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## THORNTON'S ARABIC SERIES, VOLUME 1.

ELEMENTARY ARABIC

## A GRAMMAR

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LaArab.Gr

## A GRAMMAR

## DEPARTMENTAL

FREDERIC DU ORE THORNTON AIN
being an abridgement of

## WRIGHTS ARABIC GRAMMAR

to which it will serve as a table of contents

## EDITED BY

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## PREFACE.

FREDERIC DU PRE THORNTON was born in 1841 at Wendover in Buckinghamshire, where his father, the Rev. Spencer Thornton, was Vicar, and received his education at Brighton College. He commenced the study of Arabic in 1880, when he first visited Egypt and Palestine, following the method which he recommends in his First Reading-Book, namely, "to begin by reading aloud, from a book fully pointed, with a Moslem who is accustomed to recite the Qur'ân (Corân) in public prayer." From 1880 to 1892 he was almost continually in the East. As Mrs Thornton, who accompanied her husband on all his journeys, writes to me:"He was very quick at languages and thought much of correct pronunciation, so that during several visits to Egypt he had one of the students from the University Mosque al Azhar, Cairo, to read Arabic with him. His whole thoughts and time were given up to his projected Series, and especially to the Arabic Grammar, as he found so many in Egypt, Army officers and missionaries, who did not care to go to the expense or labour of learning the larger and more difficult Grammars. We visited twice the Jebel Haurân, the ancient Bashan of the Bible, and found it a most interesting country to travel
in, and the Druse people very hospitable, especially to the English. My husband's idea in visiting India was tu find out about the Moslems there, and whether they spoke Arabic much amongst themselves, which does not seem to be the case. It is only used there as the Sacred Language." Mr Thornton was acquainted with most of the leading Arabists in this country-Professor William Wright, a portion of whose Arabic Reuding-Book (Williams and Norgate, 1870) he read with the author; Professor W. Robertson Smith, Professor Ion Keith Falconer, Sir Charles Lyall, Professor D. S. Margoliouth, and others. My friendship with him began, I think, in 1895 or a little afterwards, and we corresponded pretty regularly until his death, which took place in January 1903, besides meeting now and then to talk over the work on which he was engaged. I have pleasant recollections of the hospitality shown to me by Mr and Mrs Thornton on several occasions when I stayed with them at Westgate-on-Sea, as well as of the enthusiasm with which Mr Thornton would discourse on his favourite topics. Few can have known Wright's Grammar so perfectly as he did, and though the present volume bears witness to his minute accuracy and to the systematic thoroughness with which he entered into the smallest details of exposition, only those whom he consulted or who helped him in his work can have any conception how much thought and labour it cost him to produce. He was trying to improve it almost to the last day of his life.

This volume, however, does not stand by itself. It was Mr Thornton's intention to compile and publish an Arabic Series, based on the Corân, which should enable the learner to get a good working knowledge of the language without the necessity of constantly referring to other books. Of this
to Wright's masterly, but to beginners somewhat perplexing, book*; to which enquiry he made reply, 'There are two difficulties: to know what to put in, and to know what to leave out.' Ten years later I determined to make the attempt, 'putting in' all required by the grammatical analysis (then as now in manuscript) of my First ReadingBook and, so far as could be, 'leaving out' everything else; for I supposed that a rule would only be needed, if the Reading-Book's Arabic text afford an example in illustration ; and I hoped by retaining Wright's section numbers that my abridgement might become a table of contents to his Grammar. I had supplied lists of omissions to Professors W. R. Smith and de Goeje with a view to their being remedied in the forthcoming 3rd edition ; and such omissions as I subsequently discovered have been placed in this book under the heading of 'Note,' so that my trivial additions stand markedly apart from (my abridgement of) the scholarly text."

Mr Thornton then goes on to speak of his Elementary Arabic: First Reading-Book, to which reference has been made above, calling attention to the fact that all its words appear singly in Parts I and II of the Grammar, and all recur later in phrases to illustrate syntax. As he observes, "it may be said to supply almost without exception my Grammar's examples." The remainder of his Conclusion I will quote entire.

[^0]"From a biographical sketch of M. S. de Sacy written in October 1895 by Professor Hartwig Derenbourg, Titulaire de la chaire de Silvestre de Sacy à l'École spéciale des langues orientales vivantes, I borrow the following:

La grammaire arabe de Caspari, le livre de classe qui, depuis 1848, n'a pas cessé d'être mis entre les mains des élèves dans des rédactions latine (1848), allemande (1859, 1866, 1876, et 1887), anglaise ( 1862 et 1874) et française (1880), tient le milieu entre les tendances des deux rivaux. "Elle s'appuie, dit M. Fleischer, sur Sacy et Ewald, et cherche seulement, avec quelques rectifications et additions que j'ai fournies, à réunir les qualités de l'un et de l'autre... La grammaire de l'ancien arabe ne progressera vraiment d'une manière sensible que le jour où, d'un côté, on comparera et appréciera avec une balance de précision les philologues orientaux répartis dans les diverses écoles, et où, d'autre part, l'on soumettra les matériaux accumulés dans leurs plus excellents traités à une enquête approfondie dirigée dans le sens de notre linguistique."

Dans cette dernière direction, c'est à peine si nous avons dépassé la première étape, franchie d'un seul bond par le jeune Ewald, alors presque à ses débuts. L'édition anglaise de Caspari, par M. William Wright, ouvre seule quelques échappées sur l'horizon encore incertain de la philologie sémitique comparée. La Grammaire de la langue arabe qui, dans ses diverses transformations, continue à porter le nom de Caspari, se recommande et a réussi surtout à cause de son ordonnance harmonieuse: point de dérogations au plan général, chaque règle à sa place, pas de redites, pas de doubles emplois, une sobriété dans les tuurs de phrase n'excluant pas la clarté, une clarté obtenue sans redondances oiseuses et sans vaines amplifications. C'est un peu terre à terre, et cela manque d'essor; mais si l'imagination n'y trouve pas son compte, la raison est pleinement satisfaite par ce Lhomond de la langue arabe.
projected Series he left two volumes already printed and in private circulation, viz. the present abridgement of Wright's Grammar and a First Reading-Book consisting of certain extracts from the Corân together with a Grammatical Analysis and Glossary. Subsequently he determined to enlarge the latter volume by adding to it some fifty pages of Wright's Arabic Reading-Book, which had nearly run out of print; and at his request I compiled a Glossary for this additional matter. It was passing through the press when its progress was interrupted by Mr Thornton's untimely death.

Fortunately, the scheme which he had so deeply at heart is to be carried out in its entirety, as far as another hand may be capable of executing his design ; and since Mrs Thornton has entrusted me with the task of editing and completing the Series, I will briefly indicate the plan of the whole before proceeding to speak of the first volume in particular.

Thornton's Arabic Series will be published by the Cambridge University Press and will consist of four (or possibly five) volumes entitled as follows.

## I. Elementary Arabic : a Grammar.

II. Elementary Arabic: First Reading-Book. This will contain selected passages from the Corân, viz. Ch. I, Ch. II 256 , Ch. VII 52 to 62 and 101 to 170 inclusive, also Ch. Lxiv; the text of a portion of Wright's Arabic Reading-Book, namely, pp. 13 to 64, beginning with "Stories of Arab Warriors" and ending with "The Escape of 'Abd al Raḥmân the Umaivad from Syria into Spain"; a Grammatical Analysis of the above-mentioned Corânic texts; and finally a full Glossary.
III. Elementary Arabic: Second Reading-Book, containing passages from unpublished MSS. (or, at least, such as have not been previously edited in Europe).

IV Elementary Arabic: Third Reading-Book, which will probably comprise the whole of Wright's Arabic ReadingBook from p. 64 to the end.

The plan thus sketched departs from Mr Thornton's only in one comparatively trivial point. Instead of providing each volume with its own glossary, he contemplated a single Dictionary giving all the Arabic words contained in the three Reading-Books. There is indeed much to be said for this arrangement, by which a good deal of repetition would be avoided, but practical considerations seem to require that the First Reading-Book at any rate should be self-sufficing. With regard to the Second and Third Reading-Books the case is different, and I am inclined to think that they should not have separate glossaries. In this event a Dictionary such as Mr Thornton contemplated will form the fifth volume of the Series. Any suggestions as to the course which should be followed in this matter and also as to the scope of the Second Reading-Book, that is to say, what principle of selection would be most advantageous, will be gratefully received.

I now come to Elementary Arabic: a Grammar.
Concerning its origin I may quote Mr Thornton's own words appended by way of conclusion to the edition which was printed in 1900 by Messrs Stephen Austin of Hertford for private circulation.
"In the year 1885 I consulted Professor W. Robertson Smith about the possibility of there being written an elementary Grammar of Arabic capable of serving as introduction
"Charles Franęois Lhomond died in 1794 at the age of 67 , having been maltreated by Parisian revolutionists, perhaps because of his writing in defence of Catholic faith as understood by him. His chief claim to posthumous fame lies in his devotion to the work of compiling elementary books and it is in this respect that his name may be conferred on those who do likewise. My readers will thank me for putting befure them Professor Derenbourg's eloquent appreciation of the Grammar still called by Caspari's name, to the praise of which I heartily subscribe. Wright has, however, carried matters further, for the glimpses of Semitic philology mentioned above, together with much more, have been published by Robertson Smith in Wright's Comparative Grammar; and since 1895 Professor de Goeje has bestowed upon the world of Semitic letters a boon, for which we cannot be too thankful, by devoting his valuable time and known scholarship to the work of enabling Cambridge University Press to issue a 3rd Edition of Wright's Arabic Grammar: it is this which I have abridged.
"Much thanks are due from me to kind helpers more numerous than can be mentioned, but I must especially single out the Rev. G. W. Thatcher of Mansfield College, Oxford, without whose efficient assistance I might well have found it impossible to thread the mazes of Arabic syntax."

In preparing this new edition of Mr Thornton's Grammar I have incorporated some additions and corrections which I found in his interleaved copy of the last edition, and have added an abstract of $\$ 191$ to 230 in Wright's Grammar, which treat of Prosody. Mr Thornton omitted these sections on the ground that they were not needed for his Elementary Arabic: First Reading-Book, but he would undoubtedly have supplied the deficiency in view of the enlarged issue of that book, which has been described above and which will shortly
be published as the second volume of this Series. I have also removed some references in the Grammar to the original edition of the First Reading-Book, giving the corresponding references to the Corân instead. In other respects I have made as few alterations as possible, since I know that Mr Thornton had pondered every word of his work over and over again and that he took infinite pains to secure the clearest and most concise expression.

It must be borne in mind that the author of this work intended it to be used side by side with his First ReadingBook, for which it is specially adapted and from which nearly all its examples are drawn. He regarded the one book as the complement of the other and even, I think, disliked the idea of their being sold separately. I hope, therefore, to bring out the enlarged First Reading-Book with as little delay as my other engagements permit, and I would strongly recommend all students of the Grammar to acquire the companion volume. At the same time it would, in my opiuion, have been a mistake to limit the use of the Grammar to purchasers of the Reading-Book. The Corân, whence most of its examples are derived, is accessible to everyone, and the Grammar itself has the peculiar merit of serving as an introduction to Wright's masterly work. The reader will note that Wright's secund volume begins at § 1, which corresponds with $\S 401$ in Mr Thornton's abridgement.

It only remains to thank Mrs Thornton and Sir Charles Lyall, whom I consulted before writing this Preface, for the kind help which they have given me.

## REYNOLD A. NICHOLSON.

Cambridge, July, 1905.

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## ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA.

§27. 简 Sûrat lxiv. verse 1.
§ 28. يُسْn. The reference is to Conan, Surah lxiv. verse 1.
§ 43, Rem. c. بَ بَ $\operatorname{loj}$. The reference is to Corân, Sûrałi vii. verse 134.

§45, Rem. c. For أَسْلَمْ read أَسْمْمَ to obtain peace, to surrender one's self' (to God) from سِّنْ peace.
§444, Rem. g. For Koran read Corân.
§456. For
§470. Add, Rem. f. Lَ is often inserted after Yo without affecting their regimen and is then called the superfluous ma (see § 353*).

## PART I.

## ORTHOGRAPHY AND ORTHOËPY.

1. Arabic is written from right to left with twenty-eight letters, all consonants; three of which, however, are also used as vowels. In modern alphabetical order they range as follows, each with the equivalent employed by Wright's Arabic Grammar: the second equivalent (if any) is from Elementary Arabic: First reading book; being easier for beginners, as Dr Wright discards digraphs, i.e. two letters for the representation of one sound.

| name | equivalent | separate | connected |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | initial | medial | PINAL |
| أُفُ |  | 1 |  | 1 | 1 |
| بّا | b | ب | ? | * | $\cdots$ |
| تَآّ2 | t | ت | 3 | \% | $\because$ |
| كُّ | t, th | $\star$ | 3 | $\pm$ | $\star$ |
| ex | g, j | T | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | ¢ |
| ¢1 | h | $\tau$ | ~ | - | $\tau$ |
| ¢6\% | h, kh | $\dot{\text { ¢ }}$ | - | $\stackrel{-}{-}$ | $\dot{\text { ̇ }}$ |
| jis | d | 2 |  | $\lambda$ | $\downarrow$ |
| ذًا | d, dh | 3 |  | $i$ | $i$ |
| \%) | r | 3 |  | J | \% |
| GiL. |  |  |  |  | 1 |


| NAME | equivalent | SEPARATE | CONNECTED |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | InITIAL | medial | FINAL |
| زَايُّ | z | j |  | ; | $j$ |
| , | S | س | س | - | $\cdots$ |
| شـهـنـ | ś, sh | ~ | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ | $\pm$ | $\stackrel{4}{4}$ |
| sĺ | S, ¢ | $\infty$ | $\infty$ | $\sim$ | $ص$ |
| 36 | d | ض | $\dot{\sim}$ | $\dot{\sim}$ | $\dot{\square}$ |
| ${ }_{5}^{5}$ | t | $b$ | $b$ | b. | b |
| ${ }^{515}$ | \% | b | b | ¢ | ¢ |
| عين | , | $\varepsilon$ | s | 2 | $\varepsilon$ |
| غَيْن | g, gh | $\dot{\varepsilon}$ | $\dot{\text { e }}$ | $\dot{1}$ | \% |
| ${ }^{5}$ | $f$ | ¢ | 9 | $\dot{2}$ | ¢ |
|  | k, q | ق | 9 | ® | \% |
| فكّ | k | 5) | 5 | $\Sigma$ | 31 |
| 5y | 1 | $J$ | 1 | $\lambda$ | 4 |
| ${ }_{0}^{5}$ | m | $\rho$ | $\infty$ | $\infty$ | $\infty$ |
| تُونٌ | n | $\dot{\square}$ | j | i | ن |
| ¢10 | h | $\bigcirc$ | * | $\checkmark$ | a |
| gig | W | 2 |  | 9 | 9 |
| 3 ¢ֻ | y | 6 | 2 | * | ¢ |

Rem. a. I following $\cup$ forms $y$ lâm 'alif which is sometimes reckoned as a letter.

2. The orthoëpy, i.e. correct pronunciation, of Arabic consonants is most easily acquired by learning from a Moslem to read the Corân aloud. With the exception of minute and insignifieant divergencies this Corânic pronunciation is in theory identical nearly* everywhere, though in India, and probably in countries still more remote from Arabia, its distinctness has fallen off, and the sound of some letters, notably $\varepsilon$ and $\tau$, is lost. Further, the Corân's vowelling is beyond dispute; and this is of more advantage to beginners than they are at first capable of recognizing; vowel-signs exist, and are used, for purposes of grammar rather than to aid colloquial pronunciation. Slight indications only as to Corânic pronunciation can here be given, together with an explanation of the transliteration to be employed.
are pronounced as in English, but r must be trilled and h distinctly uttered, however placed: thus mahdiy one led aright almost maȟđiy, and وَجْa wajh face like wajhY.
m
h
t sharper than in English, and with the tongue's tip, to d \} distinguish them from
t | pronounced with broad of tongue, the tip being held against ḍ $\int$ the lower teeth.

[^1]$$
1-2
$$
th as in thorin, thump; but th as in goatherd, lighthouse.
$\mathbf{j}$ is pronounced (i) $\hat{\jmath}$ as in John Jim Jack at al Azhar (the famous Cairo University), but (ii) at the mosques of Damascus, Tunis and Algiers $\mathfrak{j}$ as s in usual, measure, vision, and as z in azure, and j in adjoin, adjective, adjacent, bijou, and $g$ in lodge, prestige, singe. The former sound is represented by Frenchmen with dj and by Germans with
 it is easy to say sajujada ${ }^{2}$ or sâjâàdaћ, but not saĵjâdaћ: the French $\mathfrak{j}$ of bijou is therefore more convenient. Turks however pronounce this letter as $\hat{\jmath}$, and (iii) most Egyptians colloquially as the g of go, which last is the sound given in Hebrew.
$h$ can only be learned by ear: beginners must use $h$ until they catch the sound.
kh has long been employed by Anglo-Indians for the final sound, harshly said, of lough, loch; gh being required for غَيْ ghain, and ch wanted in Persian etc. for the final consonant of beach, which were best transcribed bic, i.e. with the Italian c in dolee: kh must sound as in blockhouse, thickheaded. Be it observed that $\dot{\tau}$ is not a $k$ but an $h$, which cannot in Hebrew writing be distinguished from $\tau$.
dh is as th in though, thee, this; being as $\delta$ of modern Greece: but dh as in bedhangings, adhesion.
z is strictly th said far back: but usually as z pronounced with the tongue's tip pressed against the lower teeth; then
z must be sounded sharply to make a distinction.
s sounds as in kiss: : Moslem (quasi-mosslem) is muslim
the first syllable of which resembles that of muzzle -im neither in vowel nor consonant. If hissed with the tongue's tip s contrasts with
¢ which must be pronounced further back, and with broad of tongue.
sh as in shore, wash; but sh as in mishap. For sh the French use ch and Germans sch, which last represents in Dutch


- must be learnt by ear. The arrangement of throat is the same as that required for h, but without aspirate. To mimic baby camels is best of all; otherwise one must repeat words in which عَيْن 'ain occurs between two vowels, as
 Table 1).
gh is the sound of gargling; but gh as in foghorn with the Persian gâf, thus as gh.
$q$ in Arabia is commonly pronounced as $g$ in go, and so may be said at first; but the student will learn to harden $g$ in the direction of k , and must sound
$k$ very sharply in contrast. No one who can recite the Corân like a Moslem at mosque will confuse 5 and do uninstructed Europeans.
n as in English, $\mathbf{~ J k}$ neing as in sank, sink; but نب nb sounds mb, thus $\underset{\sim}{\text {, }}$, a pulpit, called mimbar.
w (are always consonants, as وُزِير wazir burden bearer, سِواكن sawâkin (Souakim) female inhabitants, يُوسُفَ yûsuf Joseph;
y but, as these three examples show, 1 ي are frequently letters of prolongation (see § 6).
$\hbar$ representing $\dot{0}$ and $a$ is sounded as $h$ when final, and as
 marbutah tied, as distinguished from ت t, , mamdûdaћ stretched (see § 294 rem. b)

4. The vowels and diphthongs are as follows:-


Rem. $\boldsymbol{a}$. The three Arabic words above are names of the vowel-marks, the corresponding sounds being called and ${ }^{3}$.
 termed شَشَكْلُ form or figure, plural أَشْمْاَلُ and a consonant when followed by a vowel is said to be مُتَحْحِّكُ in motion.
5. When the Corân is recited, each letter, whatever its relative position, in theory represents the same sound; but in practice certain consonants somewhat modify adjacent vowels, for instance ق ق ط ض ص cause â, following one of them, to be sounded like the Scandinavian å, which we represent variously in nor, saw, war, hall, wrath, ought, caught. As to the many jargons which constitute colloquial Arabic, they show divergencies too material to be learnt from any book: pronunciation of each of these spoken dialects (they are unwritten) is easy to an Englishman who can read aloud the Corânic extracts of Elementary Arabic: First reading book uttering the consonants like a Moslem at mosque; but it must be acquired by ear at the particular locality simultaneously with all eccentricities of vocabulary and grammar*.
6. The long vowels â, $\mathrm{i}, \hat{\mathrm{u}}$ are indicated (see § 4) by marking the corresponding short vowels before $I, g$, and respectively, which are then called letters of prolongation.

Rem. $a$. In certain common words à is indicated merely by





[^2]筒 Israel are also written defectively, thus إِمْرَائلُ and تُمَنُونَ
7. Fathan before s and , forms the diphthongs ai and au (see § 4). Colloquial pronunciation, however, frequently gives ai as ei in vein, reign, neighbour, thus $\dot{\sim}^{\circ}$ شَ as sheikh elder, chief, بَّ as beit house, family, verse, (1) (1) ablique case of ithnein two.

Note. The vowel sound in vein were better represented by ê, whereas - ai should remain a diphthong as in the French word pays (nearly) pêi in contrast to the French letter p (nearly) pê.

Rem. $a$. A superfluous 1 is written after, at the end of certain verbal forms: it is useful in manuscript to prevent the, seeming separate and so being mistaken for $;$ and.

Rem. $b$. At the end of a word $\mathcal{v}$ following upon fatḥaћ (i.e. a see §4) is pronounced as 1 - â, so that عَلَّ 'ala upon and to be high scan the same. When in this position $I$ and $v$ are called they are shortened in pronunciation if followed by a connective 'alif (see § 18); thus عَ upon God and 'لَّى God has ascended are both in pause (see § 27) pronounced 'alallâh. The interposition of hamzaћ (see § 15) prevents this waçl union, thus The 'alif maqçûraћ, however written, is quiescent (see § 9 rem. $a$ ) as also are $g$ of $\dot{g}$ - au and of in ai. When attached to tanwin, radical final 'alif is quiescent, thus "́n a stick (see


Rem. c. If a pronominal suffix be added to a word ending in - as we wee, the wet is sometimes retained, but more often
 narâka we see thee.

Rem. d. Some words ending in ol - âћ may be written وة -

 تَوْرْرِيْةٌ or Old Testament.
8. Marks of the short vowels when doubled at the end of a word (see § 4) are pronounced thus $三 \mathrm{an}, \mp \mathrm{in}$, \& un, which is called تَتْنْوِينُ tanwinun adding of the letter nûn.

Rem. a. Tanwin of fathaћ takes I after all consonants except ou as بَابَ gate, but drousiness (see § 308). When preceding it requires no 1 as هُدْیى guidance. Notwithstanding this 'alif, the vowel is short: thus bâban̂ (not ân), but in pause (see § 27) bâbâ. We transliterate بَابًا bâban̂ and سَنَّا sinaћan, but an and an are pronounced alike; except in pause, when an is not heard, whereas ain sounds as â. In pause sinaћian is read sinah (see end of § 2).

The following orthographic signs are also in use:
9. Sukin rest - is placed over the final consonant of all shut syllables (see § 25).

Rem. $a$. A consonant which has no following vowel is called a quiescent letter (see § 4 rem. b).

Rem. $b$. Letters that are assimilated to a following letter, which receives in consequence tashdid (see § 11), are retained


10. When part of a diphthong $ي$ and $\boldsymbol{g}$ take sukûn, but this sign is very unusual over a 'alif maqçûraћ (see § 7 rem. b) or other letter of prolongation.
11. Tashdid strengthening $\sim$ is marked over a double consonant and the letter's repetition saved; thus بَئَّ baddala to substitute, i l il al kullu the whole.

Rem. c. Hamza (see § 15) may be doubled and take tashdid, thus سَأَّارْ sa"âlun a mendicant from سَّ
14. The euphonic tashdid follows a vowelless consonant, which, though expressed in writing, is passed over in pronunciatimon, in order to avoid a harshness of sound, and assimilated to a following consonant. It is used :-
 after $\cup$ il the (see § 345).

 analogous reason all other consonants are called the lunar letters from moon.
(b) With the letters, from his Lord, كِن رَّبٌ are read mirrabbihi, kitâbummubinun. The $n$ of the words官 is often not written when they are combined with Lَ, or yo.
 for עُ لَّ if not; but from what is better so written for
 (see § 353*).
 of the verb, as أَرْرُت I wished: this practice is, however, more than questionable.

Rem. b. If the verb ends in $\boldsymbol{ت}$ it naturally unites with a second $ت$, as نَنَّبَّتُتُ
15. Hamzaћ compression (of upper part of windpipe) \&, to which a 'alif most commonly serves as cóco 'imâd support, may almost be reckoned by Europeans as the alphabet's initial consonant. It is equivalent to the French $h$ aspirée (which to English sense is not, except in Normandy, sounded), and it may be heard between the two words le onze and between la onzième. If our own definite article be pronounced before a vowel as before a consonant, we can only prevent liaison by employing hamzaћ; thus thö 'orange (ö as E in the book). Arabs would transcribe a nice house anaishaus but an'aishaus for an ice house.

Rem. $a$. When a connective 'alif (see § 18) requires vowelling, the vowel mark is better written without hamzaћ, thus $j i$ the, إْنُ son (see § 19 rem. d).

Rem. c. Hamzaћ is marked between I and sukinn or the following vowel; but we find مَكْ his chiefs, abject, and even بُسْ griexous.

Rem. d. Hamzati is most perceptible in the middle of a
 the Coran.
 severance.
16. We have spoken in the preceding section of 'alif serving most commonly as 'imâd to hamzaћ; in certain circumstances this position may be taken by $g$ or $\mathfrak{\mathcal { V } \text { , the latter appearing without }}$ dots (see $\$ \$ 131$ et seq., $238,240,316 d$ and $361 a$ rem.), thus .
17. Hamzaћ alone, instead of $i$ ! or or is written,
(a) always at a word's end, after sukûn or a letter of pro-
 and in the middle of a word after 'alif of prolongation provided the hamzaћ bears fathaћ as acc. .

 § 23 rem. $c$.
(b) frequently in the middle of words after 9 or of pro-
 wish for dammaћ before g of prolongation ; خَ khâti'ina sinners

 خَ or khaṭ'aћun sin.

Rem. b. Hamzaћ may under certain circumstances be changed

 cist $n$,

Rem. c. The name ’ُ $\boldsymbol{\prime}$ David is always pronounced dầûd however it may be written.
18. Some Arabic words begin with connective 'alif over which is marked waçlaћ sign of union i , hereinafter transliterated by hyphen, because the word and its predecessor are spoken as one ; thus 'عبْد آللّه 'abdu -llâhi servant of God, وْاْدُعْوه wa -d'ûhu and call ye upon Him.
19. Elision takes place to form the union
(a) with the vowel of í the, as يوْر أدِّينِ the day of the judgment.

Note. As regards in in in 347.
(b) in regular Imperatives of the first form, as قَالَ أصْبٌ he said, Be patient ; instead of إصْبٍ
(c) in certain derivatives belonging to the seventh and following forms of the verbs (see § 35), as ${ }^{\text {g }}$ changed ; instead of انْنَلَبَبُوا.
 few other nouns.

Rem. c. In most of these words the 'alif and vowel are prosthetic, i.e. prefixed to a vowelless initial consonant for the sake of euphony (see § 26).

Rem. d. It is obviously an error to begin a sentence with i: in such case the connective 'alif is written without hamzat but with a vowel, as ل山ّ لü

Rem. f. Waçlaћ and 'alif are called union.
20. The connective 'alif may follow
(a) a short vowel, which then absorbs it (see § 18).
(b) a long vowel, which is then shortened in pronunciation
 in the earth, guide us (on) the way: but the suffixes of the 1st pers. sing. .- may assume before the article the older forms

 my signs those who.
(c) a diphthong, which usually is resolved into two simple
 (i) the pronoun of corroboration (see § 530).
(d) sukûn over a consonant, which then most usually takes
 (sometimes written (ُمْنَّةُ pronounced muhammaduninnabiyu,
 $\because$ or they; the suffixes verbal termination take dammah (in which they originally


مُ since because contracted for ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} \dot{\sim}$ §448) takes fathaћ before the article and elsewhere kasraћ.

