

A Grammar of Standard Classical Arabic

The Authors

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Work in progress

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Work in progress

Preface

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

The primary texts of Islām (the Qur’ān and the Ḥadīth) are in Arabic. So too is much of its scholarly literature. However, there are many Muslims for whom Arabic is not a native language, yet who are familiar enough with English to study textbooks written in this language. The goal of this book is to help them learn Arabic so that, together with a study of the appropriate expository texts, they can start to understand the primary texts in their original language. We hope that this will, if Allāh wills, make them more connected to the primary texts and their teachings. Furthermore, they can be empowered to study the vast body of Arabic Islāmic literature.

Regarding the title of this book: the Arabic grammarians were describing the Arabic language of the time of the Prophet ﷺ and his companions. They were doing this by drawing upon a corpus that included transmitted texts and the dialectal speech of informants. We term the language of this corpus to be *Classical Arabic*, because of its considerable volume and its agreed upon significance and eloquence. In the process of the grammarians’ sifting through and describing the dialectal variation of Classical Arabic, a standard variety emerged and gained prevalence. Thenceforth, virtually all composed texts attempted to conform to the grammar of this standard. And it is the grammar of this *Standard Classical Arabic* (SCA) that is the subject of this work.

The term *Classical Arabic* has been used by others to refer to the later (non-native) use of what we call SCA. They may then refer to the language of the grammarians’ corpus as pre-classical Arabic or Old Arabic. Our choice of terminology is based on the contention that SCA is but a variety of Classical Arabic, even if it was standardized toward the end or after the native era of Classical Arabic, and used by non-native Classical Arabic speakers.

SCA, as a standard, is not precisely defined in its entirety. There is a core, which is more or less well-defined, but there are also fringe dialectal, and rare variations that are occasionally used in some texts. We cover some of these variations in this book, depending on how likely we deem the learner to come across them.

We also include in this book post-classical vocabulary, even though it is not, strictly speaking, SCA. This is because one of our goals is to enable the

reader to engage with Islāmic texts. However, we stop short of dealing with Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). This is because the preponderance of its modern vocabulary would detract from the main focus of this book. And also because Western grammar works which focus on MSA tend to use modern texts as a corpus to re-describe and re-codify its grammar. Which is fine, as a methodology, because their goal is to understand the meaning of MSA texts. If we were to include MSA, as thus defined, in this book, then we would have to explain the conflicts between it and SCA. Which is something we are not ready, or equipped, to deal with.

This book is a learning or teaching grammar, as opposed to being strictly a reference grammar. Therefore, whenever we were able to, we have tried to explain topics, and give examples, in a manner that assumes an understanding of only preceding content. We have, at the same time, generally tried to group content coherently for convenient reference during learning.

We have also aimed to make this a self-instruction textbook so that a diligent student should, if Allāh wills, be able to study it independently. The target learner is someone who has not been exposed to grammatical terminology beyond a grade school level. While terminology is necessary for a rigorous non-immersive learning of language, we have tried to steer away from Latin-based terms like *accusative*, *jussive*, etc. Such terms, when first encountered by an uninitiated learner, may deter him from proceeding further. So we have in some places translated the meaning of Arabic grammar terms to English. In other places, we have used established English grammar terms where the terms are basic enough. We have even, in places, invented terms where we deemed appropriate. We have also used some grammatical terminology from Arabic directly, usually in cases where our target learner may have already been exposed to them from Qurʾān recitation rules, or where the term is complex enough that creating a term specifically in English wouldn't make it any simpler. The drawback to this non-standard approach, however, is that the student may not be able to immediately relate the terminology he has learned in this book to established terminology in other grammar textbooks. To remedy this to some extent, we provide a glossary which maps the grammatical terminology used in this book to other, established, Latin-based and Arabic-based counterparts.

Because this is an instructional textbook, we have generally avoided quoting verbatim when drawing material from cited sources. But we haven't shied away from sticking close to the cited text when we felt we could not better its expression or organization for our purposes. Citations are absent for basic topics, and also where we were not able to find an exact reference for some point that we are trying to make. In any event, any errors that remain in this book are our own.

Miscellaneous

- This book is produced using the [Quarto](#) authoring and publishing framework and set in the Charis, Vazirmatn, Kitab, and Amiri typefaces.
- Unless otherwise indicated, translations from the Qurʾān are by Ṣaḥeeḥ International™, sourced from quran.com.

- Unless otherwise indicated, the numbering of cited Ḥadīth is that used by sunnah.com and hadithunlocked.com.
- The page numbers for citations may vary across different editions and publishers. We have attempted to specify the edition that we are using in the [references](#).

THE AUTHORS

Work in progress

Work in progress

Part I.

Basics

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 1.

Introduction

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

All praises are due to Allāh. We praise Him, seek His help, and ask for His forgiveness. We seek refuge in Allāh from the evil in our souls and from our sinful deeds. Whomever Allāh guides, no one can mislead. Whomever Allāh leads astray, no one can guide. I bear witness that there is no one worthy of worship except Allāh. I also bear witness that Muḥammad is His servant and messenger.

May the peace and blessings of Allāh be upon the Prophet Muḥammad, his family, his companions, and those who followed them with good conduct.

Know—may Allāh have mercy on you—that there is a proper approach to studying Arabic, or indeed any branch of Islamic studies. And that is to study it in order to benefit by it. This is by believing that Allāh is our Lord, that He is deserving of our worship and submission to Him, and that He sent down the Qur’ān and the Sunnah to his beloved messenger, the Prophet Muḥammad ﷺ, that explain for us the way we should worship Him.

So by studying Arabic, and other branches of Islāmic studies, we wish to get a better understanding of who our Lord is, and what is required of us in order to get closer to Him.

Furthermore, one should recognize and be thankful that He favored this nation with scholars who proficiently transmitted the Qur’ān, the Ḥadīth, and the language of the Qur’ān and Ḥadīth, to us. Such that any sincere servant who studies the Qur’ān and the authentic Ḥadīth, as they have both reached us, as they were understood by the pious generations, and with the correct understanding of the Arabic language, can recognize that they are the truth, and can appreciate the beauty and remarkable consistency of their teachings. And even any minor portion that we may not comprehend every minute detail of, either with regard to its content or its transmission, due our limited understanding, and our limited window into history, does not affect the truth of what has been transmitted to us, and in no way detracts from our having sufficient clear evidence to submit to Allāh and worship Him in the manner in which He has prescribed for us.

We ask Allāh that He guide us to be in the company of those who received His message, believed in it, and followed it, inclining toward truth. And we

seek refuge in Allāh from being among those who received His message clearly and sufficiently, but rejected it.

1.1. History of Arabic

Allāh, may He be glorified and exalted, revealed the Qurʾān, some fourteen and a half centuries ago, to the Prophet Muḥammad, may Allāh grant peace and confer blessing upon him. The language of the Qurʾān is the Arabic language, as it was understood by the Arabs at that time. The sayings and actions of the Prophet, may Allāh grant peace and confer blessing upon him, in the form of the Ḥadīth were recorded by his companions also in this Arabic language. Also, composed in this Arabic language, was a vast body of poetry that the Arabs would consider eloquent and worth transmitting. We will call the Arabic of this pre-Islāmic and early Islāmic era as Classical Arabic. The Classical Arabic language consisted of multiple dialects that were spoken by the different tribes and in the different regions of the Arabian peninsula.

All languages change naturally over time. For example, English has changed to such a degree that the Old English language spoken 1400 years ago would be unintelligible to us today. So too did the Classical Arabic dialects begin to change. But when this began to happen, scholars took on the responsibility of preserving the language of the revelation.¹ They did this by recording a corpus of authentic Classical Arabic texts, and then analyzing it to derive grammatical rules, in addition to producing dictionaries and compendia. In the process of preserving Classical Arabic, one particular variety became standardized and gained prevalence as a literary language amongst the dialects of Classical Arabic. We will call this variety *Standard Classical Arabic* (SCA).

SCA became the language of religious scholarship, science, and literature in the Islāmic world. As scholars developed new branches of religious and secular sciences, new terms and meanings were added (which are termed post-classical). A few words were also borrowed from foreign languages and Arabicized, as needed by the different scientific disciplines. Even Classical Arabic itself had a few Arabicized foreign borrowings from neighboring languages.

While SCA was used for literary purposes, the vernacular language that was spoken by Arabs in their day-to-day lives continued to evolve naturally over time and in the different regions where Arabic was spoken. And so, there began to exist two very distinct types of Arabic: the preserved SCA which is taught by formal education and which is primarily a written language, and the vernacular Arabic dialects which Arabs learn as their mother tongue and which are primarily only spoken and not written.

In modern times, many new words and meanings were added to SCA, often via translation from Western languages, to keep up with technological advancements and modern media. This modern development of SCA is called Modern Standard Arabic (MSA).

Figure 1.1 presents a simplified view the historical development of the different varieties of Arabic.

¹ 4/21-22 تحقيق الكلام في المسائل الثلاث ضمن آثار المعلمي

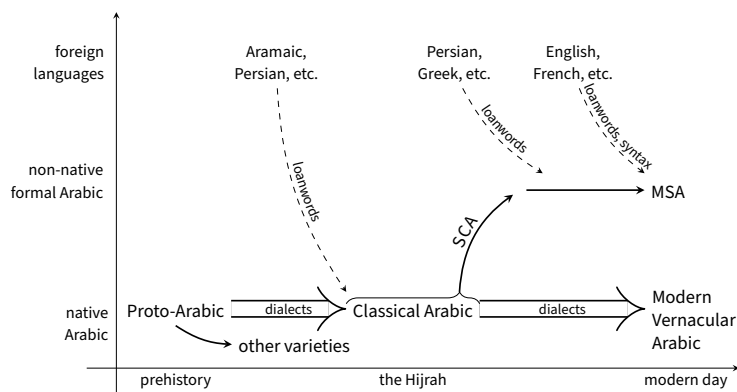


Figure 1.1.: A simplified view of the historical development of the different varieties of Arabic.

In Figure 1.1, the depiction of SCA emanating towards the end of the Classical Arabic period does not imply that only later stages of Classical Arabic contributed to SCA. Rather, it only implies that that is when SCA emerged as the standard literary language for non-native Classical Arabic users. In fact, the source material for SCA includes not only the speech of contemporary native Classical Arabic speakers, but also transmitted texts from throughout the Classical Arabic period, even texts from before the time of the Prophet ﷺ.

Nor does the diagram intend to imply that only SCA was preserved amongst all the dialects of Classical Arabic. SCA is the variety of Classical Arabic which became a standard that continued to be used later. But the scholars of the Arabic language made notes regarding the other dialects of Classical Arabic as well.

1.2. What defines SCA

It may be appropriate to say a few words about what defines SCA proper. When the scholars of Arabic first began studying Classical Arabic, the regular, day-to-day, speech of many people had already begun to diverge from Classical Arabic. So the scholars would seek out and record samples of only authentic Classical Arabic speech and texts. Their criterion for what constituted an authentic sample was that it be *native* Classical Arabic speech. What we mean by “native Classical Arabic” is the language produced by persons immersed from early childhood in an environment where they would hear (native) Classical Arabic from people around them in their day-to-day lives, such that they learned to speak it naturally, without discernable change.²

By the time SCA was emerging as a standard for literary output, native Classical Arabic was on the decline. Most literary output produced in SCA was then a non-native attempt to conform to the standard. So, even though proficiency

²See also *مجموع مقالات فيصل المنصور* in *علة رفض الاحتجاج بكبار الشعراء والكتاب الذين جاءوا بعد زمن الفصحاة* 93–95

in SCA was generally pretty high, books written in SCA are not themselves, generally, definitive of SCA.

1.3. MSA

As we have mentioned earlier, SCA when produced today will tend to have a lot of modern vocabulary, and will generally be referred to as MSA. MSA is used today as the language of published literature and formally produced news media.

MSA, in theory, still attempts to conform to the grammar of SCA. In practice, however, MSA is influenced considerably by European languages. This is because much written material, like books and news articles was, and is, translated from European languages. This translation, along with adding vocabulary, has also influenced the syntax and style of the MSA which you are likely to find printed today.³ That is not to say that all MSA produced today has deviated from the syntax and style of SCA. Persons who have been more exposed to classical books are more likely to stay closer to SCA. In any case, as we have mentioned earlier, all Arabic produced today, that attempts to conform to SCA, is merely that: an attempt to conform to SCA, and not definitive of SCA.

As a new learner, this exactitude is largely academic. Excepting the Qurʾān, which is inimitable, you may feel free to emulate the writing of good writers of SCA.

1.4. Spoken SCA

As we have mentioned above, SCA is primarily a written language. As a spoken language, SCA is, today, heard almost only in religious and formal settings.

We will learn in this book, if Allāh wills, that there are very exact rules for properly pronouncing and pausing in SCA. Practically, however, most native Arabic speakers today rarely adhere to these rules exactly in extemporaneous speech. Furthermore, depending on the situation, speakers may sometimes casually mix in their vernacular dialect within their SCA speech. In terms of usage, Classical Arabic had many idiomatic expressions that were used in everyday speech. But because spoken SCA is relegated to formal settings today, many of those expressions are now deemed archaic and are largely unused. In fact, a strict adherence to all SCA grammar, usage, and pronunciation/pausing rules in informal spoken settings may, today, come across as pretentious or overly formal.⁴

Our advice to the learner who wishes to speak his newly learned Arabic is to learn to be comfortable with the different spheres and sociolinguistic norms of Arabic. Consider the following real-world setting:

A scholar may be giving a lecture, in Arabic, on one of the Islāmic branches of knowledge. It may even be a lecture on SCA grammar. In the beginning of the lecture, the scholar will praise Allāh and ask Allāh to confer blessing upon

³See العرنجية لأحمد الغامدي; Alfraidi, *Conditional sentences in Modern Written Arabic* 17–21;

⁴Hallberg, A., *Case endings in Spoken Standard Arabic* 54–55. see also p. 86

and grant peace to the Prophet ﷺ. This will be done using exact SCA grammar and pronunciation/pausing rules.

The scholar will then begin the instructional part of his lecture. The language of this instruction will still typically be SCA. But adherence to pronunciation and pausing rules may be considerably relaxed. The scholar's speech may be closer to exact SCA rules when giving formal instruction, and then more relaxed when elaborating on some particular point. When quoting an āyah from the Qur'ān, strict SCA would be employed, even if not reciting the āyah. The scholar's fluency in spoken SCA is also a factor in how close his extemporaneous formal speech is to SCA. Because, like anyone born after the classical era, he is not a native speaker of SCA. And his proficiency in speaking exact SCA fluently does not detract, if Allāh wills, from his eminence and knowledge of his domain. Within the lecture, the scholar may even dip in and out of his vernacular dialect, often when interacting with a questioner from the audience.

Once the lecture is concluded, the scholar and his students may engage in an informal session. The conversation in this session will almost entirely be in vernacular dialect(s).

If you find yourself in such a society, it is advisable to conform to its norms. As a non-native Arabic speaker, you won't be expected to speak a vernacular dialect. So your speaking SCA in an informal setting is excused. But aim for a natural and easy flowing speech, even at the cost of grammatical correctness.

You can even try to convert your SCA speech to sound more like the modern vernacular dialects. (Appendix D gives some tips on how to do so.) In fact, it may not be a bad idea to supplement your learning of SCA with some knowledge of a vernacular dialect, not least to understand the native speech of the Arabs today.

1.5. Scope of this book

In this book, we will study the grammar of SCA. If Allāh wills, this will help you to begin to understand the language of the Qur'ān, the Ḥadīth, and Islāmic literature.

If your goal is to learn MSA, then this book may still be of help because the core language and the grammar are essentially the same. However, you may prefer to study from a resource that focuses on the modern language.

Except for the marginal treatment in Appendix D, this book does not deal with the modern vernacular dialects that are spoken in the Arab world today.

1.6. Organization of this book

We will start, if Allāh wills, with the Arabic script and present, in each chapter, a new concept of Arabic grammar, together with examples. Though there is none right now, we also plan to give, if Allāh wills, a vocabulary list and exercises for each chapter.

We have generally tried to organize content coherently for convenient reference during learning. Sometimes, this can mean that on encountering a new

topic, we present it in more detail than is strictly necessary for learning at that stage. Although identifying such material may not be easy for the learner, you may feel free to skim over such material and refer back to it later, as needed.

Some of the sentences we present, both as examples and as chapter exercises, because of their contrived nature, may seem of dubious usefulness to a learner wanting to learn practical usage. Also, when translating “made-up” examples, we usually steer toward a literal, word-for-word, translation rather than a natural one. This is in order to illustrate the function of each word, and to show a correspondence between the words in the Arabic sentence and the English translation. The resulting English will then often sound awkward and, at times, even ungrammatical. Our excuse is that our aim in this book is to teach Arabic, not how to translate Arabic into English.

We request the reader’s patience and indulgence in these and other matters.

1.7. How to study from this book

Keep pen and paper in hand when studying. Write some of the examples as you are studying and try to understand how the example is relevant to the topic. In answering the exercises, we strongly recommend that you memorize the vocabulary in full and write down the answers with pen on paper. We strongly recommend that you avoid the tendency to answer the exercises only orally or mentally without writing them down, or look up the answers from the answer key before attempting to write the answer yourself, or look up words in the vocabulary list without memorizing them, or proceed to the next chapter before memorizing the vocabulary and going through the exercises. You may also find yourself having to go back a few chapters every once in a while and revising the concepts therein. This is very normal and not a cause for any concern. It may also prove beneficial to re-do the exercises of that chapter when doing so.

Know that while Arabic grammar requires effort to master to a proficient degree, the real barrier to reading and understanding Arabic texts by oneself is vocabulary. Arabic is a very rich language and knowledge of a few thousand words is needed before the student can begin to read texts independently. In fact, we would not be too far off to say that grammar, at this stage, is only a tool to help you make sense of the vocabulary that you are acquiring. So strive to achieve a balance between learning grammar and acquiring vocabulary. In appendix @ref(vocabulary-and-reading), we suggest companion reading material, dictionaries, and techniques on acquiring and retaining vocabulary.

1.8. Interpreting the Qur’ān

As you proceed in your Arabic studies, you may begin to form an understanding of the meanings of some of the āyahs of the Qur’ān. Pondering over the āyahs of the Qur’ān, to understand it, obtain guidance from it, and act upon it is one of the foremost goals of the Qur’ān.⁵ Know, however, that forming this understanding should be done with a proper methodology: one that is based

⁵Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 96 citing الفوزان

on sound and confirmed knowledge.⁶ Interpreting the Qurʾān is one of the branches of Islāmic knowledge known as *tafsīr*. There are proper sources for tafsīr. They are:

1. The Qurʾān. The Qurʾān itself is a source of tafsīr. What is stated in a concise fashion in one place may be elaborated upon at another place.⁷
2. The Sunnah of the Prophet ﷺ. The Sunnah (via the Ḥadīth) is the second most important source of tafsīr. Allāh tasked the Prophet ﷺ with explaining the Qurʾān and gave him ﷺ the necessary knowledge in order for him ﷺ to do so.⁸
3. The understanding of the Companions of the Prophet ﷺ. The Companions had an excellent command of the Arabic language and lived through many of the events that the Qurʾān refers to. Furthermore, if a meaning of an āyah was not clear to them, they had access to the Prophet ﷺ and would ask him ﷺ about its meaning.⁹
4. The Arabic language.¹⁰ One needs to have sound knowledge of the Arabic language of the time of the Prophet ﷺ to be able to interpret the Qurʾān linguistically. However, one cannot rely solely on the Arabic language for tafsīr.¹¹ There are many instances where the Companions, who possessed knowledge of the Arabic language, did not understand the intent of an āyah and it was necessary for the Prophet ﷺ to explain the Qurʾān to them.¹²

The specialist in the science of tafsīr is able to use the above sources, and his educated reasoning, to interpret and comment on the meaning of āyahs.¹³

There are grave dangers to speaking about the Qurʾān without sound knowledge. If one interprets and comments on the Qurʾān, then he is actually making a statement on behalf of Allāh.¹⁴ So he better be sure that he is making that statement based on sound knowledge. Because speaking about Allāh without knowledge is a most great sin. This is because it involves and includes ascribing something falsely to Allāh.¹⁵

Here is an example of an āyah where it is conceivable that someone may make an incorrect interpretation, if he did not interpret according to a proper methodology:

(1) إِنَّ الَّذِينَ ءَامَنُوا وَالَّذِينَ هَادُوا وَالنَّصَارَى وَالصَّالِحِينَ مَنْ ءَامَنَ بِاللَّهِ وَالْيَوْمِ الْآخِرِ وَعَمِلَ
صَالِحًا فَلَهُمْ أَجْرُهُمْ عِنْدَ رَبِّهِمْ وَلَا خَوْفٌ عَلَيْهِمْ وَلَا هُمْ يَحْزَنُونَ [سورة البقرة: 62]

⁶Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 187

⁷Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 205 citing الزركشي

⁸Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 212–213 citing الألباني

⁹Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 224ff

¹⁰Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 235ff

¹¹Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 241

¹²Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 213ff

¹³Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 244–245

¹⁴Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 194

¹⁵Zarabozo, *How to approach and understand the Quran* 197 citing ابن القيم

Translation by Şaḥeeḥ International™:

Indeed, those who believed and those who were Jews or Christians or Sabeans [before Prophet Muḥammad (ﷺ)] - those [among them] who believed in Allāh and the Last Day and did righteousness - will have their reward with their Lord, and no fear will there be concerning them, nor will they grieve.

Footnote by the same translator:

After the coming of Prophet Muḥammad (ﷺ) no religion other than Islām is acceptable to Allāh, as stated in 3:85.

The āyah referred to in the footnote is:

[سورة آل عمران] وَمَنْ يَتَّبِعْ غَيْرَ الْإِسْلَامِ دِينًا فَلَنْ يُقْبَلَ مِنْهُ وَهُوَ فِي الْآخِرَةِ مِنَ الْخَاسِرِينَ (2) 3:85]

And whoever desires other than Islām as religion - never will it be accepted from him, and he, in the Hereafter, will be among the losers.

Ibn Kathīr, in his tafsīr of this āyah, cites a report narrated from the Companion of the Prophet ﷺ Ibn ʿAbbās regarding āyah سورة البقرة 2:62, that Allāh revealed after it سورة آل عمران 3:85.

Ibn Kathīr then says (paraphrasing):

This statement by Ibn ʿAbbās indicates that Allāh does not accept any deed or work from anyone, unless it conforms to the Law of Muḥammad ﷺ that is, after Allāh sent Muḥammad ﷺ. Before that, every person who followed the guidance of his own Prophet was on the correct path, following the correct guidance and was saved.¹⁶

From the tafsīr of this āyah, we see how one āyah is explained using another āyah. And we also see the role of the Companions in tafsīr.

The tafsīr of Ibn Kathīr is available, abridged, in English translation:

- Al-Mubarakpuri, *Tafsir ibn Kathir* (abridged, English translation), Darussalam, 2nd edition, 2003

Arabic abridged editions also exist:

- عمدة التفسير عن الحافظ ابن كثير لأحمد شاکر
- المصباح المنير في تهذيب تفسير ابن كثير للمباركفوري

These are beneficial, if Allāh wills, not only for their tafsīr, but also as good companion reading material for the student of Arabic.

¹⁶Al-Mubarakpuri, *Tafsir ibn Kathir* (abridged, English translation), Darussalam, 2nd edition, 2003
1/249

Chapter 2.

The Arabic script

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

2.1. The Arabic alphabet

The alphabet consists of both consonants and vowels. In the English word “banana”, “a” is a vowel, and “b” and “n” are called consonants. The Arabic alphabet traditionally has 28 letters, shown in the table below.

No.	Arabic letter	Transcription	Name
1	ا	<i>ā</i>	أَلِف alif
2	ب	<i>b</i>	بَاء bāʾ
3	ت	<i>t</i>	تَاء tāʾ
4	ث	<i>th</i>	ثَاء thāʾ
5	ج	<i>j</i>	جِيم jīm
6	ح	<i>h</i>	حَاء hāʾ
7	خ	<i>kh</i>	خَاء khāʾ
8	د	<i>d</i>	دَال dāl
9	ذ	<i>dh</i>	ذَال dhāl
10	ر	<i>r</i>	رَاء rāʾ
11	ز	<i>z</i>	زَاء zāʾ
12	س	<i>s</i>	سِين sīn
13	ش	<i>sh</i>	شِين shīn
14	ص	<i>ṣ</i>	صَاد ṣād
15	ض	<i>ḍ</i>	ضَاد ḍād
16	ط	<i>ṭ</i>	طَاء ṭāʾ
17	ظ	<i>ḍh</i>	ظَاء ḍhāʾ
18	ع	<i>ʿ</i>	عَيْن ʿayn
19	غ	<i>gh</i>	غَيْن ghayn
20	ف	<i>f</i>	فَاء fāʾ
21	ق	<i>q</i>	قَاف qāf
22	ك	<i>k</i>	كَاف kāf

No.	Arabic letter	Transcription	Name
23	ل	<i>l</i>	لَام lām
24	م	<i>m</i>	مِيم mīm
25	ن	<i>n</i>	نُون nūn
26	ه	<i>h</i>	هَاء hāʾ
27	و	<i>w/ū</i>	وَاو wāw
28	ي	<i>y/ī</i>	يَاء yāʾ

We make no attempt to describe the sounds of each letter. Those are best learned with a Qurʾān teacher. Online videos may also help in this regard.

Note that the letters و (wāw) and ي (yāʾ) are both vowels and consonants. But that alif (alif) is only a vowel. The consonant corresponding to alif is ء *hamzah*. Although ء ought to be considered a letter in its own right, it was originally only pronounced and not written. So it is not traditionally considered part of the 28-letter script. Instead it is added as a diacritic on top of the basic script.

No.	Arabic letter	Transcription	Name
—	ء	ʾ	هَمْزَة hamzah

2.2. Alternative order of letters

The above order of the letters in alphabetical sequence is currently used today. There is an alternative order that was more used in the past (from right to left):

ا ب ج د ه و ز ح ط ي ك ل م ن س ع ف ص ق ر ش ت ث خ ذ ض ظ غ

This alternative order is discussed more in appendix @ref(abjad-order). (TODO: add appendix for أبجد order, discuss its use in lists and numerical value.)

2.3. Writing Arabic words

2.3.1. Letters in different positions

Arabic is written right-to-left, unlike English and most other languages which are written left-to-right. When writing, the letters in a word are generally joined to each other, except for six out of the 28 letters, which join only to the letter preceding them but not to the letter following them. These six partially-joining letters are ا, د, ذ, ر, ز, و.

When joining the letters, letters are modified in order to join to the preceding and following letter. The fully-joining letters can be in four positions:

1. by itself (isolated),
2. in the beginning of a group of joined letters,
3. in the middle of a group of joined letters,
4. in the end of a group of joined letters.

As we just mentioned, six of the letters (ا, د, ذ, ر, ز, و) don't join to the following letter. So these letters can only occur only in the end of a group of joined letters, or isolated by themselves.

In this book we will show a "Simplified Arabic" writing style where, in each of the four positions, the letter maintains its basic shape and is usually only slightly modified to join to the previous and following letter with horizontal lines.

To explain the method of modifying the letters when joining them, we will take ب as an example and start with the isolated form:

Isolated form: ب

To modify this into the end form, we simply join a horizontal line to the right of the letter:

End form: بـ

To get the middle form, we take the end form بـ and cut off its tail which is at its left, and replace it with a horizontal line. We also move the dot slightly to get:

Middle form: بـ

And finally, to get the beginning form, we take the middle form بـ and remove the horizontal line at the right:

Beginning form: بـ

Now most of the letters follow this common technique but a few of them are modified a little further in each form. These, more complicated, letters are ع, غ, ه, ي and you can study them and the rest of the letters in the table below:

No.	Isolated	End	Middle	Beginning
1	ا	ا	none	none
2	ب	بـ	بـ	بـ
3	ت	تـ	تـ	تـ
4	ث	ثـ	ثـ	ثـ
5	ج	جـ	جـ	جـ
6	ح	حـ	حـ	حـ
7	خ	خـ	خـ	خـ
8	د	د	none	none
9	ذ	ذ	none	none
10	ر	ر	none	none
11	ز	ز	none	none
12	س	سـ	سـ	سـ
13	ش	شـ	شـ	شـ
14	ص	صـ	صـ	صـ
15	ض	ضـ	ضـ	ضـ
16	ط	طـ	طـ	طـ
17	ظ	ظـ	ظـ	ظـ
18	ع	عـ	عـ	عـ
19	غ	غـ	غـ	غـ
20	ف	فـ	فـ	فـ
21	ق	قـ	قـ	قـ

No.	Isolated	End	Middle	Beginning
22	ك	ـك	ـكـ	كـ
23	ل	ـل	ـلـ	لـ
24	م	ـم	ـمـ	مـ
25	ن	ـن	ـنـ	نـ
26	ه	ـه	ـهـ	هـ
27	و	ـو	none	none
28	ي	ـي	ـيـ	يـ

You can see that each letter maintains a basic shape and is modified for each of the four positions.

2.3.2. Joining the different forms to make a word

Notice that when we modified the isolated form to get to the beginning, middle, and end forms, we added a horizontal line to each or both sides. It is this horizontal line which joins to the horizontal line of the neighboring letter.

As an example, we would like to join the following letters (starting from the right): م-ع-ش-ر into one word. The first letter is م so we modify it to its beginning form مـ. The next two letters are converted to their middle forms ـعـ, ـشـ. And the last letter ر is converted to its end form ـر. Then we join the horizontal lines together and get معشر. Usually, when we join letters like this we shorten the horizontal lines so you will generally see the word like this معشر.

In this example, we needed the beginning, middle, and end forms of the letters. Isolated forms are used in a word when there is a partially-joining letter present that won't join to the following letter. The letter after a partially-joining letter will be in its beginning form even though it is in the middle of a word. But if it too is a partially-joining letter, or it is the last letter in the word then it will take its isolated form.

Let's take a look at some examples where a group of disjoint letters are joined to form a word:

Disjoint	Joined
ذ-ل-ك	ذلك
ا-ح-م-د	احمد
ر-س-و-ل	رسول
و-ز-ي-ر	وزير
ر-ا-ز-ق	رازق

Notice that in the last example, all the letters were in the isolated form.

2.3.2.1. Simplified and traditional typography

We have just shown how letters join to each other with a horizontal line in a "simplified" Arabic typeface. "Traditional" Arabic typefaces are a little more

complex than simplified Arabic: some letters join almost vertically instead of horizontally. But when you get familiar with the simplified Arabic type, if Allāh wills it will not be too difficult for you to read traditional Arabic types as well.

Here are some comparisons of letters joining to each other in simplified Arabic and traditional Arabic types.

Disjoint	Joined (simplified)	Joined (traditional)
ت-م-ر	تمر	تمر
ا-ل-ح-ج-ج	الحجج	الحجج
ا-ل-م-ا-س	الماس	الماس
ل-م-ح-ة	لمحة	لمحة
س-ح-ر	سحر	سحر
ب-ح-ي-ر-ة	بحيرة	بحيرة
ف-ي	في	في
ب-ت-ث-ب-ي-ت-ت-ي-ن	بتثيبتين	بتثيبتين

2.3.3. ة (closed tā')

ة is a special letter which is merged from two letters of the alphabet. It is a ت but it is written as a ه with two dots above it. ة is pronounced exactly as a ت, except when it is at the end of a sentence in which case it is pronounced as a ه as we'll explain later, if Allāh wills. ة occurs only at the end of a word so it has only an end form and an isolated form (used when the letter before it is a partially-joining letter).

Examples:

- فاطمة
- شجرة
- فتاة

We call ة *closed tā'* because it appears as if have taken ت and pressed it until it closed on itself. In contrast, ت is called *open tā'* when needed to differentiate it from ة.

2.3.4. Writing hamzah

We have mentioned that hamzah was a later addition to the Arabic alphabet and originally it was only sounded and not written. Hamzah can be written in a number of different ways:

1. "Seated" above (or below) a vowel letter: Hamzah can be written above the vowel letters thus: أ، إ، ئ. When written over ي, the ي will not have any dots, thus: ي، ي، ي. It may also be written under an alif thus: إ. Examples: إن، فئة، سؤلك، أفعال.
2. "Unseated" after a letter. This has two sub cases:

- a. Standalone, after a partially-joining letter or at the end of a word.
Examples: عبء, توعم, تساءل.
- b. Inline, in the middle of a word after a fully-joining letter. In this case hamzah is written above the horizontal line that joins the letters.
Examples: بريئين, شيئا, خطيئة.

In all cases it is pronounced the same. There are actually a set of fairly complicated rules that determine which of the above ways to choose when writing hamzah. We present these rules in Appendix A. We recommend that for now, you memorize the spelling of each word that we present that contains a hamzah. When you are sufficiently advanced, and curious enough, you may refer to Appendix A to learn the full set of rules.

2.3.5. Disambiguating letters that look similar

Some letters are very similar to each other and only differ in their dots or other slight differences. You should take care to distinguish between these letters. We will describe their similarities and differences here.

The letters ب, ت, and ث differ only in their dots and are otherwise identical in all positions. ن and ي are similar in initial and middle positions to ب, ت, and ث but differ from them and from each other in isolated and final positions. Compare all five in the table below:

Isolated	End	Middle	Beginning
ب	ـب	ـبـ	بـ
ت	ـت	ـتـ	تـ
ث	ـث	ـثـ	ثـ
ن	ـن	ـنـ	نـ
ي	ـي	ـيـ	يـ

These groups of letters differ too, only in their dots:

- خ, ح, and ج
- ذ and د
- ز and ر
- ش and س
- ض and ص
- ظ and ط
- غ and ع

The letters ف and ق are similar in the initial and middle positions except for the dots. But in the isolated and final positions, the tail of ق goes lower than that of ف.

Isolated	End	Middle	Beginning
ف	ـف	ـفـ	فـ

Isolated	End	Middle	Beginnning
ق	قـ	قـ	قـ

Be careful also not to confuse غ and ف in their middle forms. The loop for ف is round where it is triangular and flat-topped for غ (as it is for ع). Compare their middle forms in the table below:

Isolated	Middle
غ	غـ
ف	فـ

The letters alif ا and lām ل could also be confused for each other. Their forms are shown here again for easy comparison:

Isolated	End	Middle	Beginnning
ا	ـا	none	none
ل	ـل	ـل	ـل

2.3.6. Joining alif after lām

When the letter alif follows lām we would expect them to be joined like this ل+ا → لا. But actually, they are joined in a special way

لا → لا

When the combination occurs at the end of a group of joined letters, it will appear thus:

لا

Examples:

- أَلَا
- الإيمان
- الصلاة

2.4. Vowels and pronunciation marks.

2.4.1. Short Vowels

Arabic has six vowels. There are three short vowels which don't have letters in the alphabet. Instead they are shown with pronunciation marks:

1. *a* as the first vowel in English “manipulate”, written with an fatḥah َ which is a small diagonal line above the letter like مَ *ma*.
2. *i* as in English “bit”, written with an kasrah ِ which is a small diagonal line under the letter like بِ *bi*.

3. *u* as in English “put”, written with an ḍammah ُ which is like a tiny و wāw above the letter like فُ *fu*.

Examples of words with short vowels:

- فَتَحَ *fataḥa*
- عَمِلَ *ʿamila*
- قَتَلَ *qatila*

2.4.2. Long Vowels

There are also three long vowels which are part of the alphabet:

1. *ā* generally written with an unmarked alif ا and with the preceding letter having an fatḥah. Example مَ *mā*. This vowel is mostly pronounced like the vowel in English “man”. If however, it comes after these letters ق, خ, ص, ط, ظ, غ, it is pronounced like English “awe”.
2. *ī* like in English “meek” written with an unmarked ي *yāʾ* with the preceding letter having an kasrah. Example في *fī*.
3. *ū* like in English “moon” written with an unmarked و *wāw* with the preceding letter having an ḍammah. Example دُو *dū*.

Examples of words with long and short vowels:

- هَارُونُ *hārūnu*
- كَذَا *kadhā*
- سَرَادِيبَ *sarādība*

2.4.2.1. *ā* vowel written with a small alif

Sometimes the *ā* vowel is written as a small alif ِ, called a “dagger alif”, instead of a regular alif ا. This is done only for a few commonly used words. Here are some examples:

- هَادِثًا *hādḥā*
- دَهِلِكَ *dḥālika*

2.4.2.2. *ā* vowel written with a *yāʾ*

In some other words, the *ā* vowel is written with a *yāʾ* instead of an alif ا. When this happens, we will write the *yāʾ* without its dots and write a dagger alif ِ above it, like this يِ. Here are some examples:

- عَلِي *ʿalā*
- رَمَى *ramā*

2.4.3. Zero-vowel written with a sukūn

As we have seen above if an Arabic letter has a vowel after it it will take one of the three pronunciation marks: َ, ِ, ُ. If, however, there is no vowel after the letter we will put a zero-vowel sukūn on it ْ. This mark can generally only occur if there is a short vowel before the letter. Examples:

- كَمْ *kam*
- مُنْذُ *mundhu*
- مِنْهُمْ *minhum*
- مِنْهَا *minhā*

2.4.4. Semi-vowels

Arabic has two short semi-vowels:

1. *aw* like in English “show”. This is written with a wāw with a sukūn on it and a short *a* vowel before it. Example لَوْ *law*.
2. *ay* like in English “bait”. This is written with a yā’ with a sukūn on it and a short *a* vowel before it. Example كَيْ *kay*. Examples with short semi-vowels:

- وَيْحَكَ *wayḥaka*
- غَيْرُهُ *ghayruhu*
- قَوْلُهُ *qawluhu*

It also has two long semi-vowels:

1. *āw* like in English “cow”. This is written with a wāw with a sukūn on it and a long *ā* vowel before it. Example وَاوْ *wāw*.
2. *āy* like in English “bye”. This is written with a yā’ with a sukūn on it and a long *ā* vowel before it. Example شَايْ *shāy*.

These long semi-vowels are rare and may only occur at the end of a sentence.

2.4.5. Doubled letters

A word may contain “doubled” letters. This is when the same letter occurs, one after the other; the first letter has a sukūn, and the second letter has a vowel. For example, in the word قَتَّلَ *qattala*, the letter ت is doubled. When this occurs, we actually only write the letter once and put a “shaddah” ّ on it, like so: قَتَّلَ *qattala*. When pronouncing this word, stop at and stress the doubled letter *qattala* and make sure it does not sound like the undoubled letter in قَتَلَ *qatala*. Examples with doubled letters:

- كَبَّرَ *kabbara*
- حَدَّدَ *hadduhu*
- فَعَّالَ *faʿʿāla*
- سَكَّيْنُ *sikkīnu*. Note that the kasrah is below the shaddah but above the letter ك. This is the most common way to write this, although having the kasrah below the letter is also sometimes done as well. (In this case, the shaddah will still be above the letter.)

- سَفُّودٌ *saffūdu*
- ضَالِّينَ *dāllina*
- مُزَّمِّلُ *muzzammilu*

2.4.6. Tanwīn

In the next chapter, we will learn, if Allāh wills, that nouns in Arabic are sometimes pronounced with an extra ن sound at their end. This is called *tanwīn*. Tanwīn is indicated in writing, not by adding a the letter ن at the end of the word, but by writing the final vowel mark twice, thus:

1. ُ *un*, for example كِتَابٌ *kitābun*.
2. ِ *an*, for example شَجَرَةٌ *shajaratun*.
3. ٍ *in*, for example بَيْتٍ *baytin*.

The tanwined fatḥah ُ has specific spelling rules: Generally, we will generally add a silent alif after it, for example سَالِمٌ becomes سَالِمًا *sāliman*. This is done for all words except:

1. If the word ends with a ة. In this case we don't add the silent alif. For example, غَاضِبَةٌ becomes غَاضِبَةً *ghāḍibatun*.
2. If the word ends with a ā vowel, whether written with an alif ا or as a yā' with dagger alif ي. In this case, the *an* mark is put on the letter before the alif ا or yā' ي and the final vowel letter becomes silent and is not pronounced. For example, مُصْطَفًى becomes مُصْطَفًى *muṣṭafan*, عَصَا becomes عَصَا *eaṣan*.
3. If the word ends with a hamzah. In this case, we might or might not write a silent alif, depending on the following rules:
 - a. If there is an alif before an unseated hamzah ء, then we don't add a silent alif. For example دَاءٌ becomes دَاءٌ *dā'an*, not دَاءِ.
 - b. Otherwise, we add a silent alif after the hamzah. However, this may affect the writing of the hamzah, for example مُبْتَدَأٌ becomes مُبْتَدَأًا *mubtada'an*. This is discussed further in appendix @ref(hamzarules).

Here are some examples of tanwined words:

- سَعْدٌ *saʿdun*
- صَرْبًا *ṣarban*
- قَاضٍ *qāḍin*
- سَعَةً *saʿatan*
- دُعَاءٌ *duʿā'an*
- اِمْرَءًا *imra'an*
- شَيْئًا *shay'an*
- سُوءًا *sū'an*
- غَبَانٌ *ghabanun*

2.5. Connecting hamzah

Some words in arabic begin with a sukūn. When this occurs a connecting hamzah ʾ (written as a tiny ھ on an alif) is put before it. If this word comes in the beginning of the sentence the connecting alif is pronounced as a hamzah. Otherwise this connecting hamzah is not pronounced and the word is connected to the final vowel of the previous word in pronunciation. In this tutorial we will transcribe the connecting hamzah with a hyphen “-”. Examples of connecting hamzah:

(3) اِفْتَحِ الْبَابَ
ʾiftaḥi -lbāba

(4) اُنْظُرْ
ʾundḥur

If the previous word does not end with a vowel, then a helper vowel is added. The most common helper vowel is ِ. Example:

(5) زَيْدٌ الْكَرِيمُ
zayduni -lkarīmu

When one word ends in a long vowel and the next word begins with a connecting hamzah, the long vowel becomes a short vowel in pronunciation, but in writing the long vowel's letter is retained. For example:

(6) أَخَذَ مِنْهَا الْكِتَابَ
ʾakhadḥa minna -lkitāba

(7) ذُو الْقَرْنَيْنِ
dḥu -lqarnayni

(8) فِي الْبَيْتِ
fī -lbayti

2.6. Pronouncing the end of a sentence

When a word is at the end of a sentence and it ends with a long vowel, then the final long vowel is pronounced normally. However, when a word at the end of a sentence does not end with a long vowel, then the final letter's pronunciation mark is pronounced as a sukūn when vocalizing the sentence. If the final letter is a ّ then it is pronounced as a ّ hā' with a sukūn.

This change in pronunciation is only vocal, it does not affect how we write the pronunciation mark. Here we give some examples of words pronounced if they were at the end of a sentence:

(9) فَتَحْ
fatḥ

- (10) عُقْبَةُ
euqbah
- (11) وَالذَّائِي
wālidāy
- (12) وَالَّذِي
wālidayy

If however, the final letter's pronunciation mark is a *an* mark then it is pronounced as a long-*ā* vowel. The only exception is if the final letter were *ḏ*, in which case it is then pronounced as a *hā'* with a *sukūn* *o*. Here are examples of words with *an* marks pronounced as if they were at the end of a sentence.

- (13) مَفْعُولًا
mafeūlā
- (14) سَاجِدًا
sājidā
- (15) مَرْفُوعَةً
marfūeah

Note that the above exception is only for *ḏ*. If a hamzah with an *an* mark occurs at the end of a word, then it too will be pronounced as if it had a long-*ā* vowel after it. Such is the case, whether or not a silent alif is written after the hamzah. Examples:

- مُبْتَدَأًا is pronounced *muḥtada'ā*
- دُعَاءًا is pronounced *duēā'ā*

Similarly, if the word has a final *yā'* that represents the long-*ā* vowel, and the letter before has an *an* mark, it is pronounced with the long-*ā* vowel at the end of the sentence. For example:

- مُصْطَفًى is pronounced *muṣṭafā*

2.7. The Qur'ānic script

The Arabic script that you will find in the *muṣḥaf* (a volume of the Qur'ān) is slightly different than what is used in (non-Qur'ānic) SCA. We will describe some of the more common differences below:

One difference is that *ā* is used in SCA as a replacement for *lā*. Whereas, in the Qur'ānic script *ā* denotes an elongated long *ā* vowel without a hamzah. The following table gives some examples:

SCA script	Qur'ānic script
الْآخِرَةُ <i>al'ākhiratu</i>	الْآخِرَةُ [سورة البقرة 2:94]

SCA script	Qur'ānic script
اَدْدَالِلِيْنَ <i>aḍḍāllina</i>	اَلصَّالِّيْنَ [1:7 سورة الفاتحة]

Another minor difference is that word-final ي is written without its dots in Qur'ānic script. (By the, this is also found as a regional variance in the SCA script.) For example:

SCA script	Qur'ānic script
اِنِّي <i>'innī</i>	اِنِّي [20:94 سورة طه]

There can also be regional differences in the pronunciation marks used in the Qur'ānic script. For example, in muṣḥafs that are used in the Indian subcontinent اَلْاٰخِرَةُ is the conventional spelling.

Besides the above differences that have to do with the diacritical marks, some words, and combinations of words, may also be spelled differently. For example:

SCA script	Qur'ānic script
اَشْشَلَاةَ <i>aṣṣalāta</i>	اَلصَّلَاةَ [2:3 سورة البقرة]
اَلْسَمَاوَاتِ <i>assamāwāti</i>	اَلسَّمٰوٰتِ [2:33 سورة البقرة]
يا -bna 'umma يا اَبْنَ اُمَّ	يٰۤاَبْنٰٓؤُمَّ [20:94 سورة طه]

The reasons for this are out of the scope of this book.

There are other minor differences as well between Qur'ānic script and SCA script. They mainly deal with pronunciation and punctuation.

Work in progress

Chapter 3.

The noun

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

3.1. Introduction

A noun is a kind of word that is the name of something or someone.

Here are some examples of common nouns in Arabic:

Arabic word	Transcription	Definition
رَجُلٌ	<i>rajul</i>	man
كِتَابٌ	<i>kitāb</i>	book
بَيْتٌ	<i>bayt</i>	house
شَجَرَةٌ	<i>shajarah</i>	tree
صَبْرٌ	<i>ṣabr</i>	patience
وَقْتُ	<i>waqt</i>	time
طَعَامٌ	<i>ṭaʿām</i>	food
ابْنٌ	<i>ʾibn</i>	son

Note that the final letter in each word, above, does not have a vowel mark. This is because, the final vowel mark is actually variable, as we shall see later in this chapter.

When we discuss nouns outside of sentences we shall pronounce the *ə* as a *h*. Therefore, شَجَرَةٌ *tree*, in isolation, is pronounced *shajarah*, not *shajarat*.

Some nouns begin with a connecting hamzah, for example: ابْنٌ *ʾibn son*. When in the beginning of a sentence, the connecting hamzah will be pronounced with an kasrah ِ.

3.2. Definiteness

When talking about nouns it is necessary to introduce a topic called *definiteness*.

A noun is *definite* when the person or thing it refers to is known. For example, if you say, *the man arrived*, then the usage of the word “the” before “man” tells

us that the man is known to us. Therefore the noun “man” is definite in this sentence.

Conversely, if we had said *a man arrived* then the use of “a” before “man” tells us that the man is unknown to us. Therefore “man” is indefinite in this sentence.

“The” is called the *definite article* and “a” is called the *indefinite article*.

3.2.1. Definite nouns in Arabic

The definite article in Arabic is **الْ** *‘al*. It corresponds to the English definite article “the”. In order to make a noun definite, we attach **الْ** *‘al* to its beginning.

For example, the definite noun “the book” in Arabic is **الْكِتَابُ** *‘alkitāb*.

الْ *‘al* begins with a connecting hamzah; the hamzah will be pronounced only in the beginning of a sentence. And when it occurs in the beginning of a sentence, the hamzah is pronounced with a َ a-mark.

3.2.1.1. Sun letters and moon letters

The noun “man” in Arabic is **رَجُلٌ** *rajul*. To make this noun definite, we add **الْ** *‘al* to the beginning of the word. But instead of becoming **الرَّجُلُ** *‘arrajul* the word becomes **الرَّجُلُ** *‘arrajul*. The **ل** in **الْ** becomes silent and the **ر** gets doubled. This happens because the first letter **ر** in the word **رَجُلٌ** *rajul* is from a group of letters called “sun letters”. For all nouns beginning with sun letters, when **الْ** *‘al* is put in the beginning, the **ل** in **الْ** becomes silent and the sun letter becomes doubled.

The rest of the letters in the alphabet are called “moon letters” and for words that begin with moon letters, the **ل** in **الْ** does not become silent and the moon letter does not become doubled. For example, **كِتَابٌ** *kitāb* “book” becomes **الْكِتَابُ** *‘alkitāb* “the book”.

The sun letters are **ن ت ث د ذ ر ز س ش ص ض ط ظ ل**.

The moon letters are **ء ب ج ح خ ع غ ف ق ك م ه و ي**.

The names “sun letters” and “moon letters” were given because of the Arabic words for “sun” and “moon” respectively. “The sun” in Arabic is **الشَّمْسُ** *ash-shams* which begins with **ش** which causes the **ل** in **الْ** to be silent. “The moon” is **القَمَرُ** *alqamar* which begins with **ق** which does not cause the **ل** in **الْ** to be silent. Thus **ش** represents the sun letters and **ق** represents the moon letters.

