the "putting" and "removing" verbs do, as indicated by Levin (2006). She claims that "a verb's meaning consists of a root - or "core" meaning that is associated with an event structure template, indicating a verb's basic event type. . . . the specific alternations attested in English arise from the nature of the verb roots themselves" (Levin 2006: 2). Interestingly, Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995: 218) state that the locative inversion is also possible with the restriction that "the verb in the locative inversion construction must be intransitive."

3.6 Sum of Money Subject Alternation (some verbs)

(30) a. Ahmed got an M.A. in medicine for ten thousand pounds.

b. Ten thousand pounds won't even get an M.A. in medicine at Assiut University.

(31) a. Maryam booked a ticket at the railway station for seventy-five pounds

b. Seventy-five pounds won't even book a ticket at the railway station.

(32) a. Maryam picked some flowers at the garden for 20 pounds.

b. 20 pounds won't even pick some flowers at the garden.

(33) a. Ahmed gained experience in business management for a hundered dollars.

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b. A hundred dollars won't even gain experience in business

management.

(34) a.* Ahmed found the keys, at home, for 50 pounds.

b.* 50 pounds won't even find the keys at home.

In the above examples (30-33), the (a) sentences are permitted on the ground that *for* means *in return for*. As for the (b) sentences, they take "a sum of money as their subject," (Levin 1993: 142), which is *only* permitted "for those verbs where the process of obtaining involves a transfer of money" (Levin 1993: 142). However, example (34) is marked as unacceptable because the process of finding the lost items does not involve 'a transfer of money.' As a matter of fact, the use of the sum of money subject alternation has a pragmatic function in that it allows for a "presentational focus" (Mendikoetxea 2006: 2) received by the sum of money subject and in so doing, it allows for variation in the information structures.

4. Analysis of the *Get* verbs in Arabic

English and Arabic have different word order or rather different syntactic structures and accordingly different typological features. While English is a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) language, Arabic is a Verb-Subject-Object (VSO) language. Yet Arabic permits the same word order as English (SVO) but under certain circumstances. Mahmoud (2004: 247) states that

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Arabic is basically a verb-subject-object (VSO)
language, even though it allows for SVO
constructions via topicalization. This means that both
the VSO and the SVO orders are possible in Arabic:
the former is basic and the latter is derived via the
topicalization of the subject. The selection between
VSO and SVO constructions is in most cases
conditioned by discourse factors.

In other words, the VSO word order is the initial and most basic
syntactic structure in Arabic and it is represented by sentences (36-
39) below. However, the SVO word order, as in *?ar-rajul ?akala*
tuffaaħatan 'The man ate an apple,' is only permitted whenever an
attempt of rearranging syntactic items is undertaken.

4.1 The number of arguments required by the *Get* verbs in Arabic

	1		2
	recipient		**theme**
(35) ħaSal-a	?aħmad-u	9ala	maajisteer
got	Ahmed-Nom.	on	Indef.-master degree-Gen.

3
field/content
fii   T-Tibb-i
in Def.-medicine-Gen.
'Ahmed got an M.A. in medicine.'

	1	2	
	agent	**patient**	
(36) hajazat	maryam-u	taðkarat-an	fii
booked	Maryam-Nom.	Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc.	at

3
location
mahaTTat-i   s-sikka   l-ħadiid-i
Indef.-station-Gen.   Def.-way-Gen.   Def.-rail-Gen.
'Maryam booked a ticket at the railway station.'

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              1   2

          agent   patient

(37) qaTafat   maryam-u   ba9D-a   l-?azhaar-i

    picked   Maryam-Nom. Some-Acc. Def.-flower-pl-Gen.

       3

      location

      fii l-hadiiqat-i

      in Def.-garden-Gen.

'Maryam picked some flowers at the garden.'

               1   2

         recipient   theme

(38) ?iktasab-a   ?ahmad-u   xibrat-an   fii

    gained   Ahmed-Nom. Indef.-experience-Acc. in

       3

      field/content

      ?idaarat-i   l-?a9maal-i

    Indef.-management-Gen.   Def.-business-Gen.

  'Ahmed gained experience in business management.'

