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PATREON

THE

MERCHANT TAYLORS'
HEBREW GRAMMAR.

THE

## MERCHANT TAYLORS'

## HEBREW GRAMMAR.

THE<br>FORMAL PRINCIPLES of BIBLICAL HEBREW,

AS UNDERSTOOD BY MODERN SEMITISTS,

STATED
IN A MANNER SUITED TO BEGINNERS.

BY THE
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Second Classical Maxter in Merchant Taylors' School.


Multa terricolis lingux, colestibus una.

> LONDON:

SAMUEL BAGSTER AND SONS,
15 Paternos'ter row.

## DEDICATION. <br> 

TO THE
Rev. W. B AKER, D.D.,
headmaster of meichant taylors';

AND THE
Rev. A. H. SAYCE, M.A.,
DEPUTY PROFESGOR OF PHILOLOGY IN THE DNIVERSITY OF OXFORD.

## PREFACE.

This book has been written at the suggestion of the present Headmaster of Merchant Taylors', a school where Hebrew has been taught from the outset, and which reckons among its old alumni more than one living Hebraist of distinction.

The writer has striven to present the subject in a form more accordant with the discoveries of recent philology than is usually seen in elementary treatises. At the same time, remembering the class of students for whose benefit the work is in the first place intended, he has aimed at stating principles in a simple and straightforward manner. A free, and it is hoped, a discriminating use has been made of the best existing authorities. Besides the great works of Gesenius and Ewald, the writer has to acknowledge a special debt to Mr. Driver's Use of the Tenses in Hebrex, a book essential to the advanced student; and to Professor A. B. Davidson's treatise on the accents, which throws
a wonderfully attractive light upon a subject at first sight so repulsive. The theory of the sounds in part I. rests mainly upon the researches of Bell (Principles of Speech, etc.). The chapters on sounds in Mr. Peile's work on Latin and Greek Philology have also been consulted. On this subject the writer feels especial diffidence; of its importance, as the true basis of linguistic inquiry, he has no doubt. Of other works, perhaps Mr. Lane Poole's edition of Dr. Land's Grammar, Parts I., II., and Dr. Kalisch's well-known book have proved most helpful.

The references to Arabic and Assyrian parallels are mostly due to Professors Wright and Sayce, though some things have come from other sources.

As regards the examples a good many are stock illustrations, to be found in Gesenius or Kalisch; of these, however, not a few were noted down in the course of private study.

It remains to add that this book has had the rare advantage of revision by PROFESSOR SAYCE, a scholar whose Semitic attainments have already secured a European reputation.

Merchant Taylors' School.
Michaelmas, 1877.

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## PART I.

## PHONOLOGY.

## OF SOUNDS AND THEIR WRITTEN <br> SYMBOLS.

## ADDITIONAL NOTES.

The sign J in Hebrew names has the same sound as in Latin or German, viz., Y.

Page 56.-In Assyrian -ütu is the regular plur. ending of adjectives. Abu father makes abi and abūt in the plur. So that Heb. וn seems to represent two originally distinct terminations.

## THE ALPHABET.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Lettens } \\ & \text { initial and } \\ & \text { MEDIAL } \end{aligned}$ | final | names | valtes as sodnds | values as nombers |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| * |  | 'Alef | (') light breathing | 1 |
| 1 |  | Beth | $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{bh}$ | 2 |
| $\lambda$ |  | Gimel | g (in go), gh | 3 |
| 7 |  | Daleth | $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{dh}$ (th in that) | 4 |
| 7 |  | He | h , aspirate | 5 |
| 1 |  | Waw | w | 6 |
| $i$ |  | Zayin | 7 | 7 |
| $T$ |  | Heth | h, aspirate | 8 |
| 4 |  | Tet | $t$, harder than $\Omega$ | 9 |
| 4 |  | Yodh | y | 10 |
| 3 | 7 | Kaf | $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{kh}$ | 20 |
| 7 |  | Lamedh | 1 | 30 |
| 12 | $\square$ | Mem | m | 40 |
| $y$ | 9 | Nun | n | 50 |
| - |  | Samekh | s | 60 |
| $y$ |  | 'Ayin | (c) aspirate | 70 |
| 5 | 5 | Pe | $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{ph}$ (f) | 80 |
| 3 | 0 | Çadhé | $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{c}$ in $i c e)$ | 90 |
| $p$ |  | Qof | q | 100 |
| 7 |  | Resh | r | 200 |
| 0 |  | Shin | sh | 300 |
| $\Pi$ |  | Taw | t , th (in thin) | 400 |

## REMARKS.

1. The foregoing characters are a modification of the Palmyrene alphabet (first century b.c.), which may be traced back to the "Sidonian" of the sarcophagus of Eshmunazer (sixth century b.c.).

The old Hebrew writing had a different source. With the Samaritan it may be referred to the archaic alphabet of the Moabite stone ( 850 в.c.).
2. The original Semitic alphabet seems to have been borrowed by the Phenicians from Egypt. To the symbols thus borrowed they gave the Semitic names 'alef, beth, gimel, etc. (i.e., ox, house, camel, etc.), names which in writing begin with the symbols so designated. But the Egyptian Hieratic letter called 'alef by the Phenicians was a rough picture of an eagle, the letter answering to beth represented a crane, and so on. The old Semitic 'alef $\nless$ is not unlike a rude outline of the head of an ox; and no doubt the Phenicians named the borrowed symbols according to a fancied resemblance to the objects from which they took the names.
3. From the Phenicians the alphabet passed to the Greeks, and from them to other western peoples. The Greeks used the strictly consonantal signs, 'alef, he, leeth, cayin, to represent their vowel-sounds $\alpha, \epsilon, \eta$, o. Some ancient Greek inscriptions proceed from right to left, as Hebrew is always written.
4. The order of the letters may be seen in the Acrostich Psalms cxix., cxlv., ctc., and Lament. i.-iv.
5. The letters, as numeric signs, are not found in the text of the Old Testament. Such use of them may have originated with the Greeks.

The hundreds from 500 to 900 are denoted either by the five finals $\overline{\text { J }}$, or by $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, , etc. Dotted units stand for thousands: |  |
| :---: |
| $=$ |
| $=1000, ~ ב 2000, ~ e t c . ~$ |

## THE LETTERS CLASSIFIED.

1. We can send out breath from the larynx without bar or hindrance; and we can partially check it by narrowing the outlet. This is effected by drawing together the two vocal chords, at the sides of the opening. When that is done, the chords vibrate as the breath passes through; and thus the breath becomes voice.
2. Breath and voice, variously moulded by the organs of speech, viz., the soft-palate, the tongue, the teeth, the lips, supply the body of all sounds. Sounds are called hard or soft, according as they are formed of breath or voice: e.g., $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{p}$, are hard, $\mathrm{g}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{b}$ (and all vowels), are soft.
3. If the breath or voice be quite stopped by tongue or lips, a momentary (explosive) consonant is heard at the instant of reöpening the passage, but no longer: such are $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$, etc. If the stoppage be imperfect, the result is a continuous or fricative consonant. Such sounds are called continuous because they can be prolonged, and fricative because there is friction between the breath and the organs in uttering them; $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$, are instances.

This much premised, the Hebrew letters (all of which are consonants) may be classified as follows:

## (a) Gutturals or Faucal

$N$ 'alee, the spiritus lenis. A momentary sound produce by partially closing the throat, and then opening it to utter a vowel. The breathing is heard before the vowel. It is sometimes a harder, sometimes a softer sound; cf.
$i$ he, the spiritus asper. A continuous sound, produce very near the outlet of the throat, with less tension of the vocal chords.
$\pi$ heth, h, a harder sound than $n$, formed by closer contraction of the chords. "A very sharp but smooth guttural aspirate."
$\geq$ 'ayin, related to $N$, as $\Pi$ to $\pi$, the throat being closed and opened with greater force and effort.

Note. -In Arabic $\Gamma$ heth and $y$ 'ayin are each represented by two signs denoting stronger and weaker sounds. These are for $\Pi \tau=h$, a strong but smooth aspirate, $\dot{\subset}=$ ch (hard); for $\searrow \varepsilon=$ a strong guttural related to $\tau$; $\dot{\dot{c}}=\mathrm{a}$ guttural g with rattling sound, like a strongly uttered r. This fact (with the further fact that the Septuagint Græcizes these letters each


 use existed in Hebrew.

7 resh, as a trilled sound, shares some of the peculiarities of this class. It seems to be formed by making the tongue vibrate with a strong breath against the fore-palate, and is therefore palatal as well as guttural.

## (b) Palatals.

1. Back-palatals. J kaf, k, a gimel, g, p qof, q. In uttering these sounds the breath or voice is checked by pressing the root of the tongue against the soft palate. Kaf, qof, are hard, gimel is soft. Qof is formed by pressure further back than kaf, and is a stronger sound.

If the pressure be lax, kaf, gimel, become continuous sounds, like ch, g , in the German bach, tage. But at an earlier stage they were probably pronounced $k+h$, $\mathrm{g}+\mathrm{h}$, rock-hewn, stag-horn.
2. Mid-palatals. ' yodh, y, a continuous sound, made by pressing the middle of the tongue against the hard palate.
(c) Mixed-Palatals.
i zayin, z, D samekh, s (in rouse, loose, respectively). These are continuous sounds heard when the stream of air is checked by lifting the tongue so as to cover the whole of the middle and fore-palate.

Y çadhé, ç, is an emphatically uttered s; a sharp sound like c in ice.

A slight change of position will cause $\boldsymbol{U}$ shin, sh, to be heard. ש in some words came to be sounded almost like $D$ : the two sounds of the sign were marked by a dot, thus: $\boldsymbol{v}=\operatorname{sh}, \dot{\boldsymbol{v}}(\sin )=s$.

## (d) Fore-Palatals.

$\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ taw, t , 7 daleth, d (momentary), J nun, n (continuous). In making these sounds, the tip of the tongue strikes against the front of the palate, just above the gums.
$\Delta$ tett, is a $t$ sound, made further back, and uttered with greater force than $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$. Cf. the Sanskrit "cerebral" t.
$\zeta$ lamedh, 1 , a soft continuous sound, is uttered like $\Pi$, 7 , except that breath escapes on each side of the tongue.

ר resh, r, untrilled, a soft continuous sound, formed by bringing the tip of the tongue close to the palate without touching, so that the breath passes over it.
$\Pi$, 7 , receive aspiration after a vowel, and become continuous, answering nearly to our th in think and there respectively. But they must once have sounded $t+h$, $\mathrm{d}+\mathrm{h}$, as in ant-hill, Redhill.
(e) Labials.

D pe, p, ב beth, b (momentary), $D$ mem, m (continuous), formed by shutting the lips. With aspiration after a vowel the two first become $f$, $v$, not exactly our $f, v$, but two similar sounds made by bringing the outer edges of the lips together. Earlier they were $p+h$, $\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{h}$, as in shepherd, abhor.

I waw, w, sounded through a slight central opening, when the inner edges of the lips have been united.

Note 1.-The position of the organs for waw is nearly the same as for the vowel sound $u$ (oo). A similar connexion holds between yodh and i (ee). Hence the related sounds are constantly exchanged for one another.
2. In Hebrew, as in other languages, we often find a letter substituted for another of the same organ. The change is generally in the direction of a softer or more harmonious utterance: e.g., we find and סנר a, (ע) התצדק for $\Omega$, because of the , עצטדק , עלם ,עלץ preceding $\boldsymbol{\$}$ ).
$\Delta$ and $\Psi$, are sometimes interchanged; נטר, נצר. The guttural $\Pi$ sometimes replaces the back-palatals $\boldsymbol{\nu}$, p ; cf. חתחת,

The weak 1 is extensively displaced by ${ }^{\prime}$; and $\boldsymbol{\kappa}$, $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ often interchange at the end of words, where $\boldsymbol{N}$ for $\boldsymbol{N}$ is a mark of Aramaic influence.

## OF VOCALIC SOUNDS.

1. A vowel is the sound heard when the voice finds free and open passage through the mouth. The passage is most open in uttering $a(a h)$, the chief and most truly vocalic of such sounds. In making $a$, the back of the tongue is drawn down, the lips are wide apart. The organs are in a posture more forced than for any other vowel; and the slightest change in that posture causes a change in the resulting sound. Hence it is that $a$, especially long $a$, has so often been displaced by other vowels.
2. By starting from the $a$ sound, and raising the tongue higher and higher, medial sounds are produced until $i$ (ee as in $\bar{l}$, $\bar{e} l$ l) is reached, in uttering which the sides of the tongue touch the palate, a narrow but unbroken passage being left along the centre. The medial sounds are numerous: among them are the $a$ in $m a ̆ n$, the three varieties of $e$ heard in mën, mère (märe), and même ( $m a \bar{i} m$ ), and the $i$ of mill.
3. In making these sounds the lips gradually approach, but without change of outline. If we start again from $a$, and round the lips, at the same time rounding (or narrowing) the glottis (outlet of the larynx), another set of medial sounds may be formed, of which the most important are the $o$ sounds heard in $\bar{o} d d$, alved, ore, owed, and the $u$ (or 00 ) in pull (wood). The final sound of this series will be $u(00)$ as in pool, school.
4. The $\dot{e}$ in mere, the $i$ in mill, the $o$ (i) in awed,
broad, and the $u$ in pull, are called open: the $e$ in même, the $i$ in eel, the $o$ in owed, the $u$ in pool, are called close vowels. For the open vowels the sounding chamber at the back of the mouth is enlarged by lifting the soft palate higher than when the close vowels are uttered.
5. The sounds thus far considered are those of syllables more or less accented. In unaccented or slurred syllables an indistinct vocalic sound occurs, which is called the neutral vowel: e.g., in the second syllables of fatal, other, odorous.
6. The three sounds, $a, i, u$, are the fundamental vowels in all languages. Now if we pass from $a$ to $i$, or from $a$ to $u$, without stopping between, we shall utter the double sounds or diphthongs, ai, au, heard in the German Kaiser, maus, and in English my, how, nearly.
7. The vowel sounds described mostly differ from each other in quality rather than in quantity. The $i$ of mill, though short, is not the short sound of the $i$ of eel, ravine. The two sounds differ in kind. In fact, a fixed quantity is not essential to any vowel sound; though in English some are always prolonged, others rapidly spoken.
8. As regards strength, the sounds become progressively weaker from $a$ to $i$, and from $a$ to $u$ : that is to say, the farther a vowel stands from the $a$ sound, the less is the exertion required to make it.

## SYLLABLES.

1. An open syllable ends in a vowel: as ba, ga, da; a slut syllable ends in a consonant: as bad, sad.
2. A syllable usually begins with a consonant, or at least the light breathing : re-late, a-bed, in-com-pa-ra-ble.
3. In some languages more than one consonant may lead off a syllable: e.g., strain, schreiben. This is not so in the Semitic tongues.
4. A syllable shut by a doubled or extended consonant is said to be sharpened: qitteel, shibbér. In English such consonants are carelessly sounded as if single: e.g., merry, matter. In Hebrew they must be fully pronounced, as in Italian: qittél $=k i t$-tail.

## THE HEBREW VOWELS.

1. The original vowels a , i , u , long and short, and the diphthongs ai, au, appear to have been the only vocalic sounds of archaic Hebrew. The Hebrew of the Bible has, broadly speaking, reached about the same stage of phonetic decay as the modern spoken Arabic. Both have largely replaced the ancient vowels by the medial e, o, sounds.
2. The diphthongs ai, au, have almost everywhere given way to close é (lay), sometimes open è (ere), and close $\sigma$ (low). The reason is that e, o, being single sounds, require but one movement of the organs of speech, and so are uttered with less effort than ai, au, which as double sounds demand at least two movements.

In modern Arabic also ai, au, are displaced, except after the harder gutturals and emphatic consouants. The same ground of greater ease in speaking gave rise to the common change of $\bar{a}$ to $\delta$.
3. The twenty-two signs of the old Semitic alphabet are strictly consonantal. No symbols of vowel-sounds were employed in the ancient writing. But the weak labial (1) and the weak palatal (') came into use in special cases to mark the extended sounds of $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$, and
also the diphthongal ai, au. Dacis qaçir, Damúk; ת
4. Hence (1), ('), at a later stage, served to indicate c, 0 : בית béth, גלור shór; גלינה glèna. In סביב sobéb,
 written according to the later fashion (see below), and are usually omitted: and such is the case with the much less frequent 'alef $=a$ a, as in קאם , dag qam = represents an original radical ('), lost in a softer pronunciation.
5. At the end of words $i$ was used as the sign of ${ }^{\circ}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{e}$ (é or é); שירה shira, גלה gala, galo, gelé or golè: and, in fact, the want of such symbols was most felt in that position; (1), ('), should never be omitted there: the form קטלתלת = patalti, is very rare. Final in ( $=\mathrm{a}$ ), is commonly not written in qatalta. But in most forms it is essential; אתח 'atta.
6. In the oldest writing probably diphthongs only were indicated; and then vowels naturally long. In the later books of the Old Testament the use of 1 ' especially, as vowel-signs, becomes more and more frequent; because when they were written, Hebrew had begun to lose ground as the common speech, and to be replaced by the Aramaic.
7. Many words are written with and without these signs (scriptio plena, and scriptio defectiva): e.g., אדיר pl. אדרים 'addirim, הקמתי = הקמותי = הקימֹתי h"qimóthi. They are more used in the accented and pretonic syllable than farther back. But old forms like ap qúm, רבת ribóth, for
8. At last it was found needful to devise a complete
system of vocalic and other signs, in order to preserve the traditional pronunciation of the Scriptures. The system now in use is that which was gradually worked out by the Rabbis of Tiberias (the Masoretes, from מסורה massora tradition), probably between the fifth and tenth centuries a.d.; some of the signs, indeed, may be older, as the system rests on the simpler method of the Estrangelo-Syriac, which may date from the first century. But whatever the age of the signs, there is little doubt that they faithfully embody the traditional sounds of Hebrew as cantillated in the synagogues.
THE MASORETIC VOWEL SIGNS.

1. Full Vowels.

A то I.

| Pathaḥ | $(-)$ | a | man. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Soghól | $(\cdot)$ | e | men, mère. |
| C̦eré | $(-)$ | é | main. |
| Ḥireq | $(\cdot)$ | i | mill, meal. |

A то U .
Qåmeç (ヶ) å all.
o odd: qameç so used is called håạứf $=$ short.
Ḥólem (-) (Y) ó ode.
Qibbuç (`) u pull, pool.
Shúreq (i) a dot written in waw, marking the same sounds as qibbuc indicates.

All but two of these signs are written beneath their consonants. Wherever in the unpointed text a waw or
yod already marked the quality of the vowel to be sounded, the Masoretes did not eject those ancient signs, but added their own above or under them: and so in very many cases the vowels are doubly indicated in our Hebrew Bibles.

When waw meant $u$, they wrote a point in it thus (i); and called this compound sign shureq: when waw meant $o$, they wrote the point above it (i). Holem without waw is always written above its consonant; $\dot{\square}=$ sobbl. When yod marked the sound of i , they wrote a point under the preceding consonant, e.g., biń if çeré or s'gholl were intended, (*) or (*) were so written, as ֻ "én,
2. Half Vowels. Shewa and the Hatpefs.

| Shewa | (1) | alter. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Hִatef pathah | (-) | ă ămerce. |
| Hatef s ${ }^{\text {e }}$ ghol | (\%) | rêlate. |
| Hִatef qameç | (r) | sŏnorous. |

These signs stand for the indistinct sounds to which vowels may be reduced by loss of accent.
$\mathrm{Sh}^{\circ}$ wa, when heard at all, is a mere vestige of vocalic sound. It may occupy the place of a, e, or o.

In connection with gutturals, and in a few special cases, the shortening of a vowel was arrested before its relation to a e or o was quite effaced: such a hurried though not wholly indistinct sound was called a hatẹef.

Note 1.-Sh ${ }^{\circ}$ wa may be represented in modern writing by a small ${ }^{\circ}$, thus ${ }^{\text {Pִּרִי berith. But it is equally }}$
related to $a$ and $o$. It is like the half-vowel which is heard when we pronounce true, trilling the $r$. (In Hebrew a syllable cannot begin with two consonants, cf. p. 8, § 3 ; sherwa at least must intervene, as in מja, Dִ่า, contrast the Greek $\mu \nu \alpha \alpha^{\prime} \rho \mu \alpha, \sigma \pi \epsilon i \rho \omega$, etc.)

The Septuagint (Greek translation of Old Testament B.C. 250 to A.D. (?), often makes $\mathrm{sh}^{\mathrm{e}}$ wa $\alpha$, when followed by ov, as רְעניאֵל, 'Payov' $\lambda$; often makes its value hinge on that of the next vowel, as רדְ, $\Delta a \delta \alpha, \nu ;$
 $\mathrm{N} \epsilon \tau \omega \phi \alpha \tau$.

Note 2.-The sign ( - ) is written even when, owing to inflexion or composition, it is no longer to be sounded,
 ,ִּכְּתֹב under every strong consonant without a vowel of its own, except at the end of a word: as קָ podh-qodh; מִּשְׁטּט

 ספָּי heard in the words, cf. corps, day. Kaf final is always 7 (to distinguish it from daleth).

Note 3.-When is shewa sounded (rocal, mobile), and when is it suppressed (silent sh $^{\ominus}$ wa)?

Shewa is heard at the beginning of a syllable.
There are various cases of this:
(1) When the syllable begins a word, as $\begin{aligned} & \text { ? } \\ & \text { ekha, }\end{aligned}$ בְּרֹ beróbh.
(2) When it occurs in the middle of a word after (a)



Here the shut syllable is marked off by silent sh ${ }^{9}$ wa, cf. . הָקְלְלָה hoq-t.tla. Shwa after another shiwa is always
 similar.
(3) In words like מִלְבֵי ,בִּנְפּל (= malakai), after halfopen syllables. The sound of sho ${ }^{\circ}$ wa here must have been very slight indeed. Perhaps it was not really heard at all; the aspiration of the $\beth$, כ being retained from the primary forms.

At the end of a word shewa is always suppressed:


Note 4.-Often the points represent a reading which differs from that of the unpointed text. It was a principle with the Masoretes not to alter letters, even when they indicated an apparently false reading. They merely wrote the points of what they thought the true reading under the existing letters. Thus 1
 text. TM', the proper name of the God of Israel, they



 , point to a change in pronunciation between the ages of text and punctuators.

The Masoretic readings are the $q^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\prime}$ (read); those implied by the unpointed text are the $\mathbf{k}^{\circ}$ thibh (written).