Rem. $u$. When ó becomes ờ (see § $185 \mathrm{rem} . b$ ) the waçl may be made with ḍammaћ هُ or kasraћ همر or
21. The $i$ is altogether omitted
(a) from in the formula in the the the the the tho name of God, which by way of compensation is written $\qquad$
(b) from إبْنُ in a genealogical series, with certain exceptions.


 omitted, thus to للّللّه to fod for
(d) from words preceded by the interrogative particle ${ }_{i}^{i}$ (see § 361 a).
22. Maddaћ extension 二 does not admit of transliteration, being either superfluous or an abbreviation or marking an abbreviation. Thus it is customary to omit 'alif which, with hamza and a vowel or tanwin, follows a 'alif of prolongation; then by way of compensation maddaћ is written over the re-


23. Maddaћ and 'alif $i$ also represent a 'alif with hamzaћ and fathat followed by 'alif of prolongation II or by 'alif with hamzaћ and sukûn if, as آَ he returned for 1



Rem．c．Maddaћ is sometimes placed over 9 and ي of pro－ longation when followed by hamzaћ，as aُسْوَ， ：it serves in manuscript to prevent hamzaћ appearing to be upon the letter of prolongation．

Rem．d．The same mark 二 is written over abbreviations，as


24．An open syllable ends with a long or short vowel．
25．A shut syllable ends with a consonant，and its vowel is most commonly short．

26．A syllable cannot begin with two consonants：foreign words commencing so are transcribed by Arabian grammarians with an additional vowel，thus franks becomes إْفَرْنَ Europeans pronounced colloquially faranj or farang．

27．A syllable cannot end with two consonants，except on bi ll waqfi in pause，which ought to be made only when required by sense，but which is really more frequent；as لَّ لَ نْ⿰亻⿱一𫝀口㐄（compare Elementary Arabic：First reading book， page rv ，top line）to Him belong the dominion and the praise， witness also the Moslem credo phonetically written as pronounced
 wamuḥammadurrasûlullâh There is no god but God and Muhum－ mad is His apostle．In the Urdu translation of this book－will mark the shortest pause then，one of medium length and ．as in English the longest．

Note．Professor de Goeje appends to vol ii § $95 f$ of Wright＇s Grammar an instructive footnote condemning pedantic speech，
and he gives reference to a MS at Leyden. In fact case-endings are nearly always dropped in أَّّارِّ al dârij current speech:
 ibrrashid by Badawin (Bedouins). The accusative is most often
 pause marhabâ (see § 8 rem. $a$ ).
28. The accent will not occasion difficulty to Englishmen who acquire pronunciation of Arabic consonants by reading the Corân aloud after a Moslem: it is designed to ensure grammatical accuracy; thus يُسْبَّ Elementary Arabic: First reading book, page $i s$ bottom line) is pronounced yusabbihu for fear of saying yusábbihûu. Colloquial accentuation differs with the locality ; thus muçţafa-llâhi chosen of God is múçţafa in Syria, and in Egypt muçṭ́fa or even muçtâfa.
32. Numbers were anciently expressed by letters whose numerical value may be learnt in the following order أَبْجَ هُوَّ稀; six consonants, forming the last two words, being supplementary to the Hebrew and Aramaic alphabets. Between the analysis and text of Elementary Arabic: First reading book will be found a Table, which gives the Phoenician, modern Hebrew, and other alphabets. The Arabic figures now employed are

$$
\begin{array}{llllllllll}
1 & r & r & c & 0 & y & v & \hat{9} & 9 & . \\
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 0
\end{array}
$$

and they are used in our order, thus 0. 1 Nへ9 506389.

## PART II.

## ETYMOLOGY OR THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

33. Verbs are mostly triliteral (containing three radical letters) but some are quadriliteral.
34. From the first or ground-form are derived other forms expressing modifications of the idea conveyed by the first (see § 369 Table 3 et seq.).
35. The forms of the triliteral verb are fifteen, as follows :

| إفْعٌ) | , إِسْفَعْلَ |  |  | ف فَ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | إْعْالَّ | うَ | تَنَّعَّلَ | فَعّْلَ |
|  | إِفْعْوعْرَ | إِفْعَّ | تَفَاءَالِ | فَاءُلَ |

Rem. $a$. The 3rd pers. sing. masc. Perf, active, being the simplest form of the verb, is used as paradigm, but for shortness' sake we translate it by the English infinitive; thus to wound instead of he has wounded.
 hence the first radical of the triliteral verb is called al al fâ',

36. The first form is generally transitive or intransitive in signification, according to the vowel which accompanies its second radical.
37. The second radical's vowel is $a$ in most transitive verbs, as ضَرْبَ to to geat ; and some intransitive, as right way.
38. Vowel $i$ in similar position usually shows an intransitive signification, $u$ invariably : the $i$ indicating what is temporary or accidental, as سَبِّ to be safe; whilst $u$ (meaning rarely to become what one was not before, as شَرْفَ to become noble) indicates a permanent state or inherent quality, as to be beautififl.

Rem. $a$. Many verbs of the form فَعِلَ are transitive according to our ideas.

Note. The following sections give a general view of some derived forms without taking into account whether the verbs govern an accusative, or by help of prepositions a dependent (see § 423).
40. The second form فَن ${ }^{\text {ف }}$ is in meaning intensive or extensive. Originally it implies an act done with force, during long, by a number, or repeatedly; as to mock to subject, treat as abject, صَرَّفَ صَ to turn, she same but of several objects, صَ صَلَّبَ to crucify the same of many, فَبَ to separate فَصَّلَ to divide into several pieces, قَقَّلَّ

 hold tight.
41. Not less usual is the secondary signification, (a) verbs intransitive in the first form becoming transitive in the second; as أَّبَ to be well brought up bestow a good education,


 نَبْتَتَ to spring forth plant or sow, and
(b) those transitive in the first, causative ; as to reach,

عَّسَى to make pass and to give a verb a transitive signification,



Rem. b. This form is often declarative or estimative, as صضَقَّ to toll the truth صَّقَ think that one tells the truth, believe one, فَذَنَّ to to call one a liar, فَذَنَ to surpass فَضّلَ to regard as superior, favour.

Rem. c. This form is very frequently denominative, i.e. derived from a noun; as بَشَّ to substitute from بَّ something
 (peace be upon thee), صَوَّ to fashion from an image, ضُورَّ to toَّ
 نَبَّ has emerged or arisen),

Note. It is difficult to connect wow to praise with woَ to swim: accordingly the native grammarians call "denominative of سَزَّ generally means he disciplined, chastized, constrained by punishment) in the exceptional sense he helped may possibly be a denominative from the Hebrew 'ezer help (see I Samuel vii. 12). The noun does not occur in Arabic with that signification.
43. The third form فَاءِ implies
(a) the effort or attempt to perform an act which the first form denotes as immediately affecting an object, the idea of reciprocity being sometimes added; as عo to receive عَطَا receive from each other, give mutually, غَلَبَ to overcome غَاْبَ to try to overcome,
 contend in pulling, وَوَدَ to promise gَوَد to fix time and place for execution of a promise.
(b) This form sometimes governs directly, not without the idea of reciprocity, when the first or fourth form governs its object by help of a preposition, as أرسْلَ إِّى أَسُّلْطَانِ he sent (a message) to the Sultan رَاسَل ألسُّنْطَانَ he interchanged messages, corresponded, with the Sultan, هُ فَالَ he said to him something (c) he conversed with him.
(c) When the first form denotes a quality or state (see § 75) فَاعَلَ indicates affecting a person by the quality or bringing him




Rem. $a$. This form is sometimes denominative, as ${ }^{\text {ضे }}$ to double, multiply from ضِنٍ the like or equal.

Rem. c. In Elementary Arabic: First reading book page If bottom line بَاوَزنَّا (see § $456 b$ ).

Note. The form of the verb بَارِك he blessed may be due to Hebrew, from which it is most probably derived (see § 455 Note).
45. The fourth form intransitive in the first form becoming transitive; as to come

 On to be an object of love to love ie. treat as an object of love, حَلَّ to be lawful to make lawful, أَّلَّ to live to bring to life,



 submissive ${ }^{\text {c| }}$


 نَنْر to be on one's guard to descend send down, نَنِّ to live agreeably to be expended


(b) Verbs transitive in the first form become doubly transitive; as ac to guard, observe bَأَأَ to cause one's knowledge to encompass, comprehend,




 وقَّى to guard أَوْقى to make to guard.

Rem. $a$. When both the second and fourth forms of a verb are causative they have in some cases different significations, in others the same; as آَأَذَنَ to give ear to cause people to listen, announce, declare,


Rem. b. The fourth form, like the second, is sometimes declarative or estimative ; as أَّرْ to be faithful آَنَ to find trustworthy, believe, to praise

Rem. c. This form is often denominative, as to speak eloquently from eloquence, بَلَغْغَ حَسْنُ a crime, أَجْرْ to be guilty from



 lend from a a loan, to remain in a place from أَقَاْ a place, أَمْهُ to grant a respite or delay from gentleness, leisurely acting. There is another class of denominatives, as أَبَانَ

[^3]territory from
浝 to find a place, become possible from


Note. Beside the above must be mentioned to wish which cannot be immediately derived from , رَار to go to and fro; أَأَّاَرَ to indicate, point out from direct the exhibit ; أَابَ course of something expressly at, hit the mark whence the commoner meaning to overtake, befall from ضَابَ to rush down
 recover from illness or a swoon from فَقَ to be above ; 的 as light, carry easily from oَّ which means in Hebrew to be light
 both meaning to inspire, suggest; and أَيْقَنَ to make sure from يِقنْ which means the same but is very unusual.
47. The ffth form تَفَعَّ $\quad$ is reflexive of the second, being (as are the next following forms) called grammatical agent of which complies with, i.e. receives the effect of, the action of the verb to which it is reflexive; as أَّذ to
 manifest, show تَبَجَّلَى to make oneself manifest, تَذَّرَّ to become reminded of, رُنَّ
 omen concerning oneself as from the flight of birds, قَّ to say, to make out that a man said so and so تُقَّوَّ to make out falsely that a man said so and so with a view to one's own
 وَوَّى to receive payment in full, and of God to take to Himself, وَّ 'ؤَّ to make someone else to be one's wakil, i.e. a person left alone, an agent تَوَوَّلَ to trust oneself to an agent who is fully empowered to act on one's behalf, تَوْلَّى أْلْمْ he took charge of the matter himself.

Rem. b. Some of Professor Wright's examples in § 47 are denominative, as تَنَّ to call oneself a prophet from a prophet. In case of تَضَرَّعَع to make humble supplication, earnestness is denoted by the doubled middle radical and self-advantage by the prefixed in comparison with $ت$ ضَرَع to be humble. Further we observe لِّفَ he caught up, swallowed what was cast to him洎 to cust a thing to another person to be seized and swallowed كَ تَقِفَ but with the idea added of taking for one's own advantage: while to stretch oneself is reflexive of the first form ór to extend. We find also to be near or beside ولَّى to turn one's side or back to another مَّى to turn aside.
48. By way of secondary meaning we have the effective, i.e. expressing effect, as بَيَّن to make distinct تَيْنَّ to appear clear, ga give a verb a transitive signification تَّىى to be transitive.
50. The sixth form تَتَّفَاعَ is connected with the third: it is reflexive, and frequently simulative especially when the ground form is intransitive, thus تَبَّآسَ to feign poverty from بَبْسَ to be poor. Also we find $\begin{gathered}\text { تَخَا } \\ \text { wَا } \\ \text { wrongly to attribute error to oneself }\end{gathered}$
which is reflexive and intensive of ${ }^{\text {تَتَخَّ }}$ to impute error to another, from ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ bَc to do wrong. More often it is reciprocal,

 تَتَاوْنَ to help one another, ${ }^{\text {تَّ }}$ fought with one unother; while oَ make تَ تَهَاَدَ and

Rem. $a$. When used of God تَبَارَك reflexive force of this form : تَبَارَكَ أللّهُ God has made Himself most blessed, تَّعَانَى God has exalted Himself above all, see § 401 rem.

Rem. c. This form is appropriate to actions that take place


Note. From غَ غَبَنْ to chear (should mean if it existed) of two persons that one cheated the other and تَغَابَنَ means of many that they cheated one another whence تَغَابُنْ general deception, see § 202.
 reflexive of the first, and approaches to a passive, being some-
 become clear, manifest to skin إْنُبَّ be driven, قَطَع to out to be cut off; to be ended, to end, or to change, invert to be changed, translated as by death.
53. This form may imply that a person allows of an act being done to himself, as جَرَّ to drag to let oneself be dragged.

Note. We employ انْبْجَأَثِ to split itself as paradigm, though the word is little known.
55. The eighth form is reflexive of the first; the reflex


 oneself, fear; or
(b) the indirect object, implying for one's own advantage, as إِتَجْر to give alms ṣeeking a reward, أَجْر to reward, í to obtain good ${ }^{\prime}$, to take to oneself that which seems good, choose be even with, equal to إستْتَى to settle oneself, become firm, صَ صَ to to be pure and clear clear, إْتَدَى to go beyond and leave behind so for one's own evil ends, transgress consciously, فَرْى to cut out, manufacture أْفْتَى to do so for one's own evil purpose, forge lies, نَقْىَ to punish
 a sláin beast.
56. Occasionally, like the sixth form, it is reciprocal, as

57. Sometimes we find it passive, especially in verbs wanting the seventh form (see § 113), as to admonish to be admonished; also which however may mean to find true direction.

Rem. $a$. In many verbs this form agrees nearly in meaning with the first, as بَ بَدَ and


Note. We find also إبْتَأَّ
59. The winth form إِنْ 1 , and the eleventh express colours or defects, being indistinguishable in sense; thus إِضْنَ إْفَارَّ to be yellow.
 as أَأَهْيَا to bring to life, preserve alive save alive for

 (i.e. to obey oneself), , أَغْنَه to make rich to make oneself
 make stand upright , to hold oneself upright.
62. This form may indicate a belief that some thing or person possesses the quality expressed by the first, as شُ شُّ (passive) to be unlucky المْتَشْشَأَرَه to deem unlucky, to be weak年 to be sweet and pleasant
 puffed up with pride.
63. This form very frequently means asking or seeking what is indicated by the first, as أَأَنْ to give permission إِنْأَذْنَ to ask
 pardon ${ }^{\text {n }}$, to ask pardon,
 إسْتُوْقَعْ to look for its coming to pass.
65. This form is sometimes denominative, as إنْ to except from الْتْتَلْفَفَ to appoint as successor, deputy or caliph from خَفْفَفَة successor.

Notr. In meaning تَيسَرَ and nearly corresponds with يَسْ ; while إِسْعَعانَ to ask help may be derived from أَكَانَ to help or, better still, called a denominative of
66. The remaining forms of the triliteral verb need not be noticed here, as they do not occur in Elementary Arabic : First reading book.
67. Quadriliteral verbs are formed (a) by repeating a biliteral root, as غَرْرَر to gargle; (b) by adding a fourth letter, as



68. There are three derived forms of the quadriliteral verb, which are conjugated in the paradigms (Table IV) of Wright's Grammar, viz.

73. Nearly all verbal forms, primitive or derivative, have two voices, the active and the passive ; but we must often translate the latter impersonally, as í a dragging took place
 pluce (or, an onslaught was made) upon their hunds, i.e. they bit their fingers for disappointment (see § 533).
75. We speak of neuter verbs, meaning those which express a state or condition and therefore have no passive voice, as to be wise, but Arabian grammarians reckon them as active, distinguishing between
 that are confined to the subject.
77. An Arabic verb has two States, the Perfect indicating a finished act, and the Imperfect an act that is just commencing or in progress.

Rem. $a$. Acquaintance with grammar will teach how to employ these States in explaining the temporal relations (past, present, and future) which non-semitic languages express by tenses.
79. There are five moods : the Indicative which is common to the perfect and imperfect states ; the Subjunctive, and Jussive (or Conditional) which are restricted to the imperfect; the Imperative which is expressed by a special form; and the Energetic which can be derived from the imperfect and from the imperative.
80. By way of Infinitives we have nomina actionis nouns eapressing the action or quality (see § 195). In place of participles two verbal adjectives are used; nomen agentis denoting the agent, and nomen patientis the patient (see § 229).
81. There are three numbers, Singular, Dual, and Plural ; likewise three persons. The genders are two, Masculine and Feminine ; but distinction cannot in all cases be made, as أَّقُولُ I say, where the speaker's sex is not disclosed.
83. Verbs are called strong when the three radical letters are retained throughout and undergo no change.

Rem. To contain í, f or causes a verb to be called weak (see § 126); but verbs in which the second and third radicals are identical (see § 120) we shall call strong.

Nore. Students must spare no pains to learn the conjugations in § 369 Tables 1,2 and 3 ; otherwise they will find the weak verbs difficult to impossibility.
84. The numbers, persons, and genders of the verbs are expressed by means of personal pronouns, annexed to the various moods and states. These may be connected, i.e. prefixed or suffixed, in which case they are to be learned from the conjugations ; thus نَ we in in we wounded, wounded, ي he in he wounds (see § 369 Table 1)*: or they may be separate.
89. The following table gives such separate personal pronouns as express the nominative :-

Singular.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ¢o she | - • • | ه́go | 3rd person |
| أَنْتِ | . | أَنْتَ | 2nd |
|  | I |  | $18 t$ |

[^4]
## Dual

| Feminine | Common | Masouline |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - . | - ${ }^{\text {or }}$ they two | - | 3rd person |
|  | - |  | 2 n |

Plural

| they |  | - ${ }_{\text {os }}$ they | 3 rd |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ye | . . |  | 2nd |
|  | 促 we |  | 1st |

Rem. c. For the older forms sُ and see $\S$ a $20 d$ d
Note. In § 185 are given pronominal suffixes expressing the accusative, and those expressing the dependent in § 317.
90. Regarding first the active voice we observe that the 3rd pers. sing. masc. perfect of the ground form bears fathaћ always on the first and third radicals.
91. When the middle radical of the perfect has fathaћ a verb must take either dammat or kasrat in the imperfect; as يَضْبِبُ to which we write - and Also to relate, to create, - رزَقَّ to provide,
 understand, - to pull out, نَزَعْ Many verbs admit of both forms; as دَرْسَ to study, يُدْرَسُ and which we shorten into يُدْرِس buth, and $\div$ to cling.

Rem. $a$. Verbs of which the second or third radical is a guttural (either i, $\tau, \dot{\tau}, \varepsilon, \dot{\varepsilon}$, or o) may be exceptional ; as
 - to be driven away, to be the head of, to swim, $\because$ - to fascinate, enchant, ${ }^{\text {under }}$ - to intercede, = to strike with lightning, صَعْقَ

 water to flow, rule ; as




Note. As paradigm we use فَعْلُ
92. When the second radical of the perfect has kasraћ, the imperfect bears fathaћ ; as - رَهِبْ, to to fear, to be lo lo who ntwitted,
 - to hasten, to work, do, to enjoin, covenant.

Rem. Exceptions are rare, as $ب$ بَبْسَ $=$ to be in distress or


93. When the middle radical of the perfect has dammar the imperfect bears the same, as بَبْرَ to see, to be bad, ar.

 -
95. The indicative of the imperfect is distinguished by dammaћ on the third radical, as يَبْ he is ignorant; the sub-

96. A termination $\dot{j}$ of the indicative is only retained in the subjunctive and jussive when required as mark of gender; otherwise it and $\dot{y}$ are rejected.
97. The energetics are formed from the jussive by adding $\dot{\dot{u}}$ - or $\dot{\dot{U}}$ - (subject to certain variations, which in case of Energetic I of the imperfect may be learnt from the paradigms in §369) thus, بَتَ. Energetic II of the imperfect and the two energetics of the imperative are omitted from § 369 as they do not occur in Elementary Arabic: First reading book.
98. The imperative is formed by substituting a prosthetic vowel for the prefix of the jussive's 2nd sing. : when the second radical bears fatha $\hbar$ or kasra $\hbar$ this vowel is kasra $\hbar$, and when

 and similarly with the feminine etc.

Rem $a$. Concerning prosthetic vowels see § 19, rem. c.
Rem. b. Fathath is never so employed.
100. From the active voice the passive is distinguished by altered vowels (see § 369 , T'able 2) on the first and second radicals.

Rem. It makes no difference what characteristic vowels are employed in the active voice.
101. Instead of a passive imperative the jussive is used.
102. The derived forms of strong verbs must be learned from $\S 369$, Table 3 ; attention being at an early stage confined to the first seven and the tenth form, i.e. neglecting the ninth, eleventh and following.
107. The relation of passive to active will be found analogous to that in the ground form.

Rem. $a$. The imperfect passive of the first and fourth forms are identical in appearance.
111. When the verbal root begins with $\because, ث, \mathbb{C}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{j}$,
 sixth forms may lose its vowel and form a double letter with the first radical, to which when necessary a prosthetic 'alif and kasraћ must be added; as إِيَّيَ يَطَّيَّر to draw an omen concerning oneself for اسَّاقَطَّ يَسَّقَطُ, تَطَيَّرَ يِتَطَيَّرُ to fall one by one for تَسَاقَطَط يْتَسَاقَطُ
112. The $\underset{\sim}{\because}$ of the fifth and sixth forms is sometimes omitted from those persons of the imperfect active to which تَ is prefixed; as تَتَقَّفُ she swallows for تَنَّكَّرُ ,تَتَلَقَّفُ becomes reminded of for تَنََّّكَّرُ (see § 111).
115. If the first radical be $\because$ or $ث$, characteristic $\because$ of the eightl form unites with the initial $\because$ into $\underset{\sim}{ت}$ and with initial $ث$

117. If the first radical be $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}, \boldsymbol{b}$ or $\boldsymbol{b}$, characteristic $\boldsymbol{ت}$ is changed into b; as إضْ I chose from and not اصْتْقَيْتُ.
120. Verbs with the middle radical doubled are conjugated in $\$ 369$, Tables $5 a, b$ and $c$ : they differ from other strong verbs in two ways.
(a) When both the initial and final radicals have vowels the middle rejects its vowel and becomes with the final a double letter bearing tashdid; as ${ }^{\text {a }}$
 pound, $\begin{aligned} & \text { ذَلَّ } \\ & \text { ذَ }\end{aligned}$ - to be abased,

(b) If the initial radical is without a vowel and the final has one, then the middle radical throws its vowel to the initial and becomes with the final a double letter; as يَّ يَّ for for يَ يَغْنْ
 must be specially noted in the perfect of verbs like for to become loved which makes حَبْبَ حَبْبَ and like for

121. The jussive is sometimes identical with the subjunctive as يَّهْتِنْ for
124. In some derived forms will be found alternative vocalization : this is common when the doubled radical follows

126. Verbs are called weak when one of the three radical letters is subject to transformation or rejection.
128. Verbs with 9 or for a radical are unmistakeably weak, more so than those called hamzated.
129. Verbs may be doubly weak (§ 171): and even trebly, as

130. Hamzated verbs fall into three classes according as hamza serves for first, second or third radical : they are conjugated in § 369, Tables 6 to 8, differing from strong verbs especially as regards the 'imâd (see § 15) in the following ways.
131. The 'alif with hamzaћ and sukûn í preceded by ḍammaћ


132. It is said by some that 9 and represent sounds towards which hamzaћ is inclined by the preceding vowel.

Rem. b. Instances occur like أُوِذينَا we were hurt for أُؤِذِينًا إيذَنْ , give ear for إيت , إِنْذَنْ , come for (see 175) : but in imperatives following $\dot{g}$ or $\boldsymbol{9}$ the connective 'alif is rejected while hamzaћ with sukûn remains; thus فَأْتِ so then come.
133. Similarly í becomes if preceded by fatḥaћ, as بُؤُس to



 as سُسِّن (passive) he was asked not سِّلْ

Rem. At the end of a word ${ }^{\frac{2}{1}}$ he reads but يُقِرْوَ he reads it.



135. If 'alif of prolongation follows radical $\bar{i}$ at a word's beginning we write $\bar{i}$ or $\bar{I}_{s}$ or even $\bar{i}$ (see § 23) as to consult
 grieve for
137. The verbs أَأَ أًْ 1 , to to to tomand and كُ بُ أَ
138. The imperative may when following or or or recover
 فَكُكْلُ وَغْ
139. In the eighth form of $\dot{\mathrm{j}} \mathrm{i}$ í the first radical becomes assimilated to $ت$, thus التَّ $^{\text {ا }}$ to take for oneself: this occurs with a few other verbs, but أتَّجَر from to reward is less common than إيتَتْ which follows § 132 , rem. $b$.
140. Loss of hamzaћ occasionally takes place and we have , for to ask. The vowel may even be transferred, as to send for
141. Weak verbs specially so called likewise fall into three classes according as $و$ or is the first, the second, or the third radical.
142. Verbs with 9 as initial radical (see §369, Table 9) which have kasrat for characteristic vowel of the imperfect and imperative, reject $g$ in those forms. Thus gu to bear children

 or place imperf. يُقِتُ, impera. $\stackrel{\circ}{ت}$; وَكَّلَ to leave alone imperf.


Rem. $a$. A few verbs, having (contrary to § 92) kasraћ in both perfect and imperfect, lose their initial radical, as وَثِقَّ وَقَ to

143. But verbs with $g$ as initial radical, which have fathat or dammar for characteristic vowel of the imperfect and imperafive, retain $g$ in those forms; as وَسِنَ to doze imperf. يَوْسن,

 .إِجِّر
144. In certain verbs initial $g$ drops from the imperfect and imperative notwithstanding that fath $\hbar$ is the characteristic vowel of these forms ; as وذر to leave and وَسْر a to the
 to fall

Rem. b. وذر is not used in the perfect.
145. If initial $g$ be vowelless, a preceding kasraћ or dammaћ changes it into , of prolongation as may be seen in § 143

146. Verbs with as initial radical are inflected almost like strong verbs, thus يَسْرَ يَّسْ (see § 369, Table 9).
147. But if initial be vowelless, a preceding kasraћ or ḍammaћ changes it into or of prolongation ; thus the imperative of يَسِر to be easy is إيسرٌ for إِيْر and the fourth form is أَيْرَ يُوسِر to arrive at ease.
148. In the eighth form $و$ and are assimilated to the
 of which the nomen agentis is
149. Verbs with or as middle radical are conjugated in § 369, Tables 10 to 13 : they differ from strong verbs only in the first, fourth, seventh, eighth and tenth forms.
150. In case the initial radical is without a vowel and the final has one, the vowel of the middle radical passes to the first and we employ a letter of prolongation homogeneous with the vowel which the first radical has now assumed ; thus
with form $\mathcal{l}$







151. But if the final radical has sukun, the long vowels
 with form يَ يُ يُوْرِ 1 becomes of to go round


Rem. يُيُنْ for jussive of further abbreviated into $\begin{gathered}\text { In } \\ \text {, see § } \\ 583 \\ \text { c. }\end{gathered}$

Note. We have يُ يُكُنَّنَّ he will certainly be from يُكُنْ (see §97) jussive of reappear in obedience to § 150. So in the plural, thus لَ تَنَانُوا fear ye not.
152. It follows that the first form's imperative needs no prosthetic 'alif; thus with form أُوْون أْنْعُز becomes from to be
" صَا
153. If three open syllables follow in immediate succession, the first of which has fathana, then 'alif of prolongation takes the middle radical's place ; thus

" do. غَ غَيْبَ 1 , to be absent



" يَخْتْرِر يَفْتُعِلُ
154. But if the first syllable's vowel be dammar, and $\boldsymbol{g}$ or ي bear kasraћ, we discard dammar, taking kassa into its place, and adopt of prolongation instead of the middle radical ; as

155. If the first radical has fathatù and the third sukûn, three cases arise.
(a) The middle radical is 2 or with fathat; when we discard it and its vowel, placing, if it was $g$, dammaћ on the first radical, and kasraћ if it was e : thus

(b) The middle radical is 9 with dammaћ or $\mathbf{~}$ with kasraћ; when we discard it and its vowel, but we place a vowel homogeneous with it upon the first radical : as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { with form طَ طَوْتْ فُعْلْتَ becomes to be long }
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) The middle radical is 9 with kasraћ; when we discard it and its vowel, placing kasra $\hbar$ on the first radical : as

156. In certain passive forms the $ي$ of prolongation is shortened into kasraћ, when the third radical bears sukunn ; thus (for (ذُينْتِتْ ) becomes thou wast obeyed, which is identical in form with ${ }^{\text {دنْتِ }}$, thou hast obeyed.
157. Most verbs with $g$ as middle radical take dammaћ in the imperfect, and most with take kasrah ; but some of the form فُعِلَ take fathaћ. Thus


# نَامْ for for sleep  <br>  

We have mentioned ( $(\$ 92$, rem.) )
164. Verbs with $g$ or as final radical are conjugated in § 369, Tables 14 to 18 : they are of five kinds :-
(i) Final وَبَنَوْ

165. One of three things must happen : the final radical retains its consonantal power, or resolves itself into a vowel, or is elided.
166. At the beginning of a syllable two things are possible.
(a) The third radical maintains its power as a consonant, in 1 g. - awâ as عَعَوَو they two (mass.) were disobedient
"يَ يَ ayâ , they two (masc.) rewarded
", twa " يُ he may try
" وَ ur uwâ ,, يُعْفُوْانِ they two (masc.) condone
"Er - iva " عَهِّ he was blind

also when following sukûn, as عَدْ a transgressing, وِضْوَانُ grace,


 and the like in verbs with $g$ or n as middle radical.
(b) The third radical is elided between a short vowel and i or $\hat{u}$ : this involves contraction
(i) either into a long vowel ; namely





(ii) or into a diphthong; namely

صَفَوُوا نَّهِيوا "

167. At the end of a syllable the third radical is either (a) vocalized or (b) elided, whether (i) it stands there naturally as in ـُفَيتُ I was hidden, or (ii) after losing a short vowel as in يَ يَخْفَفْ he is hidden for يَفْى
a. (i) It is vocalized when naturally so placed, as follows:
(a) if the preceding vowel be homogeneous
g. - uw becomes, , ̂̀ as $\begin{gathered}\text { تُهُو } I \text { was prudent }\end{gathered}$
l covered
(b) if the preceding vowel be heterogeneous

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {; - aw becomes ; - au as in i escaped } \\
& \text { "aye " ئ " }
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) It is vocalized if so placed by loss of a short vowel, thus



b. (i) It is elided when naturally so placed in the imperative and jussive, thus

in! seek thou (masc.)
يُرْضى " يَرْضَ ", إِرْنى , " be thou content (masc.) "رْضَ
(ii) It is elided when so placed in the nomina agentis (see § 80) before tanwin of dammar and kasraћ, which vowels disappear, while the tannin passes back to kassa of the second radical ; thus
 " one who reveals " " one at enmity

"
So with all the first eight forms and tenth (see ss 236, 311).