Here are some examples of words that begin with sun letters:

Noun	Definite noun
رَجُلٌ <i>rajul man</i>	الرَّجُلُ <i>‘arrajul the man</i>
تَاجِرٌ <i>tājir trader</i>	التَّاجِرُ <i>‘attājir the trader</i>
لُعْبَةٌ <i>luebah toy</i>	اللُّعْبَةُ <i>‘alluebah the toy</i>

3.2.1.2. The definite article **الـ** 'al with nouns with an initial connecting hamzah

If the definite article **الـ** 'al is with prefixed to nouns that have an initial connecting hamzah, then the **ل** shall no longer have an sukūn ْ. Instead it shall have an kasrah ِ. Example:

- (16) **الابن**
 'ali-bn
 the son

3.2.2. Indefinite nouns in Arabic

Arabic has no indefinite article corresponding to the English indefinite article “a”. In order to make a noun indefinite in Arabic, it is simply written or pronounced without the definite article **الـ** 'al. For example, **كتاب** *kitāb* “a book”.

3.2.3. Differences in definiteness between Arabic and English

The articles “a” and “the” are types of words called *determiners*. Besides “a” and “the”, English has other determiners like “some”, “this”, “that”, etc. that can make a noun definite or indefinite. For example:

- (17) *This man gave that boy some food.*

In the above sentence “man” and “boy” are definite, and “food” is indefinite.

English can also have definite or indefinite nouns without determiners. The definiteness of the noun is then determined by the meaning of the sentence. Consider, for example, the sentence:

- (18) *Time is valuable.*

Here, we are not talking about some indefinite amount of time, but rather the general concept of time, which is known to us. Therefore, the noun “time” here is definite.

Consider now the sentence:

- (19) *We don't have to leave just yet; we have time.*

Here, “time” has an indefinite meaning “[some] time”.

As opposed to this complicated situation in English, Arabic uses only the definite article **الـ** 'al to make common nouns definite. So when translating sentences from English to Arabic, you must first determine whether the noun is definite or not in English, and then use **الـ** 'al when the noun is definite.

Examples:

- (20) *This man gave that boy some food.*

- “man”: definite; Arabic: **الرجل** 'arrujul

- “boy”: definite; Arabic: **الْغُلَامُ** *alghulām*
- “food”: indefinite; Arabic: **طَعَامٌ** *ṭaʿām*

(21) *Time is valuable.*

- “time”: definite; Arabic: **الْوَقْتُ** *alwaqt*

(22) *We don't have to leave just yet; we have time.*

- “time”: indefinite; Arabic: **وَقْتُ** *waqt*

3.3. Case

Nouns in Arabic have a property called *case*. The case of a noun is dependent on the function of the noun in a sentence. The case of a noun is indicated by the noun's ending. There are three states that a noun can be in. They are:

1. the u-case. By default, it is indicated, by a ḍammah on the final letter of the noun.
2. the a-case. By default, it is indicated, by a fat-ḥah on the final letter of the noun.
3. the i-case. By default, it is indicated, by a kasrah on the final letter of the noun.

When a noun is indefinite, then, for most nouns, it is also tanwīn. Here, for example, is the noun **كِتَابٌ** *kitāb* “book” in its three states:

case	Indefinite “a book”	Definite “the book”
u-case	كِتَابٌ <i>kitābun</i>	الْكِتَابُ <i>ʾalkitābu</i>
a-case	كِتَابًا <i>kitāban</i>	الْكِتَابَ <i>ʾalkitāba</i>
i-case	كِتَابٍ <i>kitābin</i>	الْكِتَابِ <i>ʾalkitābi</i>

The u-case is a noun's normal case, and there needs to be a reason to take the noun out of this case into another case. We will begin to use case more in the next chapter if Allāh wills, where we learn how to form sentences.

3.4. Grammatical gender

Some nouns designate animate beings like “man”, “woman”, “boy”, “girl”, “dog”, “cow”, etc. Other nouns designate inanimate objects like “book”, “house”, “hand”, “tree”, “city”, “food”.

In dealing with the grammatical genders of such nouns, English uses three genders:

1. The masculine gender. This is used for nouns that designate male human beings and also some male animals. The pronouns used for the masculine gender are “he”, “him”, and “his”.
2. The feminine gender. This is used for nouns that designate female human beings, and also some female animals. The pronouns used for the feminine gender are “she” and “her”.
3. The neutral gender. This is used for nouns that designate inanimate objects and animals in general. The pronoun used for the neutral gender is “it”.

In Arabic, there are only two grammatical genders: the masculine gender and the feminine gender. All nouns in Arabic are either masculine or feminine in gender. Nouns that designate male human beings are assigned the masculine grammatical gender. And nouns that designate female human beings are assigned the feminine grammatical gender. Nouns that designate animals sometimes conform to the gender of the animal. Other times, they have a fixed gender. As for nouns that designate inanimate objects, these, too, are assigned a gender. For example, كتاب *kitāb* “book” in Arabic is masculine. And شجرة *shajarah* “tree” in Arabic is feminine. We shall discuss this in more detail below.

3.4.1. Nouns that designate animate beings.

In Arabic, in terms of their form, nouns that designate animate beings are in three categories:

1. There are separate but matching nouns for the male and female animate beings.
2. There are separate and unrelated nouns for the male and female animate beings.
3. The same noun is used for both sexes.

We will discuss each of these categories below.

3.4.1.1. Matching nouns for male and female animate beings

In Arabic for some nouns that designate animate beings, the nouns for both sexes match each other. Here are some examples:

Primitive nouns

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
ابن <i>ibn</i>	masc.	son
ابنة <i>ibnah</i>	fem.	daughter
طفل <i>tifl</i>	masc.	child
طفلة <i>tiflah</i>	fem.	(female) child
إنسان <i>insān</i>	masc.	human being
إنسانة <i>insānah</i>	fem.	(female) human being
حرر <i>hurr</i>	masc.	free man

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
حُرَّة <i>hurrah</i>	fem.	free woman
كَلْب <i>kalb</i>	masc.	(male) dog
كَلْبَة <i>kalbah</i>	fem.	(female) dog
هَر <i>hrr</i>	masc.	(male) cat
هَرَّة <i>hirrah</i>	fem.	(female) cat

Derived nouns

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
مُعَلِّم <i>muʿallim</i>	masc.	(male) teacher
مُعَلِّمَة <i>muʿallimah</i>	fem.	(female) teacher
طَالِب <i>tālib</i>	masc.	(male) student
طَالِبَة <i>tālibah</i>	fem.	(female) student
صَاحِب <i>ṣāhib</i>	masc.	(male) companion
صَاحِبَة <i>ṣāhibah</i>	fem.	(female) companion
صَدِيق <i>ṣadiq</i>	masc.	(male) friend
صَدِيقَة <i>ṣadiqah</i>	fem.	(female) friend

In each of the words in the table above, the feminine noun is basically the same as the masculine noun but with the addition of a *ḍ* at the end. For example, *طِفْل* *ṭifl* is masculine, and its feminine is *طِفْلَة* *ṭiflah* (fem.).

As a matter of fact, the *ḍ* is called a feminine marker for singular nouns. There are a couple of other, less common, feminine markers besides *ḍ* that we will learn them later, if Allāh wills.

Note that the vowel-mark before the *ḍ* is always an *fatḥah*.

Note also that we have divided the nouns above into two categories:

- i. Primitive nouns
- ii. Derived nouns

Primitive nouns have a primitive meaning, without a primarily adjectival or verbal quality in the meaning, for example “human” “cat”, etc. For derived nouns, their meaning is derived from an adjectival or verbal quality. For example, a “teacher” is someone who teaches. A “friend” is someone who is friendly. And so on.

For derived nouns, the formation of the feminine noun by adding a feminine marker (like *ḍ*) to the masculine noun is normal and expected. Whereas, for primitive nouns, the fact that the feminine and masculine nouns match each other and differ only by the feminine marker *ḍ* is something that, although somewhat common, is more of a coincidence.

Another noteworthy point is that, for many primitive nouns, sometimes only one of the masculine/feminine pair may be used to refer to beings of either sex. What we mean by this is that, for example, *كَلْب* *kalb*, while remaining a masculine noun, can be used to refer to both a male dog and a female dog,

especially if the animal's physical gender is not obvious or particularly important. And كَلْبَةٌ *kalbah* (fem.) “a female dog” is typically only used when it is needed to specify the gender of the animal. Conversely, هِرَّةٌ *hirrah* “a (female) cat” may be used to refer to cat of either physical gender, especially if it is not obvious whether it is a male or female cat.

This preference of the noun of one gender to refer to beings of either physical gender is case-by-case. For example, طِفْلٌ *ṭifl* (masc.) is commonly used to say “a child”, regardless of whether the child is a boy or a girl. But طِفْلَةٌ *ṭiflah*, although not uncommon, is used specifically for “a female child”.

As another example, the word إِنْسَانَةٌ *insānah* (fem.) “a female human being” is rarely used at all. Instead, the word إِنْسَانٌ *insān*, while remaining a masculine noun, is almost always used to refer to “a human being” in general, regardless of actual gender.

On the other hand, ابْنٌ *ibn* “son” and ابْنَةٌ *ibnah* “daughter” are only ever used for their respective gender. So ابْنٌ *ibn* (masc.) “a son” is not used to mean “a daughter”. And ابْنَةٌ *ibnah* (fem.) “a daughter” is not used to mean “a son”.

As for derived nouns, they are typically only ever used for their respective gender. So, for example, مُعَلِّمٌ *mucallim* (masc.) is only used for “a (male) teacher”. And مُعَلِّمَةٌ *mucallimah* (fem.) is only used for “a (female) teacher”.

3.4.1.2. Unrelated nouns for male and female animate beings

For other nouns that designate animate beings, the nouns for the male and female sexes are completely unrelated. Here are some examples:

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
أَبٌ <i>ab</i>	masc.	father
أُمٌّ <i>umm</i>	fem.	mother
غُلَامٌ <i>ghulām</i>	masc.	boy
جَارِيَةٌ <i>jāriyah</i>	fem.	girl
عَبْدٌ <i>abd</i>	masc.	male slave
أَمَةٌ <i>amah</i>	fem.	female slave
أَسَدٌ <i>asad</i>	masc.	lion
لَبْوَةٌ <i>labwah</i>	fem.	lioness
ثَوْرٌ <i>thawr</i>	masc.	bull
بَقَرَةٌ <i>baqarah</i>	fem.	cow

Even in these nouns you can see that the feminine noun usually ends with a ة feminine marker. There are only a few commonly used feminine nouns that don't end with a feminine marker like ة. أُمٌّ *umm* “mother” is one of these exceptions.

3.4.1.3. Using the same noun for both sexes

There are other nouns for animate beings where the same word is used for both sexes. The word itself will still be either grammatically masculine or feminine. Here are some examples:

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
شَخْصٌ <i>shakhṣ</i>	masc.	person
نَفْسٌ <i>nafs</i>	fem.	self
عَدُوٌّ <i>ʿaduww</i>	masc.	enemy
حَيَوَانٌ <i>ḥayawān</i>	masc.	animal
طَائِرٌ <i>tāʾir</i>	masc.	bird
قِرْدٌ <i>qird</i>	masc.	monkey
حَمَامَةٌ <i>ḥamāmah</i>	fem.	dove
نَمْلَةٌ <i>namlah</i>	fem.	ant

So, for example, قِرْدٌ *qird* “monkey” is grammatically masculine but it will be used for both a male and a female monkey. Similarly, شَخْصٌ *shakhṣ* is a masculine noun meaning “person”. While remaining grammatically masculine, it can be used to refer to persons of male or female persons. While, نَفْسٌ *nafs* is a feminine noun meaning “self”. While remaining grammatically feminine, it can be used to refer to persons of male or female selves

Note also that نَفْسٌ *nafs* “self” is a feminine noun but it does not end in a ة. It is one of the small number of feminine nouns that don’t have a female marker, like أُمٌّ *umm* (fem.) “mother”.

3.4.2. Nouns that designate inanimate objects

As mentioned earlier, nouns that designate inanimate objects are assigned a fixed grammatical gender. There is usually no discernable reason why some are assigned a masculine gender while others are assigned a feminine gender.

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
كِتَابٌ <i>kitāb</i>	masc.	book
بَيْتٌ <i>bayt</i>	masc.	house
قَلَمٌ <i>qalam</i>	masc.	pen
طَعَامٌ <i>ṭaʿām</i>	masc.	food
مَاءٌ <i>māʾ</i>	masc.	water
مَدْرَسَةٌ <i>madrasah</i>	fem.	school
مَدِينَةٌ <i>madīnah</i>	fem.	city
غُرْفَةٌ <i>ghurfah</i>	fem.	room
شَجَرَةٌ <i>shajarah</i>	fem.	tree
شَمْسٌ <i>shams</i>	fem.	sun
قَمَرٌ <i>qamar</i>	masc.	moon
عِلْمٌ <i>ʿilm</i>	masc.	knowledge

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
قُوَّة <i>quwwah</i>	fem.	strength
حَيَاة <i>hayāh</i>	fem.	life
مَوْت <i>mawt</i>	masc.	death

In these nouns as well, we note that feminine nouns usually end with the feminine marker ة. But here too, we find another exception: شَمْس *shams* “sun” which is feminine but does not end with a feminine marker. These exceptions are not very many and, if Allāh wills, we will not find it hard to memorize them.

There is a sub-group of nouns that designate inanimate objects, but can also be used to refer to animate beings. Here are a couple of examples:

Arabic word	Gender	Definition
رَهْبَنَة <i>rahīnah</i>	fem.	pledge
عَضْو <i>ʿuḍw</i>	masc.	member

رَهْبَنَة *rahīnah* is a feminine noun meaning “pledge”. For inanimate objects it refers to something that is held as a security or a collateral. With its animate meaning, it is used to refer to a human hostage.

Similarly, عَضْو *ʿuḍw* is a masculine noun meaning “member”. For inanimate objects it refers to a limb which is the member of a body. With its animate meaning it refers to a person who is a member of a professional organization.

Just like we saw for the nouns in section @using-the-same-noun-for-both-sexes, such nouns adhere to their fixed grammatical gender when used for either male or female persons.¹

3.4.3. Nouns with mismarked gender

We saw that there are some nouns that are feminine, but do not end with with a feminine marker like ة. These were:

- اُمّ *umm* (fem.) “mother”
- نَفْس *nafs* (fem.) “self”
- شَمْس *shams* (fem.) “sun”

There are a few more nouns that are like this. One special category among them is body parts. Many prominent body parts that come in pairs or more, are grammatically feminine, whether or not they end with a feminine marker like ة. Here are some examples:

- يَد *yad* (fem.) “hand” (sometimes “an arm”)
- عَيْن *ʿayn* (fem.) “eye”
- أُذُن *uḍhun* (fem.) “ear”
- قَدَم *qadam* (fem.) “foot”

¹ 401–410 مجموع مقالات فيصل المنصور in عضو أم عضوة؟ ومسائل أخرى

- رِجْل *rijl* (fem.) “leg” (sometimes “foot”)
- إِبْهَام *’ibhām* (fem.) “thumb”
- إِصْبَع *’iṣbaʿ* (fem.) “finger, toe”
- سِنَّ *sinn* (fem.) “tooth”
- رُكْبَة *rukbaḥ* (fem.) “knee”

There are exceptions, however. The following body parts come in pairs yet are masculine.

- مَنْخَر *mankhar* (masc.) “nostril”
- مِرْفَق *mirfaq* (masc.) “elbow”

There are other such exceptions as well.

Body parts that don’t come in pairs are typically more regular in their gender: they are feminine if they end in a feminine marker like *ə*, and masculine if they don’t. Examples:

- رَأْس *ra’s* (masc.) “head”
- أَنْف *’anf* (masc.) “nose”
- بَطْن *batn* (masc.) “belly”
- لِحْيَة *lihyah* (fem.) “beard”

Conversely, nouns that end with a feminine marker like *ə*, yet are masculine are very rare. Some of the more common of them are:

- خَلِيفَة *khalīfah* (masc.) “caliph”
- عَالِمَة *ʿallāmah* (masc.) “great scholar”
- دَاعِيَة *dāʿiyah* (masc.) “great preacher”

There are also a few words which can be optionally assigned a masculine or feminine gender. Among these are:

- سُوق *sūq* (masc. or fem.) “market”
- طَرِيق *ṭarīq* (masc. or fem.) “path”

A good dictionary should mention the gender of all these exceptional words. In addition, in appendix @ref(unmarked-fem-nouns) as well, we have a compiled a list of feminine nouns that don’t end with a feminine marker. (TODO: get from Hava: pg. xi (fem) and xii (admitting either gender).)

3.5. Exercises

In the following English sentences, determine whether the underlined nouns will be translated with definite or indefinite nouns in Arabic.

Chapter 4.

The nounal sentence

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter we will learn about a class of sentences called *nounal sentences*. Nounal sentences consist of two parts:

- i. The *subject*. This is the topic of the sentence.
- ii. The *info*. This gives us some information about the subject.

4.2. Forming nounal sentences

Here is a nounal sentence:

“The building is a house.”

subject { info

The subject of the sentence is “the building”. This means that the sentence is about “the building”.

The info is “a house”. This means that the info that the sentence is giving us about the subject is that it is “a house”.

Let's try to form this sentence in Arabic.

First we assemble the individual parts:

- i. “The building” in Arabic is أَلْبِنَاءُ *’albinā’* (masc.).
- ii. “A house” is بَيْتٌ *bayt* (masc.).

Next we put them both in the u-case. For nounal sentences, both the subject and the info shall be in the u-case. Remember that the u-case is formed by putting a tanwined ḍammah ُ at the end of an indefinite noun, and a ḍammah ُ at the end of a definite noun. Here are the two nouns in the u-case:

- i. أَلْبِنَاءُ *’albinā’u* (masc.) “the building” (u-case)

- ii. بَيْتٌ *baytun* (masc.) “a house” (u-case)

In order to form this sentence in Arabic, we put the subject first and then the info. So we get:

$\begin{array}{c} \text{info} \\ \text{بَيْتٌ} \\ \cdot \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{subject} \\ \text{الْبِنَاءُ} \end{array}$

بَيْتٌ *baytu binā'.*

“The building is a house.”

But wait! Where is the Arabic word for “is”? It turns out that Arabic does not usually express any word for “is”. Instead, the meaning of this word is implied.

Also, note that the final vowel mark at the end of the sentence is written but not pronounced. So we will write بَيْتٌ but say *bayt*, not *baytun*. This is in accordance with what we learned in section @ref(pronouncing-the-end-of-a-sentence).

Now let's try reversing this sentence, and try making the sentence:

“The house is a building.”

We follow the same procedure by assembling the individual parts of the sentence and putting them in the u-case:

- i. The subject: الْبَيْتُ *albaytu* (masc.) “the house” (u-case)
 ii. The info: بِنَاءٌ *binā'un* (masc.) “a building” (u-case)

And then we put them together, first the subject and then the info:

الْبَيْتُ بِنَاءٌ

الْبَيْتُ *albaytu binā'.*

“The house is a building.”

and there we have our sentence.

4.3. Matching the gender between the subject and the info

In the sentences above, both the subject and the info were masculine nouns. Now let's try forming a sentence where the subject and the info have different genders. Let's try saying:

“The building is a school.”

- i. The subject: الْبِنَاءُ *albinā'u* (masc.) “the building” (u-case)
 ii. The info: مَدْرَسَةٌ *madrasatun* (fem.) “a school” (u-case)

In the same manner as before, we form the sentence by first writing the subject and then the info:

$\text{الْبِنَاءُ مَدْرَسَةٌ}$

الْبِنَاءُ *albinā'u madrasah.*

“The building is a school.”

We can also reverse this sentence:

الْمَدْرَسَةُ بِنَاءٌ.

ʾalmaḍrasatu bināʾ.

“The school is a building.”

So we see that it is quite normal to have a sentence where the gender of the subject does not match the gender of the info. This is because the nouns we have dealt with so far denote inanimate entities. If either the subject or the info denote animate beings, then in this case the subject and the info often do match each other in gender. For example, let’s try to form the sentence:

“The mother is a teacher.”

Here are the individual words that we will use to form the sentence:

i. The subject: “the mother”: الْأُمُّ ʾalʾummu (fem.) (u-case).

ii. The info: “a teacher”. We have two words for “a teacher” in Arabic:

- الْمُعَلِّمُ muʿallim (masc.) “a (male) teacher”
- مُعَلِّمَةٌ muʿallimah (fem.) “a (female) teacher”.

Obviously, مُعَلِّمَةٌ muʿallimah would apply here so we put it in the u-case: مُعَلِّمَةٌ muʿallimatun (u-case).

Now we can assemble the sentence:

الْأُمُّ مُعَلِّمَةٌ.

ʾalʾummu muʿallimah.

“The mother is a teacher.”

In the reverse sentence “The teacher is a mother.”, we again use the feminine noun مُعَلِّمَةٌ muʿallimah (fem.) “a (female) teacher”, which is now the subject of the sentence, to match the feminine noun in the info الْأُمُّ ʾalumm (fem.) “a mother”. So we get:

الْمُعَلِّمَةُ أُمٌّ.

ʾalmuʿallimatu ʾumm.

“The teacher_f is a mother.”

Here is another example:

الرَّجُلُ أَبٌ.

ʾarrujulu ʾab.

“The man is a father.”

Now, let’s try a sentence where we are still dealing with animate beings but the nouns mismatches in grammatical gender.

الْأُمُّ شَخْصٌ.

ʾalʾummu shakhṣ.

“The mother is a person.”

الشَّخْصُ مُعَلِّمَةٌ.

ashshakhṣu muʿallimah.

“The person is a (female) teacher.”

الْمُعَلِّمَةُ شَخْصٌ.

ʾalmuʿallimatu shakhṣ.

“The (female) teacher is a person.”

In the above examples, the grammatical genders mismatch between the subject and the info. But this is because we are matching with the physical gender of the person represented by the masculine noun *شَخْصٌ* *shakhṣ* “a person”, not its grammatical gender.

The same effect is seen when using the word *حَيَوَان* *ḥayawān* which is a masculine noun meaning “an animal”. It can be applied to both male and female animals. So we can say:

الْحَيَوَانُ هِرٌّ.

‘alḥayawānu hirr.

“The animal is a (male) cat.”

and

الْحَيَوَانُ هِرَّةٌ.

‘alḥayawānu hirrah.

“The animal is a (female) cat.”

4.4. Detached pronouns

Pronouns, in Arabic, are special nouns that can be used in place of other nouns when it is known who is being referred to. This means that they can replace definite nouns only. Pronouns in English include words like “he”, “she”, “it”, “you”, “I”, etc.

In order to explain the usage of pronouns, we will first show a sentence with a noun subject:

“The man is a teacher.”

Now we you can replace the definite subject noun “the man” with the pronoun “he”:

“He is a teacher.”

In Arabic there are a few different kinds of pronouns. Here we will learn *detached pronouns*. They are called detached pronouns because they are detached from other words. There are another set of pronouns called *attached pronouns* that we will learn later, if Allāh wills.

4.4.1. Participants

When talking about pronouns, it is beneficial to make use of a concept of grammar called *participants*.

In any kind of speech there are there can be up to three types of *participants* involved. A participant may be singular, i.e. consist of one individual, or plural, i.e., consist of more than one individual.

The three participants in speech are:

1. The *speaker-participant*. This is the participant who is speaking. When the speaker-participant refers to himself or herself (or themselves if plural) in English, then he/she/they use the pronouns “I”, “me”, “we”, and “us”.
2. The *addressee-participant*. This is the participant whom the speaker-participant is directly speaking to. When the speaker-participant refers to the addressee-participant in English, he uses the “you” pronoun.

3. The *absentee-participant*. This is the participant who is not being directly spoken to. Their only participation in the speech is that they are being referred to. When the speaker-participant refers to the absentee-participant in English, he uses the pronouns “he”, “him”, “she”, “her”, “it”, “they”, and “them”.

In this chapter we will learn the Arabic pronouns for the singular participants.

4.4.2. Detached pronouns for the singular absentee-participant

Here are the Arabic detached pronouns for the singular absentee-participant:

- singular masculine absentee-participant: هُوَ *huwa* “he”.
- singular feminine absentee-participant: هِيَ *hiya* “she”.

Here are some examples of pair of sentences, each first with a noun, and then with a pronoun in place of the noun:

- الرَّجُلُ مُعَلِّمٌ.
'*arraḡulu muεallim*.
“The man is a teacher_m.”

هُوَ مُعَلِّمٌ.
huwa muεallim.
“He is a (male) teacher_m.”

- الْجَارِيَةُ طَالِبَةٌ.
'*aljāriyatu ṭalibah*.
“The girl is a student_f.”

- هِيَ طَالِبَةٌ.
hiya ṭalibah.
“She is a student_f.”

- الْبَيْتُ بِنَاءٌ.
'*albaytu binā'*.
“The house is a building.”

هُوَ بِنَاءٌ.
huwa binā'.
“It is a building.”

Note that Arabic uses the pronoun هُوَ *huwa* “he” to refer to the inanimate object “the house”. This is because, as we know, all nouns in Arabic are either masculine or feminine. In translating the sentence to English we will employ the neutral pronoun “it” to make the sentence sound natural.

- الْبِنَاءُ مَدْرَسَةٌ.
'*albinā'u madrasah*.
“The building is a school.”

هُوَ مَدْرَسَةٌ. *huwa madrasah.*

or

هِيَ مَدْرَسَةٌ. *hiya madrasah.*

“It is a school.”

Note that either *هُوَ huwa* “he” or *هِيَ hiya* “she” can be used in the above sentence because the gender of the subject *الْبِنَاءُ ‘albinā’* (masc.) “the building” mismatches the gender of the info *مَدْرَسَةٌ madrasah* (fem.) “a school.”.

In such cases where the genders of the subject and the info do not match, then, generally speaking, the pronoun for either gender could be employed with the following guideline:

Prefer to match the gender of the subject pronoun with the gender of the info, unless the noun being replaced with a pronoun is an animate being, in which case prefer to use the gender of the animate being.

So in the above sentence we will prefer to use *هِيَ مَدْرَسَةٌ. hiya madrasah.* because the info *مَدْرَسَةٌ madrasatun* “a school” is feminine.

- Here is an example with an animate being as the subject:

الْجَارِيَةُ إِنْسَانٌ.

‘aljāriyatu insān.

“The girl is a human.”

هِيَ إِنْسَانٌ.

hiya insān.

“She is a human.”

Here, if we replace the noun *الْجَارِيَةُ ‘aljāriyah* “the girl” with a pronoun, we will prefer to use *هِيَ hiya* “she”, because the girl is an animate being, even though the info *إِنْسَانٌ ‘insānun* “a human” is masculine.

4.4.3. Detached pronouns for the singular addressee-participant and speaker-participant

Here are the pronouns for the singular addressee-participant and speaker-participant:

- singular masculine addressee-participant: أَنْتَ *‘anta* “you_m”.
- singular feminine addressee-participant: أَنْتِ *‘anti* “you_f”.
- singular speaker-participant: أَنَا *‘ana* “I”.

Note that the addressee-participant pronoun “you” has separate pronouns for the masculine and the feminine while the speaker-participant pronoun “I” has the same pronoun for both genders. Examples with these pronouns:

أَنْتَ مُعَلِّمٌ.

‘anta mu‘allim.

“You_m are a teacher_m.”

- أَنْتِ مُعَلِّمَةٌ.
'anti muʿallimah.
“You_f are a teacher_f.”
- أَنَا مُعَلِّمٌ.
'ana muʿallim.
“I am a teacher_m.”
- أَنَا مُعَلِّمَةٌ.
'ana muʿallimah.
“I am a teacher_f.”

4.4.4. Definiteness of pronouns

We stated, and saw, that pronouns can replace definite nouns. This means that pronouns themselves are definite nouns (even though they are not prefixed by *ʾal* “the”).

This fact will be useful in later chapters, if Allāh wills.

4.4.5. Rigidity of pronouns

Remember in section @ref(flexibility-of-nouns), we talked about the flexibility of nouns. We said that nouns whose endings change with the noun’s case are called flexible nouns. Most nouns fall into this category.

Pronouns, however, are nouns whose endings don’t change with their case. Therefore they fall into the category of *rigid* nouns.

4.5. A definite noun as the info

In all the examples so far, the info has been an indefinite noun: “a building”, “a teacher”, “a cat”, etc. It is also possible for the info to be a definite noun:

الرَّجُلُ الْمُعَلِّمُ.
'arrajulu -lmuʿallim.
“The man is the teacher_m.”

The above sentence, although correct, is ambiguous. It can also be interpreted as a noun-phrase, meaning “the teacher-man”, instead of the complete sentence “The man is the teacher_m.” Therefore, in order to disambiguate and make it clear that we mean the complete sentence, a *disambiguating pronoun* is usually (but not always) inserted between the subject and the info. Disambiguating pronouns are detached pronouns that match the subject of the sentence in gender. With a disambiguating pronoun, the sentence above becomes:

الرَّجُلُ هُوَ الْمُعَلِّمُ.
'arrajulu huwa -lmuʿallim.
“The man is the teacher_m.”

The disambiguating pronoun here is *هُوَ huwa* and is not translated. Here are some more examples of sentences with definite infos and disambiguating pronouns.

الْبَيْتُ هُوَ الْبِنَاءُ.
 'albaytu -lbinā'u.
 "The house is the building."
 الْحَيَوَانُ هِيَ الْهَيْرَةُ.
 'alḥayawānu hiya -lhirratu.
 "The animal is the cat."

4.6. An indefinite noun as the subject

In all the sentences we have seen so far, the subject has always been a definite noun. This is usually the case. A subject needs a certain amount of *weight* in order to be the first word in a sentence. And being definite gives it this needed weight. That is: "the man" is grammatically *heavier* than "a man". So it is easier to start a sentence with "the man".

So can we even have a sentence that has an indefinite subject? For example:

- A house is a building.
- A man is the teacher.

Yes, it is possible, but sentences where the subject is an indefinite noun are not as straightforward to express in Arabic. We will explore some ways of expressing them later if Allāh wills.

4.7. و *wa*- "and", فَ *fa*- "so"/"and then", and أَوْ *aw* "or"

4.7.1. و *wa*- "and"

Arabic uses the particle و *wa* to mean "and". Being a one-letter particle, it is joined to the word after it without any space between it and the next word.

وَمَدْرَسَةٌ
wamadrasatun
 "and a school"

و *wa* meaning "and" does not change the case of the noun following it. Examples:

الْبِنَاءُ مَسْجِدٌ وَمَدْرَسَةٌ.
 'albinā'u masjidun wamadrasah.
 "The building is a mosque and a school."

If there are more than two words, then in English, only the final word usually has "and" and the rest are separated by commas in writing. In Arabic, however, each must have و and commas are not typically used.

الْبِنَاءُ مَسْجِدٌ وَمَدْرَسَةٌ وَمَكْتَبَةٌ.
 'albinā'u baytun wamadrasatun wamaktabah
 "The building is a mosque, a school, and a library."

We can also use و to begin and connect sentences. The following example is technically two sentences, both beginning with و:

وَالرَّجُلُ إِنْسَانٌ وَالْكَلْبُ حَيَوَانٌ
warrujulu 'inṣānun wa-lkalbu ḥayawānun

“And the man is a human and the dog is an animal.”

Unlike as in English, this is not considered poor style. When translating such sentences to English, the first و is often left out, thus: “The man is a human and the dog is an animal.”

4.7.2. ف fa- “so”/“and then”

The word ف fa- “so”/“and then” is comparable to و wa- “and”. ف fa- “so”/“and then” gives a meaning of ordering, consequence, and subsequence that is missing in و wa- “and”. For example,

الْبِنَاءُ مَسْجِدٌ فَمَدْرَسَةٌ فَمَكْتَبَةٌ.
'albinā'u baytun famadrasatun famaktabah

“The building is a mosque, and then a school, and then a library.”

ف fa- “so”/“and then”, too, is used to begin and connect sentences. Example,

فَالرَّجُلُ إِنْسَانٌ وَالْكَلْبُ حَيَوَانٌ
farrujulu 'inṣānun wa-lkalbu ḥayawānun

“So the man is a human and the dog is an animal.”

Work in progress

Chapter 5.

The prepositions

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

5.1. Introduction

Prepositions are words like “in”, “on”, “from”, etc. They are placed directly before a noun, for example: “in a house”. The preposition “in” is placed directly before the noun “a house”.

In Arabic prepositions, when placed before a noun, put it in the i-case. For example the preposition في *fī* means “in”. We can put it before the noun بَيْت *bayt* “a house”:

فِي بَيْتٍ

fī baytin

“in a house”

Note how the noun بَيْت *baytin* “a house” is in the i-case because of the preposition في *fī* “in” before it. The i-case is indicated by the tanwined kasrah ِ on the final letter of بَيْتِ.

Arabic has two types of prepositions: *true* prepositions and *pseudo*-prepositions.

5.2. True prepositions

True prepositions are *particles*. Particles are a class of words, like nouns and verbs. Particles don’t have the properties of nouns. Thus, they cannot be definite or indefinite. They cannot be preceded by ال *al* nor may they be tanwined. And they don’t have case (u-case, a-case, i-case).

Here is a list of the more common true prepositions:

Preposition	Meaning
بِ <i>bi</i>	with, by, next to
لِ <i>li</i>	for, to
فِي <i>fī</i>	in

Preposition	Meaning
عَلَى <i>ʿalā</i>	on
إِلَى <i>ʾilā</i>	to, toward
مِنْ <i>min</i>	from
عَنْ <i>ʿan</i>	from, about
كَ <i>ka</i>	like

Notes:

- Prepositions that are a single letter (like ب *bi*, ل *li*, ك *ka*) are joined to the following noun in writing. Example:

بِقَلَمٍ
biqalamin
“with a pen”

لِرَجُلٍ
lirajulin
“for a man”

كَابْنٍ
ka-bnin
“like a son”

- When a single letter preposition comes before a definite noun with ال *al*, the preposition is generally joined to the alif in the ال *al*. The alif is now not pronounced (because as we know it has a connecting hamzah). Example:

بِالْقَلَمِ
bi-lqalami
“with the pen”

If the noun begins with a connecting hamzah then the ل in ال *al* gets an kasrah ِ instead of its usual sukūn ْ. We described this in section @ref(the-definite-article-with-nouns-with-an-initial-connecting-hamzah). Example:

كَالِابْنِ
ka-li-bni
“like the son”

- The only exception is the preposition ل *li*. When joined to a definite noun with ال *al*, the alif in ال *al* is dropped and we write the two *lāms* together. Example:

لِلرَّجُلِ
li-rrajuli
“for the man”

لِلْجَارِيَةِ
li-ljāriyati
“for the girl”

لِلْأَبْنِ

li-li-bni

“for the son”

However, in this case, if the noun too starts with a *lām*, then we drop the entire *ألْ al* (in writing, not in meaning). This is to avoid having three *lāms* joined to each other. Example:

اَللُّعْبَةُ

ʾalluebatu

“the toy”

becomes

لِلُّعْبَةِ

li-lluebati

“for the toy”

not

× لِلُّعْبَةِ

This is also true for the phrase:

لِلَّهِ

lillāhi

“for Allāh”

which is formed from *لِ + إِلَهِ*

- The prepositions *عَلَى ʿalā* “on” and *إِلَى ʾilā* “to” have a long-*ā* vowel at the end but it is written with a dotless *yāʾ* *ي* instead of an alif. (We have already learned that some words are written this way in section @ref(a-vowel-written-with-a-ya).)

- Prepositions that are composed of multiple letters are not joined to the following noun. Example:

إِلَى مَدْرَسَةٍ

ʾilā madrasatin

“to a school”

- If a preposition ends with a long vowel, then, as usual, it get shortened to a short vowel when it is followed by a word which begins with a connecting hamzah. Examples:

فِي الْبَيْتِ

fī -lbyati

“in the house”

إِلَى ابْنِ

ʾilā -bnin

“to a son”

- If a preposition ends with a sukūn ْ and it is followed by a word that begins with a connecting hamzah, then the sukūn is changed to a short vowel according to the following rules:

- The ending of the preposition عَنْ *ʿan* gets an kasrah and becomes عَنِ *ʿani*. Examples:

عَنِ الرَّجُلِ
ʿani -rrajuli
“from the man”

عَنِ ابْنِ
ʿani -bnin
“from the son”

- The ending of the preposition مِنْ *min* gets an fatḥah if followed by the ال *al* of a definite noun. Otherwise it gets an kasrah if followed by any other connecting hamzah. Examples:

مِنَ الرَّجُلِ
mina -rrajuli
“from the man”

مِنَ ابْنِ
mini -bnin
“from a son”

5.3. Pseudo-prepositions

Pseudo-prepositions are actually nouns but they are used as prepositions. The above rules of writing and pronunciation apply to them as well.

Here is a list of some common pseudo-prepositions:

Preposition	Transcription	Meaning
عِنْدَ	<i>ʿinda</i>	at
لَدَى	<i>ladā</i>	at
لَدُنْ	<i>ladun</i>	at
مَعَ	<i>maʿa</i>	together with
بَيْنَ	<i>bayna</i>	between, among

There are three different prepositions above that we have translated as “at”. لَدُنْ is relatively rarer compared to the others. Otherwise, they are largely interchangeable but there are some differences in meaning that we will explain later, if Allāh wills.

Here are some examples using pseudo-prepositions:

مَعَ الْغُلَامِ
maʿa -lghulāmi
“with the boy”

عِنْدَ الْبَيْتِ
ʿinda -lbayti
“at the house”

لَدَى الْبَابِ
ladā -lbābi
 “at the door”
 بَيْنَ النَّاسِ
bayna -nnāsi
 “among the people”

5.4. Attached pronouns

We have already learned detached pronouns هُوَ, هِيَ, and أَنَا in section @ref(detached-pronouns). Detached pronouns are the equivalent of “he”, “she”, and “I”, etc. They are used in place of nouns that are in the u-case.

Now we will learn about *attached pronouns*. Attached pronouns are, more or less, the equivalent of “him”, “her”, and “me”, etc. They are used in place of nouns that are in the a-case and the i-case. One place where attached pronouns are used is when they replace the noun directly following a preposition.

The singular attached pronouns are listed below. The detached pronouns are included as well for easy comparison.

Participant	Detached pronoun	Attached pronoun
Masc. absentee	هُوَ <i>huwa</i> “him”	هُ - <i>hu</i> “him”
Fem. absentee	هِيَ <i>hiya</i> “her”	هَا - <i>hā</i> “her”
Masc. addressee	أَنْتَ <i>anta</i> “you _{1,m} ”	كَ - <i>ka</i> “you _{1,m} ”
Fem. addressee	أَنْتِ <i>anti</i> “you _{1,f} ”	كِ - <i>ki</i> “you _{1,f} ”
Speaker	أَنَا <i>ana</i> “I”	يَ “me”

5.4.1. Attached pronouns with prepositions

As mentioned above, one place the attached pronouns are used is after prepositions. Here are some notes regarding how they attach to prepositions:

- Generally, these pronouns attach to the last letter of the preposition before it. Examples:
 - مِنْكَ *minka* “from you”
 - مَعَهُ *maʿahu* “with him”
 - عَنْهَا *ʿanhā* “from her”
- The *ā* ending of prepositions becomes *-ay* when attaching an attached pronoun. Examples:
 - إِلَيْهَا *ilayhā* “to her”
 - عَلَيْكَ *ʿalayka* “on you_m”
- The pronoun هُوَ -*hu* “him” becomes *hi* when it is preceded by the vowels *-i*, *-ī*, or the semi-vowel *-ay*. So we get

- بِه *bihi* “with him”
- فِيهِ *fīhi* “in him”
- إِلَيْهِ *ilayhi* “to him”

4. The attached pronoun for the speaker deserves special attention. The pronoun itself is the letter ي. But it has two variants:

- يَ -ī
- يَا -iya

Generally, both of these variants cause the final letter of the word before them, if a consonant, to have an kasrah ِ, regardless of the whether or not that letter originally had an kasrah. Examples:

- لِي *lī* and لِيَ *liya* “for me”
- بِي *bī* and يَا *biya* “with/by me”
- مَعِي *maʿi* and مَعِيَ *maʿiya* “together with me”
- عِنْدِي *ʿindī* and عِنْدِيَ *ʿindiya* “at me”

Between these two, variants, يَ -ī is more commonly used generally, except in the cases described in the next point, below:

5. For any word that ends with a long vowel (-ā, -ī, or -ū) or a semi-vowel (-ay or -aw), the variant يَا -iya for the speaker attached pronoun is not used. Instead, only the variant يَ -ī may be used with such words.

Prepositions that fall under this category are فِي *fī*, عَلَى *ʿalā*, إِلَى *ilā*, and لَدَى *ladā*. Furthermore, the -ā ending in these will become اَي *ay* instead when attaching the pronoun.

In addition, the pronoun يَا -iya will not cause the final letter of word before it to have an kasrah because it does that only to consonants, not to vowels or semivowels.

So we get:

- فِي + يَ = فِيَّ *fīya* “in me”
- إِلَى + يَ = إِلَيَّ *ilayya* “to me”
- عَلَى + يَ = عَلَيَّ *ʿalayya* “on me”
- لَدَى + يَ = لَدَيَّ *ladayya* “at me”.

6. The preposition كَ *ka* “like” is not used with any attached pronoun. So, for example, we don’t say:

- × كَهُ *kahu* for “like him.”

Instead, we will learn another method to express this meaning in later chapters, if Allāh wills.

7. The word “between”, because of its meaning, is typically used with two or more individuals. For example, “between us”, “between you and him”, etc. In Arabic, when the pseudo-preposition بَيْنَ *bayna* is used with a singular attached pronoun, it is repeated. For example,

- بَيْنِي وَبَيْنَكَ *baynī wabaynaka* “between me and you”

5.5. Translating prepositions

For each preposition that we have listed above, we have also given its meaning. For example,

- في *fī* “in”
- بـ *bi* “with”, “by”, “next to”

These meanings are not always fixed. And there is some degree of overlap in meanings as well. For example, in order to say “in the city” we will usually say بِالْمَدِينَةِ *fī l-madinati* but sometimes we can also say بِالْمَدِينَةِ *bi l-madinati* with the same meaning. As you keep learning, practicing, and reading Arabic, you will learn how to choose which preposition to use, if Allah wills.

Similarly, sometimes we have two or more prepositions with almost the same meaning. For example,

- مِنْ *min* “from”
- عَنْ *ʿan* “from”, “about”

Knowing when to use one or the other will also take practice.

5.6. Sentences and phrases with prepositions

We have seen how a noun can be used after a preposition to get a prepositional phrase, for example:

فِي الْبَيْتِ
fī l-bayti
“in the house”

We can put an indefinite noun in front of this structure:

رَجُلٌ فِي الْبَيْتِ
rajulun fī l-bayti
“a man in the house”

This is a phrase and not a complete sentence. Note that the preposition فِي *fī* “in” only puts the noun after it (الْبَيْتِ *al-bayti* “the house”) in the i-case. It has no effect on the case of the noun before it (رَجُلٌ *rajulun* “a man”). In this case, it is in the u-case.

Instead of an indefinite noun, we can also put a definite noun in front of the prepositional phrase. Now the resulting structure can, in general, have two meanings: (i) a complete sentence, and (ii) an incomplete sentence. For example,

الرَّجُلُ فِي الْبَيْتِ
ʾarrujulu fī l-bayti

- “The man is in the house.”
- “The man in the house”

Usually, it will be clear from the context which of the two meanings is valid. For example, the second meaning, “The man in the house”, can be part of a complete sentence:

الرَّجُلُ فِي الْبَيْتِ مُعَلِّمٌ.
 'arrujulu fi -lbayti musallim.
 "The man in the house is a teacher_m."

5.7. Sentences with an indefinite subject

We said, in section @ref(an-indefinite-noun-as-the-subject), that the subject of a sentence is usually a definite noun. Now, we shall explore one way of allowing a sentence with an indefinite subject.

We have seen that if an indefinite noun is placed in front of a prepositional phrase, we get an incomplete sentence. For example,

رَجُلٌ فِي الْبَيْتِ
 rajulun fi -lbayti
 "a man in the house"

Now we will see how to make the complete sentence (with an indefinite subject):

"A man **is** in the house."

In order to express this sentence, we put the prepositional phrase first, and place the indefinite subject after it:

فِي الْبَيْتِ رَجُلٌ.
 fi -lbayti rajul.

"In the house is a man." = "A man is in the house."

In English, it may sometimes be more convenient to translate this type of sentence using the expression "there is":

"There is a man in the house."

5.8. Prepositions with multiple nouns/pronouns

In English, we can use a preposition with multiple nouns separated by "and", thus:

"The boy went to the school and the house."

A similar meaning can be achieved by repeating the preposition before each noun:

"The boy went to the school and **to** the house."

In Arabic as well, if there are multiple nouns associated with a preposition then you may choose to repeat the preposition or not. Examples:

إِلَى الْمَدْرَسَةِ وَإِلَى الْبَيْتِ
 'ila -lbayti walmadrasati
 "to the school to and the house"

إِلَى الْمَدْرَسَةِ وَالْبَيْتِ
 'ila -lbayti walmadrasati
 "to the school and the house"

Note that when you don't repeat the preposition, the second noun is still in the i-case.

In English, you have a similar option when you use pronouns instead of nouns. All of the following should be acceptable:

“to the boy and me”
 “to the boy and to me”
 “to him and me”
 “to him and to me”

In Arabic, however, if one or more pronouns is used then the prepositions must be repeated. Examples:

إِلَيَّ وَإِلَى الْغُلَامِ
 ‘ilayya wa’ila -lghulāmi
 “to me and to the boy”

إِلَيَّ وَإِلَيْهِ
 ‘ilayya wa’ilayhi
 “to me and to him”

5.9. To have something

English uses the verb “have” or “has” to express that someone Arabic does not have a verb for “have” or “has”. In order to express sentences like

“I have a book.”
 “The boy has a father.”
 Arabic uses prepositions like

- لِ *li* “for”
- عِنْدَ *inda* “at”
- لَدَى *ladā* “at”
- مَعَ *ma’a* “together with”

Here are some examples:

لِلْغُلَامِ أَبٌ.
li -lghulāmi ‘ab.
 “The boy has a father.” (literally: “For the boy is a father.”)

عِنْدَ الرَّجُلِ كِتَابٌ.
inda -rrajuli kitāb.
 “The man has a book.” (literally: “At the man is a book.”)

مَعَ الْبَارِيَةِ لُعْبَةٌ.
ma’a -ljāriyati luebah.
 “The girl has a toy.” (literally: “With the girl is a toy.”)

Here are some notes that can help you choose which preposition to use to express “has” or “have”:

- لِ *li* “for” is used to express personal relationships, like “I have a friend”, “I have a son”, etc. It is also used when you wish to imply that you own the object. For example, the sentence

لِلرَّجُلِ كِتَابٌ.
li -rrajuli kitāb.

implies that the man owns a book. But it is possible that he has lent it to someone else so he does not actually have it on his person or at his house, etc.

- **عِنْدَ** *inda* “at” is used to express that the person has the object in his possession, but not necessarily that he has it with him right now. For example the sentence

عِنْدَ الرَّجُلِ كِتَابٌ.

inda -rrajuli kitāb.

implies that the man has a book in his possession. But it is possible that it may not be with him right now. It may be at his house or elsewhere.

- **لَدَى** *ladā* “at” is used to express that the person has the object in his possession and that he has it with him right now. For example the sentence

لَدَى الرَّجُلِ كِتَابٌ.

lada -rrajuli kitāb.

implies that the man has a book in his possession and that he has it with him right now.

- **مَعَ** *maʿa* “together with” is used to express that the person has the object with him right now. But it doesn’t necessarily imply ownership. For example, the sentence

مَعَ الرَّجُلِ كِتَابٌ.

maʿa -rrajuli kitāb.

means that the man has a book with him right now. But it is possible that he does not own it and that someone else has lent it to him.

There is some degree of overlap in meaning and you will get a feeling of which preposition is more appropriate in which circumstance as you progress in your learning, if Allah wills. For now, if you find that the object can be used with all of these prepositions, you might go with **عِنْدَ** *inda* as it is the more commonly used.

Chapter 6.

The caseless verb

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

6.1. Introduction

Verbs are action words. With regard to their structure, Arabic has three kinds of verbs:

1. The *caseless* verb. This typically signifies the past tense.
2. The *caseful* verb. This usually signifies the present or future tenses, but in some formations, it can be used for the past tense as well.
3. The *verb of command*. This is used for commands.

In this chapter we will study the caseless verb. We will study the caseful verb and the verb of command in later chapters, if Allāh wills.

6.2. Arabic word roots

We take this opportunity to learn about Arabic roots. Native Arabic words, both nouns and verbs, are generally derived from roots. Most roots are comprised of three letters. A smaller number are comprised of four or more letters.

Words are derived from their roots according to patterns. In traditional Arabic grammar studies, the root **فعل** is used as a paradigm for three-letter roots to showcase word and meaning patterns.

So for example, the word **بَيْت** *bayt* “a house” is derived from the root **ب ي ت**. Using the paradigm root **فعل**, we can see that the pattern of the word **بَيْت** *bayt* is **فَعْل** *faʿl*. The word **أَمْر** *ʾamr* “a matter” is derived from the root **ع م ر**. Its pattern is also **فَعْل** *faʿl*.