## CLASSIFICATION OF THE VOWELS.

Abulwalid, a Spanish Jew of the eleventh century, makes pathah, l!ireq, shureq, the fundamental vowels;
from pathah he derives seghol or "small pathah," from hiireq, çeré, from shureq, hoblem, and qameç.

In the twelfth century the three Kimhis, residing at Narbonne in Southern France, classified the vowels as five long and five short: viz., qameç, çere, hireq, ḥolem, shureq, as long; pathah, seghol, little hireq, qameç hatứf, qibbuç, as the corresponding short sounds. Against this arrangement there are objections: e.g., the fact that qameç and qameç hatuf have the same sign, shows that they were kindred sounds; probably $a, \stackrel{c}{c}$, as heard in all, odd. Pathah is not qameç sounded short. Besides, a fixed duration cannot be ascribed to each of the sounds thus denoted: they are longer and shorter according to their relation to the accent, and their position in syllables.
2. It is better to classify the vowels according to their origin.

Pathaly (opening, i.e., of the mouth). This sign (-) generally stands for an original short $a$ in a shut syllable (see below). But it often marks a merely euphonic vowel, as in
 last vowel in each of these words is unaccented, and was doubtless very short. But the first $a$ in in accented and therefore a longer sound.

Seghol, a cluster, from shape of sign (\%), may represent:
(1) The $e$ heard in men, i.e., a close short sound, which often fills the place of original short $a$ : cf. English many (sounded meny): especially in a short syllable, e.g., יְרֶךְ from yadkem, מִרְּנְבָּ from markabat. This sound may also have displaced an old short i; e.g., $\cdots$ from $b i n^{y}$ (now ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}$ ).

Lastly, perhaps rare thinning of $u$ to $\check{c}$. (Arabic 'antum.)
(2) Seghol also signifies the long and more open $\grave{c}$ of ere, mare, e.g., מֶּ mèlek. This vowel is also a corruption of $\mathfrak{a}$, sometimes of $a y$, when it is marked by ' in the

 and secondary sound (cf. the similar pathah).

C̦eré (bursting forth of sound), the close long sound ay in pay, (.) may be:
(1) A corruption of the old diphthong ai. In the unpointed text it is mostly represented by ${ }^{\prime}$; בֵּ from bait. This vowel never changes.
(2) A substitute for original short $i$ in an open syllable, especially just before the accented one, and in accented
 hiquîm, שֶַּׁט from shibt. This çeré may become shwa


Hireq (? gnashing sound) ( - ) is:
(1) A short sound, $=$ the $i$ in ill. It is the sharpest and thinnest of the vowels, and is very common in place of original short $a$ in an unaccented short syllable:
 lanii. Sometimes, especially in a sharpened syllable, it is original; e.g.,
(2) A long close sound, $=e e$ in heed, heel. Most usually this sound was marked by ( ${ }^{( }$) in the old writing: e.g., (רִבות (but also contracted from riyb; ; אִּ 'addîr, plur. אֵדִּיִִים. This sound does not change, being due either to contraction ( $\mathrm{i}+\mathrm{y}=\mathrm{i}+\mathrm{i}$ ), or extension of pure short i. Sometimes methegh marks


Qameç (compression of lips) (.) very often represents,
(1) an ancient short $a$, corrupted to $\grave{o}(a w)$ in an open syllable, especially one next before the accented syllable, or in the accented syllable itself: e.g., כָּ kămaukăa; קָָטָ from quatăll, fọ from dăm. Loss of accentual support causes this qameç to vanish: מָּשָׁ, מִשְׁלִּים.
(2) Sometimes, but seldom, qameç stands for original long $a$, as in written (קאק). This ( () , unlike the former, never changes.

Qameç haṭuf (rapid compression) a short vowel ( $\cdot$ ), like $o$ in odd, folly. It has mostly displaced a primitive
 yaqtul; ; ָָּנֵּ $=$ hunnini.

Holem (fulness of mouth) ( - ) a long close $\delta$ as in owed, lode. It has taken the place of:
(1) Original au; I ㄴ $=$ yaum. In the unpointed text mostly indicated by waw.
(2) Original long $a$, $\overline{\text { פin }}$ = pâqid. Sometimes marked by waw, sometimes not. These two kinds of holem never change.
(3) Original short $u$ in or near accented and in open syllables: $\mathfrak{j}=$ küll. On losing the support of the accent, this holem changes, like the corresponding qameç and çeré.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\left.\text { Qibbùç (closing mouth) ( }-{ }^{( }\right) \\ \text {Shúreq (whistling sound) ( }{ }^{(1)}\end{array}\right\}=u$, whether as:
(1) A close sound, $=o o$ in pool, wooed. This sound


from a weaker sound. It may or may not be marked by waw: e.y., זיבלוֹן, זְבוּלִ. It remains unaltered by loss of accent.
(2) A shorter more open sound, $=\grave{u}$ in pull, wood. (Rarely marked by lin the old writing; e.g., הר הַָּּ hŭkká; point to older pronunciations, hú-ka, yú-lad.) Common in sharpened and in shut unaccented syllables : e.g., It represents old short $u$.

## THE MODERN ACCENT AS AFFECTING VOWELS.-Stllables.

The Masoretic system of yocalic and accentual points embodies the pronunciation of an earlier period. But from a comparison of the kindred languages, it is clear that this pronunciation is not that of the ancient Hebrew; on the contrary, it presents phenomena such as characterise the phonetic decay of speech in general.

1. The original $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$, as we saw, have largely given way to the transitional vowels.
2. Further, the ancient accent has disappeared, and the modern pronunciation throws the chief stress upon the last syllable of most words. The result is that original $\breve{a}, \check{1}, \breve{u}$, in the open antepenult of an oxytone word, become indistinct sounds, i.e., shewa or hatefs.
 (dăbărim). So lbabóth from lébab (for lĭbăb), bº ${ }^{\text {ºrím }}$ from bóqer (for bŭqr). But in the accented syllable,
 $\mathrm{i}_{1}$ the latter case pretonic qameç, çeré, etc.): zăq̌̆n

N.B.-This is true of the noun. In the verb the syllable next before the accent is indefinite, and the antepenult has the new vowel: măshälăt has become

3. These changes indicate a striving after equal syllables; a tendency which was doubtless encouraged by the practice of cantillating the sacred books in the synagogues. A well-balanced rhythmical pronunciation would lend itself most easily to musical purposes. The open syllable was equalized with the shut syllable by means of the extended vowels ( $\cdot$ ) (•)( $(\dot{)}$, which were substituted for the old $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{i}$, ŭ.
4. A syllable must begin with one cousonant, or with two parted by an indefinite vowel: ${ }^{\prime}=\mathfrak{j}$ a-wón; לתֶּ = case of initial ú, for ?, the light breathing is sounded though not written: $=$ וּבּית $=$ 'ú-béth. ( two (f.) is the one exception to the second part of the rule.) If audible shewa, or a hatef, follow the closing consonant of a shut syllable, the syllable is called half-

5. A final syllable shut by two consonants is uncommon. A double consonant cannot be sounded in such a position: רیב , e.g., is from a root רבב. In'anp אֵ, 'insh $火$, the nun is assimilated to the pe and shin, and then the doubled letters become single. Often a slight vowel-sound was admitted between (a "helping" vowel), so that an ancient monosyllable became nearly dissyllabic. This euphonic secondary vowel was a mere resonance of the main or stem-vowel. Thus qasht, became $\boldsymbol{\pi}$
 or yodh was in such cases vocalised or dropped: tuhw.
(waw blending with the "helping" vowel), bin". ¡.
 cmptiness, חִחְ sin, are survivals which illustrate the older mode of vocalising a large class of words (the segholates). The weak $\boldsymbol{N}$ is not sounded.

Words like ing $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{y}}(=$ ay or aw). Besides the weak $N$, only the sounds and בדכפת can occur as finals in such combinations.
6. The accent, that is the main stress of the voice, keeps a vowel sound clear and distinct. When such a sound loses accentual support it tends to become indefinite. (2 supr.) But this latter statement must be understood to refer mainly to the long close sounds $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \overline{\bar{e},} \overline{\bar{\sigma}}$ as representing original $\breve{\mathrm{a}}, \check{\mathrm{I}}, \breve{\mathrm{u}}$; not to $\overline{-}-$ when they stand for original long vowels pure, compensative, or diphthongal. The (r) in מְנָת from unused מָנָה is firm even when unaccented, because it represents an extended $a$ compensating for the loss of a waw
 a firm qameç compensates for omitted resh. The (*) in הֵיכָּ (diphthong ai), and the ( - ) in מוֹשָׁב (maushab) are similarly unchanging.
7. Besides vowels originally long, the following remain uninfluenced by the movement of the accent: the vowels in sharpened syllables, and those which occur in

 liireq is unaltered in the initial syllables.
8. The sounds represented by $\begin{array}{ccccc}(-) & (\%) & (-) & (-) & (\%) \\ \text { a } & \text { e } & \text { i } & 0 & u\end{array}$ occur in shut, and save short (.) in accented open syllables.

The sounds represented by $(-)(-)(-)$ (ancient $\bar{a}$, $\bar{i}, \breve{u}$ ) occur in open, and in shut accented syllables.

The long $\underset{\text { ee }}{(-)}(-)$ u , mostly written ( $-(\%)$ (9), occur in open syllables: and in accented final shut syllables.
$(-)(\because)$ sometimes stand in shut accented final syllables:


Note.-Short $i$ is seen in an open syllable in ${ }_{3}^{2}$, and in a half-open syllable in $=$ ל. ${ }^{\text {b }}$. with a slight "helping-vowel," and is hardly more open than the latter. The hireq tends to become çeré in such a position : e.g. יُרֶב and from
9. When the accent leaves their syllables, if the latter be shut, the sound qameç is replaced by pathah, çere by seghol, holem by qameç hatuf: e.g., small; $\overline{7}$ ? go! א א These sounds are pronounced shorter than the others, being unaccented.
N.B. Qameç (r) in a shut unaccented syllable $=$ hatuf
 shut syllable instead of (*) ( - ) the short sharp sounds


10. On the other hand, if a shut syllable be opened in the course of inflexion, or if a syllable which ought to be shut be left open, pathal is exchanged for qameç, ḷireq for çere, qibbuç for ḷolem; sometimes a short

 then
11. The changes cmbodied in the above rules are generally summarised thus: the vowel of an open syllable is long, that of a shut syllable short. A long vowel cannot stand in a shut, nor a short vowel in an open syllable, unless accented. But it should be remembered (a) that pathal, seghol, etc., are in part at least sounds of different quality from qameç, çeré, etc., (b) that any of the sounds which these signs represent, might be prolonged or shortened in utterance.

## DAGHESH AṄD MAPPIQ.

1. The hard sound of the six mutes בגדכפת is marked by a point (daghesh, hardener) in the body of those letters; thus $\exists=b, a=g$. They are sounded soft (as bh, gh, etc.), and are therefore without the point, when nothing parts them from a foregoing vowel full or indistinct. They may be parted from such vowel (1) by a consonant, as in מַלְּ3 mal-ki (not malkhi)
 or break in the sentence, no matter how slight: אָמֵּ
 pause after not totter." On the other hand, אָבְוֹא בֵיתֶּ "I go to thy house," are closely connected, and therefore we have not no . absence by conjunctive accents (see below). (Daghesh thus used is rather unfitly called lene.)

of a word, even when the foregoing word ends in a vowel, and has a conjunctive accent.
2. 'The point (mappiq, lengthener) is also written in in final, when that letter is not used to indicate the final vowel, but has its proper force: as a gabhàh; but gala. In MSS. א, $\mathfrak{\aleph}$,, , , are so pointed when they do not coalesce with vowels.
3. Daghesh also marks when a consonant is to be sounded twice (daghesh forte): as piq-qédh. This can only be when there is a vowel on each side of the pointed consonant.

Notes (1).—Often the weak letters ' and 9 , and sometimes other consonants, are not doubled when strict rule requires it, if followed by she wa; and therefore daghesh

 !ְרְרוֹ. It was hard to sound the doubled letter, unless a full vowel followed.
(2) Rāfé (二) (soft) marks the intentional absence of daghesh or mappiq.
(3) When two words are uttered in close connection, and the former of them ends in a vowel, the initial consonant of the second is often doubled: e.g., קָּקִדֶּ לַיִּלָה
 is called euphonic or conjunctive. Another kind of euphonic daghesh (daghesh dirimens) is seen in
 to save it from assimilation. Other cases are ${ }^{n}$ ?ק?
 a half-open first syllable is thus firmly closed. רַצְִּּימוֹ to hide him, פְקְקָׁשׁ sanctuary (if not mistakes in writing), indicate an aspiration of $\Xi, 7$.

## THE GU'TTURALS.

These sounds are not doubled in modern Hebrew. (The Arabic and probably the ancient Hebrew found no difficulty in their duplication.) Hence (1) where the laws of inflexion or composition would require repetition of a guttural, either the preceding vowel being left in an open syllable is altered, or at least the repetition is

 Before the stronger $\pi$, $\Pi$, which admit of half doubling, the older vowel is sometimes kept, and even before $\Sigma, \boldsymbol{\aleph}$;
 "implied" in those letters.
2. The guttural vowel $a$ is more easily sounded with them, than any other vowel. Hence the preservation of such forms as
 before a final $\cdots, \pi, y$, after any long vowel save qamȩ, a slight $a$ sound was heard in the speech of the Western Jews, though not in that of the school of Babylon. This $a$ is usually called "furtive pathah," as if it crept in unawares. Instances are sid. This slight sound is lost when words lengthen by inflexion. So pathah not seghol is the euphonic helping vowel, in
3. If $i$ or $u$ would occur before them, according to the common laws of inflexion, instead of those vowels, $e o$ are used, sounds less removed from $a$ in the scale: thus from יָּ
 the case when $i$ would follow the guttural, as not
.n.) In the first cases, original $a$ is softened to $e$. In like manner the $a$ of the article becomes seghol in certain cases.
4. Gutturals cannot be uttered quickly. Hence when shewa would follow them, a more distinct half vowel is heard; in other words, instead of sh ${ }^{\circ}$ wa, they are sounded
 This may be so, even when the sh ${ }^{\circ}$ wa would have been
 and near the tone, takes $-;$ far from the tone, it has hatef pathaḥ.
5. If a particle usually sounded with shewa, e.g., ?, , , 3 , be prefixed to a guttural, and the guttural have a hatef vowel, the vowel of the prefix will be determined
 other hand, the vowel of the prefix be essential, it will
 (where the $a$ sound of prefixes $\underset{\sim}{2}$, ה, ה, has become $\bar{*}$ before guttural, according to 3 above).

## WEAK LETTERS. Assimilation.

## 1. אאהו.

1. When they begin syllables, these letters are strict
 fectively written for

Otherwise their natural weakness is displayed:
(a) By their ready coalescence with vowel sounds (cf. $h, w, y$, in ah! sower, payer).

 (helping) vowel before the yodh.

Waw with sh'wa before a labial, or another consonant with she ${ }^{\circ}$ wa, becomes 1 , lengthened by coalescence with 'alef: qărà (now NTp)
 haps (ֵֻּ) he eats.

But $\boldsymbol{i}$ final without mappiq is itself a vowel symbol.
 assimilates:
N.B. The sounds $w, y$, being formed by almost the same movements as $u, i$, it is easier to prolong the latter sounds than to pronounce waw, yodh distinctly after them. The sounds are assimilated.
(b) By their elision between two vocalic sounds:



 (original form of Qal pf. of pla) becomes qâm, now $\mathrm{Q} p$, glawat (archaic assumed form, "infin. constr." of $\begin{gathered}\text { I } \\ =\end{gathered}$ 1ל) becomes first glât, and then (ô for â) A!̣!
(c) By their disappearance in other cases, e.g., at the beginning or end of syllables and words: e.g., רֶשׁ from
 here is transposed, and then coalesces with qibbuç), :
2. When they follow unrelated vowels $1,{ }^{\prime}$ are sometimes consonantal. $\quad$ " 1 I $=$ goy, ${ }^{\top}=$ hay (rare: the old form was hayy),
following them in such cases are hard (dagheshed, see below). But with preceding $a$ they often contract: e.g., שָוֶה (or rather the older mawt $=$



Note.-Waw sometimes is displaced by yodh after an $i$ sound; thus
N.B. The ending of the pl. of nouns with 3 sing. m . suffix, e.g., , is difficult to explain. It was probably pronounced -aw, yodh being silent, like $\boldsymbol{\aleph}$ in though perhaps this was once otherwise. Waw is a mere "glide" after the qameç.

## 2. נלת.

The weakness of nun is variously shown. Before a consonant it usually assimilates: yingash becomes (Lamedh sometimes: as $\Pi$ ? ${ }^{\prime}=$ yilqah : always in the prefix הֵ.)

So $\cap$ before a kindred sound: : = hithzakkú; and similarly $=$ 'abadt $=$ 'aḥatt ='ahat. Or before $\boldsymbol{\psi}, \boldsymbol{y}, ~$ it is transposed: = hithshammér, הִצְטַּחֵּ = hithçaddéq.
2. Initial nun with shewa (seldom lamedh with shewa) is dropped:

Nun final has disappeared in certain verbal forms:


So also the primary final $\Omega$ of feminine forms:


The final of masc. pl. nouns is dropped before


## ACCENTUATION

1. Accent is a term used to mean pitch of voice or musical tone, and stress of voice or emphasis in utter-
ance. The second is the more important meaning in Hebrew grammar.
2. In Hebrew the main accent of a word falls either on the last syllable, as מָׁשֶׁ (accented milra, from below), or on the penult, as שֶׁקֶ (mil'él, from above). This accent is called the tone, its syllable is called the tonesyllable, and the syllable before it the pretonic.

## ACCENTUAL SIGNS.

Of these about thirty are found in the Old Testament. They serve to mark not only the tone-syllables of words, but also the connection between the words themselves, and to break up a verse into its clauses. They are therefore classed as distinctives, or accents which, like our stops, sunder words, clauses, and sentences; and conjunctives, or accents which link words together. The accents have also musical values, and guide the chanting of the synagogues.
2. The number and variety of the accents will be understood if it be remembered that they embody a traditional mode of declamation. They were meant to picture to the eye the appropriate tones of voice, the rises and falls of pitch, every pause, even the slightest, which a correct reader ought to observe. The study of them from the outset is most important to a true apprehension of the Hebrew texts. They often point to a traditional rendering of an obscure passage, and in some cases serve to distinguish words which are spelt though
 p.

## 1. The Prose Accents.

DISTINCTIVES.

| Sillúq - | Merkha - |
| :---: | :---: |
| 'Athnah -- | Munah - |
| Sogholta | Munạ |
| $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { Shalsheleth } \mid- \\ \text { with }{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{o} \text { siq } \end{array}\right\}$ | None |
| Zaqef qaton - | Munah |
| Zaqef gadhol ${ }^{\text {a }}$ S | None |
| Ţifḥ - | Merkha - |
| Rebhia' - | Munal |
| T ${ }^{\text {ebhir }}$ - | Darga - or merkha sometimes |
| Zarqa $\sim$ | Munah |
| Pashta - | Mahpakh - |
| Y ${ }^{\text {ethibh }}$ - ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | None |
| Pazer ${ }^{\text {- }}$ | Munah |
| Qarnefara ${ }^{\text {Q }}$ ) | Yèrah ben yomo - |
| $\mathrm{T}^{\circ} \mathrm{l}$ isha $\mathrm{g}^{\text {ed }}$ hola ${ }^{-}$ | Munạ |
| Gèresh -' | Qadma - - in certain cases |
| Gersshayim - | None munah. |

$\mathrm{T}^{\circ} \mathrm{l}$ isha $\mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{p}}$ tanna ${ }^{\circ}$ a loose conjunctive.
$\mathrm{Y}^{\mathrm{g}} \mathrm{thib}$ and $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{l}$ isha $\mathrm{g}^{\circ} \mathrm{dhola}$ are prepositives, i.e., they fall on initial letters; sºgholta, zarqa, pashta, telisha $q^{\mathrm{e}}$ tanna are postpositives, i.e., fall on final letters. They do not therefore mark the place of the tone.

Note 1.-Pashta is written on the last letter of the word, but repeated on the penult of a word mil'el, ;ip qadma on the initial or medial letters (but on endings like ${ }^{\top},{ }^{\top}$, ${ }^{\top}$, etc.). Y ${ }^{\circ}$ thibh always comes before the first vowel; it is used only with monosyllabic and mil'el words: mahpakh is written after the accented rowel.

Note 2.-If written below, the accent follows its vowel, if above it rests upon the consonant.

The list gives the distinctive accents in the order of their relative weight, with the conjunctives that usually precede them (their servants).

We have now to see how they are used.

1. A verse, pasúq, is marked off from other verses by the greatest distinctive, silluq.
2. If the verse consist of two chief members, the break will be marked by athnah on the last word of the first member.
3. The influence of silluq reaches over the whole verse. That of athnah extends backward from its word to the beginning.
4. The two main clauses generally consist of smaller clauses. If the clause of silluq, i.e., the second member of the verse, fall into two halves, zaqef will rest on the last word of the first half: sogholta subdivides the first member of the verse, i.e., the clause of athnah. (Some regard $s^{\text {egh }} \mathrm{gholta}$ as of equal weight with athnah, and make three main divisions in the verse.) The clause between
athnah and $s^{\circ}$ gholta may be halved by zaqef. Ṭifha always precedes silluq and athnah, and zarqa $s^{\circ}$ gholta. If $\mathrm{A}--\mathrm{B}$ represent a verse, the pointing will be thus:

$$
\mathrm{B}, \ldots-\mathrm{A}
$$

An instance will make this clear:
"And Jahwe' 'Elohim said to the serpent, Because thou hast done this; accursed art thou above all the cattle, and above all the life of the plain : upon thy belly shalt thou go, and dust shalt thou eat all the days of thy life."
$\mathrm{R}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{bhia}{ }^{\circ}$ may halve the clauses ending with țifha, zaqef, or sogholta.

Note 1.—Zaqef gadhol ( ${ }_{-}^{-}$) is used in place of zaqef qaton, when no conjunctive precedes: e.g.,
 to life)."

So shalsheleth $\mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{siq}\left(,^{-}\right)$instead of $\mathrm{s}^{\circ}$ gholta in a clause of one word; and gereshayim for geresh.
2. If the clauses of silluq and athnaly contain more than a single word, țifḷa must precede those accents, even if there be no break in the sense of the passage. $S^{\circ}$ gholta too must be preceded by zarqa.
3. Pesiq (I) is written after a word with conjunctive accent, to indicate a slight separation in utterance.
4. It should be carefully noted that the distinctive accents maintain an invariable order; increasing in
strength towards the beginning of the verse: e.g., silluq, țifḷa, zaqef, athnaḷ. Athnaḥ, țifḥa, zaqef, sogholta. Zaqef, pashța, reblia'.