              1   2

         agent   theme

(39) wajad-a   ?ahmad-u   l-mafaatiih-a

    found   Ahmed-Nom.   Def.-key-pl-Acc.

      3

      location

      fii   l-manzil-i

      in   Def.-home-Gen.

    'Ahmed found the keys at home.'

The above examples from (36-39) indicate that the Arabic *Get* verbs take two basic arguments represented by the subject and the direct object, in addition to a third optional one that appears in the final PP. As for verb /haSal-a/ 'got' in example (35), it is intransitive and takes 3 arguments through the use of prepositions.

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4.2 The use of a *from* phrase with the Arabic *Get* verbs

(40) ħaSal-a   ?aħmad-u   9ala   maajisteer
   got   Ahmed-Nom.   on   Indef.-master degree-Gen.
   fii   T-Tibb-i   min   jaami9at-i   ?asyuuT-a
   in Def.-medicine-Gen. from Indef.-university-Gen. Assiut-Gen.
   'Ahmed got an M.A. in medicine from Assiut University.'

(41) ħajazat   maryam-u   taðkarat-an   **min**
   booked   Maryam-Nom.   Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc.   from
   mahaTTat-i   s-sikka   l-ħadiid-i
   Indef.-station-Gen. Def.-way-Gen. Def.-rail-Gen.
   'Maryam booked a ticket from the railway station.'

(42) qaTafat   maryam-u   ba9D-a   l-?azhaar-i
   picked   Maryam-Nom.   some-Acc.   Def.-flower-pl-Gen.
   mina   **l-ħadiiqat-i**
   from   Def.-garden-Gen.
   'Maryam picked some flowers from the garden.'

(43) ?iktasab-a   ?aħmad-u   xibrat-an   **mina**
   gained   Ahmed-Nom.   Indef.-experience-Acc.   from
   l-xaarij-i
   Def.-abroad-Gen.
   'Ahmed gained experience from abroad.'

(44) wajada   ?aħmad-u   l-mafaatiiħ-a
   found   Ahmed-Nom.   Def.-key-pl-Acc.
   *mina   **l-manzil-i**
   from   Def.-home-Gen.
   'Ahmed found the keys *from home.'

Obviously, MSA allows for the use of a *from* phrase in examples
(40-43) represented by the PP headed by /mina/ 'from.' On the other

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hand, it does not allow for the same thing in example (44) which is

marked as unacceptable.

4.3 *Benefactive Alternation

(45) a. ḥaSal-a   ?aḥmad-u   9ala   l-ka?s-i
         got   Ahmed-Nom.   on   Def.-cup-Gen.
      ð-ðahabiyat-i   li-fariiqih-i
      Def.-golden-Gen.   for-his team-Gen.
      'Ahmed got the golden cup for his team.'

   b. *ḥaSal-a   ?aḥmad-u   fariiqahu   l-ka?s-a
         got   Ahmed-Nom.   his team-Acc. Def.-cup-Acc
      ð-ðahabiyat-a
      Def.-golden-Acc.
      'Ahmed got his team the golden cup.'

(46) a. ḥajazat   maryam-u   taðkarat-an
         booked   Maryam-Nom.   Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc.
      li-?ummihaa
      for-her mother-Gen.
      'Maryam booked a ticket for her mother.'

   b.*ḥajazat   maryam-u   ?ummahaa   taðkarat-an
      booked Maryam-Nom. her mother-Acc. Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc.
      'Maryam booked her mother a ticket.'

(47) a. qaTafat   maryam-u   ba9D-a
         picked   Maryam-Nom.   some-Acc.
      l-?azhaar-i   li-?ummihaa
      Def.-flower-pl-Gen.   for-her mother-Gen.
      'Maryam picked some flowers for her mother.'

   b.*qaTafat   maryam-u   ?ummahaa   ba9D-a
      picked   Maryam-Nom.   her mother-Acc. some-Acc.

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l-?azhaar-i
Def.-flower-pl-Gen.
'Maryam picked her mother some flowers.'