Nore. The distinction in $a$ (ii) between the final syllables of
 (see § 7, rem. b).
169. Final $\boldsymbol{g}$ becomes $\mathfrak{v}$ in all derived forms of the verb,
 VII اعْتَدَى , etc.
170. To form the nomen patientis مَeْعُولُ of these verbs, radical و g coalesces with of prolongation, as struck with
 , of prolongation into and the two coalesce, with kasrat preceding instead of dammaћ, as one led aright for

171. Doubly weak verbs are of two classes: first those with both hamzaћ and or among their radicals; and second those in which or orcurs.twice or which contain وي and و و or
172. Of the first class there are three sorts, each admitting two varieties according to the position of hamzaћ.
(i) Hamzated verbs with initial و or
(ii) middle or or
(iii) " final وي or
173. In sort (i) hamzaћ serves as middle or final radical, and such verbs are inflected like both classes to which they belong.
174. In sort (ii) hamzaち serves (a) for initial radical, as آَ


Éشَ for to wish. The following table shows such verbs inflected like both classes to which they belong.


175. In sort (iii) hamza ћ serves (a) for initial radical, as نَأَىى to come, to be hurt ; and (b) for middle radical, as to to to be far: such verbs are inflected like both classes to which they belong, thus


Rem. a. In the imperative أْتْتِ see § 132 , rem. $b$.
176. From certain parts of ( elided : as (indic. and subj.) تُنَرَّ wee see; (subj. and juss.) بَيْروْا they (masc.) see ; but (perf.) saw, ig', they (masc.) saw.

Rem. c. Radical hamzated 'alif is elided from the fourth form when meaning to show, as أُ أُ show thou (masc.),
177. Of the second class (see § 171) there are two sorts.
178. In sort (i) ونقَى to guard, وَفَى to be faithful to one's engagement, وَكِي g to be near (see § 142 , rem. $a$ ) ; and such verbs are inflected like both classes to which they belong, thus

Perf. sing. 3rd masc.

179. In sort (ii) , or $v$ is the middle and final radical, as غَوْى to go astray, قَوْی to be strong, سِّيَ to be even with, equal to, "~َي to live ; and in such verbs the second radical undergoes no change: thus

Perf. sing. 3rd masc.
", ,, , fem.
" , 2 2nd masc.
Imperf. indic.
Imperative
GR.


Rem. $a$. We write from


182. The verb $\begin{gathered}\text { تَّ } \\ \text { he is not has no imperfect or imperative ; }\end{gathered}$ its perfect is inflected like verbs with for middle radical; thus

| 1st | 2ndif. | 2nd m. | 3rd f. | 3rdm. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| تِّسٌ | Jَّتّ | لَسْتِّ | ز | زَيْنِ | Sing. |
|  |  | لَسْتٌ18 | (1) | -1/ | Dual |
| -1.j] | كَسْتِّنّ | كrmorn | كَسْنِ | كَيّْوْ | Plur. |

We may perhaps call jo a substantive verb, because it implies non-existence without connotation of time or change; it is mentioned in $\$ 442,559,560$ and 587 d .

REN. $a$. يَيْ is compounded of ýy not and the obsolete or أَيْس existence, being; as may be learned in studying Hebrew, Aramaic, and Assyrian.
183. The verbs of praise and blame are نْ to be good and بِنْس to be bad : they are exclamatory, and when a nominative follows, it must be defined, as as بُمْسَ أْلْمَصِير a bad issue is that !

Rem. $a$. The verb may be joined to following conjunctive Lo,

185. We give here a table of the pronominal suffixes which follow verbs in order to express the accusative, the nominative prououns having been mentiuned iu $\S 89$.

Singular.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lé her | - - | o him | 3rd | person |
| s) thee | - . | ¢) thee | 2nd | " |
| - . | نٌ O | - • - | 1st | " |

## Dual.



Plural.


| OB them | 3 rd " |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| "S you | 2nd |

نَ us
1st "
Rem. a. For the dependent case, see § 317.
Rem. b. The ḍammaћ of 0, , -, ي - بي into kasraћ ; as and do thou (mase.) put


186. An accusative suffix causes change to its verb when
(a) the word ends with a superfluous 'alif (see § 7, rem. a)
 beware of them.
(b) To avoid cacophony we retain in the Perf. pl. 2nd masc. 2- $\hat{u}$ which the language employed at an earlier stage, thus笑 ye (masc.) have contrived, but ye have contrived it.


$$
4-2
$$

188. Sometimes the pronominal object is expressed by a suffix attached to the word 'إيَّ 'iyâ, which canuot stand alone; thus إِّاكُ thee, but the 1st sing. is إيَّك me.
189. A pronominal suffix with إيَّ is used,
(a) if one desires to avoid attaching two suffixes to the same
 repetition of the governing verb when a pronoun is coupled by g and (see § 578) with a substantive or with a pronominal suffix, as and $m e$ :
(b) when a pronoun is, for the sake of emphasis, placed before the verb; as إِيَّكَ نَعْبٌد وَإِيَّاكَ نَسْتْعِينُ Thee only do we worship and to Thee alone we cry for help (see § 431 rem.).

Arabian grammarians divide parts of speech into three; (a) ín in the action, verb, and (c) ${ }^{\text {( }}$, il the particle.
190. The noun ('in nomen) is of six kinds.
(i) The nomen substantivum more especially called ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{\sim}$ well as أَلْتْعْعُوتُ qualificabile: to it adjectives can be attached. This when deverbal we shall call nomen verbi and treat in $\S 195$ et seq.
(ii) The adjective, or descriptive epithet.
(iii) The numeral, or noun of number.
(iv) The demonstrative pronoun, or noun of indication.
(v) The conjunctive pronoun.
(vi) The personal pronoun, or substitute for a thing or person not mentioned.

Rem. $a$. Nouns substantive and adjective must be treated together, they being in form almost identical. We give (iii) numerals in $\$_{\S} \$ 318$ to 328 ; (iv and v) demonstrative, conjunctive, and interrogative pronouns in $\$ \$ 340$ to $353^{*}$ : the (vi) personal pronouns, which have been treated in $\$_{\$ 8} 84,89$ and 185 to 189 , will be mentioned again at $\S 317$.
191. In respect of their origin nouns are divisible into (a) primitive and (b) derivative.
(a) Primitive nouns are substantives; as أُمٌ mother, إنْسَانُ man, آَيْةُ a well,










(b) Derivative nouns may be substantive or adjective ; and are either deverbal, as in تَْْضِ preeminence from فَضَّلَ to regard as superior, أَدِيبٌ lettered, polite from أَدِبَ
$u p$; or they are denominative, as a $\begin{gathered}\text { org } \\ \text { a line of bricks, a chapter }\end{gathered}$ from a wall, مُوْ Christian from Christ.

Rem. a. Arabic dictionaries catalogue words under their radical letters ; those compiled by Orientals are mostly arranged in order of the final, and by Europeans of the initial radical. All place first the verb, even though it be derivative and a noun its etymon (i.e. an original, primitive, or root word). To distinguish may be difficult; but any noun which is used as maçdar (see § 195) will best be considered deverbal : thus $a$
 beguile, cause to put on a false appearance which has also the
 cleft or trenched in the earth, as derivative of $\boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ whereas some may wish to regard sea as a primitive noun. It is well to treat substantives of foreign origin as etymons; thus,

 Testament, etc. Also we have í il (plural, oblique case) the mundane rational creatures (see § 302 e). Words which Arabians admit to be borrowed are called by them

Rem. b. Arabian grammarians unmethodically divide the nouns into categories which overlap.

Note. The following defective substantives are primitive

[^5]nouns; إْبْ son, brother, لْ language, hand. Many nouns may be called either deverbal or primitive; thus, رِدِّ a wind, star, وَّ according to origin manna or grace, favour.
192. Deverbal nouns are divisible into two principal classes:
(i) nomina verbi which are by nature substantives, but also serve as adjectives ;
(ii) nomina agentis and nomina patientis which by nature are adjectives, but also serve as substantives (see § 230).
193. The following four sorts of deverbal nouns are connected with the nomina verbi :
(i) nomina vicis, that express the doing of an action once;
(ii) nomina speciei, nouns of kind and manner ;
(iii) nomina loci et temporis, nouns of time and place (see § 221);
(iv) nomina instrumenti, denoting the instrument (see § 228).
194. Denominative nouns are divisible into six classes :
(i) nomen unitatis, denoting the individual (see § 246);
(ii) nomen abundantiæ, denoting a place of abundance;
(iii) nomen vasis, denoting a vessel (وِعَ) ;
(iv) nomen relativum, which we shall call the relative adjective (see § 249);
(v) nomen abstractum qualitatis, the abstract noun of quality ;
(vi) nomen deminutivum, the diminutive.
195. Nomina verbi are deverbal nouns, abstract and concrete. The former (known as مُصْ maçâdir, plural of maçidar source, and as أَأِهْ nomina actionis) are infinitives; the latter are substantives pure and simple. When a noun is maçdar it cannot be used in the plural, and according to some grammarians (see $\S 292 d$ ) is of either gender : in such case it nearly corresponds with the English infinitive and can govern an accusative, which obviously may not be when it appears as a simple substantive. The following verse employs كتَابٌ in both ways.

$I$ wrote (it) and I felt sure at the time of writing it
That my hand would perish and its (the hand's) writing endure.
Note. Professor Wright uses the term nomina verbi as synonymous with maçâdir, infinitives and nomina actionis; whereas I require a category wide enough to include all words in the succeeding sections. Without this change the Grammatical Analysis of my First reading book could not have been compiled.
198. Nomina verbi from the groundform of triliteral verbs are very numerous. The following specimens will serve our present purpose.

1 فَ as a a creation, شَّنٌ a thing.
2 فُعْض frail goods, عَضْ state (see § 207 a).


7 فُعّْ ونُى guidance (see § 212 b).






23 فُرْورانٌ reading.


27 فُعْارُ , lowing.
28 شَهْاذهُ , testimony.

32 رسّولُ , message, apostle.





43 مَوْعظَةُ , مَفْعَلُةٌ admonition,

Rem. The forms numbered 39 to 43 commence with ; ma: and if infinitive are called

Note. Beside being feminine of رَابِطُ connector, nomen agentis of its verb, أرَّآِبَطةُ the copulative is nomen verbi. Similarly

197. Most verbs have only one infinitive (nomen actions) to their first form, and very few more than two or three apiece; exact information must be obtained from dictionaries.
198. When infinitives are few, deverbal nouns (nomina verbi) are very numerous.

No. 1. When infinitives these are from transitive verbs of



 ness,

No. 2. When infinitives these are from intransitive verbs of form فَعْلَ, except عَهْ work, rection which is from a transitive verb. For nomina verbi we have ${ }^{\text {أَبَ }}$ perpetuity, خبَر announcement, enunciation, desire, غَضْبُ anger.

No. 4 has permission, burden, admonition,


No. 6 has رُشْ true direction,

expression, a word, and $\begin{gathered}\text { and } \\ \text { and } a \text { garden by which the ground is }\end{gathered}$ covered, from جَنَّ

No. 11 has حnوَّةُ unloading,
No. 12 has أُمَّة a course of acting, one course which people follow in religion, people of a particular religion and so a nation,


No. 25 has بُبَّنُ perspicacity, بَيَّضً whiteness.
No. 26 has whتَابُ writing, a book, obstacle, veil, partition, etymon of

No. 27 expresses sounds, as in the instance given above, viz. خُوْراء lowing.

型 a message, letter.
 who directs, كَإِيْ interlocutor, وَكِيلُ an authorized agent, and ' ' $a$ fool which are akin to nomina agentis and may be taken as adjectives of the form فُعِيل.

199. If a verb has two or three meanings, to be distinguished by characteristic vowels, there may be one or more nouns for each; thus,


عَرِيفُ عَرِ meaning to soothsayer or chief; further we find عَرْفَ عَرِفَ sweet smell from to scent perfume.
200. If a verb has more meanings than forms there may be several nomina actions in correspondence ; thus شَفْع a pair and شَفَاءَةٌ intercession from to double and to intercede.
201. Infinitives are used both in an active and a passive sense, there being no separate form to distinguish ; thus أَخْذُهُ from أَحْنَ to take means his taking another or his being taken, no sense of hearing and oral tradition from '
202. The following nomina verbi from derived forms of the strong triliteral verb are also nomina actions.
II تَتْبِيضُ dividing into portions, تَنْعْيُلُ comboning, تَتْعْرِغُ definition, تَعْلِيلُ assigning a
 corroboration.
III فِعارْ
 to overcome,




 vengeance.

 pride.
Rem. In form ${ }^{\text {and }}$ is identical with the feminine passive participle.

Note. As will be seen from its meaning, the word عَذَابُ punishment is connected with the second form, viz. عَذَّبَ to punish (see § 41), to which it serves as الْمَفْعْورُ أْلْمُطْفَقُ 426.
204. Nouns derived from verbs with the middle radical doubled observe the rules in § 120 ; thus رَبْبٌ
 weakness.
205. Nouns from hamzated verbs observe the rules in $\$(131$ to 135.
206. Verbs treated in $\$ \S 142$ and 144 with gas first radical may drop it from the noun and then they add $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ - by way of compensation : thus, from وَضْعَع يَضْعُ to put down we have وَوْ
 a qualificative; while from وِفَةٌ وَهُ

 junctive.

Notr. We find the substantive , drowsiness as well as the infinitive وَسْسِسْن a sleeping from وَسِن to sleep which makes in the imperfect (see § 143).
207. Nouns from verbs with $g$ or as middle radicul observe the rules in $\$ 150$ etc.
(a) Those of the form فَعْلُ remain unchanged, as خَوْلُ fear,
 like فَعْلُ follow § 153, as حَوْلٌ state, condition for Those
 for
(b) If be preceded by kasraћ it mostly becomes ي ; as as
 , قوْمْمَة , both from to stand.
(c) In the fourth and tenth forms the second radical is elided, its vowel passing back to the first, and $\%$ - being added




212. Nouns from verbs with or as final radical experience assimilation into in the form وَ فَ in ore he the second and غ غَوْبُ手 force for of form strong the following rules hold.
(a) The third radical is retained if the second bears sukûn, as
 \$166a).
(b) Nouns of the forms فَفَعْعَلُ , فُعْلُ are usually written with final $ى$, which is quiescent, while tanwin falls upon the
 tribe from a a gather. Sometimes radical g is written I, as also in primitive nouns, thus عُصوٌ a stick for عصا
(c) Nouns of the form فَ فَعَلَ with و as final radical may end in

(d) Nouns of the forms فَعَعَارَ فُعَالُ and change the final

 nomina verbi of the fourth, seventh etc. forms as from
221. Nouns of time and place are formed from the imperfect active of a verb's ground form by substituting ${ }^{\circ}$ for its prefix: the second radical bears fathaћћ, if fatḥa $\hbar$ or ḍamma $\hbar$ be characteristic of the imperfect, but kasraћ if kasraћ. Thus, شَرْبَ to drink, makes يُشْرْبِ whence مَشْرَبٌ drinking-place, كَتْبَ to write يُنْزِل
 the place whence anything proceeds (see § 195).

Rem. $a$. A noun of time and place is called إمْر ألظَّرْفْ noun of vessel.

Rem. b. A few nouns take kasraћ irregularly, as place of prostration, a mosque, $\begin{gathered}\text { مْشْرِقٌ } \\ \text { time or place of rising, the east, }\end{gathered}$ مَسْقِطُ place where anything falls.
222. Nouns of time and place from verbs with g or as initial radical have kasrat to the secoud syllable and always
retain the first radical ; thus ó time or place of appointment
 put down, a place from g'g to put (see § 144).
223. Those from verbs with $g$ or as middle radical experience change in accordance with § 150 , thus ${ }^{\circ}$. existence for

Rem. Verbs with $\mathcal{G}$ as middle radical commonly retain it, thus
224. Those from verbs with $g$ or as final radical always have fathah (notwithstanding § 221) to the second syllable and they suffer the contraction explained in $\S 212 b$; thus,

226. Some nouns of time and place from verbs with or as initial radical take the form مِفْعَالَ § (see 228) ; as تِيقَات
 birth from ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{g}$ - to bear a child. In both these examples $ى$ replaces, according to § 145
227. Those from derived forms are identical in form with the nomina patientis, as
228. Nouns of instrument denote the intransitive agent and
 from فَتْ O
229. We have already mentioned in $\S 80$ the nomen agentis and nomen patientis; they are deverbal adjectives often used as substantives.
230. In the ground form nomina agentis are like فَاءJ


 مَرْفَ - to know ; recognized, approved from follower

 عó that which collects, great mosque


 knows, a scholur, 'كَ one who ignores God's benefits, an


Note. As regards nomina patientis, we have mentioned in $\S 73$ the impersonal manner in which passive verbs must often be
 in § 533.
232. From the ground form there are other deverbal adjectives of which the following are specimens.

1. فَعْلْ as easy, good, excellent (see § 242, Note 1).
2. فَعْلُ " وْنَ good, beautiful.
 swooning.
GR.
3. لِحْ

 great.
 voracious.
4. 
5. ${ }^{\text {. }}$, merciful (a borrowed word).
 of a horse grey.
Note 1. We use No 16 to express colours and defects.
Rem. c. When derived from transitive verbs ${ }^{\text {en }}$ may have
 praiseworthy, قَدِيدّ severe, قَتْيلً slain,

Note 2. Much of the Corân is almost in the nature of rhymed prose, wherein ون - may rhyme with on , with ي - etc., but the rules are more lax than in classical rhymed
 etc. are used to rhyme with مُبْبين manifest, رَّ merciful,
 Jul, غَانِرٍِ victors,

[^6] like.
233. Adjectives of form فَحَّالُ are intensive, as from asking we have importunate, a beggar.

Rem. $a$. We use this form to indicate occupations, as صَّافَّ a money-changer,

Rem. b. There are other intensive adjectives, as everlasting.
234. The elative, the noun of pre-eminence, is


Rem. $a$. When superlative these adjectives must have the
 $\S 475)$ as أَكْتُرُهرْ most of them, and if feminine (see $\S 295 b$ ) are of form فُعْلْى as the most gracious word.
235. No elative should be derived from adjectives which have already the form أَفْعَلُ is أَشَدُ بَيَاضً stronger as to whiteness : but elative are sometimes formed, though contrary to strict rule, from the derived forms of verbs.
236. Next as to the derived forms in which we have (a) nomina agentis:

III

Iv or ord destroyer, ${ }^{\circ}$



$$
5-2
$$

v
VI each other.
vII

x
and (b) nomina patients :
II مُمتَّ destroyed, مُسَّ مُقَدَّرَ 5 ordained, predestined.
III هُقْاعَلُ
Iv bute, ${ }^{5}$ Gَلْطُ set free.
v مُتَفَّقًّ.
vIII
237. Adjectives derived from verbs with the middle radical doubled observe the rules in § 120 ; thus ${ }^{\mu}$ 岁 erring for


238. Adjectives from hamzated verbs observe the rules in § 131 to 135 ; thus سَآئلُ one who asks not

239. Adjectives from verbs with, or as initial radical observe § 147 and 148, thus joined.

Rem. a. Preceded by kasraћ $i$ becomes as as reander not قَأَرِ.
240. Nomina agentis from verbs of the first form with 9 as middle radical substitute for that letter (i.e. hamzaћ and
 to $f y$ and not
241. Nomina patientis from verbs of the first form with or ي as middle radical, in case of $g$ elide it and throw back its vowel to the first radical ; thus مَنْ مُوْوفُّ to be feared for : but in case of e its elision must be marked by substituting kasraћ for dammaћ, and then $و$ of prolongation becomes thus مَدِينُ. one who receives recompense for وَيْوُنُ.

Rem. Sometimes we find an uncontracted form, as مَدْيُونٌ a debtor.
242. Adjectives of form فُعْيلُ from verbs with or or
 from طَبْ بَيْنُ - we have good, sound, agreeable; for
 wicked; for مُوِيتُ from , is in dead, and for its


 from - to choose and means to be chosen whence the elative
 worse is also used as elative.
 as substantives derived from the adjectives سَيّْع
243. Adjectives from the derived forms of verbs with $g$ or ي as middle radical follow in respect of it the rules of their


 to incline,

Note 1. For مُصِيبَة a blow that hits we find which we may render a mischance.

Note 2. Be it observed that the nomina agentis and patientis of Form vir are identical, and so with Form viII.
244. We have treated in $\S 167 b$ (ii) the nomina agentis of verbs with $و$ or $\mathcal{G}$ as final radical, and the nomina patientis in §170, which last section gives rules applicable to adjectives of forms فَعْوَ غَنِيْي

Note. In the Corân ${ }^{\text {a }}$ وُ
245. Adjectives, whose second radical bears fathaћ, from verbs with $\mathbf{v}$ or (which we now write $\mathbf{~}$ ) as final radical, reject their final vowel.
(a) If triptote (see § 308) tanwin is transferred to the second radical (compare § $212 b$ ); thus of , for
(b) If diptote there is only the vowel to reject ; thus أزضْى better or best pleased for 'أَرضْو.
246. Nomina unitatis nouns of individuality, which specify one from a genus or one part of a whole, are formed by adding $\boldsymbol{0}$ - to the collective noun (see $\S 292 a, 306$ rem.). Thus, بَقْرَة one head


 (by some considered nomen verbi, see § 196, No. 28) from ضَانَ,



Note. We find also سَلْوَ a quail from quail.
249. The relative adjective ألنِّبْبة is formed by adding ${ }^{2}$ ~ to the word from which it is derived, and denotes some thing or

 Arabs, انْكِيزِبُّ English from



250. But the derivatives cannot always be formed so simply : certain terminations are rejected, and other changes arise. Thus


Medina مَتْنَيُّ, حَ حَقِيقَّ

269. The diminutive is of form فَحْسَنْ from حُسْيْنٌ beautiful.
289. Nouns substantive must in gender be masculine, feminine, or common, for Arabic has no neuter.
290. Nouns are said to be feminine (a) by signification, or (b) by form ; as,
 eye,

Rem. Masculine are رَأْسَ a head, and a face.
(b) بُشْشُرَى an ox or cow, بَقَرَة a chapter, good news.

Rem. A few nouns ending in 0 - are masculine because only used of males, as خَلِيفَة caliph.
291. Certain nouns are feminine only by usage ; as أرضْ
 نَنْ a soul, self, نَنْ
292. Many are said to be masculine by form and feminine by signification : together with others, these are of common gender; thus,
(a) Collective nouns which form nominal unitatis (see § 246) chiefly denoting animals and plants : but mi nail is usually masculine.
(b) Collective nouns denoting rational beings and not forming
 people or tribe. But if and if it one's household, people are mascauline only.
(d) Deverbal nouns when infinitives (maçâdir, see § 195).
(e) Words regarded as such. But to be is feminine, as كَانَ ألَّانَّةُ particles, as أَنْ اُْمَصْرَرِّةُ the'an which with its verb is equivalent to a maçdar (see §488), آنِ ألْمَسِسِرَةُ the explicative' an (see §367e), إِ إن النَّرَّرِّيَّةُ live ' in (see § $362 k$ ).
( $f$ ) Certain nouns among which are the following; $a$


293. From most adjectives and some substantives of the masculine gender, feminines are formed ending in ${ }^{\circ}-, \mathcal{\varepsilon}$, or $2 \pi$-.

Rem. Of these $\%$ is appended without further change, but feminines in $v$ - and $2 \overline{1}^{-}$are distinct in form from the masculine.
294. The most usual termination is $\frac{\partial}{\circ}$; thus, آخْر (for



Rem. u. A dropped radical may be replaced, as ang from (for heaven (see § $212 d$ ): but ${ }^{\circ}$ ön مُصْطَفًى chosen.

Rem. $b$. $\quad$ - (see end of $\& 2$ and $\S 8$, rem. $a$ ) is a compromise in orthography between the old pausal form $0^{\circ}$-, and $ت$ - which we find in ; mercy,

295. Feminines ending in $\mathbb{C}$ - are derived,
(a) from adjectives of form فَنى which make فَنْ غَضْبَى angry غَضْبَانُ
(b) from adjectives of form أَفْعْ when superlative (being defined by the article or following noun, see $\S 234$, rem. a) in which case the feminine is فُعْلْ ; as,
 greatest كُبْرَى أْمْدَأَئِنِّ the greatest of the cities.

Rem. b. The feminine of (for لَالْوَّ
 is أُ أْرْ
296. Feminines ending in $\mathrm{a}^{1}$ - are derived from adjectives
 all 1 亿. There are feminines which have no masculine, as عرَبَّ most Arab which should come (irregularly, being elative) from أَعْرَبُ.
297. All adjectives do not invariably employ their feminine forms, and some few have none. Only let the meaning be clear and there may be a laxity as regards form : thus,
(a) فُ is of both genders when active in signification and attached to a singular substantive, as ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{6}$, رجّلُ a grateful man
 and predicate to a substantive or pronoun in the singular, as هِيْ شُكُورُ I she is grateful, Ithought her patient. If however no substantive or pronoun be expressed we must, in order to make our meaning clear, employ the feminine form
 not a she-camel to carry loads: also, this is required when the
 not a she-camel to milk i.e. to be milked.

Note. Being only used of God 'غَفُورُ forgiving has no feminine.
Rem. a. Exceptions are to be found, as ${ }_{\text {s. }}^{5}$ és hostile, an enemy fem.
(b) فَعییل is of both genders when passive in signification and attached to a singular substantive, as إْ a a slain woman; also when passive in meaning and predicate to a substantive or
 the eye is treated with kuhl. But if no substantive or pronoun be expressed we must, in order to make our meaning clear, employ رَائَتُ وَّتَيلةً I I saw a slain woman : also, this is required when the adjective is active by signification ; whether transitive, as ${ }^{3}$ an an experienced old woman; or intransitive, as a powerful wind.

Rem. Exceptions are to be found in either case; as

筑 the other hand ; ; ; the mercy of God is neur.
(c) Similar peculiarities are to be remarked in certain others.

Note. Adjectives of form أَفْعَ when comparative are of common gender.

Rem. b. Adjectives applicable to females only do not usually
 a wife cannot say أَنْتَ طَاِّقُ
298. Nouns have (like verbs, see § 81) three numbers, the singular, dual, and plural.
299. A dual is formed by adding ان - to the singular after elision of the final vowel or tanwin ; as بَبْ بَ nation أُمَّتَانِ.

Rem. $b$. If the singular ends in quiescent $\varsigma$, or 1 which was g, the original letter may be restored ; as

Rem. $e$. If the third radical has been elided before $\bar{\sigma}$ in the singular, it is not restored; thus, لُغْةُ a language for لُغَتَانِ.
300. There are two kinds of plurals.
(a) That which, having only a single form, is called pluralis sanus, the sound or perfect plural.
(b) That which, having various forms, is called pluralis fractus, the broken plural; being more or less altered from the singular.
301. The sound plural of masculine nouns is formed by

 feminine nouns is formed by writing $\stackrel{9}{ت}$ ا - for $\stackrel{\mathfrak{g}}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ — when they have that termination in the singular, or when without it by



Rem. a. If the singular ends in 'alif maqçûraћ (see § 7, rem. b) with or without tanwin (see § 245), as


 quiescent preceded by kasraћ (see $\S 314$, rem. b), as blind (man) for 'الْعْهِئ: then $\S 166 b$ must be obeyed in the forming of the plurals. Thus,


The singular of أْعْمِي illustrates § $167 a$ (ii) in changing from ی-iy to s - 1 , and the plural differs nothing from that of غَ see §314, rem. $a$. Of feminines we may note غَضْبَى angry (see § 303 b).