Hence if the same distinctive occur twice, that which is nearer the beginning of the verse is the stronger.
5. In accenting a verse, the first thing to consider is where the main breaks in the sense occur: then point, proceeding from the end backwards, bearing in mind that the influence of a distinctive extends from its own word towards the beginning, until it meets a greater distinctive.

## FULL ACCENTUATION OF A VERSE.

A verse may be thus accented, with distinctives and conjunctives, beginning with the last member:


See Exod. xxxiv. 9, 10.
2. After rebhia the consecution is thus:
(a)

 without geresh. Cf. Jud. vii. 31.

Tebhir, zarqa, or pashta, as well as rebhia, may be preceded by this accentuation. In (b) geresh is omitted and its function as a small disjunctive is fulfilled by darga, munah, or mahpakh, as the case may be.

Beyond t ṭlisha $q^{\circ}$ tanna towards the beginning, pazer ${ }^{\left({ }^{\prime}\right.}-$ ) may mark a division; beyond it munah will recur, with posiq if need be.

Or instead of pazer, qarnefara with servant yerah, and then munah, etc., as before: thus


## 2. THE POETIC ACCENTUATION.

The books of 'Iyob (Job), Psalms, Proverbs, are accented on a different plan from the other Old Testament writings.

The signs are these:
distinctives. conjunctives.
Silluq -

- Merkha (or munah)
'Olè weyoredh :- $\quad-$ Galgal
Athnạ̣ - $\quad$ - Munaḥ (or merkha)
Rebhia ${ }^{\circ} \quad$ - Merkha (or - mahpakh)
Rebhia mugrash - - "
Dèḥi - - Munah
Çinnor ~
T and -
Pazér $\stackrel{\text { - }}{v} \quad \bar{*}$ Galgal
Shalsheleth pesiq $1-\quad$ None
'Azla logarméh $\vdash \quad \div$ Mahpakh
Mahpakh $\operatorname{l}^{\circ}$ garmeh $\left.\right|_{<}$None.
Other Conjunctives.
$\begin{array}{ll}\sim \text { Merkha zarqa } & \text { - Tarḥa } \\ \simeq \text { Mahpakh zarqa } & \simeq \text { 'Illúy (upper munaḥ) }\end{array}$
- 'Azla.

Note 1.-Dehi, or țifha anterior, is written before the first vowel of the word; and is thus distinguished from tarha (ṭifḷa non-anterior) which is written on the accented syllable.
2. In mahpakh-zarqa, merkha-zarqa, the zarqa is called çinnorith. Its place is on a pretonic open syllable, or on an open one-syllabled word. C̦iunor is always written on the last letter.
3. Shalsheleth-pesiq is mostly found in the clause of silluq just after athnah.
4. Rebhia mugrash and rebhia' differ not in logical but in musical value.

The same is true of azla legarmeh and mahpakh legarmeh; the latter is used when no word precedes its word, and when the accent falls on the first syllable.
5. 'Illúy (upper munah) has almost a distinctive force.

## DIVISION OF THE VERSE.

1. A verse may consist of one, two, or three members. Silluq as before marks the close; 'olè-weyoredh marks the chief division; athnab halves the clause of silluq. A verse of two members may be divided by athnah or 'olè-weyoredh.
2. The clause of 'olè-weyoredh may be cut by çinnor and rebhia; the clause between silluq and athnah, by rebhia mugrash :

3. Rebhia mugrash mostly stands on the third word from silluq: often on the second, Ps. ii. 8, v. 4; sometimes on the fourth, Ps. iii. 5.

Athnaḥ's usual position is on the fourth or fifth word, but it may occur with the third word from the end, Ps. i. 1, 4; ii. 5.
'Olè-weyoredh, commonly on the sixth or seventh, sometimes on the fifth and eighth word from silluq, Ps. xviii. $13,44$.
4. The clause between silluq and 'ole-weyoredh may be thus represented:


The clause between olè-weyoredh and the beginning of the verse, thus:


Note 1.-Instead of legarmeh, mahpach-legarmeh must be used when no conjunctive precedes, Ps. i. 1.
2. Silluq takes munah on a one-syllabled or mil'el word, Ps. i. 1; ii. 3.

If the two words next before silluq be connected, and slightly dissevered from the silluq word, the pointing is : , Ps. i. 3, 6.
3. Athnah takes merkha when there are only two words in its clause, and when an accent stronger than deḥi precedes, Ps. i. 3; v. 9.

If the two words next before athnah be connected, and slightly separated from the athnah word, the pointing is $\_$. Ps. ii. 4, 11, 12.

MAQQEF (link).

1. Maqqef $\left(^{-}\right)$connects words so closely that they are spoken and accented as one, the stress falling on the last


Note.-As maqqef robs a word of its tone or strong accent, mutable long vowels in shut syllables give place to shorter sounds when maqqef follows: hence לֶֶ for for ;
 number of a host, for 7 .
2. Maqqef is often used to avoid the harshness of two tone-syllables concurring without a break; thus



Note.-If a word followed by maqqef end in a vowel, a conjunctive daghesh may occur in the first consonant of the second word, making the union closer: אויָה-לִ 'oyal-li.

## Mark of the Counter-tone. <br> methegh (bridle).

1. On the tone-syllable of a word the voice rises in pitch; while it sinks on the syllable before it. On the second syllable from the tone, a counter rise, emphasis, or tone, occurs: so in the word commémorátion the chief stress is laid on the penult, and there is a counter-stress on the second syllable.
2. In Hebrew methegh ( - ) marks a counter-tone:

 methegh here counts as a tone in regard to the one p receding.
3. The following uses of methegh should be noted:
(a) Methegh is written in an open syllable followed


This is important for the distinction between qameç
and qameç hatuf: thus חָָּ חָּמָּ $=$ l!ŏkh-ma. Similarly, יריראי without methegh $=$ yirr'u, vident; $;$

 is omitted from the second consonants. Methegh marks the fact, and warns us that the first syllable is half open, and the sh ${ }^{\circ}$ wa which follows audible.
(c) A closed syllable containing a changeless long vowel, and followed by maqqef, takes methegh : בֵּית־یי;


## THE PAUSE.

The accent of a word at the end of a clause or sentence is more forcible than elsewhere. This position is called the Pause. The effect of the stronger accent is various.
(a) The accented syllable receives a vowel of different quality: pathah is changed for qameç, as
 $e(\mathrm{I})$, as
万לֶ, do not undergo this change.

Sometimes seghol or çeré (I) is replaced by the
 vers $\hat{,}$,
(b) Often the accent falls upon the penult: אַָּּ pausal אָהּת. Forms which commonly have indefinite vowels in the penult, preserve full vowels when in

 רֶּאִ pausal רְאִי

Sometimes the penult has a full pretonic vowel, though

 (hădìlû).

## PART II.

## ETYMOLOGY.

## OF WORDS, AND THEIR

FLEXION.

## ROOTS, WORDS, AND KINDS OF WORDS.

A root is not a word. It is a set of sounds common to a number of words, which are akin, that is, which express different shades of one primary idea. The sounds רק , רץ , for instance, run through the series
 which conveys the notion of breaking, or its effects, in some sense or other; and ${ }^{1} \boldsymbol{\beta}$

2. These words, then, seem to have been formed from
 new sounds. But each of them, in its simplest shape, may itself be called the root of all derived forms.

Note. - Derived forms arise by inner change of vowels, by repeating root-consonants, and by prefixing or affixing certain formative consonants, all of which are comprised in the phrase משׁׁה אָּתָן וְכָלֵב.
3. In the Semitic tongues triliteral roots are the rule. But many triliterals, e.g., the hollow verbs
 point to a biliteral origin. The force of analogy, so potent in language, made them triliteral, by inserting waw, prefixing or postixing yodh, nun, etc., קום for p, בשי
4. There are a few quadriliterals and even quinqueliterals in Hebrew : e.g., חֲבְצֵּלֶּת hyacintl, fint, צִפְרִדּ triliterals. Sometimes inserted 7 or $b$ has an intensive force, as פְּרְבֵּל gird, i.q. strengthened from זָעֶן.
5. At the very base of speech we find mere cries expressive of emotion, called interjections, as being thrown into the sentence without affecting its construction. Such imperfectly significant sounds are

6. Higher in the scale we find demonstrative words. These were at first mere marks of place. They pointed to an object as nearer to or farther from the speaker. Then they naturally came to be used of time also, and lastly of cause, and other mental modes of connecting things.

Such words are called pronouns.
7. The highest class of words includes all which express ideas, or name and describe things, their states, and actions. These are originally nouns.

The union of noun and pronoun has produced in Hebrew what we call the verb: e.g., בְּת (act of) writing;

8. Lastly, we find in Hebrew many more or less worn fragments of nouns and verbs, as well as pronouns, and certain unaltered nominal forms, used to connect and to qualify words and sentences. These are called particles.

## PRONOUNS.

A. Demonstratives. All pronouns are such originally. Those which in Hebrew remained strictly such, are
(a) Sing. m. זֶה (from za'; Arabic $z a^{\prime}$ and $z u^{\prime}$ ) both lic and ille, f. זאחת (from zāth, contracted from za'ath) rare it, iti. As plur. of both genders Pentat.) אֵ (always with ị prefixed). A sing. $\$$ also occurs, com. gen.

Note.-_ אֵּ is compared with the so-called article
, Arabic once = the people, Arabic 'alqaum). Cf. Aram. ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. The D or $\mid$ has fallen off, and the $\because$ or - is weakened to é (cf. verbs $\pi^{\prime \prime}$ ) : a change due to loss of accent. But cf. Assyrian (N) EII 'ullu, ille.
 yonder.

These forms are probably compounds, viz., from הַ + (לִ) or (? ) + ) or וr. Cf. Arabic allathi (used as relat.), alika, this. Perhaps the qameç and çere are merely pretonic and tonic changes, the original forms being hălăză, hăl̆ǐū, and hala, hali, oblique forms of hal. The I would then have been doubled, to keep the pathah from passing into qameç.
(c) הַ, usually called the article, is a weak demonstrative, prefixed to nouns and pronouns. The $ל$ in all cases, but the above, either assimilates to the following consonant as הַהּוֹר (הַדְּוֹר ) the race, or, when that cannot be, vanishes, and the vowel of the prefix is lengthened by way of compensation, e.g., kind.
(When הל is prefixed to a word beginning with $ל$ ל, there is not really assimilation: e.g., , הַיָּי.)

That $\begin{gathered}\text { nַ was once a strong demonstr. is clear from }\end{gathered}$ phrases like hodie, i.e., hoc die, הַיוֹם to-night. Cf. this, the ; Lat. ille, Fr. le. Before $\aleph, y, 7$, and accented, the article is


 is said to be implied in the gutturals which follow the prefixes 근, ㄲ..
 daghesh is "implied" in the "ayin in such cases. Before



B. Interrogatives. מָה what? how? Also indefinite, whoever and whatever. Both may be geni-

 which occurs once (Ex. xvi. 15). Cf. Arabic man, uho? also indirect; מְ in let me grasp what he saith to me. Lastly, both these words may be adverbial, $=h o w ? ~ w h y$ ?

Note 1.—— $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ is used before $\aleph$, 7 , and in pause.
 hast thou done? Without qameç, these gutturals are preceded by מַּ.
2. ${ }^{2}$ is often linked to the next words, and then the first consonant of that word if strong may be doubled (probably because it is really ${ }_{\tau}$ which is prefixed, the nun of which assimilates) : e.g., מַהּיָּר חַסְדָּך how surpassing thy kindness!
C. Personal pronouns. Originally demonstr. words, meaning here, near here, there.

SING.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1 \text { pers. אֲגִ , אֲנבִּי in pause }
\end{aligned}
$$

## PLUR.




Note 1.-In 'anti. In Assyrian we have 'atta, 'atti. אֵתנָה, אֵתֶם,
 'attunu, 'attina, and Arabic 'antum, 'antunna. So Di, 1 ㄱ, with Arabic hum, hunna, Assyrian sūnu, sina. Hence it seems that the original plur. endings were umu, ima, or ina. הוּא in the Pentateuch is also fem. In Assyrian the forms are sū, sī; in Arabic hûa, hîa. Probably the N was once sounded in Hebrew.

Note 2.-N: הוּ, in, etc., are also used as demonstr.; as contrasted with $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, הוּא means the former, something already known or mentioned: mit marks a thing as present or near the speaker. Thus ברנ $=$ in that
 adverbial: (1) of place $=$ here, there ; (2) of time $=$ jam, now, already; (3) intensively = then, indeed, etc.

Note 3.-Hebrew has no real relative. 'The word (an old noun = place, cf. Assyrian asru, Aram. Nֻ locus), often introduces a relative clause. In like manner 4 , $1 ;$,
 they hid. Cf. òs as relative, and in phrase $\hat{\eta} \delta \delta^{\prime}$ ös said he.

Often, however, none of these words are used: טֵבְעוּ , the peoples have sunk in the pit (which) they made.

In later Hebrew chiefly we find the relative prefixes隻, that, ctc.

## MODES OF EXPRESSING POSSESSIVE,

 OBJECTIVE, AND OTHER RELATIONS.The personal pronouns as given above are mostly used as subjects of sentences.

The possessive and objective relations of the pronouns are expressed by shortened forms, called suffixes, which are linked to nouns, verbs, and particles.

Exception.-The full forms of the personal pronouns are however sometimes used after such shortened forms and in apposition to them, for the sake of emphasis: אָבֵר זְכָרם הֵּמָּה their memory is lost, even theirs!

## PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

(When affixed to a noun, these are genitives or possessives; after verbs they denote the object.)

|  | SING. | PLUR. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | $\because$ of me, my. 'נִ (with verbs and some particles) $=m e$. | is of us, our, us. |
| $\begin{array}{r} 2 \mathrm{~m} . \\ \mathrm{f} . \end{array}$ | 7 of thee, thy, thee. ״ ״ ״ | פֶ of you, your, you. (כֶּנָה ,כֶן (rarer) " |
| 3 m . | in, i, 1 of him, his, him. | $\square$ חה, $\square$, , מ of them, their, they. |
| f. | Tr, in of her, her. | 仿, \} , " " |

Note.-7, 7 may point to a form like 'akka; cf. Assyrian cātu, cāta, thou. $\boldsymbol{i}$ is contracted from ${ }^{1} \boldsymbol{N}_{\sim}=$ $\mathrm{au}=\hat{o}$; is recalls humus, the probable original of .

Various relations of the personal pronouns are expressed by linking them with particles, as follows:

1. The objective, by the prefix אָת , אֵת , (token).
sing.
2. $\quad$ me

2 m .
f. 7 Tis $)^{\text {the. }}$

3 m . kim.
f. אתָה her.

PLUR.
\%

אֹתחּ
them.
אیחק

Note.—This prefix, in the forms אתָּ, also marks the objective state of nouns substantive; but is only used when they are defined by the article, or a following genitive, whether suffix or noun; and in the case of proper names.
2. Dative, possessive, etc. ל from אیל (nearness) towards; or more probably from join, cf. Assyrian $l i=$ liviti, neighbourhood.

SING.

1. '? to, for me.

2 m . $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{p}}$

f.

PLUR.
to, for, us.


לֵֶ
$\xrightarrow[3]{3}$, prefixed in the same way, marks locative and instrumental relations, in, by, with, etc. It probably is

3. Accompaniment is expressed by $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ אֵ, $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ (nearness), perhaps from אנֶת. The assimilated nun is marked by daghesh before suffixes.


עִם (junction), cum, $\xi^{\prime} \nu$, follows this, save in , بעּמֶּהֶּ, with pretonic qameç.
4. Partitive, ablative, comparative, causal relations are signified by phe, part).


Note.一 from him. In מן has lost its $\}$, and full vowel, which last, in a modified shape, reappears with the tone, as מֶּ
5. Some prefixes are in form construct plurals: e.g.,
 עֵֶּד

| SING. | plur. |
| :---: | :---: |
| אלֵ | אֵ>\% |
| אֵריך | אִלִיֹלִם |
| אֵלִיוּ | אֵלִיֵֵם |

The others follow this example, but keeping their a sound, where this has $e$.
6. The above forms preceded by help to supply the want of a relative pronoun: e.g., לוֹשׁר . . . אֶ (he) to
 whom.

The genitive of the relative is expressed by a noun with suffix; as שִּשְׁר whose words.
7. Prefix $\xrightarrow{3}$ (originally $\underset{\sim}{ }$, demonstr. cf. pers. pron.) , דְ , as ; (מָּ).

| כַּמֹנִי | כָּמוֹנוּ |
| :---: | :---: |
| כִּמוֹך | (rare) |
| כַּמוֹדוּ | כַּהּם |
|  | כָּהּן |

8. There is no strictly reflexive pronoun in Hebrew.
 גנוֹים אֵנֹש הֵּמּה men; se mortales esse. Also suffixes with prepositions,
 suffixes. הִיא, etc., also express aùròs, ipse, self; for God himself judges; and with the article, $\dot{o}$ aútòs, the same, which is further denoted by

 years cease not to be! cf. self $=$ selb $=$ body.

The indefinite pronoun quis, any, and the distributive


 it. כֹ followed by a noun with the article, means all;
 each tree.

Each, quisque, is דִגְרוּ אִּשׁ חַרְבוֹ ; accingite pro se quisque gladium. Or the noun is repeated: Bi' bil every day.

For the reciprocal pronoun $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \dot{\eta} \lambda \omega \nu$, one another, we find the phrase אָּ . . . . אֵמִרוּ אִּשׁ
 or

Some of . . . is expressed by prefixed went out some of the people. man, any one of thy brethren, is a curious extension of the use of this prefix.
 and etc.; ; צָּ


## FORMATION OF NOUNS.

1. The nouns may be divided into two great classes, simple and augmented, according as they are formed (1) from roots by insertion of vowels; (2) by addition of certain pronominal fragments at the beginning or end (outer augmentn.), or by doubling a radical, e.g., in (inner augmentn.). The formative prefixes are $\aleph, \Delta, \Omega$,'

 nouns, and to the demonstr. הוּא.
2. Nouns are also abstract or concrete, names of qualities and events, and names of beings, i.e., persons and things. Simple nouns may be either abstract or concrete; augmented nouns belong to the latter class.
3. The base of an abstract noun is a single syllable,
and contains one short vowel preceding or following the middle root-letter. That vowel may be $a, i$, or $u:$ e.g.,
 forms become disliked the concurrence of two unvocalized consonants, a slight $e$ sound (seghol) was uttered after the second
 accent remains on the penult. In one or two words the harsher forms still survive; e.g., קשׁׁụ p truth (as well as of the simple stem of the verb, is an abstract noun, with the stem-vowel following the second root letter; e.g., Coarning, לְמִר ruling.
4. The base of a simple concrete noun contains two vowels, of which at least one must be $a$. As types we
 prince; of which the corresponding originals are , וֹשֵׁz
 verb belong here; as also does the perf. 3 sing.:

5. Of augmented nouns one of the commonest forms is that with prefixed D; e.g., מִשְֶּׁ (orıginally
 Many nouns spring from roots intensively augmented, i.e., with the second root letter doubled, as from $\mathfrak{j}$ די צִוּר 'iw-wêr, fr. עוֵר

## INFLEXION OF NOUNS.

1. The old Semitic probably inflected nouns by means of the three endings um, im, am, roughly answering to the nomin., gen., and accusat. of Aryan grammar. These endings are partially found in the

Assyrian inscriptions: c.g., qarnum, qarnim, qarnam, horn
 Arabic $n$ occurs for $m$ (nunnation instead of mimmation): e.g., rajoloun, rajolin, rajolan, a man; jamnatoun, jannatin, jannatan, a garden. Traces of this kind of. declension in Hebrew are seen in the adverbial endings

 accusatives from הֶרֶץ (lail, 'arę), but without the mimmation. This $त_{-}$is common in a local sense, and is therefore called $\boldsymbol{i}$ locale. Further, in forms like $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ as with their special meanings obscured.
2. In Hebrew, as we have it, the nouns undergo important internal changes of vowel-sounds. These changes are however purely euphonic, and are caused by the loss or gain of accent. They do not mark change of meaning, and are therefore not strictly flexional, as is the change of vowels in the English words man, men, woman, women.

## NOUNS.

Gender and Number.

1. To primitive man all nature seemed endowed with life; he therefore ascribed the distinction of sex to every existing thing. And thus the Hebrew regards all names as either masculine or feminine. The numbers are three, singular, dual, and plural. The dual is almost confined to the names of things existing as doubles, e.g., ears, eyes, etc.
2. The masc. has no special ending. To mark the fem., the demonstrative particle at was originally added to the stem; an ending preserved in Assyrian -ătu, constr. -ăt, the old Arabic -at, and in a few Hebrew

 in the "construct state" of fem. nouns (page below). In most cases, however, the t has been dropped, and the $a$ in the accented open syllable modified, as שִׁיָּ for shirat.

Another fem. ending is $\Pi_{\nabla}$ (after a guttural $\Omega_{-}$), unaccented has vanished, and then an after-sounding vowel has been admitted between the two final consouants; kātabt, yāda't, being the primary forms.

Lastly, there are the endings $\Omega_{-}^{\circ}$-, תוּ pleteness, מַלְבוּת kingdom, where also the $a$ is thrust out (cf. Assyrian fem. malkat queen, pl. malkāt, bilit mistress, pl. bilit, sarrut sovranty).
3. Many nouns are known to be fem., not from their form, but from their meaning: mother, and all other names, common or proper, which belong to females.
4. Many nouns are used both as masc. and as fem.;
 gender, are used to denote either sex (Epicenes); as יוֹנָה pigeon. Perhaps this was because the whole class designated was regarded as strong or weak.
5. The feminine, as weaker and more passive than the masc., naturally fills the place of a neuter; e.g., אַחַת שָׁאַלְתּ מיהוה one thing I asked from Jahwe.
N.B. The masc. sing., and rarely masc. plur., also
occur: :ֶֶ post hoc, חנַרֹ nobilia, honesta; strictly nobiles.

It is also the favourite gender for names of qualities (abstract nouns); e.g., צִצָָקָ justice; and for collectives, as of clouds. But sometimes the masc. is collective, and the fem. individual; as 'אָּ fleet (also ship),

Note.-Metre often helps memory. The following should be learnt off.