(48) a. kasab-a   ?ahmad-u   ba9D-a
      gained   Ahmed-Nom.   some-Acc.
      l-?arbaah-i   li-šarikatih-i
      Def.-profit-pl-Gen.   for- his company-Gen.
      'Ahmed gained some profits for his company.'

   b.*kasab-a   ?ahmad-u   šarikatahu   ba9D-a
      gained   Ahmed-Nom.   his company-Acc. some-Acc.
      l-?arbaah-i
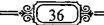   Def.-profit-pl-Gen.
      'Ahmed gained his company some profits.'

(49) a.wajad-a ?ahmad-u   l-mafaatiih-a   li-?abiih-i
      found   Ahmed-Nom. Def.-key-pl-Acc.   for-his father-Gen.
      'Ahmed found the keys for his father.'

   b.*wajad-a ?ahmad-u   ?abaah-u   l-mafaatiih-a
      found   Ahmed-Nom.   his father-Acc. Def.-key-pl-Acc.
      'Ahmed found his father the keys.'

As shown in examples (45-49), MSA allows for a benefactive /li-/
'for' prepositional phrase, but it does not allow for the benefactive
alternation. This is simply because verb /haSal-a/ 'got' in (45.b) is an
intransitive verb and the verbs /hajazat/ 'booked' (46.b), /qaTafat/
'picked' (47.b), /kasab-a/ 'gained' (48.b) and /wajad-a/ 'found' (49.b)
are mono-transitive verbs. That is why the DO construction is not
permitted and the (b) sentences are marked as unacceptable.

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For the benefactive alternation to be permitted in MSA, the Arabic triliteral verb should be prefixed by /ʔa/ or its second radical should be doubled (translation mine; Hasan 1996: II/165-166). Consider the following examples:

(50) ħaSSal-a ʔaħmad-u fariiqahu l-ka?s-a ð-ðahabiyat-a
     got   Ahmed-Nom. his team-Acc. Def.-cup-Acc. Def.-golden-Acc.
     'Ahmed got his team the golden cup.'

(51) kassab-a ʔaħmad-u šarikatahu ba9D-a l-ʔarbaaħ-i
gained Ahmed-Nom. his company-Acc. some-Acc. Def.-profit-pl-Gen.
     'Ahmed gained his company some profits.'

(52) ʔaksab-a ʔaħmad-u šarikatahu ba9D-a l-ʔarbaaħ-i
gained Ahmed-Nom. his company-Acc.some-Acc.Def.-profit-pl-Gen.
     'Ahmed gained his company some profits.'

It is clear that in examples (50-52), the verbs, by means of doubling the second radical in (50) and (51) and prefixing the causative prefix /ʔa/ in (52), become ditransitive. Accordingly, the DO construction is permitted allowing for the benefactive alternation in these three examples. Consequently, the second argument, in each of the above examples represented by /fariiqahu/ 'his team' in (50) and /šarikatahu/ 'his company' in (51) and (52), respectively, implies the notion of the *change of possession*. As stated above in (3.3), it is obvious that the benefactive alternation allows for a variation in information structures and, accordingly, it performs a pragmatic function. In the (a) sentences (45 and 48), the benefactive argument

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appears in the end-focus position, while in sentences (50-52), it is

the **theme** that occupies the end-focus position.

4.4 *Dative Alternation

(53) a. ħaSal-a   ?ahmad-u   9ala   l-ka?s-i
       got   Ahmed-Nom.   on   Def.-cup-Gen.
       ð-ðahabiyat-i   li-fariiqih-i
       Def.-golden-Gen.   to-his team-Gen.
       'Ahmed got the golden cup to his team.'

b.*ħaSal-a ?ahmad-u fariiqahu   l-ka?s-a   ð-ðahabiyat-a
    got Ahmed-Nom. his team-Acc. Def.-cup-Acc. Def.-golden-Acc.
        'Ahmed got his team the golden cup.'

(54) a. ħajazat   maryam-u   taðkarat-an   li-?ummihaa
    booked Maryam-Nom. Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc. to-her mother-Gen.
    'Maryam booked a ticket to her mother.'

    b.*ħajazat   maryam-u   ?ummahaa   taðkarat-an
       booked Maryam-Nom. her mother-Acc. Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc.
       'Maryam booked her mother a ticket.'