Similarly, the word **مَكْتَب** *maktab* “a library” is derived from the root **ك ت ب**. And **مَلْعَب** *malʿab* “a playground” is derived from the root **ل ع ب**. Using the paradigm root **فعل**, we can see that the pattern of both these words is **مَفْعَل** *maʿfʿal*. Here, the letter **م** *m* is an extraneous letter added to form the words and is not part of their roots.

Not only nouns, but verbs, too, are derived from roots. All verbs are derived from their roots in a fixed set of patterns called *forms* which are numbered 1 onward. For example, the caseless form 2 verb pattern is فَعَّلَ *faʿʿala* and the caseless form 3 verb pattern is فَاعَلَ *fāʿala*. There are approximately 9-10 forms that are in common usage. In addition, there are a few higher order forms (11 onward) that are less common. In this chapter will study the caseless form 1 verb only.

6.3. The form 1 caseless verb

Here are some examples of caseless form 1 verbs in Arabic:

Root	Caseless form 1 verb	Meaning
فعل	فَعَّلَ <i>faʿʿala</i>	“did”
ذهب	ذَهَبَ <i>d̥hahaba</i>	“went”
كتب	كَتَبَ <i>kataba</i>	“wrote”
قرء	قَرَأَ <i>qaraʿa</i>	“read”
جلس	جَلَسَ <i>jalasa</i>	“sat”
سأل	سَأَلَ <i>saʿala</i>	“questioned”
سكت	سَكَتَ <i>sakata</i>	“became quiet”
جعل	جَعَلَ <i>jaʿala</i>	“made”
علم	عَلِمَ <i>ʿalima</i>	“knew”
عمل	عَمِلَ <i>ʿamila</i>	“worked”
كبر	كَبُرَ <i>kabura</i>	“grew”

Note that فعل, in addition to being used as a paradigm root, also has a verb in its own right: فَعَّلَ *faʿʿala* “did”.

Note, also, that the caseless form 1 verb consists only of the three letters of the root. The first and the final letter always have an fat-ḥah while the middle letter’s vowel is variable. It may have an fat-ḥah, kasrah, or an ḍammah, depending on the verb. Using the paradigm root فعل, we can say that the form 1 verb occurs in the patterns فَعَلَ, فَعِلَ, and فُعِلَ.

A good dictionary will tell us the middle vowel mark of a particular verb. However, as a trend, the fat-ḥah is the most common for the middle vowel mark, followed by the kasrah, while the ḍammah is the least common.

Interestingly, there can exist multiple verbs from the same root, each with its own distinct meaning, that differ only in the vowel mark on the middle letter. An example of two such verbs is:

- حَسَبَ *hasaba* “calculated”
- حَسِبَ *hasiba* “deemed”

You can see above how the verb كَتَبَ *kataba* “wrote” is derived from the root كتب. We have already, by the way, learned another word derived from this root: the noun كِتَاب *kitāb* “a book”, which is on the pattern فِعَال *fiʿāl*. Note how both the verb and the noun derived from this root have a meaning that

is common and has to do with writing or of something written. In a similar manner, you will often see that words derived from the same root generally share some common meaning, although this common meaning may not always be obvious or straightforward.

6.4. Verbal sentences

We have already learned of nounal sentences. Here we will learn of a new type of sentence called a *verbal sentence*. A verbal sentence is one that begins with a verb.

When a verb is in a sentence, it requires a doer. The doer is a noun which represents the person who does the action of the verb. For example, in the sentence “The boy went.”, the noun “the boy” is the doer of the verb.

6.4.1. Verbs with a masculine doer noun

Consider the sentence:

“The boy went.”

In order to express this sentence in Arabic, we will say:

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ.

dhahaba -lghulām.

“The boy went.”

ذَهَبَ *dhahaba* “went” is the verb and الْغُلَامُ *alghulāmu* “the boy” is the doer. Note how the doer is in the u-case. Also note that in English the doer comes before the verb whereas in Arabic the doer comes after the verb in sentence word order. We can state this as a rule of Arabic grammar:

In Arabic, every verb in a sentence shall have a doer noun. The doer noun shall be in the u-case and shall come after the verb in sentence word order.

In the above example the doer noun was definite, but a doer may be indefinite too. Example:

ذَهَبَ رَجُلٌ إِلَى السُّوقِ.

dhahaba rajulun ‘ila -ssūq.

“A man went to the market.”

In the above sentence, the doer noun رَجُلٌ *rajulun* is indefinite.

6.4.2. Verbs with a feminine doer noun

Now consider the sentence:

“A girl went.”

In order to express this sentence in Arabic, we will say:

ذَهَبَتْ جَارِيَةٌ.

dhahabat jāriyah.

“A girl went.”

Note that we have modified the verb by adding on the letter ت at the end. This ت is used when the doer is a feminine noun. It is called the ت of femininity.

If the word following the noun begins with a connecting hamzah then we add a helper vowel to the ت and it becomes ت. Examples:

جَلَسَتْ أَلْهَرَّةُ عَلَى الْكُرْسِيِّ.
jalasati -lhirratu ʿala -lkursiyyi.
 “The cat_f sat on the chair.”

لَعَبَتْ أَلْطِفْلَةُ فِي الْبَيْتِ.
laʿibati -ṭiṭṭlatu fi -lbayt.
 “The child_f played in the house.”

6.5. Verbs with doees

6.5.1. The direct doee

Consider the sentence:

“The man wrote a book.”

In this sentence, “wrote” is the verb, “the man” is the doer, and “a book” is what we shall call the *doee*. In fact, it is what we shall call a *direct doee* because the verb directly takes the doee without an intervening preposition. A doee is the noun to whom the action of the verb is done.

In Arabic, we will express the sentence “The man wrote a book.” by saying:

كَتَبَ الرَّجُلُ كِتَابًا.
kataba -rrajulu kitābā.

“The man wrote a book.”

Note how in Arabic the doee كِتَابًا *kitāban* “a book” is in the a-case. This is because, in Arabic, verbs shall cause a direct doee to be in the a-case. This is true whether the direct doee is definite or indefinite. Here is another example:

سَأَلَتِ الْأُمُّ الْبَارِيَّةَ.
saʿalati -lʾummu -ljāriyah.

“The mother questioned the girl.”

Note again how الْبَارِيَّةَ *aljāriyata* “the girl” is in the a-case because it is a direct doee.

6.5.2. Multiple direct doees

Some verbs can take more than one direct doee. In this case, all direct doees shall be in the a-case. For example,

جَعَلَ اللَّهُ الرَّجُلَ مُسْلِمًا.
jaʿala -llāhu -rrajula muslimā.

“Allāh made the man a Muslim.”

In this sentence both الرَّجُلَ *arrajula* “the man” and مُسْلِمًا *musliman* “a Muslim” are direct doees of the verb جَعَلَ *jaʿala* and therefore both are placed in the a-case.

6.5.3. The indirect doee

Instead of, or in addition to, direct doees, some verbs take an *indirect doee*. An indirect doee is one before which there is a preposition. For example, in English we might say:

“The man looked at the moon.”

In this sentence, “the moon” is an indirect doee because it is preceded by the preposition “at”. Similarly, in Arabic, we will say:

نَظَرَ الرَّجُلُ إِلَى الْقَمَرِ.

naḍhara -rrajulu 'ila -lqamar.

“The man looked at the moon.”

In this sentence *نَظَرَ* *alqamari* “the moon” is an indirect doee of the verb *نَظَرَ* *naḍhara* “looked” because it is preceded by the preposition *إِلَى* *'ilā* “to”. The preposition, as usual, causes the word after it (the indirect doee *الْقَمَرِ* *'alqamari*) to be in the i-case, as opposed to the a-case of the direct doee.

Note also, that the verb “looked” in English used the preposition “at” whereas the Arabic verb *نَظَرَ* *naḍhara* used the preposition *إِلَى* *'ilā* “to” for the same meaning. This is very common and you should not expect Arabic to use exact counterparts of the prepositions used in English. In fact, everytime you learn a new verb, you should also learn the prepositions that go with it.

It is also possible for the same verb to take different prepositions with possibly different meanings. So, for example, we can say:

نَظَرَ الرَّجُلُ فِي الْأَمْرِ.

naḍhara -rrajulu fi -l'amri.

“The man looked into the matter.”

It may also be possible for the same verb to take a direct doee. So we could also say:

نَظَرَ الرَّجُلُ الْمَكْتُوبَ فِي الْكِتَابِ.

naḍhara -rrajulu -lmaktūba fi -lkitābi.

“The man viewed what was written in the book.”

A good dictionary will tell us which prepositions are used with indirect doees with a given verb and also whether it takes a direct doee.

Some verbs take a direct doee and another indirect doee, both at the same time. For example,

سَأَلَ الْغُلَامُ الْمُعَلِّمَةَ عَنْ أَمْرٍ.

sa'ala -lghulāmu -lmueallimata 'an 'amr.

“The boy asked the teacher_f about a matter.”

الْمُعَلِّمَةَ *'almueallimata* “the teacher_f” is the direct doee, and therefore it is in the a-case. *أَمْرٍ* *'amrin* “a matter” is an indirect doee, and so it is in the i-case. The preposition *عَنْ* *'an* is translated, here, as “about”.

It is also possible that an English verb may take a direct doee, while the corresponding Arabic verb may only take an indirect doee. The reverse is also quite possible. For example,

عَفَرَ اللَّهُ لِلْمُسْلِمِ.

ghafara -llāhu lilmuslimi.

“Allāh forgave the Muslim.”

The verb “forgave” in English takes a direct doer for the person who is forgiven. In Arabic, however, the corresponding verb غَفَرَ *ghafara* “forgave” takes the forgiven person as an indirect doer, using the preposition لِ *li*.

6.6. Verbs with doer pronouns

We have learned that a pronoun is a special kind of noun that can be used to replace a definite noun. And we have already learned two category of pronouns in Arabic:

- i. Detached pronouns, like هُوَ, هِيَ, etc.
- ii. Attached pronouns, like هُ, هَا, etc.

Now we would like to replace the doer noun of a verb with a pronoun. For example, instead of saying:

“The man went.”

we would like to say:

“He went.”

For this we will have to learn a third category of pronoun pronouns called *doer pronouns* for caseless verbs. doer pronouns are of two types: (i) expressed and (ii) implied.

Here we list the singular doer pronouns in Arabic.

Singular participant	doer pronoun
Masc. absentee (“he”)	implied
Fem. absentee (“she”)	implied
Masc. addressee (“you _{1,m} ”)	تَ - <i>ta</i>
Fem. addressee (“you _{1,f} ”)	تِ - <i>ti</i>
Speaker (“I”)	تُ - <i>tu</i>

We will now give an explanation of the above doer pronouns.

6.6.1. doer pronouns for the singular absentee-participant (“he”/“she”)

The doer pronouns of the absentee-participant are the equivalent of “he” and “she”. For example, let’s try to replace the doer-noun “the man” in the sentence: “The man went.”

ذَهَبَ الرَّجُلُ.

dhahaba -rrajul.

“The man went.”

When we replace the doer noun الرَّجُلُ *’arrujul* “the man” with the doer pronoun “he”, we get:

ذَهَبَ.

dhahab.

“[He] went.”

As you can see, all we did was omit the doer-noun *الرَّجُلُ* 'arrujul, and we didn't add any word to replace it as the doer pronoun. This is because the doer pronoun for "he" is implied and automatically comes into place when we omit the doer noun.

The doer pronoun for "she" is similarly implied. For example, if we replace the doer noun in the sentence:

قَرَأَتِ الْغَارِيَةُ كِتَابًا.
qara'ati -lġāriyatu kitābā.

"The girl read a book."

we get:

قَرَأَتْ كِتَابًا.
qara'at kitābā.

"[She] read a book."

6.6.1.1. Explanation of implied pronouns

Why do we have to go to all the trouble of saying that the doer-pronouns of the singular absentee-participants "he" and "she" are implied? Why can't we simply say that there are no doer-pronouns for the singular absentee-participants?

The reason is that we need to be able to state, as a rule of grammar, that every verb needs to have its own doer, whether expressed or implied. Later, if Allāh wills, when we study verbs with dual and plural doers we will see that this will make a difference in the formation of the verb.

6.6.2. Doer pronouns for the singular addressee ("you₁") and speaker ("I") participants

It is only the doer pronouns for the singular absentee participant that are implied for caseless verbs. The doer pronouns for the singular addressee and speaker participants are expressed. The expressed doer pronouns are attached to the verb.

Here we show how the expressed doer pronouns are attached to the verb using the root paradigm *فَعَلَ*. The middle root letter (ع) has an fatḥah َ here but this vowel will vary for other verbs.

Singular participant	Doer pronoun	Doer pronoun with verb
Addressee "you _{1,m} "	ت -ta	فَعَلْتَ faʿalta
Addressee "you _{1,f} "	تي -ti	فَعَلْتِ faʿalti
Speaker "I"	تُ -tu	فَعَلْتُ faʿaltu

Note also how the expressed singular doer pronouns modify the verb by replacing the fatḥah َ on its final letter by a sukūn ْ.

Furthermore, note how the doer pronoun for the addressed person "you" is differentiated for masculine and feminine doers whereas the doer pronoun for the speaking person "I" is the same for both genders.

Here are some examples of sentences with expressed doer pronouns:

كَتَبْتَ كِتَابًا.

katabta kitābā.

“You_m wrote a book.”

ذَهَبْتُ.

dhahabtu.

“I went.”

The above sentence ends with the doer pronoun, so the vowel-mark on the doer pronoun is not pronounced (*dhahabtu*). So, how would we know which doer pronoun it is? That is, does the sentence say “I went.” or “You_m went.” or “You_f went.”? The answer is that the sentence by itself is ambiguous and context would tell us which of the three options is intended.

Take care to note that the singular doer pronouns modify the final letter of the basic verb, whereas the *tu* of femininity does not. So make sure you see the difference in the following two sentences:

قَرَأْتَ الْكِتَابَ.

qara’ti -lkitāb.

“You_f read the book.”

قَرَأَتِ الْكِتَابَ.

qara’ati -lkitāb.

“She read the book.”

6.6.3. Assimilation of the doer pronoun

If the final letter of the root of a verb is *tu*, then it gets assimilated with the *tu* which is the doer pronoun and only one *tu*, representing both, is written. Consider the verb:

سَكَتَ سَكَّتْ *sakata* “became quiet”

When we add an expressed doer pronoun to this verb, we get:

سَكَّتُ

sakattu

“I became quiet”

سَكَّتَ

sakatta

“You_{1,m} became quiet”

سَكَّتِ

sakatti

“You_{1,f} became quiet”

Assimilation is treated in more detail in chapter/appendix TODO.

6.7. Verbs with doee pronouns

TODO: add long vowel for *hū/hī* for singular masculine

Just like doer nouns may be replaced with doer pronouns, so, too, may doee nouns be replaced with *doee pronouns*. Doee pronouns are also attached to the end of the verb but they don’t modify the vowel on the final letter of the verb.

The doee pronouns are the same attached pronouns that are also used with prepositions:

Singular participant	Doe pronoun
Masc. absentee	هُ - <i>hu</i> “him”
Fem. absentee	هَا - <i>hā</i> “her”
Masc. addressee	كَ - <i>ka</i> “you _{1,m} ”
Fem. addressee	كِ - <i>ki</i> “you _{1,f} ”
Speaker	يَ “me”

Here are some notes regarding their usage:

- Doe pronouns shall always be attached to the verb. So if there is a doer noun then it shall be placed after the attached doee pronoun. For example:

سَأَلَهُ الْغُلَامُ.

sa'alahu -lghulām.

“The boy asked him.”

- If however, the doer is also a pronoun, then it shall be attached first to the verb and then the doee pronoun shall be attached to the doer pronoun. For example,

سَأَلْتُكَ.

sa'altuk.

“I asked you_f.”

- If the doer pronoun is implied, then the doee pronoun shall be attached to the verb again directly with only a possible ث of femininity intervening. For example:

سَأَلَهَا.

sa'alahā.

“He asked her.”

سَأَلَتْكَ.

sa'alatk.

“She asked you_m.”

- If the doee pronoun هُ -*hu* “him” is preceded by the vowels *i*, *ī*, or *ay* then it shall instead become هِ *hi* with no change in meaning. (We’ve already learned this rule.) For example,

سَأَلْتَهُ.

sa'altih

“You_f asked him.”

- An intervening ن is always used between the verb and the speaker-participant doee pronoun variants يَ -*i* and يَا -*iya*. Remember that these pronouns force any consonant before it to have a kasrah ِ. Therefore,

the combination will be written as نِي *-nī* and نِيَا *-niya* respectively. For example:

سَأَلَنِي رَجُلٌ.
sa'alani rajul.
 "A man asked me."

سَأَلَنِي الرَّجُلُ.
sa'alaniya -rrajul.
 "The man asked me."

If there is an expressed doer pronoun, the intervening ن shall come after it so that the ن is always connected to the doer pronoun. For example,

سَأَلْتَنِي.
sa'altani
 "You_m asked me."

By the way, we have already seen this intervening ن before when it was used with some prepositions, e.g. مِني *minni*, عِنِّي *ʿanni*, and لَدُنِّي *ladunni*

The variant يِ *-ī* is, in general, more commonly used. However, when the noun following it begins with a connecting hamzah then the variant يِ *-ya* is preferred. That is why we used the variant يِ *-ya* when it was followed by a connecting hamzah (سَأَلَنِي الرَّجُلُ), and the variant يِ *-ī* when it was not followed by a connecting hamzah (سَأَلَنِي رَجُلٌ). But this preference is not mandatory. So it is allowed for يِ *-ī* to be used when followed by a connecting hamzah. When this happens, the long vowel *-ī* will be shortened to *-i* in connecting it to the next word, although the يِ is retained in writing. For example,

سَأَلَنِي الرَّجُلُ.
sa'alani -rrajul.
 "The man asked me."

6.8. Multiple verbs for one doer

In this section we will use the verbs:

Root	Caseless form 1 verb	Meaning
دخل	دَخَلَ <i>dakhala</i>	"entered"
خرج	خَرَجَ <i>kharaja</i>	"exited"
أكل	أَكَلَ <i>akala</i>	"ate"
شرب	شَرِبَ <i>shariba</i>	"drank"

Consider, now, the sentence:

"I entered the room, ate, drank, and exited."

The doer in this sentence is the pronoun "I". This same doer is doing the action of multiple verbs: "entered", "ate", "drank", and "exited". When we try to

express this sentence in Arabic we must remember that every verb shall have its own doer, and that the doer shall occur after it in sentence word order. So we will say:

دَخَلْتُ الْعُرْفَةَ فَأَكَلْتُ فَشَرِبْتُ فَخَرَجْتُ.

dakhaltu -lghurfata fa'akaltu fasharibtu fakharajt.

"I entered the room and then I ate and then I drank and then I exited."

Note also, that we need to replace the commas by connecting particles like *وَ* *wa-* "and", or *فَ* *fa-* "so"/"and then", etc. We chose *فَ* *fa-* which implies consequence or subsequence between the individual events.

Let's now try this sentence with a doer noun instead of a doer pronoun:

"The girl entered the room, ate, drank, and exited."

Here is our translation:

دَخَلَتِ الْبَارِيَّةُ الْعُرْفَةَ فَأَكَلَتْ فَشَرِبَتْ فَخَرَجَتْ.

dakhalati -lbariyatu -lghurfata fa'akalat fasharibat fakharajat.

"The girl entered the room and then she ate and then she drank and then she exited."

Each verb again has its own doer, which is coming after the verb in sentence word order. The doer of the first verb *دَخَلَ* *dakhala* "entered" is the noun *الْبَارِيَّةُ* *'albariyatu* "the girl". The subsequent verbs all have doers too but they are the implied doer pronouns for the singular feminine absentee participant. That is why we don't write them. Note also that every verb has the *تْ* of femininity attached to it to indicate its singular feminine absentee doer.

6.9. Order of words in a sentence

6.9.1. Changing the order of words for emphasis

In Arabic, the doer always follows the verb. So the normal order of a sentence is verb-doe-doe. For example,

كَتَبَ الرَّجُلُ كِتَابًا.

kataba -rrajulu kitābā.

"The man wrote a book."

However, we will often come across sentences like:

الرَّجُلُ كَتَبَ كِتَابًا.

'arrajulu kataba kitābā.

It may appear as if *الرَّجُلُ* *'arrajulu* is the doer and it is coming before the verb *كَتَبَ* *kataba*. But actually, this is not the case. As a matter of fact, this sentence is basically a nounal sentence.

Here *الرَّجُلُ* *'arrajulu* "the man" is the subject of the sentence, and *كَتَبَ كِتَابًا* *kataba kitāban* "he wrote a book", itself a verbal sentence with an implied doer pronoun, is the info about the subject. So the translation of the sentence is technically:

"The man, he wrote a book."

However, this can be an awkward translation so we will usually translate it as "The man wrote a book."

The question arises: if both sentences above have the same translation, then why would we say *الرَّجُلُ كَتَبَ كِتَابًا* *'arrajulu kataba kitāban* instead of the more

normal كَتَبَ الرَّجُلُ كِتَابًا *kataba -rrajulu kitāban*? The answer is that this change in the sentence's word order is done in order to give more emphasis to the doer, as if to say:

"The man wrote a book."

So in Arabic, the order of words is generally more flexible than in English and this is often used to give emphasis to certain words.

6.9.2. Verbs pull definite nouns towards them

When a verb has a doer noun and a doee noun, the normal order of words in a sentence is: verb, doer noun, doee noun. For example,

كَتَبَ الرَّجُلُ الْكِتَابَ.

kataba -rrajulu -lkitāba.

"The man wrote the book."

There is a tendency, in Arabic, for verbs to *pull* definite nouns towards them. This means that if there are any indefinite nouns, they have a tendency to get pushed father away. So, for example, if a verb's doer is an indefinite noun and the doee is a definite noun, the doee will often (but not always) precede the doer. For example,

كَتَبَ الْكِتَابَ رَجُلٌ.

kataba -lkitāba rajul.

"A man wrote the book."

The vowel-marks at the end of the nouns, and context, will tell us which is the doer and which is the doee. In this particular example, it was optional, and not mandatory to make the definite doee precede the doer in sentence word order. So we could have also said, instead:

كَتَبَ رَجُلٌ الْكِتَابَ.

kataba rajuluni -lkitāb.

"A man wrote the book."

Now let's take a look at sentences with pronouns. Remember that pronouns are a category of nouns, and also (from section @ref(definiteness-of-pronouns)) that they are definite nouns. In fact they are stronger in definiteness than words that are made definite using ال. This because if when we say "The man wrote the book." instead of "A man wrote the book.", we assume that everyone knows which man we are referring to. Now if we replace "the man" with the pronoun "he": "He wrote the book.", then this assumption becomes stronger. "He" is, in a sense, more definite than "the man."

So now, when the direct doee noun الْكِتَابُ *alkitāba* "the book" is replaced with the pronoun "it", the doee pronoun must be attached to the verb, and then the doer noun follows the doee pronoun:

كَتَبَهُ الرَّجُلُ.

katabahu -rrajulu.

"The man wrote it."

This can be seen as a mandatory case of the verb pulling the definite noun toward it.

Now, consider a sentence with an indirect doee. Again, the normal order of words in a sentence is verb, doer noun, preposition, doee noun. For example,

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَى الْمَدْرَسَةِ.
dhahaba -lghulamū 'ila -lmadrasah.
 “The boy went to the school.”

Now, if we replace the indirect doer noun الْمَدْرَسَةُ *al-madrasati* “the school” with the pronoun “it”, the indirect doer pronoun هَا *-hā* “it” is attached, not to the verb, but to the preposition إِلَى *'ilā* thus: إِلَيْهَا *'ilayhā* “to it”. So it possible to preserve the original order of words in the sentence:

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَيْهَا.
dhahaba -lghulamū 'ilayhā.
 “The boy went to it.”

While the above sentence is correct, it is in fact more common to place the preposition and doer pronoun إِلَيْهَا *'ilayhā* “to it” right after the verb, and before the doer noun, thus:

ذَهَبَ إِلَيْهَا الْغُلَامُ.
dhahaba 'ilayha -lghulamū.
 “The boy went to it.”

This is because the pronoun هَا *-hā* “it” is stronger in definiteness than الْغُلَامُ *al-ghulam* “the boy”. So the verb has a stronger pull towards it.

This ordering of words due to the attractive pull of the verb is largely learned by experience. The more you read Arabic, the better feel you will get for it, if Allāh wills.

6.10. Negating caseless verbs

In order to negate a caseless verb, the particle مَا *mā* is placed before it. This gives the meaning of the action of the verb did not get, or has not got, done. So for example:

مَا ذَهَبَ الرَّجُلُ.
mā dhahaba -rrajulu.
 “The man did not go.” or,
 “The man has not gone.”

6.11. The particle قَدْ *qad*

The particle قَدْ *qad*, when placed before a caseless verb emphasizes that the action of the verb has already or definitely occurred.

قَدْ ذَهَبَ الرَّجُلُ.
qad dhahaba -rrajulu.
 “The man has already gone.” or,
 “The man did go.”

6.12. Separating doer pronouns from the verb

FIXME: move to imperfect verb chapter

We have mentioned that doee pronouns are attached to the verb. Sometimes there is a need to separate the doee pronoun from the verb. When separating the doee pronoun from the verb, it is instead attached to the prefix إِيَّ 'iyyā. So then we get the following doee pronouns:

Person	Doe pronoun
Absent person (masc.) “him”	إِيَّاهُ 'iyyāhu
Absent person (fem.) “her”	إِيَّاهَا 'iyyāhā
Addressed person (masc.) “you _{masc.} ”	إِيَّاكَ 'iyyāka
Addressed person (fem.) “you _{fem.} ”	إِيَّاكِ 'iyyāki
Speaking person (masc. and fem.) “me”	إِيَّايَ 'iyyāya

Note that for the speaking person “me”, there is no intervening ن between the prefix إِيَّ 'iyyā and the doee pronoun. Note also that only يَ -ya is allowed to be attached to the prefix إِيَّ 'iyyā. This is because يَ -i is not permitted to be used with words that end in a long vowel (-ā, -ī, or -ū) or a semi-vowel (-ay or -aw). And the prefix إِيَّ 'iyyā ends with the long-vowel ā.

But we may ask why is there a need to separate the doee pronoun from the verb? This can occur for a couple of reasons:

- i. If there are multiple doee pronouns, only one of them can be attached to the verb. Example,

$\text{صَرَبَتْني وَإِيَّاهُ.}$
ḍarabātni wa 'iyyāhu.
 “She hit me and him.”

- ii. If the doee is placed before the verb for emphasis. Example,

$\text{إِيَّايَ صَرَبَتْ.}$
'iyyāya ḍarabat.
 “She hit me.”

6.13. TODO

1. Multiple verb doers: Copy over from sound plurals and rework.
2. جواز تأنيث الفعل ووجوبه

Chapter 7.

The attribute

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

7.1. Introduction

So far we have studied common nouns like رَجُل *rajul* “a man” and بَيْت *bayt* “a house”.

In this chapter we will study *adjectival nouns*. Adjectival nouns are a class of nouns that don’t denote objects. Rather they describe some quality of an object.

7.2. Adjectives in English

In English we usually use adjectives to describe nouns. For example, the word “big” is an adjective. It can be used in a couple of different ways:

1. It can be used to describe a noun in an attributee-attribute phrase. For example:

“a big car”

2. The adjective “big” can also be used as the info of a sentence, describing the subject noun. For example:

“The car is big.”

But the adjective “big” cannot be used by itself as a noun, for example, as the subject of a sentence. So we can’t say:

× “The big is fast.”

We would have to say something like:

“The big car is fast.”

instead.

7.3. Terminology: the *attribute* and the *attributee*

We take this opportunity to introduce some grammatical terminology. The attributee-attribute phrase “a big car” consists of two parts:

- i. The adjective “big”. It is describing the car. We will call it the *attribute* in the noun-phrase.
- ii. The common noun “a car”: It is being described by the attribute. We will call it the *attributee*.

a big car

The diagram shows the phrase "a big car". Above "big" is a curly brace pointing to the word "attribute". Above "a car" is a curly brace pointing to the word "attributee".

We will reserve this terminology of *attribute* and *attributee* only for the noun and adjective in an attributee-attribute phrase. So we won't use this terminology for the sentence: “The car is big.”

Instead, here we will continue to use the existing terminology of *subject* and *info*. The definite noun “the car” is the subject of this sentence, and the adjective “big” is the info.

The car is big.

The diagram shows the sentence "The car is big.". Below "The car" is a curly brace pointing to the word "subject". Below "is big" is a curly brace pointing to the word "info".

7.4. Adjectival nouns in English

Consider the English word “antique”. It is what we will call a *adjectival noun*.

It can be used just like an adjective to describe a noun as part of a noun-phrase. For example:

“The antique table is expensive.”

In the above sentence the adjective “antique” is a attribute and is describing the noun “table”.

It can also be used as the info of a sentence, just like an adjective. For example: “The table is antique.”

But what makes it different from an normal adjective is that it can also be used by itself as a noun. For example:

“The antique is expensive.”

Here “the antique” could refer to any entity that can be described by the quality of being old and valuable. The adjectival noun does not require any other noun in this sentence and can stand on its own as the subject of the sentence.

Adjectival nouns are rare in English. Instead, adjectives are usually used when we want to describe a noun.

7.5. Adjectival nouns in Arabic and genderizability

Arabic does not have adjectives. It only has adjectival nouns.

The word صَغِير *ṣaghīr* is an example of an indefinite adjectival noun in Arabic. It describes the quality of being “small” or “little”. It can be used to denote any person, animal, or things that can be described as being small. Technically we could translate it as “a little one_m” or “a small one_m”.

Being a noun صَغِير *ṣaghīr*, like all other nouns in Arabic, will have a grammatical gender. Since it does not end with a feminine marker like ة, we can state that صَغِير *ṣaghīr* is a masculine noun.

Adjectival nouns, typically, are genderizable. This means that we can feminize صَغِير *ṣaghīr* (masc.) to get the feminine noun. We will feminize صَغِير *ṣaghīr* (masc.) with the feminine marker ة to get the feminine adjectival noun صَغِيرَة *ṣaghīrah* (fem.) “a little one_f”.

Generally, the dictionary will typically only supply the masculine adjectival noun. And we are expected to know how to feminize it to get the feminine adjectival noun.

As opposed to adjectival nouns, common nouns are not genderizable. So, for example, if we know that the noun غُلَام *ghulām* “a boy” exists, we cannot assume that we can feminize it, by using the feminine marker ة, for example, getting: × غُلَامَة *ghulāmah*. This would be a misguided attempt to obtain the meaning for “a girl” in Standard Arabic. Instead, we have to look up the Arabic word for “a girl” in the dictionary separately, and we find that it is جَارِيَة *jāriyah*.

Many times times, a masculine/feminine common noun pair will exist, that differ only by the feminine marker ة. For example:

- اِبْن *ibn* “a son” and اِبْنَة *ibnah* “a daughter”.
- مُعَلِّم *muʿallim* “a teacher_m” and مُعَلِّمَة *muʿallimah* “a teacher_f”

This does not indicate that the common noun is genderizable. Rather, when the common noun masc./fem. pair has a meaning that is derived from a verb or an adjective (like مُعَلِّم/مُعَلِّمَة), then the masculine/feminine pair are co-derived as separate non-genderizable words. We will discuss this in more detail in later chapters, if Allāh wills.

And when the common noun masc./fem. pair has a primitive (non-verbal and non-adjectival) meaning, (like اِبْن/اِبْنَة), then this is only a coincidence. We alluded to this in section @ref(related-nouns-for-male-and-female-animate-beings).

7.5.1. Examples of Arabic adjectival nouns

Here are some examples of Arabic adjectival nouns that we will use in this chapter.

Arabic adjectival noun	Meaning
كَبِير <i>kabīr</i>	a big one
صَغِير <i>ṣaghīr</i>	a small one
طَيِّب <i>ṭayyib</i>	a good one
قَدِيم <i>qadīm</i>	an old one

Arabic adjectival noun	Meaning
جَدِيد <i>jadīd</i>	a new one
طَوِيل <i>ṭawīl</i>	a long/tall one
وَاسِع <i>wāsiʿ</i>	a wide one
عَرَبِيّ <i>ʿarabiyy</i>	an Arab
مَشْهُور <i>mashhūr</i>	a famous one

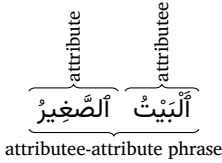
7.6. The attribute and the attributee in attributee-attribute phrases

Let's learn how attributee-attribute phrases are formed in Arabic.

We learned in section @ref(terminology-the-attribute-and-the-attributee) above that attributee-attribute phrases consist of a attribute and a attributee.

In English attributee-attribute phrases, like “the small house”, the adjective attribute (“small”) comes before the attributee (“house”). Also, only one definite article (“the”) is used before the entire noun-phrase.

Here is the equivalent Arabic attributee-attribute phrase:



“the small house”
(literally: “the small-one house”)

Note the following:

- The adjectival noun attribute الصَّغِيرُ *aṣṣagħīr* “the small one_m” comes after the attributee الْبَيْتُ *albayt* “the house”.
- Both the adjectival noun attribute الصَّغِيرُ *aṣṣagħīr* “the small one_m” and the attributee الْبَيْتُ *albayt* “the house” get the definite article اَلْ “the”.
- The adjectival noun attribute الصَّغِيرُ *aṣṣagħīr* “the small one_m” is genderized to match the attributee الْبَيْتُ *albayt* “the house” in gender.
- The adjectival noun attribute الصَّغِيرُ *aṣṣagħīr* “the small one_m” matches the attributee الْبَيْتُ *albayt* “the house” in case. In this example, they were both in the u-case but we will see examples in the other cases as well.
- The word-for-word equivalence of the above attributee-attribute phrase is “the small-one house” but we will usually give the more natural translation: “the small house”

Let's try another example: let's try to translate the sentence: “The little girl took a new book from the good mother.”

Here is the sentence in Arabic:

أَخَذَتِ الْجَارِيَةُ الصَّغِيرَةُ كِتَابًا جَدِيدًا مِنَ الْأُمِّ الطَّيِّبَةِ.
 'akḥadḥati -ljāriyatu -ṣṣaghīratu kitāban jadīdan mina -l'ummi -ṭṭayyibah.
 "The little girl took a new book from the good mother."

This sentence has three attributee-attribute phrases. We will analyze each one individually:

- i. الْجَارِيَةُ الصَّغِيرَةُ
 'aljāriyatu -ṣṣaghīratu
 "the little girl"

In this phrase the definite feminine noun الْجَارِيَةُ 'aljāriyatu is the doer of the verb أَخَذَ 'akḥadḥa "took". Therefore it is in the u-case. It is also the attributee in the attributee-attribute phrase. Its attribute الصَّغِيرَةُ 'aṣṣaghīratu follows the attributee and is made to match the attributee in case (u-case), gender (feminine), and definiteness (definite).

- ii. كِتَابًا جَدِيدًا
 kitāban jadīdan
 "a new book"

In this phrase the indefinite masculine noun كِتَابًا kitāban is the direct doer of the verb أَخَذَ 'akḥadḥa "took". Therefore it is in the a-case. It is also the attributee in the attributee-attribute phrase. Its attribute جَدِيدًا jadīdan follows the attributee and is made to match the attributee in case (a-case), gender (masculine), and definiteness (indefinite).

- iii. الْأُمُّ الطَّيِّبَةُ
 'al'ummi -ṭṭayyibati
 "the good mother"

In this phrase the definite feminine noun الْأُمُّ 'al'ummi is following the preposition مِنْ min "from". Therefore it is in the i-case. It is also the attributee in the attributee-attribute phrase. Its attribute الطَّيِّبَةُ 'aṭṭayyibati follows the attributee and is made to match the attributee in case (i-case), gender (feminine), and definiteness (definite).

Note carefully that the attribute matches the attributee in gender, not necessarily in having the same ʾ ending. The feminine adjectival noun attribute الطَّيِّبَةُ 'aṭṭayyibah is still formed using the feminine marker ʾ, despite the feminine attributee الْأُمُّ not having the ʾ feminine marker.

Sometimes, a common noun of one gender is used to refer to persons of either gender. For example:

- the noun شَخْصٌ shakḥṣ is itself a masculine noun but it may be used to refer to both male and female persons.

If such a noun is a attributee, then we will prefer to match the attribute to the grammatical gender of the noun, not the physical gender of the person it is referring to. For example:

الْجَارِيَةُ شَخْصٌ طَيِّبٌ.
 'aljāriyatu shakhsun ṭayyib.
 "The girl is a good person."

See how we preferred to use the masculine adjectival noun طَيِّبٌ ṭayyib instead of using the feminine طَيِّبَةٌ ṭayyibah. But the feminine adjectival noun طَيِّبَةٌ ṭayyibah would also have been acceptable.¹

7.7. The Adjectival noun as the info of a sentence

7.7.1. Indefinite adjectival noun

Let's see how to use Arabic adjectival nouns as the info of a sentence.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{info} \\ \hline \text{صَغِيرٌ} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{subject} \\ \hline \text{الْبَيْتُ} \end{array}$$

"The house is small."
 (literally: "The house is a small-one.")

In the above sentence, the indefinite adjectival noun صَغِيرٌ ṣaghīr "a small one" is used as the info of a sentence. Its indefiniteness and u-case is indicated by the tanwined ḍammah ُ on its end.

When an adjectival noun is the info of a sentence, then it shall be genderized to match the gender of the subject noun. The subject noun in this case (الْبَيْتُ) is masculine. Therefore, the masculine adjectival noun (صَغِيرٌ) is chosen.

Technically, the translation of this sentence is "The house is a small one." However, because Arabic has only adjectival nouns and not adjectives, it is how we can express the English sentence "The house is small." Therefore we can also translate it into English as such.

Now let's try a sentence with a feminine subject:

الْجَارِيَةُ صَغِيرَةٌ.
 'aljāriyatu ṣaghīrah

"The girl is a little one_f." = "The girl is little."

In the above example the subject (الْجَارِيَةُ "the girl") was feminine. Therefore, we feminized the masculine adjectival noun صَغِيرٌ ṣaghīr with the feminine marker ة to get the feminine adjectival noun صَغِيرَةٌ ṣaghīrah "a little one_f" and used the feminine adjectival noun in the sentence.

7.7.2. Definite adjectival noun

Let's see if a definite adjectival noun can be used in the info. For example, we would like to say "The old tree is the big one."

¹See the example ثَلَاثُ شُخُوصٍ كَاعِبَانِ وَمُغْصِرٌ in 3/الأصول في النحو لابن السراج

The subject of the sentence is الشَّجَرَةُ الْقَدِيمَةُ *ʾashshajaratu -lqadimuiatu* “the old tree”. And the info is الْكَبِيرَةُ *ʾalkabīratu* “the big one”. When we put the two together we get:

الشَّجَرَةُ الْقَدِيمَةُ الْكَبِيرَةُ
ʾashshajaratu -lqadimatu -lkabīratu

The problem is that the above could also be interpreted as one phrase “the big old tree”, and not as the complete sentence “The old tree is the big one.” This is the same problem that we highlighted in section @ref(chap-smp-sent-sec-def-info).

The solution, too, is the same. We insert a detached pronoun, that matches the gender of the subject, between the subject and the info. So in order to get our intended meaning, we will say:

الشَّجَرَةُ الْقَدِيمَةُ هِيَ الْكَبِيرَةُ.
ʾashshajaratu -lqadimatu hiya -lkabīratu.
“The old tree is the big one.”

7.8. Adjectival nouns used without a described noun

We have mentioned that adjectival nouns are just like other nouns that we have learned so far, in that they have gender, case, and definiteness. Can we then use an adjectival noun by itself and not when it is describing another noun?

The answer is yes, we can. So for example, you can say:

شَرَبَ الصَّغِيرُ حَلِيبًا.
shariba -ṣṣaghīru ḥalibā.

“The little one drank some milk.”

The above is a correct sentence. But, by itself, it is not very clear. What do we mean by “the little one”? Is it a little boy, or a little cat, or something else? So, context would be needed to know what exactly is being denoted by the adjectival noun when it is used by itself independently.

Here is the same sentence again, but this time with some clarifying context.

حَمَلَتِ الْأُمُّ الصَّغِيرَ. وَشَرَبَ الصَّغِيرُ حَلِيبًا.
ḥamalati -lʾummu -ṣṣaghīra. washariba -ṣṣaghīru ḥalibā.

“The mother carried the little one. And the little one drank some milk.”

So now we can tell that what is meant by الصَّغِيرُ *ʾaṣṣaghīr* “the little one” here is “the baby”.

7.9. Adjectival nouns re-used as common nouns

Sometimes, an adjectival noun, through much usage, acquires the meaning of a common noun. It then gets listed with this meaning in the dictionary. We actually just saw an example above. The adjectival noun صَغِيرٌ *ṣaghīr* “a little one” is commonly used to mean “a baby”. Of course, context would be needed to know whether, in a particular sentence, it has its common noun meaning: “a baby”, or its general adjectival noun meaning: “a little one”.

The opposite of صَغِير *ṣaghīr* “a little one” is كَبِير *kabīr* “a big one”. It too has acquired the common noun meaning of “an elder person”. Here is an example of its usage:

قَدِمَ الْكَبِيرُ وَوَعِظَ الْغُلَامَ.
qadima -lkabīru wawaʿadha -lghulāma.
 “The elder arrived and admonished the boy.”

When an adjectival noun gets re-used as a common noun, it loses its genderizability. For example, the feminine adjectival noun حَسَنَةٌ *ḥasanah* (fem.) “a good one” is re-used as a common noun meaning “a good deed”. So we can use it in a sentence:

الصَّيَامُ حَسَنَةٌ.
ʾaṣṣiyāmu ḥasanah.
 “Fasting is a good deed.”

The subject in this sentence is the masculine noun الصَّيَامُ *ʾaṣṣiyām* “fasting”. And the info is the feminine noun حَسَنَةٌ *ḥasanah* “a good deed”. Note that the info does not match the subject in gender. This is because it lost its genderizability since it is no longer acting as an adjectival noun “a good one_f”, but rather as the common noun “a good deed”.

What if we have the sentence:

الصَّدَقَةُ حَسَنَةٌ.
ʾaṣṣadaqatu ḥasanah.

The feminine gender of the subject الصَّدَقَةُ *ʾaṣṣadaqah* “charity” now matches the gender of the info حَسَنَةٌ *ḥasanah*. So now, technically, the info could be the adjectival noun, meaning “a good one_f”. So the sentence could mean:

“Charity is good.”

Or the info could be the common noun, meaning “a good deed”. Then the sentence would mean:

“Charity is a good deed.”

Context would be needed to tell us which meaning is intended.

7.10. Common-nouns used as attributes in a noun-phrase

Usually, adjectival nouns are used as the attribute in an attributee-attribute phrase. However, we also often find a common noun used as a attribute. For example,

هُوَ رَجُلٌ مُعَلِّمٌ.
huwa rajulun muʿallim.
 “He is a teacher_m man.”
 = “He is a man who is a teacher_m.”

This is discussed in more detail in section (static adjectival noun: entity noun crossover).

7.11. Multiple adjectival nouns describing the same noun

In English we can have a noun described by multiple adjectives separated by commas and the word “and”. For example, “The building is big, tall, and wide.” In Arabic we will separate the multiple adjectival nouns with *wa-* “and”:

الْبِنَاءُ كَبِيرٌ وَطَوِيلٌ وَوَاسِعٌ.
albinā'u kabīrun waṭawīlun wawāsi'un
 “The building is big and tall and wide.”

In an English attributee-attribute phrase, multiple attributes may describe the same attributee, without being separated by the word “and”. For example, “The man is a famous Arab writer.” In Arabic, we can do the same, except the attributees will be in the reverse order:

الرَّجُلُ كَاتِبٌ عَرَبِيٌّ مَشْهُورٌ.
arrajulu kātibun ʿarabiyyun mash-hūr.
 “The man is a famous Arab writer.”

7.12. A prepositional phrase separating the attribute from the attributee

Consider the phrase:

كِتَابٌ مِنَ الْمَكْتَبَةِ
kitābun mina -lmaktabati
 “a book from the library”

If we want to add a adjectival noun as to describe “the book”, we may add it either before or after the prepositional phrase attribute. Here are both examples as complete sentences:

قَرَأَ كِتَابًا صَغِيرًا مِنَ الْمَكْتَبَةِ.
qara'a kitāban ṣaghīran mina -lmaktabati.

AND

قَرَأَ كِتَابًا مِنَ الْمَكْتَبَةِ صَغِيرًا.
qara'a kitāban mina -lmaktabati ṣaghīran.
 “a small book from the library”

The first option is usually chosen as a matter of preference but the second option is legitimate too.

Work in progress

Chapter 8.

The semi-flexible noun

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

8.1. Introduction

Nouns are of two main categories of nouns, with regard to their endings in the different noun cases:

1. Rigid nouns.
2. Flexible nouns. These are further sub-divided into:
 - i. Fully-flexible nouns.
 - ii. Semi-flexible nouns.

So far we have been mostly studying fully-flexible nouns. In this chapter we will learn about semi-flexible nouns.

Here is an example of the kind of nouns we have learned so far:

Case	Indefinite	Definite
u-case	رَجُلٌ	الرَّجُلُ
a-case	رَجُلًا	الرَّجُلَ
i-case	رَجُلٍ	الرَّجُلِ

As you can see, the noun is tanwined when it is indefinite, and also, the vowel mark on the last letter changes for each case that the noun is in. These kinds of nouns are called *fully-flexible* nouns. They are by far the most common type of noun.

There are some nouns, however, that are *semi-flexible*. Here is an example of a semi-flexible noun, صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrā'* “a desert”:

Case	Indefinite	Definite
u-case	صَحْرَاءُ	الصَّحْرَاءُ

Case	Indefinite	Definite
a-case	صَحْرَاءَ	الصَّحْرَاءَ
i-case	صَحْرَاءِ	الصَّحْرَاءِ

As you can see, when صَحْرَاءَ *ṣaḥrāʾ* is indefinite, it is not tanwined. Also, when it is indefinite and in the i-case, the vowel mark on its final letter is not ِ, as you might expect but ِ. And so the noun looks identical in the a-case and i-case when it is indefinite.

When it is definite, however, it looks just like fully-flexible nouns.

So there are two differences between fully-flexible and semi-flexible nouns:

1. When indefinite, a semi-flexible noun is not tanwined.
2. When indefinite and in the i-case, a semi-flexible noun's final letter does not have an kasrah. Instead it shall have an fatḥah, just like when it is in the a-case.

The other category of nouns are *rigid* nouns. Rigid nouns don't change their endings due to their case. They are much fewer in number compared to flexible nouns. Pronouns are an example of rigid nouns.

8.2. Feminine markers

Before we discuss semi-flexible nouns in more detail, we will discuss feminine markers. We already know of one feminine marker: the *ḍ*. When a singular noun ends with *ḍ*, then that is an indication, with very few exceptions, that it is a feminine noun. Examples are:

Root	Feminine noun	Masculine noun from same root (if any)
جري	جَارِيَةٌ “a girl _f ”	–
علم	عَالِمَةٌ “a scholar _f ”	عَالِمٌ “a scholar _m ”
كلب	كَلْبَةٌ “a dog _f ”	كَلْبٌ “a dog _m ”
شجر	شَجَرَةٌ “a tree”	–
صغر	صَغِيرَةٌ <i>adj.</i> “small _f ”	صَغِيرٌ <i>adj.</i> “small _m ”

As you can see, the feminine marker *ḍ* is never part of the noun's root. It is thus considered *extrinsic* to the root. Also, sometimes, but not always, the feminine noun is formed by adding the feminine marker *ḍ* to the end of a masculine noun.

It is also important to note that *ḍ* is only a feminine marker for singular nouns. When we learn plurals, if Allāh wills, we will see that *ḍ* is used frequently with masculine plurals.

Now we will learn of two more feminine markers: *اء* and *ى*.

Here are some examples of nouns that end with these two feminine markers:

Root	Feminine noun	Masculine noun (if any)
صحر	صَحْرَاءُ “a desert”	–
حمر	حَمْرَاءُ <i>adj.</i> “red _f ”	أَحْمَرُ <i>adj.</i> “red _m ”
ذكر	ذِكْرَى “a remembrance”	–
غضب	غَضَبِي <i>adj.</i> “very angry _f ”	غَضَبَان <i>adj.</i> “very angry _m ”

When extrinsic to the word’s root, ء and ي are feminine markers, just like ة. However, one important difference from ة is that sometimes ء and ي may not be extrinsic to the word’s root. In this case, they will not be feminine markers, and the noun will regularly be a masculine noun. Examples:

Root	Noun	Pattern using paradigm فعل
هدي	الْهُدَى (masc.) “the guidance”	الْفُعْلُ
خبء	خِبَاء (masc.) “a tent”	فِعَال

These cases will become more clear, if Allāh wills, when we study weak roots (roots that contain a weak letter like ي, و, ء).

Otherwise, when extrinsic to the word’s root, ء, and ي are consistently feminine markers, just like ة.

Also, just like ة, ء and ي are only feminine markers for singular nouns. We will see, if Allāh wills, that they are used frequently with masculine plurals.