Months and peoples, hills and streams,
Masculine the Hebrew deems;
Feminine are local nouns,
Lands, and tools, and limbs, and towns.
Note 2.-The same word may stand sometimes for a people, sometimes for their country; e.g.,, ?ְהוּרָה Judah and Judea. In the former case it is construed as masc., in the latter as fem.

World תֵּבֵּ, and


צֶרֶש led, and a boul;


These are feminine alone.
Mostly feminine are seen;

vine,


שׁׁ arm
Mostly masculine are רֶחֶ,




ת, תוֹר, שֶׁשֶׁר , and always,

Common are



א, פֶּר,


6. The ending of the dual is $\mathbb{Z}$ :- áyim; e.g., ('uzn), אָזָּנְ'ט ears. (Cf. Assyr. uzna-a, -à, and Arab. -āni. The original ending was a'anu.) יְרְָָָה side (yarkat), יִרְכָתַיִּם both sides. That of the plural masc. is \begin{tabular}{|l}
$\prime-$ <br>

- , fem. <br>
Ii <br>
(āt) (cf. Assyr. ilătu, goddess, pl. ilātu);
\end{tabular}



Note. - The masc. pl. is sometimes j -, as in Aramaic; and $\because-$ - - occur, though rarely; e.g., locusts, מִּ chords. (Cf. Assyrian pl. in -i, sarri, kings.) $\square$ - is like the old genitive sing. But it is likely that the $\bar{i}$ is weakened from $\bar{a}$, the oldest endings of the Assyrian plur. being - $\bar{n} n u,-\bar{a} n i,-\bar{a} n a ;$ e.g., sarrānu, kings. Compare the Hebrew gnats $=$ ַּנּ
7. Masc. nouns in '-, and feminines in $\Omega$ '-, have

 But some merely add D, תi to sing., as מצִִִים Egyptians; . חֲנִיתוֹת , רִנִית

Many masc. nouns have plurals in $\Omega i$, and many feminines in $\mathrm{D}-$ : while many nouns, again, present

 was, it seems, of both genders; but -oth $=$ awat $=$ am-at (by the common Assyrian change of $w$ for $m$ ), was originally feminine only.

Effect of these endings on the Vowels of the Strm (ininflected word).-As the accent tends towards the final syllable, the new endings will receive it.
(a) If the stem contain vowels long by nature, whether diphthongal or contracted, they remain firm; e.g., שיׁשיָה,
 stem contain short vowels in closed syllables, they are unaffected by the onward movement of the accent; as

(b) Stem-vowels that are merely tone long, shorten when the accent is no longer on or near them; thus
 תiti; a vowel two places from the tone becoming indistinct.

## the construct state.

A noun may be made definite not only by the socalled article, but also by another following noun, in which case the article is superfluous: e.g., bip voice,
(the) voice of the brother. A noun thus defiricd is said to be in the construct state. When not in construction, a noun is said to be in the absolute state, i.e, out of connection with any other noun.
2. In such phrases the defining noun, as the more important, receives the greater emphasis. The speaker hurries over the preceding word, which therefore loses weight, and suffers a shortening of tone-long vowels, and loss of weak final consonants. صָּרֶּ a proverb;
 songs of David.
 And, the rest of the tale of the archen's of the warriors of the sons of Qedar.
3. In the constr. st. of fem. nouns in $\Pi_{-}$, the original ending is preserved; thus

 .
4. The constr. st. is used in other relations expressible by a Latin or Greek genitive: e.g., ${ }^{\prime}$, צָצַת plot against (the) poor. It is common in defining the scope
 i.e., the man whose sin is covered; the
 straightforuard

## THE NOUN WITH SUFFIXES.

1. The suffixes of the noun are usually genitival, and therefore we might assume that the noun would be in the construct state before them. But the suffixes are usually less emphatic than the nouns to which they are
added; and therefore for the most part they do not receive all the stress in utterance, so that their nouns do not change so much as when in construction with other more important words. The only exception is that of the heavy (grave) suffixes, הֶֶ, הֶ, הֶ, , הֶ, which always receive the full weight of the accent; and accordingly throw their nouns into the construct state: e.g., מְשׁלְלְבֶּ

2. The other suffixes, called light, affect their nouns in the same way as the fem. ending $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{r}}$, and the plur.

 , שִׁנִתי, with the original $\Omega$.
3. The part of a word moṣt capable of resisting the wear and tear of constant use is that which has, or is near to, the accent. And thus in the constr. st. some ancient endings are preserved by their nearness to the
 these instances we see that אָּ father, and heat, once had the endings $\because \because$ In the same way (especially if the accent favour) vowels or fragments of vowels occur between nouns and suffixes, which though called "connecting vowels" are really relics of old terminations:

 termination preserved is $a$. The case-endings $a, i$, had lost their distinct meanings, and were used promiscuously; and so such combinations became natural.


## TYPES OF NOUNS.

I. Forms with one Stem Vowel.

|  | A. | I. | U. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | masc. | masc. | yasc. |
| Sing. abs. | מֶלֶ | רַפֶר book. | בּקen daun. |
| constr. |  | " | " |
| light suff. | מַלְכִּ | ִִמִִרִי |  |
| grave ", | מַלִלְּכֶם |  | דָּקְרֶדֶם |
| Plur. abs. | מִלְלִים | סְְִּרִים | בּבְּרִים |
| constr. | מַלְלֵי | סִִִִֵי | בָּקְרִי |
| light suff. |  | ִִדִּרִ | בְּקִרִ |
| grave ,, | מַלְלֵיכֶם |  |  |
| Dual abs. | מַלִּלִּם | סְִִּרַּים | בָּקִרֶיִים |
| constr. | מִלְלֵּ |  | בָּקִרִי |
|  | fem. | fem. | fem |
| Sing. abs. | מַלִכְּה | ִִִִרֶה | בִּקִרֶה |
| constr. |  | סִפְרֵת | בּקִרִת |
| light suff. | מַלְלִּתִי |  | בּקְקוּתִית |
| grave , | מַלִכּנִּתְּתם |  |  |
| Plur. abs. | מִלְלִוֹת | סִּדּרוֹת | בִּקִרוֹת |
| constr. | מַלִלִוֹת | טִמִּוֹתוֹת | בִּקִוֹתוֹת |
| light suff. |  | ִִדְּרוֹתַי | בָּקִרוֹתַּתִּ |
| grave," | מִלְלוֹתֵיֶם |  | דּקִּרוֹתֵיכֶס |
| Dual abs. | מַלְּתְּתִים |  |  |
| constr. | מִלְכְּתי | סִפְּרֶית | דִּקִרֶּתֵּ |

Remark 1．－If the first or second radicals be guttural，


为；grave cuff．With a gat．as 3rd


Remark 2．－In forms like שְּקר ，the stem－vowel follows the 2 nd radical．They are however inflected as
 ，בּא

## WEAK FORMS．

（i．）From solid roots；eeg．，
2 nd and 3rd rad．fused．
A．
I．
0.

Sing．abs．

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { creak (= all) } & \text { mother (='mm) } & \text { edict (= haquqq) }
\end{array}
$$

light cuff．רִּ
אִֵּּ
etc．

דַּלִּה ．
בַּלוֹת

חִקִּ
etc．
חתקּים
חיחקּ
no
 nose，${ }^{\prime}$ אַמִּ（
（ii．）From hollow roots；yo＂ע＂ע．
Sing．abs．מֶוֹת（fr．naut）death．

to which other endings attach．
constr．＂？${ }^{\prime}$ ？ to which other endings attach，
(iii.) From weak roots "ל ל" ל"), 3rd rad. semivowel.
A.
I.
U.
 lion. fruit. illness.
light suff. ארִיִ grave

Plur. abs.
אֲרְיִּים
Qִּ?
חָלְיִי
ֶֶּרְיְֶם

Fem. $\quad$ שִׁבְיָה captivity.
 belong here.

## II. FORMS WITH TWO STEM VOWELS.

| Sing. abs. | AA. | AI. | AU. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | ! | ipit | עמק |
|  | straight. | old. | deep. |
|  | (1) | ! ְְְן | עֶמֶק |
| light suff. | יָּשְׁרִי |  |  |
| grave " |  |  | עֶמִּקֶקֶם |
| Plur. abs. | יִשְׁרִים | ְיקִנִים |  |
| constr. | (also-9\%) | ! ? |  |
| light suff. |  |  |  |
| grave " | "יִשִׁרֵּרֶם |  |  |
| Dual abs. |  |  |  |
| constr | "יִשִׁר' | ! |  |
|  | fem. | FEM. | fem. |
| Sing. abs. | ? | ְֶקְנִה | עֶמֵּקִד |
| constr. |  | ! | עֶמֵּתֶת |
| light suff. |  |  | etc., |
| grave " |  | זְקִנְתֶדֶם | the |
| Plur. abs. |  | ְֵקֵנות | first two |
| constr. |  | : | sylls. not |
| light suff. |  | ְקְנוֹתֵי | changing |
| grave " |  | ְקְנוֹתֵיכֶם |  |
| Dual abs. |  |  |  |
| constr. |  |  |  |

Sing. abs.
constr.

| AĀ. | Aİ. | A |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| masc. | masc. | masc. |
| 10, | תִִֶּים | ֵֶקוּ7 |
| great. | perfect. | visited. |
|  | תִִִּים | שְּקוּר |

All new endings attach to the constr. st. of these forms: e.g., fem.

Note.-Stems with $i a$, as in לְבְ לְבִ, follow -יִּשׁ

Sing, abs.
constr.
light suff.
grave suff.
Plur. absol.
constr.
light suff. grave suff.

Sing. abs.
constr.
light suff.
grave "
Plur. abs.
constr.


Remari 1.-Participles ל'ל (ל'י), and like forms, belong to aia: e.g.,



## AUGMENTED NOUNS.

With (i.) Inner, (ii.) Outer Augmentation.
 lind), follow עוֹלָם, the first syllable being constant.

藙memorial, dithyramb (with both kinds of augmentation), in constr. sing. lose duplication of the

(ii.) Forms with a prefix $m a$ or $n a(m a=m \grave{e}=m i$, $n a=n \grave{e}=n i$ ), and with $a$ in the final syllable, e.g.,
 (= namshal) ruled, follow עוצָ ; those which have $e(i)$ in the ultimate, as מִשְ: ( $=$ maspid) wailing,
 from (זְ), and then follow

Forms with postixed ${ }^{-}$-, as נָּרָ stranger, double the
 sometimes these forms contract into נָנִרִים ,נָברִית.

Lastly, forms with postixed an follow עוֹלָּ; e.g.,


There are many other forms of augmented nouns; but enough bave been given for the purpose of illustrating the vocalic changes in types of common occurrence.

## IRREGULAR NOUNS.

A list of the commoner forms which embody something peculiar in their flexion, may prove useful.

אָ father' ; st. constr. אחבּ, light suff. grave suff.

אֵבִּכֶם ; pl. (Assyrian abût, also abi.) Cf.
 plied daghesh" in ח), constr. אַחהּי, light suff. (in


Note.-In these two forms the ' of st. constr. sing. has taken the place of 1 , the original third radical. אֻחִי $=$ 'aḥwu. But the forms with implied daghesh seem to point to a root אח for themselves.

תוֹחָ sister (original 'aḥwat, 'ahāt with $\bar{a}$ compensative), constr. אֲחוֹת, to which suffixes are added; pl. אַחָּוֹת (from 'ahyat = 'aḥwat), constr. אֲחִּוֹת, which takes the suffixes. Cf. תוֹת mother-in-law.
 If not biliteral, a segholate bin ${ }^{7}$; cf. pir ${ }^{\text {r }}$,



אֵּ man, vir; ='insh, 'ishsh, 'ish; cf. Suff.
 'insān.

אیשׁׁת
 cf. Assyrian nisu, man.

I' ${ }^{\prime}$ (yawm, Arabic yaum, Assyrian yumu) day; dual


שׂ่ head (originally ra'sh), a noun of first form; pl. חרָאשׁי , רָאׁשִׁים (= rashim contr.). Ra'sh became on the

yיר city (originally 'ayr), a noun of first form; pl. (עָרִ , עָּרִים (= 'ayarim contr.).
, suff.



 old $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ (name of letter); reduplicated pl. constr. "מימֵ, cf. Assyrlan pl. māmi.
a

 samāwātun. Assyrian samu, pls. samè and samāmi.
, בּית house (originally bait), constr. בֵּת prob. $=$ battím, batté, the methegh marking qamec $\mathrm{as}=\mathrm{a}$. Others make the sound to have been bŏttím, bŏtté, from a kindred stem būtt.

## THE NUMBERS.

## 1. The Cardinals.

These are abstract nouns which lost their primitive meaning, and came to be used as mere numerals.

|  | masc. |  | fem. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ABS. | const. | ABS. |  | CONST |
| 1 | אֶחָד | אֵחִד |  |  | אַחֵת |
| 2 |  | שִׁ | שׁׁnen |  |  |
| 3 | שׁׁלֹלִׁה |  | שֶׁלֹׁ |  |  |
| 4 | אַרְדַּעָּ | אַרַַַַּּ |  | אַרַּע |  |
| 5 | חֲמִּשֶׁה | חַמֵּשֶׁת | חָּטש |  | חָחֵּ |
| 6 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | שִׁבִֶׁהּ |  | שֶׁבֵע |  | שׁׁבַע |
| 8 | שִׁמנֹדָ | שִׁמנֹתנת |  | שְִׁמנֹה |  |
| 9 |  | תִּשׁׁנַת | תתּשׁע |  | תְּשׁׁעַ |
| 10 |  | עֶשֶׁרֶת |  | עֶש゙ֶ |  |



Remari 1.-In the older writings lower numbers precede higher; in the later books the contrary order is observed. In both cases the connective waw is used. So in old English, "six and twenty."
Remark 2.-The fem. ending $\overbrace{-}$ of the masc. numbers from 3 to 10 shows that they are abstract nouns like duàs, tocás, etc. When a distinction had come to be felt necessary, the prevailing forms were appropriated to the masc., and the mere stems to the fem. gender.

Remark 3.--n assimilated to the fem. ending $t$; and only one of the two t's written.

שִׁhen pronounced slitáyim, a corruption of shintáyim.
yַשִׁתּי means one. It is seen in Assyrian $\$ - II estén, one.
2. The Ordinals.

| masc. | Fем. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | רִאשׁוֹנָה , אַחֵת | first |
| שִִִׁׁ | שֶׁנִית | second |
| שִׁלְיִשִׁי |  | third |
| רְבִיעִי | רדבִיעִיתֶת | fourth |
|  |  | fifth |
| שִִִׁׁׁי | שְִּׁשִּתית | sixth |
| שׁׁבִיעִיִי | שׁׁבִיעִיֶת | sevent |
| שׁׁמִיִי |  | eighth |
| תִֶּּׁיעִ | תִּשִׁיעִיתּת | ninth |
| עֲשִׁרִיִיִ | עֲשִׁרִית | tenth |

Beyond tenth, the cardinals are used, no ordinal forms existing.
 Assyrian risu, head, ristanu $=$ first.

Note 2.-The fem. ordinals also express fractions, as $=\frac{1}{3}$ ( tuice, thrice, etc., are denoted by the femin. forms of




 and he put each flock by itself; ; שָׁנָה בְשָׁנָה year by year.)

The indefinite numeral adjectives all, every, are expressed by e.g.,

## THE VERB.

1. The verb in its simplest shape presents two stems which obviously coincide with those of the abstract and concrete nouns. The abstract stem consists of three radicals with one originally short vowel following the
 called the infinitive construct, but usage as well as form shows that it is a noun; e.g., לִ לֶת מְ in time of finding,


The concrete stem has three radicals and two vowels,
 $\mid \Delta p$, forms used as 3 sing. masc. perf. (The last two are also used as "participles.")
2. To these stems certain archaic forms of the pronouns came to be agglutinated. Thus arose what may be called the two states of the verb, the imperfect, and the perfect.
3. The imperfect state is formed from the abstract stem, by means of pronominal prefixes. It denotes, as its name implies, that the action, condition, or event signified by the verb is unfinished, i.e., beginning to be, or in process.

The perfect state is formed from the concrete stem, by the addition of postfixes, and indicates that the action, etc., denoted by the verb, is already finished and complete in itself.
4. The abstract stem is also used as an imperative. In the fem. sing., and in the plur. it has the endings of the 2 nd pers. pronoun.
5. The concrete stem reäppears in what is called
 small; of which the original vowels were āi, ai, au. There is also a passive form, מָּ ruled, with vowels aū. As a part of the verb the participle denotes the permanence of all act or state.
6. The pf., impf., and imperat., have plur. endings identical with the most ancient plural endings of the noun. In accordance with their origin, none of these forms in themselves connote time. That is always left to be understood from the context; a point in which Semitic differs entirely from Western Grammar.
7. Some have called the states of the verb moods; and, in the absence of distinct modal formations, the imperfect is in fact used to express wish, that is, it supplies the want of a special optative mood; and further, after certain particles it fills the place of the subjunctive. Another frequent use of the imperfect is to express an imperative.
8. The imperfect 1 st pers. often keeps the old ending $\overbrace{-}$. It is then called the cohortative, and denotes strong inclination towards an act ; אֶמְּשְלָה let me rule, נְלָה let us go. Cf. the Assyrian aorists iscunam, iscuna, iscun. There is a similar form of the imperative ; מֶשׁׁלָ (moshla) pray rule!

There is also a shortened form of the impf. called the jussive, used in the 2 nd and 3 rd pers. hif. of the strong verb; e.g., of the potential mood; then it came to mean wish, entreaty, command.
9. Side by side with the simple verbal stem called the qal (light), there are four other chief stems, one or more of which occur in most verbs. These have been formed by strengthening the root with prefixed fragments of pronouns, inserted waw, or doubled radicals. Three of them have corresponding passive voices, marked by difference of vowels. The old Grammars inconveniently take made, as the type of all verbs; hence




Besides these, other scarce formations are found, resembling piél, hif il, hithpa'el. Like piel are


 påel הִתְפַּנְלֵל hithpa'él.
10. The qal expresses the original notion of the verb. Nif al is strictly reflexive, as seated themselves, but came to be used as passive; piel is the intensive or iterative stem; e.g., כִּתֵּ scribbled, from unote ; hif ${ }^{\circ}$ il is factitive or causative, as הִקְדְּשִ hallowed (made holy); hithpa'el is a reflexive form of the intensive; הִּ girded himself.

Note 1.-Verbs with $e, o$, in the second syllable of the qal perf. 3 sing., like קטָּ The $o$ verbs are few in number. Cf. Hebrew שיָ Arabic yabisa; sharufa, noble, safula, low. In Assyrian the three vowels are used without difference of meaning.
2. Verbs with three firm radicals which admit of doubling, and resist rejection or change, are called strong verbs.

## TYPE OF THE STRONG VERB.

|  | simple stem. <br> (a^l) |  |  | meflexive. <br> (міг'лі) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf. sing. 3 m . | puent | גָּדֵל | 10p. | נִמְּשַׁל |
| $f$ f. |  | גֶּדְדֶה |  | נִמְשְׁלְל |
| 2 m . |  | הָּדַלִתֶּ |  |  |
| f. | מֶשׁלַלִתּ | נָּדַלִתֶּ |  |  |
| 1 com . |  | נְּדַלִּתִּ |  | נִמְשׁׁלַתִּיִי |
| plur. 3 com. | מֶשׁׁלוּ | תגּדלדוּ |  | נִמְשִׁלִוּ |
| 2 m . |  | גְּדַלתֶם | קִטְנִתִּ |  |
| f. |  |  | קְטְנְתֶן |  |
| 1 com . |  | גֶּדַלִנוּ | קטגֹנוּ |  |
| Impf. sing. 3 m . |  | יִנְדֵּלִלִל |  | ִיְּׁׁׁל |
| f. | תִּמְשׁׂל | תתִּדְדִל | like | תִתְּשִׁל |
| 2 m . |  |  | יגִדִלִלי. |  |
| f. | תִּמְשׁׁלִי | תִגְדִדִיל |  | תִּדֶּשְׁל |
| 1 com . | אֶמְֹׂׂל |  |  |  |
| plur. 3 m . |  | ִיִדְדִּלוּ |  |  |
| f. |  |  |  |  |
| 2 m . |  | תֵּנִדִּלוּ |  | תִּמֶּשְׁלוּ |
| f. |  | תִגִדּדִּנָה |  |  |
| 1 com . | נִטְּשׂל | נִגְדַּלִל |  | נְִִּשׁׁל |
| Imperat. sing. 2 m . | מֶשׁׁל | גְּדַל |  |  |
|  | מְִׁׁלִי | גְדִלִיר |  | הִֵֵּּשְׁלִי |
| plur. 2 m . | מִשׁׁלוּ | גְדִדלוּ |  |  |
| f. |  | גְּדַלִּנִה |  |  |
| Infin. constr. form | מִשֶׁל |  |  |  |
| absol. | טֶשוֹל | הנְדוֹל |  | הִּדְּשוֹל |
|  |  |  |  | (נִמְֹׂׂל) |
| Particip. act. and refles. | משֵׁל |  |  | נִקְשָׁל |
| pass. | טְשוּל |  |  |  |


| INTENS, ACT. (pi'El) | $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} \text { INTENS. PASS. } \\ \text { (PU'AL) } \end{gathered}\right.$ | factitive. <br> (Hifill) | fact. pass. ( $\mathrm{HOF}^{\prime} \mathrm{AL}$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Reflex.intens. } \\ & \text { (hithea'kL) } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| מִּשׁל | מִּשׁׁל | הִמִשִׁילִ | הָמִשׁׁל | התחמּ |
| מִּשְֶׁד |  | הִמְּשִּלִידה | הָמִשְׁלִלה |  |
|  |  | הִמִּשַׁלְתָּ |  |  |
| מִּשִׁלִתּת |  | הִמְַׁׂלִלִת | הָמִּשַלִלתּת |  |
| מִּשִׁלִּתִּ |  | הִמְשַׁלְתִי | הדמִשׁׁלְתִי | דִתְמַשִׁלִתִי |
| מִּשִׁלוּ |  | הִמְּשִילוּ |  | התמִּשִׁל |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| מִשׁׁלִלִן |  | הִמְשַׁלִלִן | הדמשׁׁלִלתן |  |
|  |  | הִמִּשַלִלִוּ | הָמִשִׁלִלִוּ |  |
| ִיְמִשׁׁל |  | יַמְּשִיל | יָּמְשַׁל | יִתְמַּשִׁר |
|  |  | תתִּשִׁיל | תָּמְשׁׁל |  |
|  |  | תתּמִשִׁיל | תָּמְשִׁלִל | תּתְּשִׁל |
|  | תֶּמֻשִׁלִי | תתּמִשִׁילִי |  | תתּתמּשִׁלִל |
| אֲמַּשִׁל |  | אַמְִׁׁיל | אָמְשִׁלִל |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | תּמִּשַׁלִלִהּ |  |
|  |  | תֶּמְּשִירוּ | תָּמִשׁׁלִוּ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| נִמֵַּׁל |  | נַמְשִׁיל | נָמְשׁׁר | נִתְמֵַּּׁל |
| מִּשֵׁר |  | הַמִּשִׁל |  | הּתְמֵַּּלִל |
| מַּשְׁלִי |  | הַמְשִׁילִיִי |  | התִמִּטְּלִל |
| מַּשׁׁוּ | NONE. | הַמְּשִׁירוּ | None. |  |
|  |  | הַמְּשִלְלִה |  |  |
| מַּשׁׁ | - | הַמִשִׁיל | הָמְשׁׁל | הִתְמֵּשֵל |
| טַּטֹל | מֶنׁל | הַמְשֵׁל | דָמִשׁׁל |  |
| מְמֵַּׁל |  | מַמְשִׁל | מִמשׁׁל | מִתְמִשֵּל |

Remark 1.-In the perf. the stem mashal receives the suffixes ( $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ ) $\AA$, These are clearly fragments of the 2nd pers. pron. The $\because$ of the 1 st pers. sing. recalls the Assyrian $2 E \mathrm{FF} \mathrm{TF} \mathrm{Cl}$ yāti, $I$. But probably the real pronoun was yā, and -ti is merely a demonstr. suffix. There may have been an old masc.; and with the fem. ending ${ }^{-}$- (originally $\Omega_{-}$) as 3 rd sing. fem.; in the plur. 7 (rare $\because-$ ) is added; an old plur. ending of the noun; as in Arabic hum, hunna, they; Assyrian dilūnu, buckets.
 persons. ? (?) is the nominal formative seen in Isaac, , יִּהָרי, oil, etc. The 2nd fem. sing. has the ending (i)-, cf. the rarer Assyrian aor. iscuni(m). The $i$ was no doubt a phonetic corruption of $a$. The 2nd and 3rd
 dropped out of use, and the 2nd usurped its place. These forms are contracted; their old ending was -ānu (āni, āna) $=$ an archaic sign of the plural of nouns. The 2nd and 3rd masc. plur. have ( $p$ ), a suffix already explained as $=\bar{u} n u$ ( $\bar{n} n i$, unna), also a primitive mark of the plural.