(55) a. qaTafat   maryam-u   ba9D-a   l-?azhaar-i
       picked   Maryam-Nom.   some-Acc. Def.-flower-pl-Gen.
       li-?ummihaa
       to-her mother-Gen.
       'Maryam picked some flowers to her mother.'

b.*qaTafat maryam-u ?ummahaa ba9D-a   l-?azhaar-i
picked Maryam-Nom. her mother-Acc. some-Acc. Def.-flower-pl-Gen.
    'Maryam picked her mother some flowers.'

(56) a. kasab-a   ?ahmad-u   ba9D-a   l-?arbaah-i
       gained   Ahmed-Nom. some-Acc. Def.- profit-pl.Gen.
       li-šarikatih-i
       to-his company-Gen.
       'Ahmed gained some profits to his company.'

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b.*kasab-a   ?aḥmad-u   šarikatahu   ba9D-a
gained   Ahmed-Nom. his company-Acc. some-Acc.
l-?arbaaḥ-i
Def.-profit-pl-Gen.
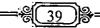'Ahmed gained his company some profits.'

(57) a. wajad-a   ?aḥmad-u   l-mafaatiiḥ-a
found   Ahmed-Nom.   Def.-key-pl-Acc.
li-?abiih-i
to-his father-Gen.
'Ahmed found the keys to his father.'

b.*wajad-a   ?aḥmad-u   ?abaahu   l-mafaatiiḥ-a
found   Ahmed-Nom.   his father-Acc. Def.-key-pl-Acc.
'Ahmed found his father the keys.'

The example sentences explaining the dative alternation of the *Get* verbs in MSA (53-57) are similar to those used to explain the benefactive alternation (45-49). They even use the same Arabic preposition. Camilleri, ElSadek and Sadler (2014: 21) cite that "the Arabic preposition *li-* corresponds both to English 'to' in its use marking the recipient /goal argument of three-place verbs, and to English 'for' in its use marking the added beneficiary." MSA allows for the prepositional dative construction headed by the Arabic preposition /li-/ 'to', but it does not permit the DO alternation. The reason for the unacceptability of the DO constructions in the (b) sentences in examples (53-57) is that the verbs in them are not three-place predicate verbs.

4.5 *Locative Alternation

(58) a. ḥaSal-a ?aḥmad-u   9ala   maajisteer
got   Ahmed-Nom. on Indef.-master degree-Gen.
fii T-Tibb-i   min   jaami9at-i   ?asyuuT-a

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in Def.- medicine-Gen. from Indef.-universiy- Gen. Assiut-Gen.
'Ahmed got an M.A. in Medicine from Assiut University.'

   b. *haSal-a   ?ahmad-u   jaami9at-a   ?asyuuT-a
      got   Ahmed-Nom.   Indef.-university-Acc. Assiut-Gen
      min   **maajisteer**   fii   T-Tibb-i
      of   Indef.-master degree -Gen. in   Def.-medicine-Gen.
   '*Ahmed got Assiut University of an M.A. in medicine.'

(59) a. hajazat   maryam-u   taðkarat-an   min
     booked   Maryam-Nom.   Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc. from
     mahaTTat-i   s-sikka   l-hadiid-i
     Indef.-station-Gen. Def.-way-Gen.   Def.-rail-Gen.
     'Maryam booked a ticket from the railway station.'

   b. *hajazat   maryam-u   mahaTTat-a
     booked   Maryam-Nom.   Indef.-station-Acc.
     s-sikka   l-hadiid-i   **min**   **taðkarat-in**
     Def.-way-Gen. Def.-rail-Gen. of   Indef.-ticket-Sg-Gen.
     '*Maryam booked the railway station of a ticket.'

(60) a. qaTafat   maryam-u   ba9D-a   l-?azhaar-i
     picked   Maryam-Nom. some-Acc. Def.-flower-pl-Gen.
     mina   l-hadiiqat-i
     from   Def.-garden-Gen.
     'Maryam picked some flowers from the garden.'

   b.*qaTafat   maryam-u   l-hadiiqat-a
     picked   Maryam-Nom.   Def.-garden-Acc.
     min ba9D-i   **l-?azhaar-i**
     of   some-Gen.   Def.-flower-pl-Gen.
     '*Maryam picked the garden of some flowers.'