Rem. b. Feminine substantives with sukin to the middle
radical may undergo change; as earth village

Rem. c. A final radical dropped as in $\S 212 c$ must reappear;
今مصْطَفَيَتْ (see § 294, rem. $a$ ).

Rem. d. A final radical dropped before $\boldsymbol{0}$ - sometimes



Rem. e. We have mentioned in § 294, rem. a meavoracon

302. The sound plural masculine is formed from :-
(a) Certain diminutives and proper names.
(b) Deverbal adjectives which form their feminines by adding

(c) Adjectives of form أَأَعْعُ more or most numerous أَكْْْرَورُونَ : also the corroboratives of

(d) The relative adjectives (see § 249) as بَدْوِئُ (irregularly from بَبْو a desert) a badawi بَدْوِيُّونَ badawin (bedouins). This termination is often shortened to وندون a .
 عَالَمْ ,أَضْونَ ourth one of the four classes of created beings عَالَّهُونَ (see § 191, rem. a), ذُوْ owner (see § 340, rem. c), etc.

Rem. $a$. It must be specially noted that adjectives have the sound plural masculine only when joined to substantives, expressed or understood, denoting rational creatures.

Rem. b. From substantives and adjectives that have the sound plural masculine there may be formed a broken plural, . especially from adjectives used substantively.

Rem. c. Certain numerals given in § 323 have the form of sound plural masculine.

Rem. $d$. Some feminine nouns in ${ }^{\circ}$-, especially those from which the final radical ( 0,9 , or $\mathbf{)}$ ) has been elided, form a sound plural masculine, the termination 0 - disappearing ; as

303. The sound plural feminine is formed from :-
(a) All nouns ending in $\tilde{0}$-, as message .آيَاتُ a

Rem. Some grammarians express this rule less comprehensively.
(b) Feminine adjectives, the masculine gender of which has a sound plural, as مُمْؤْمِنُ
(c) Names of the letters and months, as well as certain other nouns.
304. The following are forms of broken plural, from triliteral roots, numbered as in the Grammar of Professor Wright.

| 25. | 19. | 13. | فُعَّلْ | 7. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 26. | 20. | 14. | فُكَّالٌ | 8. |
| 27. | 21. | 15. | فِعْلِّ | 9. |
| 28. 28. | 22. | 16. | فُعْلَّ | 10. |
| 29. | 23. | 17. |  | 1. |
|  | 24. 23 فَعَالَي | 18. | فِعْلُّهُ | . |

In the next table an example of, at least, one noun (substantive or adjective) appears to each plural, but space forbids us to attempt illustrating each singular form.




 as فَاعِلُ فَعُلُ فَعِلُ فَعَلَةٌ

Rem. In nearly all cases the form in is admissible, as بُشُرُ $a$ بُشِيرْ
4. plural of فِعِلٌ as فَعْلَةُ فَعْلَةُ فِعْةُ a .
 as فَاعِلُ فَعِيلُ فَعْلَنْ فُعْلْنُ فَعْلَنْ فُعْلْى فُعَلُ فُعُلُ


Rem. نِسَسَ is plural of a woman (see § 305, rem. e).
 os


 particle 'ُُوْورُ a male سُجْودٌ prostrate سَاجِد
7. فُعَّلُ as

8. فُعَّارُ plural of فَاعِلْ as

طَاُلَّبُ
9. فَعْلَةُ plural of فَعْعِلُ as

سَحْرةً magician سَاحْرُ
10. فُ فُعْلَ plural of

11. فِعْلَةُ فِعْلُ فَعْلْ فُعْلٌ plural of

قِرْرٌ an ape


 feminine quadriliterals, as

 GR.






 fanion أَصْحَابُ.
Rem. There are a few other singulars which take this plural,
 of شُيْ thing.
 as فَعَلُ فَعَلُ فُعْلٌ فِعْلُ فَعْلُ
 answer, complement أَجْوِبَة

follower, appositive تَابِعْ female dweller سَوْاكْنُ
17. 5 in addition, as

18. فِعْلُ فَعْلٌ فِعَالْ فَعَالُ فُعَارُ فُعَلُ فَعَلُ فُعْلُ plural of فِنْ وs فَاءلَ فَعَلَنْ فُعَيْلَةُ فُعْيْلُ فَعُولُ فَعيلُ

 أفْعَا





أَنْْْبَاً


23. فَعَالٍ as of of

Rem. For declension see $\$ \$ 312$ and 314 , rem. $b$.


a زَوَايَا (for زَوَاْيَى
 حَهِهُر an ass
26. نُ مُعُولةٌ plural of فَعْلْ فَعْلْ as
بُعُولةٌ
27. ${ }^{\text {oِعَالَقُ }}$ plural of
(also صِحْابةٌ a companion
28. on فَعْرَ plural of فَاعِلْ فَعَلَةُ فَعْلَةُ as

29. فَ فَعْلٌ plural of فَاعِلْ


Rem. $a$. These rules are not without exception nor are they by any means exhaustive.

Rem. c. Beside عُبَاءٌ br. pl. 5, عبْ slave has fourteen other broken plurals. When a singular has more than one meaning and several plurals, there may be a correspondence: thus خَحْ
 deputy makes No. 17 فَ 17 which by rule is restricted to feminines. There are four meanings to $\begin{gathered}\text { er } \\ \text { beside its being the }\end{gathered}$ letter's name, and there are four plurals (three broken and a pl.
 A word which takes the sound plural may have also one or more broken plurals.
305. The following are forms of broken plural from singular nouns with four or more consonants.

1. 烈 (a) whose four consonants are radical, and (b) formed from triliteral roots by prefixing if or ; as



2. فُعْإِيلُ plural of quinqueliterals, with or without o in addition, of which the penult is a letter of prolongation ; as


3. فَعْعَ plural of many relative adjectives (see § 249) and other nouns with four or more letters; as
 angel

 may abbreviate to نَاسُ especially with the article, thus أنَّاسُ,

4. We have noted the restriction (§ 302 , rem. a) that masculine sound plurals can only be used of rational beings : they are said by grammarians to mean several individuals; whereas the broken plural is by nature a collective and feminine in gender, being generally represented by the feminine singular pronoun; thus so take them.

Rem. Beside broken plurals there are the two sorts of collectives which have been mentioned in § $292 a$ and $b$ :
 (see § 246); and
(b) nouns to which attaches the idea of collectiveness (
 form nominal unitatis ; as a أُمَّ a section of a nation, etc, thus of the people there is a scction who direct (not which directs) others.

Note. As nomen verbi أُمَّة appears in § 198, No. 12, and as singular of in in § 304, No. 1. Beside being nomen verb (§ 198,
 sort (a) though without nomen unitatis, and makes a plural تُنَبَتَاتُ
307. In case of nouns which have only one plural there can be no difficulty of selection; but, while the rest are called plurals of abundance, those broken plurals in $\S 304$ numbered $12,13,14$ and 15 as well as the sound plurals, are called plurals of paucity, being used when the objects denoted are ten or less. Thus

308. In Arabic there are three cases, Nominative, Dependent and Accusative, each with its case-ending or sign: we shall however speak of the Oblique case when one and the same sign indicates both Dependent and Accusative. The following tables show how to decline undefined nouns which are not in construct state (see § 313) by means of فَأْنَ a copper coin, عَسْتَتْانِ

 ending with $\%$, whether broken plural or singular, mark the accusative differently (see § 8, rem. a) from other triptotes, i.e. nouns with three case-endings.

Triptote or First Declension.

$$
\text { Masc. sing. } \quad \text { Fem. sing. Broken pl, }
$$



Dual. Masculine Feminine


Sound Plural.
Masculine Feminine
Nominative . . . . نَ
Oblique . . . . .


Except in the sound plural (see § 302) it makes no difference whether the noun be adjective or otherwise ; and so with diptotes, i.e. nouns with not more than two case-endings.

Diptote or Second Declension.
Masc. sing. Fem. sing. Broken pl.
Nominative


Oblique


In the dual diptotes and triptotes are alike, thus Nom. Obl.

Note. For declension of $\operatorname{\text {qug}}$ see § 312.
Rem. b. No colloquial dialect of Arabic employs case-endings regularly; duals are rare, and in sound plurals only the oblique case is used.
309. We call nouns diptote when ending in $\lrcorner$, $ی$ such are the following.
(a) Broken plurals in § 304 numbered $16,17,20,21,22,23$ and 24 ; also those in $\S 305$ numbered 1 and 2 ; beside a few others.
(b) Various nouns, more especially adjectives such as are found in $\S 232$, Nos. 13 and 16, also in $\$ 234,295$ and 296 ; beside others.
(c) Many proper names, as © Mecca; especially if foreign

 Exceptional are such as consist of three letters, the second of which has sukun or is a letter of prolongation, thus نُوْ Noah.

Rem. e. There are said to be nine reasons why a noun is debarred from taking tanwin.
310. Nouns ending in $1=$ or $\mathcal{E}$ (for $\dot{\prime}$ - or - see $\$ 212 b$ and 245 ) have the same form in all three cases; thus


Similarly we leave unchanged nouns ending in $\mathcal{\cup}$ - (see § 309)

 $\S 167 b$ (ii) and $\S 369$, Table 18) it is somewhat different, for we write

following in this the analogy of § $166 a$.
312. There are however certain broken plurals ending with = which is held to represent ئ. They do not follow either of the last two rules ; thus جَارِيَة a girl has br. pl. جَوْارِ 16 جَ 1 in the Nominative and Dependent, but جَوْرِي in the Accusative ; so
 Accusative صُحَارِي.
313. Undefined nouns become defined: 1 . by prefixing the article $\mathfrak{j}$ it the ; 2. (a) by adding a defined noun in the dependent case, or (b) by adding a pronominal suffix. While remaining undefined a noun may be put in construct state (see § 475) by the addition of an undefined noun in dependent case.

Rem. Proper names are in themselves defined, as are the


Nore. A noun cannot have two determinatives; thus آَلْعَعْرَافُ the uppermost parts and أَعْرَافُ il the uppermost parts of the partition.
314. When a noun is defined by the article, the following cases arise. -
(a) If it be triptote it loses the tanwin; thus


Rem. From the accusative final I has disappeared along with

(b) If diptote it becomes triptote; thus

(c) If sound plural feminine it loses tanwin; thus
Nominative . الطَّيّبَاتُ
Oblique

- ألَّةِّبَاتِ

Rem. $a$. Prefixing the article causes no change in the dual or sound plural masculine.

Rem. b. From the termination $=\operatorname{tanwin}$ is lost and


 § 310) merely lose the tanwin, as أَلْهُدَى ,أْلْعَصَا.
315. The following cases arise when a noun is in construct state, i.e. when it is مُضَافُف annexed to a noun in the dependent case.
(a) We decline singulars and broken plurals as if defined by the article ; thus

Nom.
Dep. طُلَّابُ ألْعِلْمِ طُ طُّلَّ
the seekers

Note. As to ${ }^{\text {Sُ }}$ all see $\S(482$.
Rem. a. Certain defective substantives (see § 191, Note) lengthen their final vowel after rejecting tanwin; thus

(b) The dual loses y from its termination, as

 for يَدِيْ.
(c) The sound plural masculine loses نَ from its termination, as
بَبْينَ أَرْسِل بَنِي إسْرَارَئِلَ
316. When the noun is defined by a pronominal suffix the following cases arise.
(a) Triptotes and feminine sound plurals lose tanwin, duals and masculine sound plurals the termination or $\dot{\dot{j}}$; thus
 words from يَّنَّ


Note. In the Nominative and Dependent we have أَيْبِئَ

(b) The singulars, broken plurals, and feminine sound plurals lose their final vowel before K - of $m e, m y$ (see § 317) ; thus
 my gardens from $\underset{\sim}{\text { ¢َّ }}$. Having lost its case-endings the noun becomes, so to speak, indeclinable.
(c) When a noun ends in oै we use the original form, viz. ت;

(d) When a noun ends in hamzaћ, the 'imâd (عْنَاءُ) support (see $\S 16$ ) is subject to change ; thus from $s^{2} \mathrm{~L}^{\prime}$ we have Nom.



Rem. As regards words referred to in § 315 , rem. $a$ we must
 brother in all three cases.
317. The pronominal suffixes which express the dependent are similar to those given in $\S 185$ except that $\}$ - of $m e, m y$ takes the place of نبي; thus the guarding of them both.

Rem. $a$. Beside ós along with me we have by reverting to the older form ©́عْي (see $\S 20 \mathrm{~b}$ ). When attached to a word
 becomes ي́, as my stick; and in most cases, together with the final letter, it becomes é as é é upon me (see § 358, rem. a). On $\dot{\tau}^{\text {l }}$ etc. see § 316 , rem.

Rem. b. Like ني, we find - especially in the vocative, shortened to - ; thus يَا قَوْمِ O my people for (O) my Lord for رَبّب (see § 438 a, rem. b).

Rem. $c$. Changes occur similar to those in § 185, rem. $b$; thus , لِنَظِرِيرْمْ , to the beholders of them,

318. The cardinal numbers from one to ten are:

 radical letters of سدس are mee § 328 , rem. c).
319. The cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 take the feminine form, when the objects numbered are of the masculine gender ; and conversely, the masculine form, when the objects numbered are feminine : as سِنَّةُ أَيَّامٍ six days, سِبْ seven verses.
320. Excepting the duals إِأْنْتَانِ cardinal numbers from 1 to 10 are triptote ; نٍ (see § 311) Accusative تَمَانِّيٍ
321. Cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 are substantives: either (a) they follow the objects numbered and stand in apposition, as
 followed by a plural noun in the dependent case, as سِّةّة أَيَّامٍ six days. For the multiples of 100 see § 325 and $\S 496$, rem. $a$.

Rem. When these numerals take the article they lose tanwin, as also when in construct state or defined by a pronominal suffix;

322. The cardinal numbers from eleven to nineteen are:


Rem. $b$. These cardinal numbers are followed by the objects numbered in the accusative singular (see $\S 444 e$, rem. $b$ ).

Rem. c. These numerals may be called indeclinable, except



Rem. d. Since long ago these compound numerals suffered contraction into one word, and are further corrupted in colloquial dialects.
323. The cardinal numbers from twenty to ninety are :


Rem. b. While of common gender these numerals are declined as masculine sound plurals, taking an oblique case in ينَ; ; thus عُشْرِينَ, etc. They are substantives and usually take after them the objects numbered in the accusative singular (see § 499).
324. Numerals compounded of units and tens require; and between the unit and the ten; thus Nom. تُسْعُ وَخْسْونَ nine

325. The multiples of one hundred are as follows:

Rem. a. For مِبَّ wm we may write and (see § $17 b$, rem. b) , which last represents the usual pronunciation. There are other plurals beside the one mentioned in § 301, rem. $d$.
326. The multiples of in e in in one thousand are as follows:


328. The ordinal numbers are adjectives ; thus, masc. آلْوَوَّ



Rem. $a$. The radical letters of in in inee § 295 , rem. $b$ ) and
 plurals, and will be further treated in $\S 486$, rem. $a$, and $\S 493$.
 the radical letters of $\underbrace{\text { wn }}$ given in $\S 318$, rem. $a$, as also from the fraction $a$ sixth part.
340. The simple demonstrative pronoun is $\mid \bar{j}$ this, that, which in course of declension takes many forms, the commonest plural

 which is also declined, making in the singular feminine Nom.
 construct state (see § 475).
 so, see § 362 bb.
341. From the simple demonstrative pronoun compounds, which admit of declension, are formed (a) by appending $\sqrt{5}$,
 (b) by prefixing ló.
$a$ (i) sis that is used whatever the sex or number of persons addressed ; but we may say to a woman $\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}}^{\boldsymbol{j}}$, to two persons
 first syllable, those are of common gender.
(ii) Similarly ذَالِّكُ that is used in conjunction with
pronominal suffixes of the second person ; thus فِي ذُلِّمْ therein O you.
 manner, so, see § 463.
b. The particle 18 (which is also an interjection, see § 368)

 these of common gender.
345. We find in Arabic only one article, viz. $\boldsymbol{j}$, which is called the instrument of definition and always written in conjunction with the following word; thus اَلْقْرَآنُ the reading, the Corain.
 merely prosthetic, see § 19, rem. c) the lâm of definition, and it has two uses :
(i) implies that the word, to which it is attached, expresses a thing or person known to the hearer; thus يَرْتُونَ أْنْرْضْ they shall inherit the earth, i.e. the earth which we know :
(ii) word, to which it is prefixed, expresses an individual person or thing; in this case it shows the genus by indicating one member of a class; thus فَأِّمَ ألسُّدُس his mother shall have a sixth, إِّا

Nore. Arabic and some other languages are more regular than English in respect of the generic article, for one says " Man
is mortal" but "The horse is a quadruped," whereas in these cases we must write § 527).
346. Among the conjunctive pronouns are masc. آلّّني fem.
 which, whatever. They are also called relative pronouns and, with exception of ألَّنِي, may be interrogative (see § 351).
347. As may be found in $\S 20 b$, initial النَّنِي represents the article, to which is joined $\cup$ (see $\S 341 a$ ii) and (see $\S 340$ ). Of the many forms taken in declension we must, beside الَّسّمی the feminine singular, mention the masculine plural ألّّגين." When used adjectivally these words refer to a definite substantive with which they agree in gender, number, and case;
 the land which We blessed: when used substantively however
 drowned those who.

Rem. The nominatives must originally have been اللَّذُو and ألَّذُونَ but in place of these words the oblique case is always used (see § 308 , rem. b) and a shortened form.
348. The conjunctive pronouns $\dot{\sim}$ and are indeclinable: the former refers to beings endowed with reason, as مُوسَى وَّنْ Aés Moses and those who (are) with him; while the latter is used of all other objects, as oَ oَ of reason of that which he has done. Unlike أَّذّي these words can never be used adjectivally.
351. All conjunctive pronouns may be interrogative except
 see § 570.

Rem. The interrogative is is usually shortened to os when joined with a preposition, thus why? i.e. because of what? So also sَكَ the like of what? becomes how much?
 this sort is or
 after that thou camest which is equivalent to after thy coming. We find the indefinite $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{o}}$ in conditional clauses
 and 407); when added to certain adverbs it gives them a conditional and general signification, thus ${ }^{\text {AO }}$ wherever, أَأَنَّ , إنَّ etc., it hinders their regimen (فُّنَّ
 usually does not ; and there are other uses for which it serves.

Note. Similar to the adverbs mentioned above is (for Lَامَ) whatever from Lً what.
354. The particles are of four sorts; viz. prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions, and interjections.
355. The prepositions are divided into separable, i.e. those written as separate words, and inseparable, i.e. those which are united in writing with the following word.
356. The inseparable prepositions consist of one consonant with its vowel. They are :-
(a) by, by means of, by reason of, for the reason, in, on, with, to, of, in exchange for, see § 456 .
(c) لِ belonging to, for the use of, to, due to, in, for, of, see $\S 453$.
(d) by in swearing, see $\S 462$.

Rem. $a$. Changes occur after $\underset{\dot{y}}{ }$ similar to those in $\S 185$, rem. $b$, as $\underset{-}{\infty}$, بِ ; see also $\S 20$, rem. $a$.

Rem. b. Before a pronominal suffix the preposition $ل ِ$ becomes لَ as áلَ,

Rem. c. Sometimes s like is reckoned among prepositions: it will be treated in $\S 463$.
357. The separable prepositions are of two sorts: firstly, those which have different terminations and are biliteral or triliteral ; secondly, those which are substantives in the accusative singular and end in - , having lost tanwin on account of the following noun (see $£ 478$ b).
358. The separable prepositions of the first sort are:-
(a) إِى to, towards, until, see § 451.
(b) حَنَّى till, up to, see § 452.
(c) ع́ over, upon, against, to, for, on account of, concerning, by means of, incumbent upon, see § 459.
(d) from, away from, of, see § 449.
(e) فِفي in, into, over, among, upon, on, concerning, treating of, see § 455.
(f) نُدْ or ós with, beside, near.
g) or ó ó with, along with, see § 457.
(h) of, to, from, on, out of, see § $20 d$ and § 448.
(i) or from a certain time, since.

Rem. a: Before suffixes the final syllables of出 are diphthongs; thus occur similar to those in § 185, rem. $b$; نَّ to to them (fem.), Le over them buth. With $m e$ we have
 § 317, rem. $a$ ).

Rem. b. In connection with ع- we double the $\underset{\sim}{\text { ع }}$,
 assimilated in connection with ${ }^{\circ}$ or or turned disdainfully from that which for 1 عَن (see § 14 b, rem. b).
359. Separable prepositions of the second sort have been described in § 357 and will be noticed in § $444 b$. Among them
 عنْت beside, in the mind of, فَوْتَ above, over, قَبْ before of time (see $\S 464$ to 470 ).
360. The adverbs are of three sorts; firstly, particles some inseparable and some separable ; secondly, indeclinable substantives ending in $\mathcal{\perp}$; thirdly, nouns in the accusative.
361. The inseparable adverbial particles are :-
(a) í, interrogative, see $\S 566$.

Rem. When this $I$ is followed by $!$ we use $\mathbb{E}$ instead of $I$
as 'imâd (see § 16) to hamzaћ and write the two thus íf as shall there indeed be to us a reward?
 the imperfect to express more emphatically its future sense.

 us the plague, surely we will believe with thee, and we will certainly send. This la is always affirmative, and of it there are said to be five sorts.
362. Among the separable adverbial particles are:
(b) nominal proposition (see § 513) and refers to the same time as the preceding statement.


(m) verily precedes a noun in the accusative or one of the pronominal suffixes given in $\S 185$; but the 1st singular can be إِنَّ case the suffix '0 may be fact, not being needed to express the sentence's meaning, thus إِنَّهُ أَنَا آللَّ verily I am God (see § 367 g ). By means of إِّ the subject may be introduced, upon which often fol-
 verily this (man) is a skilled magician. For government by إنّ see § 436 .
(n) إِنَّهَ only, see § 436 , rem. $d$, and § 585 .
(q) إِي yes, yea; used with an oath, as by God, whence the vulgar أيؤا Damascus أي نعم is said.

(u) بَلَّى yes, yea sometimes to be translated on the contrary, for to a negative statement it gives contradiction. Compare $s i$ in French:
(z) قَ is usually employed with the perfect (see $\$ 402,403 b$ ) to express more emphatically its past sense : when used with the imperfect we render ${ }^{\circ} \overline{9}$ sometimes.
 (see § $341 a$, rem.).
(dd) y' not is used :-
(i) as negative of the future and of the indefinite present, see $\S \$ 408 e$, rem. $a, 439,555$, and $584 a$;
(ii) as representative of the other negatives after; and, see $\S 482 d$ rem., 560 , and 580 ;
(iii) as negative of the jussive, see $\$ 417 b$ and 420 .
 place لُ لُنَّ only before nouns and pronominal suffixes in the accusative case (see § 436). With the 1st person we

(df) ${ }^{\circ}$ Jot is used solely with the jussive which is then perfect in sense, see $\S 412$ and 418.
(gag) ( J not yet, joined to the jussive.
(hah) تَنْ not a contraction of (i.e. لَّ لَ لَّهُونُ أَنْ it will not be that) is followed by the subjunctive, see $\$ \$ 411,415 a \mathrm{i}$, and 556 .
( $k k$ ) Lo not negative of the definite or absolute present, see $\S \$ 408$ e, rem. $a$, and 531 ; also of the past see § 557.
(mm) نَنَّ yes, yea (for it is agreeable) affirms the preceding statement.
(oo) ${ }^{\text {o interrogative, see § } 567 .}$
(qq) هُ demonstrative here ; whence (see $\S 341$ for an analogy) Sills there.
363. We have treated in $\$ \$ 357$ and 359 certain accusative substantives which serve as prepositions; the same nouns may be used as adverbs, but they must invariably end in $\mathcal{L}$. Thus هِنْ بِعْ , afterwards; where,
 مِنْ قَبْر , قَبْر beforehand.
364. The Arabic language would however be poor in adverbs but for the adverbial accusative, which is extensively used as will be learned from § 440 et sqq. Here we may mention all together. Also, of the same class are the adverbs :-
(e) سَوْفَ in the end prefixed to the imperfect to express real futurity, see $\$ \$ 361 b, 408 c$, and $587 d$.
(g) how?

Rem. b. For $\begin{gathered}\text { ur } \\ \text { see } \\ \$ \\ \$\end{gathered} 436$, rem. $f$, and 442, rem. $g$ (2).
365. The conjunctions, like prepositions and adverbs, are some inseparable and some separable.
366. The inseparable conjunctions are :-
(a) jand, see $\$ 576$ to 583.
(b) فَ so, and so, so that, and thereupon, then, see §§ $406 c$, $415 \mathrm{~d}, 540,576$, and 587.

Rem. These conjunctions ${ }^{\prime}$ gand may be preceded by the interrogative 1 Í (see § 566).
(c) U. This may be (i) the li of command (see $417 a$ ) which is usually prefixed to the 3rd sing. of the jussive, to give it an imperative sense ; and when following ' or is written without kasraћ thus $\mathfrak{j}$ : or (ii) the li which governs the subjunctive and means that, so that, in order that (see
367. Among the separable conjunctions are these :-
(a) $\dot{j}$ when is prefixed to a verbal or nominal proposition and
 time) when We delivered you.
(b) إڭ whenever, see $\S 405$.
(d) ${ }^{\text {( }}$, followed by , as for, as regards, see $\S 576$.
(e) أَن that, so that, in order that governs the subjunctive (see $\S 411$ and $415 a \mathrm{i}$ ) ; also the perfect and indicative (see $\$ 415 a$ ii): it is used after certain prepositions (see $\$ 8470$, rem. $f$, and 488). Notice must here be taken

quotation, as أَوْحَيْنَا إِّى مُوسَى أَنْ أَأَقِ عَمَاكَ We revealed to Moses (saying) Throw down thy rod.
 413, 417 c i, and 588. The compounds are :-

وَإنْ although (in which sense it is not usually followed by an apodosis*), and if;

صِّنْ verily if, see § 361 c;
إِّإِّ (for meaning except and with a preceding negative only, see § $586 a$;

إمَّا إنَّ when repeated وَإِّا . . . . . either . . . . . or, as إمَّا أَنْ تُلْقِيَ وإِمَّا أَنْ نَكُونَ نَحْنُ أْمْمْقِقينَ that thou dost throw or that we be the throwers.
(g) أَنَّ it precedes a noun in the accusative or one of the pronominal suffixes given in § 185 ; the 1st singular being أَنِّن In such case the suffix ${ }^{\circ}$ may be pronoun of the fact (see § 362 m ) as a

 rem. $f$.

[^7]
(i) ثُّ then, and then, implying succession at an interval.


(n) لَّ

وَلْوْ even though.
(p) Ĺ as long as, as far as; used with the perfect (see § 407) and jussive (see § 418) : it is called the mâ of duration (see § 353*).
368. The interjections are numerous: among them we find ئ $O$ ! which is used before nouns (see $\S 438 a$ ) without the article, as $O$ people ;


369. The following pages supply paradigms of the verbs. First of all it is essential that Tables 1 and 2 be thoroughly well learnt; thus with كَكَلَم - to wound (see § 35, rem. a).