Remari 2.-The reflexive nif'al has j? or ' prefixed, Arabic 'in, a demonst. $=$ self. The nun assimilates in the imperat. and impf., הִקָּשׁ $=$ hinmashel; Arabic 'inmathala. Like the Greek middle it carne to be uscd in many forms as a passive. The original form was no doubt נַמְּשַׁל.

The intensive piel, pu'al naturally double the 2nd radical. The root thus gains the meaning of often,
much, etc. When qal is intrans. picl is often trans.,

 אֵּ. The causative or factitive hif'il prefixes ה, seldom ת, in Aramaic $\underset{\sim}{\text { שin }}$. The s is original, and has worn down to an aspirate. Assyrian has s. The oldest form was probably samshal. That הִּשְׁשׁיל is weakened
 impf. yamshil for $\mathrm{y}^{\circ}$ hamshill, and the 2 nd sing. himshalta.

The intensively reflexive hithpa el prefixes $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$, , Arabic ta, sometimes 'it; as tafarraqa, dispersed, from a rt. = Hebrew שָּ
 $\Omega$ is transposed and changed to $\Delta$, a letter of nearer kin to $\mathbf{Y}$; צָּדָק

Before $7, \Delta, \Omega$, the $\Omega$ often assimilates; $\boldsymbol{p}$ =

 (çeré because 7 not doubled).

Remaris 3.-If a suffix with initial $J$ or $\Omega$ be added to a verb with 3 rd radical $\boldsymbol{J}$, assimilation occurs ; נָת

 shabathti.

Remari 4.-The place of the accent in 1st and 2nd masc. sing., and 1st plur. perf., is on the penult; as also in 2 nd and 3 rd fem. plur. imperf.

When waw consecutive (see Syntax) is prefixed to these forms of the perf., the accent is thrown upon the

however, this is not so; nor when an accented syllable directly follows.

In the imperf. the accent may recede, as in nif. לֶשְּ",
 recedes in cases like מֶּ, for yimsholu, mashelu.
 è, not as usual é).

In תִּרְגָל
In the pausal forms an original vowel, shortened to she ${ }^{\text {e }}$ 解 out of pause, is preserved : e.g., , pf . f., and some of the above instances.

Remark 5.-Besides לְמַד, לְשְׁל, the infin. sometimes presents the forms מֶשְׁלָה (moshla), מִשְׁלָה, with fem. endings.


## THE VERB WITH OBJECT SUFFIXES.

1. The suffixes added to the verb, to denote the objective state of the pers. pronouns, are mostly the same as the possessive suffixes of nouns. ' $m e$ is an exception.
2. They affect the verb by attracting the accent; and, as in the noun, they have preserved certain ancient endings of the words to which they attach.

Note 1.-A participle may be treated as a noun, and take a possessive suffix: e.g., phey who rise against me, lit., my risers ; מֶקִּלָּיו his curst ones, i.e., people curst by him. So may an infin., as ' $m y$ visiting $=$ visiting me, as well as פָּקְרִּ

Sometimes the suffixes stand in other relations than that of direct object: e.g., , he he grew up


 he hath remembered, instead of

## QAL WITH SUFFIXES.

## PERFECT STATE.

| מִun | גדּדִלִי | 3 BiNG. FEM. משִׁלחתּ | 2 sing. masc. <br>  | 2 sing. FEM. <br> צוּשְלִּתִּניִ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | מִשׁׁלִתִּיוּ |
| מִשְׁלָה |  | מִשׁׁלֵּנָּ |  |  |
| מִשׁלִלּנוּ |  |  | מִּשִלִלִּנו | ִַשׁׁלִּתִּנוּ |
| ִִּשִלְלֶם |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| מִּשָׁל |  |  | ִִּשִלִּתםּ |  |
|  |  |  |  | צִשׁלִלִין |

IMPERFECT STATE.

| 3 amo. .ns. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ! |  |  |
| ? |  |  |
| ? |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| ? | יִגִּרִלֶם |  |
|  |  |  |
| יִיִשִׁלֵם |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

3 PLOR. MASC.

יִמְשִׁלִּוּהּ
יִִּשִׁלוּוּדּ
יִיְשִׁלוּיהו
יִִּשְׁלִוּוָה
יִִּשְֶׁוּוּוּוּ
יִּמִשִלוּכֶם

יִמִשׁׁלוּוּיוּ
יִמִשלׁלון

|  | PERFE | state |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Isxat | משׁלוּי | משטלֹּוּני | 1 nos. |
| מִשִׁלִתִּדיך | מִּשְׁלוּוּה |  |  |
| מִשׁׁלִתּדּדּד |  |  |  |
| ִִּשִלְתִיוּיוּ |  |  |  |
| מִשׁׁלִּתִּה | מִּשְלוּוּדָּ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| מִשׁׁלִתִּכְם | מִּשִלוּוֶֹם |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| מִּשַׁלִתִּם | מִּשׁלוּום | מִּשִלְתּוּם |  |
| מִשַׁלִתִין | מִשׁׁלוּוֹוֹ | מִשׁׁלְתוּן |  |



Remark 1.-In Arabic מָּשַׁל appcars as mathala. The final vowel is in Hebrew preserved before the suff.,
 $\mathrm{m}^{\text {© }}$ shal ${ }^{\text {e }} \mathrm{ka}$ it is reduced to $\mathrm{sh}^{\circ}$ wa from loss of accent; cf. Arabic qatalaka. In mshalam we see this vowel before the suff., as also in the poetic מְשָׁלָמו. In the same way the final vowel of the old impf. appears before the suffix ${ }^{\prime}$, as in yimsholéni.

Remark 2.-The 3 sing. fem. perf. was originally mashelath, Arabic mathalat; a form preserved by the suffixes; as in moshalatham. So מְשַׁלְּת , the 2 sing. fem. before a suffix, is more ancient than מלֹשִׁen. The Arabic has mathalti. The context will distinguish this form from the 1 sing. with suff.

The 2 plur. masc. pf. before suffix is meshaltu, the final $m$ being dropped; cf. Arabic mathaltum, vulg. mathaltu'; 'antum = you. Sometimes the older impf.,
 Arabic yamthulûna.

Remark 3.-The syll. an, with accent èn, between the verb and suffix in the impf., is a relic of mimmation. Cf. Assyrian iscunum $=$ iscunu $=$ iscun $=$ יְִלן. . The forms which have it are mostly found in pause. In poetry, this syll. is sometimes not assimilated to the suffix;


## WEAK VERBS.

These are such as contain weak radicals, i.e., consonants which do not admit of doubling, or which are liable to absorption, assimilation, rejection, or other change.
(1) Verbs of which one radical is a guttural (but ר as


(2) Verbs with initial , as as drew near.
(3) Verbs with initial or 1: 1 , sat ( $=$ washab), ביט.
 understanding.
(5) Verbs with the same consonant in 2nd and 3rd places: סָבַב surrounded. ע. עּ.

(7) Verbs with final $\boldsymbol{i}$ (originally ${ }^{`}$ ); ;

Note 1.-From the old type verb is called its $\Omega$, the 2nd its $\ddot{y}$, the 3rd its $ל$; whence the classes of weak verbs are called $\boldsymbol{\varrho}$ gutt., $\left.\right|^{\prime \prime}$, etc.
2. Many verbs contain two weak consonants, and so combine the peculiarities of some two of the above
 near, is $\mathbf{N}$

VERB PE GUTTURAL．

| Perfect sing．3．m． | qai． עָמבּד | \|עעמֶַד |  | IIOF＇AI． הָעֵמַד |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3．f． | עָׁמְדָ |  |  | היעָמרדה |
| 2．m． | עָּמַדְדתּ |  |  |  |
| 2．f． | עַמַדְּתִּ | צַ |  | 翟 |
| 1. |  | ， |  | הָעֵמִדְתִי |
| plur． 3. | עַמִדּדוּ | ｜exymo |  |  |
| ${ }^{2 . m}$ ． |  | － |  |  |
| 2．f． |  |  |  |  |
| 1. |  | － |  |  |
| Infin．abs． | עֶמוֹד | תֵעֵמוֹד |  | הָיֵֶרד |
| constr． | ֶעֵמֹד | הִעִמד |  |  |
| Imperat．sing．m． | חַוֹנוּ | התעָמדר | הַעֲמֵד |  |
| f． |  | היָעִִדִיר |  | 漡 |
| plur．m． |  | היתָמִדוּ |  | \％ |
| $f$. |  | הֵעֵמֵּדְנָה | הַעֲמֵּדָּה |  |
| Imperf．sing．3．m． |  | יריֵרד | ויְֶמִיד |  |
| 3．f． | תnחזק |  | תֶתַמִּדוד | תֶּעִדרד |
| 2．m． | תֶחת | תֶת |  | תֶעֶמד |
| 2．f． |  | תֵתעמִדִי |  | תָּעָּדִי |
| 1. |  | אֵיֵֵרד | （x） |  |
| prur．3．m． | יוזיקוּ | ויעמדוֹד | －1יְֶמִידוּ |  |
| 3. |  |  |  | תֶעֵמַדְדָה |
| 2．m． |  | תֵערֶדוּ |  | תֶתָמדוּ |
| 2．f． |  | ， |  | תֵתֶֶמַּדְנָה |
| 1. |  | 碞 |  | ניערד |
| Jussive |  |  | － |  |
| Participles act．and reflex． | עלמ | ｜נ עמד | ועמיד |  |
| passive |  |  |  | מֶעָּרד |

Remark 1.-In qal pf. this verb follows the strong type so far as the 2 nd pers. pl.; there according to rule the gutt. has a hatecf vowel instead of simple shewa. The original $a$ sound of the stem is in fact preserved by the presence of the gutt. Cf. Arabic naçartum, with Hebrew נְנִרְתֶּם.

So in the impf. we have יעֶ , with the original $a$ of the prefix; cf. yafqudu, with יִּקִ?. The hatef with the gutt. is due to the difficulty of sounding it without a following vowel. But verbs with $\Pi$ often dispense



In the first pers. the prefix $\mathbb{N}$ has softened to $\mathbb{N}$ as in strong verbs. The hatef of the gutt. is a mere echo of the former vowel.

Remark 2.--In נִמְשַׁל originally namshal, the $a$ of the prefix has been softened from $a$ to $e$, and then sharpened in the closed syllable to $i$. The gutt. of has maintained the $e$ sound before it; and its hatef is a sort of resonance from the seghol. Cf. the noun חֶלְקָה with ספְּרָה. The form is also common.

When new endings are given to such forms as .R. e.g., the pl. ', their latef becomes a full short vowel in the half-closed syllable which is then formed;



Remari 3.-When the first radical should by analogy be doubled, the vowel preceding it is lengthened; cf.


Remari 4.-When the tone shifts, e.g., when waw consec. is prefixed, $-\%$ are replaced by $\mp$; thus


Remari 5.-Stems omitted in this and other tables follow those of the strong verb.

## WEAK VERBS N"g.

Nָeat.
These have - for - before the tone. Farther off they have -; e.g., imper. אֲאֶל, pf. 2 sing. אֲבְלתֶּם.

A few verbs of this class vocalize $N$ with holem, in the impf. qal; e.g., אָמַר said, impf. אָמֵר 'יאֵֵל holem is from $\hat{\mathrm{a}}$, which arose from $\mathrm{a}+\boldsymbol{\kappa}$, the alef being absorbed by the vowel of the prefix ya.

With conjunctive accents, ('אמֵּ with pathah is used. With waw consecutive, and tone drawn back, both

 because it blends with the preceding vowel.

## 2. VERB y GUTTURAL.

1. In qal and nif. the gutt. has - instead of audible shewa ; לְחֲחָה she fought.
2. The impf. and imperat. qal have final pathah, not


3. In the intensive stems the vowel before the gutt. is modified; $i$ becomes $\bar{e}, u$ becomes $\bar{o}$. Thus for
 may be virtually doubled, and then hireq and qibbuç
 חרחה was pitied, provoked.

VERB 'AYIN GUT'TURAL.


## VERB LAMEDH GUTTURAL.

| Perf. sing. 3. m. | QAI. שַׁלַלֹה | NIF'LI. גִּיטּלַח | PI'EL. שִׁלִּ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3. f. |  |  | שׁׁלִלחה |
| 2. m. |  |  |  |
| 2. f. |  |  |  |
| 1. | שֶׁלֹלחתּתִּ | נִשְׁלְלִתִּתִּ |  |
| plur. 3. |  |  | שִלִלּ |
| 2. m. | שׁׁלֹחתּתם |  | שִׁלִחתּתםּ |
| 2. f. |  |  | שִלִלִתִתֶן |
| 1. |  |  |  |
| Infin. abs. |  | נִּשְׁלחֵ | טֵלֵה |
| constr. | \% |  | ח? |
| Imperat. sing. m. | - |  | - |
| f. |  |  |  |
| plur. m. | שִׁלְלחּ | דִּשׁלחוּ | שַׁלִּדוּ |
| $f$. |  |  |  |
| Imperf. sing. 3. m. |  |  |  |
| 3. f. | תִּשְׁלִח |  | תֶun |
| 2. m. | תִּשׁׁלַח |  |  |
| 2.f. |  |  |  |
| 1. | צֶשִׁלֵּ | אֶשׁׁלֵּ | - |
| plur. 3. m. |  |  | שַׁלִלחוּ |
| 3. f. |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{2}$. m. | תִּשְׁלֹדוּ | תִּשׁׁרֹתוּ |  |
| 2. f. |  |  |  |
| 1. | ִִִשְלִלח |  | - |
| Participlesact.and reflex. <br> , pass. | שׂלֵח | ִִּשִלדחה | ְְשׁׁלֵּ |
| Jussive |  |  |  |



## 3. VERB GUTTURAL. Mֻ่ sent.

1. After any long vowel but qamȩ̧, a rapid pathah is naturally sounded before a guttural; e.g., infin.

2. The imperat., infin. constr., and impf., have

 not go; :
 uttered between the final consonants, without however causing the $\curvearrowleft$ to be aspirated.


## WEAK VERBS ${ }^{\dagger}$ ".

נָנַשׁ approached, נָפַל fell.

1. After prefixes the weak nûn of these verbs assimi-
 can only maintain its ground when a full vowel follows it, as in pf. qal throughout, in infin. abs., and in piel, etc.
2. When an audible $\operatorname{sh}^{\circ}$ wa would follow it, the nun is often dropped; as for for for for fon , The infin. constr. has the fem. ending $\Omega$; e.g., תנחת , inf. (for תֶּנֶת tint); with gutt. נֶנְ
3. Verbs of this class which are also $y$ gutt. mostly
 they belong to the class ע gutt. (Exc. נָה נָחָם nif. of


Note.-The lamedh of took, in qal and hof. is




VERB PE NUN（í）

| Perf．sing．3，m． | qal． <br> נָּנֶׁ | nifial． <br> נִגּשׁ | hifisi． הִגִּישׁ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3．f． | נָּנְשֶה |  | הִגִּ | הַגְּשִׁה |
| 2．m． | etc．， |  |  |  |
| 2．f． | like |  |  |  |
| 1. | the |  |  |  |
| plur． 3. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Strong } \\ & \text { Verb. } \end{aligned}$ | נִגְשׁׁ |  |  |
| 2．m． |  | נַגְּשׁׁתֶּם |  |  |
| 2．f． |  |  |  |  |
| 1. |  |  | הִגְּ | הֻגַּשִׁנִ |
| Infin．abs． | נֶגוֹשׁ | הִנְגֹשׁ |  |  |
| constr． | 兄 | הִנְנֵּשׁ |  | התגְּשׁ |
| Imperat．sing．m． | שַׁ |  | הַגנּטִ |  |
| f． | \％ |  |  |  |
| plur．m． |  |  |  |  |
| f． | תַּשְ |  |  |  |
| Imperf．sing．3．m． | 边 |  | － | שַ |
| 3．f． | תִּתֶּ | תִּנִּנְּשׁ |  |  |
| 2．m． | תִּנגׁׁ | etc． |  | － |
| 2．f． |  |  | תהתגּ |  |
| 1. |  |  |  | אגֻ |
| plur．3．m． | ， |  |  | י1גִ |
| 3．f． |  |  |  |  |
| 2．m． |  |  |  |  |
| 2．f． |  |  |  |  |
| 1. |  |  | ַַגִּׁישׁ | 㐫 |
| Jussive |  |  |  |  |
| Participles act．and |  |  |  |  |
| refles． | נגֶש | ִִגְּשׁ | טִִַּּשׁ |  |
| pass． | נָגוּש |  |  | מִגָּשׁ |

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## VERB PE YODH ('日。



Infin. abs.
constr.

Imperat. sing. m.
f.
plur. $m$.
f.

Imperf. sing. 3. m.
3. f.
2. m.
2. f.
1.
plur. 3. m.
3. f.
2. m.
2. f.
1.

Participles act. and reflex. " pass.



(II.) Properly PE YODH (')

| Qat. | mifile |
| :---: | :---: |
| "טָּ | היִיטִיב |
|  | היטִּבִּ |


|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| etc., | הִיטַבתּנִ |
| like | היטֵיִ |
| the | ה- |
| StrongVerb. |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| - | היֵיֵּ |

הֵיִִיב


## WEAK VERBS "曰.

## יִטִב , יָּשִׁב good.

In most of these verbs the yodh seems to have succeeded an original waw; e.g., , In a very few the yodh appears to be primitive; as in
 of the first kind held its ground; thus
2. In the infin. and imperat. the weak letter is
 ביָּ $л$. Cf. verbs $\dagger$ " $\boxminus$. Sometimes the weak letter remains; as

The impf. also drops the.' (1), but deflects the hireq
 7 ?: or perhaps the prefix-vowel and blend in a diphthong ai which becomes é. Some forms maintain the weak letter, which then unites with the vowel of
 assimilate the 1st radical to the 2 nd ; תיָּ burned, impf.


3. The nif. נוֹשַׁב $=$ naw-shabh (aw $=\hat{o}$ ); so = hawshibh, הוּלַר = hŭwladh, הִיִִיב = hayṭibh.
4. The imperat. qal often has the cohort. ending
 accent drawn back to the penult; pl. הָהבו.
5. The few verbs really "פaluays have the infin.
 hif il keeps the initial yodh.
 with waw consec.

## 

(Hollow Verbs.)

## קוּ rising,

 keep waw and yodh firm as consonants: rested;
 $\eta^{W}$ Un tired. But in most cases contraction takes place; the weak letters either blending with preceding vowels or suffering rejection.

Note 1.-In this class also we find verbs with $a, e, o$,
 ashamed.

Note 2.-Here, as elsewhere in Hebrew, waw and yodh are much confused. Some verbs waver between

 the most numerous; and perhaps include many originally "צ. Cf. an opposite change in "
 The impf. with waw consec. is in qal in hif.