(61) a.?iktasab-a   ?ahmad-u   xibrat-an
     gained   Ahmed-Nom.   Indef.-experience-Acc.
     mina   l-xaarij-i
     from   Def.-abroad-Gen.
   'Ahmed gained experience from abroad.'

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b. *?iktasab-a   ?ahmad-u   l-xaarij-a   **min**   **xibrat-in**
gained   Ahmed-Nom.   Def.-abroad-Acc.   of Indef.-experience-Gen.
   '*Ahmed gained abroad of an experience.'

(62) a. wajad-a   ?ahmad-u   l-mafaatiih-a   fii   jaibih-i
found   Ahmed-Nom.   Def.-key-pl-Acc.   in Indef.-his pocket-Gen.
   'Ahmed found the keys in his pocket.'

b. *wajad-a   ?ahmad-u   jaibahu   **fii**   **l-mafaatiih-i**
found   Ahmed-Nom. Indef.-his pocket-Acc. of Def.-key-pl-Gen.
   '*Ahmed found his pocket of the keys.'

As it is indicated in examples (58-62), MSA does not allow for
shifting places between *theme* and *locative* in the (b) sentences and
consequently, it does not allow for the locative alternation. One
important factor behind the unacceptability of the (b) sentences is
that the PPs in them do not specify a location or, as Jackendoff
(1993: 294-297) states it, they are –**LOCATION.**

4.6 Sum of Money Subject Alternation (some verbs)

(63) a. haSal-a   ?ahmad-u   9ala   maajisteer
got   Ahmed-Nom.   on   Indef.-master degree-Gen.
fii   T-Tibb-i   bi-taklufat-i 9asrat-i ?aalaaf-i
in   Def.-medicine-Gen. for-cost-Gen. ten-Gen. thousand-pl-Gen.
junaih-in
pound-Gen.
'Ahmed got an M.A in Medicine for ten thousand pounds.'

b. 9asrat-u   ?aalaaf-i   junaih-in   lan   tuhaSSil-a hattaa
ten-Nom. thousand-pl-Gen. pound-Gen. won't- part. get even
maajisteer   fii   T-Tibb-i   fii
Indef.-master degree-gen. in   Def.-medicine-Gen. in

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jaami9at-i   ?asyuuT
Indef.-University- Gen.   Assiut-Gen.
'Ten thousand pounds won't even get an M.A. in medicine at
Assiut University.'

(64) a. ħajazat maryam-u   taðkarat-an   fii maħaTTat-i
booked Maryam-Nom. Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc. at Indef.-station- Gen.
s-sikka   l-ħadiid-i   bi-xamsatin wa sab9iin-a
Def.-way-Gen. Def.-rail-Gen. for-five-Gen. and seventy-Gen.
junaih-n
pound-Acc.
'Maryam booked a ticket at the railway station for seventy-five
pounds.'

b. xamsat-un   wa sab9uun-a   junaih-an   lan   taħjiz-a
five-Nom.   and seventy-Nom. pound-Acc. won't-part. book
taðkarat-an   fii   maħaTTat-i   s-sikka-t-i
Indef.-ticket-Sg-Acc. in   Indef.-station-Gen. Def.-way-Gen.
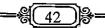l-ħadiid-i
Def.-rail-Gen.
'Seventy-five pounds won't even book a ticket at the railway station.'

(65) a. qaTafat   maryam-u   ba9D-a   l-?azhaar-i
picked   Maryam-Nom. some-Acc.   Def.-flower-pl-
Gen.
fii   l-ħadiiqat-i   bi-9išriin-a junaih-an
at   Def.-garden-Gen.   for twenty-Gen. pound-Acc.
'Maryam picked some flowers at the garden for twenty pounds.'

b. 9išruun-a   junaih-an   lan   taqTif-a šai?-an
twenty-Nom.   pound-Acc. won't-part. pick thing-Acc.
ħattaa ba9D-a   1- ?azhaar-i   fii l-ħadiiqat-i
even some-Acc. Def.-flower-pl Gen. at Def.-garden-Gen.
'Twenty pounds won't even pick some flowers at the garden.'

