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Moreover it is Arabic which I wanted to examine more thoroughly, since this language has not been analyzed very much linguistically. This work is based on the principles of Transformational Grammar. The main question that covers this work is along which parameters Arabic varies compared to English for example. However, I will not be able to answer this question in detail since the examination of this subject would exceed my work, but I will analyze certain fields of this subject. What is Transformational Grammar? Which part of a natural language does it constitute? And what are its rules like? These questions, among other things, will make up this introductory part in order to state the means by which the main part of this work will be analyzed. But what kind of transformations are they? And what will be transformed? To start with I will first present the rules that constitute this theory. This theory states the semantic relationship between predicates and their arguments following the Theta Criterion which says that each argument is assigned one theta role and each theta role is assigned to one argument. Following this we can now say that the verb in the above English sentence is the predicate assigning a theta role to the subject and another one to the object. The Extended Projection Principle furthermore maintains that every sentence must have a subject. Thus there can be no sentence containing just the verb and the object as we can see in the following English example: Transformational Grammar distinguishes between four levels of syntactic representation. At Logical Form LF the acquirement of sentential scope triggers movement which has no overt reflex. Finally the Phonetic Form PF is the phonologically overt realization, the spell out of a sentence. Now we can reformulate the question from above - what is the Deep Structure of an English sentence and what is its Surface Structure? Various linguists agree in classifying English as being an S-V-O language. This order still hides movement, namely vacuous movement, which of course cannot be seen in the linear ordering of the constituents, but which takes place when the level of representation changes. Therefore the Deep Structure representation of the English sentence 1a is not the same as its Surface Structure representation. In the linear ordering, however, nothing has changed. But what kind of movement is this? Before explaining each single movement transformation it is important to add the Structure Preserving Principle to our list of syntactic rules, which states that all structures established at Deep Structure must be preserved at Surface Structure. This kind of movement is triggered by the richness of agreement morphology of a verb. English and French for example differ with respect to this possibility. In French, for example, both auxiliaries and lexical verbs can and obligatorily must move due to their morphological richness as we can see in the tree diagrams of the Surface Structure sentences below. These differences in the behavior of English and French verbs can also be explained in view of the Minimalist Program which states that verbs are base-generated together with their inflectional endings. This feature-checking is done by adjoining the inflected verb to the relevant functional head. The abstract features will then be eliminated. This feature-checking has to take place before spell-out PF if the morphology on the verb is strong. If the morphological realization on the verb is weak, however, the verb does not have to move to check inflectional features. It is the reason for movement and the behavior of landing site and trace that are different. A-movement is an obligatory movement resulting from the need of a noun phrase NP to be case-marked. In its base-position an NP succeeds in being assigned a theta role, but no case, which violates the Case Filter which says that every overt NP must be assigned abstract case. Abstract case renders an NP visible and therefore allows it to be theta-marked according to the Visibility Requirement. The NP has to move out of its base-position into a position in which it can receive case. This position is an A-position or a theta-bar position, a position to which case, but no theta role can be assigned. The trace is theta-marked and by virtue of chain-building the NP receives the theta role from its trace. A-movement takes place in raising structures in which raising verbs or adjectives occur or in passive constructions. An example of passivization will make this clear. Wh-movement takes place whenever a question is formed. The base position of the moved element, the Wh-trace, is both case- and theta-marked. PRO and pro, however, are the non-overt subjects that are generated