## VERB 'AYIN' WAW (ジ), and 'AYIN YODH (צ' (y).

| Perfect sing. 3. m. | $\begin{gathered} \text { QAL. } \\ \square ק \end{gathered}$ | NIF'AL. נָּ | MII'IL. הֵקים | $\begin{gathered} \text { ноғ'si. } \\ \hline \text { הוּקם } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3. f. |  |  |  | הוּוּקִּה |
| 2. m. |  | נְקוּמוֹֹוֹתָּ | תִּקִימוֹתוֹתוּ | וּיַּמְתָּ |
| 2. f. |  | נְקוּמוֹתוּתהת |  | וּקַּקִתְּ |
| 1. | \|קַמִתִּ | נִקוּמוֹתִת |  | הוּקַמְתִּ |
| plur. 3. | וֹ | נָקוֹמוֹ | הַקִימוּ | וּקוּמוּ |
| 2. m. |  | וֹגְוּוֹוֹתם | הדיקִימוֹתֶם |  |
| 2. f. | קַקִתֶ\| |  |  |  |
| 1. | קַpְגוּ | נִקוּמוֹנוּ | הִקִימוֹנוּ | תוּקַמְנוּ |
| Infin. abs. | קוֹם | הִקוֹם |  |  |
| constr. | קוּם |  | הָּקים | וּיֵק |
| Imperat. sing. m. | קוּ | הִקוֹסוֹס | הָקים |  |
| f. | קוֹמִי | הִקוֹוִֹי | הָקִיִיִי |  |
| plur.m. | קוּ | הִקוֹמוּ | הָקִימוּ |  |
| f. | קִקמִֵה |  | הָקֵּמְנָה |  |
| Imperf. sing. 3. m. | ויקוֹד | - יֶוֹ. | וָיִים | וּקוּם |
| 3. f. | תָקוּם | תִּ1וֹם | תָּקִים | תוּקַּ |
| 2.m. | תִּקוּ | - | תָּקִים | ת |
| $2 . \mathrm{f}$. |  |  | תָּקִיםּים | תֶּוּקְדִים |
| 1. | הקוּס | אֶקוֹם | אָקים | אוּקַם |
| plur. 3. m. | היקוּוֹרוּ |  | ויקָימוּ | ִיוּקוּמוּ |
| 3. f. | תִּקוּלִינָה |  | תָּקֵּמְנָּ | תּתוּקַּמְנָה |
| 2. m. | תָּקוּמוּ |  | תָּקִימוּ | תִּוּקוּוּ |
| 2. f. | תֶּקוּלֶינָה\| |  | תָּקֵּמִנְה | תוּקַּמְנָה |
| 1. | dap | נִקוֹם | נָקִים | גוּיקם |
| Participles act. and reflex <br> $"$ pass. | $\square \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{T}}$ | - | מֵקִים | מוּקָם |


|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Remark 1.-The perfect contracts by expulsion of waw or yodh; upon which the two short vowels of the stem coalesce into one long sound. $\quad$ pp results from a primitive qawam (qa-am, qâm); תn from mawith (ma-ith, maith, mêth); שill from bawush (ba-ush, baush, bôsh). In the 2 nd pers. the first vowel of the stem is also ejected. The curious 'בִּינוחת is mostly regarded as a shortened form from hiffil. But it may be that the chief (second) vowel of the stem is sounded before the second radical, and that the two coalesce; binôthi $=$ bayinothi. The ô is a trace of the old nominal ending of the stem.

In the imperat., infin. constr., and imperfect, the a, i , or u , of the stem sounds before the second radical, and the two unite in a prolonged vowel: אוֹ go! = baw',高 discern! = biyn, , rise! = quwm. So in the
 open syllable, has its vowel lengthened. has the


In the imperat. קְמְנָה the waw is dropped, and the short stem-vowel u modified as usual. So also in the jussive $\bar{p} \cdot \vec{p}$; which by retraction of the accent becomes


The participle $\underset{\square}{\square}$ is identical with the perf. 3 sing. Cf. nouns like קוּשָׁט. waw and first vowel being expelled.
 by sounding the second vowel before the waw; hence naqawm, năqôm, naqóm; qameç being due to the open syll. Or the holem may spring from $\bar{a}$ compensative for $w a$.

הקחקום infin. and impf. were originally lianqawam,
yahanqawam; becoming haqqa-am, haqqâm, hiqqom; yanqâm, yaqqâm, yiqqom, successively.
 $=$ = הקקן open syllable thus arising.

Remaric 3.-In nif. and hif. perf. the sound ifollows the stem before consonantal suffixes, as in verbs $y / \searrow($ to which refer). It is accented, and Kalisch calls it euphonic. But cf. on בִּינוֹתֵ Rem. 1 above. The hif.
 meqim.

Remark 4.-The pf. and impf. flexions $\overbrace{\tau}$, $\urcorner$,, , are unaccented. Thus

Remark 5.-The stems polel, polal, etc., formed by doubling the 3rd radical, $\quad$, quawmêm, are found as intensives in these verbs. Piel, pual, etc., are rare


Remark 6.-It may be that these verbs were originally biliterals; and that they owe what likeness they bear to the triliteral verb to the strong feeling for analogy, always at work in language, and ever striving to reduce peculiar or isolated growths to uniformity. In that case later results of this law of language.

## WEAK VERBS $y^{\prime \prime}$ ". (Double 'Ayin.) <br> סָבַב surrounded, in plundered.

1. These verbs often present contracted forms. Thus perf. 3 sing. masc. DַZ is thrown out, and the 2nd takes its place. No vowel is left between the 2 nd and 3 rd radicals, which therefore form but one sound, and are represented by one sign.

As soon as the word gains a new ending, the doubled letter is heard; as in 3 sing. fem.
2. Before a consonantal suffix the stem keeps the old nominative ending $\mathfrak{i}(=u)$, thus making the doubled letter distinctly heard, and preventing the meeting of three consonants: e.g., סִבּוֹתי. So a ' (=i) follows the stem in the imperat. pl. f., and impf. 2 and 3 pl . fem. (The ${ }^{\text {q }}$ may $=\bar{a}$; as in Arabic maddāta for madadta.)
3. The impf. is יפּב יָּבי. Here the stem vowel is uttered before the 2nd radical; and the prefix $y a$ forms an open syll., and therefore its vowel changes, as in the first form; or the first rad. is doubled to close the syll., as in the second form. In the latter case, the doubling is regarded as transferred from the final to the first radical; cf. יִּיְ." But sometimes both are doubled; cf.
 השְּבְּב, are explained by rules 1 and 3 . The 2 nd vowel of the stem is sounded before the 2nd radical, the two similar radicals coalesce, and the short vowel left in the open 1st syll. is modified.
5. The stems po el, po al, hithpo el, are often found in these verbs instead of the intensive piiel, etc.
6. The accent remains on the stem before the
 it rests on them. But the grave $\boldsymbol{\eta}_{\mathrm{Z}}$ are always accented.

Note 1.-Verbs with e, o as 2nd stem vowel are found in this class also; e.g., מְטֵם melted, nif. of רָּבּ shot, frometimes the imperat. and impf.
 for

Note 2.-Such forms as ing they are about devising,
 with the 2nd impf. qal. The accent being withdrawn from the penult, that syllable lost weight. So נָבְבְּה for .נָבּקָּ are relics of an older state of the language, when these


Note 3.-It must not however be forgotten that it is just as likely that all verbs were originally triliteral; in which case $\quad$ 갸, etc., would present examples of phonetic decay. The Assyrian said $-5 E$ cavanu or camanu for 1 ; and ca-am for ם. Cf. pp. 96, 97, Rem. 6.

Note 4.-The impf. with waw consec. is in qal


## VERB 'AYIN DOUBLED (y゙y).

|  | qal. |  | nifisl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perfect sing. 3. m. | Dַַ |  | נַבַ |
| 3. f. | סַּבּדּ |  | נִַַּבִּ |
| 2. m. | Dַַבּוֹתָּ |  |  |
| 2. f. | ַַּבּוֹת |  | נִסַּבּוֹת |
| 1. | סַַבּוֹתִי |  |  |
| plur. 3. | סַּבּוֹ |  |  |
| 2. m. | סַַּוֹתּתֶּ |  | נְסַּבּוֹתֶּם |
| 2. f. | סַּבּוֹתֶּ |  | נְסַבּוֹתֶּנוֹתן |
| 1. | ַַבּוֹנוּ |  |  |
| Infin. abs. | סֶבוֹב |  | הִםוֹב |
| constr. | ס0 |  | הפב |
| Imperat. sing. m. | סֹ |  | הִּפַּ |
| f. | סֶּדִי |  | חִסִִִִּ |
| plur. m. | סֶּ |  |  |
| f. | סַבֶּיָּה |  | הִּפַבֶּינָּ |
| Imperf. sing. 3. m. | ים: | \% | בַּ. |
|  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { (In Aram. } \\ \text { usual.). } \end{gathered}$ |  |
| 3. f. | תֶּנֹ | תּפֹֹב | תִּתִ |
| 2. m. | תָּתֹ | תחּסֹ |  |
| 2. f. |  | תִִִֶּי |  |
| 1. | אָּ | אטֹב | אַַּ |
| plur. 3. m. | " |  |  |
| 3. f. |  | תתּסֶּבְנָּ |  |
| 2. m. |  | תִּסִבּ |  |
| 2.f. |  |  |  |
| 1. | 1ֵטב1 | נִפֹב | נַֻב |
| Participles act. and reflex. | סוֹבֵ |  | נָסָב |
| , pass. | סִבוּב |  |  |


| is． | oris． | rotis． | cixi． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ר70 | רויפ2 | וֹוֹבת | ס1720 |
|  | דוֹher |  | סיצִבה |
| ， |  | טוֹבִבִּ | ס10 |
| גים Mn | דוּ |  | סוֹבִּת |
| ¢ |  | סוֹבִּ10 | וֹרנִ |
| （1） | הוֹלִּ | סוֹ⿻彐丨冖⿺⿻⿻一㇂㇒丶从女） | וֹ |
| רֶ0］ | הויִביתם |  |  |
| רִ |  | סוֹבִבּ10 | סיצבּ19 |
| רַphen |  |  | סיצְ |
| תֶּ | וּוּסב | סוֹצֵ | סוּנִ |
| 70 |  |  |  |
| רָת |  | סוֹבּב |  |
| ก10 |  | ִוֹדִבִ |  |
| תרּ |  | טוֹביבּ |  |
|  |  | 隹 |  |
| Aram．${ }^{\text {P\％}}$ | 209\％ |  | סוֹנִי＇： |
| Aram． | 吅： |  |  |
| ת | תיויסב | ， | \％ommen |
| 2 | תוּסִ） |  | \％ |
| 品 |  |  |  |
| In | אויס | － | Mox |
| 方， |  | ， | ס10 |
| תn |  | － |  |
| \％ | ת | 隹 | 隹 |
| nomm | תnּpiplen | n |  |
| 梼 | ניום2 | נִוֹנֵ | 10 |
| ي吅 |  |  | nomb |

## VERB LAMEDH 'ALEF



| priat. | mirits. | (rotici. | тrisisi. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \% | דרציא | תִּ | ת\%ens |
| ¢ | רִלִציָּ | ר- |  |
| ¢ |  | הרִ | תnen |
| תxsp | רד\% | הר | ראnmen |
|  |  |  | (1) |
| ¢ |  | \% | Tsumy |
| ¢ | רדיצאם | תרִ | דית\% |
| benme |  | \% | \%nxpm |
| 4nse | דיִצִx | \% |  |
|  | (1) |  |  |
| \% | T | תיקֶ | \% |
|  | NצP |  | Nyent |
|  | ה- |  | \% |
|  | Ton |  | ר |
|  |  |  | ר10 |
| \%p: | (10: | ¢יִצֵ: | Nצ¢0\% |
| Nym | x | Nymin | \% |
| \% | Nצ\% | \% | x |
| N\%m | \% | 隹 | \% |
| NRex |  | אn | (1) |
| Nup: | N\%: | 界 | Nym: |
| T- | Tink | - | T, |
| , |  | \% | Nxpmy |
|  | T- | ת- |  |
| נִבֶּ | ) | N | ניחִלִצִ |
|  | - |  |  |
|  | \% |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| ¢peren |  | N\% |  |

## WEAK VERBS <br> מָּ found.

In verbs of this class the chief differences are due to the coalescence of $\boldsymbol{N}$ with preceding vowels. The effect of this union is in most cases a corruption of those
 C̦eré is the vowel of 1 st and 2 nd pers. perf. in all stems but qal; and seghol of the impf. plur. fem. throughout; perhaps after the analogy of verbs $\mathrm{N}^{\prime \prime}$.

When a vowel directly follows it, the $\boldsymbol{N}$ maintains its weak consonantal force; as in ma-ço a. So with objective suffixes

Note.-A few verbs of this class have çeré (1) as 2nd vowel; witu hated.

Remark 1.-Waw consecutive does not throw the accent forward in verbs $\kappa^{\prime \prime \prime}$; thus וְמָצָּאתִי.

Remark 2.-The $\boldsymbol{\aleph}$ is sometimes omitted in writing;
 ה verbs. Their close connection is further seen from the intermisture of their forms in later, and in poetic writings; ל ל ל often taking the vowels, and sometimes the $ה$ and ' of $\boldsymbol{N}^{\prime \prime \prime}$; and occasionally vice versá.
$\boldsymbol{N}$ in place of $\boldsymbol{i}$ may be called an Aramaism.



The $i$ of these verbs is a mere vowel-sign, standing for qameç in the unpointed writing. Yodh or waw was the primitive 3 rd radical; which was dropped. Final à appears in all the perfs.; the impfs. end in $\Pi_{\vartheta}=\dot{e}$,
 forms almost wholly supplanted waw: the latter is seen



Remark 1.—The pf. 3 f. גָּלְתְה is a fuller form of the old ferm. הָּלָ, which occurs with the suffixes, e.g.,
 compare such nouns as עֶוְרָחָה ,צָּרָּתָה, and the Assyrian fem. 'ilatu, 'ilati, 'ilata, goddess.

Remark 2.-The constr. infin. גְלוֹת= glawat, glāt; a fem. form, like that of " $刃$ and $\dagger$ " $\#$ verbs.

Remark 3.-The ' of these verbs is firm in the pass. part. 名, and in the pausal forms and 3 sing. f.; יִגְּיֶּיוּ impf. 3 pl. m.

Remari 4.-Before objective suffixes the vowel-


Remark 5.-Waw consecutive with qal perf. does
 other stems, it throws the accent forward; as

Remare 6.-All the stems but pual and hof al have jussive forms: qal The old termination is dropped, and a euphonic vowel sounded where needful, as in the case of segholate nouns.
 hif. יִּרְבֵּ

Remari 7.-In Assyrian no distinction is made between verbs $\aleph^{\prime \prime \prime}, \pi^{\prime \prime} \zeta$, $1 / \zeta$, and "

On the other hand, verbs $\dagger^{\prime \prime} 9$ are not confounded with $\stackrel{>}{ } 9$, as in Hebrew.

VERB LAMEDH HE（ה）（ה）

Perfect sing．3．m．
3．f．
2．m．

2．โ．
1.
plur． 3.
2． m ．
2．f．
1.

Infin．abs．
constr．
Imperat．sing． m ．
f．
plur．m．
f．
Imperf．sing．3．ra．
3．f．
2．m．
2．f．
1.
plur．3．m．
3．f．
2． m ．
2．f．
1.

Participles act．\＆reflex． ＂pass．


PI＇EL． An
？
－
（1）
גְ
גְ
？
גֵּיֶּתם
גְִּּיתֶּ
？
Th
ת號
Th
葠
羂


תִּנגלּ

תn
Nַנַּלֵּ
？
חnּ
תִּנַּוּ

נִגְּלֶה
מְגְלֶה


## VERBS WITH TWO WEAK RADICALS.

These are such as Their special forms are determined by the peculiar weaknesses which as we have seen attach to certain radicals; and if the weak verbs already discussed be thoroughly mastered, no difficulty will be found in understanding these also. Each of them belongs, in fact, to two of the classes considered; ; and its inflexion includes some of the peculiarities of both classes. Me went, like qam, תָּ thou wentest, like maçatha. Often a verb belongs wholly to one class, though it may have two weak radicals: e.g., נוּס fleeing, is a verb $7 \%$, the 3 being firm throughout the inflexion.

## LIST OF COMMON IRREGULAR FORMS.





בּוֹא infin. entering; pf.












 of these forms imply a rt.
(וָדָה) יָדָה hif. speak, accost, own, praise, הוֹדָה; infin. c. הוֹדוֹת; imper. הוֹרו pl.; impf. אוֹדֶה, suff. אוֹרְה, once









 f. מוּצֵאת.







 נָהָה sprinkled, rul, and



 nif. נִתּת





 impf. אֶתְּ

 תּתִּתְ



רָעַy stirred, roused, maddened; enraged, wicked. Pf.


 to which יִירע might be referred.

## PARTICLES.

These are certain subordinate forms, originally nouns or else demonstratives, which serve to qualify expressions of thought, and to manifest their mutual connection.

The main words of the sentence receive the strongest
emphasis; subordinate words are liable to hasty utterance, as the speaker hurries on to the expression of the main ideas. Owing to this cause, and to their everyday use, which gives rise to the desire for brevity, subordinate words lose form, and display various stages of decay; some of them ceasing to exist as independent words, and always attaching to the words they qualify. In Hebrew there are three classes of particles, viz., adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions.

## ADVERBS.

1. Adverbs are particles which qualify epithets and descriptive words, i.e., adjectives and verbs. They also heighten or diminish the force of other adverbs. Their chief use is to modify predicates. Nouns are very commonly used for this purpose, both with and without prepositional particles. The former method hardly

2. Nouns thus employed without prepositions are in the objective state, whether they have or have not the old accusative ending.
 gratuitously, groundlessly, אָּ (hinn), and into om, as הֲ hither, from הֲ this, $=\omega^{\circ} \delta \epsilon$, huc.

Without the mimmation we have such forms as by night; cf. Ḍְּ' by day. This includes all instances

3. All nouns used adverbially must be regarded as in the objective state or case, even when without the distinctive ending. They may be substantives, as ${ }_{\text {Dive }}$ step, $=$

walks blamelessly; especially fem. forms, as and with the endings $\Omega-$, $n$, as hereafter;



The so-called infinitives of verbs, especially hif'il, often have an adverbial force, and must be reckoned here; e.g., = well ; הַרְבֵּ multiplying, = greatly, much.

Note.-Words thus used as adverbs often appear with their primary force as substantives: e.g., קְ very
 many trees; ; דְֶּּׁ causeless bloodshed.
4. Some adverbs are of demonstrative origin; e.g.,
 with ${ }^{-1}$ - of direction,



Nоте.-This h , like the article, assimilates the $ל$,
 Before gutturals, as virtually doubled (implied daghesh), the pathah is retained, when seghol is used, as הֶחרָשׁ. In other cases $\underset{\sim}{\text { Br }}$, the
 it fall?

## THE CHIEF ADVERBS.

1. Of place.

רחה behind.
אֵיה where? Takes suffixes.

## אֵּזֶּ

$"$

## אִ from where?

where?

אָּ whither？

הדלט hither．
hither，here．

הֹתָּ yonder！ultra．
İ here ；and
ה
יַּ
כ ere，hither（rarely）．
hither and thither．

מִחוּ outside，fris．
解 downwards．

above．מִּמַּטַל
מִתּחַת below．
．
מִשְׁם from there，thence．
eastward．
2．Of time．Some adverbs of place transferred；e．g．， םש่̣ then．
is then（past and future）．Cf．olim．
Sֵ of yore．

אַחֵּר afterwards．
אֶקֶשׁ last night．
אתמחוֹל yesterday．

today．
רהנהּ
טֶם not yet．

Dヤָּ by day．

at present，at that time（past or fut．）．
לְפִִָּ formerly．
תְהֵרָה soon，speedily．
מֶּרָ
，מִּמּחרָת


עֶוֹד again；yet； suffixes．
 עַדּ how long？

ジּ now．
צֶת
שִׁלְשׂׂם three days ago．
רָּ קִּ perpetually．
3．Manner．
in truth，profecto．2．nay rather， immo vero．
－

ך א，
אֵי suffixes．
． only（restrictive）．
※ૂnot，nē；$\mu{ }^{\prime}$ ．
אָּ in truth，verily．
א אֲ so，then；e．g．，who，then？tis motє； with intensive force．

K ow?
אֵפֶם no more, non amplius. "בְּאֶּ sine.
§N also, even; yea more.
not, poët.
בִּלְתֶּ with ? not ; negatives an infin. constr.; = so as not . . .
'Tִ with genit. '? enough.
also.
הריטּ
הרדבּהּ much.

יֶתֶר exceedingly.
כְ as, like. Poet. כְּמוֹ.
? . . Э as . . . so.
, כּ $\mathfrak{3}$, so, thus.
Mow much? how often?

ה ai not.
לִבְר alone, by self, with suffixes.
מִּאר greatly, strongly.

רִּמִּעַט almost, quickly.
רַבּ much, enough.

4. Of cause.
wherefore?
therefore.

עַל-מָה
על־בּן

## PREPOSITIONS.

These are particles which define the relations between nouns. Like adverbs, they are themselves nouns or pronouns in the objective state. The most common have been worn down to mere prefixes. The nouns in connection with prepositions are strictly in the genitive (as is clear in Arabic); and many prepositions indicate this by their form, which is that of the construct state. Like the nouns, many prepositions take suffixes.
2. To express relations with greater exactness, compound prepositions may be used. This follows from the fact that a noun in the constr. state may precede another in the same state: ecg., מעִ with me.
3. Many adverbs came to be used as prepositions also;


1. Prepositions denoting place.

אַהרֵ behind.

הצֶּ near; beside.

אוֹת (prefix marking the object of transitive verb) ; as to.
Mf in ,
Between.
within.
לְעִבֶר , דִּנֵבֶר beyond.
behind, after. Sià. around.
בּקֶקֶרֶ in midst of.
בּתּוֹּ
לִפִִי

לקְרִאת towards, to meet.
prom.
stour ards.
without
נַבֵח, before.
עֲרִ , עֲר (so far as) to.

מַּ
or around.
מִּתַחת ל ל Beneath.
Many of these forms may have or $\rangle$, or both pro-


2. Of time.

Prepositions of place also serve to mark relations of time: eng.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { צִחֵרֵי after. } \\
& 3 \text { in, on. } \\
& \text { before. } \\
& \text { from, etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

3. Of manner.

without.


בּדּרּ , according to.

路

解 in proportion to.
מִלְבֵּ
ye th.
Mn instead of.
4. Of cause.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { •ּ by, though. } \\
& \text { • } \\
& \text { on account of. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## CONJUNCTIONS.

These are particles which join clauses and sentences. They are (i.) coürdinate, i.e., those which connect independent sentences; (ii.) subordinate, those which connect dependent with principal sentences.

By origin many are adverbs and prepositions, which become conjunctions by the addition of ' ִּ or
 Some are pronouns, e.g., ’ִ that, because, etc.

Often the same word is used, sometimes as a preposition or adverb, sometimes as a conjunction: e.g.,拦 because of, and because, since; ; and in order that. . .; טֶ not yet, and before. Thus the same terms may serve to connect parts or wholes of speech.