(66) a. ?iktasab-a   ?aħmad-u xibrat-an   fii
gained   Ahmed-Nom. Indef.-experience-Acc. in

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?idaarat-i   l-?a9maal-i   bi-mi?at-i
Indef.- management-Gen. Def.-bussiness-Gen. for-a hundred-Gen.
duulaar-i
dollar-Gen.
'Ahmed gained experience in business management for a
hundred dollars.'

b. mi?at-u   .   duulaar-in   lan   tuksiba šai?-an
a hundred-Nom. dollar-Gen. won't-part. gain thing-Acc.
hattaa xibrat-an   fii   ?idaarat-i
even Indef.-experience-Acc. in Indef.-management-Gen.
l-?a9maal-i
Def.-business-Gen.
'A hundred dollars won't even gain experience in business
management.'

(67) a. *wajad-a ?ahmad-u   l-mafaatiih-a   fii   l-manzil-i
foun   Ahmed-Nom. Def.-key-pl-Acc. at Def.-home-Gen.
bi-xamsiin-a   junaih-an
for-fifty-Gen.   pound-Acc.
'*Ahmed found the keys at home for fifty pounds.'

b. *xamsuun-a junaih-an   lan   tuujid-a šai?-an
fifty-Nom. pound-Acc. won't- part. find thing-Acc.
hattaa l-mafaatiih-a   fii   · l-manzil-i
even   Def.-key-pl-Acc. at   Def.-home-Gen.
'*Fifty pounds won't even find the keys at home.'

In the above examples nos. (63-66), the (a) sentences are permitted
on the ground that /bi-/ 'for' means *in return for*. As for the (b)
sentences, they imply a transfer of money in return for obtaining the
mentioned *themes*. That is why they accept a sum of money to be
their subject. However, example (67) is marked as unacceptable

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because the process of finding the lost items does not involve 'a transfer of money'. As a matter of fact, the use of the sum of money subject alternation has a pragmatic function in that it allows for a "presentational focus" (Mendikoetxea 2006: 2) received by the sum of money subject and in so doing, it allows for variation in the information structures.

5- Discussion and Conclusions

The core of the present study is the interconnection between meaning and grammar. The study centers on the semantics of the *Get* verbs and their corresponding syntactic properties. In English, the same verb may exhibit a change in valency with no change in the form of the verb. However, in Arabic, this is not the case. The verb, in Arabic, is either prefixed by /ʔa/ or undergoes the doubling of its second radical as a prerequisite of valency change. Determining the thematic roles of verbs helps in sorting them into semantic classes. Thematic roles also determine the transitivity of verbs and, accordingly, affect verb alternations like the benefactive and the dative alternations.

The syntactic structures of both English and Arabic predict that although they are different, they meet in some points. English is a Subject-Verb-Object language, while Arabic is, inherently, a Verb-Subject-Object language. This is how they are different. However, Arabic permits the SVO structure, like English, whenever

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a subject fronting is intended for stylistic purposes and this is one of the meeting points between the two languages. The present study highlights other points of similarities and differences between English and Arabic with respect to the semantics and syntax of the *Get* verbs. The pragmatic properties of the *Get* verbs are also referred to in the two languages. They are found to allow for 'different information structures', as indicated above, particularly in the DO constructions and the use of a sum of money as subject.

Most English *Get* verbs take three arguments: a subject, a direct object and an object of a preposition. In Arabic, the intransitive verb /haSal-a/ 'got' takes three arguments: the subject and two objects of prepositions. As for the verbs /hajaz-a/ 'booked', /qaTaf-a/ 'picked', /kasab-a/ 'gained' and /wajad-a/ 'found', they are mono-transitive. They take three arguments: a subject, a direct object and an object of a preposition, exactly like the English *Get* verbs.