in order to render the sentence grammatical. We can see that it does not occur in English, but does so in Italian in example 6. English, in contrast to Italian, is not a pro-drop language, it is not a language in which a pronominal subject is allowed to be left unexpressed. The subject pronoun cannot be dropped. But why does this work in Italian? It is again the richness of inflectional morphology associated with the verb that determines whether a language is pro-drop or not. Modern Hebrew for example allows pro-drop only in cases in which inflectional morphology is rich. Therefore pro is not allowed in morphologically poor present tense and is restricted to first and second persons in main clauses with future and past tense. I eat-sg ACC the-apple. Therefore not all types of inflection are rich enough to allow pro-drop. It will have to raise to [Spec,IP] where it can receive case. The verb moves out of VP, but the subject does not as we can see in the Welsh example. He illustrates this with an example from Classical Arabic where the verb shows full agreement person, number and gender when it follows the subject, whereas it only shows gender agreement when it precedes the subject. The question of why and how languages vary with respect to this parameter I will analyze together with the help of other linguists later in the main part of this work. Hilda Koopman focused her work on searching for the canonical position of subjects. She also found out that languages such as English and French generate their subjects inside VP which they then move out of VP in order to case-mark them while in languages such as Italian, Welsh and Arabic the subject which is base-generated in [Spec,VP] does not have to raise to [Spec,IP]. Therefore in Arabic tensed clauses raising is not obligatory. Koopman argues that NOM is a both structural case assigned under government as well as case by agreement. She therefore distinguishes between case assignment under government and case assignment under agreement. How are words formed in Arabic? He rejects word formation as taking place on a pure lexical level in favor of the hypothesis that Arabic words can be bracketed internally mirroring syntactic clause structure rules. He claims that in Arabic there is no such thing as a stem or a root which is labeled for the category of a noun, a verb or an adjective. No inflectional or derivational morphemes can be added to form a conjugated verb as is the case with English, but there are consonantal roots which inherit category labels only when they enter into syntax. Affixes, on the other hand, are categorially specified mirroring the syntactic order that occurs within phrases and clauses within words. In English, however, this word syntactically forms a sentence. These affixes, however, do not occur in an accidental order, but syntactic structure rules to apply to them as is shown by the next example: How would a tree diagram of this configurational structure look like? The resulting structure would then be the following: It is not examined in detail and lacking the consideration of other phrase structures and sentence conditions. Fassi-Fehri continues by posing the question of what the Arabic stem or root looks like. Introduction to Government and Binding Theory. The Position Of Subjects.

Chapter 2 : Parametric Syntax: Case Studies in Semitic and Romance Languages

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She is currently an assistant professor for Hebrew linguistics at the University of Texas, Austin. She has previously published on the syntax of the Semitic languages and on contact in the Semitic sphere. Introduction page 17 1. Methodology page 17 1. Historical Syntax in Semitic page 20 1. Aramaic Dialectology page 25 1. The Structure of the Work page 32 1. A Note on Bilingual Texts page 33 Chapter 2: Adverbial Subordination page 37 2. Methodological Introduction page 37 2. Adverbial Subordination in Semitic page 39 2. Adverbial Subordination in Aramaic page 43 2. Inherited Subordinators page 44 2. Result Clauses and Negative Result Clauses page 50 2. The Conditional Clause page 62 2. Causal Clauses page 82 2. Sources for Adverbial Subordination page 93 2. Conclusions page Appendix 1: Heads and Dependents in Semitic page Chapter 3: Nominal Modifiers page 3. Order of Constituents in the Nominal Phrase page 3. Introduction page 3. Order of Attributive Demonstrative in Aramaic page 3. Discussion page 3. N-DEM-Attribute page 3. Analysis page 3. Evidence from eastern Neo-Aramaic page 3. Free Indefinite Relatives page 3. Conclusions page Chapter 4: Direct Speech Representations page 4. Introduction page 4. Speech in the Semitic Languages page 4. Speech in Aramaic page 4. Asyndetic Direct Speech page 4. Syndetic page 4. Quotative Particle page 4. Summary and Conclusion page Chapter 5: Summary and Conclusion page 5. General Results page 5. Subordination page 5. Nominal Modification page 5. Speech Representation page 5. Languages in Contact page 5. The Classical Dialects page 5. The Modern Dialects page Bibliography page

Chapter 3 : Semitic syntax Research Papers - calendrierdelascience.com

Semitic syntax-Geoffrey Khan's doctoral thesis (London,) is concerned with one aspect of it, sentences like this one which display extraposition, or pronominal agreement. He examines Arabic, Biblical Hebrew, Biblical Aramaic (but including Elephantine texts) and Syriac, Akkadian, and Amharic in successive chapters and concludes with a.