> kalama kalamat kalamta kalamti kalamtu
> kalamâ kalamatâ kalamtumâ
> kalamû kalamna kalamtum kalamtunna kalamnâ
> yaklimu taklimu taklimn takliminna 'aklimu
> yaklimâni taklimâni taklimâni
> yaklimâna yaklimna taklimana taklimna naklimu

Also to be found in Table 1 are $\bar{\gamma}$ 人


Table 3 gives sَكَّهَ to wound much and to address, accost;
 تَتَقَتَنَ to fight with one another ; إِنْ ; to gush; go




 let oneself be dragged; ; to stretch oneself, to become extended; إِسْتَهَّ

Table 6 gives أَدَبَ - to invite ; to be well brought up; — to relate ; to adore ; أَئَرَ a good education, punish; آَ آَسفَ to consult with afflict; تَ تَأَذَّنَ إِتَّجَرْر mission.
 , رأَّسْ ; to appoint as chief ; to interrogate to reconcile;

 unlucky.
 ق قَرَا together with，teach mutually；أَقْرَأَ to teach one to read or recite；
 oneself； إسْتَقْرَاً to desire one to read．
 to fear；يَسْ－to play at hazard and to be easy；أَوْرَثَ to cause



Tables 10 to 13 give قَبَ
 comply with；：سَايَّر to accompany；to encompass，compre－ hend ；تَقَوَّلَّ（see § 47）to counterfeit，forge ；；تَبَّيَّنَ to appear clear；
 be driven；！to choose ；to hold oneself upright．
 －رَضِيَ ；to be pleased ；to forget make pass and to give a verb a transitive signification；ć to give mutually； to make oneself manifest ；تَجَلَّى ；to put of of it exalt oneself；إنْقَى to be cleared away；to be directed aright； ى⿵⿰丿⺄⿱㇒⿱中⿰㇀丶冂土

Concerning the vocalization of Derived Forms，it may be helpful to note that，in the perfect active，fathaћ is characteristic vowel of all ：but in the imperfect active we find（except for Iv
having sukun to the first radical) in Forms II III and Iv
Uيُسْمر يُقَاتِل يُيَلِّد
in Forms v and vi

> AA A A . . . . . تَمَقَاتَل يَتَكَنَّهِ
and in Forms vii viII and $x$ (sukûn being duly noted)
AA I



In the perfect passive we find
U I . . . . . . . . as أَسْنم قُوتِل كُلِّم etc.
and in the imperfect passive
UA A . . . . . . as يُسْتَم يُقَاتَل يُكَلَّهِ etc.

Note. Nomina verbi are treated in $\$ 895$ to 212 ; while nomina agentis et patients find place in $\$ \$ 229,230,236$ sqq.

FIRST FORM OF THE STRONG VERB.
TABLE 1. ACTIVE.


## TABLE 1. (continued.)

Imperative.


VERBS WITH OTHER CHARACTERISTIC VOWELS.
We have seen however, in $\S \S 91,92$ and 93 , that all strong verbs are not conjugated like the above; for instance,

| Imperative | Imperfect <br> Indicative | Perfect |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | يَقْتُتُ |  |


| $\cdots$ | \%- m. 3. Singular |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| تَجْهْعٌ | \% m. 2. |


m. 3. Singular


سَرْعْ m. 3. Singular
سَرعْتْ m. 2.

## FIRST FORM OF THE STRONG VERB.

TABLE 2. PASSIVE

## Imperfect.

Energ. г. Jussive.
يُكْلَهُ يُكْ يُكْلَنَهِنَّ


تُكْتْهِينَ تُكْلَهِي تُكَلَهِي تُكْلَهِنَّ

يُكْتْهَانِ يُعْلَهَا يُكْتَ



يُعْلَهُونَ يُكْلَهُوا يُكْتَهُوا يُمْتَهُنَّ




Perfect.
. كُ m. 3. Sing.
تِ
تُكُ
تُ
s. 1 كُلْهْتٌ c.

كُكُهَا m. 3. Dual
男 1 .
كُكِّتْهُـا c. 2.
.
نْ
كُ 2.
f.

كُلْهْنَا c. 1.

## DERIVED FORMS OF THE STRONG VERB.

## TABLE 3.

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect
كُلِّنَ
قُوتِلَ يُعَاتَلُ
أُسْلِهْ يُسْهُ
نُيُلِّنَ
نُقُوتِّلَ يُنَقَاتَلُ


إن!

 VII

أْنْرُقِقَ يُتْتَرَقُ
0


0


## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH MIDDLE RADICAL DOUBLED.

TABLE 5. $a$. ACTIVE.

| Imperfect. |  |  |  | Perfect. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Energ. 1. | Jussive. | Subj. | Indic. |  |
| يَهدَّنَّ | يَهْدْ | يِّنَّ |  | is m. 3. Sing. |
| تَهُدَّنَّ | تَهْدُدْ | تَهُدَّ | تَهُهُّ | هِ |
| تَّهُّنَّ | تَهْدُوْ | تَهُدَّ | تَهُهُّ | كَدْتِ m. 2. |
| تَهُدّنَّ |  | تَتْتِي | تَهُدِّينِ | . |
| أَمُسَّنَّ | أَهْدُ | أَّمدَّ | أَمُدُّ | ¢́c. 1. |
| يَّفَّانِ | يِّفَّا | يَهُنَّا | يَّقَّانِ | كََّّ m. 3. Dual |
| تَهُدَّانِّ | تَهُدُّا | تُهُدُّا | تَهُدَّان | ¢ردَّنَا |
| تَهُدَّانِ | تَهُدُّا | تَهُدَّا | تَهُقَّان | ¢ c. 2. |
| بِّقٌنَّ | يَهدُوّا | يَهـدوّا | يَهـدُونْ | مَدّوا m. 3. Plur. |
| يْهْدْدنَانِّ | يَهْدُنْ | يَهددن | يهـددن | f. |
| تَهُـُّنَّ | تُهُدُّوا | تُهُدُوا | تَهُدُونَ |  |
| تَمْدٌوْنَانِّ | تَهْدُنْنَ | تَهْدُذْنْ | تَهْدُدْنَ | f. |
| نَهُتَّنَّ | نَons | نَهُدَّ | نَهُدُ دُ |  |

## TABLE 5. $a$. (continued.)



أُدْدُنْ

## 2. Plural

 Jussive has also يَمْنُّ

## VERBS WITH OTHER CHARACTERISTIC VOWELS.

Attention is drawn in $\S 120 \mathrm{~b}$ to these verbs, which have other peculiarities beside those here noted:
Imperative. Imperfect. Perfect.
Jussive.


Indic.

m. 3. Sing.




## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH MIDDLE RADICAL DOUBLED.

TABLE 5. b. PASSIVE.

| Imperfect. |  |  |  | Perfect. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Energ. 1. | Jussive. | Subj. | Indic. |  |
| عِشتَّنَّ | يُهتْز | يُـيَّ | يُت | S. |
| تُمَهَّنَّ | تُمْدِز | تُمَّهَّ | تُهـدُ | f. |
| تُهِدَّنَّ | تُهْنٌ | تُهِّهّ | تُهـدِّ |  |
| تُمَدِّنَ | تُهتـِّي | تُهمّهِي | تُهِّدِّنِّ |  |
| أُمَنَّنَّ | أُمْذ | أَهَنَّ | أَمَدُ | مُرْتٌ 1. |
| يُمتدَّانٍ | يُمْدَّا | يُهـدَّا | يُهـيَّانِ | \%ُّهً m. 3. Dual |
| تُمَتَّانِ | تُهِّنَا | تُهُّكّا | تُتمَّةَان | هُدَّتا |
| تُهـتَّانِ | تُهـمَّا | تُهَمَّا | تُهـمَّان | مُدوْتُهـَا |
| يَهـدُنَّ | يـهـدُّوا | يُتــنّوا | يُهـدُّونَ | مُدّوا m. 3. Plur. |
| يُهْدَدْنَانِ | يهـددن | يُهـدن | يُشـندنּ | مُودنْ $f$ f. |
| تُهـةُّنَّ | تُمَدُّوا | تُهـهُّوا | تُهـوُونَ | m. |
| تُهْتْدْنَانِ | تُهْدْنْ | تُهْتْنْ |  | . |
| نُمَدَّنَّ | نُهْنٌ | نُهـلّهِ | نُهـدُد | (1) 1. |

DERIVED FORMS OF VERBS WITH MIDDLE RADICAL DOUBLED.

TABLE 5. $c$.
PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect


يُتْهَاذرد


تُهُود33



## 



ACTIVE.
Imper. Indic. Perfect
مَسَّ II
(أَمَنَّ IV




VERBS WITH INITIAL RADICAL HAMZATED.

## TABLE 6.

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect
أُرِبَ
يُؤْوَرُر
يُوْْرَّ
يُؤْرْمُ
يُوَوَّرَبُ
يُوَوَاهِرْ
يُوْْتَنْ
ُِتَأَنَّنُ


تُؤُوِمرَ يُتْوَامِر
(20) أُوتٌ


ACTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect


أَّةَ II
يَ آمَر III
آسَفَ IV
تَ يَّأَّنَّنُ




Form VII is not found.

VERBS WITH MIDDLE RADICAL HAMZATED.

TABLE 7.

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect

رِنِّنَ يُرَأَّ

أُنِئِنَ



أَتْتُنُ


ACTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect


إسْأَنْ
سَأِلَ
رُرَّسَ رِئّسْ
III
يُ IV
VII انْ

VERBS WITH FINAL RADICAL HAMZATED.

TABLE 8.

PASSIVE.


قُرِئً
خُطِىً يُـْطَاُ

قُورِئً يُقَارًا
أَقْرِّى



أْهُتُنِى E يُهْتَنَا

Impera. Indic. Perfect
 رَنُوًا يَدْنُوُ اُرْنُوُ يَقْراً I
(َخْطًِ



تَ تَنَبَّ

إْنْبَاً

إسْتَقْرًا

VERBS WITH و OR AS INITIAL RADICAL.

$$
\text { TABLE } 9 .
$$

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect

أُورِثَ يُورَرُّ
'أُوِنَ

ACTIVE.
Impera. Indic. Perfect
وَرِّةٍ

I

IV

VIII

x

Forms II, III, V and VI resemble strong verbs, and VII is not found

FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH, AS MIDDLE RADICAL

TABLE 10. ACTIVE.

| Imperfect. |  |  |  | Perfect. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Energ. I . | Jussive. | Subj. | Indic. |  |
| يَقُولَّنّ | يَقِّ | يَقُولَ | يَقُولُ | قَالَ m. 3. Sing. |
| تُقُولَّنَّ | تَقْلْ | تَقُولَ | تَقُولُ |  |
| تَقُولَّنّ | تَقُرْ | تَقُولِ | تَقُولُ | قر |
| تَقُولِّنِّ | تَقُولِي | تَقُولِي | تَقُولِنِ | frér |
| أَقْولَّنَّ | أقْقْ | أَّقُولَ | أَقُولُ | قُلْتُ |
| يَقُولَّنِّ | يَقُولِ | يَقُولِ | يَقُولَنِ | قَاكل) m. 3. Dual |
| تَقُولَنِّ | تَقُولِ | تَقُولِ | تَقُولَنِ |  |
| تَقُولَنِّ | تَقُولِ | تَقُولِ | تَقُولِّنِ | - |
| يَقُولُّهِ | ِيقُولوا | يُقُولُوا | يَقُولُونِ | \% فَالُوا m. 3. Plur. |
| يَقْلْنَانِّ | ِيقلْنِ | يَقْلْنِ | يِقُلْنِ | fr |
| تُقُولنّكِ | تُقُولوا | تَقُولُوا | تَقُولُونِ | - |
| تُقُلْنَانِّ | تَقُلْنْ | تَعُلْنِ | تَعُلْنَ | 寿 |
| نَقُولَّنّ | نَقُّ | نَقُولِ | نَقُولُ |  |

TABLE 10. (continued.)
Imperative.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| قُولِي |  | 2 2. Singular |
|  | قُوy) | 2. Dual |
| قُلْنْ |  | 2. Plural. |
|  | TABLE 11. |  |
|  | Imperative. |  |
| Feminine | Common | Masculine |
| سِبِيِ. |  | 2. Singular |
|  | سِيوا | 2. Dual |
| سِرْتٍ | - |  |

# FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH AS MIDDLE RADICAL. 

TABLE 11. (continued from page 124). ACTIVE.


FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH g KASRATED AS MIDDLE RADICAL.

TABLE 11. a. (continued from page 124). ACTIVE.


يَـَافَانِ يَخْافَا يَخْافَا يَخْافَانِّ

 يَذَانُونَ يَسَفْنَ تَخَافُوا تَحَخافُنّ

تَخَافُوا تَتَافُونَ تَخَفْنَ تَتَنْفْنَ تَخَفْنِ تَخَفْنَانِّ


## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH OR OR AS MIDDLE RADICAL.

TABLE 12. PASSIVE.


يُمَقالَانِ نِّ


يُقَارُرنَ يُقَالُوا


قِيلُوا m. 3. Plur.
f. قِلْنَ

قِلْتُمْ m m. 2.
f.

Perfect.

قيلَ m. 3. Sing.
قِيَلْتْ f.
قلْ m. 2.
قِّ
قلْتُ c. 1.

ソ m. 3. Dual

قا قْ


# DERIVED FORMS OF VERBS WITH, OR ي AS MIDDLE RADICAL. 

TABLE 13.

PASSIVE.
Indic. Perfect صُوِّرْ يُصوَّر

طُووِعُ يُطَاوْعُ
سُوِيرِ
أُحِيط يُخاطُ
تُقُوِلَ يُتقَوَّلُ تُّبِّنِ

تُعُووِنَ يُتَعَاونْ
تُسُويِرْ يُتَّسايْر

اُنْسِيقَ يُنْتَاتُ

اُخْتِيْ
يَخْتَرُ


VIII
الْسِقْتَ 2 2. m.
3. m. Sing.

يَنْسَاقُ إْنَقْ

يَتْتَقيهُ , اسْتِقِمْ

ACTIVE
Impera. Indic. Perfect


يُطَاوِعُ طَاوِعْ يُسَايِرُ سَايِرْ

يُحِيطُ أِحط
ت́ 2. m.



VI
III



FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH, AS FINAL RADICAL.

TABLE 14. ACTIVE.


## TABLE 14. (continued).

Imperative.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| اُرجْي |  | 'اُر 2. Singular |
|  | ارْجوپ! | 2. Dual |
| اُرجْون |  | إرُوْوٌ 2. Plural |

TABLE 15.
Imperative.

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ي! |  | $\bigcirc$ | 2. Singular |
|  | ! |  | 2. Dual |
| اهْنـن |  | lgiol 2 | 2. Plural |

TABLE 16.
Imperative,

| Feminine | Common | Masculine |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| إْضْتي |  |  | 2. Singular |
|  | ارْضَبا |  | 2. Dual |
| إرضَهْنْ |  | إِضْوْ | 2. Plural |

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH AS FINAL RADICAL.

TABLE 15. (continued from page 130). AOTIVE.

Imperffect.
Energ. . Jussive. Subj. Indic.


يَهْدِيَانِ يَهْدِيَا يَهْدِيَا يَهْدِيَانِّ تَهْدِيَانِ تَتْدِيَا تَهْدِيَا تَهِّهِ


 تَهْبِينَ تَهْدِينَ تَهْدِينَ تَهْدِنِينَانِّ


Perfect.

合m. 3. Sing.
هِ
هَدَيْتَ m. 2.
هِ هَيْتِ
هِّيْتُ c. 1.

هَدَيَا m. 3. Dual
.
.
.
.
هُ هُدْتْمْ
f. هَدْيُنُنَّ

有

$$
9-2
$$

## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH MIDDLE RADICAL KASRATED AND و OR AS FINAL RADICAL.

TABLE 16. (continued from page 130). ACTIVE.


## FIRST FORM OF THE VERB WITH , OR ي AS FINAL RADICAL.

## TABLE 17. PASSIVE.

Imperfect.
Energ. 1. Jussive. Subj. Indic.


أَرجْـَنَّ
أرْ
أرْجَى
أُ

تُرْمَهْنَّ
 بِرْجرجْنَ يُرْجَهْنِ يُرَجْهِّنْ


m. 3. Sing.

رُ رُحِيتْ f.
رُ رُمیتَ m. 2.
f.

تُ c. 1.
رُجْمَا m. 3. Dual
f.

márg. 3. Plur.
رُ رُ رُ $f$ f.

f.

رُ رُجِينَا c. 1.

DERIVED FORMS OF VERBS WITH, OR AS FINAL RADICAL.

TABLE 18.





n. pat., m. مُتحَبَّلَّ



اُنْ أْنْ
n. pat., m. जُ
n. ag., m.

biol VIII






## PART III.

## SYNTAX.

[From section numbers below there must be subbracted 400, in order to ascertain the corresponding section of Wright's drabic Grammar, vol. ii.]
401. We have observed in $\S 77$ that an Arabic verb has two States: of these the Perfect indicates, -
(a) an act completed at some time past, as نَزْعَ مُوسَى يَدْ Moses plucked out his hand;
(b) an act which has been already completed at the moment
 er shall I seek for you un object of worship other thum God, seeing that He has favoured you above all creatures?
(c) a past action which still continues, as وَسْعَ كُرْسِّهُ السَّهوَاتِ
 no mischance befalls except by permission of God;
(d) an act just completed at the moment of speaking, as I repent toward Thee;
(e) in treaties, promises, bargains and the like, an act which, though future, is quite certain ;
(f) something desired, as God have mercy upon him, صَلَّى أُللُّ عَلْيْ وَسْنَّهَ God bless him and grant him peace.
 Gud the Lord of all creatures, but the verb is declarative (see $\S 50$, rem. $a$ ).
402. The perfect is often preceded by ${ }^{\circ}$ (see $\S 362 z$ ) to add assurance of completeness ; which may lie

 springs gushed, every tribe assuredly knew their drinking-place; or
(b) in being expected or contrary to expectation, as قَنْ جنُمْنُمْ = I have brought you evidence.

Note. If preceded by affirmative $\mathcal{J}$ (see $\S 361 c$ ) the influence of ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{G}$ is in no way affected.
403. The pluperfect is expressed,-
(a) by the simple perfect in a relative or conjunctive clause* which depends upon a clause in which the verb is perfect; thus
 gracious word of thy Lord was fulfilled to the sons of Israel by
 so when they had cast, they bewitched men's eyes;
(b) by the perfect and ${ }^{\text {, }}$, with or without $\dot{9}$, provided the preceding clause has its verb in the perfect, as وَلْهَا راوْا أَنَّهُ قَْْ ض ضُّلّ and when they saw that they had erred;
(c) by

[^8](d) by and the perfect, with ${ }^{\prime} \dot{\sim}$ oَ interposed, or prefixed.

404. (a) When two correlative clauses follow $\begin{gathered}\text { لَ if (see } \$ 367 o \\ \$ 8\end{gathered}$ and 588) or any similar hypothetical particle, perfect verbs in both clauses may correspond with the English pluperfect subjunctive; as Thou wouldst have destroyed them beforehand.
405. After إذا whenever, as often as (see $367 b$ ) a perfect is said to take the imperfect's meaning ; and perfect verbs in two correlative clauses have either a present or future signification, provided the first clause extends its conversive influence to the
 whenever a boon comes to them they will say, This (boon) is due to us. Sometimes إِذا is followed by an imperfect, and sometimes preceded by كَانَ or the like.

Rem. c. So also with two perfect verbs after حَتَّى إِذَّ (see §415c) as هُحَّى إِذَا أَوَفَنْ سَحْابًا سُقَنَا until, when they (the winds) bear cloud, We drive it; or in English idiom, till they bear cloud, when We drive it.
406. (a) After $\dot{\cup}$ إ if (see $\S 367 f$ ) and words similarly of conditional meaning, the perfect is said to take a future sense and can be rendered by the English present ; as, for instance, after نَ who, uhoever, Lo what, like. Thus مَنْ يُوقَ إنَ解 whoever is made to guard against his own coretousness,
 wish. In certain cases this rule applies to $\begin{aligned} & \text { أَ } \\ & \text { or } \\ & \text { or }\end{aligned}$
(h) If the words ${ }_{0}$ etc. be fullowed by two clauses, the first expressing a condition and the second its result, both verbs may be perfect.
(c) If the perfect after $\dot{\cup}$ etc. is to keep its original sense, كُ or one of the sisters of the verb kina (see §442) must stand in the protasis before the verb and iost mark the apodosis. Thus if if thou hast brought a sign, produce it, if thou art of the truthful.
( $d$ and e) Other cases arise in the use of $\dot{\dot{E}}$ and similar words.
Rem. c. When Ló etc. are interrogatives or simple relatives, and $\underset{\sim}{\text { خَ }}$ a simple relative adverb, without any conditional signification, perfects dependent upon them keep their original sense.
407. After L' as long as (see $\S 367 p$ ) the perfect has a present or future signification; thus التَّقُوا آللَه ó four God as far as ye are able.
408. The Imperfect Indicative expresses no temporal definition, but indicates a state existing at any time. Hence it signifies ; -
(a) what is always taking, or may at any time take, place
 plants come forth by permission of its Lord:
(b) an incomplete act, commenced and continuing (the definite present); as أَنْصَحُ I counsel you:
(c) what will occur (the simple future), as الْزْكُرْ يَوْمَ يَجْتَعُكُمْ muke mention of the day whereon He shall assemble you. The future sense may be made more distinct by using سَوْفَ (see §364e), thus فَسَوْفَ تَعْلْهُونَ so ye shall know; or (see § 361 b), thus We will give increase to the righteous.
(d) When appended to the perfect without intervening particle, it expresses (either what is explained in the following subsection, or) an act which was future to the past time of which we speak; thus أَرْسَر يُعْلِهُ بِذْلَكِ he sent to inform him of this, he determined to circumvent the Jews.
(e) Under circumstances similar to those mentioned in the preceding subsection, the imperfect indicative frequently expresses an act which continues during the past time, and then it can be translated by the English present participle ; thus位 he grasped the head of his brother,
 (hey inherited the book, taking the vain goods of this nearer (i.e. the present world) and saying, We shall be pardoned.

Rem. $a$. After y yot the imperfect indicative retains its idea of incompleteness and duration, as أَلَّذي خَبُثَ لَ يَخْرُجُ إِلَّ نَكًِّا as to that (land) which is bad (its plants) do not come forth except scantily. After Lionot it has the present sense (see § 557), as or thun dost not take vengeance on us.
409. By prefixing out a past act which continued or was repeated ; thus بَطَرُ كَ أَنَِّينَ كَانُوا , كَانُوا يَعْمَونون يُسْتَضْعَفُونَ who used to be esteemed wenk.
411. The Subjunctive mond has always a future sense after the adverb تَن not (see § 362 hh ), as تَنَرْنِ thou shalt not see $M e$; also after certain conjunctions, amongst which are أنّ that, as أَنْ y (pronounced עَحْ (أَقُولَ عَكَى انلهُ إِلَّ آنْحَقَّ speak concerning God except the truth; and $\underset{J}{ }$ that, so that, as dost thou leave Moses so that he shall commit disorders in the land and shall leave thee and thy gods? For further particulars see § 415.
412. The Jussive mood takes the perfect's meaning when preceded by
 them? See § 418.
413. The jussive after $\dot{j}_{\underline{E}}$ if and words of conditional sense (see § 406) has the same meaning as the perfect in a similar situation; as تُ if an evil befall them, they attribute their bad luck to Moses and those who are with him; ; بَهِ sign thou bringest us in order that thou mayest bewitch us thereby. When the first of two correlative clauses contains an imperative,
and the second a jussive, the latter has the same meaning as if the first clause contained a verb in the jussive preceded by إٍ ;
 will pardon to you your sins meaning if ye enter the gate We will pardon you. See § 417 c ii.
414. The imperfect Energetics are future in sense, as لَّ لَ I will cut off your hands and feet on opposite sides, then I will crucify you. See § 419.
415. The Subjunctive mood, which can occur only in a subordinate clause, indicates an act dependent upon, and future to, that mentioned in the previous clause : it is governed by certain particles, amongst which are the following.
(a) i. By أَنْ (see § 367 e) that after verbs expressing inclination, order, permission, necessity etc.; as also by ${ }^{\text {n }}$ 鲀 that not
 your Lord may perhaps destroy your enemies; see also examples in § 411 .

Nots. When إِّإ (see $\S 367 f$ ) is used, the ruling verb may be understood, as aَالُوا يَا هُوسَى إِنَّا أَنْ تُلْعْيَ وَإِمَّا أَنْ نَكُونَ نَحْنُ أْمْلُقْقينَ they said, O Moses (choose) either that thou or
 the unbelievers have asserted that they shall not be raised (from
 the verb is negatived, as well as when the verb is strengthened with سَوْفَ or oَ oَ
ii. But if the ruling verb makes an assertion (without expectation, wish, or the like) and the verb following is to express a past or present sense we use the perfect or imperfect indicative after Thus أَنْ ye wonder that an admonition has come to you, أَعْلَمُ أَنْ يَنَاهُ I know that he is sleeping. It is however more usual in this case to employ a nominal proposition (see §513) using $\begin{gathered}\text { أَّ } \\ \text { with a pronoun; thus }\end{gathered}$
 could they not perceive that it (the calf) did not speak to them ? If the ruling verb expresses doubt or supposition concerning a thing future, أَنْ may govern the imperfect indicative or subjunctive; as فَنُّوا أَنْ يَقَعُ عَلَيْهِمْ they thought it wus about to fall upon them.

Rem. $a$. As regards أَنِ أْمْصْنَرَبَّةُ the 'un which with its verb is equivalent to a maçdar, see § 488.
(b) By لِ in order that (see § 366 c ii) and its compounds ; thus verily this is a plot which ye have contrived in the city in order that ye may drive out of it its people.

Rem. a. Originally لِ was a preposition (see § $356 c$ ), and when a conjunction it stands for ${ }^{\circ}$ yַ for that, as is seen in the

(c) By حَ $\mathrm{\sim}$ ~ till (also originally a preposition, see § 358 b ): but if no intention or expectation of the agent be implied, there follows the indicative, or as in $\$ 40 \tilde{5}$, rem. $c$, the perfect.
(d) By in so thut when it introduces a clause giving the
result or effect of a preceding clause which expresses a wish;
 your Lord may perhaps make you successors in the land, so that He may see how ye act. There are other conditions under which فَ governs a subjunctive.
416. The Indicative must be used in all clauses except those governed by أَنْ or other particle with sense of ; as

 God what ye know not ; cousest to err whomsoever Thou dost wish, and Thou leudest aright whom Thou dost will ; تَعَلَّهْمْ يَنََّّرُورنَ perhaps they will take
 when they transgress on the Sabbath.
417. The Jussive usually conveys an order, being connected in form with the imperative.
(a) It is used with ل prefixed (the li of command, see § $366 c i$ ) in place of the imperative ; and if ${ }^{\prime}$ or or be also employed, we may write $j$ : thus عَلَى أللهِ فَلْيْتَوَوَّلِ أْلْوُوْمِنُونَ upon God then let the believers rely (as to this verb's final vowel, see $\S 20 \mathrm{~d}$ ). We seldom find $ل$ is wanting to the imperative.
(b) With the adverb $\boldsymbol{y}$ (see $\S 362 d d$ ) we use it to express a prohibition, or a wish that something be not done; as not thou (mase.) commit disorders ; لَ
do not thou make mine enemies to rejoice at my trouble, and do not place me with the wrongdoers.
(c) i. Also we find jussives in the protasis and apodosis of correlative conditional clauses, which depend upon $\dot{j}_{\text {l }}$ or any particle having the sense of protasis, when the verb is without كَان and is imperfect; in the apodosis, when without ${ }^{\omega}$ and having an imperfect verb. Thus住 they see the path of error, they will adopt it for their path; إِنَ worthless gain come to him like it (the former) he accepts it (also); whosoever believes in God, He shall direct his heart. If however $\begin{gathered}\text { ف́ marks the apodosis, we must use }\end{gathered}$ an indicative; as مَنْ يُؤْمِنْ بِرَبِّهِ فَلَ يَخَافُ whosoever believes in his Lord, does not fear.
ii. The jussive may appear in apodosis when the protasis
 (يَأْنُذُوا بِأَمْنَهِها and thereupon (We said) Take the tables with force, and command thy people (so) shall they grasp the best part
 (and) they shall bring thee every skilled magician; أَرِنِي أَنْظُرْ إِلَيْكَ I show me (Thyself, and) I shall lork upon thee. This construction is explained in § 413.

Rem. b. The conditional sentence whose apodosis must be introduced by فَ is further treated in §587.