By the way, another difference from ة is that when ء and ي are feminine markers, and a masculine counterpart exists, then the feminine noun is not formed by simply adding the feminine marker to the end of the masculine noun. The masculine and feminine nouns are different internally as well. For example, the feminine noun حَمْرَاءُ *adj.* “red_f” is not formed simply by adding the feminine marker ء to the end of the masculine noun أَحْمَرُ *adj.* “red_m”.

We will discuss this in more detail below.

8.3. Categories of semi-flexible nouns

We now return to our discussion of semi-flexible nouns. Semi-flexible nouns, in terms of their formation, fall under different categories. We will discuss them below.

When discussing semi-flexible nouns in isolation we will add the numeral 2 as a superscript to their ending, thus: ²صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrā*². This is to indicate their semi-flexibility.

8.3.1. Nouns that end with an extrinsic ء

If a noun ends with an ء, which is extrinsic to the word’s root, then it shall be a semi-flexible noun.

We have already seen an example of such a noun above: ²صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrāʾ* “a desert”. The root of this noun is صحر. You can see that the ending ء is not part of the root. Therefore it is a semi-flexible noun.

Furthermore, we have also learned that this ء, which is extrinsic to the word’s root, is a feminine marker for singular nouns, just like ة, except that ة does not generally make a noun semi-flexible.

Here is an example sentence with this noun:

ذَهَبَ الرَّجُلُ إِلَى صَحْرَاءٍ وَاسِعَةٍ.
d̥hahaba -rrajulu ʾilā ṣaḥrāʾa wāsiʿah.
 “The man went to a wide desert.”

Note that the vowel mark on the final letter of صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrāʾa* is َ, not ِ, even though it is indefinite and in the i-case (because it is preceded by the preposition إِلَى *ʾilā* “to”). This is because it is a semi-flexible noun.

²صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrāʾ* in this sentence is also a attributee, whose attribute is وَاسِعَةٍ *wāsiʿatin* “wide”. The final vowel mark َ on the attributee صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrāʾa* has no effect on the final vowel mark on the attribute وَاسِعَةٍ *wāsiʿatin* “wide”. All that matters in this regard is the case of the attributee.

Note, also, that the attribute وَاسِعَةٍ is feminine to match the gender of the attributee ²صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrāʾ*.

Note, as well, that the attribute وَاسِعَةٍ is tanwined as it is indefinite and fully-flexible. The inability of its attributee ²صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrāʾ* to be tanwined (because of its semi-flexibility) does not affect the attribute.

Also, beware, as we’ve already mentioned, that there are some words where the ء ending may be part of the word’s root, for example خَيْبَاءُ *k̥hibāʾ* “a tent” from the root خبء on the pattern خَيْبَاءُ. Such words will be fully flexible. Also, for the same reason, ء in this word is not a feminine marker, and the word is masculine.

8.3.2. Nouns that end with an extrinsic ى

If a noun ends with an ى which is extrinsic to the word’s root, then it shall be a semi-flexible noun.

We’ve already seen an example of such a word: ²ذِكْرَى *d̥hikrāʾ* “a remembrance”. The root of this word is ذكر and it is on the pattern فُعْلَى.

We’ve also learned that, similar to ء, this ى, which is extrinsic to the word’s root, is a feminine marker for singular nouns.

Since ²ذِكْرَى *d̥hikrāʾ* already ends with the vowel-mark ِ, the last letter won’t have any additional vowel markers and therefore the word will appear the same in all cases:

Case	Indefinite	Definite
u-case	ذِكْرَى	الذِّكْرَى
a-case	ذِكْرَى	الذِّكْرَى
i-case	ذِكْرَى	الذِّكْرَى

Therefore, the case of such nouns cannot be determined by the vowel mark on their final letter, and has to be deduced otherwise by their function in the sentence. Nevertheless, these nouns are still included in the category of semi-flexible nouns, and not rigid nouns. This is because rigid nouns are closed set consisting only of pronouns and other similar words.

Here is an example of this word in a sentence:

الْكِتَابُ ذِكْرٌ جَمِيلٌ.

‘*alkitābu dhikrā jamilah*.

“The book is a beautiful remembrance.”

Note, again how the attribute جَمِيلَةٌ *jamilah* is feminine and in the u-case, in order to match the gender and case of the attributee ذِكْرٌ *dhikrā*².

Beware also that, just like in the case of اء, there are some words where ح may be part of the word’s root, e.g. اَلْهُدَى *alhudā* “the guidance” whose root is هدى. Because here the ح in اَلْهُدَى is part of the word’s root, therefore it shall not be a semi-flexible noun. So, when it is indefinite, it will be tanwined: هُدًى *hudan* “a guidance”. Also, for the same reason, ح in this word is not a feminine marker, and the word is masculine.

8.3.3. Nouns on the pattern أَفْعَلْ

If a noun is on the pattern أَفْعَلْ *af‘al* then it shall be a semi-flexible noun. By the way, there is no feminine marker on such words, so they will be masculine by default.

Most colors and many physical characteristics fall into this pattern. Colors and physical characteristics are adjectival nouns. The masculine noun for such adjectival nouns is on the pattern أَفْعَلْ *af‘al*. And the feminine adjectival noun is on the pattern فَعْلَاءَ *fa‘lā* (which is itself a semi-flexible noun pattern because of the extrinsic اء ending). Here are some examples of such adjectival nouns:

Root	Masc. Noun	Fem. noun	Meaning
حمر	أَحْمَرٌ ²	حَمْرَاءُ ²	red
سود	أَسْوَدٌ ²	سَوْدَاءُ ²	black
بيض	أَبْيَضٌ ²	بَيْضَاءُ ²	white
عرج	أَعْرَجٌ ²	عَرْجَاءُ ²	lame
حور	أَخْوَرٌ ²	خَوْرَاءُ ²	beautiful eyed
بكم	أَبْكَمٌ ²	بَكْمَاءُ ²	mute

Example:

لَبَسَ الرَّجُلُ قَمِيصًا أَبْيَضَ.

labisa -rrajulu qamiṣan ‘abyaḍ.

“The man wore a white shirt.”

8.3.4. Adjectival nouns that end with an extrinsic ان {Adjectival noun-an-diptote}

The letters ان may be an extrinsic ending for nouns. This ending is not a feminine marker so the noun would typically be masculine. This ending may cause the noun to be semi-flexible.

This category is more complicated than the previous ones. The following conditions must be satisfied for a word that ends with ان to be a semi-flexible noun:

1. The noun must be a adjectival noun on the pattern فَعْلَان. So the common noun ثُعْبَان *thuebān* “a serpent” of the root ثَعِيَ is a common noun and therefore, not a semi-flexible noun.
2. The ان must be extrinsic to the word’s root. So جَبَان *jabānun* “cowardly”, an adjectival noun of the root جَبِن, is not a semi-flexible noun.
3. The feminine of the adjectival noun shall not be formed by adding ة to the masculine noun. So نَدَمَان *nadmān* “regretful”, an adjectival noun from the root نَدِم, is not a semi-flexible noun, because its feminine is نَدْمَانَةٌ *nadmānah*.

It is rare that this last condition fails. Most adjectival nouns that end with an extrinsic ان are of the pattern فَعْلَان *faelān* and their feminine is of the pattern فَعْلَى *faelā* (which is itself a semi-flexible noun pattern). These adjectival nouns typically have an emphatic meaning. The following are examples of semi-flexible adjectival nouns that fall into this category:

Root	Masc. Noun	Fem. noun	Meaning
غَضِبَ	غَضْبَانٌ ²	غَضْبَى ²	very angry
عَطَشَ	عَطْشَانٌ ²	عَطْشَى ²	very thirsty
جَوَعَ	جَوْعَانٌ ²	جَوْعَى ²	very hungry

8.3.5. Nouns of the patterns فَفَافِيف and فَفَافِيف

Nouns that are of the patterns فَفَافِيف and فَفَافِيف are also semi-flexible nouns. Here each letter ف could be any letter of the alphabet.

Here are some examples of these nouns:

- مَسَاجِدٌ *masājid*² “mosques”
- مَفَاتِيحٌ *mafātiḥ*² “keys”

These patterns are only used for plurals and we will study them in more detail in chapter @ref(broken-plurals) , if Allāh wills.

Chapter 9.

The dual

Warning

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9.1. Introduction

For any number greater than one, English uses the plural. For example, the plural of “house” is “houses”. So in English we will say:
“two houses”

Arabic, on the other hand, uses the plural only for nouns in number three and higher. For nouns that are two in number Arabic uses the *dual*.

Since English does not have a dual, we will sometimes indicate it using the the subscript 2, thus: “houses₂”, to mean “two houses”.

9.2. Forming the dual

The dual is formed by appending the dual suffix اَنِ -*āni* when the noun is in the u-case and اَيْنِ -*ayni* when the noun is in the a-case or i-case. Definite nouns, which have اَلْ in their beginning are dualized the same way.

For example, when we dualize بَيْت *bayt* “a house” in order to say “houses₂”, we get:

Cases	Indefinite	Definite
u-case	بَيْتَانِ <i>baytāni</i>	اَلْبَيْتَانِ <i>'albaytāni</i>
a-case and i-case	بَيْتَيْنِ <i>baytayni</i>	اَلْبَيْتَيْنِ <i>'albaytayni</i>

Note that indefinite duals are not tanwīned. The only difference between definite and indefinite duals is the definite article اَلْ “the”.

Here are examples of duals in sentences:

- u-case:

اَلْكِتَابَانِ فِي الْحَقِيْبَةِ.
'*alkitābāni fī -lḥaqībah.*

“The books₂ are in the bag.”

- a-case:

قَرَأَ الْغُلَامُ كِتَابَيْنِ.
qara'a -lghulāmu kitābayn.
“The boy read two books.”

- i-case:

عَظِيبَتٌ أَلُمُّ عَلَى الْجَارِيَتَيْنِ.
ghaḍibati -l'ummu ʿala -ljāriyatayn.
“The mother became angry at the girls₂.” ### Nouns ending in ة

If a noun ends with a ة, then it is converted to a ت before appending the dual suffix. For example, dualizing شَجَرَة shajarah “a tree”, we get “trees₂”:

Cases	Indefinite	Definite
u-case	شَجَرَتَانِ shajaratāni	الشَّجَرَتَانِ ashshajaratāni
a-case and i-case	شَجَرَتَيْنِ shajaratayni	الشَّجَرَتَيْنِ ashshajaratayni

Example:

الشَّجَرَتَانِ فِي الْحَدِيقَةِ.
ashsharatāni fi -lhadiqah.
“The trees₂ are in the garden.”

If a feminine noun does end with a ة then it will simply be appended with ان -āni and يْنِ -ayni. For example, dualizing أُم umm “a mother” in order to get “mothers₂”, we get:

- u-case: أُمَانِ ummāni
- a-case and i-case: أُمَيْنِ ummayni

There are some nouns that end with an alif before the ة, like فَتَاة fatāh “a young woman”. We will learn how to dualize these nouns later, if Allāh wills.

9.2.1. Nouns ending with ء

If a noun ends with the feminine marker ء which is extrinsic to the word's root then the ء shall be replaced with a و when forming the dual. Examples:

Root	Singular	Dual (u-case)	Dual (a-case and i-case)
صحراء	صَحْرَاءُ ṣaḥrā' “a desert”	صَحْرَاوَانِ ṣaḥrāwāni	صَحْرَاوَيْنِ ṣaḥrāwayni
حمر	حَمْرَاءُ ḥamrā' “red _f ”	حَمْرَاوَانِ ḥamrāwāni	حَمْرَاوَيْنِ ḥamrāwayni

There are other words where the ء in the ء ending originates from the word's root. Example:

- فُجَال (masc.) “a tent”, pattern: فُجَال

We will learn how to form duals of these words in later chapters, if Allāh wills.

9.2.2. Nouns ending with يَ

If a noun ends with يَ which is extrinsic to the word's root then the يَ shall be changed to اَ when adding the dual suffixes. Examples:

Root	Singular	Dual (u-case)	Dual (a-case and i-case)
غَضَب	غَضَبِي <i>ghaḍbā</i> “very angry”	غَضَبَانِ <i>ghaḍbayāni</i>	غَضَبَيْنِ <i>ghaḍbayayni</i>
ذَكَر	ذِكْرِي <i>dhikrā</i> “a remembrance”	ذِكْرَانِ <i>dhikrayāni</i>	ذِكْرَيْنِ <i>dhikrayayni</i>

Just like in the case of اَ, there are some words where يَ is not extrinsic to the word's root. Example:

- اَلْهُدَى (masc.) “the guidance”, pattern: اَلْفُعْلُ

We will learn how to form duals of these words in later chapters, if Allāh wills.

9.3. Dual attributes and attributees in descriptive noun-phrases

We learned that when an adjectival noun is a attribute in an descriptive noun-phrase, then it matches the attributee in definiteness, case, and gender. For example:

ذَهَبْتُ إِلَى الْمَدِينَةِ الْقَدِيمَةِ.
dhahabtu 'ila -l-madinati -l-qadimah.
 “I went to the old city.”

To this we add that the attribute shall also match the attributee in number. So if the attributee is a dual then the adjectival noun attribute shall be dualized to match it. Examples:

الْأُمَمَانِ الطَّيِّبَتَانِ فِي الْبَيْتِ.
'al-'ummāni -ṭṭayyibatāni fi -lbayt.
 “The good mothers₂ are in the house.”

قَرَأَ الْغُلَامُ كِتَابَيْنِ ثَقِيلَيْنِ قَدِيمَيْنِ.
qara'a -l-ghulāmu kitābayni thaqīlatayni qadīmatayn.
 “The boy read two old heavy books.”

9.4. Duals in nounal sentences

In nounal sentences, if the subject is a dual, and the info is an adjectival noun, then the info will typically match the subject in being a dual. For example:

الْأُمَمَانُ كَرِيمَتَانُ.

ʿalʿummāni karīmatān.

“The mothers₂ are generous.”

الْكِتَابَانِ الْكَبِيرَانِ ثَقِيلَانِ.

ʿalkitābāni -lkabīrāni ṭḥaqīlān.

“The big books₂ are heavy.”

Such is usually also the case even when the info is a common noun, not an adjectival noun. For example,

الرُّجُلَانِ مُعَلِّمَانُ.

ʿarrujulāni muʿallimān.

“The men₂ are teachers_{m,2}.”

Sometimes, however, the subject and info may not match in number because of the meaning of the sentence. For example,

الْوِسَادَتَانِ سَرِيرٌ.

ʿalwisādatāni sarīr.

“The two cushions are a bed.”

In the above example, the info does not match the subject in both number, and, as it happens, in gender.

9.5. Detached dual pronouns

We have already learned the detached pronouns that are used in place of singular nouns. They are repeated here:

Singular participant	Detached pronoun
Masc. absentee	هُوَ <i>huwa</i> “he”
Fem. absentee	هِيَ <i>hiya</i> “she”
Masc. addressee	أَنْتَ <i>ʾanta</i> “you _{m,1} ”
Fem. addressee	أَنْتِ <i>ʾanti</i> “you _{f,1} ”
Speaker	أَنَا <i>ʾana</i> “I”

Now we will learn the detached pronouns for the dual participants:

Dual participant	Detached pronoun
Absentee	هُمَا <i>humā</i> “they ₂ ”
Addressee	أَنْتُمَا <i>ʾantumā</i> “you ₂ ”
Speaker	—

Note that the dual detached pronouns are the same for both genders. Also, there is no detached pronoun for the dual speaker-participant. If the speaker-participant consists of two individuals then we will use the plural pronoun, which we will learn in the next chapter, if Allāh wills.

Here are some examples of their use:

هُمَا الرَّجُلَانِ.

humā -rrajulān.

“They₂ are the men₂.”

هُمَا مُعَلِّمَتَانِ كَرِيمَتَانِ.

humā muʿallimatāni karīmatāni.

“They₂ are noble teachers_f.”

قَالَتِ الْأُمُّ لِلْجَارِيَتَيْنِ أَنْتُمَا قَرِيبَتَانِ مِنِّي.

qālātī -lʾummu liljāriyatayni ʾantumā qaribatāni minnī.

“The mother said to the girls₂, ‘You₂ are near me.’”

In the last example, the feminine adjectival noun قَرِيبَتَانِ *qaribatāni* is used because it is referring to the feminine noun الْجَارِيَتَيْنِ *aljāriyatayni* “the girls₂”.

9.6. Attached dual pronouns

We have also already learned the attached pronouns for the singular participant. They too are repeated here:

Singular participant	Attached pronoun
Masc. absentee	هُ - <i>hu</i> “him”
Fem. absentee	هَا - <i>hā</i> “her”
Masc. addressee	كَ - <i>ka</i> “you _{m,1} ”
Fem. addressee	كِ - <i>ki</i> “you _{f,1} ”
Speaker	يَ “me”

Now we will learn the attached pronouns for the dual participant:

Dual participant	Attached pronoun
Absentee	هُمَا - <i>humā</i> “them ₂ ”
Addressee	كُمَا - <i>kumā</i> “you ₂ ”
Speaker	—

Note the following points about them:

- Like the dual detached pronouns, the dual attached pronouns are the same for both genders. Also, there is no attached pronoun for the dual speaker-participant. Again, the plural pronoun will be used in this case.
- The dual absentee-participant detached and attached pronouns (“they₂”/“them₂”) are the same هُمَا -*humā*.

- Just like the absentee-participant singular masculine attached pronoun *هُ* *hu* “him”, the dual absentee-participant attached pronoun “them₂” *هُمَا* *-humā* becomes *هِمَا* *-himā* when preceded by the vowels *ا* *-i*, *ي* *-ī*, or the semi-vowel *يَ* *-ay*. Examples:
 - *بِهِمَا* *bihimā* “with them₂”
 - *فِيهِمَا* *fīhimā* “in them₂”
 - *إِلَيْهِمَا* *ʾilayhimā* “to them₂”
- The preposition *لِ* *li* “for” becomes *لِ* *la* when followed by the dual attached pronouns:
 - *لَهُمَا* *lahumā* “for them₂”
 - *لَكُمَا* *lakumā* “for you₂”
- As expected, the long *ā* vowel at the ends of the dual attached pronouns becomes a short *a* vowel when followed by a connecting hamzah *أ*. Example:
 - *ذَهَبَ إِلَيْكُمَا الرَّجُلُ.*
d̥hahaba ʾilaykuma -rrajulu.
 “The man went toward you₂.”

9.6.1. Attached pronouns for the direct doee

The dual attached pronouns that we have just learned are also for the direct doee Examples:

سَأَلَهُمَا الرَّجُلُ.
saʾalahuma -rrajulu.
 “The man asked them₂.”

سَأَلْتُكُمَا.
saʾaltukumā
 “I asked you₂.”

سَأَلَتْكُمَا.
saʾalatukumā.
 “She asked you₂.”

9.7. Verbs with dual doers

9.7.1. Dual nouns for the doer

We learned that the caseless verb for a masculine doer is on the pattern *فَعَلَ*. And when the doer is feminine, the *ت* of femininity is attached to the verb thus: *فَعَلَتْ*. We have used these verbs with singular doer nouns. The doer noun always comes after the verb and shall be in the u-case. Examples:

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ.
d̥hahaba -lghulāmu.
 “The boy went.”

دَهَبَتْ جَارِيَةٌ.
d̥hahabat jāriyatun
 “A girl went.”

These same verbs are used when the doer noun is a dual. Examples:

دَهَبَ الْغُلَامَانِ.
d̥hahaba -lghulāmāni.
 “The boys₂ went.”

دَهَبَتْ جَارِيَتَانِ.
d̥hahabat jāriyatāni.
 “Two girls went.”

9.7.2. Dual pronouns for the doer

We have already learned the singular doer pronouns:

Singular participant	Doer pronoun	Meaning	Doer pronoun with verb
Masc. absentee	invisible	“he”	فَعَلَ <i>faʿala</i>
Fem. absentee	invisible	“she”	فَعَلَتْ <i>faʿalat</i>
Masc. addressee	تَ - <i>ta</i>	“you _{m,2} ”	فَعَلْتَ <i>faʿalta</i>
Fem. addressee	تِ - <i>ti</i>	“you _{f,2} ”	فَعَلْتِ <i>faʿalti</i>
Speaker	تُ - <i>tu</i>	“I”	فَعَلْتُ <i>faʿaltu</i>

Now we will learn the dual doer pronouns:

Dual participant	Doer pronoun	Meaning	Doer pronoun with verb
Absentee	اِ - <i>ā</i>	“them ₂ ”	masc.: فَعَلَا <i>faʿalā</i> , fem: فَعَلَاتَا <i>faʿalatā</i>
Addressee	تُما - <i>tumā</i>	“you ₂ ”	فَعَلْتُمَا <i>faʿaltumā</i>
Speaker	–	“us ₂ ”	–

Note the following regarding the dual doer pronouns:

The dual doer pronouns are the same for both genders.

However, when the absentee-participant doer pronoun (اِ -*ā*) is used for a feminine doer, it is attached to the verb with an intervening ت of femininity thus: فَعَلَاتَا *faʿalatā* “they_{f,2} did” Here are some examples of the dual doer pronouns:

سَأَلْتُمَانَا
saʿaltumānā
 “You₂ asked us”

سَأَلْتَاكُمَا
saʿalatākumā
 “They_{f,2} asked you₂”

سَأَلَهُمَا
 sa'alāhumā
 "They_{m,2} asked them₂"

9.7.3. Sentence word order with dual doers

As we've mentioned, the doer, whether a noun or a pronoun, always comes after the verb. Here are a couple of examples of verbal sentences with dual doers:

ذَهَبَا إِلَى بَيْتٍ.
 dhahabā 'ilā baytin.
 "They₂ went to a house."

ذَهَبَ الرَّجُلَانِ إِلَى بَيْتٍ.
 dhahabā -rrujalāni 'ilā baytin.
 "The men₂ went to a house."

The above verbal sentence can be rearranged to be a nounal sentence. This gives more emphasis to the subject. In this case, the verb shall follow the subject and will need a doer pronoun after it.

الرَّجُلَانِ ذَهَبَا إِلَى بَيْتٍ.
 'arrajulāni dhahabā 'ilā baytin.

"The men₂, they₂ went to a house."
 = "The men₂ went to a house."

If there are multiple verbs associated with the same doer in a verbal sentence, the doer noun will follow the first verb and the rest of the verbs will have doer pronouns. For example:

أَكَلَ الرَّجُلَانِ وَشَرِبَا وَذَهَبَا.
 'akala -rrajulāni washaribā wadhahabā.
 "The men₂ ate and they₂ drank and they₂ went."
 = "The men₂ ate and drank and went."

The above verbal sentence can be rearranged to be a nounal sentence. In that case, all the verbs shall have doer pronouns. The sentence will have the same translation as above, except for an emphasis on the subject of the sentence.

الرَّجُلَانِ أَكَلَا وَشَرِبَا وَذَهَبَا.
 'arrajulāni 'akalā washaribā wadhahabā.
 "The men₂, they₂ ate and they₂ drank and they₂ went."
 = "The men₂ ate and drank and went."

Chapter 10.

The sound plural

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

10.1. Introduction

Arabic uses the plural for nouns in number three and higher. The formation and use of plurals in Arabic can be somewhat complicated. One of these complications is that, in using plurals, Arabic distinguishes between intelligent beings and non-intelligent beings. Intelligent beings are those living beings that are endowed with reason like humans, angels, and jinn. Non-intelligent beings include animals, inanimate objects, abstract concepts, etc.

As a further complication, there is sometimes more than one way to use plurals. In this chapter we will explain the most common usages to keep things as simple as possible.

Arabic has two categories of plurals:

1. The *sound plural*: English regularly forms the plural by adding the plural ending “s” to the end of a singular noun. For example:

Singular	Plural
book	books
house	houses
boy	boys
girl	girls

Arabic also forms some plurals by adding plural endings to the singular noun. This kind of plural is called a *sound plural* because the singular noun is kept more or less sound (intact) when adding the plural ending.

Arabic has two types of sound plurals:

- i. The *ūn* sound plural.
- ii. The *āt* sound plural.

We will describe each of these in this chapter.

2. The *broken plural*: When forming this plural the singular noun is not kept intact. We will learn about this plural in the next chapter, if Allāh wills.

10.2. The *ūn* sound plural

The *ūn* sound plural is formed by adding the ending *ُونَ* -*ūna* to the singular noun when it is in the u-case, and *ِينَ* -*īna* when the noun is in the a-case or i-case. For convenience, we will call it the “*ūn* sound plural” instead of the “-*ūna*/-*īna* plural”.

Here is the *ūn* sound plural of *مُعَلِّمٌ* *muʿallim* “a teacher_m”:

Case	Indefinite <i>ūn</i> plural “teachers _m ”	Definite <i>ūn</i> plural “the teachers _m ”
u-case	مُعَلِّمُونَ <i>muʿallimūna</i>	اَلْمُعَلِّمُونَ <i>ʾalmuʿallimūna</i>
a-case and i-case	مُعَلِّمِينَ <i>muʿallimīna</i>	اَلْمُعَلِّمِينَ <i>ʾalmuʿallimīna</i>

Note that, just like for duals, the indefinite *ūn* sound plural is not tanwined. The only difference between the definite and indefinite *ūn* sound plural is the definite article اَلْ “the”.

The duals of *مُعَلِّمٌ* *muʿallim* “a teacher_m” are included here for comparison:

Case	Indefinite <i>ūn</i> sound plural “teachers _{m,2} ”	Definite <i>ūn</i> sound plural “the teachers _{m,2} ”
u-case	مُعَلِّمَانِ <i>muʿallimāni</i>	اَلْمُعَلِّمَانِ <i>ʾalmuʿallimāni</i>
a-case and i-case	مُعَلِّمَيْنِ <i>muʿallimayni</i>	اَلْمُعَلِّمَيْنِ <i>ʾalmuʿallimayni</i>

Here are some examples of the *ūn* sound plural in sentences:

- u-case:

اَلْمُعَلِّمُونَ فِي الْمَدْرَسَةِ.
ʾalmuʿallimūna fī -lmaḍrasah
“The teachers are in the school.”

- a-case:

سَأَلَ الْغُلَامُ مُعَلِّمِينَ عَنْ أَمْرٍ.
saʿala -lġhulāmu muʿallimīna ʿan ʾamr.
“The boy asked some teachers about a matter.”

- i-case:

طَلَبَ الْغُلَامُ مِنَ الْمُعَلِّمِينَ عِلْمًا.
ṭalaba -lġhulāmu mina -lmuʿallimīna ʿilmā.
“The boy sought some knowledge from the teachers.”

10.2.1. Applicability of the *ūn* sound plural

Except for very few exceptions, the *ūn* sound plural is used only for male intelligent beings.

The few exceptions of common nouns that denote non-male intelligent beings, yet have an *ūn* sound plural include:

- *عَالَمٌ* *ʿālam* “a world” forms the *ūn* plural *عَالَمُونَ* *ʿālamūna* “worlds”.
- *أَرْضٌ* *ʾarḍ* (fem.) “a land”, “an earth” forms the *ūn* plural *أَرْضُونَ* *ʾarḍūna* “lands”, “earths”.
- *أَهْلٌ* *ʾahl* “a family” forms the *ūn* plural *أَهْلُونَ* *ʾahlūna* “families”.

10.3. The *āt* sound plural

The *āt* sound plural is formed by adding the ending *ات* *āt* to the indefinite singular noun.

Here is the *āt* sound plural of *حَيَوَانٌ* *ḥayawān* “an animal”:

Case	Indefinite <i>ūn</i> plural “animals”	Definite <i>ūn</i> plural “the animals”
u-case	حَيَوَانَاتٌ <i>ḥayawānātun</i>	الْحَيَوَانَاتُ <i>ʾalḥayawānātu</i>
a-case and i-case	حَيَوَانَاتٍ <i>ḥayawānātin</i>	الْحَيَوَانَاتِ <i>ʾalḥayawānāti</i>

Note that:

- Unlike the *ūn* sound plural, the *āt* sound plural is tanwined when indefinite. Also, just like for singular nouns, the final vowel on the plural ending *ات* *āt* indicates the case of the plural.
- The *āt* sound plural does not take the fat-ḥah َ and the tanwined fat-ḥah ً. Instead the kasrah ِ and the tanwined kasrah ٍ are used to indicate both the a-case and the i-case.

Case	the animal	the animals
u-case	الْحَيَوَانُ <i>ʾalḥayawānu</i>	الْحَيَوَانَاتُ <i>ʾalḥayawānātu</i>
a-case	الْحَيَوَانِ <i>ʾalḥayawāna</i>	الْحَيَوَانَاتِ <i>ʾalḥayawānāti</i>
i-case	الْحَيَوَانِي <i>ʾalḥayawāni</i>	الْحَيَوَانَاتِ <i>ʾalḥayawānāti</i>

10.3.1. Nouns ending in ة

If a noun ends with a ة, then it is removed before appending the *āt* sound plural ending. Here, for example, is the *āt* sound plural of *مُعَلِّمَةٌ* *muʿallimah* “a teacher_f”:

Case	Indefinite <i>ūn</i> plural “teachers _f ”	Definite <i>ūn</i> plural “the teachers _f ”
u-case	مُعَلِّمَاتٌ <i>muʿallimātun</i>	اَلْمُعَلِّمَاتُ <i>ʾalmuʿallimātu</i>
a-case and i-case	مُعَلِّمَاتٍ <i>muʿallimātin</i>	اَلْمُعَلِّمَاتِ <i>ʾalmuʿallimāti</i>

Here are some examples of the *āt* sound plural in sentences:

- u-case:

فِي الْمَدْرَسَةِ مُعَلِّمَاتٌ .
fi -lmaḍrasati muʿallimāt.
 “In the school are teachers.”

- a-case:

نَصَرَ اللَّهُ الْمُسْلِمِينَ.
naṣara -llāhu -lmuṣlimīn.
 “Allāh aided the Muslims.

- i-case:

نَظَرَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَى الْخَيْوَانَاتِ.
naḍhara -lghulāmu ʾila -lḥayawānāt.
 “The boy looked at the animals.”

There are some nouns that end with an alif before the *ə*, like فَتَاة *fatāh* “a young woman”. We will learn how to pluralize these nouns later, if Allāh wills.

10.3.2. Nouns ending with ة

Consistent with what we learned for duals in section @ref(duals-of-extrinsic-alif-mamduda), if a noun ends with the feminine marker ة which is extrinsic to the word’s root then the ة shall be replaced with a و when forming the *āt* sound plural. Example:

Root	Singular	<i>āt</i> sound plural
صحر	صَحْرَاءُ <i>ṣaḥrāʾ</i> ² “a desert”	صَحْرَاوَاتٍ <i>ṣaḥrāwāt</i>

10.3.3. Nouns ending with ي

Consistent with what we learned for duals in section @ref(duals-of-extrinsic-alif-maqsura), If a noun ends with ي which is extrinsic to the word’s root then the ي shall be changed to a ي when forming the *āt* sound plural. Examples:

Root	Singular	<i>āt</i> sound plural
ذكر	ذِكْرَى <i>dhikrā</i> ² “a remembrance”	ذِكْرَايَاتٍ <i>dhikrayāt</i>

10.3.4. Common nouns of the patterns فُعْلَة/فُعْل, فُعْلَة/فُعْل, and فُعْلَة/فُعْل

Common nouns of the patterns فُعْلَة/فُعْل, فُعْلَة/فُعْل, and فُعْلَة/فُعْل are treated specially when forming their āt sound plural.

If a common noun is of these patterns and the middle root letter is not و or ي, and the middle and final root letters are not the same, then the word is modified internally when forming the āt sound plural.

There are two separate rules to consider:

1. If a common noun is of the pattern فُعْل fael or فُعْلَة faelah, then the sukūn on the middle letter shall be converted to an fatḥah َ when forming the āt sound plural. For example:

- نَحْلَة *naḥlah* “a bee” becomes نَحْلَات *naḥlāt* “bees”, not × نَحْلَات *naḥlāt*.
- ضَرْبَة *ḍarbah* “a strike” becomes ضَرْبَات *ḍarabāt* “strikes”, not × ضَرْبَات *ḍarbāt*.
- صَفْحَة *ṣafḥah* “a page” becomes صَفْحَات *ṣafḥāt* “pages”, not × صَفْحَات *ṣafḥāt*.

If the middle root letter is و or ي, or the middle and final root letters are the same then this modification is not done. For example,

- جَوْزَة *jawzah* “a walnut” becomes جَوَزَات *jawzāt*.
- حَجَّة *ḥajjah* “a pilgrimage” becomes حَجَّات *ḥajjāt*.

2. If a common noun is of the pattern فُعْل fiel, فُعْلَة fielah, or فُعْل fuell, or فُعْلَة fuelah then the sukūn on the middle letter can, optionally, either:

- i. be retained,
- ii. be converted to an fatḥah, or
- iii. be converted to the vowel mark on the first letter.

For example:

- ظُلْمَة *ḍḥulmah* “a darkness” can become, optionally, either ظُلُمَات *ḍḥulmāt* or ظُلُمَات *ḍḥulamāt*, or ظُلُمَات *ḍḥulumāt* “darknesses”.
- كِسْرَة *kisrah* “a piece” can become, optionally, either كِسْرَات *kisrāt* or كِسْرَات *kisarāt*, or كِسْرَات *kisirāt* “pieces”.

Note that this rule of changing the vowel mark is only true for common nouns. Adjectival nouns on these patterns will retain the sukūn when forming the āt sound plural. So صَعْب *ṣaʿb* and صَعْبَة *ṣaʿbah* “a difficult one” become only صَعْبَات *ṣaʿbāt*, not × صَعْبَات *ṣaʿabāt*.

10.3.5. Applicability of the āt sound plural

We had mentioned that the ūn sound plural is used, with very few exceptions, only for male intelligent beings. Conversely, the āt is used for both female intelligent beings, and for non-intelligent beings (both masculine and feminine) like animals, inanimate objects, and abstract concepts. Rarely, it is also used for male intelligent beings.

10.4. Conditions for forming the sound plural

Many times, a noun can form both an *ūn* sound plural and an *āt* sound plural. However, there are many nouns that can form only one of the two sound plurals. And many nouns don't form either sound plural; they only form broken plurals. (We will learn about broken plurals in the next chapter, if Allāh wills.) There are even nouns that can form both sound and broken plurals.

Here we will learn some of the conditions which a noun needs to satisfy in order for it to form the sound plurals.

10.4.1. Conditions for the *ūn* sound plural

The *ūn* sound plural is used, with very few exceptions, only for nouns that denote male intelligent beings. These guidelines will help you determine which nouns form the *ūn* sound plural.

We will treat common nouns and adjectival nouns separately.

10.4.1.1. Common nouns

With very few exceptions (some of which we saw in section @ref(applicability-of-the-un-sound-plural)), common nouns denoting male intelligent beings are disqualified from forming the *ūn* sound plural if their feminine counterpart is not formed by adding a *ð* to the masculine noun. So, *غُلَام* *ghulām* “a boy” is disqualified from forming a *ūn* sound plural because its feminine counterpart is *جَارِيَة* *jāriyah* “a girl”, not × *غُلَامَة* *ghulāmah*.

Even if a common noun denotes a male intelligent being and its female counterpart is formed by adding a *ð*, further conditions are imposed that can restrict its having a *ūn* sound plural. We will explain these restrictions below:

We learned in section @ref(related-nouns-for-male-and-female-animate-beings) that, in terms of their meaning, nouns that denote animate beings are of two kinds:

- i. Nouns that have a primitive meaning. That is, their meaning is not derived from a verbal or adjectival meaning. Examples (for male intelligent beings whose feminine is formed by adding *ð* to the masculine noun):

Arabic word	Definition
أَبْن <i>ʾibn</i>	a son
طِفْل <i>ṭifl</i>	a child
إِنْسَان <i>ʾinsān</i>	a human being
حُرّر <i>ḥurr</i>	a free man

Such nouns, in general, won't be expected to form *ūn* sound plurals, unless the *ūn* sound plural is explicitly allowed in their dictionary definition.

- ii. Nouns that have a meaning that is derived from a verbal or adjectival meaning. Examples (for male intelligent beings whose feminine is formed by adding δ to the masculine noun):

Word	Definition	<i>ūn</i> plural
مُعَلِّم	a teacher _m	مُعَلِّمُونَ
مُسْلِم	a Muslim _m (one who submits)	مُسْلِمُونَ
كَافِر	a disbeliever _m	كَافِرُونَ
لَاعِب	a player _m	لَاعِبُونَ

Such nouns, in general, can be expected to form *ūn* sound plurals.

The above definition of primitive and derived nouns, as we have explained it, is somewhat imprecise. For example, the word حُرّ *hur* (masc.) “a free man” seems to have a meaning that is derived from the adjective “free” and it forms its feminine by adding δ to it thus: حُرّة *hurrah* (fem.) “a free woman”. Yet it is considered a primitive noun, and thus does not form an *ūn* sound plural.

Once you become more familiar with Arabic word patterns, distinguishing between primitive and derived nouns will become clearer, if Allāh wills.

10.4.1.2. Adjectival nouns

If an adjectival noun forms its feminine by adding the feminine marker δ to the masculine noun, then we may assume that it forms the *ūn* sound plural.

Most adjectival nouns satisfy this condition. For example, consider the adjectival noun:

- كَبِير *kabīr* (masc.) “a big one”

It forms its feminine by adding a δ to the masculine noun, thus:

- كَبِيرَة *kabīrah* (fem.) “a big one”

The above condition is satisfied; therefore, كَبِير *kabīr* (masc.) “a big one” forms the *ūn* sound plural كَبِيرُونَ *kabīrūna* “big ones”.

By the way, it is only the masculine adjectival noun that will form the *ūn* sound plural. Nouns with a δ are not allowed to form the *ūn* sound plural.

We have come across two patterns on adjectival nouns that don’t form their feminine by adding δ to masculine noun. These are:

- 2 فَعْلَان *faʿlān*², whose feminine is on the pattern 2 فَعْلَاء *faʿlā*². Example: 2 غَضَبَان *ghaḍbān*² (masc.) “very angry” whose feminine is 2 غَضَبَاء *ghaḍbā*².
- 2 أَفْعَال *afʿal*², whose feminine is on the pattern 2 فَعْلَاء *faʿlā*². Example: 2 أَحْمَر *aḥmar*² (masc.) “red”, whose feminine is 2 حَمْرَاء *hamrā*².

Because the above two patterns don’t form their feminine by adding δ to the masculine noun, therefore the masculine nouns don’t form the *ūn* sound plural. We will see in chapter @broken_plurals, if Allāh wills, that they form broken plurals instead.

10.4.2. Conditions for the *āt* sound plural

Just like the *ūn* plural, there are conditions that should be fulfilled in order for a noun to form an *āt* plural. We provide the following guidelines to help you determine if a noun can form an *āt* plural.

10.4.2.1. Nouns that end with a feminine marker

Generally, all nouns that end with a feminine marker like ة, ء, and ئ are able to form an *āt* plural. Examples are:

Singular	<i>āt</i> sound plural
حَسَنَةٌ <i>ḥasanah</i> adj. “a good one _f ”	حَسَنَاتٌ <i>ḥasanāt</i>
حَسَنَةٌ <i>ḥasanah</i> (common noun) “a good deed”	حَسَنَاتٌ <i>ḥasanāt</i>
صَدِيقَةٌ <i>ṣadiqah</i> “a friend _f ”	صَدِيقَاتٌ <i>ṣadiqāt</i>
صَحْرَاءُ <i>ṣaḥrāʾ</i> ² “a desert”	صَحْرَاوَاتٌ <i>ṣaḥrāwāt</i>
ذِكْرَى <i>d̥hikrāʾ</i> ² “a remembrance”	ذِكْرَيَاتٌ <i>d̥hikrayāt</i>

The following are exceptions to this general rule, and don't form *āt* sound plurals:

- Adjectival nouns of the pattern ²فُعْلَاءُ which is the feminine of the masculine adjectival noun pattern ²أَفْعَلٌ. For example, حُمْرَاءُ *ḥamrāʾ* “red_f”.
- Adjectival nouns of the pattern ²فَعْلَى which is the feminine of the masculine adjectival noun pattern ²فَعْلَانٌ. For example, غَضَبَى *ghaḍbā* “very angry_f”.
- The following exceptional nouns:
 - أُمَّةٌ *ʾummaḥ* “a nation”
 - أَمَةٌ *ʾamaḥ* “a female slave”
 - شَفَةٌ *shafah* “a lip”

There are a few more such nouns, some of which we will introduce later.

All these exceptional nouns form broken plurals instead of the *āt* sound plural.

10.4.2.2. Nouns that don't end with a feminine marker

Common nouns

Common nouns that don't end with a feminine marker will form the *āt* plural only if they don't have a broken plural listed in the dictionary. Furthermore, it is preferred if the noun have five or more letters.

- حَيَوَانٌ *ḥayawān* “an animal” forms the *āt* plural حَيَوَانَاتٌ *ḥayawānāt* “animals”.
- حَمَّامٌ *ḥammām* forms the *āt* plural حَمَّامَاتٌ *ḥammāmāt* “bathrooms”. (The doubled *ḥ* counts as two letters.)

Masculine adjectival nouns

Masculine adjectival nouns are permitted to form an *āt* sound plural, but only when they are applied to non-intelligent beings.

For example, if the masculine adjectival noun صَعْبٌ *šaeb* “a difficult one” is applied to “books”, which is the plural of the masculine noun كِتَابٌ *kitāb* “a book”, then the masculine adjectival noun صَعْبٌ *šaeb* is permitted to form the *āt* plural صَعْبَاتٌ *šaebāt* “difficult ones”.

By the way, note that both the masculine adjectival noun صَعْبٌ *šaeb*, and its feminine صَعْبَةٌ *šaebah* form the same *āt* sound plural صَعْبَاتٌ *šaebāt*.

10.5. Detached plural pronouns

We have already learned the detached pronouns for singular and dual nouns. They are repeated here:

Participant	Detached pronoun
Absentee sing. masc.	هُوَ <i>huwa</i> “he”
Absentee sing. fem.	هِيَ <i>hiya</i> “she”
Absentee dual	هُمَا <i>humā</i> “they ₂ ”
Addressee sing. masc.	أَنْتَ <i>anta</i> “you _{1,m} ”
Addressee sing. fem.	أَنْتِ <i>anti</i> “you _{1,f} ”
Addressee dual	أَنْتُمَا <i>antumā</i> “you ₂ ”
Speaker sing.	أَنَا <i>ana</i> “I”
Speaker dual	–

Now we will learn the detached pronouns for the plural participants:

Participant	Detached pronoun
Absentee pl. masc.	هُمْ <i>hum</i> “they _{3,m} ”
Absentee pl. fem.	هُنَّ <i>hunna</i> “they _{3,f} ”
Addressee pl. masc.	أَنْتُمْ <i>antum</i> “you _{3,m} ”
Addressee pl. fem.	أَنْتُنَّ <i>antunna</i> “you _{3,f} ”
Speaker pl.	نَحْنُ <i>naḥnu</i> “we”

Note that the plural detached pronoun for the speaker participant نَحْنُ *naḥnu* “we” are the same for both genders.

Also, remember that there is no detached pronoun for the dual speaker-participant. So, if the speaker-participant consists of two individuals then we will use the plural pronoun.

Here are some examples of their use:

هُمْ مُسْلِمُونَ.
hum muslimūn.

“They_{3,m} are men₃.”

هُنَّ مُعَلِّمَاتٌ.

hum muʿallimāt.

“They_{3,f} are teachers_f.”

أَنْتُمْ لَاعِبُونَ.

ʾantum lāʿibūn.

“You_{3,m} are players_{3,m}.”

أَنْتُنَّ صَدِيقَاتٌ.

ʾantunna ṣadiqāt.

“You_{3,f} are friends_{3,f}.”

نَحْنُ رَجُلَانِ فَقِيرَانِ.

naḥnu rajulāni faqirān.

“We_{2,m} are poor men₂.” (Note the plural pronoun subject with a dual noun in the info.)

نَحْنُ مُسْلِمَاتٌ.

naḥnu muslimāt.

“We_{3,f} are Muslims_{3,f}.”

10.6. Attached plural pronouns

We have also already learned the attached pronouns for the singular and dual participants. They too are repeated here:

Participant	Attached pronoun
Absentee sing. masc.	هُ - <i>hu</i> “him”
Absentee sing. fem.	هَا - <i>hā</i> “her”
Absentee dual	هُمَا - <i>humā</i> “them ₂ ”
Addressee sing. masc.	كَ - <i>ka</i> “you _{m,1} ”
Addressee sing. fem.	كِ - <i>ki</i> “you _{f,1} ”
Addressee dual	كُمَا - <i>kumā</i> “you ₂ ”
Speaker sing.	ي “me”
Speaker dual	—

Now we will learn the attached pronouns for the plural participant:

Participant	Attached pronoun
Absentee pl. masc.	هُمْ - <i>hum</i> “them _{3,m} ”
Absentee pl. fem.	هُنَّ - <i>hunna</i> “them _{3,f} ”
Addressee pl. masc.	كُم - <i>kum</i> “you _{3,m} ”
Addressee pl. fem.	كُنَّ - <i>kunna</i> “you _{3,f} ”
Speaker pl	نَا - <i>nā</i> “us”

Note the following points about them:

- The plural absentee-participant detached and attached pronouns (“they_{3,m}”/“them_{3,m}”) are the same:

- masculine: هُمْ -*hum*.
- feminine: هُنَّ -*hunna*.

- Just like هُ hu “him” and هُمَا -*humā* “them₂”, the plural absentee-participant attached pronouns هُمْ -*hum* “them_{3,m}” and هُنَّ -*hunna* “them_{3,f}” become هِمَا -*himā* and هِنَّا -*hinna* respectively, when preceded by the vowels اَ -*i*, يَ -*i*, or the semi-vowel يَ -*ay*. Examples:

- بِهِمَ *bihimā* “with them_{3,m}”
- فِيهِنَّ *fihinna* “in them_{3,f}”
- إِلَيْهِمْ *ilayhim* “to them_{3,m}”

- The final sukūn on the م in the masculine plural pronouns (هُمْ *hum*, أَنْتُمْ *ʾantum*, and كُمْ -*kum*) becomes a ḍammah (هُمُ *humu*, أَنْتُمْ *ʾantum*, and كُمْ *-kumu* respectively) when followed by a connecting hamzah. Examples:

- هُمُ الْمُعَلِّمُونَ.
humu -lmueallimūn.
“They_{pl. masc.} are the (male) teachers.”
- ذَهَبَ إِلَيْكُمُ الرَّجُلُ.
dhahaba ʾilaykumu -rrajul.
“The man went to you_{3,m}.”
- أَنْتُمُ الْمُسْلِمُونَ.
ʾantum -lmuṣlimūn. “You_{3,m} are the Muslims_{3,m}.”

- When the speaker plural attached pronoun نَا is attached to a word that ends with a ن with a sukūn, there is only one ن written and it is doubled with a shaddah ّ on it. So we get:

- نَا + مِنْ = مِنَّا *minnā*
- نَا + عَنْ = عَنَّا *ʿannā*
- نَا + لَدُنْ = لَدُنَّا *ladunnā*

- The preposition لَ li “for” becomes لَ la when followed by the plural attached pronouns:

- لَهُمْ *lahum* “for them_{3,m}”
- لَهُنَّ *lahunna* “for them_{3,f}”
- لَكُمْ *lakum* “for you_{3,m}”
- لَكُنَّ *lakunna* “for you_{3,f}”
- لَنَا *lanā* “for us”

10.6.1. Plural direct doee pronouns

The plural attached pronouns that we have just learned are also used as direct doee pronouns. Examples:

سَأَلَهُمُ الرَّجُلُ.
sa'alahumu -rrajul.
 "The man asked them_{3,m}."

سَأَلْتُكُمْ.
sa'altukum
 "I asked you_{3,m}."

سَأَلْتُكِ.
sa'alatukun.
 "She asked you_{3,f}."

سَأَلَانَا.
sa'alānā.
 "They_{2,m} asked us."

سَأَلْتَاهُ.
sa'alatāh.
 "They_{3,m} asked him."

10.7. Verbs with plural doers

10.7.1. Plural nouns for the doer

We learned that the caseless verb for a masculine doer is on the pattern *فَعَلَ*. And when the doer is feminine, the *ت* of femininity is attached to the verb thus: *فَعَلَتْ*. We have used these verbs with singular and dual doer nouns. The doer noun always comes after the verb and shall be in the u-case. Examples:

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ.
dhahaba -lghulamū.
 "The boy went."

ذَهَبَتْ جَارِيَةٌ.
dhahabat jāriyatun
 "A girl went."

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامَانِ.
dhahaba -lghulamāni.
 "The boys₂ went."

ذَهَبَتِ جَارِيَتَانِ.
dhahabat jāriyatāni.
 "Two girls went."

These same verbs are used when the doer noun is a plural. Examples:

ذَهَبَ الْمُعَلِّمُونَ.
dhahaba -lmueallimūn.
 "The teacher_{3,m} went."

ذَهَبَتِ مُعَلِّمَاتٌ.
dhahabat mueallimāt.
 "Teachers_{3,f} went."