In the first case the stems have a common root and thus share a common semantic field, as with the English verbs write, wrote, and written. However, some roots contain two, four, or even five consonants. Since the Middle Ages, the root-pattern model has provided the organizational framework for most of the lexicographical work on the Semitic languages. Linguists describe the organization of a given word by using an abstract string of elements. Typically, their descriptions combine letters and punctuation marks: The affixes used in many Semitic patterns feature additional consonantal elements, such as the ma- of the Arabic passive participle and the infix -sta- of the Tenth Form of the Arabic verb. In a typical European language, the lexical sense resides primarily in the stem and the grammatical information is found in affixes: In contrast, the Semitic stem indicates different grammatical contexts by using the root-pattern system and as a result can appear in quite different shapes. In other areas of the language, the place occupied by the root-pattern model is less dramatic. Nouns and adjectives To the stem of a typical Semitic word, one or more additional elements may be attached, including suffixes, prefixes, or circumfixes which appear both before and after the stem. For nouns and adjectives these inflectional elements indicate gender masculine or feminine , number singular, plural, and in some languages, dual , and, in several of the older languages, case nominative, accusative, or genitive. For verbs the inflectional elements can indicate the person, number, gender, mood , tense , and aspect the construing of events as completed versus continuing. The early Semitic case-marking system, by which the ending of a noun or adjective indicated the function that it played in its sentence, is preserved most clearly in classical Arabic and in Akkadian. Most Arabic nouns have a full tripartite set of endings that agree closely with the case endings of Akkadian. Indirect support for a common three-way set of endings is also provided by Ugaritic. In addition to this tripartite set of endings, however, there is a set of stems in Arabic the so-called diptotic stems that have endings distinguishing only the nominative case and a general accusative and genitive case. Most of the inflectional processes found in Semitic nouns and adjectives involve suffixes. For a very large number of nouns in Arabic and the Southwest Semitic languages, however, plurality is indicated directly through the pattern of the stem rather than by means of an ending. The broken plural stems are of a wide variety of types. Verbal morphology The stem Semitic verbs are classified into various groups on the basis of the configuration of the stem. These groups are known as stems, forms, or binyan-im singular binyan , a Hebrew term. The table provides examples of the relation between basic and derived stems.

Chapter 4 : Semitic languages - Morphology | calendrierdelascience.com

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Chapter 5 : Gorgias Press. Studies in the Historical Syntax of Aramaic