## 1. Coordinate Conjunctions.

I and. (Also couples subordinate clauses.) Perhaps



Before a letter with shewa, or a labial, it becomes ${ }^{9}$, ;וּרְי, commonly the vowel is indistinct, e.g., וְקָבוּ, If the sound ? follow, the two shewas coalesce as usual in
 the impf. becomes $!$, and the following letter is doubled;
e．g．，（Perhaps the second 1 of $\overline{17}$ וָּקְק is here assimi－ lated；wawyifqodh becoming wayyifqodh；wawtifqodh，
 pathah in the toneless closed syll．）
＂N or．
אוּלָם on the contrary．
取 but．
下N also．
－ִִּ
אֶָּּ only that，nevertheless．

ם דִּ but．
2．Subordinate Conjunctions
，

ֵ so that not，lest．
■

苞 because，since．
ự wille．

כust as．


לְמַעַן אֲשֶׁר in order that．
מִּ as often as ．．．
until．
עַּר אִם
畀lest．


## INTERJECTIONS.

Besides mere emotional cries, not referable to roots, a few nominal and verbal forms are used as interjeclions, eeg.,

O
אָקן be it so!
nome! age, agate!
No silence!
 laps like 's $\tau$ ò $\beta \alpha \dot{\alpha} \alpha \alpha \theta \rho \nu)$.
אלֹת do not, pray!

## PART III.

SYNTAX.

## OF WORDS IN SENTENCES.

Syntax means arrangement or construction of words and clauses, so as to form sentences.
2. A simple sentence is the expression of a complete thought or judgment. A judgment involves (i.) somewhat about which one thinks, and (ii.) something thought about it.

That about which one thinks is called the subject; that which is thought about it is called the predicate. The subject may be a noun (or its equivalent) or even a whole clause; such also may the predicate be, but most commonly it is a verb. Of particles some serve to show the connection between thought and thought (conjunctions), some enter into the composition of the subject or predicate (prepositions), and others modify the meaning of either, as adverbs.
3. The verb is strictly a descriptive word; it tells something about some other thing (the subject); and therefore cannot itself be used as subject.
4. The laws of agreement between subject and predicate, and between their constituent nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs, are the same for Hebrew as for other languages. For certain exceptions mostly due to the sense or idea overriding the form of expression, see below.

## ORDER OF THE WORDS IN A SEN'TENCE,

## Natural and Emphatic.

1. The natural order in Semitic, as distinct from Aryan speech, is first the subject, then the predicate:
 : and Qáyin became a tiller of ground.

Note.—N, הוֹ, etc., often serve as copula:

 not a copula, but originally meant fell, then befel,

2. If the predicate is made up of a transitive verb and its object, the latter comes next to the verb, and is followed by any adverbial extension of the predicate, if there be such: וְהוֹרַרְתֶם אֶת-שֵּבְתִי בְּיגוֹן שְׁאוֹלָה and ye will bring down my gray hair in sorrow to the underworld.

Note.-A pronoun with prefix is inserted between
 fasten the plague upon thee!
3. This order is constantly broken from the desire to
 Jaluxè sent; מִיְדי תְבְקְשֶׁנָּה it was from my hand that thou requiredst it. For the most part the predicate is regarded as the chief member of the sentence, and therefore precedes; especially when it is a verb

 and upright (is) Jahuè. . saying. The emphatic adverbs אֲ, לא, are commonly expressed before the verb: לֹא תרְצֵּ thou shalt not kill.
4. This feeling for emphasis may further cause repetition of the subject, the verb, or the object. The subject may be virtually repeated by means of a pronoun: אֲנִי בִּצֶדֶק אֲאֶחֶה תָּנְיך for me, through justice I behold thy face. And so in the case of the object, which may be expressed before the verb, and repeated after it
 strangers eat it up. An emphatic verb may have its abs. infin. before or after it: מוֹת die! A suffix may be strengthened by the full pronoun; אָּ ָּבָּ זְדָרם גַּם even their memory is lost. בִּי־אִנִי הֶעֶּן

## PRONOMINAL WORDS AND FRAGMENTS.

A. The particle הַ, which only appears as a prefixed
 הלחלי, etc.) was at first a strong demonstrative, $=$ this, that: e.g., הַַַּעַם this time. Cf. Ges. 31. 43. It also had the force of a relative, as in הָּדָּאָה (the men) who went. But its finally prevalent use was as a weak demonstrative, $=t h e$.

In the last named sense it is employed as in English to make a noun definite, that is, to mark an object as already known or mentioned, or as being the only one of its kind.

Nouns otherwise defined, e.g., proper names and nouns in construction, do not take the article, which marks things
(a) As generally known: thus thou hast anointed my head uith oil. So with the name of a class of beings (generic use), הָעוֹח , הָהָה mankind
 in
( $\beta$ ) As already mentioned: דָאר be light! . . . and God saw the light.

 article or following genitive is a proper name, God).

It may accordingly restrict some class-name to an individual, by way of distinction: הַגָּהָ , the river $=$ Prath, Euphrates: הַשָׁטְ the foe = Satan.

Proper names which were originally epithets mark this by taking the article: הַּלְבָּוֹן the white = Lebanon.

The article is used with a common noun when in the rocative state, thus marking it as definite:
 dwellest in heaven!

Note 1.-The article is never indefinite; wherever it appears to be so used a reason must be found for its presence: e.g., 1 Kings 20. 36, "so thou art going from
 ( $=$ the lion of my vision, the prophet's memory giving life to his words); or (as Gesen.) the well-known enemy.
 the raven . . . the dove: i.e., the raven and dove so well known from their part in this story.

Note 2.-The article is less usual in poetry than in prose.

In a sentence the subject if expressed, and not a proper name, takes the article, and is thereby kept distinct from the predicate: : הָאִּשׁ טוֹב the man is good. If the subject is made up of two nouns in construction, the first cannot, the second may have the article: אַנְשֵׁ


So also a noun defined by a suffix does not take the article; nor does a noun defined by a relative (adjectival) clause; e.g., אֲנְשִׁם אֲשֶׁר אִּתוֹ the men that were with $\lim =$ sui, his men..

If a noun be defined by the article or a suffix, its adjective or demonstrative will have the article:
 high rock ( צוּרִ my rock is high).

Note.-Sometimes the predicate must be defined by the article, especially when the subject is a pronoun: I אֲנִי הַצָּנִיר $I$ am the youngest.
B. The personal pronouns, as already stated, sometimes link subject with predicate: אַתָּה־הוּא רָאֶלחִים thou art


If the subject is itself a pronoun, no link is needed:
 often make up the subject of a sentence with a participle for predicate: : a a form ye beheld not!
2. They are omitted unless emphatic, or unless the subject is compound, in which cases they must be expressed: for the latter, cf. תִּשְׁמר אַּתּה וּבָנֶּך thou and thy sons must give heed. So if the object of a verb be emphasized, the personal pronoun may be used as well

3. The demonstrative before a genitive is not ex-
 he hath set my feet like (those of) hinds.
4. When a verb takes two accusatives, the nearer object is expressed by the suffix, the farther, by 'אוֹ, etc.: :וְהרִאֵני אֹתחת and he may show me it.
5. In Hebrew relative clauses are treated as coordinate; and although often introduced by often without that connective particle. (یֻׁ, like ös, was demonstr. before it became relative.)
6. To whom, by whom, etc., are expressed by ?, 3 , $i, \pi s$, with suffixes, and in prose usually preceded by

 different: to them antecedents must be supplied, to him, or those who . . ., etc. Thus, the field must go back to the man from rhhom he bought it. remenioer him whom thou hast proroked. Sometimes place, time, etc., are implied: sojourn in the place where thou mayest. and the sun rose on lim when he passed.
7. The relative clause is very often merely put side by side with the principal clause,
(1) When the relative is the subject of its clause, and
 like a whelp (which) is eager for the prey. If the antecedent has the article, poetry.
(2) When the relative is objective: וַיִּל בְּשַׁחַת יִּבְעָל and he hath fallen into the pit he maketh! (Here the English use coincides.)
(3) When the antecedent is an omitted pronoun:
 is) no strength?

## SYNTAX OF THE NOUN.

1. Nouns are (i.) substantive, i.e., names of existing things (substantia); (ii.) attributive or adjectival, i.e., words expressing attributes or qualities of substances. The two kinds were not of old so sharply distinguished as in later times, and they do not in Hebrew differ in
form from each other. Words which were once names of beings possessing certain qualities came in time to be employed as mere epithets of other nouns. Thus in Latin bonus identical in form with dominus was originally a concrete noun ; and so bona.
2. A noun expressing quality is (i.) put in apposition, i.e., spoken or written side by side with the noun which it qualifies, the latter as the main word taking the first
 by use adjectival, the two will be of the same number
 not be so; as אֲמְרִים אֶמֶּת true words, lit., words truth;
 tongue (that is) guile; מִשְְּׁנוֹת מִבְטֵחִים secure abodes.
(ii.) The qualifying noun may be in the genitive after the other; and this construction is very common, as not many Hebrew nouns came to be regarded as strictly adjectival; e.g., פְ grassy meadows, lit., meadows of grass; ; הַר קְרשִׁׁ my holy hill, lit., hill of my holiness;
 and lofty stronghold, the fastness of the height of thy walls; calm waters, waters of repose; מִי מִנוּחוֹת a fer a few years, years of number; בְּלֹהָאָדָ all mankind (whole of . . .). So we may express material adjectives
 golden idols. Sometimes the qualifying word precedes: ' בּרַק הַרְבִּ my fashing sword (lit., lightning of my sword). So probably in incin lis lofty stature (gaboah = altum, a noun).
 בַּ daughter, שִּ man, are used in construction with

the horned ram; ; ָָּלֹבַּעַל בָּנָּ every winged thing (owner of wing); האשֶׁת הַּעֶלַת אוֹ a divining woman (mistress of
 a man a hundred years old. שֶׁנָּ a fertile hill. Instead of a negative epithet, $\mathcal{K}$ or $\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{K}$ with a noun

 countless.

Note. 1.-Nouns which are of common gender, e.g., ל, הָ, will have masc. or fem. adjectives, according to their meaning. But those which like are of one gender though used of either sex (epicenes), will have adjectives of their own gender only.

Note 2.-The feminine as the weaker gender is mostly used of things without life; and so in place of a neuter:
 etc., as adverbs, semel, multum, etc.

## NUMBER.

1. The plural is used to express greatness and kindred notions (plur. excellentix, or intensive pl.): אֵלהּ God,
 kings, etc., say we. The predicates and epithets of such nouns may be singular, according to the meaning, or plural, according to the form of the expression.
 tense light, noonday.
2. Dual names of bodily members have plurals, which however are used of natural or artificial objects resembling them: יָּדידָ Mands, axles, arms (of a chair),

3. Material substances regarded as wholes, such as
wood, wine, metals, are mostly singular only. Their plurals denote portions of them: שִׁערִים, צֵצִּם, וְהָבִּם, $\square \stackrel{\square}{\square},=$ pieces of gold, logs, grains of barley, of wheat.
4. The plural form also marks extension in space and
 youth: : $\boldsymbol{ְ}$ : age: it is also used of habits, states, etc., conceived as lasting: אیֵמוּנים faitlfulness.
5. When an idea expressed by two closely connected nouns has to be made plural, (1) the first noun only may

 לוּחוֹת אֲקִנִים tablets of stone; (3) the second only may be plur.: : בֵּ a families.

## STATES OF THE NOUN.

Subjective, Objective, Possessive, etc.

1. The apparent subject of the sentence is sometimes preceded by אֵת , usually the mark of the object: את
 such cases is thought by Kalisch to be a demonstr. $=$ that.
 with all that he has, look different. The passive verb is impersonal, and the object of the act which it denotes is marked by the accusative.

But even the first named instance may perhaps be explained in like manner, much as $\tau \dot{\alpha} \zeta \widehat{\omega} \alpha \tau \rho \epsilon ́ \chi \epsilon \iota=$ there is running as regards the animals, so 'Eth habbarzél nafál, etc., may be, there was falling as to the iron: the accusative marking the scope of the action represented impersonally. Cf. Cic. veretur me $=$ ego vereor.

Some cases may be assumed to involve a change of
construction, the writer beginning with the object uppermost in his mind, but adding a verb in the passive.
2. The nearer object of a transitive verb is marked by the particle N , if it be a noun defined by the article, by a following genitive, or by a clause. Otherwise the object is known only from the sense.

Note. - Many exceptions to this rule occur. In poetry אֵ is not much used.

As to its origin, it is probably a noun in the accusative, $=$ Assyrian 'attu, and meaning existence.
3. The accusative is used very freely to mark adverbial limitations of place, time, manner, etc.; thus defining the scope of preceding verbs and nouns.
(a) Of place: answering the questions whither? (rarely) where? וְצָא הַּשָּרֶה and go forth into the field.
 door of the tent.
 the altar, a block three cubits high.

Hence nouns expressing number, quality, and the like, may be limited by accusatives following: אַרְָּּנָה four in number: so тò $\pi \lambda \bar{\eta} \theta$ os $\pi \epsilon \nu \tau a \kappa \iota \sigma \chi i ́ \lambda \iota o \iota:$隹 a seä in four.
(b) Of time: answering when? how long? hodie,
 three days.
(c) Of manner: e.g., $\overline{\mathcal{Z}}$ confidence $=$ confidently; y רֶ a wink = suddenly. This use is very extensive, and includes many instances where the noun in the accusative marks the instrument; as ane mescue with thy sword! תֶרֶב תְּאְְּּוֹו by the sword shall ye be devoured!

Notre.-In some of these cases it might seem more natural to employ a preposition; e.g., 3 to express the instrument: but it must not be forgotten that prepositions are themselves nouns in the accusative, used adverbially to mark the relations of nouns in sentences.

The accusative is, in fact, broadly used to express any limitation whatever of the action denoted by the verb. Hence it is emphatically the adverbial case.

The following verbs take a local accusative.
(a) Verbs of rest, as
 the doorway of the tent. But prepositions are usual in plain prose, except with a few words like ששׁעַר, פֶּתָה, בֵּת , gate.
(b) Verbs of motion, as came, went went oun w
 they went forth from the city.

The following have an accusative of the material.
(a) Verbs of covering, clothing, surrounding, as עָּטָה,

 rounded (nif.). מהֵ with splendour clad.




Many verbs take a cognate accusative, i.e., an accusative of a noun akin to the verb in form or meaning; e.g., צָדָָה .


So too verbs of flowing, pouring, dropping, etc.

נָטֵָּ, fowed dropped, stillavit,

The following take a double accusative.
The causative and factitive stems of verbs which in the simple stem have one accusative: e.g., מלִל filled, הִלִבישׁ givded, etc. ( $a$, above); and verbs of making, giving, planting. הַמְאוּרַרִי חִילּל he who girds me

 messengers.

Lastly, to the direct object may be added an accusa-

 smitten all my foes on the cheek. Perhaps הִקִּן , יָדי וְרַגְלָּי they beset me, like a lion, my hands and my feet. Cf. אֵשׁוּרֵנוּ סְבָבוּדוּ

Note.-A verbal substantive, in which the idea of action is prominent, may take an accusative of the object: as like God's overthrowing Sodom. Cf. Latin quid tibi meam tactio est?

The possessive state of a word is marked by the construct state preceding : בִּישְׂרָּ the sons of Yisra'el.

Instead of making two possessives depend on a single construct state, the word in st. constr. may be repeated;
 understanding, and of counsel and might. Cf. Is. 36. 17.
 reproach, and insult. And instead of allowing two construct states to precede the same possessive, the second of two nouns preceding another in the possessive is
spoken with a suffix: בִּנֵי הָאִּשׁ וּבְנוֹתָּו the sons and daughters of the man.
'The possessive may also be expressed by the prefix
 ? part of the field of Bo'az.

The idea of part is suggested by prefixed אֶחָ מֵהֶם : צן one of them.

The construct state followed by a genitive also covers most meanings included under the genitive in other languages: thus it may mark an objective genitive:花 fear of Jahwè, i.e., felt towards Jahwè; ?קנִאַת עָּם anger at the people. So wrong to me, as well as wrong by me. ?ְְפְצְעִי for my wounding = for wounding me. Or a genitive of reference; ; i.e., pardoned, in respect of guilt (cf. $\tau \bar{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \iota o s ~ \tau \hat{\eta} s \dot{\alpha} \rho \epsilon \tau \hat{\eta} s)$.


 abandoned of men ( $\alpha \nu \theta \rho \dot{\omega} \pi \omega \nu \dot{\alpha} \pi о \lambda \epsilon \lambda \epsilon \mu \mu \epsilon \in \nu o s)$. Or of




 (of) shields.

The construct state may precede

 weaned from milh. (Prepositions being nouns in constr. st., this presents no difficulty.) So (trusters in
 salem) drunken but not with wine!
(ii.) Relative clauses with or without מִקוֹם אֲשֶׁׁ
 אהדִירֵ ; the noble in whom is all my love. A temporal clause is very commonly added in this way as a genitival phrase: דבּיוֹנ הִּיל יהוה in the day when (of) Jahwè
 to guard me.

As marking any sort of close connection, the construct state may also precede
 causelessly.
(2) A noun with waw of union: חָּכְמַת וָרַַת wisdom and knowledge ;
(3) Another construct state, with which it is in apposition: בִּתוּלַת בַּתצִין the maiden, the daughter of Zion. (Cf. אֵשֶׁת בֵּעַלַת אוֹב supr.)

Here בַּת river Euphrates, and צָּ צְוֹר a rock, stronghold, which present appositive or explanatory genitives.

Note 1.-Expressions like differ from the above. The second word here denotes the class to which the thing named by the first word belongs. (jading is used as a neut. collect. noun.)

Note 2.-To the above add cases like עַד אַחַד לֹא נֶעְדָּר till not one was left behind ; לִאחדר אֶחָך one by one.

Note 3.-Apposition is sometimes preferred to the state of construction: as in אֶלדֶים צְבָאוֹת. This is probably a shortened expression for God (the God of) hosts. Cf. אֵירִים צֶמֶר


## MEANS OF EXPRESSING COMPARISON.

1. There are traces of a special form of comparison,
 is regular: e.g., hăsănŭn, beautififul, 'ahsănŭ, more beautiful, kabîrun, great, 'akb̆̆rŭ, greater.

But in Hebrew the prep. precedes the second noun: e.g., מָתוֹק מִדִבּשׁ sweeter than honey.

Sometimes the adjective is omitted, and sometimes a pronoun also: their idols were more numerous than those of Jerusalen.
$\rho$ is also used after verbs whether stative or active;


 too tortured to listen.
2. The superlative is marked by prefixing the article, which implies that the subject is preëminently the owner of the quality ascribed by the adjective. אָחיו הַגָּרול his eldest brother. The article is of course omitted before a genitive : e.g., קְ קטטוֹן בָּנִיו his youngest son.

The superlative may also be thus expressed: הַיָּקָה



 Cf. Jon. iii. 3, and see Cheyne's Notes on Is. xxxiii. 7.

## THE NUMBERS.

The cardinals (except one) being all nouns, may be connected with other nouns as follows:

1. They may precede them (a) in the st. constr.; e.g.,

(b) In the absolute state: שִׁבְעָה שֵׁבָּ seven (in) weeks, where the second noun is an accusative of limita-

2. In later Hebrew the number sometimes follows


Note.- Wֶ generally follows its noun as an adjective; butsometimesprecedesin st. constr.asif itselfa substantive.
3. מאָה a hundred, is used in the above three ways: the remaining hundreds and thousands in the first two of them; and when these numbers precede them the nouns given under the next rule remain singular.
4. The compound numbers from 11 to 19 precede the noun, though they sometimes, and especially in later books, follow it. אַרְבַּעֹעֶשְּרֵה שָׁנָּ fourteen years.

After these numerals
remain in the singular.
5. The tens from 20 to 90 often follow the noun which then must be plural:

So also when they precede, except in the cases given under the last head, and a few others like them; e.g., אַרְבָּעִים לַיְלָה forty nights.
6. Compounds of tens and units follow the noun, שיׁרִים
 sixty-two years. Sometimes the noun is

7. Beyond ten, cardinals may be used in the sense of ordinal numbers. The noun may precede in the construct state, or follow in the absolute.

In expressing dates, cardinals may be used without exception : בְּאֶחָּ לְחֹדֶשׁ on the first of the month.

Note 1.—Sometimes nouns like אֵיפָּ, etce, which are names of weights and measures, are omitted, though the numeral follows their gender: e.g.,


Note 2.-The article is used with the numerals when they stand alone, if they refer to subjects already known or mentioned. It may also be prefixed to the noun when the numeral in st. constr. precedes.

## THE VERB.

The states of the verb do not directly fix the time of an act or affection. What they mark is its kind or character, as regards completeness or the contrary. The time is gathered from the general sense.

## USES OF THE PERFECT.

The perfect marks an act or state as complete.

1. In the past, remote, recent, or indefinite (Greek
 the heavens. הַאת thy voice I heard in the
 self against him, and remained whole?
N.B. Sometimes (as in the case of the Greek aorist)
 now Rahel had taken the house-gods.


 become two armies. Cf. ö ${ }^{\prime} \lambda \omega \lambda \alpha, \tau^{\prime} \notin \nu \eta \kappa \alpha,{ }_{\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \alpha \gamma \alpha$, etc. The act attained to completion in the past, but this is known only from the sense. Its results reach into the

[^0]present, and on them lies the chief stress. This will
 ber (memini), הָה he loves, שָׁנֵ he hates (odit), and many other perfects marking a permanent condition (statives).

Hence it is used in putting general truths, customary
 the dark. The act is regarded as a perfected trait in the unjust man's character.
 $\lambda \epsilon \cdot \sigma \theta \eta$; and the pf. in a similar sense.
3. In the future; the act being regarded as certain to happen:
(a) In stating promises, resolves, decrees, etc. ? ? ?㪟 to thy seed will I give this land.
(b) In prophecy (the prophetic pf.): ( for there is born to us a son.
N.B. Sometimes we may render by the future-perfect tense, i.e., when the perfect is used of a future act completed before another act also future: וֹמוֹלִרְּק אִשֶׁר
 have begotten after them, shall be thine own.

In suppositions the perfect is used in both clauses to mark that neither the condition nor its result was realised.



An unrealised wish may be expressed by 1 bith the protasis alone: לוּ מַחְנו O that we had died! lit. if we had died (sc. all had been well). So $\epsilon \mathfrak{\gamma}$ 六 $\rho$ c̈ध $\theta \nu \epsilon s$.

## THE IMPERFECT.

A. This form essentially marks incompleteness. Hence it is used of acts or states which are leginning
to be realised, just upon happening, or in process and on the road to completion.

It shows the act as it were in movement, and going on before our eyes, whereas the perfect represents the act as achieved, ended, perfected, and so in a state of rest.

Clearly an act may be regarded in this light, whatever its date, past, present, or future.