10.7.2. Plural pronouns for the doer

We have already learned the singular and dual doer pronouns. They are repeated here:

Participant	Doer pronoun	Meaning	Doer pronoun with verb
Absentee sing. masc.	invisible	“he”	فَعَلَ <i>faʿala</i>
Absentee sing. fem.	invisible	“she”	فَعَلَتْ <i>faʿalat</i>
Absentee dual	لَا -ā	“them ₂ ”	masc.: فَعَلَا <i>faʿalā</i> , fem: فَعَلَتَا <i>faʿalatā</i>
Addressee sing. masc.	تَ -ta	“you _{m,2} ”	فَعَلْتَ <i>faʿalta</i>
Addressee sing. fem.	تِ -ti	“you _{f,2} ”	فَعَلْتِ <i>faʿalti</i>
Addressee dual	تُما -tumā	“you ₂ ”	فَعَلْتُمَا <i>faʿaltumā</i>
Speaker sing.	تُ -tu	“I”	فَعَلْتُ <i>faʿaltu</i>
Speaker dual	–	“us ₂ ”	–

Now we will learn the plural doer pronouns:

plural participant	Doer pronoun	Meaning	Doer pronoun with verb
Absentee pl. masc.	و	“they _{3,m} ”	فَعَلُوا <i>faʿalū</i>
Absentee pl. fem.	نَ -na	“they _{3,f} ”	فَعَلْنَ <i>faʿalna</i>
Addressee pl. masc.	تُمْ -tum	“you _{m,3} ”	فَعَلْتُمْ <i>faʿaltum</i>
Addressee pl. fem.	تُنَّ -tunna	“you _{f,3} ”	فَعَلْتُنَّ <i>faʿaltunna</i>
Speaker pl.	نَا -nā	“we”	فَعَلْنَا <i>faʿalnā</i>

Note the following regarding the plural doer pronouns:

- The ث of femininity does not attach to the absentee plural feminine doer pronoun نَ -na “they_{3,f}” فَعَلْنَ. Example:

– ذَهَبْنَ *d̥hahabna* “they_{3,f} went”

This is different from the behavior of the absentee dual doer pronoun لَا -ā “them_{2,f}” which, for a feminine doer, does attach to the ث of femininity. Example:

- ذَهَبَتَا *dhahabatā* “they_{2,f} went”

- The final sukūn on the مُ in the masculine plural doer pronoun تُمْ -*tum* becomes a ḍammah تُم -*tumu* when followed by a connecting hamzah. Examples:

- أَكَلْتُمْ خُبْزًا.
ʾakaltum khubzā.
 “You_{3,m} ate some bread.”

- أَكَلْتُمُ الْخُبْزَ.
ʾakaltumu -lkhubz.
 “You_{3,m} ate the bread.”

- The absentee plural masculine verb doer pronoun “they_{3,m}” و *ū* is written with a silent alif after it which is written only and not pronounced. This alif is dropped when a direct doee pronoun is attached. For example:

- ضَرَبُوا الرَّجُلَ.
ḍarabu -rrajul.
 “They_{3,m} hit the man.”

- ضَرَبُوهُ.
ḍarabūh.
 “They_{3,m} hit him.”

- The plural masculine verb doer pronoun for the addressed person “you_{3,m}” تُمْ -*tum* becomes تُمُو *tumū* when a direct doee pronoun is attached. For example:

- ضَرَبْتُمُ الرَّجُلَ.
ḍarabtumu -rrajul.
 “You_{3,m} hit the man.”

- ضَرَبْتُمُوهُ.
ḍarabtumūh.
 “You_{pl. masc.} hit him.”

- The plural speaking participant doer pronoun لَ -*nā* is the same as the plural speaking participant attached pronoun لَ -*nā*. But you can tell them apart because the doer pronoun, when attached to the verb, causes the final letter of the verb to have a sukūn. Consider the following two sentences:

- سَأَلْنَا.
saʾalnā.
 “We asked.”

- سَأَلَنَا.
saʾalanā.
 “He asked us.”

10.7.3. Sentence word order with plural doers

As we've mentioned, the doer, whether a noun or a pronoun, always comes after the verb. Here are a couple of examples of verbal sentences with plural doers:

ذَهَبَ الْمُعَلِّمُونَ إِلَى مَدْرَسَةٍ.
dhahaba -lmu'allimūna 'ilā madrasah.
 "The teachers_{3,m} went to a school."

ذَهَبُوا إِلَى مَدْرَسَةٍ.
dhahabā 'ilā madrasah.
 "They_{3,m} went to a school."

لَعِبَتِ الصَّدِيقَاتُ فِي الْبَيْتِ.
la'ibati -ṣṣadiqātu fi -lbayt.
 "The friends_{3,f} played in the house."

لَعِبْنَ فِي الْبَيْتِ.
la'ibna fi -lbayt.
 "They_{3,f} played in the house."

The above verbal sentences with plural doers can be rearranged to be a nounal sentences. This gives more emphasis to the subject. In this case, the verb shall follow the subject and will need a doer pronoun after it.

الْمُعَلِّمُونَ ذَهَبُوا إِلَى مَدْرَسَةٍ.
'almu'allimūna dhahabū 'ilā madrasah.
 "The teachers_{3,m}, they_{3,m} went to a school." = "The teachers_{3,m} went to a school."

الصَّدِيقَاتُ لَعِبْنَ فِي الْبَيْتِ.
'aṣṣadiqātu la'ibna fi -lbayt.
 "The friends_{3,f}, they_{3,f} played in the house." = "The friends_{3,f} played in the house."

If there are multiple verbs associated with the same doer in a verbal sentence, the doer noun will follow the first verb and the rest of the verbs will have doer pronouns. For example:

أَكَلَ اللَّاعِبُونَ وَشَرَبُوا وَذَهَبُوا.
'akala -llā'ibūna waṣharibū waḍhahabū.
 "The players_{3,m} ate and they_{3,m} drank and they_{3,m} went."
 = "The players_{3,m} ate and drank and went."

The above verbal sentence can be rearranged to be a nounal sentence. In that case, all the verbs shall have doer pronouns. The sentence will have the same translation as above, except for an emphasis on the subject of the sentence.

اللَّاعِبُونَ أَكَلُوا وَشَرَبُوا وَذَهَبُوا.
'allā'ibūna 'akalū waṣharibū waḍhahabū.
 "The players_{3,m}, they_{3,m} ate and they_{3,m} drank and they_{3,m} went."
 = "The players_{3,m} ate and drank and went."

Similarly,

أَكَلَتِ اللَّاعِبَاتُ وَشَرَبْنَ وَذَهَبْنَ.
'akalati -llā'ibātu waṣharibna waḍhahabn.
 "The players_{3,f} ate and they_{3,f} drank and they_{3,f} went."
 and

الَّلَاعِبَاتُ أَكَلْنَ وَشَرِبْنَ وَذَهَبْنَ.
 'allācibātu 'akalna wašharibna wadhahabn.

"The players_{3,f}, they_{3,f} ate and they_{3,f} drank and they_{3,f} went."
 = "The players_{3,f} ate and drank and went."

10.7.4. Verbs with multiple doers mentioned individually

If there are multiple doers of a verb, and each is mentioned individually, then there is often more than one way to handle them. Here we will give the more common usage.

If the verb is followed by multiple doers, only the first is the true doer with respect to modifying the verb according to its gender and number. Examples:

ذَهَبَتِ الْأُمُّ وَالْغُلَامُ.
 dhahabati -l'ummu wa-lghulāmu.
 "The mother and the boy went."

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ وَالْأُمُّ.
 dhahaba -lghulāmu wa -l'ummu.
 "The boy and the mother went."

If the doers consist of different persons (speaking person, addressed person, and absent person), then they are placed in order of strength: The speaking person is stronger than the addressed person, who is stronger than the absent person. The verb doer pronoun of the first (true) doer is then used. Example:

ذَهَبْتُ أَنَا وَأَنْتَ وَهُوَ.
 dhahabtu 'ana wa'anta wahuwa.
 "I, you, and he went."

Note how the speaking person detached pronoun أَنَا 'ana is used in addition to the doer pronoun تَ -tu in order to add وَ wa "and" to it.

If the sentence is a nominal sentence, and the verb is in the info, then the doer pronoun corresponding to the number of the subject is used. Examples:

أَنْتَ وَهُوَ ذَهَبْتُمَا.
 'anta wahuwa dhahabtumā.
 "You_{1,m} and he, you₂ went."

أَنَا وَمُحَمَّدٌ ذَهَبْنَا.
 'ana wamuhammadun dhahabnā.
 "I and Muhammad, we went."

الْأُمُّ وَالْجَارِيَةُ ذَهَبَتَا.
 'al'ummu wa-ljāriyatu dhahabatā.
 "The mother and the girl went."

الْأُمُّ وَالْجَارِيَتَانِ ذَهَبْنَ.
 'al'ummu wa-ljāriyatāni dhahabna.
 "The mother and the two girls, they_{3,f} went."

If the doers consist of both male and female persons, then the verb will have the masculine doer pronoun corresponding to the number of the doers. Example:

الْأُمُّ وَالْجَارِيَةُ وَالْغُلَامُ ذَهَبُوا.

ʾalʾummu wa-ljāriyatu wa-lghulāmu dhahabū.

“The mother, the girl, and the boy, they_{3,m} went.”

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 11.

The broken plural

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

11.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter we introduced sound plurals, which are formed by appending suffixes to the singular noun. The singular noun in these plurals remains, more or less, intact when forming these plurals. The sound plurals correspond to English regular plurals which are formed by appending “s” to the singular noun. However, English has some plurals that are not formed by adding the plural ending “s”. Here are some examples,

Singular	Plural
man	men
woman	women
child	children
mouse	mice

In these plurals, the singular noun is altered to form the plural.

Arabic also forms such plurals. They are called *broken* plurals because the singular noun is not kept intact but its structure is, in most cases, altered, or “broken-up” when forming the plural.

While English only forms such plurals for a handful of nouns, Arabic forms broken plurals for many nouns.

11.2. Review of word patterns and semi-flexible nouns

Before we begin our discussion about broken plurals, we will do a quick review of word patterns and semi-flexible nouns. This will, if Allāh wills, facilitate the explanation of broken plurals.

Most words in Arabic are formed from three letter roots. We use the paradigm root فعل to show word patterns. For example, the noun رَجُل *rajul* “a man” is formed from the root ر ج ل on the pattern فَعْل *faʿul*.

Most nouns in Arabic are *fully-flexible*. This means that, when indefinite, they are tanwined and the indefinite i-case is shown by a tanwined kasrah ِ at the end of the noun. For example, رَجُل *rajul* “a man” and بَيْت *bayt* “a house” are fully-flexible nouns. So, you can see, below, that they are tanwined, and the indefinite i-case is indicated by a tanwined kasrah ِ:

ذَهَبَ رَجُلٌ إِلَى بَيْتٍ.

dhahaba rajulun ʾilā bayt.

“A man went to a house.”

Some nouns are *semi-flexible*. This means that they are not tanwined, and also, the indefinite i-case is indicated by an fatḥah َ. Examples of such nouns are:

- غَضَبٌ *ghaḍbā*² *adj.* (fem.) “a very angry one,” from the root غ ض ب
- صَحْرَاءُ *ṣaḥrāʾ*² (fem.) “a desert,” from the root ص ح ر

ذَهَبَتْ جَارِيَةٌ غَضَبٌ إِلَى صَحْرَاءٍ.

dhahabat jāriyatun ḡhaḍbā ʾilā ṣaḥrāʾ.

“A very angry girl went to a desert.”

When definite, semi-flexible nouns are identical to fully-flexible nouns:

ذَهَبَتْ الْجَارِيَةُ الْغَضَبُ إِلَى الصَّحْرَاءِ.

dhahabati l-jāriyatu l-ḡhaḍbā ʾilā ṣ-ṣaḥrāʾ.

“The very angry girl went to the desert.”

All nouns that have the endings ِ and ُ, that are extrinsic to the word’s root, are semi-flexible. ِ and ُ are also feminine markers for singular nouns, just like ة. (Except that ة does not, in general, make a noun semi-flexible.)

It is important to note that ة, ِ, and ُ are only feminine markers for singular nouns. We will see that they are also endings for broken plural nouns and, in that case, they are not feminine markers. However, ِ and ُ, when endings for broken plural nouns, will make the broken plural nouns semi-flexible, just as they do for singular nouns.

Nouns that are of the patterns فَعَفَافٍ and فَعَفَافِي are also semi-flexible nouns. Here each letter ف could be any letter of the alphabet. These are patterns for broken plurals, as we will see very soon. We had mentioned this in section @ref(fafafif-diptote).

This concludes our short review of word patterns and semi-flexible nouns. We will use these concepts in our discussion of broken plurals.

11.3. Patterns of the broken plural

Broken plurals occur in specific patterns, which we will show using the paradigm root فعل for three-letter roots. Arabic also has (comparatively fewer) four-letter roots and we will show patterns for broken plurals of four-letter roots using the paradigm root فَعْلَل. We will also use the letter ف, when needed, to indicate any letter of the alphabet.

We now give all but the rarest broken plural patterns below.

1. **فُعَل** *fu'el*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
صُورَة	صُور	a picture	دَوَلَة	دُول	a dynasty/state
أُمَّة	أُمَم	a nation	رُكْبَة	رُكَب	a knee

2. **فُعَل** *fu'el*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
أَحْمَر ²	حُمَر	red _m	أَعْمَى ²	عُمَى	blind _m
حَمْرَاء ²	حُمَر	red _f	عَمِيَاء ²	عُمَى	blind _f
أَحْوَر ²	حُور	a beautiful eyed one _m	أَصَم ²	صُم	deaf _m
خَوْرَاء ²	حُور	a beautiful eyed one _f	صَمَاء ²	صُم	deaf _f
أَسْوَد ²	سُود	black _m	أَبْكَم ²	بُكْم	mute _m
سَوْدَاء ²	سُود	black _f	بَكْمَاء ²	بُكْم	mute _f
أَبْيَض ²	بَيْض	white _m	نَاقَة	نُوق	a camel _f
بَيْضَاء ²	بَيْض	white _f			

3. **فُعَل** *fu'el*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
كِتَاب	كُتُب	a book	رَسُول	رُسُل	a messenger
جِدَار	جُدُر	a wall	سَفِينَة	سُفُن	a ship

4. **فُعَل** *fi'el*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
قِطْعَة	قِطَع	a piece	سَبِيرَة	سَبِير	a course of life
هَرَة	هَرَر	a cat _f			

5. **فُعَال** *fi'āl*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
رَجُلٌ	رِجَالٌ	a man	حَسَنٌ	حِسَانٌ	adj. a good one _m
أُمْرَأَةٌ	نِسَاءٌ	a woman	حَسَنَةٌ	حِسَانٌ	adj. a good one _f
أُنْثَى ²	إِنَاثٌ	a female	صَعْبٌ	صِعَابٌ	adj. a difficult one _m
عَبْدٌ	عِبَادٌ	a slave _m	صَعْبَةٌ	صِعَابٌ	adj. a difficult one _f
أَمَةٌ	إِمَاءٌ	a slave _f	صَغِيرٌ	صِغَارٌ	adj. a small one _m
جَبَلٌ	جِبَالٌ	a mountain	صَغِيرَةٌ	صِغَارٌ	adj. a small one _f
ثَوْبٌ	ثِيَابٌ	a garment	كَبِيرٌ	كِبَارٌ	adj. a big one _m
رِيحٌ	رِيَّاحٌ	a wind	كَبِيرَةٌ	كِبَارٌ	adj. a big one _f
مَرَّةٌ	مِرَارٌ	an occasion	صَعِيفٌ	ضِعَافٌ	adj. a weak one _m
بَحْرٌ	بِحَارٌ	a sea	صَعِيفَةٌ	ضِعَافٌ	adj. a weak one _f
عَمُودٌ	عِمَادٌ	a pillar	كَرِيمٌ	كِرَامٌ	adj. a generous one _m
رَوْضَةٌ	رِيَاضٌ	a garden	غَضَبَانٌ ²	غَضَابٌ	adj. a very angry _m
رُمَحٌ	رِمَاحٌ	a spear	غَضَبِي ²	غَضَابٌ	adj. a very angry _f

6. فُعُولٌ *fueūl*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
أَمْرٌ	أُمُورٌ	a matter	جَيْشٌ	جُيُوشٌ	an army
بَيْتٌ	بُيُوتٌ	a house	قَلْبٌ	قُلُوبٌ	a heart

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
حَقٌّ	حُقُوقٌ	a truth, a right	رَأْسٌ	رُؤُوسٌ	a head
مَلِكٌ	مُلُوكٌ	a king	شَهْرٌ	شُهُورٌ	a month
سَيْفٌ	سُيُوفٌ	a sword	نَفْسٌ	نَفُوسٌ	a self
شَيْخٌ	شُيُوخٌ	an old man	عَيْنٌ	عُيُونٌ	a (water) spring
شَاهِدٌ	شُهَدَاءٌ	a witness			

7. فُعْلٌ *fuʿʿal*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
رَاكِعٌ	رُكَّعٌ	one who bowes _m	غَائِبٌ	غُيِّبٌ	absent
رَاكِعَةٌ	رُكَّعٌ	one who bowes _f			

8. فُعَالٌ *fuʿʿāl*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
قَارِئٌ	قُرَّاءٌ	a reader _m	كَافِرٌ	كُفَّارٌ	a disbeliever _m
تَاجِرٌ	تُجَّارٌ	a trader _m	جَاهِلٌ	جُهَّالٌ	an ignorant one _m
عَامِلٌ	عُمَّالٌ	a worker _m			

9. فَعَالَةٌ *faʿʿalah*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
سَاحِرٌ	سَحَرَةٌ	a magician _m	قَاتِلٌ	قَتَلَةٌ	a killer _m
عَامِلٌ	عَمَلَةٌ	a labourer _m	سَيِّدٌ	سَادَةٌ	a chief _m

10. فُعَالَةٌ *fuʿʿalah*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
قَاضٍ	قُضَاةٌ	a judge _m	رَاقٍ	رُؤَاةٌ	a narrator _m

11. **فِعْلَةٌ *fiʿalah***. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
دُبٌّ	دُبَبَةٌ	a bear	قِرْدٌ	قِرَدَةٌ	a monkey
هَرٌّ	هَرَرَةٌ	a cat _m			

12. **فِعْلَةٌ *fiʿalah***. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
أَخٌ	إِخْوَةٌ	a brother	فَتًى	فُتَيَّةٌ	a young man

13. **أَفْعُلٌ *ʾafeul***. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
رَجُلٌ	أَرْجُلٌ	a leg	شَهْرٌ	أَشْهُرٌ	a month
نَفْسٌ	أَنْفُسٌ	a self	عَيْنٌ	أَعْيُنٌ	an eye

14. **أَفْعَالٌ *ʾafeāl***. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
بَابٌ	أَبْوَابٌ	a door	مَيِّتٌ	أَمْوَاتٌ	dead
قَلَمٌ	أَقْلَامٌ	a pen	شَيْءٌ	أَشْيَاءٌ ²	a thing
قَدَمٌ	أَقْدَامٌ	a foot	إِسْمٌ	أَسْمَاءٌ	a name
صَاحِبٌ	أَصْحَابٌ	a companion _m	يَوْمٌ	أَيَّامٌ	a day
شَرِيفٌ	أَشْرَافٌ	a noble one _m	عَدُوٌّ	أَعْدَاءٌ	an enemy
طِفْلٌ	أَطْفَالٌ	a child	عَيْنٌ	أَعْيَانٌ	an eminent person
بَيْتَرٌ	آبَارٌ	a (water) well			

15. أَفْعَلَةٌ *af'ailah*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
لِسَان	أَلْسِنَةٌ	a tongue	طَعَام	أَطْعَمَةٌ	a food
إِمَام	أَيُّمَةٌ	a leader _m	إِلَه	آلِهَةٌ	a god

16. فَوَاعِلٌ *fawā'il*². (Semi-flexible because of فَعَاِف pattern.) Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
صَاحِبَةٌ	صَوَاحِبٌ ²	a companion _f	عَامِل	عَوَامِلٌ ²	a factor
جَارِيَةٌ	جَوَارٍ ²	a girl	شَاهِد	شَوَاهِدٌ ²	a corroborating evidence
أَمْر	أَوَامِرٌ ²	a command	خَاتَم	خَوَاتِمٌ ²	a ring (jewelry)
نَادِرَةٌ	نَوَادِرٌ ²	a joke, a witticism	فَارِس	فَوَارِسٌ ²	a horseman

17. فَعَائِلٌ *fa'ā'il*². (Semi-flexible because of فَعَاِف pattern.) Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
حُرَّة	حَرَائِرٌ ²	a free woman	جَزِيرَةٌ	جَزَائِرٌ ²	an island
صُرَّة	صُرَائِرٌ ²	a co-wife	رِسَالَةٌ	رِسَائِلٌ ²	a message
حَدِيقَةٌ	حَدَائِقٌ ²	a garden	حَاجَةٌ	حَوَائِجٌ ²	a need
حَقِيبَةٌ	حَقَائِبٌ ²	a bag	دَلِيلٌ	دَلَائِلٌ ²	an evidence
كَبِيرَةٌ	كَبَائِرٌ ²	a major sin	خَلِيفَةٌ	خَلَائِفٌ ²	a successor
كَرِيمَةٌ	كَرَائِمٌ ²	a generous one _f			

18. فُعْلَانٌ *fū'elān*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
غُلَام	غُلَمَانٌ	a boy	نُور	ثِيْرَانٌ	a bull

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
جَار	جِيرَان	a neighbor	غُرَاب	غُرَبَان	a crow
أَخ	إِخْوَان	a brother	فَأْر	فِئْرَان	a mouse

19. **فُعْلَان** *fu'elān*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
بَلَد	بُلْدَان	a country	شُجَاع	شُجَعَان	a brave one
جِدَار	جُدْرَان	a wall	شُبَّان	شَبَاب	a young man

20. **فُعْلَاءٌ** *fu'elā*². Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
أَمِير	أَمْرَاءٌ ²	a commander _m	خَلِيفَةٌ	خُلَفَاءٌ ²	a caliph
فَقِير	فُقَرَاءٌ ²	a poor one _m	عَالِم	عُلَمَاءٌ ²	a scholar _m
بَخِيل	بُخَلَاءٌ ²	a miser _m	شَاعِر	شُعَرَاءٌ ²	a poet _m
ضَعِيف	ضُعَفَاءٌ ²	a weak one _m			

21. **أَفْعِلَاءٌ** *af'elā*². Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
نَبِيٍّ	أَنْبِيَاءٌ ²	a prophet _m	شَدِيد	أَشِدَّاءٌ ²	a forceful one _m
صَدِيق	أَصْدِقَاءٌ ²	a friend _m	قَوِيٍّ	أَقْوِيَاءٌ ²	a strong one _m
غَنِيٍّ	أَغْنِيَاءٌ ²	a rich one _m	شَقِيٍّ	أَشْقِيَاءٌ ²	a wretched one _m

22. **فُعْلَى** *fa'elā*². Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
مَرِيضٌ	مَرَضَى ²	a sick one _m	جَرَحِيحٌ	جَرَحَى ²	a wounded person
أَسِيرٌ	أَسْرَى ²	a captive			

23. ²فَعَالِي *faʿālī*². (Semi-flexible because of ²فَعَايِف pattern.) Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
لَيْلَةٌ	لَيَالٍ ²	a night	أَرْضٌ	أَرَاضٍ ²	a land, an earth
أَهْلٌ	أَهَالٍ ²	a family			

24. ²فَعَالَى *faʿālā*². Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
صَحْرَاءٌ ²	صَحَارَى ²	a desert	فَتْوَى ²	فَتَاوَى ²	a formal legal opinion
يَتِيمٌ ²	يَتَامَى ²	an orphan	هَدْيَةٌ ²	هَدَايَا ²	a gift

25. فَعِيل *faʿīl* (rare). Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
عَبْدٌ	عَبِيدٌ	a slave _m	حِمَارٌ	حَمِيرٌ	a donkey _m

26. فُعُولَةٌ *fuʿūlah* (rare). Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
بَغْلٌ	بُعُولَةٌ	a husband			

27. فِعَالَةٌ *fiʿālāh* (rare). Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
حَجَرٌ	حِجَارَةٌ	a stone			

28. **فَعَلَ faʿal** (rare). Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
حَلَقَة	حَلَق	a circular ring			

29. **فَعَلَ faʿl** (very rare). Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
صَاحِب	صَحْب	a companion			

30. **فَعَالِفٌ fafāfif²**. Includes the sub-patterns:

- **فَعَالِلٌ faʿālil²**
- **أَفَاعِلٌ ʾafāʿil²**
- **تَفَاعِلٌ tafāʿil²**
- **مَفَاعِلٌ mafāʿil²**

Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
تُعَلِّبُ	تُعَالِبُ ²	a fox	تَجَرِّبُ	تَجَارِبُ ²	an experience
عَنْكَبُوت	عَنَّاكِبُ ²	a spider	مَسْجِد	مَسَاجِدُ ²	a mosque
دِرْهَم	دَرَاهِمُ ²	a dirham	مَعْنَى	مَعْنَى ²	a meaning
جَوْهَر	جَوَاهِرُ ²	a gem	مَحَال	مَحَلَّةُ ²	a locality
إِصْبَع	أَصَابِعُ ²	a finger	مَعِيشَة	مَعَايِشُ ²	a means of subsistence
أَنْمَلَة	أَنَامِلُ ²	a finger tip			

31. **فَعَالِفٌ fafāfif²**. Includes the sub-patterns:

- **فَعَالِلٌ faʿālil²**
- **أَفَاعِلٌ ʾafāʿil²**
- **تَفَاعِلٌ tafāʿil²**
- **مَفَاعِلٌ mafāʿil²**
- **يَفَاعِلٌ yafāʿil²**
- **فَوَاعِلٌ fawāʿil²**

Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
سُلْطَان	سُلَاطِين ²	a sultan	إِغْصَار	أَغْصِير ²	a whirl-wind
شَيْطَان	شَيْاطِين ²	a devil	تَّأْرِخ	تَوَارِيخ ²	a history
سِكِّين	سِكَاكِين ²	a knife	تَصْوِير	تَصَاوِير ²	a picture
دِينَار	دِنَانِير ²	a dinār	مِفْتَاح	مِفَاتِيح ²	a key
مِسْكِين	مَسَاكِين ²	a needy person	مَلْعُون	مَلَاعِين ²	an accursed one _m
كُرْسِي	كُرَاسِي ²	a chair	يَنْبُوع	يَنْابِيع ²	a (water) spring
أُمِّيَّة	أُمَانِي ²	a wish	جَامُوس	جَوَامِيس ²	a buffalo

32. فَعَالِلَة *faʿālilah*. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Meaning	Singular	Plural	Meaning
أُسْتَاذ	أُسَاتِذَة	a professor	مَلَك	مَلَايِكَة	an angel
فَيْلَسُوف	فَلَاسِفَة	a philosopher	جَبَّار	جَبَابِرَة	a tyrant

Note the following from the above broken plural patterns and examples:

- Both common nouns and adjectival nouns form broken plurals.
- There are comparatively fewer broken plurals for female intelligent beings than for male intelligent beings. We will expand on this in a subsequent section.
- Some patterns of the broken plural are also patterns singular nouns. For example, the pattern فَعَال *faʿāl* has both singular nouns, like كِتَاب *kitāb* “a book” and broken plurals, like رِجَال *rijāl* “men”
- The broken plural patterns فُعْلَان *fuʿlān* and فُعْلَان *fuʿlān* are fully-flexible nouns. Although they end with the ان ending which is extrinsic to the root, they are not semi-flexible nouns. Only singular adjectival nouns that end with an extrinsic ان on the pattern فُعْلَان, and that also fulfil the other conditions listed in section @ref(adjectival noun-an-diptote), are semi-flexible.
- There is often a correlation between the pattern of a singular noun and the pattern of its plural.

Sometimes this correlation is very strong:

- All singular nouns of the patterns ²أَفْعَل *afʿal*² and ²فَعْلَاء *faʿlā*² that denote colors and physical characteristics, have broken plurals on the pattern فُعُل *fuʿl*. Example:

Singular	Plural
حُمْر ² حَمَرَاء, ² أَحْمَر	حُمُر
بُكْم ² بُكْمَاء, ² أَبْكَم	بُكُم

- Singular nouns that have four or more consonant letters (excluding ة) regularly form their broken plurals on the patterns ²فَفَافٍ and ²فَفَافِيَف. The pattern ²فَفَافِيَف is used when there is an intermediate long vowel between the consonants. Examples:

Singular	Plural
إِصْبَع "a finger"	² أَصَابِع
مِفْتَاح "a key"	² مِفْتَاحِيَف

- Singular nouns of the patterns فَعْلَة *faʿlāh* and فُعْلَة *fuʿlāh* regularly form their broken plurals on the pattern فُعُل *fuʿl* and فُعَال *fuʿal* respectively. Examples:

Singular	Plural
قِطْعَة "a piece"	قِطَع
رُكْبَة "a knee"	رُكَب

Other times, this correlation is more like a tendency:

- Singular nouns on the pattern فَعِيلَة *faʿīlāh* tend to form broken plurals on the pattern فَعَائِل *faʿāʾil*². Examples:

Singular	Plural
حَدِيقَة "a garden"	² حَدَائِق
حَقِيْبَة "a bag"	² حَقَائِب

- Singular nouns on the pattern فَاعِل *fāʿil*, that denote male intelligent beings, tend to form broken plurals on the pattern فُعَال *fuʿal*, فُعَال *fuʿal*, and فَعَالَة *faʿalāh*. Examples:

Singular	Plural
غَائِب “absent”	غُيِّب
قَارِئ “a reader _m ”	قُرَّاء
قَاتِل “a killer _m ”	قَتَلَة

- Singular nouns on the pattern فَاعِل *fāʿil* and فَاعِلَة *fāʿilah*, that don’t denote male intelligent beings, tend to form broken plurals on the pattern فَوَاعِل *fawāʿil*. Examples:

Singular	Plural
صَاحِبَة “a companion _f ”	صَوَاحِب ²
عَامِل “a factor”	عَوَامِل ²

فَارِس *fāris* “a horseman” with the plural فَوَارِس² is one of a number of exceptions.

- Some words have roots that have the same letter repeated in the root. These are called *doubled roots*.
 - For example:

Root	Word	Pattern
دَبَّ	دُبَّ “a bear”	فُعْل
حَلَّ	مَحَلَّة “a locality”	مَفْعَلَة
أَمَّ	إِمَام “a leader”	فِعَال
حَقَّ	حَقَّ “a truth, a right”	فُعْل
هَرَّ	هَرَّ “a cat _m ”	فُعْل

We will discuss doubled roots in detail in chapter @ref(doubled-roots). For now we will mention the following:

- The repeated letter in the word root may get doubled or separated in the word’s pattern. Frequently, the repeated letter may be doubled in the singular, and separated in the plural. Examples:

Singular	Plural
حَقَّ “a truth, a right”	حُقُوق
دَبَّ “a bear”	دِبَبَة
هَرَّ “a cat _m ”	هَرَرَة

The reverse also occurs, where the repeated letter may be separated in the singular, and doubled in the plural. Examples:

Singular	Plural
إِمَامٌ “a leader _m ”	أَئِمَّةٌ

- The doubled letter may modify the basic word pattern somewhat. For example:

Root	Word pattern	Expected word	Actual word
شَدَّ	أَفْعَلَاءٌ ²	× أَشْدَدَاءٌ ²	أَشْدَاءٌ ²
حَلَّ	مَفَاعِلٌ ²	× مَخَالِلٌ ²	مَخَالٌ ²
صَمَّ	أَفْعَلٌ ²	× أَصَمَمٌ ²	أَصَمٌ ²

- We have previously learned that the endings ة, ء, and ي that are extrinsic to the word's root are feminine markers for singular nouns. These extrinsic endings also occur for broken plurals but there, they are *not* feminine markers.

In fact, in a sort of role reversal, the endings ة in a broken plural tends to indicate that the singular is a masculine noun. And the ء ending is only for broken plurals of male intelligent beings. Examples:

Singular	Plural
لِسَانٌ “a tongue”	أَلْسِنَةٌ
هَرَّةٌ “a cat _m ”	هَرَرَةٌ
أَمِيرٌ “a commander _m ”	أُمَرَاءٌ
صَدِيقٌ “a friend _m ”	أَصْدِقَاءٌ

- There often exist multiple broken plurals for the same singular noun. Many times, in fact, a singular noun may have a sound plural in addition to one or more broken plurals. Examples:

Singular	Plural
شَهْرٌ	شُهُورٌ, أَشْهُرٌ
عَيْنٌ	أَعْيَانٌ, عُيُونٌ, أَعْيُنٌ
عَامِلٌ	عُمَّالٌ, عَمَلَةٌ, عَوَامِلٌ ² , عَامِلُونَ

We will discuss how to manage these multiple plurals in a subsequent section.

- Occasionally, multiple singular nouns will share the same broken plural. Examples:

Singular	Plural
مَكْتَب “an office”	مَكَاتِب ²
مَكْتَبَة “a library”	مَكَاتِب ²

Context will then tell us which of two meanings is intended.

- The letters ء, ل, و, and ي are considered *weak* letters. Words that one or more these weak letters in their roots are called *defective* words. We will discuss defective words more completely in later chapters, if Allāh wills. For now, we will note the following:
 - Weak letters often get interchanged with one another when going from a singular to a plural. Examples:

Root	Singular	Plural
أَرَخ	تَأْرِخ	تَوَارِيخ ²
نَوَق	نَاقَة	نُوق
ثَوَر	ثُور	ثِيَرَان

- Weak letters can affect surrounding vowels. For example:

Root	Word pattern	Expected word	Actual word
بِيض	فُعْل	× بُيُض	بِيِض

- The weak letter ي, when followed by the ى ending, usually modifies (in writing) it to an ا *alif* instead. The pronunciation is the same. For example:

Root	Word pattern	Expected word	Actual word
هَدِي	فَعَالِ ²	× هَدَايِ ²	هَدَايَا ²

- A ي at the end of a word, in some cases, gets omitted and replaced by a tanwined kasrah ِ on the preceding letter. This happens even when the ي is extrinsic to the root, and even if the word is semi-flexible (and thus would not normally be tanwined). Examples:

Root	Word pattern	Expected word	Actual word
قَضِي	فَاعِل	× قَاضِي	قَاضٍ
جَرِي	فَوَاعِل ²	× جَوَارِي ²	جَوَارٍ ²

Root	Word pattern	Expected word	Actual word
لِيل	فَعَالِي ²	لَيَالِي ² ×	لَيَالٍ ²

- Weak letters can also get omitted in the singular and resurface in the plural. Examples:

Root	Singular	Plural
أَخُو	أَخٌ	إِخْوَانٌ, إِخْوَةٌ
أُمُو	أُمَةٌ	إِمَاءٌ

- If there are more than four consonant letters in a word, then only four of them are selected to form the broken plural. For example:

Singular	Plural
عَنْكَبُوتٌ “a spider”	عَنَّاكِبٌ ²

- Some words have individual irregularities as well and we will discuss them below:

- The word اِمْرَأَةٌ and its plural نِسَاءٌ are both irregular and we will discuss them separately in chapter @ref(irregular-nouns).
- The broken plural اَشْيَاءٌ² ‘ashyā’ (of the singular noun شَيْءٌ shay’ “a thing”) is irregular in that it is semi-flexible. Otherwise its pattern أَفْعَالٌ ‘afeāl is regularly fully-flexible.
- The broken plural of the singular noun مَلَكٌ malak “an angel” is مَلَائِكَةٌ malā’ikah. It is on the pattern فَعَالِلَةٌ fa‘ālilah. But it is unusual in that the plural has an extra letter ء that is missing in the singular. This is because the singular has a lesser-used variant: مَلَأَكٌ mal’ak that is used to form the plural.
- The broken plural of the singular noun دِينَارٌ “a dīnār” is دَنَانِيرٌ². It is on the pattern فَعَالِيلٌ². It is irregular in that there are two ن’s in the plural whereas the singular only has one.
- The root of بَيْتَرٌ biṭr “a (water) well” is بَآرٌ. The pattern of its broken plural is أَفْعَالٌ. Based on its root letters, its plural on this pattern ought regularly to have been أَبَارٌ ‘abār. And this plural exists but is not very commonly used. Instead, in forming the plural, the root letters ب and ا get swapped irregularly, and the more commonly used plural is actually أَبَارٌ ‘ābār.

There are other words as well with similar irregularities.

11.4. Co-existence of multiple broken plurals

We noted that there are often multiple broken plurals for the same singular noun. Many singular nouns even have a sound plural in addition to one or more broken plurals. Here are some examples.

Singular	Meanings	Plural
جِدَار	a wall	جُدُرَان, جُدُر
شَهْر	a month	شُهُور, أَشْهُر
صَعِيف	a weak one _m	صُعَفَاء ² , ضِعَاف
أَمْر	a matter; a command	أَوَامِر ² , أُمُور
عَيْن	an eye; a (water) spring; an eminent person	أَعْيَان, عُيُون, أَعْيُن
عَامِل	a worker; a labourer; a factor	عَمَلَة, عَوَامِل ² , عَامِلُونَ عُمَال

We will deal with the co-existence of sound and broken plurals in the next section. In this section, we will explain the existence of multiple broken plurals, and when one of them is preferred or required to be used over the other. Basically, there could be a few things going on:

1. Sometimes it is more or less optional which of the multiple broken plurals to use. For example, the singular noun جِدَار has two broken plurals: جُدُر, جُدُرَان. Either could be used, more or less, interchangeably.
2. Sometimes, the usage of one of the plurals may be restricted. For example, ضِعَاف and صُعَفَاء are both broken plurals of the masculine adjectival noun صَعِيف “a weak one_m”. For male intelligent beings, like “weak men”, either of the two plurals could be used. But remember that broken plurals that end with an extrinsic ء ending may only be used for male intelligent beings. So the plural صُعَفَاء may only be used for male intelligent beings like “men” or “boys”, and not for masculine nouns that denote non-intelligent beings like “lions” or “pens”, etc.

Interestingly, ضِعَاف is also shared as the broken plural for the feminine adjectival noun صَعِيفَة “a weak one_f”. So it can be used for plurals of feminine nouns, both for female intelligent beings like “women” and “girls”, and for feminine nouns that denote non-intelligent beings like “trees”.

3. Other times, the singular has multiple distinct meanings, and each of these distinct meanings is associated with its own broken plural(s). Here are some examples:
 - The word أَمْر ¹amr has two distinct meanings, each with its own plural:
 - i. “a matter”. This has the broken plural أُمُور ²umūr.
 - ii. “a command”. This has the broken plural أَوَامِر² ²awāmīr.

- The word عَيْن *ʿayn* has multiple distinct meanings. There are three main meanings, and they share the broken plural with each other in the following way:
 - i. “an eye”. This meaning primarily uses the plural أَعْيُن *ʿayūn* but it may also use the plural عُيُون *ʿuyūn*, and rarely also the plural أَعْيَان *ʿayān*.
 - ii. “a (water) spring”. This meaning primarily uses the plural عُيُون *ʿuyūn* but it may also use the plural أَعْيُن *ʿayūn*, and rarely also the plural أَعْيَان *ʿayān*.
 - iii. “an eminent person”. This meaning only uses the plural أَعْيَان *ʿayān*.
 - The word عَامِل *ʿāmil* has the following meanings and plurals:
 - i. “a worker_m”. Generally, this has the plural عُمَّال *ʿummāl*.
 - ii. “a labourer_m”. This uses the plural عَمَلَة *ʿamalah*.
 - iii. “a factor”. This uses the plural غَوَامِل ² *ʿawāmil*².
4. Arabic has what are known as *plurals of fewness*. These are specific patterns that may (sometimes, but not always) be used when the persons or things denoted by the plural are only a few (ten or less) and not many. These patterns are:
- i. فِغْلَة *fiḡlah*
 - ii. أَفْعُل *ʾafʿul*
 - iii. أَفْعَال *ʾafʿāl*
 - iv. أَفْعِلَة *ʾafʿilah*

For example:

- i. شَهْر *shahr* “a month”, plurals: أَشْهُر, شُهُور. The plural أَشْهُر could be used when the number of months are only a few (ten or less), and the plural شُهُور could be used when the number of months are large.
- ii. The plurals أَعْيُن and عُيُون of the word عَيْن could also possibly be used similarly in this manner for both meanings: “an eye” and “a (water) spring”. (But not for the meaning “an eminent person” which only uses the plural أَعْيَان).

Of course, this distinction only applies when the singular noun has additional plurals, not just one from the above four patterns. If a noun has only one of the about four plural patterns then it may be used indiscriminately and will not indicate any limitation in number.

11.5. Co-existence of sound and broken plurals

Some nouns have both sound and broken plurals for more or less the same meaning. Here are some examples:

Singular	Meaning	Sound plural	Broken plural
قَاتِل	a killer	قَاتِلُونَ	قَتَلَة
كَافِر	a disbeliever	كَافِرُونَ	كُفَّار
كَبِير	a big one _m	كَبِيرُونَ	كِبَار
كَبِيرَة	a big one _f	كَبِيرَات	كِبَار
صَغِير	a small one _m	صَغِيرُونَ	صَغَار
صَغِيرَة	a small one _f	صَغِيرَات	صَغَار
رَاكِع	one who bows _m	رَاكِعُونَ	رُكَّع
رَاكِعَة	one who bows _f	رَاكِعَات	رُكَّع
صَاحِبَة	a companion _f	صَاحِبَات	صَوَاحِب ²
جَارِيَة	a girl	جَارِيَات	جَوَار ²
حَدِيقَة	a garden	حَدِيقَات	حَدَائِق ²

We will treat the *ūn* and *āt* sound plurals separately.

11.5.1. *ūn* plurals and broken plurals

Remember from chapter @ref(sound-plurals) that *ūn* plurals are, with very few exceptions, only used for male intelligent beings.

If a singular noun has both an *ūn* sound plural and one or more broken plurals, then the use of the broken plural is generally preferred. The sound plural is then, generally, reserved for certain verbal usages. (We will study these in later chapters, if Allāh wills.)

So, for example, قَتَلَة is preferred over قَاتِلُونَ generally for the meaning: “killers”.

11.5.2. *āt* plurals and broken plurals

āt plurals are used for both female intelligent beings and non-intelligent beings. We will discuss each of these separately.

11.5.2.1. Female intelligent beings

Remember from section @ref(conditions-for-the-at-plural) that, generally, all nouns that end with feminine markers (ة, اء, and ئ) can form the *āt* sound plural.

There are some nouns that are excepted from this statement. These nouns only have broken plurals and don't form sound plurals. For female intelligent beings, these nouns are:

- Adjectival nouns of the pattern ²فَعْلَاء which is the feminine of the masculine adjectival noun pattern ²أَفْعَل. For example, حَوْرَاء *hawrā'* “a beautiful eyed one_f” uses the broken plural حُور *hūr*
- Adjectival nouns of the pattern ²فَعْلَى which is the feminine of the masculine adjectival noun pattern ²فَعْلَان. For example, غَضَبَى *ghaḍbā* “very angry_f” uses the broken plural غَضَاب *ghīḍāb*.

- The following exceptional nouns:

- نِسَاءٌ “a woman”, broken plural: نِسَاءٌ
- أَمَةٌ “a slave_f”, broken plural: إِمَاءٌ
- أُمَّةٌ “a nation”, broken plural: أُمَمٌ

In the case of these nouns we have no choice but to use the broken plural.

For other nouns that denote female intelligent beings, the use of the *āt* sound plural is preferred over any broken plurals that the noun may have.

So, for example, the use of the *āt* sound plural صَغِيرَات is preferred over the broken plural صِغَار for the adjectival noun صَغِيرَةٌ “a small one_f”. However, both are permitted.

The following are excepted from this general statement:

- أَنْثَى “a female”, plural: إِنَاثٌ. The *āt* sound plural is almost unused for this word.
- Broken plurals of the patterns:

- فَوَاعِلٌ *fawā'il*²
- فَعَائِلٌ *fa'ā'il*²

These broken plural patterns are, in fact, predominantly used for female intelligent beings and non-intelligent beings, and only rarely for male intelligent beings. So the broken plural جَوَارٌ “girls” may be used freely as the plural of جَارِيَةٌ “a girl” and is not preferred over جَارِيَات. Similarly, صَوَاحِبٌ may freely be used as the plural of صَاحِبَةٌ.

Only a few nouns denoting male intelligent beings have broken plurals on these patterns, like:

- فَوَارسٌ “a horseman”, plural: فَوَارِسٌ²
- خَلَائِفٌ “a successor”, plural: خَلَائِفٌ²

In conclusion, with the general preference of using the *āt* sound plural over the broken plural for female intelligent beings, you will find that نِسَاءٌ *nisā'* “women” is the only widely found broken plural for female intelligent beings in normal usage.

11.5.2.2. Non-intelligent beings

For non-intelligent beings, the broken plural is preferred for use over *āt* sound plurals.

So, for example, حَدَائِقُ *hadā'iq*² is preferred over حَدِيقَات *hadiqāt* as the plural of حَدِيقَةٌ, though both are correct.

11.6. Usage of plurals

The treatment of plurals in sentences is quite complicated. Here we will give a simplified explanation that should suffice for basic usage, until we give a fuller treatment in (TODO: give chapter reference).

We will discuss the plurals of intelligent beings and non-intelligent beings separately.

11.6.1. Plurals of intelligent beings in descriptive noun-phrases

Consistent with what we have learned so far, when the attributee in a noun-phrase is plural, then the attribute comes after it, and matches it in case, definiteness, gender, and number.

Either or both of the attribute and the attributee may be sound plurals or broken plurals.

Here are some examples:

لَعِبَ الطِّفْلُ الصَّغِيرُ مَعَ الْغُلَمَانِ الْكِبَارِ.
laʿiba -ṭṭiflu -ṣṣaghīru maʿa -lghilmāni -lkibār.

“The small child played with the big boys.”

أَخَذَ التِّلْمِيزُ الْعِلْمَ عَنِ الْمُعَلِّمِينَ الْكَرَامِ.
ʾakhadha -ttilmīdhū -leilma ʿani -lmueallimīna -lkirām.

“The pupil took knowledge from the noble teachers.”

لِلْجَارِيَةِ صَوَاحِبٌ طَيِّبَاتٌ.
liljāriyati ṣawāhibu ṭayyibāt.

“The girl has good companions.”

فِي السُّوقِ نَجَّارٌ صَادِقُونَ.
fi -ssūqi tujjārūn ṣadiqūn.

“In the market are honest traders.”

خَدَمَ الرَّجُلُ الصَّالِحُ الْغَنِيُّ الْفُقَرَاءَ الضُّعَافَ مِنَ الْيَتَامَى الصِّغَارِ.
khadama -rrajulu -ṣṣālīhu -lghaniyyu -lfuqarāʾa -ḍḍiʿāfa mina -lyatāmā -ṣṣighār.

“The rich righteous man served the weak poor ones from the little orphans.”

11.6.2. Plurals of intelligent beings in nounal sentences

If the subject of a sentence is a plural denoting intelligent beings then the info typically matches it in being a plural. This is especially the case if the info is an adjectival noun. For example:

الْغُلَمَانُ أَطْفَالٌ طَيِّبُونَ.
ʾalghilmānu ʾaṭfālun ṭayyibūn.

“The boys are good children.”

الرِّجَالُ أَغْنِيَاءُ.
ʾarrijālu ʾaghniyāʾ.

“The men are rich.”

الْمُعَلِّمَاتُ عَالِمَاتٌ.
ʾalmueallimātu ʿālimāt,

“The teachers_f are scholars_f.”

Sometimes the info may not match the subject in plurality because of the meaning of the sentence. For example:

الْمُسْلِمُونَ أُمَّةٌ.

ʾalmuslimūna ʾummah.

“The Muslims are a nation.”

الْجِيرَانُ الطَّيِّبُونَ نِعْمَةٌ مِنَ اللَّهِ.

ʾaljirānu -ṭṭayyibūna niʿmatun mina -llāh.

“Good neighbors are a blessing from Allah.”

The use of detached pronouns is consistent with what we learned in section @ref(detached-plural-pronouns). Examples:

أَنْتُنَّ نِسَاءٌ كَرِيمَاتٌ.

ʾantunna nisāʾun karīmāt.

“You_{3,f} are generous women.”

أَنْتُمْ شُبَّانٌ شَجَاعُونَ.

ʾantum shubbānun shujcānun

“You_{m,3} are courageous young men.”

الْشَّيَاطِينُ هُمْ الْمَلَأَيْنُ.

ʾashshayāṭīnu humu -lmalāʿīn.

“The devils are the accursed ones.”

هُنَّ نِسَاءٌ غَنِيَّاتٌ.

hunna nisāʾun ḡhaniyyāt.

“They_{3,f} are rich women.”

نَحْنُ غُلَمَانٌ أَصْدِقَاءٌ.

naḥnu ḡhilmānun ʾaṣḍiqāʾ.

“We are boys who are friends.”

11.6.3. Plurals of intelligent beings with verbs

We have already studied verbs with sound plurals in section (ref). The same discussion applies to broken plurals as well. Here are a couple of examples:

قَرَأَتِ النِّسَاءُ وَكَتَبْنَ.

qaraʾati -nnisāʾu wakatabn.

“The women read and wrote.”

الْغُلَمَانُ لَعِبُوا بِكَرَةِ حَمْرَاءَ.

ʾalḡhilmānu laʿībū bikuratin ḡamrāʾ.

“The boys, they played with a red ball.”