Rem. c. When (1) the apodosis has a jussive, connected with a following imperfect by ${ }^{6}$ or , we usually employ the jussive
 if ye lend to God a fair loan, he will multiply it to you and will pardon you: so when (2) the protasis has a jussive, connected with the following imperfect by وَإنْ تَعْفْور وَتَصْفَهُوا
 surely God is forgiving and merciful. Here also هَنْ يُؤْمِنْ بِأللِّ وhoso believes in God and does right, He shall effice from him his misdeeds and shall cause him to enter gardens (of Parudise).
418. The jussive is also used with the perfect's meaning, as we have seen in §412, after مَّ not or not yet ; but in these cases we have the jussive's form and not its sense. Thus


Note. When $\dot{\dot{!}}$ if precedes, we observe $\S 406 a$; thus保 our Lord do not show us mercy.
419. The imperfect Energetic (see \& 414) has several uses, amongst which are the following :-
(a) With $\begin{aligned} & \text { verily (see } \S 361 c \text { ) prefixed to it in a simple as- }\end{aligned}$
 thy Lord proclaimed (that) he would surely send against them one who should aflict them with woeful torment ; and in asseverations
 بِسَا عَهْمْتْدٌ say, On the contrary, by my Lord, ye shall be raised (from the dead), then ye shall be informed of what ye have done.
(c) With $\bar{\jmath}$ in the apodosis of correlative conditional clauses ar.
in which case $j$ must be prefixed to the protasis also, as verily if our Lord do not pardon us, we shall surely be of those who suffer loss.
420. The Imperative cannot be used in negative sense: instead we must employ the jussive as in $\S 417 \mathrm{~b}$. Thus if


421. The verb may govern a noun in its accusative (or oblique) case, and by help of a preposition a noun which we then put in the dependent (or oblique) case. We shall have frequent examples of this government, not only by States and Moods, but also by nomina actionis, agentis, et patientis and by other nouns possessing verbal force. Sometimes the verb is understood; or it may lie concealed in a particle.
422. The accusative of a noun is governed by the verb, either
(a) as an objective complement, assigning a limit; or
(b) as an adverbial complement, see $\S 440$ et seq.
423. Most transitive verbs take their objective complement
 the path of the transgressors; many however govern the object by help of a preposition, as fell upon them; some govern in both ways with the same meaning, thus 'أَْْرْنَّا اُْنَّذينَ كَذَّبُوا بِآَيَتِنَا We drowned those who charged with falsehood Our signs. More frequently a verb which governs in both ways has
different meanings, thus he held it fast ; and diverse significations may attach to the same verb if used with different prepositions, thus رَغبَ - to desire, which is transitive and intransitive, has رَغْبَ عَنْ وَبْ فِبَ to like to dislike, and رَغِبَ إِّى to supplicate.

Rem. a. Amongst ine transitive verbs (see §75) we include those which govern by help of a preposition alike with those whose object is in the accusative. Besides being transitive as وَقَعْ عَلْى to fall upon, the same verb may be in-
 truth was established.

Rem. b. Dictionaries will teach a student how each verb may be employed. Be it observed that, in Arabic, verbs to come govern the accusative and require no intervening preposition,


 (see § $456 b$ ).

Rem. c. A sentence may stand as objective complement, thus دَمَّرْنَا مَا كَانَ يَصْنَع We destroyed what he was making (see §514). As regards $\begin{gathered}\text { jö̀ to say and its derivatives we may }\end{gathered}$

 to you, and what follows it is commonly a quotation, as قَالَ إِّدُّهُ قَوْر تَجْهَلْونَ he said, Certainly ye are an ignorant people. Very sparingly, if at all, is it permitted to use قَالَ أَنَّ.

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424. Two objective complements in the accusative may follow certain verbs, of which there are two sorts.
(a) Those whose objects are unconnected, they being causatives of which the ground form is transitive and governs an



 ع. He causes whom He will of His servants to inherit it : also some other verbs of causative nature, meaning to give, lend,
范 يَسْوْوُونكُمْ , it (the calf) did not direct them (in) a (right) path سَبِّهُ وُاءَدْنَا مُوسَى , سُوت الْعَنَابِ

(b) Those whose objects stand to one another in the relation of subject and predicate; being (i) verbs signifying to make,

 the verbs of the heart, which are so called because their action is mental ; for instance رأَى to see, think, know and its IV passive

 him mentioned (lit. written).

Rem. b. Verbs like ; among أَفْعَالُ verbs of (the organs of) sense.

Rem.d. Three accusatives are governed by
 think your actions foul.
426. All verbs, transitive and intransitive, active and passive, may take their own nouns of the classes nomina vicis et speciei ${ }^{*}$, as objective complements in the accusative. Thus ضَ he gave him a
 beating, إِسْتَبْرْوا إْتْتْبْبَا This accusative is called ${ }^{\prime}$ , أْمْصْدَرُ, and it may appear, or be eliminated: thus
 for

 very severely; but the maçdar of a different form may be employed, or even of a different verb provided it be synonymous.

Nore. Verbal nouns (nomina actionis agentis et patientis, ete.) can like finite verbs take أللُّهُ مُعِّبِّهُمْ God is their very severe chastiser.
427. It has been observed of nomina verbi (in § 195 and $\S 421$ ) that, when infinitives from verbs which govern an objective complement in the accusative case, they can goveru an accusative instead of a dependent. This is especially the case if one or more

[^9]words divide an object from its governing infinitive, because a dependent case cannot be separated from the word which governs it. Also, when an infinitive is defined by the article, its object must stand in the accusative, because the noun so defined cannot take after it a dependent.

Rem. c. Beside infinitives (nomina actions) there are verbal nouns of similar force and significance which govern in the same way.
428. With rare exceptions, infinitives govern by help of a preposition, when from verbs which are transitive in that manner.
429. Frequently however an infinitive governs its objective complement in the dependent with $\bigcup$ (see $\S 453$ ) instead of in the accusative. Thus Th We wrote an exposition of every thing. So it is with certain other verbal nouns.
430. Nomina agentis can, like infinitives, govern a noun in the accusative, as people, or in the dependent, as ال山ُ God is the destroyer of the people.

Note. When derived from verbs which are transitive by help of a preposition, nomina agentis must govern in the same way. Thus إِنَّا إِّى رُبِّنَا مُنقِقْبُونَ verily to our Lord shall we return; كَفَّبُوا بِآيَاتَنا وَكَانُوا عَنها غَافلِينَ they denied Our signs, and were.

 people of Hell-fire, abiding therein.
431. What has been said in $\S 429$ concerning $\underset{J}{ }$ after an infinitive, applies equally to a nomen agentis.

Rem. When by rhetorical transposition a finite verb, which is transitive without help from a preposition, follows its object, we
 they did not injure $U s$, but they were injuring themselves; or we
 In like case a nomen agentis cannot govern an accusative but requires لِ, thus أَنْتٌo كَهِ كَارِهُونَ ye dislike her. If the transposed object be a pronominal suffix, إئَّ may with the finite verb be employed instead of $ل$ as in $\S 189 b$.
433. Beside the nomina agentis, some other verbal adjectives govern either an accusative case or $ل \underset{\sim}{\text { with }}$ the dependent.

Note. When derived from verbs which are transitive by help of a preposition, these adjectives govern in the same way. Thus
 for everything, عَاللّهُ بُكِّل شَهْ عَلِّهُ God is acquainted with everything.
435. Frequently the accusative depends upon a verb which is ón eliminated :-
(a) In phrases of command, exclamations, etc. we must supply the verb to which the accusative noun serves as الْمَعْعْوُنْ

 hear well and implicitly obey.

Nore. The Arabian grammarians represent that سُبْ亏َانَكَ stands for أُسَّحْ سْبْحَانَكَ I I praise Thine absolute perfection (see § 41, rem. c).
(b) In other cases the verb must be conjectured, as ؤَهْلًا وتسْهِ where we may supply أَتَّيْتَ thou hast come to people and a plain,
 thou hast found for thyself roominess (see \& 27 Note);
 behind thee.
436. The adverb أَنَّ أَنَّ and the conjunction the following noun or pronoun in the accusative case instead of in the nominative (as one expects the subject of a sentence to be) because, so it is said, these particles embody the verb to see; thus إِنَّ رَبَّمُمْ إللَّ verily (i.e. see) your Lord (He) is God, do they not know that God knows what they conceal and what they reveal?
 § 584 b) but, yet,
 but most of them do not know, كَأَنَّ ظُلَّةُ as though it were a canopy, أَلَهْ يُعْلَمْ بِأَنَّ أللَّ يَرْى does he not know that God sees? In the above examples the subject immediately follows etc. and under such circumstances $\bar{J}$ (see $\S 361 c$ ) may be prefixed to the predicate ; thus verily we perceive thes

thy Lord is prompt with chastisement and certainly He is forgiving and merciful. There may however be a separation, between إڭֻّ etc. and the subject, caused by an adverb of time and place or by a preposition with its complement; thus verily enemies of you are (to be found) amongst your spouses and children : when this separ-
 " أَّنَّ لَّنَّ predicate be negative we must not use $\bar{j}$, thus إنَّا yَ نُضِيعُ ; verily We will not allow to be lost the reward of the righteous: and so if the verb be a perfect without ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{G}$, thus surely the people despised me and were just on the point of slaying me.

Rem. $a$. These particles, together with those given in rem. $f$, are named is called their ${ }^{\text {so }}$, اسْبر: noun (see § 525 rem.) and the predicate

Rem. b. If the predicate is placed between أَّ and its noun, the logical emphasis falls upon the latter, thus㐌 your friend is with you; but if the predicate follows the noun, it receives the logical emphasis itself, as芜 your friend is with you.

Rem. d. In § 353* we have mentioned áálioil نَا the hindering $m a ̂$, which when appended to by a nominative; thus
 a temptation. The same influence is exercised by ضَهِ (see $\S 362 \mathrm{~m}$ and $\S 367 \mathrm{~g}$ ) as a generous.

Rem. e. A lightened form of these particles may be used.
Rem. f. The words govern an accusative like إِنَّ etc., thus perhaps ye will take warning.
438. An interjection usually precedes the person or thing called ; while for vocative case we must use the nominative or accusative.
(a) As has been noted in $\begin{gathered}\text { ( } \\ \text { ي́ } 0 \text { ! takes its following }\end{gathered}$ noun without the article.
(i) We use the nominative-in the singular without tanwin -when a particular person or thing is addressed by the speaker directly and without explanatory term ; thus ئَ
 said, O Pharaoh!
(ii) We use the accusative when the person or thing called is indefinite and not directly addressed, بَا رَجُلِ somebody! ; as
 O sons of Israel! يَ يَ إْخَوتَنَا O brothers of ours !

Rem. $a$. These rules hold good in the absence of an interjection, as رُبَّنَا أَفْرِغْ عَلَيْنَا صَبْرًا O our Lord, pour upon us patience.

Rem. $b$. In the vocative $\mathbf{-}$ - is usually shortened into (see § 317, rem. b), thus 0 my people! 0 بَ 0 my Lord !
but this abbreviation is not permitted with derivatives ending in $\mathcal{N}$ 三 or $=$ from verbs whose final radical is 2 or . Beside
 (Aaron) said, O son of my mother !

Rem. d. One word only, viz. aللّi, may retain the article and

 or plural, must be nominative and defined by the article ; thus O people! أَئهَا أنَّاسُ $O$ ye who believe!
439. When $y$ is immediately followed by an indefinite object and denies its existence we make the noun accusative and, if possible, we omit tanwin; as أللُهُ لَ إِلَه إلَّ هُو God, there is no god but He. Should an explanatory term follow, tanwin is retained; as Corân by heart amongst you.
440. We have been treating objective complements since $\S 422$ and shall now consider the adverbial complement. This sort of accusative depends (a) when expressed by exist (and by certain similar verbs, see § 442) on the idea of existence or being, which is limited and determined by the accusative ; and ( $b$ ) on circumstances detailed in § 443 et seq.
441. When employed as the *logical copula ${ }^{\circ}$ is called كَانَ اُنَّاقِصَةُ the incomplete kâna because to complete the sense

* In logic the copula is a word which unites the subject and predicate of a proposition; it is known as أَرَّابِطْة the jastening.
there is required an attribute, which we must put in the accusative. Thus آتَّخَذُوهُ وَكَانُوا ظَالهينَ they took it (the calf for their god) and were wrong
 Become abject apes. Also we may note thou (one) of the grateful, which is equivalent (see §448f) to .كُنْ شَاكرًا But when the idea of existence is attributed by كَ to its subject we can only employ the nominative, as كَانَ قِرٍْ there was an ape: here the verb is complete kâna, because it contains the attribute and requires no other, for كَانَ قِردًا

Rem. $a$. The subject is called إسْرُ anَ and and the predicate , whir while the natural sequence (see §518) is verb, subject, predicate ; this order may however be varied if sense allow.

 it will be better for your souls, where يُ يُكْن is understood.
442. The same construction appertains to أَخْوَاتُ كَانَ the sisters of kảna which are often used as synonyms of relation to time, though they add some modification to the simple idea of existence. In this class are ב́ , to continue, - to remain, to become, ڤَبقَيَ - to be or do all day and not a few others, most of which may be تَّأَّةُ : while not
 thus لَيْسَ بِي ضَلَانَلْ in me is no error.

Rem. g. Instead of an accusative or a preposition with its dependent أَ⿱㇒㠯وْاتُ كَانَ may take as attribute a verb in the imperfect, thus following the analogy of كَانَ (see § $408 d$ and $e$, and $\S 409)$. With this construction we can connect that of أَأْعَالْ أْمْقَارَبِّةٍ verbs of appropinquation, which are of two kinds. (1) Amongst those which indicate simple proximity of the predicate is (see § 157) to be just on the point of : commonly its predicate is an imperfect indicative, thus كَادُوا يَقْتُلُونَنِبي they were on the point of killing me. (2) Amongst those which indicate a hope of the predicate's occurrence is عَسَى perhaps : commonly it is construed with أُنْ and the subjunctive, as your Lord may perhaps destroy your enemy ; "but it can take as accusative a pronominal suffix like لَعَلَّ (see § 436, rem. $f$ ).
443. Brief allusion has been made in $\S 440 b$ to other adverbial accusatives which determine and limit the subject, verb, or predicate of a sentence, and sometimes the sentence as a whole. These adverbial accusatives are of different sorts and indicate :-
444. (a) The time in or during which an act occurs; as abiding in them (the gardens) perpetually, إْ day of their sabbath.
(b) Locality, direction, and extension, may in certain cases take the accusative ; as نَنَرَر يَهِينًا وَيِسَارًا he looked right and left. Of this sort are the words given as prepositions in § 359 .

Rem. a. We must use in, when the place is definitely
 where al Husain was killed. But with a verb meaning to remain or the like $\dot{\mathscr{O}}$, and similar vague nouns of place, are employed without preposition and therefore in the accusative; thus罚 if it stand firm in its place.

Note. Certain substantives signifying time or place can be .
 on the day on which they did not keep sabbath, fish did not come to them.

Rem. b. The accusative of time and place, illustrated in above examples of this section, is called الظَّرْفُ the vessel (see

(c) The most important however of adverbial accusatives is called $\mathcal{J}=0 i$ in the state or condition, i.e. of the subject or object or of both, while the act is happening. Thus لَّ رَّا when Moses returned to his people angry,
 He it is who sends the winds, heralds of His mercy lit. between the two hands of His mercy i.e. in advance of rain; thrown down prostrate (adoring).

 the command to pray is of itself a sentence ; and the conditions,
grammatically superfluous, reply to called iآنَحَحال must always do.
 may be (1) a verb, as خَرَّ مُوسَى صَعِقًا Moses fell down thunder-
 verily I am God's apostle to you all, where رُسوّ is accounted a deverbal adjective, أِنّي رَسولُ being equivalent to أْسِلْنُ I have been sent; or (3) a demonstrative pronoun or other expression having verbal force, as أَأَكَئَكَ أَصْهَابُ أنَّارِ خَالِدينَ فِيهَا these are the people of the fire, dwelling continually therein, where


Rem. c. The ḥal is (1) usually صِفَة an adjective expressing
 manifestly : though the adjective may express a permanent state, thus رُبَّنَا تَوْفَّنَا مُسْسِمْينَ O our Lord, receive us dying, as those who
 بِّأْمِه He created the sun and the moon and the stars, held in (a state of) subjection by His command. Sometimes however (2) it is an infinitive with the meaning of a participial adjective,


 them the deluge and locusts and lice and frogs and blood (in the nature of ) signs, separated by intervals. Lastly (4) hâl may be a proposition, as in § 583. There may be more than one haal, with or without, and between them, as can be seen above.

Rem. e. In all our examples hâl is نُرْ indefinite, and this is most usual.

REM. f. We call the subject or object to which a hâl refers
 happens in all our examples.
葒 as to that (land) which was bad its herbage does not come forth except scantily, where 'نَبَاتُ must be supplied as çâhib to نَكِنَا.

Rem. $g$. Also it will be observed that in all our examples the hâl is placed after its regent: as a rule it occupies this position.
(d) The accusative may express an agent's motive and object
 upon Him out of fear and eager desire. Definition by the article is unusual, this accusative being indefinite except when in construct state (see §475).
 be employed in this way; thus, in Koran, VII. 164 "ْعْنِرْ (we warn them) by way of excusing (ourselves). Reply is given to the question of why? (see § 351, rem.).
(e) Other determinations and limitations of the predicate
 thus طَابَ ذَآورُ نَفْفًا David is cheerful in spirit.
 It must be an indefinite substantive.

Rem. b. We have mentioned in $\S \S 322$ and 323 the accusative which follows cardinal numbers from 11 to 99 inclusive : it is of
 and is most usually singular, see $\S 499$.
446. Relations of time and place are designated by prepositions, as also are many ideal conceptions. We shall treat those mentioned in § 447 as indicating motion from, in § 450 motion towards, and in $\S 454$ rest at a place; while in § 470 compound prepositions will be found, over and above those detailed by $\S 305$ et seq.
447. The prepositions indicating motion from or away from a place, are out of, from, and عِنْ away from.
448. We designate by help of
(a) the local point of departure from a place ; as فَأَرْنُنَا عَلْيْهِ رِجْنًا مِنَ هِ from a contrary i.e. on opposite sides. Hence it is used with verbs which indicate liberating, preserving, waruing, etc. as أَنْجَيْنَاكُمْ هـن الِّ فرعْونْ We delivered you from Pharaoh's people, مِنْ كُلِ شَيٍْ مَوْغظَةٌ a warning from i.e. against everything.
(b) The temporal point of departure; as from the Hegira i.e. from 622 s.d.

Rem. a When used in any of the above significations, we say that oro is employed QR.
(c) The causal point of departure, the origin and source
 T, an admonition has come to you from your Lord, orom among your wires originate enemies,
 anything of which we are the origin except that we believed the signs of our Lord when they came to us.

Rem. a. Here $\dot{\sim}$ is employed
(d) The distance from anything, especially after words signifying proximity, when in English we must render $\dot{\sim}^{\circ}$ to; thus surely the mercy of God is near to the righteous.
(e) The difference between two things when compared: hence the use of $\dot{\sim}$ with an elative (see § 234) when comparative; thus ${ }^{\circ}$,

Rem. a. Sometimes ${ }_{0}$ with its complement is omitted; as
 world for those who take heed to themselves, where be supplied.
( $f$ ) The relationship between part and whole, between species

 the chiefs of Pharaoh's people, أُسْنُوا هُنِه الْقَرْيَةَ وَكُلُورا رِنها
 $u s$.

Rem. a. Preceding a definite noun, which is usually plural, كُلُوا هن may indicate an indefinite quantity or number; as
 dependent of may be subject of a sentence as in the following:任 no mischance befalls except by permission of God.

Rem. $b$. Governing an indefinite noun after a negative particle, ${ }_{\text {g }}$ gives the clause an absolute and general sense ; thus年 ye have no god whatever.

REM. e. In these examples is used orin to indicate dirision into parts, as also in أَخْربْنَا هِنْ كُلِّ المَّمرَاتِ We produced all sorts of fruit; sometimes it is employed indicate composition.
 before the explanatory word ; thus ever thou bringest us of a sign: in this case we have a general term rendered more definite, as also when $\dot{\sim}$ indicates the material of which an article has been made; thus
 a calf (made) out of their ornaments.

Rem. Here or is employed

 visited the people of Pharaoh with years (of barrenness) and with diminution of fruit.
 We tork vengeance on them.

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449. By help of $ن$ 's we designate distance from, motion away from, and the like : hence it is used
(a) after verbs which denote setting free, forbidding, etc. as يَنْهاهُمْ , he puts away from them their burden . he forbids them from the disapproved.
(b) After verbs which imply the removal of a covering, as
 village, كَ كَفْنْتَ عَنَّا أْرِبّجْ thou hast removed from us the plague.
(c) After verbs which imply turning away, as كَانُوا عَنْهُ they were neglectors of it, يَفِلينَ him his misdeeds, became still (so as to be) away from Moses, سَأَصْرِفُ عَنْ آَيَاتِي I will cause to turn away from (the direction of) my signs, عَتْوْا عَمَّا غَتًا he turned disdainfully, رَغبَ عَنْ he avoided it.
450. The prepositions indicating motion to or towards a place are حَتَّى up to, and to to,
451. Opposed to pf and إِّى which signifies
(a) motion or direction to or towards a place; thus
 is the returning, وُلِكنِ انْنْظُرْ إِلى أْقَبَلِ but look toward the mountain, أَوْحَيْنَا إِّى مُونِّى We revealed i.e. indicated to Moses. Hence, because inclination is implied, إلى follows verbs of excusing and repenting; thus 1 repent toward Thee, .
(b) In respect of time usually indicates during a con-
 all the time till the day of judgement.

Rem. When used in the above significations, we say that亭 is employed
(c) To show that one thing is added to another we use إِّى and hence إِّى آَحرِ (see § 23, rem.d) to its end, which is definite but serves for etcetera.
452. In addition to implying like إِّى motion towards an object, حَتَّى must indicate arrival.

Rem. c. When $\begin{gathered}\text { حَّ } \\ \text { حَ } \\ \text { is a conjunction (see } \$ 367 k \text { ) it exercises }\end{gathered}$ no governing power upon nouns.
453. Whenever possible $\bigcup$ must be so translated as to indicate abstract relations, those that are concrete being expressed
 OU We drove it for the use of a dead country. This distinction cannot always be preserved as is shown by $\$ 429$ et seq. where indicates an action's relation to the direct object which stands in
 (see § 423). More often however we employ لِ
(a) for passing on the action to an indirect object; as Moses said to his people,
 $\sin )$ to us and have mercy upon us: so with reflexive verbs, which govern self as their direct object; thus لَّبَّ تَجْلَّى رُبُّ لِلْجَبَلِ when his Lord manifested Himself to the mountrin, and we find
 the beholders; also by taking praise as the direct object, we may place here whatsoever is in heaven gives praise to God; and unless wholly idiomatic in he believed in thee. In these cases $\underset{J}{ }$ and its dependent are not essential to the clause, whereas it is different in
(b) the dative (i) of possession; as ${ }^{\prime}$ Him belong the dominion and the praise, ${ }^{\circ}$, ${ }^{\circ}$ which lows lit. to it is the (power of) lowing, يُعْكُفُونَ عَلَى أَصْنَامٍ لَّهْ

 he makes lawful to them the good things, آَذَنُ I give thee permission: (iii) of advantage, contrasting with عَلَى (see § 459 b);

 for the benefit of those who, وْاْتْتُبْ لَنَا فِي هُذِه الدُّنْيَا حَسْنَة وَفِّي
 advantage in this world and in the next, 'تَا' to us.

Rem. b. By use of $\underset{J}{\text { J we express the verb to have, as }}$ كا 1 I have no brother.
(c) Attention is drawn by J to the purpose or cause of an




نُصرِّفُ We diversify the signs for the use of a people,
 He shall gather you for the sake of (what is in) the day of assemblage (of the angels) i.e. the day of judgement*.

Rem. Here لِ is employed to indicate the cause.
(e) Also $ل$ ولَّهَا مُوسْى لِمِقَاتنَا and when Moses had come to Our appointed time,
 of time when a night has passed from Muharram $\dagger$.

Note. Many verbs indicating a state of mind, friendly or hostile, advantageous or disadvantageous, take $\bigcup$ of the person towards whom the feeling is directed; thus ás عُعِيتُ I hate him.
454. The prepositions indicating rest at a place are in, into, بְ at, in, by, with, 玉́s with, along with, beside, near, and عَ over, above, upon.
455. We designate by help of في
(a) rest in a place or during a time, and motion into a place,
 is in heaven and earth, , He created them in six days, We urote it for his lienefit upon the tables, لَّهَّ سُقطَ فِى أَيْديهِمْ when a falling took place into

[^10]

 applies also to less concrete relations, as اغْفِّرْ رُّ
 to enter into Thy mercy.
(b) By rights فo means in the midst of as may well be seen

 as my deputy among my people, and behave uprightly.
(c) We use to state the subject of thought, conversation, or writing; thus أْ The first book treating of the Arabic langunge.
 he liked it.

Rem. We say that فِّ is used to indicate time and place.


456. Whereas indicates amongst we more often express



 He created the heavens and the eurth rightly. Accordingly
verbs with certain meanings govern $ب$ and its dependent in place of an accusative ; thus بُصْرْتُ بِهَا َْمْ يَبْصرُورا I saw that which

 informed of what ye have done, أَنِّذِنَ يُهَّسُكونَ بِبْرَكْتَابِ those who hold fast to the book, للهِ I أَبْتَبُئُ دِسْمِ I begin with the name of God ; and $ب$ with its dependent may take the place of a second accusative, thus
 days of God. Sometimes a verb governs in both ways with the same meaning (see §423); thus أَحْذَ بِرَاْسِ أَحٍْnه he seized the
 seize Him nor sleep; ;ل山ُ بِأْتَعْينُوا إََِّاكَ نَعْبٌد وَإِيَّكَ نَسْتَعِينُ Thee only do we worship and of Thee alone we ask assistance ; ظَلَمْوا بِّها they treated it unjustly, and ó they did not injure Us. Under this general idea of contact are represented the following.
(a) The relation between subject and predicate, especially in negative propositions; as نَا نَسْنُ بِهُوْْمِنِنَ we are not believers.
(b) The relation between an act and its object, especially
 he commands the approved to them ; آَمَّأَّا we have believed, but
 notice this particularly alter those indicating motion, which must
then he translated by transitive verbs (see § 423 , rem. $b$ ); thus
 apostles used to bring them proofs, جَاوزَنْا بِبْنَي إِسْرَآبِيلَ ألْبْحْ We consed the children of Israel to traverse the sea.
(c) The relation between an act and its instrument or reason;

 مسنْ كُلِّ الٌّشَّرَاتِ We caused to descend by means of cloud the water, and we produced by means of it (the rain) all sorts of fruits,

 بِعَصَاكَ il and We revealed to Moses, when his people asked drink of him, saying (see § 367 e) Strike the stone with thy rod, وَكَ كَلْكَ نَبْلُوهُمْ بِبَا كَانُوا يَغْسُقُونَ

 nights and We completed them by means of ten (more), إنّي
 thee above (all) men by reason of (My putting thee in charge of) My messages and because of My speaking (to thee).

Rem. c. To express without we can use بَآلَّذِينْ ; thus يُتَبَّرُونَ فِي آلْارْضِ بِغَيْرِ أْحْقِقِّ those who behave proudly in the earth without justice.

Rem. $d$. Some would place in this subsection by the name of Good while others supply أَبْتَدئُ as above.

Rem. e. Arabian grammarians have divers expressions to denote the uses of $ب$.


457. By help of (or or association and connection in time or place; thus أرسْنْهُ مُعِي عُ send him with me: there are also less usual meanings.
459. We employ عَ over, upon, above

 He established Himself upon the throne: and a similar sense may be discerned in
 manna and quail, أَخَافُ عَنْيْكُمْ عَذَابًا I fear in your case a punishment, عَلَى upon God then let the believers
 ings.
(b) As implying disadvantage (see § $453 b$ iii); thus غ́ض
 rgainst them. Also we use عُ عُ after words signifying difficulty



distinct delivery is incumbent upon Our apostl', مِيَّاقُ is not the covenant of the brok taken upon them,层
(d) To show superiority in one over another; thus فَضَّأُكُمْ
 كُلِّ شَيْء قَدِيرُ
(e) To give the condition serving as basis upon which a
 Christian religion.
(j) To indicate the subject spoken of; thus أنْ لَ يَقُولُوا قَّنَّ than the truth.

Rem. a. Other uses exist ; as an admonition has come to you through one of yourselves.
 stantive follows and there is no verb of swearing. The complement (جَوْابُ الْقْسَسِهِ) may be an affirmative verbal proposition, and the verb may be imperfect, in which case $\bar{j}$ is prefixed to the
 raised.
463. While commonly reckoned among prepositions s) $a s$, like is a substantive and synonymous with of likeness (see § 482 f ). We find it in $\operatorname{sَ\dot {\mathrm {S}}}$ thus, نَ
 (see §353*), thus إِجْعْ make for us a god like their gods.
 بِهنَا عَهِ , عْنَهُ أَجْرْ عَظِيمُ and with God there is great reward يَجِجُدونَّهُ
 with them i.e. mentioned in the Old Testament and Gospel, أَرَ إنَّهَا طَآترُرْهُ عْند اللَّه hidden in the counsels of God. When used of time may ndicate a particular moment, thus أَيْقَنْتُ عِنْدَ كِتَابِهَا I felt sure at the time of writing it.
467. Signifying between بَيْن indicates an intervening space,
 Of common occurrence is بَيْنَ يَدَيْهِ between his two hands i.e. in his presence, and بَيْنَ أَيْدِيْنِمْ between their hands i.e. before them ; thus بَيْنَ يَدْيْ رَهْتِته before his mercy.
468. Signifying beneath تَتْتْ indicates the lower part; thus under the tree.