Another point of similarity between MSA and English is the use of a *from* phrase with the *Get* verbs. Most English *Get* verbs allow a *from* phrase except for some verbs like verb *find* which allows for a prepositional phrase headed by *in* that indicates 'containment.' Similarly, most of the *Get* verbs in MSA allow for the use of a PP headed by /mina/ 'from'. However, with verbs like

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/wajad-a/ 'found', the preposition /mina/ 'from' is not permitted. /fii/ 'in', on the other hand, is more suitable because it indicates 'containment' and 'enclosure.'
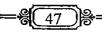
English *Get* verbs participate in the benefactive alternation allowing both the PO construction and the DO construction. Yet the two constructions are not equal with respect to the notion of *change of possession*. Only the DO construction involves resulting possession. On the other hand, MSA allows for a benefactive /li-/ 'for' prepositional phrase, but, unlike English, it does not allow for the benefactive alternation. This is simply because verb /haSal-a/ 'got' is intransitive while the verbs /hajaz-a/ 'booked', /qaTaf-a/ 'picked', /kasab-a/ 'gained' and /wajad-a/ 'found' are mono-transitive. That is why the DO construction is not permitted in MSA. For the benefactive alternation to be permitted in MSA, the Arabic triliteral verb should be prefixed by /?a/ or its second radical should be doubled.

The *Get* verbs in English allow for the DO construction of the dative alternation. The reason they do not allow for the PO construction is that the meanings of these verbs do not entail a caused movement of the argument denoting *theme* to a goal. As for the indirect object in the DO construction, it must satisfy the 'animacy restriction.' To the contrary, MSA allows for the

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prepositional dative construction headed by the Arabic preposition /li-/ 'to', but it does not permit the DO alternation. The reason for the unacceptability of the DO constructions in MSA is that the verbs presented in section (4.4) above are not three-place predicate verbs. Unlike English, transitivity proves to be a binding factor govering both the benefactive and the dative alternations in MSA. That is why the DO construction is not allowed in MSA but it is allowed in English with respect to the *Get* verbs.

The English *Get* verbs do not allow for the alternation between the locative argument and the theme. In other words, the meanings of the English *Get* verbs necessitate that the slot after the verb should be filled with either the theme or the recipient /beneficiary but not with the locative argument. Similarly, MSA does not allow for shifting places between *theme* and *locative* in the (b) sentences in section (4.5). Consequently, it does not allow for the locative alternation. One important factor behind the unacceptability of the (b) sentences in section (4.5) is that the PPs in them do not specify a location or rather, as explained above, they are –LOCATION. Moreover, the slot after the Arabic mono-transitive *Get* verbs should only be filled with the *theme* and nothing else. That is why the benefactive, dative and locative alternations are not permitted in MSA. Furthermore, both English and Arabic *Get* verbs allow for the use of a sum of money as their subject on the

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condition that the process of getting something entails a transfer of money.

To conclude, the present study investigates the syntactic and semantic properties of the *Get* verbs in English and Arabic. Most of the *Get* verbs in English and Arabic are mono-transitive which means that they inherently take two arguments. The third argument is only possible by means of a PP in the two languages. The present study displays how transitivity affects verb alternations and manifests some degree of variation between English and Arabic.

English *Get* verbs participate in the benefactive alternation allowing both the PO and the DO frames. However, MSA allows for the benefactive PO frame, but it does not allow for the benefactive alternation. For the benefactive alternation to be permitted in MSA, the Arabic triliteral verb should be prefixed by /ʔa/ or its second radical should be doubled. English *Get* verbs do not allow for the PO dative construction because the meanings of the verbs do *not* involve a caused movement of the *theme* to a *goal*. They only allow for the DO dative construction. The opposite is true in MSA. MSA allows for the prepositional dative construction, but it does not permit the DO alternation. Finally, both English and Arabic *Get* verbs do not allow for the locative alternation. However, they both allow for the use of a *from* phrase and a sum of money as their subject with some restrictions.