1. A past act may be viewed as incomplete, whether
 house began to fill with smoke.
(b) As in process of happening: אַעֲלֶּה אֶחְבֶם מִמִּצִרִים I brought you up from Egypt. This impf. calls up a picture of the action while in course of performance.

Note.--These picturesque uses of the imperfect belong chiefly to poetry and declamation.
 shadows are beginning to lengthen.
 whither art thou going?
B. The impf. often bears a frequentative or iterative sense. An event that is beginning or just about to take place is likely to recur: onk hath been is what will be.
(a) Impf. of repetition or frequency in the past:
 momently I watered it.
 bending the bow.
(c) Hence in the statement of truths which hold at
 does a trap spring up from the ground without surely catching?

Note.-Such an impf. expressing a general attribute may follow a noun as a sort of descriptive epithet: and I go a journey without return. Cf. irremeabilis unda.
C. The idea of beginning, going to be, is wide enough to cover (a) that of must, or is destined to be, тò $\mu$ é $\lambda \lambda o \nu$, (b) that of may be, or possibility, permission, etc.
(a) houses of hewn stone ye have built, but ye shall not dwell in them! Of the past: had Abner to die a craven's death?

Hence the impf. often expresses a simple future; and with you will wisdom die.
(b) אֵanter. I have spoken thou mayest


Hence in commands, positive and negative: שִׁבְעָה
 wishes (for which two derived forms are commonly used, see below).

The impf. as marking possibility is naturally used where we might employ the subjunctive, i.e., the mood expressive of contingency, uncertainty, etc. אֲת אֲשֶׁר



Especially after particles denoting purpose, conse-
 remember the day of thy going forth.
 serve Him?

## THE VOLUNTATIVE,

or Jussive and Cohortative forms of
the Imperfect.

1. The jussive strictly marks possibility, contingency, and so permission; but came to be used mainly in com-
 לאִּישׂ Jahwè cut off the man! negatives the jussive: let not a man be seen!
2. The cohortative emphasizes a wish, request, or
 thy wonders! הָבָה נִלְבְּנָה לְבֵנִים come, make we brick!


Note 1.-The imperfect includes these meanings, and is used when a voluntative form is wanting, and sometimes when such a form exists.

Verbs $\aleph^{\prime \prime \prime}, ה^{\prime \prime} \zeta$, hardly ever have the cohortative ending; while the jussive form is almost confined to the hif il of strong verbs, and to verbs $1 " y, \cdots \neq 1$. Neither form appears before suffixes.

Note 2.-In poetry the jussive often occurs, where a mere impf. might seem more natural: "Jahwè trieth (impf.) the just; but the wicked and the lover of wrong
 rain forked lightnings on the wicked!" A turn expressive of personal interest is thus given to narrative. Sometimes the impf. with strong waw precedes or follows: and he floated on the wings of the wind. He made darkness his covert!
 didst forget: and wast unmindful of God. Perhaps such cases involve omitted ( $\cdot \mathfrak{9}$ ).
3. The voluntative with prefixed waw (!) marks purpose or consequence: thou cravest not sacrifice, so that I should give it. So the common impf.: הָבִיאָה וְנִשִׁתּתה bring, that we may drink!

To mark a negative result $\mathcal{K}$, not wust be used, but with the ordinary impf.

Note 1.-An imperative emphasizes the purpose:
 people, that thou mayest become a blessing.

Note 2.-This waw (weak waw) is pointed thus:



## IMPERFECT WITH STRONG WAW ( $(\cdot), 1)$,

## or Waw Conversive.

1. In relating a series of past events, the Hebrew prefers to use impfs. with waw conversive, rather than perfects with weak waw (!) prefixed. This is because each event of the series is regarded, not as an isolated whole, but as springing out of its antecedent. The point emphasized is not that the event is past, but that it is nascent from its forerunner. Thus the idea of incipience, leginning to be, in consequence of something that preceded, is what this mode of expression originally denotes.

Note.—"Waw conversive" must be understood to mean conversive of the aspect under which the action is conceived; i.e., as imperfect and nascent, rather than as perfect and mature. Waw consecutive is another, and in many respects a better name.
2. An event connected by this construction may have
 so Jona rises and goes to Ninevé: or (2) as its effect;
 the sun strikes on Jona's head, so that he becomes faint: (3) or it may be thus coupled by way of contrast: I have seen God, and yet my life escapes.
(4) Or an event may be so connected with what precedes, merely because the writer thinks of it next.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ִִּי מִן }
\end{aligned}
$$

And she called his name Moshè (Drawer), and said, From the water I drew him. Cf. Is. 37. 2, 3, 5; 38. 9, 21, 22.

## USES OF WAW CONVERSIVE OF IMPF.

1. Of purely past events: this is the general usage. Cf. the given examples.

וַיִּ narrative then proceeds by $\cdot \underline{1}$ with impf.
and it happened at the end of forty days that Noah opened the
 etc. Or a bare specification of time may precede the
 in the year of the king's death I saw . . .

Sometimes the narrative proceeds by the perfect
 used, but separated from the verb, as in and it happened on the seventh day that the waters of the flood came to be upon the earth.
2. Of events with results reaching to the present, and ending there, as


Jahuè the Lord is my strength, And hath made my feet like the hinds.
Or going beyond it; as

Jahwè sate at the flood, And Jahwè sitteth on . . . a king for ever.
3. Of general truths: whether a pf., impf., or particip., precede:
 roar. Cf. Ps. 29. 6.
4. Of an action which begins in the present: כַּ עַּתָה
 faintest.
5. Of an act or event still future. Like the perfect so used, it represents the future fact as certain: בִּן יִל
 us, and the sovranty shall be upon his shoulder.

Note 1.-In the prophetic and poetic styles the impf. with weak waw (!) or without waw is sometimes found where waw conversive ( $\cdot$ ! ) might have been expected:
 (and urithed).

Note 2.-If in this construction the impf. be of the cohortative form, it further expresses the interest felt by the speaker or writer in the facts mentioned, the ending $7-$ being intensive. Cf. Job 19. 20.

Note 3.-Often the impf. with waw conversive looks like a jussive, and often its tone is drawn back: e.g.,
 be seen in the heavy prefix ${ }^{1}$, which lightens the end of the word by attracting the tone, or by rejection of a weak final consonant.

## THE PERFECT WITH WAW CONVERSIVE.

This construction, the exact opposite of the last, regards an event still incomplete as conditionally complete.

The waw links the new event to another preceding it which is also incomplete; and the perfect calls attention to the fact that if the antecedent be realised, in that case ( $?=$ then, so) the following event, which is viewed as its necessary consequence, will inevitably attain to completeness.

## 

A prophet will I raise up for them, And I will put my words in his mouth, And he shall speak to them (or, that he may, etc.).
Here the two contingent events expressed by ונתת, ורבו, are regarded as having actually achieved completion, seeing that they will surely occur in due sequence to the event expressed by נביא אקים. The accent or tone is thrown forward in this construction, just as in the impf. with waw conv. it is sometimes drawn backwards.

## USES OF THE PERFECT WITH WAW CONVERSIVE.

1. After an imperfect.
(a) As a future. Cf, the example just given.
(b) As a jussive or cohortative. יהי מְאֹרוֹ . . וְהָיּי לְאֹתֹת be there lights . . . and be they for signs.
 and a mist used to rise from the earth, and water . . .
(d) In connection with an impf. introduced by various causal, temporal, final, hypothetical, and interrogative
 say...
2. After a form equivalent to an impf., e.g., a prophetic pf., an imperative, or an infinitival clause. An
 An infinitival clause: until I come and take you.
3. When a participle or an infinitive expresses something quite general or indefinite, it may be succeeded by the perfect with waw. (When they express single
 whoso smiteth a man that he die. מַמבּה אִּשׁ וַיָֹּת would be he who smote a man so that he died, referring to an individual case.
4. Waw with the perfect may introduce the apodosis: if a case be too hard for thee... then thou shalt rise and go up . . ( A very common use.)
5. Lastly, waw with the perfect naturally came to be used by itself as equivalent to an imperfect : וְיָּה בְּאָחרִיח ם it shall happen in the after times. Cf. Ps. 25. 11.

Note 1.-It has been said that the accent is thrown forward (milra) in this construction.

But (1) to avoid the meeting of two accented syllables, the tone may be drawn back, e.g.,
send fire; or maqqef may throw the accent on a following word.
(2) The accent recedes in the pause: beris.
(3) The 1 pers. plur. of all stems, and the hif. 3 f . sing. 3 plur. in all verbs; the 2 f . sing. of verbs 7 gat.; and the qa and nifeal of $y^{\prime \prime \nu}, Y^{\prime \prime y}$ forms in $)^{4}, \pi_{\tau}$ (often otherwise), are accented mil'el.

Note 2.-The remarkable construction of waw conversive is peculiar to Hebrew. In the older books sometimes, and more often in later books, the perfect occurs with weak waw, attached to another perfect. This growing disuse of waw conversive may be traced to the influence of Aramaism.

## THE IMPERATIVE.

The imperative may imply not only command, but also entreaty, advice, wish, promise, permission, and kindred ideas. In most cases an impf. might be used instead. Two imperatives connected by waw sometimes express a conditional sentence: thus in this do and live $=$ si hoc faciatis, vivetis. Cf. Am. 5. 4; Is. 36. 17. The second imperative promises a certain result, if the preceding command be obeyed.

## THE PARTICIPLE.

1. Like the pf. and impf. this form regards not the time, but the state of an action. It implies permanence, or unbroken continuity, whereas the impf. marks incipience or reiteration. An act may be regarded as continuing,


Abraham was walking with them to escort them. עוֹרֶנֶּ עֹמֶר

 participles.)
 strangers are devouring it. Cf. Is. 38. 1. Especially of a habitual act (for which also, under a different aspect, the pf. and impf. are used) : הוֹלֵך הָּמִּם he who walketh perfect. Cf. Is. 57. 1.
 cxecuted. (מֵ is commonly mortuus, dead, but sometimes moriturus, going to die, sometimes moriens, dying.) and I, whither am I to go?
2. The participle may be treated as a noun, and its object may follow it as a genitive; or it may be followed by an accusative or a preposition. עעשׁה-אֶּה the

 the constructions are united.

## THE INFINITIVE ABSOLUTE.

The infin. abs. presents the verbal idea stripped of all marks of number, person, etc., i.e., as an abstract noun. It sometimes occurs as the object of a transitive verb: :ְִמְרוּ הֵיטֵב learn well-doing. It may also be used to throw stress on the notion of the verb apart from the agent and other circumstances.
(a) In hurried or earnest speech: "The king of
 disguise myself and enter the battle! And to state what causes astonishment, indignation, etc. (Cf. mene incepto desistere victam?)

#  <br>  

There is no heed of God in the land. Cursing and lying! murdering and thieving! . . They do violence, etc. Cf. historic infin., and see Is. 21. 5; 59. 4, 13.
 month of Abib.
(c) Without special stress, in close connection with a finite verb, whose number, person, etc., it implies: מקרדרנוּ וְסוֹר we have revolted and swerved.

Hence this infin. is further used to strengthen, or otherwise modify a statement; and then stands adverbially.
(a) Before a finite form of the same stem: רָאה רָאיתּת


(b) After such a form: mostly to express prolonged or repeated action: hear ye, hear hear! i.e., continually. But also with intensive force; e.g., this phrase might mean, listen earnestly!
 he went forth and back repeatedly.
(c) After a different stem: :

 he came near, morning and evening.

## THE INFINITIVE CONSTRUCT.

This is the form of the verbal noun which is used in connection with other words. It may stand as subject, or object, of the verb; or as a genitive, especially after
a preposition and before a suffix; and further as possessing verbal force it may be followed by an object. Instances will make this clear.
(a) סמוּר מֵרעע בִּינָה to depart from evil (is) understanding.
(b) לא (b know not (how) to go out and come in.
 dicendo (very often). לאמגר they are too many to count (numerous beyond or away from counting). בְּדָּבְרָאם in their being fashioned, i.e., when they were fashioned.

 the king heard the word of the man of God.
(Notice here how the subject comes next to the infin., and the object last. Sometimes the order is like as the Philistines seized him.)

Temporal clauses thus expressed may be followed by
 and make known to thee . . . lifted my voice, and cried. Cf. p. 148, 3 to end.
N.B. By this simple device of prefixing a suitable particle to the construct infin., the Hebrew very often expresses causal, and final, as well as temporal clauses.

Lastly, this form of the infin. with ? prefixed, and with the verb equivalent for phrases like amaturus, amandus est: e.g., and the sun was at the point of setting.
 express possibility, and kindred notions : בִּ לא לְהוֹרִישׁ
 valley. (The simple impf. covers these uses.)

## THE VERB USED WITHOUT A DEFINITE SUBJECT, I.E., IMPERSONALLY.

(a) The 3 sing. m. קָרָא שְׁמְמה בִּבֶּל people called its name Babel. name wonder of a counsellor. וִיצֵר לִי 1 I was



 was it begun (i.e. men began) to invoke by the name
 passive ptc. נְבְבָּדוֹת מְרִבּר they tell glories.

So no longer shalt thou be called Abram; where an accusative follows the passive
 by thee (as to the arms there was breaking). The actual object is expressed as such, although the verb is passive.
(c) The 3 plur. masc., like ferunt, they say. וְאחִר עוֹרִי נִקְקוּוּזֹאת and after my skin, which they have thus destroyed (i.e. which is thus destroyed).
(d) The 2nd sing. in poetry or declanation: cf. the phrases
 if somebody fall from it (the roof).

## COMPLEMENTARY VERBS.

Instead of a formal adverb the language often prefers to employ a secondary verb to modify the idea conveyed by the main verb. In that case the latter may be:
 לשׁוּב אלּיו how then didst thou quickly find, $m y$ son (hasten to find)?
(b) Or a finite form precisely like the other verb, coupled with it by waw, or merely spoken next to it:

 finished, cut off). The second of these two modes is used when the persons of the two verbs differ (a rare
 called . . . (shalt not add, men shall call thee . . .).

Note.-Besides שׁׂוּב, and and the most useful of these secondary verbs are ${ }^{\text {הוֹרְהָה multiplied, }}=$ much; הַיִִיב made good,$=$ well.

## APPARENT BREACHES OF THE LAWS OF AGREEMENT.

Deviations from the general rules of agreement are mainly due, as before stated, to the writer's feeling for the sense prevailing over strictly grammatical form.

1. For instance, a collective noun though sing. in form is in sense plural, denoting as it does a number of individuals. Such a noun may therefore have a plural
 ing. . הַעָם people, is a common case in point. If a
noun has verbs before and after it, the former may be
 Amorite went out, sing. . . . and pursued, pl.

Adjectives seldom take the plural form as epitliets of a sing. noun. A fem. sing. may have a masc. plur. pre-
 thine own.
2. Besides words which are strictly such, Hebrew
 עע ע wicked, and class names (common nouns) like


 birds fy! In such cases an individual suggests all others which share the same qualities.
3. But, again, collective nouns are specially marked by the fem. sing. ending, cf. ${ }^{\text {שׁmapt captivity }}=$ captives, imid exiles; and therefore such nouns are sometimes linked with fem. sing. verbs, even when they
 the beasts of the field look unto thee; ;
 steps totter not.
4. As the whole mass of similar individuals may be regarded as one, and construed with a sing. verb, we even find subjects of plural form with sing. predicates; the thought of the collective unity of the individuals included being uppermost in the writer's mind, or his intention being to affirm or deny something of each and every individual denoted by the class name.
 רצֵֵה .
 one who curseth thee is accursed!
5. The predicate may agree with the chief word of a
 the blood-streams of thy brother are crying to me! So

 titude, are so construed.
6. If the predicate of a plural subject come first, it is often sing. (A second verb following the subject must
 thee.

## QUESTIONS.

1. The single direct question: with prefix $n=$ an ?

 people wilt thou slay? num justam gentem interimes? nonne? expects the answer yes (הֲתא also occurs): hast not thou set aside for me a blessing? or
 is it because he is called Jacob? also numquid? הֲדִי in in there indeed still (one) who is left? numquid etiam nunc est qui supersit?

Sometimes, though rarely, no particle is used, the tone of the voice marking the nature of the sentence: אַתחה זֶה בִּנִי עֵּשָּו

Mostly when the question is coupled by ! to something before: וְאֶת־ָהרָעה לֹא נְקַבֵּל and what is evil shall we not receive?

##  

2. The single indirect question:
(a) , as , as to see whether the waters were lessened.

3. Alternative questions:


 seeth seest thou? here, as often, the two members are not opposed, but identical in meaning; and in such cases ! . . . ה̧ are also found.
(b) Indirect: $\mathbb{Z}$... Ṭ, like the direct question; also ก̣. . . הֲ.

## וּרְאִיתֶם אֶת־דָעָּם הֶחָחָק הוּא הִרָפֶּה <br> 

That you may see whether the people be strong or weak, Whether it be few or many.

## SUPPOSITIONS.

The main types are these:

1. If I shall have anything, I will give it. Si quid habeam (habebo) dabo. Here both events belong to the future. אֲם if (God) cast him from
 Levite come, he shall minister. So Is. 36. 6. Or impf.
 do (it), if I find there thirty.
[The impfs. may be frequentative, and refer to the
 then they moved not.]
N.B. 1.-If we wish to lay stress on the certainty and immediacy with which the result follows upon the fulfilment of the condition, we may say, If I shall have anything, I give it.

In Hebrew this will be expressed by the pf. in the
 give, I take it forcibly.
N.B. 2.-An oath is often led off by אחם-לא, אִ: e.g., "I have sworn אִם-לְדוְד אֲכַוּבוּ I will not lie to David!" The result of a breach of oath is suppressed; "If I do so (may I perish)!"
2. If I (shall) have had anything, I will give it. Si quid habuero, dabo. אחם-עָבַר וְרָמַם וְטָרךף if he have passed, he will trample and rend.

The impf. may occur in the 2nd clause: אםשעִשִׁיתּ וֹאת
 life!
3. If $I$ were to have anything, $I$ would give it. Si quid haberem darem. This way of speaking expresses unlikelihood. אִם if thou wouldest give me half of thy house, I would not go.
4. If I had had anything, I would have given it. Si quid habuissem, dedissem. The condition was not ful-
 לif you had spared them, I had not killed
 48. 18.

Non-fulfilment of both clauses is implied in the following forms also, which are however of less common occurrence.

If I had anything (now), I would give it. Si quid

 ple were now listening to me, soon would $I$ bow their foes.

If I had had anything, I would now give it. Si quid

 this.
5. Lastly, a conditional particle need not be used.
 leave his father, he (his father) will die.
 if ye do, ye shall. . . So Is. 29. 9.
 darkness, and be it night! = if thou make clarkness, night becometh.
 them, they did not credit it.

## WISHES.

םא, ל', may introduce a wish; which is then treated as a supposition with a suppressed consequence (apodosis).

O that my grief were weighed! O $O$ if ye uould hearken to his voice!

The imperative also occurs : לְּ לְ Lord would hear me!

A wish felt to be past fulfilment, or to be at present unlikely or impossible, is expressed by the perfect: O that we had died in the land of
 heavens!
N.B. The phrase who will grant? is common:

O that my wish might come to pass. O that my words might be written! O that their heart might be thus!

The perfect, and the constr. infin. (or an accusative)
 that I might find him! ( = how I might...) (
 were evening!

## NEGATIONS.

$\cdots$ constr. $\mathbb{N}$ nihil, negatives nouns; i.e., it is used with personal suffixes, and with participles, etc. הַיֶּלֶד
 not; i.e., he vanished. אִם אֲ if thou

 there is none who does good, not even one. אیין כָּלֹחָחדשׁ there is nothing new. (The word is demonstr., connected with "where? "Man dies, "? and where is he?" = almost איאנְנִּ

ל negatives an assertion, and is strictly objective, answering to the Greek ou, Latin non. Either state
 I uill not guard.
may be omitted in the second member of a distich:
 forgotten, (nor) the hope of the humble perish.

But with the impf. an emphatic denial may amount to a strong prohibition: לא תַנְנשׂ, you are not going to do $=$ you must not, shall not do; external restraint being implied. Different from this is
hs, $\mu \dot{\eta}$, ne, which is subjective, like $\mu \dot{\eta}$, ne, and always takes the impf. : אַלתחרְרֻאִי look not at me!

 ourselves a city, that we be not scattered!

Common after verbs of fear, precaution, swearing, etc. Sometimes the first clause is not expressed:


 With pf. of something thought as already done: וִבְקשׁׁוֹ "הת and let them seek thy lord, lest the spirit of Jahwè have caught him . . .
ai not yet. This particle implies incompletion, and is therefore mostly connected with an impf. כָּלֵیֶשֶׁ
 shot up. הֲטֶרֶם תֶּרִע knowest thou not yet?

בִּלִתּת and so lack, want) with prefix $?$, is used to negative the gerundial construction. לְבִלְתֶּ רוּםּלְלָבוֹ that his heart
 thereof.

After verbs of hindering, resisting, etc. $=$ so as not
 offering . . .?

The former expresses both $火$, employed: בַּל an intensive denial. בַּלֹאלאחָ let me not eat! (רֵ in

 32. 10.

In prose upon lack of . . .); the former with infin. or particip., the latter with pf.

א, צִּ , צִּ, etc., joined with nouns form negative
 pure $=$ guilty;

## DEPENDENT SENTENCES.

1. Hebrew does not possess any special forms of oblique narration. The terms of a speech are usually given directly, word for word as they were spoken. In
 very often precedes. See Ge. 40. 7; 41. 9; Is. 36.21 (a good instance).
2. The want of distinct moods and tenses is hardly felt so far as dependent clauses are concerned. A dependent clause is put directly, being merely introduced by the particles impf., or the perf., or a participle, be used, will depend on the speaker or writer's point of view.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 7 \text { ? }
\end{aligned}
$$

In order that they may see and know that the hand of $J$. hath done this.

位 he had heard that he had departed from Laklish.
and I knew that I should not be ashanted.

I saw that the sun was setting (participle).
3. If the dependent clause be an oblique question, the same remark holds good.

remember, I pray, how I have walked.

Note.-Logically in all these cases the dependent clause is the object of the main verb, as is very clear in the last two instances.
4. Here as everywhere else we must bear in mind the radical distinctions between pf., impf., and ptc. The Hebrew had not to discriminate between moods and tenses; he had merely to decide whether the act should be viewed as complete, incomplete, or continuous.


[^0]:    * The plupf. is commonly expressed in Hebrew by inserting the subject between the conjunction and the verb, as in the given instance. Cf. Gen. i. a.