Rem. b. Its opposite is وَهُو لْْلْقَهِرُ فَوْقَ عِبَادِه above ; as and He is all-powerful over His servants.
469. Signifying below دُونَ often indicates something inferior, and
(e) that a quality belonging to one is not possessed by
 among them and those who are not that are among them.
 nouns in the accusative (see $\$ 359$ and $444 b$ ) which are employed as prepositions: for instance,
(a) قَبْلْ before of time; thus have ye believed. Him before that I gave you permission. Its
 do not ye commit disorders in the earth after its ordering.
 is خَحْ He knows what is before them and what behind i.e. what is and shall be.
470. Compound prepositions have usually $\dot{\sim}$ as the first part, and the second part must be in dependent case. Thus
 and He shall cause him to enter gardens under which flow the runnels of water.

 (the aforesaid) We sent Moses, evil have ye wrought in mine absence after my departure, الَّزينَ عَهِلُوا
 after that repent.

Rem. e. The construction may sometines be made more
 and Moses chose from his people seventy men for Our appointed time.
471. The infinitive (see $\$ \$ 195$ and 426 to 429) like other nouns is indefinite unless defined by the article or otherwise; thus therein, 0 you, is a great
 verily those who chose the calf (as a god), wrath shall overtake them from their Lord, and ignominy in this present life ; قَالُوا مَعْذِرَةٌ إِلَى رِبّكْمْ they said, It is a way of excusing (ourselves) to your Lord.
472. The rection* of nomina agentis has been treated in $\$ 430,431$. They and nomina patientis (originally adjectives, see $\S 80$ ) are frequently used as concrete verbal nouns, designating a person or thing to which the verbal idea closely attaches itself, while remaining immovable. The Imperfect is nearly akin but being part of a finite verb indicates motion or renewal.

Note. We retain Professor Wright's term nomen concretum verbale, though it might perhaps be as well to employ the word participle, here and elsewhere.
473. For a specific indication of time we must look to some
 he answered, We will massacre their

[^11]sons and we will save alive their daughters (lit. women) and verily we shall be subduers over them, where $\dot{\sim}$ gives a future sense to all three clauses.
(w) In a clause which is not circumstantial the concrete verbal noun refers to a present or future time; thus فَلَقَّ كَ كَفْنْا عَنهْ but when We removed from them the plague until a fixed term, which they were about to
 to these people destroyed is that (religion) in which they were, and
 وَكْمْكْ He it is who created you, and one of you is an un-
 فَهَا نَصْنُ كَكَ بِّوْوْنِينَ they said, Whatever sign thou bringest to us we do not believe in thee.
(b) But the concrete verbal noun in a circumstantial clause refers to the same period of time as the ruling verb; see § 583. The Imperfect Indicative will be found used in nearly the same way; see $\S 408 e$.
474. When attached to a verb as adverbial accusative (see $\$ 444 c$ ) a concrete verbal noun refers to the same period of time

 them enter gardens to abide therein, an instance of ${ }^{5}{ }^{5}{ }^{\text {Ha }}$ indicating the future.
475. A noun, when governing another noun in the dependent case, is called by the Arabians مُضضافُ annexed, and is said by European grammarians to be in construct state. It is shortened in pronunciation by omission of tanwin or of the terminations and $\dot{\mathcal{U}}$, in order that the speaker may pass quickly to the governed word, which is called أَلْمُضَافُف إِلَيْ that to which annexation is made. Their relationship is known as ${ }^{\text {إِّ }}$ annexation.

Rem. There are two kinds of annexation proper annexation and
 defined; in the latter it can only be نَبْرَ, except when the article is prefixed, see § 489.
476. In the construct state of a governing noun, followed immediately by the dependent of a governed, can be represented all ideas which we express in English with the preposition of.
 of the sea i.e. situated by the sea, إنْ يُرِوا سَبِيلَ ألُّشْدِ if they see the path of true direction. A word may be governing and governed ; as مَالِكُ يَوْمِ الْدِّينِ the Ruler of the day of the judgement, أَعَجْتْتُرْ أَهْرْ رَبِّكُمْ have ye hastened the affior of your Lord?
478. (a) The governed word (أَمْضَافُ إلَيْهُ) in proper annexation may be nomen substantivum*, a pronoun or other word

[^12]regarded as a substantive, or an entire clause (see § 488). Thus

 and those who deny Our signs and the meeting of the last (dwelling),
 good things which we have provided for you, رَنِّ story of those who disbelieved.
(b) The governing word (i. ألْمْضَافُ i.e. the one in construct state) must in proper annexation be nomen substantivum* in which category are accounted prepositions, as its ordering; so also are numerals, for which see § 496 et seq.

 well acquainted with what is in possession of the breasts. An adjective in construct state is improperly annexed (see § 489) unless, as in the following examples, standing in the position of a defined noun so as to have the force of a substantive ; thus全
 manifest. As regards superlatives, see $\$ 886$ and 493.

Rem. $a$. In proper annexation the article $j i j_{\text {can never be }}$


 mention of the day whereon He shall gather you for the day of

[^13]assembly, this will be the day of general deception: here we must prefix اُْ اُقْر.
480. Instead of having an adjective attached to it, a noun may be in construct state qualified by another noun; as صِتٍ a sincere man: this is common in specifying the material, as
482. The following substantives are used to express the whole, the part, the like, and the different, by being annexed (مُضَافُ) to a dependent.
(a) ${ }^{5}$ كُ the totality, the whole. If the leading substantive is defined and signifies something single and indivisible, كُّ山゙ means whole as كُلْ the whole house; if it is definite but


 sign they will not believe in it, رُْهَتْي وَسْتْ كُلَّ شَيْ My mercy comprises everything. In $\S 402 a$ will be found every tribe: here, as may be learned from the context, is أُنَاس collective (see § 305, rem. e) but is used as a singular.



(d) غَيْ something different may usually be translated other
 12—2



 rem. $c$.

Rem. $a$. We employ غَ as a negative, thus possible; but if repetition be needed we must after the first negative use y' followed alike by a dependent, thus صرأطُ اُرَّذِينَ位 the way of those upon whom Thou hast shed blessing, other than those who are the objects of (Thine) anger and are in error.

Rem. $a$. Similar in sense to ${ }^{\text {, }}$, but without case signs, is צ see § 463.
486. Properly annexed, in construct state, are found deverbal


 Thou art the best of those who pardon. Here one item is made to stand prominently out of a whole designated by the dependent; and being in this annexation definite substantives (see § 478 b) فَعْلُ need not vary in gender or number
 أَ

Rem. a. Being superlative أَوَّ first stands in annexation of the same sort, thus أَنَا أَوَّلُ أْمُؤْمِنِينْ I am the first of the believers. The other ordinal numbers ought not so to be used, for they are nomina agentis from transitive verbs, see § 328.
 the 'an which with its verb is equivalent to a maçdar (see § 195) and the same construction appertains to the indefinite io $^{\circ}$ (see
 were aflicted before that thou camest to us and after that thou hast come, which is equivalent to مِنْ قَبْلِ إِنْيَانِكَ إيَّانَا وَمِنْ بَعِّ before thy coming to us and after thy coming to us. Clauses of this sort frequently stand as أَلْهُصَافُ إِنْئهِ (the second member of an annexation, see $\S 478$ a) in lieu of a dependent.
489. When improperly annexed the noun in construct state must be an adjective, thus سَسِريعُ il prompt of chastisement. Here the dependent though always defined by the article exercises no defining influence upon its governing word, which remains نَكْرَّ (see § 475, rem.) and can be defined by the article, thus ألهَّ ألَّرِيعُع أْعِقًابٍ God the prompt to punish*'.
490. Except by poetic licence, nothing can intervene between a noun in construct state and its following dependent, consequently an adjective qualifying the first member must be placed

[^14] praise belongs to God, the Lord of the worlds, the compassionate and merciful.
492. In proper annexation if the second member be indefinite the first is the same, as إْنَّي أَخَافُ عَلْيْمُمْ عَذَابَ يَوْمٍ عَظِيمٍ verily I fear in your case a punishment of a great day. But if the second member be definite so is the first, as أَورْنَّنَا
 parts of the land and the western parts of it. If we desire that the first noun be indefinite while the second is definite we must employ the preposition $\boldsymbol{J}$, thus إبْنُ للرَّجّلِ a son of the man (see § $453 b$, i): certain words of wide signification may however remain indefinite even when followed by a definite dependent.
493. The examples in $\S 486$ have each its dependent (أَهْضَضَفُف إِلَيْمِ) definite and therefore partitive: if indefinite the dependent must be explicative, as excellent women,

 last day.

Rem. $a$. If the dependent be definite the noun in construct state (أَمْضَضَفُ) may resume its characteristic attribute as an adjective and conform in number and gender to the object or objects mentioned; thus it is the largest of the cities,
494. Attention has been drawn in $\S 480$ to a way of specifying the material from which any thing is made : this also may be done by putting the material in apposition to the object, both being وَأَتَّخَذَ قَوْرْ مُوسَى منْ بَعْده عْبَلِ جَسَدًا and the people of Moses after his departure took for themselves (as god) a calf of red gold.
495. Of two things which are identical, the second may be in dependent case and the first in construct state.
(b) This happens when a specific noun is preceded by a sub-
 to the chapter which is the opener of the book.
496. It has been mentioned in $\S 321$ that cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 , when in apposition to the things numbered, agree with them in case ; but when placed in annexation before them (see $\S 478$ b) govern a plural dependent. A plural of paucity (see § 307) must be employed if the substantive have one; thus
 earth in six days.

Rem. $a$. Exceptional is $\begin{gathered}\text { dá } \\ \text { one oned } \\ \text { hundred which, in dependent }\end{gathered}$ singular, always follows the governing numeral, see § 325.

Rem. b. Should the plural of paucity not be in common use, there must perforce be employed ${ }_{0}^{\circ}$ plural of abundance.

Rem. c. We must remember that a sound plural is plural of
paucity, thus its verses are seven in number; ('أ is a generic noun which forms a nomen unitatis, being also a plural of abundance, see $\S 304, N \mathrm{~N} .28$ and $\S 306$, rem. $a$ ). If however an adjective specifies the objects numbered, i must be employed as in $\S 448 f$; or the noun must be put in apposition to
 six believing women.
499. We have seen $\S 444 e$, rem. $b$, that cardinal numbers from 11 to 99 take their objects numbered in the accusative singular ; thus إْتَارَ مُوسَى قَوْهِهُ سَبْعِينَ رَجُلِ Moses chose from
 written at Mecca and it (has) eighteen verses. Very rarely they are followed by an accusative plural, as
 but units conform to the gender of the noun denoting the objects numbered, thus الْبْجَسْتِ أْتْنَتَا عَشْرَةَ عَيْنًا out ( عَ being feminine, see $\S 290 a$ ).
506. Cardinal numbers agree in gender with nouns denoting the objects numbered according to the following rules; there being constantly borne in mind the peculiarity explained at § 319.
(a) The numeral agrees in gender with the singular of the substantive denoting the objects numbered, even if the plural is of different gender; as five years (the singular


(b) When the objects numbered are designated by a noun of general signification, its grammatical gender is usually followed by the numeral; as بِبْط . بأْنَا عَشَرْ أَسْبَاطًا twelve tribes (the sing being masculine). But if another substantive be attached which determines more precisely the real gender of the objects, then the numeral agrees with the second noun ; thus قَطَّعْنَا هُمُ أْنْنَتَيْ عَشْرَةَ أَمْبَاطًا أُمْمًا We divided them into twelve tribes (i.e.) nations

512. To every totality, sentence there must be a subject and a predicate, the latter being called ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ that which is supported, the attribute. The subject is called by which (the attribute) is supported, and the relation between them is termed $\boldsymbol{د}$ 'ínex the act of supporting or causing to lean, attribution.
513. The subject may be a noun substantive, as Op the chieftains of his people answered; or an expressed

 in the verb*, as أَغْرقنَا He giveth life and causeth to die ; or a conjunctive

[^15] there praises God whatsoever is in heaven and in earth, , iُ the unbelievers have usserted ; or a preposition with
 the good are among them, and those who are not that are among them. The predicate may be a noun (substantive or adjective),
 Lord of the worlds, , He is the potent, the wise ; or a verb, as فَكَلَّا أَفَاقَ مُونَى so when Moses awoke ; or a preposition with its dependent, as or they are in it ; or an adverb,

 He is your Creator, , what he did. Be the predicate what it may, every sentence beginning with its subject is (which may be simple or compound, see $\begin{gathered}5 \\ 5 \\ 5\end{gathered} 19$ and 520 ), thus إنَّ أْزْضض للَّه , He is the sublime, the mighty surely the earth belongs to God, مُوسَى أَفَاقَ Moscs quoke. On the other hand we call compound) any one in which the predicate is a verb preceding
 the guarding of them both does not weary Him; or in which the verb represents both subject and predicate, thus تَوَّوَّوْا they turned
 inchoatice (except when put in the accusative by a preceding إِّنّ for it is then known as إسْ إِّ إِّ
"il the enunciative; while the subject of a verbal sentence is called أَلْفَاءِ the agent, and its predicate آَفْفُلْ the action or verb.

Rem. b. Here Professor de Goeje adds the following :-
The difference between verbal and nominal sentences, to which the native grammarians attach no small importance, is properly this, that the former relates an act or event, the latter gives a description of a person or thing, either absolutely, or in the form of a clause descriptive of state (see $\S 583 a$ ). This is the constant rule in good old Arabic, unless the desire to emphasize a part of the sentence be the cause of a change in its position.
514. A verb with ó or (then called maçdariyaћ, see §488) may serve as subject either to a nominal or to a verbal sentence; thus عَهِقيقٌ that I say so and so is incumbent upon me.
515. The predicate may (see $\S 513$ ) be a preposition with its dependent, and when the subject precedes we have a nominal sentence; thus أَعْعَبِبُة لِّلْمُقَّقينَ the result is to the devout. If however the preposition and dependent stand first, thus 'i if the returning is to Him (see also next section), we may
 and $527 a$ ).

Rem. The logical emphasis falls upon the later word as in § 436, rem. $b$.
516. If the predicate be an adverb or a preposition with its dependent, and the subject an indefinite substantive or a clause (see §514) containing a finite verb governed by ${ }^{\text {I }}$, then the
 ge heok the tables and in their inscription were guidance and mercy, "لَ á it lows lit. a lowing is to it : but either order is permitted if the indefinite substantive carries with it an
 . ألٍ to them is a painful punishment. In case of a sentence expressing a wish, however, its subject if indefinite must precede, as

517. The subject also necessarily follows its predicate in
 reference to a word in the فَبِ its master is in the house; ( $b$ ) when the
 نilil obey God and obey the apostle, but if ye turn aside, then only the clear delivery (of his message) is incumbent upon Our (upostle, oَ wo have nothing (to do) but to follow him (see $\$ 585$ and 586); (c) when the $\begin{gathered}\text { is an interrogative, as } \\ \text { is }\end{gathered}$

518. In a verbal sentence the agent (i.e. subject) must always
 him, verb represents both subject and predicate; thus í أْقْىَ أْنْ he threw down the tables.
519. In addition to simple sentences, nominal and verbal, we find compound, each consisting of an inchoative with a clause as enunciative. In one sort of compound nominal sentence, a noun (substantive or pronoun) is transposed to the first place and followed by a verb, thus زَْمَتِي وَسْعْتْ كُلَّ شَهْ (as to) My mercy (it) comprises everything. Here the agent of the clause (أَلْعَاءِل) is a concealed pronoun, which corresponds in gender and number with the inchoative of the sentence; and the inchoative contrasts (tacitly or expressly) with another inchoative having a different predicate, thus مُوسَسَى أَفَاقَ وَهرونُ نَبَّئُم وَلْكِنَّ , verily as for us, we repent toward Thee

 may be mercifully dealt with, لَعََّّمُمْ تَهْتَدُونُ perhaps ye may be guided aright.
520. There are also compound sentences in which a pronominal suffix called أَرَّابُّ the connecter replaces the noun transposed. They may be (a) compound nominal, thus اللهُ عنْدَهُ with God there is great reward; or (b) compound verbal, thus أَلْبَرُ الططَّيّبُ يَخْرُح نَبَاتُهُ (as to) the good land its
 ment I strike with it whom I will.
521. We may regard as verbal a sentence consisting of a
 people are generous (see § $552 b$ ii).
522. There does not exist in Arabic a substantive verb, i.e. one which would unite subject and predicate in a nominal sentence without connoting the idea of existence; for $\dot{\sin }$ though occasionally supplying the place of logical copula, ascribes to its subject the attribute of existence ; and being attributive, its predicate and those of $ا ٔ َ \dot{\text { أَوْاتُ }}$ must be in the accusative case (see $\Omega_{\S} 841$ and 442).
523. The absence of logical copula expressed by or contained in a finite verb constitutes the essential characteristic of a (simple) nominal sentence (see §513); so that when a definite noun (substantive or pronoun) and an indefinite adjective stand in juxtaposition we have a complete nominal sentence. The fact of the former being defined (no matter how) and the latter undefined, shows them to occupy the positions of subject and predicate; for, as will be seen in $\S 536$, a descriptive epithet must agree with its noun in respect of definition as well as in gender, number and case. Thus غَهُ God is self-sufficing (and) worthy to be praised, ${ }^{\text {, }}$ uppermost parts is Meccan.
524. If both subject and predicate are defined, we can make sure of their relative position being recognized, by inserting between them ضُ the pronoun of separation; thus任
525. If the predicate be a nominative and the subject placed in the accusative after $\stackrel{\text { إِ }}{\underline{U}}$ or the like, a pronoun of separation is unnecessary; thus verily your Lord is God : there may however be inserted such pronoun of the same person as
 our protector.

Rem. A noun governed by إِّة etc. is not called كُبْتَدْ inchoative by Arabian grammarians.
527. As a general rule the subject of a nominal sentence must, if not exactly defined, be specialized, No information is conveyed by "A horse is grey"; but we can say فَرسُ أَصْفَرُ هُوْ أَحْسنْ مِنْ غَيْرْ a grey horse is handsomest, where نَـُرَةٌ indefinite is specialized by its adjective; so also there is obviously a partial determination in رَّبْةُ a desire to do evil is bad, and in يَوْ a punishment of a great day is to be feared (see §492). These examples differ from true definition, which is only attained by use of the article , in in order to distinguish (see §345), or by annexation to a detined noun (see § 475 et seq.) : there are other cases where the subject of a nominal clause can be indefinite, among which are the following :-
(a) In a clanse called at § 515 zarflyaћ (i) when the predicate stands first, as of there is a section of the people; and (ii) when the suliject is preceded by an interrogative or negative particle, as

 peace be unto you; see § 516 .
(f) Words containing the conditional meaning of $\dot{\dot{j}}$ if (see $\S 406$ ), though indefinite by their nature, serve as inchoative ; thus هَنْ يُوقَ شَّحَّ نَفْسْه whoever is made to guard against his own covetousness.
529. A pronoun of separation is sometimes omitted if the
 prize.

 being wholly different from the pronoun of separation treated in \$ 524 et seq. Commonly it follows the subject, or a verb which represents both subject and predicate; thus أَلَِّينْ هُمْ لرَبِّهِمْ
 WE be the victors; see also

Note. The pronoun of corroboration may follow conjunctive pronouns in an oblique case, thus for those especially who believe in Our signs.
531. If however in the description of persons or things (see § 513 , rem. b) a nominal clause lacks precision, we may use or one of its sisters (see §442). When so employed the imperfect has its usual meanings : but a perfect, beside examples like those
 فَاْلَّتِي كَانَتْ عَلْيْهْ he puts away from them their burden and the
fetters which are upon them; especially is this the case after an interrogative, or or not, as مَا 1 am not ready to judge between you until etc. (see § 557).
533. We have observed in \$ 73 that passive verbs must often be translated impersonally: commonly a 3rd person singular masculine is used to avoid specifying the subject, thus إذ قِ قِلَ
 only an accusative of the sin, we render سَيْغْفَرُ لَنَّ we shall be pardoned, for it will be pardoned to $u$ s gives too explicit a subject. Nomina patientis of verbs which are transitive by help of a preposition (see §423) can only appear in the masculine singular, changes of gender and number being marked by an alteration of the pronoun; thus oَ he is an olject of anger, , she is an object of anger, كَي مغْضُوبُ عَكْيها objects of anger. The neuter plural of adjectives is sometimes expressed by the feminine sound plural, and sometimes by a broken plural, but never by the masculine sound plural ; thus

 he makes lawful to them the pleasant things and mukes unluwful to them the foul things.

Rem. $a$. The passive of directly transitive verbs may be used personally or impersunally, thus غُلبَ he was overcome or there was a victory.
534. To the subject and predicate complements are joined by subordination (the accusative or a preposition with its dependent), or by coordination which is more usually called apposition.

GR.
535. Pronominal suffixes may have a reflexive meaning when attached to a verb's object, but not when attached to the verb itself ; consequently for this purpose we must employ ${ }^{\text {نَفُفْ }}$ soul or the like, thus كَانُوا أَنْفُسْهُ يَظْلُمُونَ they were injuring themselves: to this rule however verbs of the heart-(see $\S 424 b \mathrm{ii}$ ) supply exceptions.
536. Complements coordinated with a subject or predicate are called تَوَابِع appositives (see § 304, No. 16), the usual apposition being of noun to noun and the more rare (see § 540) of verb to verb. There stands first أَلْتَبْوْ that which is followed and then ألَّابِع the follower.
(a) After this fashion the adjective is joined to its substantive ; they agreeing in gender, number and case, as well as (see $\S 523$ ) by definition or by being undefined: thus manifest error, بَأَهِت ع́olio I saw their congregational mosque or their
 abode. A noun may of course have two or more adjectives con-
 God the merciful (and) compassionate: sometimes a nomen verbi (nomen actionis or other) takes the place of an adjective, thus
 above examples all words are singular, and concords in case of the dual are equally simple : but with plurals the matter becomes difficult, though the rule as to definition is happily unalterable. A substantive (i) in musculine sound plural representing rational
creatures must be followed by an adjective in the plural, thus
 believers, كَافُرونَ مَألعِينُ (see §305, No. 2) accursed unbelieiers; while a substantive (ii) in feminine sound plural may be followed

 No. 17) noble gardens, بُقَرَاتُ بِضضّ (see § 304, No. 2) white cattle,
 A substantive in broken plural if (iii) denoting rational beings may be followed by an adjective in the singular feminine, thus الَطُّلَّبُ الْحْنْمْلِيزِيةُ جَوْارٍ strong kings مُمُوكُ شَدِيدَةُ , Moslem women strong girls ; it is however better, if the sex be indicated, to employ an appropriate sound plural, thus رِجَارُ مُسْلْمُونَ and نسَسَاء: مُسْلِنَاتُ. But if the broken plural (iv) denotes objects other than rational beings, no matter what their gender in the singular, its adjective may be feminine, singular as great fishes, or plural as ${ }^{3}$ تُوْرُ حَسَنَّ beautiful forms; or else a broken plural, thus powerful winds, رِيَا عَزَاْ noble mountains. Next as regards collectices which are treated in $\$ \$ 292$ and 306 rem. : those (v) denoting rational beings usually take an adjective in that sound plural which corresponds by
 duers, إنَّهُمْ كَانُوا قَوْمًا عَهِينَ truly they were a blind people,促 Mullmêds numerous fumily; but the
adjective may be singular and agree with the collective's gram-
 an impious nation. Collective nouns (vi) which do not form a nomen unitatis and denote living objects destitute of reason (see $\$ 290$ a) are, in respect of concord with adjectives, similar to (see iv) broken plurals denoting irrational creatures : those (vii) which form a nomen unitatis, and denote objects other than rational, may take a feminine sound plural, as جَرْادٌ طَيَّارَاتُ flying locusts; or a feminine singular, as قَهُّهَّ voracious lice ; or a masculine singular, as ألشَّهرُ ألطَّهِّبُ the fresh fruit; or a broken plural, as سَحَابُ ثِقَال heavy cloud.
(b) Being definite by their nature and regarded as substantives, the demonstrative pronouns (see $\S \S 340,341$ ) must be coupled with a defined appositive : if this definition is caused by the article we usually find the demonstrative preceding, thus
 tive be definite in its nature or defined by a following dependent,


Note. We find in Corân, Sûraћ 7, verse 166 كُونُوا قِرِّرَة become abject apes: here the appositive is in masculine sound plural because human beings are addressed.
537. Sometimes we find the adjective substantive or pronoun and agreeing with it in gender, number and case ; thus 1

withont reflexive meaning, thus ;أَيْتُ نَنْسَهُ I have seen himself: if a plural be needed, أَنْسُسُ must be employed.

Rem. $a$. There is a class of appositives called الشَّوْوْ or
 roboration in meaning which includes
 corroboration, when any word is repeated, thus نَعَمْ نَعَهْ yes, yes.

Rem. b. Three more classes of appositives are in use. (1) ألصِّفَةُ (see qualificative which may refer to its مُتْوُعُ (s) §536) directly, in which case it is a simple adjective, thus㑕 the living and everlasting God; or indirectly, applying to a following word and with it forming a qualificative clause. (2) أَبْبَدُ the permutative of which the most usual kind is بَدَّ أْمْلِّ هِنَ il the substitution of the whole for the whole;

 upon whom thou hast shed blessing, other than those who are the objects of (Thine) anger. Here صراط is badal of of الذين . (3) (3) explicative connection, being a substantive which explains its تُتْوُون ; thus the apostle the prophet, قَالَ مُوسَى لِّخِيه هُرُونَ Moses said to his brother Aaron, عَبْجْ $a$ عَسْ a calf a body, i.e. a calf in bodily shape.

Rem. c. One verb may be substituted for another by لِ
explaining something involved in the previons verb; thus
筑 they
luy upon you the evil of punishment, killing your sons and saving alive your duughters.
540. Two verbs used asyndetically (i.e. used without a conjunction) are regarded as in apposition, thus قَامَ سَجْد he arose and prostrated himself, سَجْنَ أَطَارَ he continued long in prostration; but the insertion of is better.
541. As regards concord in gender and number between the parts of a sentence, the following rules hold good. We shall treat in $\S 552$ of nominal sentences, and at present confine our attention to verbal sentences (see § 518) ; premising that a masculine singular subject can only be preceded (or followed) by a masculine singular verb, thus قَالَ فِرْعونٌ Phuraoh said, and that the equivalent of a plural subject (such as a relative sentence, etc.) takes a preceding verb in the singular, thus زَعْرَ الَّنِّينَ كَفَرُورا the unbelievers have asserted.
542. (a) If the subject be a singular substantive, feminine according to $\S 290 a$, and (i) immediately following its verb, the verb must be feminine singular, thus أْمْتَّتَتْ a a hand became extended: but (ii) if one or more words intervene, while the feminine is better, the masculine is permissible, thus بَصرْ بِّهُ ُi the eye saw it.
(b) If the subject be a singular substantive, feminine according to $\S 290 b$ or $\$ 291$ the verb may precede in either gender, though preferably in the feminine if the subject follows immedi-
 but we find فَأْنْظُرْ كَيْغَ كَانَ عَاقِبَةُ أْمْفْسِبِينُ so look how was the end of the transgressors.

Rem. The concord usually remains if, in negative or interrogative sentences, the subject be preceded by of ; but in
 mischance has befallen.
 form, be the subject's gender what it may ; see § 183.
543. If the subject be a masculine sound plural the preceding verb is with rare exceptions singular masculine, thus orenon God then let the believers rely.