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Appendix 1

Symbols used in the phonemic transcription of Arabic forms

A. The consonants of Standard Arabic:

Manner	Voicing	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Dento-Alveolar Non-Emphatic	Dento-Alveolar Emphatic	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Stop	Voiceless				t	T		k	q		ʔ
	Voiced	b			d	D					
Fricative	Voiceless		f	θ	s	S	š	x		Ħ	h
	Voiced			ð	z	Z		ġ		9	
Affricate	Voiced						j				
Flap	Voiced				r						
Lateral	Voiced				l						
Nasal	Voiced	m			n						
Glide	Voiced	w					y				

B. The vowels of Standard Arabic:

	Short Front	Short Central	Short Back	Long Front	Long Central	Long Back
High	i		u	ii		uu
Mid						
Low		a			aa	

Note: The two tables are adapted from Gadalla (2000).

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Appendix 2

List of Abbreviations

Acc.	Accusative
Def.	Definite
DO	Double Object
Gen.	Genitive
Indef.	Indefinite
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
Nom.	Nominative
NP	Noun phrase
Part.	Particle
Pl	Plural
PO	Prepositional Object
PP	Prepositional phrase
Sg	Singular
SVO	Subject-Verb-Object
VSO	Verb-Subject-Object
*	Ungrammatical

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Appendix 3

A List of the English *Get* Verbs together with their

Corresponding Arabic Counterparts

English *Get* Verbs	Corresponding Arabic *Get* Verbs
Buy	/ʔištaraa/
Call	/ʔistad9aa/
Cash	/Sarafa/
Catch	/ʔamsaka bi/, /masaka/
Charter	/ʔistaʔjara/
Choose	/ʔixtaara/
Earn	/janaa/, /kasaba/
Fetch	/jalaba/
Gather	/jama9a/
Hire	/ʔistaʔjara/, /ʔistaxdama/
Keep	/hafiZa/, /ra9aa/
Lease	/ʔistaʔjara/
Leave	/taraka/, /warraθa/
Order	/Talaba/
Phone	/ʔittaSala bi/, /xaaTaba/

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Pluck	/qaTafa/
Procure	/ħaSala 9alaa/
Pull	/jarra/
Reach	/waSala ?iłaa/
Rent	/?ista?jara/
Reserve	/ħafiZa/
Save	/?iddaxara/
Secure	/Saana/
Shoot	/?aSaaba/, /Sawwaba/
Slaughter	/ðabaħa/
Steal	/saraqa/
Vote	/naxaba/, /?intaxaba/
Win	/faaza/

Note: The English list of verbs is based on Levin (1993) classification.

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السمات الدلالية و النحوية والبراجماتية لأفعال ''الحصول''
في الإنجليزية و العربية : دراسة تقابلية
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تهدف هذه الدراسة إلي تحديد ومقابلة السمات الدلالية والنحوية لأفعال ''الحصول'' في
الإنجليزية والعربية. من المعروف أن الأفعال التي تنتمي إلي نفس الفئة الدلالية لها سمات
دلالية مشتركة ولكنها تختلف في بعض العناصر الدلالية التي تحدد عدد العبارات الأسمية
الخاصه بكل فعل، كما تحدد سمات الفعل النحوية. و تهدف هذه الدراسة أيضاً إلي إلقاء
الضوء علي الدور الذي يلعبه معني الفعل في تحديد سماته النحوية.

وقد وجد أن أفعال ''الحصول'' في الإنجليزية تسمح بالتراكيب التبادلية للمستفيد ولكنها لا
تسمح بالتراكيب المكانية التبادلية. أما عن التراكيب التبادلية للمتلقي فإن أفعال ''الحصول''
في الإنجليزية تسمح فقط بالتركيب الذي يظهر فيه المفعولان المباشر وغير المباشر.
وعلي عكس الإنجليزية، فإن اللغة العربية المعيارية الحديثة لا تسمح بالتراكيب التبادلية
للمستفيد والتراكيب التبادلية للمتلقي والتراكيب المكانية التبادلية.

وأخيراً، فإن أفعال ''الحصول'' في اللغتين تسمح بإستخدام شبه جملة تبدأ بحرف الجر
''من''. كما تسمح أيضاً بإستخدام الألفاظ الدالة علي النقود في مكان '' الفاعل'' ولكن
بقيود.