طَبَخَتِ النِّسَاءُ طَعَامًا لِلرِّجَالِ فَأَكَلُوهُ وَشَكَرُوهُنَّ.

ṭabakhati -nnisāʾu ṭaʿāman lirrijāli faʾakalūhu washakarūhun.

“The women prepared some food for the men, so they_{3,m} ate it and they_{3,m} thanked them_{3,f}.”

ظَلَمَ الْجَبَابِرَةُ الْمَسَاكِينَ وَقَتَلُوهُمْ.

ḡḥalama -ljabābiratu -lmasākīna waqatalūhum.

“The tyrants wronged the needy ones_{3,m} and killed them_{3,m}.”

11.6.4. Usage of plurals of non-intelligent beings

We now turn our attention to plurals of non-intelligent beings. The treatment of plurals of non-intelligent beings is very different from everything we have learned so far. In this basic, simplified, explanation: regardless of the grammatical or physical gender of the singular noun, plurals of non-intelligent beings are treated, for the purposes of matching adjectival nouns and pronouns, as grammatically feminine singular.

So, for example, the noun بَيْت *bayt* denotes the inanimate object “a house”. Its plural is بُيُوت. This plural is treated as a feminine singular noun. This is despite the fact that the singular noun بَيْت *bayt* “a house” is grammatically masculine. See how the بُيُوت *buyūt* is used in the examples below:

الْبُيُوتُ كَبِيرَةٌ.

“The houses are big.”

سَكَنُوا فِي بُيُوتٍ صَغِيرَةٍ.

“They_{3,m} lived in small houses.”

سَقَطَتِ الْبُيُوتُ.

“The houses fell.”

الْبُيُوتُ سَقَطَتْ.

“The houses, they fell.”

هِيَ بُيُوتٌ لِلْفُقَرَاءِ.

“They are houses for the poor.”

Plurals of inanimate objects and animals (both male and female) are treated the same way. It doesn't matter what the grammatical or physical gender of the singular is or whether it has a sound or broken plural. Examples:

هِيَ بُيُوتٌ وَحْشَةٌ.

“They are wild bulls.”

الْهَرَزُ شَرِبَ الْخَلِيبَ.

“The cats_m, they drank the milk.”

الْهَرَزُ شَرِبَ الْخَلِيبَ.

“The cats_f, they drank the milk.”

السُّفُنُ طَوِيلَةٌ.

“The ships are tall.”

فِي الصَّنَدُوقِ أَشْيَاءٌ عَجِيبَةٌ.

“In the box are wonderful things.”

(Note how أَشْيَاءٌ² is indefinite but is not tanwined. This is because it is irregularly semi-flexible.)

By the way, this rule only applies to adjectival nouns in the attributee or the info. A common noun in the attribute or info will continue match the attributee or subject in gender and number.

For example, if you say:

الْأَفْعَالُ الصَّالِحَةُ هِيَ الْحَسَنَةُ.

“The righteous acts are the good ones.”

then حَسَنَةٌ may only be the feminine adjectival noun “a good one”.

If instead you want to use حَسَنَةٌ with its common noun meaning of “a good deed”, then you have to use the plural:

الْأَفْعَالُ الصَّالِحَةُ هِيَ الْحَسَنَاتُ.

“The acts are the good deeds.”

The plural *هي* may continue to be used instead of *هُنَّ*, although the latter is also valid:

الْأَفْعَالُ الصَّالِحَةُ هُنَّ الْحَسَنَاتُ.

“The acts are the good deeds.”

Similarly, if an adjectival noun connoting a non-intelligent being is used not as a attribute or an info in a sentence, then it should be pluralized to indicate plurality.

الْحَيَوَانَاتُ صَغِيرَةٌ وَكَبِيرَةٌ. الْكَبِيرَاتُ وَحْشَةٌ.

“The animals are big and small. The big ones are wild.”

In the second sentence above, we could not have said (for the same meaning):

× الْحَيَوَانَاتُ صَغِيرَةٌ وَكَبِيرَةٌ. الْكَبِيرَةُ وَحْشَةٌ.

It is important to note that treating non-intelligent beings as grammatically feminine is only for the plural. Singular and dual nouns for non-intelligent beings are treated according to the gender of singular noun, as we have learned in previous chapters. So, for example,

الْبَيْتُ كَبِيرٌ.

“The house is big.”

not

× الْبَيْتُ كَبِيرَةٌ.

أَكَلَ الْأَسَدَانِ الظَّبْيُ.

“The lions₂ ate the gazelle.”

not

× أَكَلَتِ الْأَسَدَانِ الظَّبْيُ.

Chapter 12.

Annexation

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

12.1. Introduction

Consider the following expression:

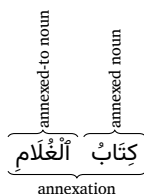
“the boy’s book”

This expression establishes a relation of *belonging* between the two nouns: (i) “the boy”, and (ii) “the book”. It says that the book *belongs* to the boy.

Arabic expresses this meaning using a construction called *annexation*. In this chapter we will learn about this construction.

12.2. Forming the annexation

We use the term *annexation* in Arabic grammar when a new *annexed noun* is annexed to a *annexed-to noun* by being placed right before it. Here is an example of an annexation:



“the boy’s book”

The annexation construction consists of two nouns:

1. The *annexed noun*: This is the first noun in the annexation.
2. The *annexed-to noun*: This is the second noun in the annexation.

The annexed noun كِتَاب is annexed to, and belongs to, the annexed-to noun الْغُلَام.

12.3. Case of the annexed noun and annexed-to noun

The annexed-to noun in an annexation is always in the i-case. The annexed noun may be in any case, depending on its function in the sentence. For example,

كِتَابُ الْغُلَامِ ثَقِيلٌ.

“The boy’s book is heavy.”

(The annexed noun is in the u-case.)

أَخَذَتْ الْغَارِيَةُ كِتَابَ الْغُلَامِ.

“The girl took the boy’s book.”

(The annexed noun is in the a-case.)

كَتَبَ الْمُعَلِّمُ فِي كِتَابِ الْغُلَامِ.

“The teacher_m wrote in the boy’s book.”

(The annexed noun is in the i-case.)

12.4. Definiteness of the annexation

Consider again the annexation expression we have been using so far:

كِتَابُ الْغُلَامِ

“the boy’s book”

The annexed-to noun *الْغُلَامِ* is definite because it is prefixed by *الْ* “the”. Therefore we have translated it as “the boy”. The annexed noun *كِتَابُ* is not made definite by *الْ*. Nor is it made indefinite by tanwin. Rather, its definiteness is determined by the annexed-to noun. Because the annexed-to noun *الْغُلَامِ* is definite, therefore the annexed noun *كِتَابُ* is also definite. The entire annexation is definite.

Consider now the case when the annexed-to noun is indefinite.

كِتَابُ غُلَامٍ

“a boy’s book”

In the above example, the annexed-to noun *غُلَامٍ* is indefinite because it is tanwined and because it does not prefixed by *الْ*. Therefore we have translated it as “a boy”. The annexed noun *كِتَابُ* is neither tanwined, nor does it have *الْ*. Its definiteness is, again, determined by the annexed-to noun. Because the annexed-to noun *غُلَامٍ* is indefinite, therefore the annexed noun *كِتَابُ* is also indefinite. The entire annexation is indefinite.

We will see soon, if Allāh wills, why the definiteness of the annexed noun is important.

Here are some examples of definite and indefinite annexations.

لَبَسَ الطِّفْلُ قَمِيصَ رَجُلٍ.

“The child wore a man’s shirt.”

أَخَذَ أَمِيرُ الْجَيْشِ رَايَةَ الْمَلِكِ وَرَفَعَهَا.

“The army’s commander took the king’s flag and raised it.”

جَلَسَ الرَّجُلُ فِي ظِلِّ شَجَرَةٍ.

“The man sat in a tree’s shade.”

12.4.1. Translating the annexation using “of”

So far we have been using the English “s” to translate the Arabic annexation. Examples:

بَيْتُ رَجُلٍ
“a man’s house”

بَيْتُ الرَّجُلِ
“the man’s house”

Instead of using “s” we may use “of” as well. For example:

بَيْتُ رَجُلٍ
“a/the house of a man”

بَيْتُ الرَّجُلِ
“a/the house of the man”

Note that the annexed noun “house” may be prefixed with either “a” or “the”. This will depend on what is more natural in English. Often time both will fit. Here are some examples:

لَبَسَ الطِّفْلُ قَمِيصَ رَجُلٍ.
“The child wore a/the shirt of a man.”

أَخَذَ أَمِيرُ الْجَيْشِ رَايَةَ الْمَلِكِ وَرَفَعَهَا.
“The commander of the army took the flag of the king and raised it.”

جَلَسَ الرَّجُلُ فِي ظِلِّ شَجَرَةٍ.
“The man sat in the shade of a tree.”

فَتَحَ اللِّصُّ شُبَّاكَ الْبَيْتِ وَدَخَلَ الْبَيْتَ.
“The thief opened a/the window of the house and entered the house.”

It is important to understand that translating the annexed noun into English with “a” or “the” is purely for the reason of obtaining a natural translation. This does not affect whether or not the annexed noun is grammatically considered definite in Arabic.

As we mentioned earlier, the definiteness of the annexed noun in Arabic depends only on the definiteness of the annexed-to noun. If the annexed-to noun is definite then the annexed noun shall be considered definite as well. And if the annexed-to noun is indefinite then the annexed noun shall be considered indefinite as well.

The need to maintain this distinction will become apparent in the next section.

If the annexed-to noun is definite, and it is desired to make the annexed noun grammatically indefinite, then it is necessary to break the annexation, and use a prepositional phrase instead, usually with the preposition لِ, which, here, will mean “of”. Example:

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَى بَيْتِ الرَّجُلِ.
“The boy went to a house of the man.”

فَتَحَ اللِّصُّ شُبَّاكًا مِنَ الْبَيْتِ وَدَخَلَ الْبَيْتَ.
“The thief opened a window of the house and entered the house.”

12.5. Broken plurals and *āt* sound plurals in annexations

There is no special rules for broken plurals and *āt* sound plurals in annexations. They behave just like singular nouns. Remember only that *āt* plurals end with ِ and ُ in the a-case. Here are some examples:

حَيَوَانَاتُ الْغَابَةِ وَحَشَّةٌ.

“The animals of the forest are wild.”

قَرَأَتْ طَالِبَاتُ الْمَدْرَسَةِ صَفَحَاتِ الْكِتَابِ

“The school’s students_f read the pages of the books.”

فِي الْخِزَانَةِ أَقْلَامٌ مُعَلِّمَاتٍ.

“In the cupboard are teachers’_f pens.

Contrary to broken plurals and *āt* plurals, duals and *ūn* sound plurals behave differently in annexations. We will deal with them in section @ref(duals-and-sound-un-plurals-in-annexations)

12.6. Attributes in an annexation

12.6.1. Describing the annexed-to noun

Consider the following expression:

كِتَابُ الْجَارِيَةِ

“the girl’s book”

Now say that we want to form an descriptive noun-phrase “the small girl’s book”. Basically, we want to describe the annexed-to noun الْجَارِيَةِ “the girl” with the adjectival noun صَغِير “a small one”. Here is how we will express this in Arabic:

كِتَابُ الْجَارِيَةِ الصَّغِيرَةِ

“the small girl’s book”

In the manner we are already familiar with, we place the attribute صَغِير “a small one” after the attributee الْجَارِيَةِ “the girl” and match the attribute with the attributee in definiteness, case, gender and number (singular, dual, or plural).

Similarly, if we had an indefinite annexation, we would get:

كِتَابُ جَارِيَةٍ صَغِيرَةٍ

“a small girl’s book”

Here are some more examples:

لَعِبَتِ الْجَارِيَةُ فِي حَدِيقَةِ الْبَيْتِ الْكَبِيرِ.

“The girl played in the garden of the big house.”

قَرَأَ الْغُلَامُ سُورَةَ الْقُرْآنِ الْكَرِيمِ.

“The boy read the sūrah of the Noble Qur’ān.”

جَلَسَ الرَّجُلُ فِي ظِلِّ شَجَرَةٍ عَرِيضَةٍ وَسَبِيحَةٍ.

“The man sat in the shade of a wide broad tree.”

12.6.2. Describing the annexed noun

Consider, again, the same annexation:

كِتَابُ الْجَارِيَةِ

“the girl’s book”

Say, now, that we want to describe the annexed noun كِتَاب “book” with the adjectival noun صَغِير “a small one”. Normally, nothing can come between the annexed noun and the annexed-to noun in an annexation. So, the attribute needs to be placed, again, after the annexed-to noun. However, this time it will match the annexed noun, not the annexed-to noun, in case, definiteness, gender, and number. So we get:

كِتَابُ الْجَارِيَةِ الصَّغِيرِ
“the girl’s small book”

Note how the attribute الصَّغِيرُ matches the annexed noun كِتَاب in case and gender. Note also how the attribute is definite with an اَلْ. This is because it is matching the annexed noun كِتَاب in definiteness. The annexed noun كِتَاب is definite, not with اَلْ, but rather because of the definite annexed-to noun الْجَارِيَةِ “the girl”. We’ve already learned this rule in section @ref(definiteness-of-the-annexation) above.

Similarly, if we describe the annexed noun كِتَاب in an indefinite annexation, we get:

كِتَابٌ جَارِيَةٍ صَغِيرٍ
“a girl’s small book”

This time the attribute صَغِير is indefinite with a tanwīn dammah ً. This is because the annexed noun كِتَاب is indefinite. It is indefinite because annexed-to noun جَارِيَةٍ “a girl” is indefinite.

Now, you might be foreseeing a problem. What if the annexed noun and the annexed-to noun have the same gender, and the annexed noun too is in the i-case? For example, in the sentence:

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَى بَيْتِ الرَّجُلِ الْكَبِيرِ.
“The boy went to the big/old man’s house.”

or

“The boy went to the man’s big house.”

How do we know whether the attribute كَبِير is meant to describe the annexed noun بَيْت or the annexed-to noun الرَّجُل? The annexed noun بَيْت and the annexed-to noun الرَّجُل are both masculine, singular, definite, and in the i-case.

The answer is that in such cases, context will have to be clear to tell us which of the two meanings is intended. If the context makes it clear then there is no harm in using such a sentence for either of the two meanings.

Also, sometimes, the meaning of the attribute is such that it will likely apply to only one of the two nouns. For example,

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَى بَيْتِ الرَّجُلِ الْكَرِيمِ.
“The boy went to a noble/generous man’s house.”

In the sentence above the attribute كَرِيم “noble/generous” is likely to apply to a man, and not to a house.

If, however, the context is not clear, and the meaning of the attribute can apply to both the annexed noun and the annexed-to noun, then the attribute is likely to apply to the annexed-to noun and not to the annexed noun. So then, this interpretation is more likely:

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَى بَيْتِ الرَّجُلِ الْكَبِيرِ.
“The boy went to the big/old man’s house.”

In order to apply a attribute to the annexed noun in such a case, it is better to break the annexation and form a prepositional phrase instead, usually with the preposition **لِ**, which, here, will mean “of”. Example:

ذَهَبَ الْعَلَامُ إِلَى الْبَيْتِ الْكَبِيرِ لِلرَّجُلِ .

“The boy went to the big house of the man.”

Here are some more examples:

لَعَبَتِ الْجَارِيَةُ بِكَرَةِ الْعَلَامِ الْحَمْرَاءِ.

“The girl played with the boy’s red ball.”

(Note that **حُمْرَاء** feminine to match **كَرَةِ**.)

سَقَطَتْ وَرَقَةُ الشَّجَرَةِ الْخَضْرَاءِ عَلَى مَاءِ النَّعْرِ الْعَرِيضِ.

“The green leaf of the tree fell on the water of the broad river.”

(Note that **خَضْرَاء** is in the u-case to match **وَرَقَةُ**.)

حَمَلَ الْعَلَامُ حَقِيْبَةَ الْمَدْرَسَةِ الْثَقِيْلَةِ.

“The boy carried the heavy school-bag.”

(literally: the heavy bag of the school).

كَتَبَ الرَّجُلُ عَلَى صَفْحَةٍ كِتَابٍ بَيْضَاءِ.

“The man wrote on the white page of a book.”

(Note that **بَيْضَاء** is feminine to match **صَفْحَةٍ**. However, also note that it has an a-mark **ا** in the i-case because it is semi-flexible.)

12.7. Semi-flexible nouns in an annexation

Remember that semi-flexible nouns are not tanwined and that when indefinite, their i-case is indicated by an fat-hah **ه**. But when definite with **الْ** then they behave just like fully-flexible nouns. Example of the semi-flexible noun **صَحْرَاء** “a desert”:

Case	Indefinite	Definite
u-case	صَحْرَاءُ	الصَّحْرَاءُ
a-case	صَحْرَاءَ	الصَّحْرَاءَ
i-case	صَحْرَاءِ	الصَّحْرَاءِ

We will now see how semi-flexible nouns behave in an annexation.

12.7.1. A semi-flexible noun as the annexed-to noun

Here are examples of the semi-flexible noun **صَحْرَاء** “a desert” as the annexed-to noun in an annexation:

الْقَرْيَةُ فِي وَسْطِ الصَّحْرَاءِ.

“The village is in the middle of the desert.”

شَرِبَ الْأَعْرَابِيُّ مَاءً مِنْ بَيْتِ صَحْرَاءِ.

“The bedouin drank some water from a desert’s well.”

As you can see, when **صَحْرَاء** is definite, then its i-case is indicate by an kasrah **ِ**, just like fully-flexible nouns. However, when it is indefinite, then its i-case is indicate by an fat-hah **ه**.

This is consistent with the general behavior of semi-flexible nouns that we are familiar with.

12.7.2. A semi-flexible noun as the annexed noun

Contrary from expected behavior, a semi-flexible annexed noun, even when indefinite, takes an kasrah ِ in the i-case instead of an fatḥah َ. Example,

قَدِمَ الْأَعْرَابِيُّ مِنْ صَحْرَاءَ أَرْضٍ بَعِيدَةٍ.
“The bedouin came from the desert of a far land.”

In the above example, ²صَحْرَاءَ “a desert” is indefinite because it is the annexed noun to an indefinite annexed-to noun أَرْضٍ “a land”. It is in the i-case because it is preceded by the preposition مِنْ “from”. Nevertheless, it takes an kasrah مِنْ صَحْرَاءَ أَرْضٍ, not an fatḥah, which would be incorrect: × مِنْ صَحْرَاءَ أَرْضٍ.

12.8. Annexations with more than two nouns

So far we have seen annexations with two nouns. Annexations may be arbitrarily long. Here is an example of a noun-chain with more than two nouns:

مِفْتَاحُ	بَابِ	الْبَيْتِ
a_1	b_1	b_2
	a_2	

“the house’s door’s key”

The above annexation consists of three nouns. It may be divided into two sub-annexations:

- i. مِفْتَاحُ “door’s key”. Its annexed noun a_1 is مِفْتَاحُ and its annexed-to noun b_1 is بَابِ.
- ii. بَابِ “the house’s door”. Its annexed noun a_2 is بَابِ and its annexed-to noun b_2 is الْبَيْتِ.

The noun بَابِ “door” is common to both sub-annexations. It is the annexed-to noun of the first sub-annexation مِفْتَاحُ بَابِ “door’s key”. At the same time, it is also the annexed noun of the second sub-annexation بَابِ الْبَيْتِ “the house’s door”.

Only the final annexed-to noun may have ألْ or be tanwined. If the final annexed-to noun has ألْ (as above) then all the nouns in the annexation are definite.

And if the final annexed-to noun is indefinite, as in the example below, then all the nouns in the annexation are indefinite.

مِفْتَاحُ بَابِ بَيْتٍ
“a house’s door’s key”

All the nouns except the first annexed noun must be in the i-case. Consistent with section @ref(a-semi-flexible-noun-as-the-annexe-noun) if a semi-flexible noun is any of the annexed nouns and is in the i-case, then its i-case is indicated by an fatḥah َ. Example:

مِنْ بئرِ صَحْرَاءِ أَرْضٍ
 “from the well of the desert of a land”

12.9. Pronouns as annexed-to nouns

Consider the expression:

“his book”

This expression is very similar to the annexation:

كِتَابُ الْغُلَامِ
 “the boy’s book”

The difference is that we would like to replace the annexed-to noun الْغُلَامِ “the boy” with the pronoun “his”. For this we use the attached pronoun هُ. When we place this pronoun as the annexed-to noun, we get:

كِتَابُهُ
 “his book”

This annexation follows the same rules as the other annexations we have been studying so far:

- The annexed noun may be in any case, depending on its function in the sentence.
- The annexed-to noun is in the i-case. But because the annexed-to noun is a pronoun, and pronouns are rigid nouns (see section @ref(rigidity-of-pronouns)) that don’t change their ending based on their case, therefore it’s i-case will not be apparent.

Here are some examples of this annexation used in sentences:

كِتَابُهُ ثَقِيلٌ.
 “His book is heavy”
 قَرَأَ الرَّجُلُ كِتَابَهُ.
 “The man read his book.”
 كَتَبَ الْمُعَلِّمُ فِي كِتَابِهِ.

“The teacher_m wrote in his book.”

If the annexed noun ends with ة then it is converted to a ت when annexing it to an attached pronoun. For example:

دَهَبُوا إِلَى مَدْرَسَتِهِمْ.
 “They went to their school.”

Here are some more examples of annexing to the different attached pronouns:

دَخَلْتُ بَيْتَكَ.
 “You_{1,m} entered your_{1,m} house.”

أَكَلْنَا طَعَامَهُمَا.
 “They_{2,f} ate their₂ food.”

قَدِمْتُ إِلَى مَدِينَتِكُمْ
 “I have arrived to your_{3,m} city.”

هُوَ إِمَامُ مَسْجِدِنَا.
 “He is the ’Imām of our mosque.”

If the annexed noun is semi-flexible then it gets a ِ in the i-case, as we’ve already learned. Example with the semi-flexible broken plural حَدَائِقُ “gardens”.

لَعِبْنَ فِي حَدَائِقِهِنَّ.

“They_{3,f} played in their_{3,f} gardens.”

If an annexed noun ends with *ي* then it gets converted to an alif when annexing it to an attached pronoun. Example with ²فَتَاوَى “legal opinions”:

كَتَبَ تَلَامِذُهُ الشَّيْخَ فَتَاوَاهُ فِي كُتُبِهِمْ.

“The pupils of the religious scholar wrote down his legal opinions in their books.”

For the singular speaker-participant there are two variants for the attached pronoun:

i. *-ī* ي

ii. *-ya* يَ

The first (*-ī* ي) is more commonly used. Example:

قَرَأْتُ كِتَابِي

“I read my book.”

أَقْلَامِي قَصِيرَةٌ.

“My pens are short.”

If, however, the annexed noun ends in a long vowel or a semi-vowel then (*-ī* ي) is disallowed and only (*-ya* يَ) shall be used. Example with the semi-flexible broken plural ²هَدَايَا “gifts”:

أَعْجَبَتْهُمْ هَدَايَايَ.

“My gifts pleased them.”

12.9.1. Attributes with annexations to pronouns

Consider the annexation:

كِتَابُهُ

“his book”

The annexed noun is كِتَاب and the annexed-to noun is the pronoun *هو*. We would like add a attribute to this expression. Remember from section @ref(definiteness-of-pronouns) that pronouns are definite nouns. That makes the annexed noun كِتَاب also definite. Therefore, any attribute for this annexation will need to be definite too.

Here is a new rule: Pronouns may not be attributees. That is: they are not allowed to have attributes. Even in English you may say:

“The good boy went.”

but you can't say:

× “The good *he* went.”

So, any attributes for the annexation must necessarily only describe the annexed noun, not the pronoun which is the annexed-to noun. Example:

كِتَابُهُ الْأَحْمَرُ

“his red book”

Here are some more examples:

كَتَبْتُ بِقَلَمِي الْأَسْوَدِ

“I wrote with my black pen.”

حَمَلَ غُلْمَانُ الْقَرْيَةِ حَقَائِبَهُمُ الثَّقِيلَةَ إِلَى مَدْرَسَتِهِمُ النَجِيدَةِ.
 “The village boys carried their heavy bags to their distant school.”
 (literally: the village’s boys.)

12.10. Duals and *ūn* sound plurals in annexations

We have already dealt with broken plurals and *āt* sound plurals in annexations in section @ref(broken-plurals-and-at-sound-plurals-in-annexations).

In this section we will deal with duals and *ūn* sound plurals in annexations.

12.10.1. Duals and *ūn* sound plurals as annexed-to nouns

As annexed-to noun, duals and *ūn* sound plurals behave no differently than other nouns. Being annexed-to nouns they will be in the i-case and this shall be indicated by:

- i. اَيْنِ -*ayni* for duals
- ii. اَيْنِ -*ina* for *ūn* sound plurals

Here are some examples:

لَجِئَ الْمَظْلُومُونَ الضُّعَفَاءُ فِي بِلَادِ الْمُسْلِمِينَ الْأَمْنَةِ.
 “The weak wronged ones took refuge in the secure lands of the Muslims.”

أُخْتُ الْعَلَامِيِّنَ الطَّوِيلِينَ صَغِيرَةٌ.
 “The tall boys’₂ sister is little.”

هِيَ طَالِبَةٌ مُعَلِّمَتَيْنِ كَرِيمَتَيْنِ.
 “She is the student_f of noble teachers_{2,f}.”

12.10.2. Duals and *ūn* sound plurals as annexed nouns

When duals and *ūn* sound plurals are annexed nouns, then their final ن is treated as a sort of tanwīn and is, therefore, deleted before annexing them to a annexed-to noun. For example:

بَيْتَا الرَّجُلِ
 “the man’s houses₂”

not

× بَيْتَانِ الرَّجُلِ

Note, also, that because the annexed-to noun الرَّجُلِ begins with a connecting hamzah ٱ, therefore the long vowel *ā* at the end of بَيْتَا is pronounced as a short vowel *a*, thus:

bayta -rrajuli

not

× *baytā -rrajuli*

If the dual annexed noun were in the i-case then the final ي gets an kasrah

○ if there is following connecting hamzah. Example:

قَرَأْتُ كِتَابِي الرَّجُلِ.
qara’tu kitābayi -rrajul

“I read the man’s books₂.”

Here are some more examples including ūn sound plurals:

مُعَلِّمُو الْغُلَامِ كِرَامٌ.

muʿallimu -lghulāmi kirām.

“The boy’s teachers₃ are noble.”

(Note that there is no silent alif after مُعَلِّمُو as there is after a verb with a plural absentee-participant doer pronoun, e.g. لَعِبُوا “they_{3,m} played”)

لَعِبَ ابْنَا الرَّجُلِ مَعَ لَاعِبِي مَدِينَتِهِمْ.

laeiba -bna -rrajuli maʿa lāeibi madīnatihim.

“The man’s sons₂ played with the players of their city.”

12.10.2.1. Annexing duals and ūn sound plurals to pronouns

Duals and ūn sound plurals can be annexed to attached pronouns, and in this case too, they will lose their final ن. Examples:

مُعَلِّمُونَا طَيِّبُونَ.

“Our teachers_{3,m} are good.”

لَعِبَتْ الْجَارِيَةُ مَعَ صَدِيقَتَيْهَا

“The girl played with her friends_{2,f}.”

بَيْتَايَ كَبِيرَانِ.

“My houses₂ are big.”

(Note that only the ي variant is allowed to be used because of بَيْتَا ending with a long vowel.)

قَرَأْتُ كِتَابِي

(Note how ي كِتَابِي becomes كِتَابِي.)

There are also two special cases in this category and we will examine them below:

Annexing an ūn sound plural to the singular speaker participant pronoun

When an ūn sound plural is annexed to the singular speaker participant pronoun, then again, only the ي variant can be used. However, in addition, the expression will appear the same regardless of the case of the annexed noun. So for all cases (u-case, a-case, and i-case), we will get:

مُعَلِّمِي

We don’t say × مُعَلِّمُوِي for the u-case. Examples:

مُعَلِّمِي كِرَامٌ.

“My teachers_{3,m} are noble.”

(u-case)

سَأَلْتُ مُعَلِّمِي

“I asked my teachers_{3,m}.”

(a-case)

أَخَذْتُ كِتَابًا مِنْ مُعَلِّمِي

“I took a book from my teachers_{3,m}.”

(i-case)

Annexing an dual noun to a dual pronoun

When a dual noun is to be annexed to a dual pronoun, then the dual annexed noun is often converted to a plural. For example, instead of saying

نَظَرْتُ إِلَى رَأْسَيْهِمَا “I looked at their₂ heads₂.”

it is in fact, more common, to say

نَظَرْتُ إِلَى رُؤُوسِهِمَا “I looked at their₂ heads₃.”

Although the former is also correct. This is because the annexation of a dual to a dual is considered burdensome upon the tongue to utter, and so the plural is preferred.

12.11. Annexations with “and”

12.11.1. Multiple annexed nouns and one annexed-to noun

In English we can have an expression like “the pen and the book of the boy” = “the boy’s pen and book”. In this sentence there are two annexed nouns and one annexed-to noun.

In order to express this in Arabic, we will say:

قَلَمُ الْغُلَامِ وَكِتَابُهُ

qalamu -lghulāmi wakitābuhu

“the boy’s pen and his book” = “the boy’s pen and book”

Note that the annexation is not broken by the insertion of *wa* “and”. Rather a second annexation is used and the two are separated by *wa* “and”. This is the preferred way of expressing such expressions.

There is another, less preferred way of expressing this. And this is by breaking the first annexation and inserting *wa* “and”:

قَلَمُ وَكِتَابُ الْغُلَامِ

qalamu wakitābu -lghulāmi

“the boy’s pen and book”

This second method is not considered as eloquent. Some even consider it incorrect. So we advise you to use the first method whenever possible.

12.11.1.1. With pronouns

If the annexed-to noun in the first annexation is replaced with a pronoun then only the first method is allowed. For example,

قَلَمُهُ وَكِتَابُهُ

qalamuhu wakitābuhu

“his pen and his book”

12.11.2. One annexed noun and multiple annexed-to nouns

We can also have expressions like “the house of the boy and the girl”. In this sentence there is one annexed noun and two annexed-to nouns.

To express this in Arabic we will say:

بَيْتُ الْغُلَامِ وَالْجَارِيَةِ
baytu -lghulāmi wa-ljāriyati
 “the house of the boy and the girl”

Note that both الْغُلَامِ *alghulāmi* and الْجَارِيَةِ *aljāriyati* are in the i-case because they are both annexed-to nouns in the annexation.

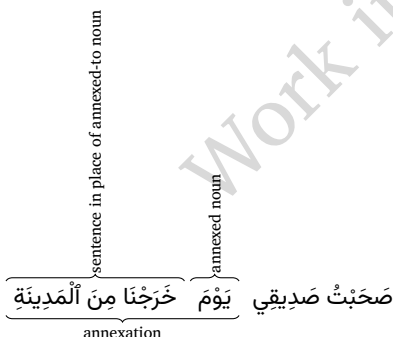
12.11.2.1. With pronouns

If one or both of the annexed-to nouns in the annexation is replaced with a pronoun then the first noun must be repeated. For example,

بَيْتُ الْغُلَامِ وَبَيْتُهَا
 “the boy’s house and her house”
 بَيْتُهُ وَبَيْتُهَا
baytuhu wabaytuhā
 “his house and her house”

12.12. Annexation to a sentence

So far we have studied the annexation of an annexed noun to a annexed-to noun. It is also possible to have an annexation where the annexed-to noun is replaced by a sentence or a clause. For example,



“I accompanied my friend the day we left the city.”

The word يَوْمَ is the annexed noun and is used as an adverb of time. The entire sentence "خَرَجْنَا مِنَ الْمَدِينَةِ" occupies the place of the annexed-to noun. We will study the adverb of time in chapter (give ref), if Allāh wills, where such annexations are common.

Annexation to a sentence also occurs besides adverbs.¹ For another example, see section (ref to idaafah to a أَنْ يَفْعَلْ).

¹https://ar.wikipedia.org/wiki/الجملة_الفعلية_الواقعة_مضافا_إليه

12.13. Usage of the annexation

12.13.1. Primarily belonging

12.13.2. نحو، مثل، شبه

Don't become definite when annexed to pronoun

12.13.3. نفس “self”

صَرَبَا أَنْفُسَهُمَا
قَالَتْ لِي نَفْسِي

12.13.4. annexation of material

خَاتَمٌ ذَهَبٌ
خَاتَمٌ ذَهَبٌ
خَاتَمٌ مِنْ ذَهَبٍ

12.13.5. مَدِينَةُ دِمَشْقَ

12.13.6. مجرد ترفيه

Work in progress

Chapter 13.

The numbers

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

13.1. Introduction

Arabic numbers are complicated and we will treat them more fully in chapter (give ref), if Allāh wills. For now, we will give a short preview of the numbers from one to ten.

13.2. The number one

The word for the number “one” is **وَاحِد** *wāḥid*. It is an adjectival noun and can be used as a attribute. For example,

قَرَأْتُ كِتَابًا وَاحِدًا.

“I read one book.”

As usual, when the described noun is feminine, then the attribute too **وَاحِد** is feminized:

أَكَلْتُ تَمْرَةً وَاحِدَةً.

“I ate one date.”

Often, as in English, using the number **وَاحِد** “one” is optional. For example,

قَرَأْتُ كِتَابًا.

“I read a book.”

13.3. The number two

The number for “one” **وَاحِد** is a singular noun. Correspondingly, the number for “two” **اِثْنَان** *ithnāni* is a dual noun. It too can be used as attribute. For example,

دَخَلَ رَجُلَانِ اِثْنَانِ.

dakhala rajulāni -ithnān

“Two men entered.”

In the the a-case and i-case, it becomes **اِثْنَيْنِ** *ithnayni*. For example,

فَرَأْتُ كِتَابَيْنِ اِثْنَيْنِ.
qara'tu kitābayni -ithnayn
 “I read two books.”

When feminized it becomes اِثْنَتَانِ *ithnatāni*. For example,
 دَخَلَتْ جَارِيَتَانِ اِثْنَتَانِ وَأَكَلَتَا تَمْرَتَيْنِ اِثْنَتَيْنِ.
dakhala jāriyatāni -ithnatāni wa'akalatā tamratayni -ithnatayn.
 “Two girls entered and ate two dates.”

As with وَاحِدَ “one”, the use of the number two is optional because its meaning is inherent in the dual. For example,

دَخَلَتْ جَارِيَتَانِ وَأَكَلَتَا تَمْرَتَيْنِ.
dakhala jāriyatāni wa'akalatā tamratayn.
 “Two girls entered and ate two dates.”

13.4. The numbers from three to ten

We saw that the number وَاحِدَ “one” is a singular noun, and that the number اِثْنَانِ *ithnāni* “two” is a dual noun.

So it should come as no surprise that the numbers three to ten are treated as plural nouns. (We say *treated as plurals* because they're not technically plurals. For example, they don't conform to the broken plural patterns. But let's not worry about that for now.)

Now, remember that ة is a feminine marker for singular nouns, but not for plural nouns. In fact, recall that there is almost a role reversal for ة in plural nouns, where it tends to occur for plurals of masculine nouns, and is missing for plurals of feminine nouns. For example, the plural of هَرَّ “a male cat” is هَرَزَةٌ, and the plural of هَرَّةٌ “a female cat” is هَرَرٌ. We will now see this role reversal of ة in the numbers three to ten. When a number from 3–10 is used for a masculine noun then it shall have ة and when it is used for a feminine noun then it shall not have ة. Here then are the numbers from 3–10:

Number	Masculine	Feminine
three	ثَلَاثَةٌ	ثَلَاث
four	أَرْبَعَةٌ	أَرْبَع
five	خَمْسَةٌ	خَمْس
six	سِتَّةٌ	سِت
seven	سَبْعَةٌ	سَبْع
eight	ثَمَانِيَةٌ	ثَمَانِي
nine	تِسْعَةٌ	تِسْع
ten	عَشْرَةٌ	عَشْر

The number 10 is irregular in that the masculine number has a fatḥah on the ش (عَشْرَةٌ *ashḥarah*). Whereas the feminine number has a sukūn on the ش (عَشْر *ashḥr*).

Consistent with the numbers 1 and 2, the numbers from 3–10 may be used as attributes. But they are more often used as annexed nouns. As mentioned

earlier, we will treat numbers more fully later, if Allāh wills. But here are some examples for now:

لِلْمَرْأَةِ ثَلَاثَةُ أَبْنَاءٍ وَأَرْبَعُ بَنَاتٍ.

lilmār'ati thalāthatu 'abnā'in wa'arbaʿu banāt.

"The woman has three sons and four daughters."

وَضَعْتُ عَشْرَةَ أَقْلَامٍ فِي عَشْرِ حَقِيبَاتٍ.

waḍaʿtu ʿasharata 'aqlāmin fī ʿashri ḥaqībāt.

"I put ten pens in ten bags."

The feminine number ثَمَانِي "eight" has a final weak letter ي. As we will learn in chapter (give ref), this final letter cannot take a kasrah or a ḍammah. For example,

أَكَلْتُ ثَمَانِي هِرَّةً ثَمَانِي كِسْرَاتٍ مِنَ اللَّحْمِ فِي ثَمَانِي سَاعَاتٍ.

'akalat thāmāni hiratin thāmāniya kisarātīn mina -llaḥmi fī thāmāni sāʿāt.

"Eight cats ate eight pieces of meat in eight hours."

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 14.

Some irregular nouns

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

14.1. Introduction

There are some nouns in Arabic which are *irregular* and behave a little differently than other *regular* nouns. In this chapter we will study these irregular nouns.

14.2. The five nouns

There are five nouns in Arabic which are irregular in the same basic way. Collectively, they are called “the five nouns”. They behave a little differently from regular nouns in how they indicate their case.

14.2.1. أَبْ ‘*ab*, أَخْ ‘*akh*, and خَمَّ ‘*ham*

The first three nouns that we will talk about are:

- i. أَبْ ‘*ab* “a father” (root: أبو)
- ii. أَخْ ‘*akh* “a brother” (root: أخو)
- iii. خَمَّ ‘*ham* “a father-in-law” (root: حمو)

The final root letter of all three of these nouns is ڤ. However, irregularly, it is omitted in most formations of the word. It does resurface in some cases as we will describe below.

Without the final root letter ڤ, these nouns indicate their case like regular nouns. Here are some examples:

لِلْجَارِيَةِ أَبٌ كَبِيرٌ وَأَخٌ صَغِيرٌ.
liljāriyati ‘abun kabīrun wa’akhun ṣaḡhīr
“The girl has an old father and a young brother.”
صَرَبَ الْغُلَامُ أَخَاهُ.
ḡaraba -lḡhulāmu ‘akhan lahu.
“The boy beat a brother of his.”

أَلْحَمُّ وَالْأَبُ فِي بَيْتِ الْأَخِ.

ʾalḥamu walʾabu fī bayti -lʾakh.

“The father-in-law and the father are in the brother’s house.”

Where the nouns behave irregularly is when they are an annexed noun in an annexation. Then instead of indicating their case with ُ, ِ, and ٍ, they indicate their case using the long vowels َ, ِ, and ِ instead. Here are some examples:

هُوَ أَخُو الْجَارِيَةِ.

huwa ʾakhu -ljāriyah

“He is the girl’s brother.”

سَأَلْتُ أَبَا صَدِيقِي عَنْ أَمْرٍ.

saʾaltu ʾabā ṣadiqī ʿan ʾamr.

“I asked my friend’s father about a matter.”

ذَهَبْتُ إِلَى بَيْتِ خَمِي الرَّجُلِ.

dhahabtu ʾilā bayti ḥami -rrajul.

“I went to the man’s father-in-law’s house.”

When these nouns are annexed to attached pronouns, then in most cases they will behave as above. So, for example,

أَبُوهُ

ʾabūhu

“his father” (u-case).

أَخَانَا

ʾakhānā

“our brother” (a-case).

However, if the attached pronoun is ِ (for the singular speaker participant), then in that case, the attached pronoun ِ attaches to the annexed noun directly, without any intervening long vowel:

أَخِي

ʾakhī

“my brother” (u-case, a-case, and i-case).

أَبِي

ʾabī

“my father” (u-case, a-case, and i-case).

خَمِي

ḥamī

“my father-in-law” (u-case, a-case, and i-case).

Here are some more examples in sentences:

أَخُوهُ طَوِيلٌ وَأَخُوهَا قَصِيرٌ وَأَخِي كَبِيرٌ.

ʾakhūhu ṭawīlun waʾakhūhā qaṣīrun waʾakhī kabīr.

“His brother is tall and her brother is short and my brother is big.”

سَأَلَ أَخَاهُمْ وَأَخَانَا.

saʾaltu ʾakhāhum waʾakhānā.

“I asked their_{m,3+} brother and our brother.”

شَكَرَ أَخِي أَبِي.

shakara 'akhi 'abi.

“My brother thanked my father.”

ذَهَبْتُ إِلَى بَيْتِ أَخِيهِنَّ.

dahabtu 'ilā bayti 'akhihin.

“I went to their_{f,3+} brother’s house.”

The above irregular behavior of these three nouns is only when they are annexed nouns. When they happen to be annexed-to nouns in annexations, then they again they behave like regular nouns and their case is indicated by the short vowel marks ُ, ِ, and ٍ, when definite, and by tanwīn ٌ, ٍ, and ٍ, when indefinite. . Examples:

بَيْتُ الْأَخِ كَبِيرٌ.

baytu -l'akhi kabir.

“The brother’s house is big.”

ذَهَبْتُ إِلَى بَيْتِ أَخٍ.

dahabtu 'ilā bayti 'akh.

“I went to a brother’s house.”

When these nouns form their duals and plurals, then the final root letter و is resurfaces. In forming the broken plural, the final root letter و, being a weak letter, sometimes converts to a ء. The following table shows their duals and plurals.

Word	Dual (u-case)	Dual (a-case and i-case)	Plural
أَبْ 'ab	أَبَوَانِ 'abawāni	أَبَوَيْنِ 'abawayni	آبَاءٌ 'ābā'
أَخْ 'akh	أَخَوَانِ 'akhawāni	أَخَوَيْنِ 'akhawayni	إِخْوَانٌ 'ikhwah, إِخْوَةٌ 'ikhwān
حَمَ ḥam	حَمَوَانِ ḥamawāni	حَمَوَيْنِ ḥamawayni	أَحْمَاءٌ 'aḥmā'

One special note regarding the dual أَبَوَانِ/أَبَوَيْنِ: in addition to meaning “two fathers”, they can also mean “both parents”, i.e., “a father and a mother”. Here are examples of these words in sentences:

ذَهَبَ الْأَخَوَانُ إِلَى الْمَسْجِدِ.

dahaba -l'akhawāni fi -lmasjidi.

“The brothers₂ went to the mosque.”

سَأَلْتُ أَخَوَيْ عَنْ أَمْرٍ

sa'altu 'akhawayya ʿan 'amrin.

“I asked my brothers₂ about a matter.”

شَكَرْتُ لِأَبَوَيْهِ

shakartu li'abayhi.

“I thanked his parents.”

14.2.2. ذُو *dhū* and ذَات *dhāt*

The fourth irregular noun from “the five nouns” is the masculine noun ذُو *dhū* and its feminine counterpart ذَات *dhāt*. The words ذُو *dhū* and ذَات *dhāt* mean “owner of” or “possessor of”.

So, for example, ذُو *dhū* أَلْمَالِ *-lmālī* means “possessor_m of wealth” or “wealthy person_m”. The singular, dual, and plural of ذُو *dhū* in all three cases is shown in the table below:

Case	Singular	Dual	Plural
u-case	ذُو <i>dhū</i>	ذَوَا <i>dhawā</i>	ذُؤُو <i>dhawū</i>
a-case	ذَا <i>dhā</i>	ذَوَّيْ <i>dhaway</i>	ذَوِي <i>dhawī</i>
i-case	ذِي <i>dhī</i>	same as a-case	same as a-case

The noun ذُو *dhū* and its duals and plurals are only ever used as annexed nouns in annexations. Furthermore, they may not be annexed to pronouns. Here are some examples:

الرَّجُلُ ذُو *dhū* أَلْمَالِ.
'arrujulu *dhū -lmāl*.

“The man is the possessor of wealth.” = “This man is wealthy.”

The word ذَات *dhāt* is the feminine of ذُو *dhū*. When used as an annexed noun, its cases, duals, and plurals are as in the table below:

Case	Singular	Dual	Plural
u-case	ذَات <i>dhātu</i>	ذَوَاتَا <i>dhawātā</i>	ذَوَاتُ <i>dhawātu</i>
a-case	ذَاتَا <i>dhātā</i>	ذَوَاتَيْ <i>dhawātay</i>	ذَوَاتِي <i>dhawāti</i>
i-case	ذَاتِي <i>dhāti</i>	same as a-case	same as a-case

Examples:

هَذِهِ الشَّجَرَةُ ذَاتُ ثَمَرٍ كَثِيرٍ.
hādhihi -shshajaratu dhātu thamarin kathīrin.

“This tree is the possessor of much fruit.” = “This tree is very fruitful.”

As opposed to ذُو *dhū* which is only an annexed noun, ذَات *dhāt* may be used a noun in its own right. In this case it means “personality” or “essence”. This usage is often found in theological or philosophical works. And, as such, unlike ذُو *dhū* which can't be annexed to attached pronouns, ذَات *dhāt* can be annexed to attached pronouns. Examples:

14.2.3. فَم *fam*

The fifth of “the five nouns” is فَم *fam* “a mouth”. It is the most irregular of “the five nouns”.

In some ways, the word فَم *fam* is regular. It is only irregular when it is a singular annexed noun. Let's first see its regular behavior.

عَلَى الْوَجْهِ فَمٌ وَفِي الْفَمِ لِسَانٌ.
ʿala -lwajhi fāmun wafi -lfami lisān

“On the face is a mouth, and in the mounth is a tongue.”

It is a annexed-to noun in an annexation regularly:

نَطَقَ لِسَانُ الْفَمِ.
naṭaqa lisānu -lfam.

“The mouth’s tongue articulated [speech].”

It forms duals regularly, which are used in annexations regularly

فَمَا النَّهْرَيْنِ كَبِيرَانِ.
fama -nnahrayni kabirāni.

“The mouths₂ of the rivers₂ are big.”

Let’s now see its irregular behavior.

When فَمٌ is a singular annexed noun, then it is usual for it to follow the example of the rest of the five nouns.

Here is how it will appear as a singular annexed noun in the three cases:

u-case	a-case	i-case
فُو <i>fū</i>	فَا <i>fā</i>	فِي <i>fi</i>

Examples of usage:

فُو النَّهْرِ كَبِيرٌ.
fu -nnahri kabir.

“The mouth of the river is big.”

فُوهَا جَمِيلٌ.
fūhā jamil.

“Her mouth is beautiful.”

فَتَحَ فَاهُ.
fataḥa fāh.

“He opened his mouth.”

جَعَلَتْ الْأُمُّ لُقْمَةً طَعَامٍ فِي فِي ابْنَتِهَا.
jaʿalati -lʾummu luqmata ṭaʿāmin fi fi -bnatihā.

“The mother put a morsel of food in her daughter’s mouth.”

When the attached pronoun for the speaking person يِ is attached to فُو *fū*, فَ *fā*, or فِي *fi* the combination is always فَيِّ *fiyya* in all three cases. Examples:

فِيَّ مَفْتُوحٌ.
fiyya mafṭūḥ.

“My mouth is open.”

فَتَحْتُ فِيَّ.
fataḥtu fiyy.

“I opened my mouth.”

أَكَلْتُ بِفِيَّ.
ʾakaltu bifīyy.

“I ate with my mouth.”

In addition to the above irregular behavior, it is permissible, but less common, to treat فَم regularly as an annexed noun in an annexation. So it is permissible to also say:

فَمُ النَّهْرِ كَبِيرٌ.

famu -nnahri kabīr.

“The river’s mouth is big.”

فَمِي مَفْتُوحٌ.

famī maftūhun.

“My mouth is open.”

فَمُهَا جَمِيلٌ.

famuhā jamilun.

“Her mouth is beautiful.”

فَتَحَ فَمُهُ.

fataḥa famahu.

“He opened his mouth.”

جَعَلَتْ أَلَمٌ لُقْمَةً طَعَامٍ فِي فَمِ ابْنَتِهَا.

jaʿalati -lʾummu luqmata ṭaeāmin fi fami -bnatihā.

“The mother put a morsel of food in her daughter’s mouth.”

The other irregularity of فَم *fam* “a mouth” is that its broken plural is أَفْوَاهٌ *ʾafwāh*.

Note that the letter م has not been used to form the broken plural, and instead a و, and a ه are used to form it.

14.3. Other irregular nouns

There are more nouns that have irregularity in their own ways. We will discuss them below.

14.3.1. أولُو *ʾulū* and أولَات *ʾulāt*

أولُو *ʾulū* (first syllable has a short vowel with a silent و) means “people_m of”. It is only used as a masculine plural annexed noun, similar in meaning to دَوُو *dhawū* which we discussed in section @ref(zu) above. There is no singular or dual of this noun.

Here is its form in the different cases:

u-case	a-and i-case
أولُو <i>ʾulū</i>	أولي <i>ʾulī</i>

Example:

لأولي الأرحام حُقُوقٌ.

liʾulī -lʾarḥāmi ḥuqūq.

“The people of the wombs (i.e. blood relatives) have rights.”