Rem. b. When meaning family or tribe بُبُون, the sound plural of إبْن son, may be preceded by a feminine singular verb;

544. If the subject be a broken plural the preceding verb again with rare exceptions is singular, and of either gender no matter which, thus حَبَطْتْ أَعْهَالْهُمْ (from mase.) their works
 But if the broken plural denote male persons the verb is better
 on account of what the fools among us have done; though we sometimes find the feminine, as apostles used to come to them.
545. If the suhbect be a collective or other noun mentioned in $\S 292$ the preceding verb must be singular but may be of

 of them said.
546. If the subject be a feminine sound plural the preceding verb must be singular but may be of either gender, unless denoting female persons, in which case the feminine is preferable.
548. When the subject has been mentioned in a preceding clause, the verb must agree with it in gender and number according to the following rules. A masculine or feminine singular verb follows a like subject; and a masculine plural verb follows a masculine sound plural, thus a me mér Moslems journeyed and came, as also the plural of pronouns, thus and when the boon came to them they said. In case of broken plurals the following verb must be femi-
 the winds and they bear cloud where might also have been used: if however male persons are indicated the verb in masculine plural is used, thus the magicians came to Pharaoh and said; or if female persons the verb is in feminine plural. Following a collective noun which indicates a predominance of male persons the verb is naturally in masculine plural, thus مِنْ قَوْرِ مُونسى أُمَّةُ يَهْدُونَ بِاْتْحَقِق وَبِه يَعْدِلُونَ among the people of Moses there is a section who direct (others) by the truth and by means of it do justice, posterity succeeded who inherited the Book: other collectives
treated in $\S 292$ are followed by a singular verb of either gender. Lastly if the subject be a feminine sound plural the verb would naturally follow in feminine plural though the feminine singular
 Lord, when they came to us: but when female persons are indicated the concord must be strictly kept.
551. A verb sometjmes agrees in gender with the logical subject, i.e. a dependent annexed to the grammatical subject;
 كُلَّ آيَةٍ even though every sign come to them.
552. In nominal sentences the concord of gender and number between subject and predicate closely resembles that in verbal sentences.
(a) When the predicate, being verb or adjective, follows its subject, they must agree strictly in gender and number; thus God knows best lit. is more knowing than any

 attainers of it, لَلْعَلَّلَّمْنْ نَّنَّقُوْنِ perchance ye will take heed to yourselves; but a broken plural may be followed by a feminine singular, as أَلْحَتَانُ كَبِيرَة the fishes are large.
(b) When the predicate precedes its subject, as in negative and interrogative sentences, (i) they must in a nominal sentence agree (see $c$ ) but (ii) in a verbal sentence (see § 251) the predicate ought to be singular, thus the truthful are trustworthy.
(c) If a subject be collective its predicate may follow in the plural, thus Similarly,
 shall men direct us?
(d) A predicate frequently agrees in gender with the logical subject, i.e. a dependent annexed to the grammatical subject, compare § 551.
553. In negative and prolibitive sentences a negation may apply to any part of the sentence-the predicate, the subject (see §439), the object, the circumstantial expression (孔َانَ) etc.
554. The negative most often immediately precedes that part of the sentence which it denies, but this is not necessarily so.
555. (a) The predicate of a verbal sentence in the imperfect with present sense may be denied by ý (see § $362 d d$ ), as لَ يَوُودُ بَهُظْفُفْ the guarding of them both does not weary Him; or with the future sense, as إْنَّا لُضْيع surely We will not allow to be lost the reward of the righteous; or with a past sense, when preceded by a verb which expresses the past, as鲑 did they not perceive that it could not speak to them?
(b) We rarely find $y^{\prime}$ attached to a verb in the perfect, except when used with; to continue a previous negation.
556. The particle ${ }^{\circ}$ (for $\dot{j}^{\Sigma} y^{\prime}$ see § $362 h h$ ) is a very strong negation of the future, as can be seen in $\$ \$ 411$ and $415 a \mathrm{i}$.

REM. For $\begin{aligned} \circ \\ \circ\end{aligned}$
557. The particle L' not (see § $362 k k$ ) denies the perfect when the latter has one of the meanings treated in § $401 a$ to $d$; when joined to the imperfect it denies the present, as is noted in $\S 408$ e, rem. $a$.

Note. An instance of $\dot{L}_{0}$ denying $\operatorname{Srl}^{\circ}$ is given in $\S 531$.
558. The particle إڭ not (see $\S 362 k$ ) beside being found in nominal sentences, thus this is only Thy temptation, may be used before the imperfect indicative and the perfect of a verb.
559. The verb تَيْ (see § 182 and 442) which usually expresses the indefinite or definite present (see $\S 408 a, b$ ) is
 not an onlooker; though it may be تَّةَّةُ complete. It is also employed as an indeclinable particle, denying more strongly than $y$ that part of the sentence to which it is prefixed.
560. When a sentence containing one of the negatives $\dot{L}_{0}^{\circ}$, , لَّ $\dot{9}$ and to connect the two, ( $a$ ) the second sentence is negatived by $y$ when no special emphasis attaches to the form of negation, and (b) the first negative is repeated when the independence of the second sentence is emphasized; but (c) when the two verbs are conceived of as forming parts of one action, no second negative is required, thus إِ if our Lord had not been merciful to us and pardoned us.

REM. $a$. As regards the use of $\bar{y}$ instead of repeating $\begin{aligned} \circ \\ \end{aligned}$ see $\S 482 d$, rem. $a$.
563. The prohibitive $y$ g governs the jussive, as may be seen in ss $417 b$ and 420 : this happens also with the energetic.
564. All interrogative clauses take the direct form, thus
 il he inquired whether thou couldst write Arabic; the difference between direct and indirect questions being ignored, both in the arrangement of words and in the moods of the verb.
565. Spoken questions may be indicated merely by the tone of voice : but written inquiries are usually introduced by one of the following particles, viz. 1 , an interrogative adverb, such as أَيْنَ where? how? or the like (see $\$ 8361$ to 364 ).
566. The simplest interrogative is $\bar{I}$ أَعَجْلتُمْ أَمْرَ رِبِّكُمْ have ye hastened the affair of your Lord? This particle may be
 rem.) shall there indeed be to us a reward? ? أَوَبْبْنْ do ye wonder? do ye not therefore understand?
567. The interrogative $\bar{j}$ introduces questions of a more lively sort, thus هَنْ يُجْزوْنَ إِّا هَا كَانُوا يَعْتَنُونَ shall they be rewarded otherwise than with what they have been accustomed to do. Upon the use of this particle there are certain restrictions.
568. The particle (originally meaning is it not the case that?) affirms a certainty, thus truly to Him belongs the (whole) creation. It is frequently followed by a
 verily their luck (or fate) is in the hands of God only.
570. The interrogative pronouns ${ }^{\circ}$ ó who? and Li what ? (see $\S 351)$ may stand in any one of the three cases, nominative, dependent, or accusative. To render the interrogative more vigorous we append the demonstrative pronoun $1 \bar{\xi}$ (see § 340) thus فَهِا ذَا تَأْمُرْون so what do ye enjoin? and this may happen when الذي follows, thus مَنْ ذَا اُلَّنِي يُشْفَعُ عِنْدَهُ who is he that shall intercede with Him? The pronouns مَن أَنْ and are always used substantively, but cannot goveru a dependent or be followed by a substantive in apposition.

Rem. $d$. As to ó for
572. There are two kinds of relative sentences; (a) that called a qualificative which is immediately attached to an indefinite substantive without intervening pronoun, and (b) that called صِلَaction is made by a pronoun which is definite in its nature The conjunctive pronoun (see § 346) is called inat that which is joined, i.e. joined to أَصّلَلُance the conjunctive clause. As examples (a) the
 a nation who direct (others) by means of the truth and who by it
 upon a pergple who clung to their idols: ( $b$ ) the following clauses
 ask them concerning the village which is situcted by the sea,
those who take heed to themselves and give the appointed alms, ásés Moses and he who
 entreat thy Lord on our behalf by virtue of that which he has covenanted with thee.

Rem. $a$. When the antecedent substantive is indefinite we cannot in Arabic employ a conjunctive pronoun; for is í if in (see §347) always definite, while ${ }^{\circ}$ ) and though sometimes indefinite (see $\S \S 353^{*}$ and $527 f^{\circ}$ ) are always used substantively.

Rem. $b$. follows the next section.
Rem. c. Among qualificative clauses may be accounted those mentioned in § 539, rem. $b 1$.
573. The qualificative clause (أَرِّفَةُ) necessarily contains a pronoun (called $\dot{\text { élílíli), referring to the qualified noun and }}$ connecting it with the said qualificative clause. This 'â'id, in case the clause be verbal, is a pronoun concealed (see § 513) in the verb; as a posterity followed who (they) inherited the Book: in case the clause be nominal, a separate pronoun is employed; as companion. Frequently the 'â'id appears as a suffix in the accusative, thus contrived; or in the dependent, as قَوْ a people of
 which they were about to attwin. If however no 'â'id is needed

(make mention of) the day on which He shall assemble you, whence ف ${ }^{2}$ is eliminated.

Rem. In theory a 'â'id ought to be of the 3rd person, but in practice it often agrees with the subject to which the qualified substantive is predicate ; thus إِنَّعُمْ قَوْر تَحْهْنْونَ verily ye are a people who (ye) are ignorant. Compare §575, rem. $a$.
574. The conjunctive clause (أَصِّلَةُ) must begin with a conjunctive pronoun. Now it has been shown in § 346 et seq. that, like ó and when definite, أَّنّ is used substantively to mean he who, that which; thus الَّنِّي خَبْتُ that which was
 apostle, the illiterate prophet. Only آَّنّانِي can be used adjectively, and then like all adjectives it agrees with its antecedent, a definite substantive, in gender, number and case, its agreement in case being best shown by the dual which has case-endings: thus أَرِنَا أشُّيُطَانَيْنِ ألَّذَيْنِ أَضاَّانَا astray, where النَّذَيْنِ is oblique (for the accusative) agreeing
 us the two devils who lead us astray. In both these examples the real subject in the relative clause is the pronoun called 'â'id, as will next be explained.

Note. Whether used substantively or adjectively ألَّذينَ can only apply to masculine rational creatures, compare $\S 302$, rem. $a$.
575. The preceding section shows that Arabic conjunctive pronouns are not used quite like our English relative pronouns; for the case in which they are put is independent of the con-
junctive clause. If standing first as substantives and forming the subject of an independent sentence, they are in the nominative; as is أَلَّذي when attached adjectively to a substantive in the nominative. But in every other instance, though at the beginning of a conjunctive clause, they are subject to government by an antecedent, whether noun, verb or particle : consequently they are in the particular case which their position requires, viz. either, that case occupied by the demonstrative pronoun implied in them, thus بِّهُ of reason of THAT which he hus done ; or, the same case as the antecedent substantive with which they agree, thus فَآمنُوا بِّانّنورٍ آَنَّفِي أَنْزْنْنَا which We have sent down. To elucidate this difficult matter we have employed in the first instance two examples which do not display ألضَّهِيرُ 'ْلْعَائُد the pronoun which refers back, and we now propose showing to what use it serves in (a) the nominative case, (b) the accusative, and (c) the dependent.
(a) If a 'â'id stand in the nominative as subject, it is represented (i) in a verbal sentence by the personal pronoun concealed in the verb, thus بَبْتَ he hent him who

 We delivered those who were forbidding the evil and We visited with grievous punishment those who were unjust. But (ii) in a nominal sentence the "â'id is expressed by a separate pronoun, as os that which is sweet smelling or whatever is sweet smelling. The separate pronoun however (iii) is not required in a nominal sentence
when the predicate is an adverb, as $[$ نُ 1 struck the one who is here; or a preposition with its dependent, as
 في في فُنْ the ark.
(b) If the 'â'id be an objective complement in the accusative, it is appended as suffix to its verb, thus he whom
 prophet. The suffix however is very frequently eliminated, thus

 تَعْمْلُونَ بَصِيرُ God is able to see what ye do.
(c) When in dependent case the 'â'id represents our relative pronouns, standing in cases other than the nominative and accusative. Thus أَلَّذِينَ أَنْعْتْ عَلْهِ those upon whom Thou
 belongs the dominion over heaven and earth, فَلَقَّا نَسُوا مَا ذُكِّرُوا بِّ and when they forgot that of which they had been reminded, ós that in which they are. There are occasions on which a 'â'id may be omitted, as for instance when it and the preceding conjunctive pronoun are governed by the same preposition, as عَتْوْا عَهًا عَتَا turned in disdain where ${ }^{\prime}$ ع $\varepsilon$ is eliminated: but omission is not permissible if the preposition be used in two senses, or if it follow different verbs, thus فَنَهَّا عَتْوا عَهَّا نُهُوا عَنْهُ so when they turned in disduin from that from which they were forbidden.

> GR.

Rem. $a$. In theory a 'â'id after wifi l ought to be of the ard person but it is not so always : compare $\$ 573$, rem.

Note. In relation to a 'â’id $\dot{L}_{\text {Or on }}^{\sim 0}$ exactly resembles $\dot{L}_{0}$, thus位
576. Copulative sentences require; or (see § 366) of which the former is used to connect words and clauses as a simple co-ordinative; thus عَزَّgْ وْنَصْرْوْ they have helped him and assisted him,
 they bewitched men's eyes and terrified them, وأْنْقَبُوا صَاغِرِينٍ contemptible. The particle however sometimes unites single words as is noted in § 540, but more usually it connects two clauses showing either (a) that the latter is immediately subsequent to the former in time, or (b) that the clauses are linked internally as for instance by cause and effect: thus (a)






 God and His apostle, the illiterate prophet, who believes God and His words; also follow him. When in means because it is
 go down into Egypt for (there) shall ye find whut ye ask. We have seen in $\S<415 d, 417 c$ and rem. $c$, that فَ may be used to separate an apodosis from its protasis : after the disjunctive

 believes and does right, he shall have a most excellent reward.
577. If a second subject be added to the concealed pronoun which serves as subject to the verb, we must employ a separate personal pronoun in repetition of the latter, thus قُلْنَا ياَ آَدرْ انَسْكُنْ أَنْتَ وزَوْجُكَ اiْجْنَّةَ We said, O Adam, dwell thou and

578. If after a pronominal suffix expressing the object a substantive be connected by ${ }^{\prime}$, we may employ a separate personal pronoun in repetition of the suffix, thus أَرْجه هُوْ وَأَخَاْ put him off and his brother ; but this is not usual. Also we may write
 أَرْ أَخَاْ وإِيَّاهُ
579. We must repeat a preposition, if with its pronominal suffix a substantive is connected by ${ }^{\prime}$; thus أْغْرْ بِي وَلْ pardon (the sin) to me and my brother.
580. When preceded by ${ }^{\prime}$ connecting two nouns, y represents all the antecedent negative sentence except that word for which the noun•that follows yَ is substituted; thus لَ drowsiness doth not seize Him nor sleep: here represents . ولا تاخنهر
582. The copulative particles are sometimes used in Arabic in place of an English disjunctive or adversative; thus قَالُوا ورو
 We believe what has been sent down to us, and they ignore what (has come) after it, although it is the truth. We have noted in $\S 540$ the use of فَ between two verbs, the second of which modifies the first.
583. Mention has been made in § $444 c$, rem. c 4, of筑 a circumstuntial clause, which will commonly be found prefaced by وَوُ اْنحَالِ, i.e. the copulative particle و, often meaning whereas or seeing that. Here, gserves to connect two clauses the second of which describes the state or condition either of the subject or other part of the first clause, or else of a new subject.
(a) The circumstantial clause may be nominal (see § 513) as shall I seek for you a god other than God, whereas He has favoured you above all creatures : here the second clause refers to الله, and is compound nominal (see § 519) having a finite verb for its predicate.
(h) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and affirmative, its verb being in imperfect indicative preceded by وَقْ . Without商 we must not employ $\dot{9}$, and by omission of both we obtain sentences like the examples in $\S 408 d$ where the second clause is s. whose second clause is
(c) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and negative, its verb being in imperfect indicative preceded by $\ddot{\circ}$, or in the
 I created thee beforehand when thou wast nothing. If y' be used, g is nearly always omitted, and not seldom in other cases.
(d) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and affirmative, its verb being in the perfect usually preceded by وَقْ ; thus it is easy for Me, seeing thut I created thee heretofore.
(e) The circumstantial clause may be verbal and negative, its
 if لَمْ
 cerning what of their property is in my (two) hands, seeing that thou art not heir to them ?*
584. Adversative, restrictive and exceptive sentences call for notice ; the commonest adversative particles being $y$ and or
(a) We employ $y^{\prime}$ (see § $362 d d$ ) in opposition to a preceding
 لَّ Moses, not Aaron, was called the interlocutor of God.
(b) We use in opposition most frequently to a preceding prohibition or

[^16]
 رسّوُر there is in me no error, but I am an apostle.
585. We have mentioned إِّنَّ $\S$ at $\S 36$, rem. $d$, this word being most commonly restrictive (see $\S 362 n$ ). It is usually placed at the begimning of a proposition, and that portion of the proposition which it affects must stand at the end; thus
 of God only; see $\S 517$ for a restricted incohative.
586. Exception ( joined, in which ine thing excepted is similar in kind to the general term (
 severed, in which the thing excepted is different in kind from the general term, as ó the people did not
 term is not expressed, as $\dot{\text { chen }}^{\boldsymbol{J}}$ (any action) on our part except etc.
(a) The commonest of exceptive particles is $\nu_{\underline{\tilde{L}}}$ ! (see $\S 367 f$ ) in employing which the following rules are observed.
(i) After an affirmative proposition containing the general term, a thing excepted must be in the accusative; thus سَبִ ion the angels prostrated themselves except Eblis.
(ii) After a negative proposition containing the general term, a thing excepted is best placed in same case with the general
term; thus is this is nothing but Thy temptation, virtually nominative though grammatically accusative, see § 439).* The same holds with propositions implying a negative, which are

 The general term may be a preposition with its dependent, as
 , being equivalent to and the thing excepted follows the general rule in respect of case. When the general term is not expressed, we must give to the thing excepted that case in which the general term should be; thus شِ شَيْءٌ we have nothing to do but to unload whence eliminated, thing) concerning God except the truth.

Note. Beside nouns, other expressions may follow the exceptive particle such as (i) an adverb, (ii) prepositional phrase, (iii) hâl, or (iv) clause known as maçdariyah. Thus (i) oo الجَنَّةٍ إلَّ there is no tree in the garden except here; (ii) إلَّ إِلَّ نَكِّا except scantily, see § $444 c$, rem. $f$, Note; and (iv) إِّلْ أَنْ آلْ except that etc., see § $448 c$.

[^17]587. We have treated conditional and hypothetical sentences in $\S \$ 404$ to $406, \S 413$ and $\S 417$ : it must now be explained that the apodosis of a conditional sentence commences with فَ (see $\S 366 b$ ) when the conditional particle ( $\dot{\varrho}, \mid \dot{\xi}$, , or other) of the protasis cannot exercise any influence upon the apodosis, or is not required to do so.
(a) This happens when the apodosis is a nominal sentence; thus تِ whatever sign thou bringest us, we do not believe in thee; مَنْ whosoever is made to guard against his own covetousness, those are the prosperous.
(c) If the apodosis be a verbal sentence expressing command, prohibition, or desire ; thus in if thou hast brought a sign, produce it.
(d) If the apodosis be a verbal sentence preceded by $س$,
 if it stand firm in its place, hereafter thou shalt see Me.

Rem. There are cases when the use of $\hat{e}$ is optional.
588. The hypothetical particle implies that what is supposed is, as a matter of fact, not true or at any rate is improbable (see § 404 a), whereas ${ }_{j}^{\prime}$ simply indicates a condition.
590. The affirmative particle $\bar{j}$ (see $\S 361 c$ ) may be prefixed to the apodosis of a hypothetical sentence, thus لَوْ شَآَ رَبّْكَك
 made (all) mankind one people.
591. Arabic poetry during the so-called classical period, from about 500 to 750 A.D., always takes the form of short poems, which rarely exceed the length of a hundred and twenty verses. Such poems are named ḳaṣiduћs (قَصِدَةٌ, plur. قَصَائُنُ) ; whereas a mere fragment, consisting of only a few verses, is


Rem. Rhyme without metre or measure does not constitute poetry.
 hemistichs.
593. Rhyme (قَافِمَةٌ) is of two kinds. When the verse ends with a consonant, the rhyme is called fettered (مُقََّّةُ) ; when it ends with a vowel, loose (مُطْلْقَةَ). According to ancient rule, the two hemistichs of the first verse of a kasidat must rhyme with one another, and the same rhyme must be repeated at the end of every verse throughout the whole poem.
594. The essential part of the rhyme is the letter called al rawi, ألَّوِّىٌ, which remains the same throughout the entire poem.

Rem. The letters 1, g, and cannot be employed as rawi when they are long vowels and in some other cases.
595. The loose rhyme (see § 593) terminates in what is called ألصِلَةُ the annex or appendix to the rawi. The șilat may be either one of the long vowels $1-, 4=, 2 \mathcal{,}$, or the letter • preceded by one of the short vowels $(i, i-i, i$,$) .$

Rem. $a$. The final vowel of a verse is always long, becanse it is regarded as being followed by the homogeneous letter of prolongation (see §6), whether this latter be written or not. The vowel-letter 1 is invariably expressed, but $و$ and are often


598. The last two quiescent ( $\$ 9$, rem. $a$ ) letters of a verse form the limits between which is comprised the rhyme. Hence the Arab grammarians distinguish five varieties of rhyme, according to the number of moving ( $\$ 4$, rem. b) letters which come between the two quiescents.
600. Every verse in Arabic poetry consists of a certain number of feet, and a certain collocation of feet constitutes a

601. The metres are ordinarily reckoned to be sixteen in number.

Note. The following sections include only those metres of which examples occur in Wright's Arabic Reading-Book.
603. Of the iambic metres we shall mention the rajaz, kâmil, and wâfir.
604. It is a peculiarity of rajaz ( الرَّجَ the trembling) that each hemistich usually forms, as it were, an independent verse and rhymes with the preceding one.

Trimeter acatalectic

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - - u- }|0-v-|=-u-
\end{aligned}
$$

Trimeter catalectic

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { =-u-| }
\end{aligned}
$$

606. The kâmil (J.os̊ji the perfect) is either dimeter or trimeter.

Trimeter acatalectic

Trimeter catalectic


Dimeter acatalectic

$$
\underset{\sim}{w}-v-|\underline{u}-v-\| \underline{\simeq}-v-| w_{-v-}
$$

This last variety is sometimes lengthened by the addition of a syllable

$$
\check{\varkappa}-v-|\simeq-v-| | \simeq-v-1 \cong-v-1-
$$ in which case it is said to be مُرْفٌَّ having a train.

607. The basis of the wafir ('أْوَافُرُ the exuberant) is the same as that of the kamil, but with the order of the component parts reversed, $\smile-\simeq$ -

Trimeter

$$
v-\simeq-|v-\simeq-|v--|\cup-\underline{w}-|v-\simeq-| v--
$$

609. Of the amphibrachic metres we shall mention the mutakârib and tawil.
 is $\cup-\cup$ (amphibrachys), for which may be substituted $\cup \ldots$. Tetrameter catalectic

$$
u-\sigma|v-0| u-v|v-0||v-0| v-0|u-x| v-
$$

611. The tawíl (الطَّوِيلَ the long) is one of the finest, as well as the most common, of the Arabic metres.

Acatalectic
 The last foot of the second hemistich may be changed into

Catalectic

613. Of the anapaestic metres we shall mention the basit and munsarih.
615. The basitt (í il the outspread) is a favourite metre with the older poets.

Tetrameter

$$
=-v-|\simeq u-|\simeq-u-|\cup v-||\nabla-\cup-|\simeq v-|\simeq-u-| \simeq-
$$

 as the basit, but the first $\smile \cup-$ is reduced to a single long syllable.

Tetrameter
618. Of the ionic metres we shall mention the ramal, madid, and khafif.
619. The ramal (ألرَّرَّ the running) has for its base $\cup \cup--$ (ionicus a minore).

Trimeter catalectic

$$
\text { our-- |ow-- } \mid \text { ou-||ou-- } \mid \text { oud-- |ow-- }
$$

620. The madid ( (in il in extended) may be either acatalectic, as
or catalectic, as

$$
\text { gu-- | } \sigma u-10 u-1|=u--| 0 u-1 u v-
$$

621. The khafif (il the light or nimble) is one of the more usual metres.

Trimeter acatalectic

$$
\text { ov--|o-v-|ov--| |ow --|v-v-| } \cong==
$$

Trimeter catalectic
623. Something must now be said concerning the forms which the final syllables of words assume at the end of a verse.
624. Final short vowels are either dropped or retained as long (see § 595, rem. $a$ ), the tanwin of the noun disappearing at the same time ; eng. ' فَإنَّ عُقُوقَ أْوْالِدَاتِ كَبِّر for verily disobedience to mothers is (a) great (sin), for thy friend of (the tribe) Murâd, for مُرَاٍ
 Lَأْ il and amulets do not avail against death, for
625. The accusative termination $1=$ generally becomes 1 , though it occasionally disappears altogether.
626. The feminine terminations $\%$-, \%- , and $\bar{\partial}$ 二 become $\therefore$ - , more rarely ${ }^{\circ}$-; likewise ${ }^{\circ}$, masculine or feminine.
627. Nouns ending in $\mathcal{G}$ 三 or 1 = simply drop the tanwin ;
 Those ending in $=$ drop the tanwin and either resume the third radical or not, at pleasure ; e.g. قَاضٍ a judge may become either قَاضِي or oَاضْ
628. The long vowels $\mathbf{1}-$, ي - , and $و$ usually remain unchanged.

Rem. b. The genitive and accusative suffixes of the first personal pronoun,


Rem. c. In rhyme the long vowels $\mathbf{-}$ - and are often expressed merely by kasraћ and dammaћ.
629. When the penultimate letter of a word bears sukûn, the vowel of the final letter may be transferred to it in rhyme, e.g. ألصَّدِرْ

Rem. $a$. This transference (نَقْقُ) is not allowed when it would give rise to a form which has no example in the language.
630. Indeclinable words ending in a vowel when used as

 becomes $\because \because$. The same letter is added to some verbal and pronominal forms (see § 628 , rem. b).

The concluding sections (232-253) of Wright's Grammar illustrate the principal poetic licenses which affect the form of words used in verse. This subject does not fall within the scope of an elementary work; moreover, the slight changes which custom permits are seldom of such a nature as to cause any difficulty to the student.





[^0]:    A Grammar of the Arabic Language translated from the German of Caspari and edited with numerous additions and corrections by W. Wright, LL.D., late Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. Third edition revised by W. Robertson Smith, late Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge, and M. J. de Goeje, Professor of Arabic in the University of Leyden. Cambridge : at the University Press, 1896.

[^1]:    * A Turkish 'imâm will pronounce certain letters as in Turkish; thus kyâmil for لِاكِ kámil one who is perfect.

[^2]:    * Attempts have been made to print the Maltese dialect of Arabic in Roman character at Valetta, and by the Bible Society in London, but in neither case does the work betray a knowledge of philology. Far more scholarly is the following book, which will be found most useful on the Lower Nile;-"The Modern Egyptian Dialect of Arabic. A Grammar, with Exercises, Reading-Lessons and Glossaries, from the German of Dr K. Vollers. With numerous additions by the Author. Translated by F. C. Burkitt, M.A., Trinity College. Cambridge : at the University Press, 1895."

[^3]:    * Islam may mean in English the religion's geographical area, or the religion itself which is better called Islâmism as we say Judaism.

[^4]:    *These pronouns are called concealed see § 513.

[^5]:    * An Arabic-English Lexicon by E. W. Lane. London: Williams \& Norgate, 1863 to 1893.

[^6]:    * Specimens of rhymed prose are to be found at pp. 168 to 181 of "Wright's Reading book" which I hope to reproduce as Elementary Arabic: Third reading book.

[^7]:    * The apodosis of a sentence is the consequent clause, which expresses a result; as distinguished from the precedent clause, called protasis, which is conditional.

[^8]:    * A relative or conjunctive clause is one coupled to its ruling clause by a relative pronoun or counective particle.

[^9]:    * Nomina vicis et speciei are treated in Wright's Grammar, vol. x. §§ 219, 220.

[^10]:    * This rendering is in accordance with Baidâwí.
    + Further explanation of dates will be found in Wright's Grammar, vol. 11. $\$ 8110$ and 111.

[^11]:    * By a word's rection, we mean its influence in regard to construction, requiring that another word be in a particular case: the corresponding term is ${ }^{\text {ghe }}$ action oj yovermment.

[^12]:    * We use nomen substantivum here as in $\S 190$, to include primitive nouns, infinitives, and simple substantives.

[^13]:    * We use nomen substantivum here as in § 190, to include primitive nouns, infinitives, and simple substantives.

[^14]:    * This sort of annexation is treated in Wright's Grammar, vol. II. \& 30.

[^15]:    - Tables of these pronouns, prefixed and suffixed, are given in Wright's Grammar, vol, y. § 89.

[^16]:    * This example is taken from line 5 on page 18 of Chrestonuthie élementaire de l'Arabe littéral avec un glussaire par Hartwig Derenbourg et Jean Spiro, Paris (Ernest Leroux) 1892 ; copies of which (second) edition I have placed in the Bodleian, Cambridge University Library, and the British Museum. See also the openiug words of Corin ii. 270.

[^17]:    * In these two examples the words following the particle of exception
     § 139, rem. $62 b$.