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The language of dialogue in modern Amharic literature [in Hebrew]. The Hebrew University, Jerusalem
Steiner Aethiopistische Forschungen Syntax of the Noun in Amharic. Harrassowitz Aethiopistische
Forschungen Jerusalem, Magnes Press Auxiliares descriptifs en amharique. Israel Academy of Sciences
Israel Oriental Studies Tel Aviv 2 Journal of Ethiopian Studies Addis Ababa 11 Les noms amhariques a
finale -o. Encore sur ressauhu et ressicchallehu. Rassegna di Studi Etiopici Rome 25 Particles of
concatenation and reference in Amharic. Studia Orientalia Memoriae D. Evolution de la phrase amharique - la
nominalisation du verbe. Language policy in Ethiopia since the revolution of Asian and African Studies Haifa
14 Studies Presented to H. Polotsky edited by D. Les verbes redondants en amharique. Scandinavian Institute
of African Studies Some striking similarities between Amharic and Turkish syntax. Semantic analysis of
some morphological phenomena in Amharic. Institute of Ethiopian Studies Abstract nouns as transformation
of copula sentences - the case of Amharic. Grazer Linguistische Studien 30 Appurtenance as a linguistic
concept. Some common traits in the evolution of Neo-Syriac and Neo-Ethiopian. Jerusalem Studies in Arabic
and Islam 12 A Volume in Memory of Haim Blanc. Linguistic background of the Ethiopian Jews. In Saga of
Aliya translation of no Definiteness and indefiniteness in Amharic. Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam 15
Possessive and determining nominal complexes in Semitic. In Semitic and Cushitic Studies edited by G. The
Evolution of irswo and irsachchew as sociolinguistic variants. The Red Sea Press And what about
Neo-Aramaic? Israel Oriental Studies 19 The gerund and gerundial participle in Eastern Neo-Aramaic.
Reflections on the Ethio-Semitic gerund. Definiteness and connected phenomena. Proceedings of the 16th
International Congress of Linguists - Paris The Ethio-Semitic possessive pronouns as predicalizers in
historical perspective. Aethiopica Hamburg 1 Regularity and deviation in peripheral Neo-Semitic. Some
suprasentential constructions in Amharic. Robert Hetzron in Memoriam edited by A. Compound verbs in
Neo-Aramaic. Israel Oriental Studies 20 Auxiliares et leur omission: Maisonneuve et Larose Iranian and
Turkic structural interference in Arabic and Aramaic dialects. The syntax of synthetic verbal forms in
Ethio-Semitic as compared with Cushitic. Some remarks on the etymology and function of the relative
markers in Ancient Ethiopic. The relative verb in Amharic in an areal perspective. Time in Languages
New Verb Forms, New Usage. Bender and Hailu Fulass. Introductory Grammar of Amharic in Aethiopica 5
Amharic Cultural Reader in Aethiopica 5

Chapter 6 : Studies in Semitic Syntax | Diplomarbeitende

content. introduction. i. transformational grammar. a brief overview 1. looking at other linguists' theories. ii. a study of semitic syntax 1. analyzing fassi-fehri's theory.

Additional Information In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: Rather the idea of a "narrator" in the singular helps Jeansonne present her particular pro-women reading of these texts as the true, normative reading what the narrator is doing , thus superseding various "false" readings of these texts as anti-women what patriarchal readers are doing; but here cf. London Oriental Series Oxford University Press, He examines Arabic, Biblical Hebrew, Biblical Aramaic but including Elephantine texts and Syriac, Akkadian, and Amharic in successive chapters and concludes with a brief consideration of "Comparative Semitic Syntax" pp. The introduction sets out the reason for the work, its method, and its aim, commenting on previous studies pp. In each major chapter Khan analyzes the structure and then the function of the phenomena, his aim being "to seek the function which is performed by a given structure rather than the structure which performs a given function" p. The bulk of the book, therefore. Examples of function follow. Here there is more extensive discussion, for. This is probably the most immediately helpful fruit of his labour, but for each language he finds other functions in these constructions also. At this point one criticism may be voiced: It would have been helpful if the constructions and functions of all the languages were tabulated to enable the reader who is not immersed in the study to see which are common to all, and which are peculiar to one or two. For studying Semitic syntax an examination of the constructions shared by the languages is essential. What is provided demonstrates very clearly and positively the way the constructions are used within each language individually. In Biblical Hebrew, Khan gives fifty-seven examples of the structures he finds, then fifty-eight to illustrate functions. He describes the "signalling of boundaries of spans of discourse" by extraposition chap. Extraposition also indicates parallel and chiasmic structures e. You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

Historical syntax has long been neglected in the study of the Semitic languages, although it holds great value for the subgrouping of this diverse language family.