The feminine counterpart of أولُو *ʾulū* is أولَات *ʾulāt* “women of”. The first syllable again has a short vowel with a silent و.

u-case	a-and i-case
أُولَاتُ <i>ʾulātu</i>	أُولَاتٍ <i>ʾulāti</i>

لأُولَاتِ الْحَمْلِ حُقُوقٌ عَلَى بُعُولَتِهِنَّ.
liʾulāti -lḥamli ḥuqūq ʿalā buʿūlatihinn.

“The women of pregnancy (i.e. pregnant women) have rights upon their husbands.”

14.3.2. أُم *ʾumm*

The noun أُم *ʾumm* “a mother” forms two *āt* sound plural variants:

i. أُمّهَات *ʾummahāt*

ii. أُمّات *ʾummāt*

The first variant أُمّهَات *ʾummahāt* is more commonly used. Example:

أُمّهَاتُ الْغِلْمَانِ طَيِّبَاتٌ.
ʾummahātu -lghilmāni ṭayyibāt.

“The boys’ mothers are good.”

14.3.3. سَنَة *sanah*

The noun سَنَة *sanah* “a year” forms both an *āt* sound plural and an *ūn* sound plural. (Remember from section @ref(applicability-of-the-un-sound-plural) that a few nouns that don’t denote male intelligent beings have *ūn* sound plurals.)

In both plurals, the singular noun is modified irregularly.

Singular	<i>āt</i> sound plural	<i>ūn</i> sound plural (u-case)	<i>ūn</i> sound plural (a-case and i-case)
سَنَة <i>sanah</i>	سَنَوَات <i>sanawāt</i>	سِنُون <i>sinūna</i>	سِنِينَ <i>sinīna</i>

Either of the two plurals may be used interchangeably. Here are some examples:

14.3.4. مَاء *māʾ*

مَاء *māʾ* “a water” forms its broken plural irregularly: مِيَاه *miyāh* “waters”.

14.3.5. شَفَة *shafah*

شَفَة *shafah* “a lip” forms its broken plural irregularly: شِفَاه *shifāh* “lips”.

Also, despite ending in the feminine marker ة, it does not form an *āt* sound plural.

14.3.6. ابْنُ *ibn*, ابْنَةُ *ibnah*, and بِنْتُ *bint*

The noun ابْنُ *ibn* “a son” is from the root بنو. It has two feminine counterparts:

- i. ابْنَةُ *ibnah*
- ii. بِنْتُ *bint*

which mean “a daughter”.

ابْنُ *ibn* “a son” forms both a broken plural and an *ūn* sound plural.

Its broken plural is أَبْنَاءُ *abnā* “sons”.

In forming the *ūn* sound plural, the singular noun is modified irregularly:

Singular	<i>ūn</i> sound plural (u-case)	<i>ūn</i> sound plural (a-case and i-case)
ابْنُ <i>ibn</i>	بَنُونَ <i>banūna</i>	بَنِينَ <i>banīna</i>

The feminine ابْنَةُ and بِنْتُ “a daughter” form the irregular *āt* sound plural بَنَاتٌ *banāt* “daughters”. Note that بَنَاتٌ *banāt* is not a broken plural from the root بنت. Therefore, it obeys the rules of *āt* sound plurals and does not end with َ or ِ in the a-case.

Here are some examples using these nouns:

14.3.7. نَاسٌ *nās*, and أَنَاسٌ *unās*

نَاسٌ *nās* and أَنَاسٌ *unās* are from the root أنس. They both mean “a people”.

When indefinite, only أَنَاسٌ *unās* tends to be used, and نَاسٌ *nās* tends to be unused.

When definite, only النَّاسُ *annās* tends to be used, and الْأَنَاسُ *al-unās* is unused.

Here are some examples using these nouns:

14.3.8. The nouns إِمْرَأٌ and إِمْرَأَةٌ

The nouns إِمْرَأٌ *imra*’ (masc.) “a man, a person” and إِمْرَأَةٌ *imra’ah* (fem.) “a woman” are quite irregular.

Firstly, إِمْرَأَةٌ *imra’ah* “a woman” is, from the perspective, of its meaning, the feminine counterpart of رَجُلٌ *rajul* “a man (male human being)”.

إِمْرَأٌ *imra*’, on the other hand, only means “a man” in a general sense. For example, in the sentence “A man is only as good as his word.” It can also be translated as “a person”.

Secondly, إِمْرَأٌ *imra*’ “a man, a person” has no plural. أَتَاسٌ *unās* “a people” and قَوْمٌ “a population” may be used when a plural is required.

إِمْرَأَةٌ *imra’ah* “a woman” irregularly forms the broken plurals نِسَاءٌ *nīsā*’ and نِسْوَةٌ *niswah* “women”. The former (نِسَاءٌ *nīsā*’) is more commonly used.

Like شَفَاةٌ *shafah* it also, despite ending in the feminine marker ة, does not form an *āt* sound plural.

Thirdly, both nouns are very irregular in how they become definite nouns with **الْ**. When **الْ** is prefixed to these nouns to make them definite, they lose the initial connecting hamzah and change their internal vowels. This table shows what we mean:

Case	Definite of إِمْرَأٌ	Definite of إِمْرَأَةٌ
u-case	الْمَرْءُ 'almar'u	الْمَرْأَةُ 'almar'atu
a-case	الْمَرْءَا 'almar'a	الْمَرْأَاتَا 'almar'ata
i-case	الْمَرْءِي 'almar'i	الْمَرْأَاتِي 'almar'ati

The masculine noun **إِمْرَأٌ** 'imra' has an additional irregularity. When it is indefinite, it irregularly indicates its case, not only on its final letter **ء**, but also on the letter before it **ر**.

It is also permissible for it to behave regularly by indicating its case on its final letter only, but this is not as commonly used.

This table shows what we mean:

Case	Regular indefinite (less common)	Irregular indefinite (more common)
u-case	إِمْرَأٌ 'imra'un	إِمْرُؤٌ 'imru'un
a-case	إِمْرَاءَا 'imra'an	إِمْرَءَا 'imra'an
i-case	إِمْرَأِي 'imra'in	إِمْرِي 'imri'in

Here are some examples of these nouns:

Work in progress

Chapter 15.

The proper noun

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

15.1. Introduction

Proper nouns are also known as names. Here are some examples of Arabic names:

Men's names	Women's names
مُحَمَّد	عَائِشَةُ
Saeid	فَاطِمَةُ
الْحَسَن	حَفْصَةُ
النُّعْمَان	سُمَيَّة
طَلْحَة ²	جَمِيلَة
أُسَامَة ²	زَيْنَب ²
عُثْمَان ²	مَرْيَم ²
عُمَر ²	سُعَاد ²
إِبْرَاهِيم ²	أَسْمَاء ²
عَبْدُ اللَّهِ	لَيْلَى ²
أَبُو بَكْر	أُمُّ حَبِيبَة ²

Place names	Misc. names
مَكَّة ²	رَمَضَان ²
دِمَشْق ²	أُحُد
مِصْر ²	النَّيْل
الْقَاهِرَة	الْفَاتِحَة
الْهِنْد	الْجُمُعَة
Makkah	Ramadān (a month)
Damascus	Uḥud (a mountain)
Egypt	the Nile (a river)
Cairo	the Fātiḥah (a sūrah)
India	Friday

Note the following points from the list above:

- Although some names begin with أَلْ, most don't.
- Many names are semi-flexible (indicated by ٢).
- Some names consist of more than a single word, like عَبْدُ اللَّهِ ʿabd Allāh

We will explain these and more details regarding proper nouns in this chapter.

15.2. Definiteness of proper nouns

Proper nouns differ from common nouns and adjectival nouns in a couple of important ways:

- All proper nouns, even if they don't begin with أَلْ, are definite.
- A proper noun which does not begin with أَلْ, and which is fully-flexible, shall be tanwined, despite being definite.

The above points are exemplified in the following sentence:

ذَهَبْتُ إِلَى بَيْتِ مُحَمَّدٍ الْكَرِيمِ وَزَيْنَبَ الطَّيِّبَةِ.

d̥hahabtu ʾilā bayti muḥammadini -lkarīmi wazaynaba -ṭṭayyibah.

"I went to the house of the noble Muḥammad and the good Zaynab."

Note the above from the above example:

- مُحَمَّدٌ is fully-flexible so it has a tanwined kasrah ِ in the i-case.
- زَيْنَبٌ is semi-flexible so it is not tanwined, and instead has an fatḥah َ in the i-case.
- The proper nouns مُحَمَّد and زَيْنَب are attributees in descriptive noun phrases.
- Their attributes (الْكَرِيم and الطَّيِّبَةِ, respectively) have أَلْ to match the definiteness of the definite proper noun attributees. Furthermore, they both end with ِ because they match the i-case of their attributees.

15.3. Meanings of names

Many names are re-used from common nouns and adjectival nouns with positive meanings. Examples:

- مُحَمَّد Muḥammad "a highly praised one_m"
- سَعِيد Saʿīd "a happy (fortunate) one_m"
- الْحَسَن al-Ḥasan "the good one_m"
- طَلْحَة Ṭalḥah "an acacia (tree)"
- جَمِيلَة Jamīlah "a beautiful one_f"

It is possible for these names to sometimes (technically) cause a sentence to have an ambiguous meaning. For example,

جَلَسَ الْحَسَنُ مَعَ سَعِيدٍ.

jalsa -lhasanu maʿa saʿīd

"al-Ḥasan sat with Saʿīd."

or

"The good one_m sat with a happy (fortunate) one_m."

Context would tell us whether the proper noun or the common/adjectival noun meaning is intended.

Note however the following sentence:

ذَهَبَتْ جَمِيلَةٌ إِلَى الْبَيْتِ.

dhahabat jamilatu 'ila -lbayt.

This sentence can only be understood to use جَمِيلَةٌ with its proper noun meaning:

“Jamilah went to the house.”

This is because جَمِيلَةٌ is semi-flexible as a proper noun and fully-flexible as an adjectival noun or common noun. If جَمِيلَةٌ were intended to be used with its adjectival noun or common noun meaning then it would have a tanwined dammah ٌ and the sentence would be:

ذَهَبَتْ جَمِيلَةٌ إِلَى الْبَيْتِ.

dhahabat jamilatun 'ila -lbayt.

“A beautiful one_f went to the house.”

We will learn why جَمِيلَةٌ is semi-flexible as a proper noun in section @ref(proper-nouns-ending-with-looped-ta) below.

15.4. Flexibility of proper nouns

In this section we will discuss the flexibility of proper nouns. For now, we will deal only with proper nouns that do not begin with أَلْ. In terms of their flexibility, proper nouns consist of two types:

- i. Fully-flexible proper nouns.
- ii. Semi-flexible proper nouns.

We will treat each of them below.

15.4.1. Fully-flexible proper nouns

For names that don't begin with أَلْ, the default assumption is that they are fully-flexible, unless they fall into one of the categories of semi-flexible nouns (which we will study soon).

Examples of fully-flexible names are:

مُحَمَّدٌ	Muḥammad	مُعَاذٌ	Mueādh
نُوحٌ	Nūh	سَعْدٌ	Saʿd
شُعَيْبٌ	Shuʿayb	عَمَّارٌ	ʿammār
عَلِيٌّ	ʿalī	حَسَّانٌ	Ḥassān
زَيْدٌ	Zayd	سَعِيدٌ	Saʿīd
أَنَسٌ	Anas	أُحُدٌ	Uḥud (a mountain)

These are all masculine names.

Examples of sentences with fully-flexible proper nouns:

زَيْدٌ غُلَامٌ طَيِّبٌ.
zaydun ghulāmun ṭayyib
 “Zayd is a good boy.”

شَكَرَ أَنَسٌ عَلِيًّا.
shakara ‘anasun ‘aliyyā.
 “Anas thanked ‘Alī.”

لَبِيسَ سَعِيدٌ قَمِيصَ نُوحٍ الْأَخْضَرَ.
labisa sa‘īdun qamiṣa nūḥini -l’akhḍar.
 “Saeīd wore Nūḥ’s green shirt.”

15.4.2. Semi-flexible proper nouns

The rules for the semi-flexibility of proper nouns are a little different from the rules for the semi-flexibility of common nouns and adjectival nouns that we learned in chapter @ref(semi-flexible-nouns). Proper nouns shall be semi-flexible if they fall under one of the categories below. Note that the categories are not mutually exclusive. That is: some semi-flexible proper nouns will fall into more than one category.

15.4.2.1. Names ending with ʾ

All names ending with ʾ shall be semi-flexible. This rule is specific to proper nouns. We have already seen that common nouns and adjectival nouns that end with ʾ are fully-flexible.

Most such proper nouns are feminine names. Examples:

خَدِيجَةٌ ²	Khadijah	مَيْمُونَةٌ ²	Maymūnah
فَاطِمَةٌ ²	Faṭimah	صَفِيَّةٌ ²	Ṣafiyyah
عَائِشَةٌ ²	‘Ā’ishah	خَوْلَةٌ ²	Khawlah
سُمَيَّةٌ ²	Sumayyah	جَمِيلَةٌ ²	Jamīlah
حَفْصَةٌ ²	Ḥafṣah	آسِيَّةٌ ²	Āsiyah

However, some masculine names may end with ʾ too:

حَمْزَةٌ ²	Ḥamzah	مُعَاوِيَةٌ ²	Mucāwiyah
أُسَامَةٌ ²	Usāmah	عِكْرِمَةٌ ²	‘Ikrimah
طَلْحَةٌ ²	Ṭalḥah	عُبَادَةٌ ²	‘Uḇādah

Example:

طَلْحَةُ الطَّوِيلُ بَعْلُ جَمِيلَةَ الْكَرِيمَةِ.
 “The tall Ṭalḥah is the husband of the generous Jamīlah.”

15.4.2.2. Names ending with an extrinsic اء or ئ

Similar to common nouns and adjectival nouns, all names ending with an extrinsic اء or ئ shall be semi-flexible. These are usually feminine names. Examples:

أَسْمَاءٌ ²	Asmā'	لَيْلَى ²	Laylā
دَرْدَاءٌ ²	Dardā'	سَلْمَى ²	Salmā

Examples in sentences:

ذَهَبَتْ سَلْمَى إِلَى بَيْتِ أَسْمَاءَ.

“Salmā went to Asmā’s house.”

Sentence word order is usually pretty flexible. For stylistic reasons, it is permissible for a direct doer to precede the doer. For example,

سَأَلَتْ دَرْدَاءُ أَسْمَاءَ.

“Asmā asked Dardā”

But because words that end with ئ never display any case, then for these words the sentence word order becomes more rigid. So the following sentence:

سَأَلَتْ لَيْلَى سَلْمَى.

would usually only mean “Laylā asked Salmā.”

15.4.2.3. Names ending with an extrinsic ان

All names ending with an extrinsic ان will be semi-flexible.

This is somewhat different from the rule we learnt for common noun and adjectival nouns in section @ref(adjectival noun-an-diptote). There only adjectival nouns of the pattern فَعْلَان and whose feminine was not formed by adding ة to it were considered semi-flexible nouns.

Examples:

عُثْمَانٌ ²	ʿUthmān	رَمَضَانٌ ²	Ramaḍān
سُفْيَانٌ ²	Sufyān	شُعْبَانٌ ²	Shaʿbān

Example:

جَلَسَ عُثْمَانُ مَعَ سُفْيَانَ فِي رَمَضَانَ.

“ʿUthmān sat with Sufyān in Ramaḍān.”

15.4.2.4. Names on the pattern أَفْعَل

All names on the pattern أَفْعَل shall be semi-flexible. Examples:

أَحْمَدٌ ²	Aḥmad	أَسْعَدٌ ²	Asead
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15.4.2.5. Names of the pattern فُعْل

Names of the pattern فُعْل shall be semi-flexible. Examples:

² عُمَر	ʿumar	² مُصَر	Muḍar
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15.4.2.6. Names that are originally verbs

Names that are originally verbs are semi-flexible. Examples:

- ²يَزِيد Yazīd “He increases”
- ²يَعِيش Yaʿīsh “He lives”

Their origin as verbs will be apparent when we study caseful verbs.

15.4.2.7. Names of foreign origin

Names of foreign origin are generally semi-flexible. These include the names of angels, many of the previous prophets and messengers, and other persons. Examples:

² جِبْرِيل	Jibrīl	² زَكَرِيَّا	Zakariyyā
² إِبْرَاهِيم	Ibrāhīm	² يَحْيَى	Yahyā
² إِسْمَاعِيل	Ismāʿīl	² هَاجِر	Hājar
² إِسْحَاق	Is-ḥāq	² مَرْيَم	Maryam
² يَعْقُوب	Yaʿqūb	² يَأْجُوج	Yaʿjūj
² يُوسُف	Yūsuf	² مَأْجُوج	Maʿjūj
² يُونُس	Yūnus	² إِبْلِيس	Iblīs
² إِدْرِيس	Idrīs	² فِرْعَوْن	Pharoah
² أَيُّوب	Ayyūb	² هِرَقْل	Heraclius
² مُوسَى	Mūsā	² كِسْرَى	Chosroes
² عِيسَى	ʿīsā	² قَيْصَر	Caesar

Note that ²فِرْعَوْن “Pharoah” as ²قَيْصَر “Caesar”, despite being titles, are treated as proper names.

The only exception to this rule is a masculine name of foreign origin that comprises of only three letters, and whose middle letter has an sukūn. Such a name will be fully-flexible. Example:

- نُوح Nūḥ

15.4.2.8. Feminine names

All feminine names, regardless of their origin, or their ending, shall be semi-flexible. We have already given examples of semi-flexible feminine names that end with ة, اء, and ى, so we will provide other examples here:

زَيْنَب ²	Zaynab	مَرْيَم ²	Maryam
سُعَاد ²	Suʿād	هَاجِر ²	Hājar

The only exception to this rule is a feminine name of native Arabic origin, that comprises of only three letters, and whose middle letter has an sukūn. Such a name is permitted to be optionally fully-flexible or semi-flexible. Examples:

- هِنْد Hind
- دَعْدَ Daʿd

Example of usage:

دَهَبَتْ هِنْدٌ إِلَى بَيْتِ دَعْدٍ.

or

دَهَبَتْ هِنْدٌ إِلَى بَيْتِ دَعْدٍ.

“Hind went to Daʿd’s house.

15.5. The name فُلَان

The fully-flexible name فُلَان is used as a place-holder name in casual conversations. It may be translated into English as “so-and-so”. For example,

ظَلَمَ الرَّجُلُ فُلَانًا وَغَدَرَ بِفُلَانٍ. “The man wronged so-and-so and he acted treacherously with so-and-so.”

For females, the name فُلَانَةٌ² is used.

صَدَقَتْ فُلَانَةٌ.

“So-and-so_f told the truth.”

15.6. Irregular spelling of the name عَمْرُو ʿamr

Irregularly, the fully-flexible name ʿamr is written with a unpronounced و at its end: عَمْرُو when in the u-case and i-case. In the a-case, the و is not added.

Name	u-case	a-case	i-case
ʿamr	عَمْرُو ʿamrun	عَمْرًا ʿamran	عَمْرٍو ʿamrin

Some have mentioned that this و was added in the spelling in order to distinguish it from the name عُمَرُ ʿumar, when written without vowel marks. Or it could be the remnant of an older (pre-Islāmic) practice of appending a final و to personal names.¹

¹Al-Jallad, A., “One wāw to rule them all: The origins and fate of wawation in Arabic and its orthography”

15.7. The Replacement

Before we proceed with our discussion on proper nouns, we will take a short digression to discuss a grammatical concept called the *replacement*. We will only give a short preview here and will treat it fully in chapter @ref(the-replacement-chapter).

A *replacement* is a word that follows another word, the *replacee*, and replaces it from the perspective of the grammar of the sentence. The replacement is put in the same case as the replacee. Here is an example of a sentence with a replacement and a replacee:

أَخَذَ الْغُلَامُ شَيْئًا كِتَابًا.

{ replacement }
{ replacee }

“The boy took something: a book”

In the above sentence, the word كِتَابًا “a book” is the replacement of شَيْئًا “something”. Therefore, it is put in the same a-case.

The replacement is frequently used with proper nouns. For example,

ذَهَبَ الْغُلَامُ إِلَى بَيْتِ عَمِّهِ عَلِيٍّ.

“The boy went to his uncle ʿAlī’s house.”

In this sentence, the name عَلِيٍّ ʿAlī is the replacement of the replacee عَمِّ “uncle”. Note, again, that the replacement comes after the replacee and matches it in case. However, the replacement does not need to come directly after the replacee. We can see that there is the pronoun هـ “his” between them.

Here is another example:

سَأَلَ الطَّالِبُ مُعَاذَ الْمُعَلِّمِ سَاعِدًا.

“The student Muʿādh asked the teacher Saʿd.”

15.8. Annexed names

So far we have only dealt with proper nouns that are single words. There are some proper nouns that may be formed from two words that are in an annexation. These belong to different categories:

15.8.1. “Slave of” names

Some names are formed by annexing the noun عَبْدُ *ʿabd* “a slave” to one of the names of Allāh. The most common of these names are:

- عَبْدُ اللَّهِ ʿabd Allāh “the Slave of Allāh”
- عَبْدُ الرَّحْمَنِ ʿabd al-Raḥmān “the Slave of the Most Merciful”

As usual, the annexed-to noun shall always be in the i-case. And the case of the annexed noun عَبْدُ is variable, depending on it’s function in the sentence. Example:

عَبْدُ اللَّهِ هُوَ أَخُو عَبْدِ الرَّحْمَنِ. “ʿabd Allāh is the brother of ʿabd al-Raḥmān.”

15.8.2. “Parent of” names

It is common to call a man, not by his own given name, but rather by calling him the father of one of his children, usually his first born son. For example, if a man named أَحْمَد “Aḥmad” had a son named زَيْد “Zayd”, he may be called أَبُو زَيْد Abū Zayd “Zayd’s father”. Example of usage in a sentence:

ذَهَبْتُ إِلَى بَيْتِ أَبِي زَيْدٍ.

“I went to Abū Zayd’s house.”

(Note how زَيْد has a tanwined kasrah ِ in the i-case because it is fully-flexible.)

While using the name of first-born son is more common, a daughter’s name could be used as well. Example,

سَأَلْتُ أَبَا رُقَيْيَةَ سُؤَالَ.

“I asked Abū Ruqayyah a question.”

(Note how رُقَيْيَةَ has an fatḥah َ in the i-case because it is semi-flexible.)

Women, too, are similarly called as the mother of one of their children. For example, the wife of the Prophet (may Allāh grant peace and confer blessing upon him) اُمُّ حَبِيبَةَ² Umm Ḥabībah was called thus because she had a daughter named حَبِيبَةَ² from a previous marriage.

By the way, a person need not literally be a father or a mother to be called in such a way. These names may be applied as nicknames.

For example, the Companion of the Prophet (may Allāh grant peace and confer blessing upon him) was called أَبُو هُرَيْرَةَ² Abū Hurayrah because it is reported that he used to have a pet kitten (هُرَيْرَةٌ). Here is an example of this name in a sentence.

أَبُو هُرَيْرَةَ صَحَابِيٌّ جَلِيلٌ.

“Abū Hurayrah is a great Companion.”

(Note how هُرَيْرَةٌ is now considered a semi-flexible proper noun even though it may originally have been derived from the common noun “a kitten”).

Similarly, the Companion أَبُو بَكْرٍ Abū Bakr is not known to have a son named بَكْرٌ.

It is often the case that a “parent of” name overtakes the actual given name of person in popularity, and becomes the person’s name for all intents and purposes. Such is indeed the case for the Companions أَبُو بَكْرٍ Abū Bakr and أَبُو هُرَيْرَةَ² Abū Hurayrah.

15.8.3. “Son of” names

In a manner similar to “parent of” names, a person may be referred to as the son of his parent. For example, the Companion عُمَرُ² ʿUmar had a son named عَبْدُ اللَّهِ ʿabd Allāh. He is commonly known as ابْنُ عُمَرَ² Ibn ʿUmar “ʿUmar’s son”.

Attributing a son to his father is most common. But attributing him to a mother or other ancestor is also possible.

Examples:

- the Companion عَمَّار was affectionately called ²ابْنُ سُمَيَّةِ Ibn Sumayyah “Sumayyah’s son” by the Prophet (may Allāh grant peace and confer blessing upon him). His mother Sumayyah was an early martyr in Islām.
- the famous scholar كَثِير ²ابْنُ Kathīr is referred to by his grandfather’s name كَثِير Kathīr.
- a human being is called ²ابْنُ آدَمَ based on his being a descendent of the first man, the Prophet Adam.

15.8.3.1. Full names

The full name of a person is formed by putting his given name first, and then his “son of” name after it as a replacement. Here is an example of a full name:

زَيْدُ بْنُ عَلِيٍّ

Zayd the son of ʿAlī

Note some peculiarities of the full name:

- The name زَيْد “Zayd” has lost its tanwīn.
- The word بْنُ “son” is not written with its initial connecting hamzah ʾ.

These peculiarities are only when forming a full name in this manner. Consider for example the following sentence:

زَيْدُ بْنُ عَلِيٍّ.

“Zayd is the son of ʿAlī.”

In the above example, the name زَيْد is tanwīned and ابْن is written with its connecting hamzah ʾ. Therefore this is not an expression of the full name in a replacee-replacement format. Rather, ابْنُ أَحْمَد here is the info of the sentence.

For women, the word بِنْت is used instead of ابْن.

Example:

قَرَأَتِ الْمُعَلِّمَةُ كِتَابَ الطَّالِبَةِ زَيْنَبِ بِنْتِ أَحْمَدَ.

“The teacher read the book of the student Zaynab the daughter of Aḥmad.”

The names of multiple forefathers may be strung together in this way separated by ابْن. For example:

إِسْمُ نَبِيِّنَا مُحَمَّدُ بْنُ عَبْدِ اللَّهِ بْنِ عَبْدِ الْمُطَّلِبِ.

“Our prophet’s name is Muḥammad the son of ʿabd Allāh the son of ʿabd al-Muṭṭalib.”

(Note that the second ابْن is in the i-case to match the case of the annexed noun عَبْدُ اللَّهِ in عَبْدُ اللَّهِ بْنِ عَبْدِ الْمُطَّلِبِ.)

We will deal with complete full names in section @ref(complete-full-names) below.

15.8.4. Other annexed names

Other words besides عَبْد, أَب, أُمُّ, and ابْن may be used in annexed names too. Here are some examples:

- ذُو الْقَرْنَيْنِ Dhu l-Qarnayn “He of the two horns”

- مَدِينَةُ النَّبِيِّ *madīnatu -nnabiyyi* “The City of the Prophet”, frequently reduced to simply اَلْمَدِينَةُ “al-Madīnah”.

Context is used to infer whether by اَلْمَدِينَةُ is meant “al-Madīnah” or “the city”.

- اَمْرُؤُ الْقَيْسِ Imru’ al-Qays “The man of al-Qays”, a pre-Islāmic poet.

15.9. Names beginning with اَلْ

Most names do not begin with اَلْ. Some, however, do begin with اَلْ. Examples:

اَلْحَسَنُ	al-Ḥasan	اَلزُّبَيْرُ	al-Zubayr
اَلْحُسَيْنُ	al-Ḥusayn	اَلنُّعْمَانُ	al-Nuʿmān
اَلْعَبَّاسُ	al-ʿabbās	اَلْحَارِثُ	al-Ḥārith

If a proper noun begins with اَلْ then the question of its flexibility is mostly irrelevant. This is because noun beginning with اَلْ display their case fully, regardless of whether or not they are semi-flexible without the اَلْ. Examples:

اَلْحَسَنُ حَفِيدُ رَسُولِ اَللّٰهِ صَلَّى اَللّٰهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ.
“al-Ḥasan is the grandson of the messenger of Allāh (may Allāh grant peace and confer blessing upon him).”

(u-case displayed with ُ.)

سَأَلَ الرَّجُلُ اَلنُّعْمَانَ عَنْ أَمْرٍ.
“The man asked al-Nuʿmān about a matter.”

(a-case displayed with َ.)

ذَهَبْتُ إِلَى بَيْتِ اَلنُّعْمَانِ.
“I went to al-Nuʿmān’s house.”

(i-case displayed with ِ.)

Names that begin with اَلْ can sometimes lose their initial اَلْ. Sometimes, this is systematic, as we will learn in section @ref(calling-names-with-al). Other times, it’s hard to tell why.

Conversely, names that don’t begin with اَلْ can sometimes gain it.

Examples:

- The name of the daughter of the Companion أَبُو اَلدَّرْدَاءِ Abu l-Dardā’ is actually دَرْدَاءٌ² Dardā’, not اَلدَّرْدَاءُ.
- The son of the uncle of the Prophet (may Allāh grant peace and confer blessing upon him) اَلْعَبَّاسُ al-ʿabbās is called اِبْنُ عَبَّاسٍ Ibn ʿabbās, not اِبْنُ اَلْعَبَّاسِ.

However, the son of اَلزُّبَيْرُ al-Zubayr is called اِبْنُ اَلزُّبَيْرِ Ibn al-Zubayr with the اَلْ.

15.10. Place names

Place names are generally feminine. Because of their feminine gender, those not beginning with **أَلْ** will be semi-flexible according to section @ref(feminine-names) above.

Examples of place names are:

² مَكَّة	Makkah	اَلْمَدِينَة	al-Madinah
² دِمَشْق	Damascus	اَلْقَاهِرَة	Cairo
² بَغْدَاد	Baghdād	اَلْهِنْد	India
² مِصْر	Egypt	اَلصِّين	China
² فَارِس	Persia	اَلرُّوم	Rome
² تَبُوك	Tabūk	اَلْبَصْرَة	Başrah

Example of use:

ذَهَبَ الرَّجُلُ إِلَى مَكَّةَ الْمُكْرَمَةِ وَالْمَدِينَةِ الْمُنَوَّرَةِ.

“The man went to the ennobled Makkah and the illuminated al-Madinah.”

While most place names are feminine, a few are masculine. Among these are:

اَلْيَمَن	Yemen	اَلشَّام	the Levant
اَلْعِرَاق	Iraq		

15.11. Names of tribes

Here are examples of names of tribes:

قُرَيْش	Quraysh	اَلْأَوْس	al-Aws
بَنُو تَمِيم	Banū Tamīm	اَلْخَزْرَج	al-Khazraj
² هَوَازِن	Hawāzin	بَنُو إِسْرَائِيل	Banū Isrāʾīl

Tribes are usually called by the name of their progenitor. For example, ²إِسْرَائِيل Isrāʾīl is a name of the Prophet ²يَعْقُوب Yaeqūb. The *ūn* sound plural ²بَنُونَ “sons/children” is annexed to the name ²إِسْرَائِيل Isrāʾīl to get the name of the tribe ²بَنُو إِسْرَائِيل Banū Isrāʾīl “the children of Isrāʾīl”. In the a-case and i-case, this becomes ²بَنِي إِسْرَائِيل Banī Isrāʾīl.

Not all tribe names have ²بَنُونَ “sons” annexed to them, but many do. And often it is optional to keep or drop the annexed ²بَنُونَ. Examples:

- قُرَيْش Quraysh usually does not have ²بَنُونَ annexed to it.
- ²بَنُو تَمِيم Banū Tamīm may optionally drop the annexed ²بَنُونَ and be called simply تَمِيم Tamīm.

15.11.1. Flexibility of tribe names

The flexibility of tribe names depends on the name. Here are some examples:

- ²إِسْرَائِيل Isrā'īl is a name of foreign origin and is therefore semi-flexible.
Example:
بَعَثَ اللَّهُ مُوسَى إِلَىٰ بَنِي إِسْرَائِيلَ.
“Allāh sent Mūsā to the children of Isrā'īl.”
- قُرَيْشٌ Quraysh and تَمِيمٌ Tamīm are native Arabic masculine names and are therefore fully-flexible. Example:
قُرَيْشٌ وَبَنُو تَمِيمٍ قَبِيلَتَانِ.
“Quraysh and Banū Tamīm are tribes₂.”
- ²هَوَازِن Hawāzin is on the semi-flexible noun pattern ²فَعَاْف and is therefore semi-flexible.

15.11.2. Gender of tribe names

Tribe names are unusual in that they are treated as both singular feminine and plural masculine. If the tribe name is the doer of a verb then it is usually treated as singular feminine. Otherwise, for example, if it comes before the verb, then the plural masculine pronouns are used for it.

Example:

سَكَنَتْ قُرَيْشٌ مَكَّةَ وَعَبَدُوا الْأَصْنَامَ.
“Quraysh dwelled in Makkah and they worshipped idols.”

15.12. Titles

Titles are common nouns that denote a rank or position of a person. Titles in English include: Doctor, Mister, and King. For example:

- King David
- Mr. Smith
- Dr. Adams

Here are some examples of titles in Arabic:

النَّبِيُّ	Prophet	الإِمَامُ	Imām
الْمَلِكُ	King	الشَّيْخُ	Shaykh
الْأَمِيرُ	Commander	الْحَافِظُ	Hāfiḍh
الْقَاضِي	Judge	الْأُسْتَاذُ	Professor

Some Arabic titles are left untranslated in English like

- الإِمَامُ Imām (a leader)
- الشَّيْخُ Shaykh (a venerable man)
- الْحَافِظُ Hāfiḍh (one who has memorized, and preserved religious texts)

15.12.1. Titles as replacees

Titles are usually placed in front a proper noun and made definite with **الْ** to match the proper noun. For example,

سَأَلَ رَجُلٌ الْإِمَامَ مَالِكًا عَنْ أَمْرٍ.

“A man asked Imām Mālik about a matter.”

In the above sentence, the title **الْإِمَامَ** Imām is a replacee and the name **مَالِكًا** Mālik is the replacement.

Some titles are formed from annexations. Examples:

خَلِيفَةُ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ	the Successor of the Messenger of Allāh	سَيْفُ اللَّهِ	the Sword of Allāh
أَمِيرُ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ	the Commander of the Believers	عِمَادُ الدِّينِ	the Pillar of the Faith
أُمُّ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ	the Mother of the Believers	صَلَاحُ الدِّينِ	the Righteousness of the Faith

Example:

أُمُّ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ عَائِشَةُ هِيَ ابْنَةُ خَلِيفَةِ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ أَبِي بَكْرٍ.

“The Mother of the Believers ʿĀʾishah is the daughter of the Successor of the Messenger of Allāh Abū Bakr.”

15.12.2. Titles in annexations

Some prominent inanimate objects, like mountains, rivers, and cities, may have titles. For example:

- Mount Everest
- the river Nile
- the city of Damascus

In Arabic, the titles for these objects usually don't occur as replacees as they do for persons. Rather, the title is annexed to the proper noun in an annexation. Examples:

جَبَلُ أُحُدٍ	Mount Uhud	مَدِينَةُ دِمَشْقٍ	the city of Damascus
نَهْرُ النَّيْلِ	the river Nile	شَهْرُ رَمَضَانَ	the month of Ramaḍān
يَوْمُ الْجُمُعَةِ	the day of Friday	سُورَةُ الْفَاتِحَةِ	the Sūrah of al-Fātiḥah

Example:

قَرَأَتِ الْغَارِيَةُ سُورَةَ الْفَاتِحَةِ فِي شَهْرِ رَمَضَانَ.

“The girl read the Sūrah of al-Fātiḥah in the month of Ramaḍān.”

15.13. Nicknames

Nicknames are often given to people. They are usually descriptive of some physical quality or character trait of the person. For example, the Companion Abū Bakr was given the nickname **الصَّدِيق** “the steadfast affirmer of the truth”.

Nicknames usually come after a person’s name as a replacement.

أَبُو بَكْرٍ الصَّدِيقُ هُوَ خَلِيفَةُ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ.

“Abū Bakr the steadfast affirmer of the truth is the successor of the messenger of Allāh.”

قَرَأَ سُلَيْمَانُ الْأَعْمَسُ الْقُرْآنَ.

“Sulaymān the weak-sighted read the Qur’ān.”

15.14. The affiliate adjectival noun

The affiliate adjectival noun is a kind of adjectival noun that indicates an affiliation.

Here are some examples of affiliate adjectival nouns:

عِرَاقِيّ	an Iraqi	قُرَشِيّ	a Qurayshite
مَكِّيّ	a Makkan	تَمِيمِيّ	a Tamīmian
دِمَشْقِيّ	a Damascan	إِسْرَائِيلِيّ	an Isrā’īlite
شَافِعِيّ	a Shāfi‘ite	حَنَفِيّ	a Ḥanafī
مَالِكِيّ	a Mālikī	حَنْبَلِيّ	a Ḥanbalī

Note the following about affiliate adjectival nouns:

- Generally, the ending **يّ** -iyy is suffixed to a noun to create an affiliate adjectival noun.
- The **ة** ending is removed before adding the **يّ** -iyy suffix.
- Sometimes there are other internal changes to the word before this suffix is added. For example,

– **قُرَيْش** becomes **قُرَشِيّ**

- The affiliate adjectival noun may be formed from any of the names of a person. (Usually, one of the more distinctive names is chosen.) For example:

– A follower of the school of thought of **أَبُو حَنِيفَةَ** Imām Abū Ḥanīfah is called **حَنَفِيّ** “a Ḥanafī”.

– A follower of the school of thought of **حَنْبَلُ بْنُ أَحْمَدَ** Imām Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal is called **حَنْبَلِيّ** “a Ḥanbalī”.

We will treat adjectival nouns more fully in chapter @ref(the-affiliate-adjective-chapter).

Affiliate adjectival nouns frequently occur with proper nouns. They come after the proper noun as a replacement, and are made definite by **الْ** to match the proper noun in definiteness. Examples:

إِبْنُ كَثِيرٍ الدَّمَشْقِيُّ مَفْسِّرٌ وَمُؤَرِّخٌ.

“Ibn Kathīr the Damascan is an exegete and a historian.”

15.15. Complete full names

We have already studied how a basic full name is formed in section @ref(full-names). Here, we will expand on that topic.

The complete full name of a person is formed by placing some or all of his different names in a particular order. Each name in the order is a replacement of one of the names before it. Generally, the order is:

- i. Titles
- ii. “Father of” name
- iii. Given name
- iv. “Son of” names
- v. Affiliate names

The nickname’s position is variable.

Here are some examples of full names in varying degrees of completeness:

عَائِشَةُ هِيَ ابْنَةُ خَلِيفَةِ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ أَبِي بَكْرٍ الصِّدِّيقِ.

“‘Ā’ishah is the daughter of the Successor of the Messenger of Allāh, Abū Bakr, the steadfast affirmer of the truth.”

قَتَلَ أَبُو لَوْلُؤَةَ الْمَجُوسِيُّ أَمِيرَ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ أَبَا حَفْصٍ عُمَرَ بْنَ الْخَطَّابِ.

“Abū Lu’lu’ah, the Magian killed the Commander of the Believers, Abū Ḥaḥṣ, Ḥumar the son of al-Khaṭṭāb.”

الْحَافِظُ الْمُؤَرِّخُ الْمَفْسِّرُ عِمَادُ الدِّينِ أَبُو الْفِدَاءِ إِسْمَاعِيلُ بْنُ عُمَرَ بْنِ كَثِيرٍ الْقُرَشِيُّ الدَّمَشْقِيُّ الشَّافِعِيُّ

“The Ḥāfiḥ, the historian, the exegete, the Pillar of the Faith, the father of al-Fidā’, Ismā’il the son of Ḥumar the son of Kathīr, the Qurayshite, the Damascan, the Shāfi‘ite”

(Note how the second **بن** is in the i-case because it is a replacement of **عُمَرَ** which is in the i-case because it is an annexed-to noun of the first **بن**.)

Chapter 16.

Calling out

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

16.1. Introduction

When calling out to someone in Arabic, the particle *yā* is usually prefixed to the person's name. For example,

اَلْسَّلَامُ عَلَيْكُمْ يَا زَيْنَبُ.
'*assalāmu ealaykum yā zaynabu.*
“Peace be upon you, O Zaynab.”

There are different rules regarding the case endings of the noun following *yā* and we will describe them in the following sections.

16.2. Calling out to specific persons

16.2.1. Using single word personal names

When a specific person is called out to, and the name used to call him consists of a single word, then that word shall be in the u-case. The sentence above is an example of this rule where the name زَيْنَبُ *zaynabu* “Zaynab” is in the u-case.

If the word would be tanwined, then the tanwīn is dropped. So, for example, the name زَيْدُ *zaydu* “Zayd” usually is tanwined. But when used for being called out to, the tanwīn is dropped and it becomes:

اَلْسَّلَامُ عَلَيْكُمْ يَا زَيْدُ.
'*assalāmu ealaykum yā zaydu.*
“Peace be upon you, O Zayd.”

16.2.2. Using single word indefinite common nouns

The examples above show the person being called out to using a personal name. Instead of a personal name, a common noun can also be used with the same rule. Examples:

الْصَّلَامُ عَلَيْكُمْ يَا غُلَامُ.

ʾassalāmu ʿalaykum yā ghulāmu.

“Peace be upon you, O you boy.”

الْصَّلَامُ عَلَيْكُمْ يَا جَارِيَّةَ.

ʾassalāmu ʿalaykum yā jāriyatu.

“Peace be upon you, O you girl.”

In English, we have shown that a specific person is being called using the word “you”, e.g., “O you boy”. Duals and plurals are also allowed, again with the same rule:

يَا رِجَالُ، قَدْ حَدَثَ أَمْرٌ.

yā rijālu qad ḥadatha ʾamrun.

“O you men, a matter has occurred.”

Note how the word رِجَالُ *rijālu* “men” is not tanwined because the word is used to call out to the specific persons.

Similarly,

يَا لَاعِبَانِ بَدَأْتُمَا اللَّعِبَ وَمَا فَعَلْتُمَا الْعَمَلَ.

yā lāʿibāni badaʾtuma -llaʿiba wamā faʿaltuma -lʿamal.

“O you players, you have started playing and you have not done the work.”

16.2.3. Using single word definite common nouns

When using a common noun to call out to a person, especially if the common noun is a title, it is often desired to make the common noun definite with ال. In this case, the particle يَا *yā* is modified to أَيُّهَا *ʾayyuhā*, or sometimes يَا أَيُّهَا *yā ʾayyuhā*. Examples:

يَا أَيُّهَا الْأُسْتَاذُ، قَدْ فَعَلْتُ الْوَاجِبَ.

yā ʾayyuhā -lʾustādhu, qad faʿaltu -lwājiba

“O you the Professor, I have done the obligatory [work].”

أَنَا سَقِيمٌ أَيُّهَا الطَّبِيبُ.

ʾana saqīmun, ʾayyuhā -ṭṭabību.

“I am ill, O you the Doctor.”

If the person being called out to is feminine, then أَيُّهَا *ʾayyuhā* is modified to أَيَّتُهَا *ʾayyatuḥā*. For example:

أَيَّتُهَا الْمُعَلِّمَةُ، هَذَا كِتَابِي.

ʾayyatuḥa -lmueallimatu, hādḥā kitābi.

“O you the teacher, this is my book.”

16.2.4. Using multiple words

The above discussion pertains to calling out to the addressed person with a single word. Often times a person’s name may consist of multiple words. For example:

• عَبْدُ اللَّهِ

ʿabdu -llāhi

“ʿabd Allāh”

- أَبُو بَكْرٍ
ʾabū bakrīn
“Abū Bakr”
- صَلَاحُ الدِّينِ
ṣalāḥu -ddīni
“Salāḥ ad-Dīn”

In this case, then instead of the u-case, the word is put into the a-case. Furthermore, the tanwīn, if any, is preserved. Examples:

مَا عَرَفْتُ ذَٰلِكَ الرَّجُلَ، يَا عَبْدَ اللَّهِ.
mā ʿaraftu dhālika -rrajula, yā ʿabda -llāhi.
“I have not recognized that man, O ʿabd Allāh.”

يَا أَبَا بَكْرٍ، أَنْتَ رَجُلٌ كَرِيمٌ.
yā ʾabā bakrīn, ʾanta rajulun karīmun
“O Abū Bakr, You are a noble man.”

يَا صَلَاحُ الدِّينِ، صَبَرْتَ فَتَنَصَّرَكَ اللَّهُ.
yā ṣalāḥa -ddīni, ṣabarta fanaṣaraka -llāhu.
“O Salāḥ ad-Dīn, you were patient so Allāh gave you victory.”

If, instead of a personal name, a noun phrase consisting of multiple words is used to call out to a person, then in this case as well, the first noun shall be in the a-case. Examples:

يَا أَمِيرَ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ، قَدْ حَضَرَ الْقَوْمُ.
yā ʾamīra -lmuʾminīna, qad ḥaḍara -lqawmu.
“O Commander of the Believers, the people are present.”

يَا ابْنَ أَخِي، قَدْ سَقَطَ قَلَمُكَ عَلَى الْأَرْضِ.
yā -bna ʾakhi, qad saqata qalamuka.
“O my nephew, your pen has fallen on the ground.”

يَا تَلَامِيذَ الْمَدْرَسَةِ، الْعِلْمُ أَمَانَةٌ.
yā talāmīdha -lmaḍrasati, -lʿilmu ʾamānatun.
“O pupils of the school, knowledge is a trust.”

When multiple words are used to call out to a person, the second word in the noun-chain may be a pronoun. Here too, the first noun shall be in the a-case. Examples:

يَا أَبَانَا
yā ʾabānā
“O our father”

16.3. Calling out to unspecified persons

All the discussion so far has pertained to calling out to specific persons. So for example, when you say,

يَا مُسْلِمُ، نَصْرُ اللَّهِ قَرِيبٌ.
yā muslimu, naṣru -llāhi qaribun.
“O you Muslim, the victory of Allāh is near.”

then you are addressing a specific Muslim, who is perhaps in front of you.

If an unspecified person or persons are being called out, then the word used to call out is put into the a-case. Furthermore, the tanwīn, if any, is preserved. So if you want to address any unspecified Muslim, you will say:

يَا مُسْلِمًا، نَصْرُ اللَّهِ قَرِيبٌ.

yā musliman, naṣru -llāhi qarībun.

“O [any] Muslim, the victory of Allāh is near.”

If multiple words are used, whether or not the person called out to is specific or unspecified, then too the first noun is put in the a-case.

يَا لَاعِبِي لُعَابٍ، الْوَقْتُ ثَمِينٌ.

yā lāʿibī luʿabīni, -lwaqtu thamīnun.

“O [any] players of games, time is precious.”

16.4. Omitting يَا yā

When calling out to someone, it is permissible to omit the يَا yā, especially when the person being called is very near. So, instead of saying,

يَا زَيْدُ، سُؤْلكَ جَيِّدٌ.

yā zaydu, suʾāluka jayyidun.

“O Zayd, your question is excellent.”

it is permissible to say:

زَيْدُ، سُؤْلكَ جَيِّدٌ.

zaydu, suʾāluka jayyidun.

“Zayd, your question is excellent.”

Note that even when يَا yā is omitted the name زَيْدُ zaydu “Zayd” is in the u-case without any tanwīn.

This usage is especially common when supplicating to Allāh with the word رَبُّ rabbun “lord”, to emphasize the closeness of Allāh to the supplicator. For example,

رَبَّنَا لَكَ الْحَمْدُ.

rabbānā laka -lḥamdu.

“Our Lord, for you is [all] praise.”

16.5. Shortening the attached pronoun يَ ī “my”

When calling someone with the pronoun “my”, for example “O my people”, it is common to shorten the attached pronoun يَ ī “my” to an kasrah ِ. So while the following is permissible,

يَا قَوْمِي

yā qawmī

“O my people”

it is more common to say:

يَا قَوْمِ

yā qawmī

“O my people”

This usage is especially common when supplicating to Allāh with the phrase رَبِّ rabbi “my Lord”.

16.6. Calling out to Allāh by name

When calling out to Allāh by name, it is permissible to prefix the name Allāh with يَا. So we can say:

يَا اَللّٰهُ
yā 'allāhu
“O Allāh”

Note that the word اَللّٰهُ 'allāhu now has a regular hamzah ا instead of a connecting hamzah ه.

However, instead of saying يَا اَللّٰهُ yā 'allāhu for “O Allāh”, it is in fact more common to use a special word:

اَللّٰهُمَّ
'allāhumma
“O Allāh”

Examples:

اَللّٰهُمَّ اَنْتَ السَّلَامُ وَمِنْكَ السَّلَامُ.
'allāhumma 'anta -ssalāmu waminika -ssalāmu.
“O Allāh, You are Peace and from You is peace.”

اَللّٰهُمَّ اَنْتَ الصَّاحِبُ فِي السَّفَرِ.
'allāhumma 'anta -ṣṣāhibu fi -ssafari.
“O Allāh, You are the companion in the journey.”

Work in progress

Chapter 17.

The pointing nouns

Warning

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17.1. Introduction

Consider the following expression:

this book
└──┬──┘
pointing noun pointed-to noun

The word “this” is what we will call a *pointing noun*. We call it this because we can imagine standing next to a book and pointing to it and saying “this book”.

The word “book” here is similarly called the *pointed-to noun*. It refers to the object being pointed to.

17.2. The pointing nouns in Arabic

There are two types of pointing nouns:

- i. Near pointing nouns: “this-one” (singular) and “these-ones” (dual and plural).
- ii. Far pointing nouns: “that-one” (singular) and “those-ones” (dual and plural).