Moreover it is Arabic which I wanted to examine more thoroughly, since this language has not been analyzed very much linguistically. This work is based on the principles of Transformational Grammar. The main question that covers this work is along which parameters Arabic varies compared to English for example. However, I will not be able to answer this question in detail since the examination of this subject would exceed my work, but I will analyze certain fields of this subject. What is Transformational Grammar? Which part of a natural language does it constitute? And what are its rules like? These questions, among other things, will make up this introductory part in order to state the means by which the main part of this work will be analyzed. But what kind of transformations are they? And what will be transformed? To start with I will first present the rules that constitute this theory. This theory states the semantic relationship between predicates and their arguments following the Theta Criterion which says that each argument is assigned one theta role and each theta role is assigned to one argument. Following this we can now say that the verb in the above English sentence is the predicate assigning a theta role to the subject and another one to the object. The Extended Projection Principle furthermore maintains that every sentence must have a subject. Thus there can be no sentence containing just the verb and the object as we can see in the following English example: Having now formulated these rules we now come to the question whether there is a general ordering rule for the subject, the verb and the object that is valid for all natural languages, and whether the S-V-O order in English sentences, which we have stated above, is an order that applies to all types of English sentences or not. Transformational Grammar distinguishes between four levels of syntactic representation. At Logical Form LF the acquirement of sentential scope triggers movement which has no overt reflex. Finally the Phonetic Form PF is the phonologically overt realization, the spell out of a sentence. Now we can reformulate the question from above - what is the Deep Structure of an English sentence and what is its Surface Structure? Various linguists agree in classifying English as being an S-V-O language. This order still hides movement, namely vacuous movement, which of course cannot be seen in the linear ordering of the constituents, but which takes place when the level of representation changes. Therefore the Deep Structure representation of the English sentence 1a is not the same as its Surface Structure representation. In the linear ordering, however, nothing has changed. But what kind of movement is this? Before explaining each single movement transformation it is important to add the Structure Preserving Principle to our list of syntactic rules, which states that all structures established at Deep Structure must be preserved at Surface Structure. This kind of movement is triggered by the richness of agreement morphology of a verb. English and French for example differ with respect to this possibility. In French, for example, both auxiliaries and lexical verbs can and obligatorily must move due to their morphological richness as we can see in the tree diagrams of the Surface Structure sentences below. These differences in the behavior of English and French verbs can also be explained in view of the Minimalist Program which states that verbs are base-generated together with their inflectional endings. This feature-checking is done by adjoining the inflected verb to the relevant functional head. The abstract features will then be eliminated. This feature-checking has to take place before spell-out PF if the morphology on the verb is b. If the morphological realization on the verb is weak, however, the verb does not have to move to check inflectional features. It is the reason for movement and the behavior of landing site and trace that are different. A-movement is an obligatory movement resulting from the need of a noun phrase NP to be case-marked. In its base-position an NP succeeds in being assigned a theta role, but no case, which violates the Case Filter which says that every overt NP must be assigned abstract case. Abstract case renders an NP visible and therefore allows it to be theta-marked according to the Visibility Requirement. The NP has to move out of its base-position into a position in which it can receive case. This position is an A-position or a theta-bar position, a position to which case, but no theta role can be assigned. The trace is theta-marked and by virtue of chain-building the NP receives the theta role from its trace. A-movement takes place in raising structures in

which raising verbs or adjectives occur or in passive constructions. An example of passivization will make this clear. Wh-movement takes place whenever a question is formed. The base position of the moved element, the Wh-trace, is both case- and theta-marked. PRO and pro, however, are the non-overt subjects that are generated in order to render the sentence grammatical. We can see that it does not occur in English, but does so in Italian in example 6. English, in contrast to Italian, is not a pro-drop language, it is not a language in which a pronominal subject is allowed to be left unexpressed. The subject pronoun cannot be dropped. But why does this work in Italian? It is again the richness of inflectional morphology associated with the verb that determines whether a language is pro-drop or not. Modern Hebrew for example allows pro-drop only in cases in which inflectional morphology is rich. Therefore pro is not allowed in morphologically poor present tense and is restricted to first and second persons in main clauses with future and past tense.

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