The following are the pointing nouns in Arabic:

Participant	Case	Near pointing noun		Far pointing noun	
sing. masc.	all	هَذَا	this one _m	ذَلِكَ	that one _m
sing. fem.	all	هَذِهِ	this one _f	تِلْكَ	that one _f
dual masc.	u	هَذَانِ	these ones _{2,m}	ذَئِكَ	those ones _{2,m}
dual masc.	a,i	هَذَيْنِ	these ones _{2,m}	ذَيْنِكَ	those ones _{2,m}
dual fem.	u	هَاتَانِ	these ones _{2,f}	تَانِكَ	those ones _{2,f}
dual fem.	a,i	هَاتَيْنِ	these ones _{2,f}	تَيْنِكَ	those ones _{2,f}
plural	all	هَؤُلَاءِ	these ones ₃	أُولَئِكَ	those ones ₃

Note the following:

- Many of the pointing nouns contain small alif ِ. For most of them, this is how they must be written. It would be incorrect to write هَذَا *hādḥā* as هَادًا.
- All the near pointing nouns begin with a ه. And all the far pointing nouns end with ك.
- The و in اُولَئِكَ *ulā'ika* is silent and not pronounced. That is, the first syllable has a short vowel *u*, not the long vowel *ū*.
- Most of the pointing nouns are rigid nouns. That is: their endings are not modified for their case.
The dual pointing nouns, however, are flexible nouns, for example: هَذَانِ (u-case) / هَذَيْنِ *hādḥayni* (a-case and i-case).
- The pointing nouns for the plural are the same for both masculine and feminine genders.

17.3. Definiteness of pointing nouns

The pointing nouns share some similarities with pronouns هُوَ، هِيَ، etc. Just like pronouns, pointing nouns, too, are definite nouns even though they don't have أَف.

Remember, however, from section @ref(attributes-with-annexations-to-pronouns), that pronouns may not be attributees. Pointing nouns are different from pronouns in this regard. It is allowed to describe a pointing noun with a attribute in a noun phrase.

Both these facts will prove useful in the next section.

17.4. Pointing noun for plurals of non-intelligent beings

Consistent with how we have been dealing with the so far, , we can choose between the following pointing nouns for the plurals of non-intelligent beings:

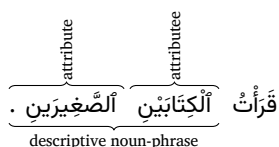
	Near point- ing noun	Far pointing noun			
sing. fem.	all	هَذِهِ	this one _f	تِلْكَ	that one _f
plural	all	هَؤُلَاءِ	these ones ₃	أُولَئِكَ	those ones ₃

The singular feminine pointing noun is usually preferred, unless the plural pointing noun is needed to indicate that there is more than one. We will be giving examples throughout this chapter.

17.5. The pointing noun phrase

Remember from chapter @ref(adjectival nouns-and-descriptive-noun-phrases) that a descriptive noun-phrase consists of a attribute and a attributee. The attribute follows the attribute and matches it in definiteness, case, gender, and number.

Here is an example of a descriptive noun-phrase in a sentence.



"I read the small books."

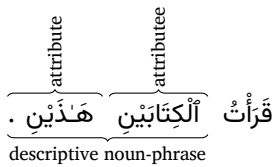
We will now see how this same descriptive noun-phrase can be used with pointing nouns.

17.5.1. Pointing to a single noun

We will first deal with nouns that are single words, like الْكِتَابَيْنِ above. In section @ref(pointing-to-an-annexation) below, we will deal with nouns that are part of an annexation, like كِتَابِي الرَّجُلِ.

17.5.1.1. The pointed-to noun noun is definite with أَلْ

Just like an adjectival noun, a pointing noun can be a attribute in a noun-phrase. But remember from section @ref(definiteness-of-pointing nouns) above that pointing nouns are definite. So, if a pointing noun is a attribute in a noun-phrase, the attributee has to be definite too. Example:



“I read these books.”

(literally: “I read the these-ones books.”)

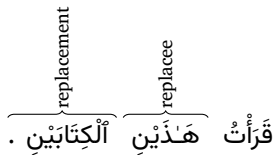
In the above example, the pointed-to noun *الْكِتَابَيْنِ* is the attributee in a descriptive noun-phrase. It is definite, in the a-case, masculine, and dual.

The pointing noun *هَذَيْنِ* is its attribute. It follows the attributee and matches it being dual, in the a-case, masculine, and dual.

As a special case, when the pointed-to noun has *أَنَّ* (as in this case: *الْكِتَابَيْنِ*), then the order of the pointing noun and the pointed-to noun is permitted to be reversed.

The pointing noun is then a replacee (see section @ref(the-replacement)), and the pointed-to noun is its replacement.

Example:



“I read these books.”

(literally: “I read the books: these-ones.”)

In the above example, the pointing noun *هَذَيْنِ* is a replacee. It is definite, in the a-case, masculine, and dual.

The pointed-to noun *الْكِتَابَيْنِ* is its replacement. It follows the replacee and matches it being dual, in the a-case, masculine, and dual.

As a matter of fact, even though both orders are permitted, this reverse order of placing the pointing noun first and following it with the pointed-to noun is more common.

Here are some more examples of pointing noun phrases when the pointed-to noun is definite with *أَنَّ*:

هَذَا الرَّجُلُ الْكَرِيمُ إِمَامٌ.

الرَّجُلُ الْكَرِيمُ هَذَا إِمَامٌ.

“This noble man is an imām.”

17.5.1.2. The pointed-to noun is a proper noun

Remember that proper nouns are definite nouns, even though they usually don’t begin with *أَنَّ*. For example:

زَيْدٌ	Zayd	الْحَارِثُ	al-Hārith
زَيْنَبٌ ²	Zaynab	قُرَيْشٌ	Quraysh

Such names may also be part of a pointing noun phrase. If they don't begin with *أل* then only the [pointed-to noun noun first, then pointing noun] order is permitted. Example:

زَيْدٌ هَذَا أَخُو زَيْنَبَ تِلْكَ.

"This Zayd is that Zaynab's brother."

قُرَيْشٌ هَؤُلَاءِ سَكَنُوا بِمَكَّةَ.

"These Quraysh dwelled in Makkah."

If the name begins with *أل* then both orders are permitted.

هَذَا الْحَارِثُ

الْحَارِثُ هَذَا

"this al-Hārith"

17.5.2. Pointing to an annexation

Consider the following expression:

"the man's book"

We can apply the pointing noun "this" to either "the book" or to "the man" in a pointing noun phrase. So we have two options:

- i. "the book of this man"
- ii. "this book of the man"

Similarly, consider the following expression:

"Zayd's book"

We can, again, apply the pointing noun "this" to either "the book" or to "Zayd":

- i. "the book of this Zayd"
- ii. "this book of Zayd"

In this section we will learn how to construct these pointing noun phrases in Arabic. Arabic uses annexations to express the above meanings. So we will discuss annexations like:

كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ

"the book of the man"

and

كِتَابُ زَيْدٍ

"the book of Zayd"

Note that both the above annexations are definite because their annexed-to nouns are definite.

Indefinite annexations like كِتَابُ رَجُلٍ "a man's book" cannot be used in pointing noun phrases.

17.5.2.1. The definite annexed-to noun begins with اَلْ

We will first consider annexations where the definite annexed-to noun begins with اَلْ, like:

كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ
“the book of the man”

17.5.2.1.1. Pointing to the annexed-to noun

We would like to express the phrase:

“the book of this man”

In order to point to the annexed-to noun اَلرَّجُلِ “the man” with the pointing noun هَذَا “this-one_m”, we can put the pointing noun either before or after the annexed-to noun, thus:

كِتَابُ هَذَا الرَّجُلِ
كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ هَذَا
“the book of this man”

Both these pointing noun phrases give the same meaning: “the book of this man”. However, the first phrase كِتَابُ هَذَا الرَّجُلِ is preferred, consistent with what we learned in section @ref(phrase-single-pointed-to-noun-with-al), above.

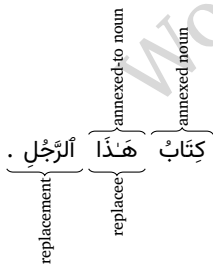
The second phrase كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ هَذَا, although correct, would only rarely be used with this meaning. (In fact, it has another meaning: “this book of the man” which we will learn in section @ref(pointing-to-the-annexe-noun), below.)

Here is how these phrases could be used in complete sentences:

كِتَابُ هَذَا الرَّجُلِ جَدِيدٌ.
كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ هَذَا جَدِيدٌ.
“The book of this man is new.”

Before we give more examples, let’s analyze these phrases in detail.

Consider the first pointing noun phrase:



“the book of this man”
(literally: “the book of this-one: the man”)

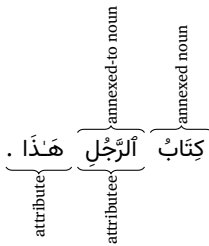
As you can see the pointing noun هَذَا has taken the place of اَلرَّجُلِ as the annexed-to noun in the annexation. In addition to being the annexed-to noun, هَذَا is also a replacee, whose replacement is اَلرَّجُلِ. The literal, word-for-word, translation of this phrase is:

“the book of this-one: the man”

The more natural translation is:

“the book of this man”

Consider, now, the second pointing noun phrase:



“the book of this man”

(literally: “the book of the this-one man”)

الرَّجُلِ, here, keeps its place as the annexed-to noun in the annexation. In addition to being the annexed-to noun, الرَّجُلِ is also a attributee, whose attribute is the pointing noun هَذَا. The literal, word-for-word, translation of this phrase is:

“the book of the this-one man”

The more natural translation is:

“the book of this man”

17.5.2.1.2. Pointing to the annexed noun

Consider, again, the annexation:

كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ
“the book of the man”

We have already discussed how to point to the annexed-to noun الرَّجُلِ in a pointing noun phrase. Now, we would like to point to the annexed noun كِتَابُ in a pointing noun phrase.

In other words, we would like to express the meaning:

“this book of the man”

The way to express this in Arabic is

كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ هَذَا
“this book of the man”

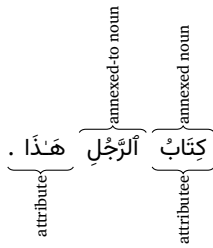
But wait! Didn’t we see in section @ref(pointing-to-the-base-noun) above that this expression has the meaning “the book of this man”?

It turns out that this expression supports both meanings.

But it will generally only be used for the meaning: “this book of the man”

In order to express “the book of this man” we will typically use the expression كِتَابُ هَذَا الرَّجُلِ.

Let’s analyze the expression كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ هَذَا “this book of the man” in detail:



“this book of the man”

(literally: “the this-one book of the man”)

كِتَابُ, here, is both an annexed noun and an attributee. Its attribute is the pointing noun هَذَا. The literal, word-for-word, translation of this phrase is:

“the this-one book of the man”

The more natural translation is:

“this book of the man”

Here is this pointing noun phrase in a complete sentence:

كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ هَذَا أَخْضَرُ.

“This book of the man is green.”

Ambiguity of this phrase

A quick note about the ambiguity of this expression:

كِتَابُ الرَّجُلِ هَذَا

“this book of the man” (usual)

“the book of this man” (rare)

The ambiguity of whether the pointing noun هَذَا points to the annexed noun كِتَابُ or the annexed-to noun الرَّجُلِ only exists because the annexed noun and the annexed-to noun match each other in gender and number: singular masculine. If the annexed noun and the annexed-to noun were different in gender and number, then there would be no ambiguity. Examples:

كِتَابَا الرَّجُلِ هَذَانِ

“these books₂ of the man”

كِتَابُ الرَّجُلَيْنِ هَذَا

“this book of the men₂”

كِتَابُ الْمَرْأَةِ هَذَا

“this book of the woman”

كِتَابُ الْمَرْأَةِ هَذِهِ

“the book of this woman”

Here are some more examples of pointing to annexed nouns:

17.5.2.1.3. The annexed-to noun is a proper noun beginning with اَلْ

Consider the annexation:

كِتَابُ الزُّبَيْرِ

“the book of al-Zubayr”

We can apply the preceding discussion of pointing to the annexed noun and annexed-to noun to this annexation as well. So we get:

كِتَابُ هَذَا الرَّبِيِّ

“the book of this al-Zubayr”

كِتَابُ الرَّبِيِّ هَذَا

“this book of al-Zubayr” (usual)

“the book of this al-Zubayr” (rare)

17.5.2.2. The definite annexed-to noun does not begin with أَلْ

Consider, now, that the annexed-to noun is definite but does not begin with أَلْ. There are two such types of nouns that we will discuss:

- i. Proper nouns not beginning with أَلْ
- ii. Pronouns

17.5.2.2.1. The annexed-to noun is a proper noun not beginning with أَلْ

We will first deal with proper nouns that don’t begin with أَلْ. Consider the annexation:

كِتَابُ زَيْدٍ

“the book of Zayd”

Because the annexed-to noun زَيْدٍ does not begin with أَلْ, any pointing nouns can come only after the entire annexation, thus:

كِتَابُ زَيْدٍ هَذَا

In theory, this supports two meanings:

- i. “this book of Zayd”
- ii. “the book of this Zayd”

In practice, however, the first meaning (“this book of Zayd”) is much more likely. Pointing to a proper noun in a pointing noun phrase (“the book of this Zayd”) is uncommon, generally.

17.5.2.2.2. The annexed-to noun is a pronoun

We have learned, in section @ref(definiteness-of-pronouns), that pronouns are always definite, despite not beginning with أَلْ.

We have also learned, in section @ref(pronouns-as-base-nouns), that a pronoun may be a annexed-to noun in an annexation. Example:

كِتَابُهُ

“his book”

Neither the annexed noun كِتَاب, nor the attached pronoun هُ begin with أَلْ. So if we want to add the pointing noun هَذَا to this annexation to form a pointing noun phrase, then we have to place it at the end, after the annexation, thus:

كِتَابُهُ هَذَا

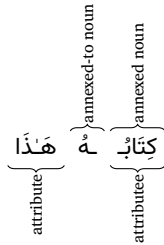
The pointing noun هَذَا, here, is a attributee. But what is its attribute?

We have also learned, in section @ref(attributes-with-annexations-to-pronouns) that pronouns may not be attributees in a descriptive noun phrase.

So, we are left with only one option: the annexed noun كِتَاب is the desceibee. And the meaning of the phrase is:

كِتَابُهُ هَذَا

“this book of his”

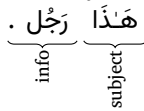


“this book of his”

Here are some more examples:

17.6. Pointing nouns as subjects

Besides their use in pointing noun phrases, pointing nouns are very often used as the subject of a sentence. For example:



“This is a man.”

(literally: “This-one is a man.”)

The pointing noun is (usually) made to match the info in number and gender.

Examples:

هَاتَانِ جَارِيَتَانِ.

“These are girls₂.”

أُولَئِكَ مُعَلِّمُونَ.

“Those are teachers.”

هَؤُلَاءِ أَقْلَامٌ.

“These are pens.”

تِلْكَ بُيُوتٌ.

“Those are houses.”

هَٰذَا صَغِيرَانِ.

“These are small ones₂.”

The info may be a single word (as above) or more complex (as below):

ذَٰلِكَ أَمِيرُ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ.

“That is the commander of the believers.”

أُولَئِكَ أَكَلُوا الطَّعَامَ..
 “Those-ones ate_{3,f} the food.”

هَذَا ثَوْبُ رَجُلٍ..
 “This is a man’s garment.”

هَذِهِ كُتُبُهُ..
 “These are his books.”

هَذَانِ بَيْتَانِ كَبِيرَانِ..
 “These are big houses₂.”

If the info is a noun that begins with *أل* then it may be placed after the pointing noun subject in the same manner:

هَذَا الرَّجُلُ .
 info subject

“This is the man.”
 (literally: “This-one is the man.”)

While the this is permitted and correct, it may be sometimes confused with for the pointing noun phrase “this man”. So, in the same way that we learned in section @ref(chap-smp-sent-sec-def-info), we insert a detached pronoun between the subject and the info, thus:

هَذَا هُوَ الرَّجُلُ..
 “This is the man.”

Here are some more examples:

هَاتَانِ هُمَا الْجَارِيَتَانِ..
 “These are the girls₂.”

أُولَئِكَ هُمُ الْمُعَلِّمُونَ..
 “Those are the teachers.”

هَؤُلَاءِ هُنَّ الْأَقْلَامُ..
 “These are the pens.”

تِلْكَ هِيَ الْبُيُوتُ..
 “Those are the houses.”

هَذَانِ هُمُ الصَّغِيرَانِ..
 “These are the small ones₂.”

17.6.1. Mismatched pointing noun subject

When the pointing noun is a subject we usually match its number and gender with the number and gender of the info, as we have been doing so far. However, when the pointing noun subject refers to a noun in a previous sentence, then we may prefer to match to the previous noun than to the the following info. Example:

بَلَّغَنَا خَبْرَ الْمَطَرِ عَلَى الْجِبَالِ. ذَلِكَ بُشْرَى لِلزُّرَّاعِ.

“The news of the rain on the mountains has reached us. That is a good tiding for the sowers.”

Note that the second sentence’s subject and info mismatch:

ذَلِكَ بُشْرَى

“That is a good tiding.”

The info بُشْرَى “a good tiding” is a feminine noun but the subject ذَلِكَ is masculine. This is because ذَلِكَ is actually referring to خَبْرَ in the previous sentence which is a masculine noun.

17.7. Pointing nouns as other parts of speech

Besides their use in pointing noun phrases and as subjects, pointing nouns may be used as other parts of speech as well, typically where one would expect pronouns. Here are some examples:

أَخَذْتُ الْكِتَابَيْنِ مِنَ الْمَكْتَبَةِ. قَرَأْتُ هَذَا وَمَا قَرَأْتُ ذَلِكَ.

“I took the books₂ from the library. I read this one and I didn’t read that one.”

شَغَلَنِي الْعَمَلُ الصَّعْبُ وَمَا فَرَغْتُ مِنْ ذَلِكَ.

“The difficult work occupied me and I did not get done with that.”

Chapter 18.

The u-case caseful verb

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

18.1. Introduction

So far, we have used the caseless verb. In this chapter we will study the u-case *caseful* verb. The caseful verb is called thus because it resembles the noun in that it has cases. The caseless verb, as we know, does not have any case.

18.2. Pattern for form 1

Using the root paradigm فَعَلَ, we have already seen that caseless verbs for form 1 occur in the patterns فَعَلَا *faʿala*, فَعِلَا *faʿila*, and فَعُلَا *faʿula*. The patterns for form 1 caseful verbs are يَفْعَلُو *yafʿalu*, يَفْعِلُو *yafʿilu*, and يَفْعُلُو *yafʿulu*.

Note that the caseful verb forms add an extraneous يَ *ya-* to the beginning of the verb. This extra letter can change, as we will see soon, to the letters تَ *ta-*, نَ *na*, or أَ *ʾa-* depending on the doer.

18.3. Vowel-mark on the middle root letter

We have seen that vowel on the middle root letter in a caseless verb can vary depending on the verb. So we can have,

- كَتَبَ *kataba* “he wrote”
- عَمِلَ *ʿamila* “he worked”
- كَبُرَ *kabura* “he became big”

Similarly, the vowel on the middle letter in an caseful verb can also vary depending on the verb. Generally, this will need to be looked up in a dictionary and memorized. But there are the following rules which limit the variation:

1. If the caseless verb has an fatḥah on the middle letter, the caseful verb’s middle letter can have either an fatḥah, kasrah, or an ḍammah, depending on the verb. For example,

- كَتَبَ يَكْتُبُ *kataba yaktubu* “he wrote, he writes”
- ذَهَبَ يَذْهَبُ *d̥hahaba yaḏh̥habu* “he went, he goes”
- كَشَفَ يَكْشِفُ *kashafa yakshifu* “he uncovered, he uncovers”

2. If the caseless verb has an kasrah on the middle letter, the caseful verb’s middle letter will usually have an fat-ḥah. Rarely, for a few verbs, it may be an kasrah instead. For example,

- عَمِلَ يَعْمَلُ *ʿamila yaʿmalu* “he worked, he works”
- حَسِبَ يَحْسِبُ *ḥasiba yaḥsibu* “he deemed, he deems”

3. If the caseless verb has an ḍammah on the middle letter, the caseful verb’s middle letter shall have a ḍammah. For example,

- كَبُرَ يَكْبُرُ *kabura yakburu* “he grew big, he grows big”

It is possible for some caseful verbs to have more than option for the vowel mark on the middle letter. Both variants give the same meaning for the verb. For example, the caseless verb حَسِبَ *ḥasiba* “he deemed” has as its incomplete-verb both يَحْسِبُ *yaḥsibu* and يَحْسَبُ *yaḥsabu*.

18.4. Verb case

As you know, nouns in Arabic have a case that is determined by the function of the noun in the sentence. For example, consider the following sentence:

سَأَلَ الْغُلَامُ الرَّجُلَ عَنْ شَيْءٍ.

saʿala -lghulāmu -rrajula ʿan shayʿin.

“The boy asked the man about something.”

In the above sentence, الْغُلَامُ *alghulāmu* is the doer of the verb so it is in the u-case and this is indicated by the ḍammah on its final letter. الرَّجُلُ *arrajula* is the direct doee of the verb so it is in the a-case and this is indicated by the fat-ḥah on its final letter. شَيْءٍ *shayʿin* is directly preceded by a preposition so it is in the i-case and this is indicated by the tanwined kasrah ِ on its final letter. The ending of the caseless verb سَأَلَ is not determined based on the function of the verb in the sentence, and therefore, it does not have any case. (Its ending can change depending on whether a pronoun is attached to it but this is not related to the function of the verb in the sentence and does not represent any case.)

As opposed to caseless verbs, which don’t have any case, caseful verbs do have a case which is determined by the function of the verb in a sentence. Similar to nouns, the case of an caseful verb is indicated by the vowel mark or suffix at the end of the verb.

Caseful verbs have three cases, just like nouns. These cases are called:

- i. The u-case
- ii. The a-case
- iii. The ø-case

Two of the cases have their names in common with nouns: the u-case and the a-case. The $\emptyset$ -case is named differently.

The *ḍammah* on the final letter of *يَفْعَلُ* *yafealu* indicates that it is in the u-case. We will study only the u-case of caseful verbs in this chapter. And we will study the a-case and $\emptyset$ -case in later chapters if Allāh wills.

18.5. With doer nouns

As with caseless verbs, doer nouns are placed after the verb in sentence word order. However, the gender of the doer noun affects the beginning of the caseful verb. If the doer noun is masculine, then the caseful verb shall begin with *ya-*. And if the doer noun is feminine, then the caseful verb shall begin with *ta-*. Examples:

يَكْتُبُ الْغُلَامُ فِي كِتَابِهِ.
yaktubu -lghulāmu fi kitābihi
“The boy writes in his book.”
يَعْمَلُ الرَّجُلَانِ فِي الْمَدِينَةِ.
yaemalu -rrajulāni fi -lmadinati.
“The men^{dual} work in the city.”

تَكْتُبُ الْبَارِيَّةُ فِي كِتَابِهَا.
taktubu -lḥāriyatu fi kitābihā.
“The girl writes in her book.”
تَعْمَلُ النِّسَاءُ فِي بُيُوتِهِنَّ.
taemalu -nnisā'u fi buyūtihinna.
“The women work in their houses.”

18.6. With the direct doee

The direct doee (either as a noun or a pronoun) with caseful verbs work exactly as with caseless verbs.

يَسْأَلُ الْغُلَامُ الرَّجُلَ سُؤَالَ.
yas'alu -lghulāmu -rrajula su'ālan.
“The boy asks the man a question.”
يَسْأَلُهَا الْغُلَامُ سُؤَالَ.
yas'aluha -lghulāmu su'ālan.
“The boy asks her a question.”

18.7. With doer pronouns

When we studied caseless verbs, we saw that doer pronouns are either visible or invisible. Visible doer pronouns are added to the end of the verb, modifying the end of the verb in the process.

The doer pronouns for caseful verbs are different from the doer pronouns for caseless verbs. Caseful verbs' doer pronouns are also added to the end of the verb, but in addition to modifying the end of the verb, they modify the

beginning of the verb as well. Furthermore, additional letters may be added after the doer pronoun to indicate the case of the verb.

We'll show what all this means in the table below of verbs with doer pronouns. Caseless verbs are included as well so that you can contrast them with their caseful counterparts.

Person	Caseless doer pronoun	Caseless verb with doer pronoun	Caseful verb doer pronoun	Caseful verb with doer pronoun in the u-case
he	<i>invisible</i>	فَعَلَ <i>faʿala</i>	<i>invisible</i>	يُفَعِّلُ <i>yafʿalu</i>
she	<i>invisible</i>	فَعَلَتْ <i>faʿalat</i>	<i>invisible</i>	تُفَعِّلُ <i>tafʿalu</i>
you _{1,m}	تَ - <i>ta</i>	فَعَلْتَ <i>faʿalta</i>	<i>invisible</i>	تُفَعِّلُ <i>tafʿalu</i>
you _{1,f}	تِ - <i>ti</i>	فَعَلْتِ <i>faʿalti</i>	يَ - <i>ī</i>	تُفَعِّلِينَ <i>tafʿalīna</i>
I	تُ <i>tu</i>	فَعَلْتُ <i>faʿaltu</i>	<i>invisible</i>	أُفَعِّلُ <i>ʾafʿalu</i>
they _{2,m}	اَ - <i>ā</i>	فَعَلَا <i>faʿalā</i>	اَ - <i>ā</i>	يُفَعِّلَانِ <i>yafʿalāni</i>
they _{2,f}	اَ - <i>ā</i>	فَعَلَتَا <i>faʿalatā</i>	اَ - <i>ā</i>	تُفَعِّلَانِ <i>tafʿalāni</i>
you ₂	تُمَا - <i>tumā</i>	فَعَلْتُمَا <i>faʿaltumā</i>	اَ - <i>ā</i>	تُفَعِّلَانِ <i>tafʿalāni</i>
they _{3+,m}	وَ - <i>ū</i>	فَعَلُوا <i>faʿalū</i>	وَ - <i>ū</i>	يُفَعِّلُونُ <i>yafʿalūna</i>
they _{3+,f}	نَ - <i>na</i>	فَعَلْنَ <i>faʿalna</i>	نَ - <i>na</i>	يُفَعِّلْنَ <i>yafʿalna</i>
you _{3+,m}	تُمْ - <i>tumā</i>	فَعَلْتُمْ <i>faʿaltum</i>	وَ - <i>ū</i>	تُفَعِّلُونُ <i>tafʿalūna</i>
you _{3+,f}	تُنَّ - <i>tunna</i>	فَعَلْتُنَّ <i>faʿaltunna</i>	نَ <i>na</i>	تُفَعِّلْنَ <i>tafʿalna</i>
we	نَا <i>nā</i>	فَعَلْنَا <i>faʿalnā</i>	<i>invisible</i>	نُفَعِّلُ <i>naʿfalu</i>

Note the following:

- The verb تُفَعِّلُ is used both for “she” and “you_{2,m}” doers. Only context will be able to help us differentiate between the two.
- In caseful verbs which have invisible doer pronouns, the u-case of the verb is indicated by the ḍammah ُ on the final letter of the verb.
- For caseful verbs that have اَ, وَ, or يَ as the doer pronoun, the u-case is indicated by an extraneous ن added to the end of the verb.
- And for the remaining caseful verbs whose doer pronoun is نَ, there is no indication of the case of the verb.

Here are some examples of the usage of the doer pronouns:

Remember that in Arabic, each verb must have its own doer, so when there are multiple verbs associated with the same doer, the first verb can be used with the doer noun and the rest with doer pronouns. This is the same behavior as with caseless verbs. For example:

يَجْلِسُ الرِّجَالُ وَيَأْكُلُونَ وَيَشْرَبُونَ.
yajlisu -rrijālu wa yaʾkulūna wa yashrabūna.
 “The men sit and (they) eat and (they) drink.”

18.8. Future

The caseful verb is used to express both the present (habitual and progressive) and future tenses. Sometimes all meanings are meant in the same expression. And if only one of the meanings is intended, context can be sufficient to determine which is intended. So, for example,

يَذْهَبُ الرَّجُلُ
yadh-habu -rrajulu.

can mean, either one, or even all, of:

“The man goes.” or

“The man is going.” or

“The man will go.”

Arabic does provide a mechanism for specifying that the use of an caseful verb is solely to intend a future action. This is by means of the particles *sa-* and *saḥfa* that can be placed before the verb. They provide a meaning of “will” or “will soon”. *sa-*, being a single letter particle, is attached to the verb.

For example,

سَيَذْهَبُ الرَّجُلُ
sayadh-habu -rrajulu.

and

سَوْفَ يَذْهَبُ الرَّجُلُ
saḥfa yadh-habu -rrajulu.

“The man will go.” or

“Soon the man will go.”

The difference in usage of *sa-* and *saḥfa* can be thought of as one of emphasis. *saḥfa* is more emphatic than *sa-*. This emphasis can translate to more definiteness in the action or even that the action is farther in the future.

18.9. Negation

18.9.1. Negation using *mā*

As with caseless verbs, caseful verbs too can be negated by placing the particle *mā* before them. This negates the meaning of the verb usually for the present tense. For example,

مَا يَذْهَبُ الرَّجُلُ
mā yadh-habu -rrajulu.

“The man does not go.” or,

“The man is not going.”

18.9.2. Negation using *lā* {U-case-verb-negation-la}

In addition to *mā*, caseful verbs can be negated using *lā* in the same manner. In addition to negating the meaning of the verb for the present tense, it can also negate the meaning for the future tense.

لَا يَذْهَبُ الرَّجُلُ

lā yadh-habu -rrajulu.

“The man does not go.” or,

“The man is not going.” or,

“The man will not go.”

The particles *سَ sa-* and *سَوْفَ sawfa* may not be combined with *لَا mā* and *لَا lā* when negating verbs.

18.10. With قَدْ

TODO

When negating a caseful verb preceded by قَدْ there is some question about whether قَدْ is retained or dropped, but the stronger opinion seems to be that it may be kept, as proven by the following verse of poetry:

وَقَدْ لَا تَعْدَمُ الْحَسَنَاءُ دَامًا

“And [it] may be [that] the beautiful female does not lack a defect.”

(دَامَ means “defect”).

Chapter 19.

The maṣḍar

Warning

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19.1. Introduction

Every verb has a set of *verbal-nouns* derived from it that, despite being nouns, have a verbal meaning to them. One of these verbal-nouns is the *maṣḍar*, that we shall study in this chapter.

Consider the following form 1 verb:

Root	Caseless verb	Caseful verb (u-case)	Maṣḍar
ذهب	ذَهَبَ “he went”	يَذْهَبُ “he goes”	ذَهَابٌ “going”

The maṣḍar associated with this verb is ذَهَابٌ *dḥahāb*. It denotes “the action of going”, or simply “going”. In this section we shall learn how this and other verbal-nouns are used.

Before we proceed, we present a new method to present a verb and its meaning in this book. We will often give a new verb in the format:

ذَهَبَ يَذْهَبُ ذَهَابًا “to go”

The caseless verb for the singular masculine absentee participant “he”, the corresponding caseful verb, and their maṣḍar are given together, in sequence. The maṣḍar is given in the a-case, because of a usage that we shall learn in a later chapter, if Allāh wills. This is how verb definitions are traditionally found in Arabic dictionaries. And the English meaning is given using the dictionary definition, in this case, the phrase: “to go”.

19.2. Patterns of the maṣḍar for form 1 verbs

The patterns of the maṣḍar for form 1 verbs are very variable. It is best to learn the maṣḍar when you learn a new verb. Having said that, there are some general trends which may be useful to keep in mind:

1. If the verb takes a direct doer, then the caseless verb must necessarily be of the pattern فَعَلَ faʿala or فَعِلَ faʿila (because caseless verbs of the pattern فَعُلَ faʿula never take a direct doer). In this case:
 - a. The maṣḍar for many verbs, in general, tends to be فَعَلَ faʿl. Examples:
 - فَتَحَ يَفْتَحُ فَتْحًا “to open (هـ s.th.)”
 - أَخَذَ يَأْخُذُ أَخْذًا “to take (هـ s.th.)”
 - حَمَدَ يَحْمَدُ حَمْدًا “to praise (هـ s.o.)”
2. If the verb does not take a direct doer, then:
 - a. If the caseless verb is of the pattern فَعِلَ faʿila, then:
 - i. If the meaning of the verb does not fall under the cases ii., iii., and iv. (below), then the maṣḍar tends to be, in general, of the pattern فَعَلَ faʿal. Examples:
 - تَعَبَ يَتَعَبُ تَعَبًا “to become tired”
 - جَزَعَ يَجْزَعُ جَزَعًا “to be impatient”
 - أَسِفَ يَأْسِفُ أَسْفًا “to be sorrowful”
 - ii. If, instead, the meaning of the verb denotes being a color, then the maṣḍar is usually of the pattern فُعِلَ fuʿilah. Examples:
 - خَضِرَ يَخْضَرُ خَضَرَةً “to be green”
 - سَمِرَ يَسْمَرُ سَمَرَةً “to be brown”
 - iii. If, instead, the meaning of the verb denotes some work or effort, then the maṣḍar tends to be of the pattern فُعُول fuʿūl. Example:
 - قَدِمَ يَقْدِمُ قُدُومًا “to arrive”
 - iv. If, instead, the meaning of the verb denotes some static quality, then the maṣḍar tends to be of the pattern فُعُولَةٌ fuʿūlah. Example:
 - يَبِسَ يَبْيَسُ يَبُوسَةً “to be dry”
 - b. If the caseless verb is of the pattern فَعَلَ faʿala, then:
 - i. If the meaning of the verb does not fall under the cases ii., iii., and iv. (below), then the maṣḍar tends to be, in general, of the pattern فُعُول fuʿūl. Examples:
 - قَعَدَ يَقْعُدُ قُعُودًا “to sit, stay back”
 - سَجَدَ يَسْجُدُ سُجُودًا “to prostrate down”
 - خَضَعَ يَخْضَعُ خُضُوعًا “to be humble”
 - ii. If, instead, the meaning of the verb denotes an ailment, then the maṣḍar is usually of the pattern فُعَالَ fuʿāl. Examples:
 - سَعَلَ يَسْعَلُ سَعَالًا “to cough”
 - iii. If, instead, the meaning of the verb denotes travelling, then the maṣḍar is usually of the pattern فَعِيل faʿiʿil. Examples:
 - رَحَلَ يَرْحَلُ رَحِيلًا “to depart”
 - iv. If, instead, the meaning of the verb denotes a sound, then the maṣḍar is usually of the pattern فُعِيل faʿiʿil or فُعَالَ fuʿāl, or both. Examples:

• صَرَخَ يَصْرُخُ صَرْخًا وَصَرَاحًا “to scream”

3. If the verb denotes a craft or a profession or a rank, then the maṣḍar is often of the pattern فَعَالَة *fiʿālah*. Examples:

• تَجَرَ يَتَجَرُ تِجَارَةً “to trade”
• أَمَرَ يَأْمُرُ إِمَارَةً “to be a commander”

4. If the caseless verb is of the pattern فَعَلَ *faʿula*, then the maṣḍar tends to be of the pattern فُعُولَة *fuʿūlah* or فَعَالَة *faʿālah*. Examples:

• صَعَبَ يَصْعَبُ صُعُوبَةً “to be difficult”
• شَجَعَ يَشْجَعُ شَجَاعَةً “to be brave”

As mentioned earlier, these are only general trends and there are many verbs that have maṣḍars which don't fall under the above rules.

19.3. Usage of the maṣḍar

The maṣḍar has properties of a noun, like case and definiteness. But it gives the meaning of a verb. For example, consider the verb أَكَلَ يَأْكُلُ أَكْلًا “to eat”. We can use its maṣḍar in a sentence like this:

فَرَعَ زَيْدٌ مِنَ الْأَكْلِ.

faragha zaydun mina -l'akli.

“Zayd got done with eating.”

Note how the maṣḍar الْأَكْلُ *al'akli* gives the meaning of the action of the verb “eating”. But since it is a noun, it obeys the rules for nouns, like being in the i-case when preceded by the preposition مِنْ *min*.

Another point worth noting is that we have made it definite by saying الْأَكْلُ *al'akli* instead of saying أَكْلٌ *aklin* for the meaning of “eating”. This is because, as we explained in section @ref(usage-of-definite-and-indefinite-nouns), the definite noun is usually used in Arabic to give a general meaning, where in English we would not use “the”. This may be a good time to re-read that section.

Having said that, the indefinite maṣḍar may be used too, and this will give the meaning of “a certain”, or “a specific”. For example, with the verb عَمِلَ يَعْمَلُ عَمَلًا “to work”, we can say:

فَرَعَ مِنْ عَمَلٍ صَعِبٍ.

faragha min ʿamalin ṣaʿibin.

“He got done with a [certain] difficult work.”

19.4. Multiple maṣḍars for the same verb

It is possible, and fairly common, for verbs to have more than one maṣḍar. Usually, each of the maṣḍars has its own meaning, distinct from each other.

For example, the verb حَمَلَ يَحْمِلُ حَمَلًا means “to carry (هـ s.th.)” Here is an example of its maṣḍar in a sentence:

تَعَبَ زَيْدٌ مِنْ حَمْلِهِ لِلْكِتَابِ الثَّقِيلَةِ.
ta'iba zaydun min ḥamlihi lilkutubi -ththaqīlāti.

"Zayd became tired from his carrying the heavy books."

There exists another meaning for this verb with its own maṣḍar: حَمَلَ يَحْمِلُ حَمْلَةً which means "to launch an attack (على on s.o.)" Here is an example of its maṣḍar in a sentence:

دَهَشَ الْقَوْمُ مِنْ حَمَلَةِ الْعَدُوِّ عَلَيْهِمْ.
dahisha -lqawmu min ḥamlati -laduwwi ealayhim.

"The people were astonished at the attack launched by the enemy on them."

Sometimes the meaning between the multiple maṣḍars is only slight. Consider, for example, the verb جَهَلَ يَجْهَلُ "to not know, or to be ignorant (هـ of s.th.)"

It has two maṣḍars: جَهْلٌ *jahl* and جَهَالَةٌ *jahālah* which have meanings that are close to each other.

جَهْلٌ *jahl* is the more simple maṣḍar used for not knowing something. For example,

مَا فَعَلَ زَيْدٌ الْوَاجِبَ لِجَهْلِهِ إِيَّاهُ.
mā fa'ala zayduni -lwājiba lijahlihi 'iyyāhu.

"Zayd did not do the obligatory [work] because of his not knowing it."

جَهَالَةٌ *jahālah* has the more abstract meaning of "ignorance". For example,

نَفَرَ الْمُسْلِمُ مِنْ جَهَالَةِ الْمُشْرِكِينَ.
nafara -lmuslimu min jahālati -lmushrikīna.

"The Muslim was repulsed by the ignorance of the pagans."

As a general rule of thumb, the fewer letters in a maṣḍar, the simpler its meaning. And maṣḍars of the pattern فَعَالَةٌ *faeālah* tend to have an abstract meaning.

Chapter 20.

Some nouns derived from the verb

Warning

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Or change title to “The deverbal nouns”?

20.1. Introduction

TODO

Introduce the seven مشتقات [from النحو الوافي 3/181]:

1. اسم الفاعل
2. اسم المفعول
3. الصفة المشبهة
4. أفعل التفضيل
5. اسم الزمان
6. اسم المكان
7. اسم الآلة

Maybe also the following, or move to maṣdar chapter because they are not مشتقات:

1. اسم المرة
2. اسم الهيئة

Only briefly introduce their governing a doer and direct doee, if applicable. Will be covered in detail in later chapter if Allāh wills.

Work in progress

Chapter 21.

The a-case caseful verb

Warning

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21.1. Introduction

In chapter @ref(u-case-caseful-verbs) we mentioned that caseful verbs have three cases (like nouns). These cases are called:

- i. The u-case
- ii. The a-case
- iii. The $\emptyset$ -case

We introduced the u-case caseful verb in chapter @ref(u-case-caseful-verbs). In this chapter we will study the a-case caseful verb.

The u-case caseful verb makes a plain statement. The a-case caseful verb implies a wish or purpose. The a-case caseful verb is used after the following articles:

- أَنْ *ʾan*
- لَنْ *lan*
- لِ *li*
- كَيْ *kay*
- حَتَّى *hattā*
- إِذَنْ *ʾidhan*

We will go over these cases in this chapter.

21.2. Forming the a-case caseful verb

Here is the u-case caseful verb for the singular masculine absentee participant doer “he”:

يَفْعَلُ
yafʿalu
“he does”

Note that, because it is in the u-case, the its final letter ends with a ḍammah ُ. In order to form the a-case caseful verb, we change the ḍammah into a fat-ḥah َ, thus:

يُفْعَلُ
yafʿala

This is done for all participants whose doer pronoun is invisible and u-case verb ends with a ḍammah ُ.

For participants whose doer pronoun is followed by an extra ن in the u-case verb, this final ن is dropped in order to form the a-case caseful verb. So, for example, the u-case caseful verb:

يُفْعَلَانِ
yafʿalāni

“they_{2,m} do”

becomes, for the a-case:

يُفْعَلَا
yafʿalā

Here is the complete table of the a-case caseful verb for all doer participants.

Participant	Caseful verb doer pronoun	u-case caseful verb	a-case caseful verb
he	<i>invisible</i>	يُفْعَلُ	يُفْعَلُ
she	<i>invisible</i>	تُفْعَلُ	تُفْعَلُ
you _{1m}	<i>invisible</i>	تُفْعَلُ	تُفْعَلُ
you _{1f}	ي	تُفْعَلِينَ	تُفْعَلِي
I	<i>invisible</i>	أَفْعَلُ	أَفْعَلُ
they _{2m}	ا	يُفْعَلَانِ	يُفْعَلَا
they _{2f}	ا	تُفْعَلَانِ	تُفْعَلَا
you ₂	ا	تُفْعَلَانِ	تُفْعَلَا
they _{3m}	9	يُفْعَلُونَ	يُفْعَلُوا
they _{3f}	نَ	يُفْعَلْنَ	يُفْعَلْنَ (same)
you _{3m}	9	تُفْعَلُونَ	تُفْعَلُوا
you _{3f}	نَ	تُفْعَلْنَ	تُفْعَلْنَ (same)
we	<i>invisible</i>	نُفْعَلُ	نُفْعَلُ

Take note the following:

- The u-case and a-case verbs are the same for the feminine plural absentee and addressee participants:
 - يُفْعَلْنَ (they_{3f})
 - تُفْعَلْنَ (you_{3f})
- The a-case verbs for the masculine plural absentee and addressee participants have a final silent alif:
 - يُفْعَلُوا (they_{3m})
 - تُفْعَلُوا (you_{3m})

21.3. After اَنَّ 'an

اَنَّ 'an “that” is the main article which causes the following caseful verb to be in the a-case. The other articles that we listed in the introduction are all either derived from اَنَّ or include its meaning implicitly without expressing it.

21.3.1. Basic usage of اَنَّ 'an with the a-case caseful verb

اَنَّ often follows verbs that have a meaning of wishing or hoping. For example,

أَمَلَ الطَّالِبُ أَنْ يَنْجَحَ.
'amala -ṭṭālibu 'an yanjah.

“The student hoped that he succeed.”

لَا can be used to negate the following a-case caseful verb. لَا combines with اَنَّ and assimilates with it to form لَا 'allā “that not”. For example,

أَمَرَ الْأَبُ الْابْنَ لَا يَكْسَلَ.
'amara -l'abu li-bna 'allā yaksal.

“The father ordered the son that he not be lazy.”

Other than this لَا, اَنَّ must directly precede the following a-case caseful verb and must not be separated from it.

21.3.2. Grammatical equivalence of اَنَّ clause with a maṣḍar

In grammatical theory, اَنَّ and the following verb form a clause that is equivalent in meaning to the maṣḍar of the verb. So in the example, أَمَلَ الطَّالِبُ أَنْ يَنْجَحَ, the اَنَّ clause is أَنْ يَنْجَحَ. It is equivalent to the maṣḍar النِّجَاح. So the sentence is grammatically equivalent to

أَمَلَ الطَّالِبُ النِّجَاحَ.
'amala -ṭṭālibu -nnajāḥ.

“The student hoped [for] success.”

This grammatical equivalence of the اَنَّ clause with a noun allows the اَنَّ clause to take the place of a noun in various positions in a sentence. So, in the above example, the اَنَّ clause is in place of the direct doer of the verb أَمَلَ:

أَمَلَ الطَّالِبُ أَنْ يَنْجَحَ.
direct doer

“The student hoped that he succeed.”

We show other examples below where the اَنَّ clause occurs in place of other noun positions.

As the subject:

أَنْ تَنْجَحَ هُوَ الْمَقْصِدُ.
subject

“That you succeed is the purpose.”

which is grammatically equivalent to: نِجَاحَكَ هُوَ الْمَقْصِدُ.

As the info:

الْمَقْصِدُ أَنْ تَنْجَحَ .
info

“The purpose is that you succeed.”

which is grammatically equivalent to: الْمَقْصِدُ نَجَاحَكَ.

As a doer noun:

يَحْزُنُنِي أَنْ يَذْهَبَ .
doer

“That he [should] go saddens me.”

which is grammatically equivalent to: يَحْزُنُنِي ذَهَابُهُ.

In the i-case as the annexed-to noun in an annexation:

سَكَتَتْ مِنْ خَشْيَةِ أَنْ يَغْضَبَ عَلَيْهَا .
i-case annexed-to noun

“She stayed quiet from fear of that he be angry at her.”

which is grammatically equivalent to: سَكَتَتْ مِنْ خَشْيَةِ غَضَبِهِ عَلَيْهَا.

In the i-case after a preposition:

رَغِبَ الْغُلَامُ فِي أَنْ يَأْكُلَ الطَّعَامَ .
i-case after preposition

“The boy desired that he eat the food.”

which is grammatically equivalent to: رَغِبَ الْغُلَامُ فِي أَكْلِ الطَّعَامِ.

21.3.3. Option to drop the preposition before أَنْ

In the above example the verb رَغِبَ يَرْغِبُ takes an indirect doer after the preposition فِي. In such cases, where the أَنْ clause occurs after a preposition, it is common to drop the preposition as long as there is not resulting confusion in meaning. So, we can also say (without the preposition فِي) for the same meaning:

رَغِبَ الْغُلَامُ أَنْ يَأْكُلَ الطَّعَامَ.

“The boy desired that he eat the food.”

21.3.4. أَنْ meaning “lest”

Occasionally, أَنْ is used with the meaning “lest”. For example:

قَتَلْتُ السُّعْيَانَ أَنْ يَقْتُلُنِي.

“I killed the serpent lest it kill me.”

21.3.5. أَنْ with the caseless verb

أَنْ may also occur before a caseless verb. Example:

بَلَغَنِي أَنْ رَجَعْتَ.

“That you have returned has reached me.”

21.3.6. Other types of أَنْ

There are other types of أَنْ in the Arabic language. They all have the basic meaning “that”. But they are used in different grammatical ways.

The أَنْ we have learned here is called the *maṣḍari* أَنْ because of the equivalence of its clause with a maṣḍar.

There is also another type of أَنْ called the *lightened* أَنْ that we will learn in section @ref(lightened-an).

There is also the *explanatory* أَنْ and the *extra* أَنْ that we will cover in chapter @ref(types-of-an).

21.4. After ل li

21.4.1. The ل of purpose

The article أَنْ may be attached to the preposition ل li thus: لِأَنْ *liʿan* to give the purpose of the following verb. This ل may be translated as “so that”. For example:

أَكَلَ لِأَنْ يَشْبَعَ.

“He ate so that he be sated.”

When ل is thus used, أَنْ is optionally allowed to be dropped while its meaning is retained. ل is then attached to the verb. So we can say, for the same meaning:

أَكَلَ لِيَشْبَعَ.

“He ate so that he be sated.”

But when using لَا to negate the verb, then أَنْ must be expressed, and the combination of ل, أَنْ, and لَا is written as لِئَلَّا *liʿallā*. For example,

شَرِبَ الْمَاءَ لِئَلَّا يَعْطَشَ.

“He drank the water so that he not be thirsty.”

By the way, the grammatical equivalence of أَنْ and a following a-case caseful verb with a maṣḍar applies also to when ل is used before (either an expressed or an implied) أَنْ. So, for example, if we have a sentence:

قَرَأَ الْكِتَابَ لِيَعْلَمَ مَفْهُومَهُ.

or

قَرَأَ الْكِتَابَ لِأَنْ يَعْلَمَ مَفْهُومَهُ.

“He read the book so that he know its meaning.”

Then, grammatically, أَنْ and what follows it may be expressed with the maṣḍar عَلِمَ thus:

قَرَأَ الْكِتَابَ لِعِلْمِ مَفْهُومِهِ.

“He read the book for the knowledge of its meaning.”

21.4.2. The ل of denial

There is a specific ل, called the ل of denial, which is used with a-case caseful verbs and the verb كَانَ that we will discuss in section (TODO in كَانَ chapter).

21.5. After **كَيَّ** *kay*

كَيَّ *kay* is a preposition similar to ل in meaning. It may be translated as “in order that”, or also as “so that”. It is also used before the a-case caseful verb. The difference from ل is that, when ل is used with the a-case caseful verb, expressing or dropping the اُنْ was optional. But with كَيَّ, dropping the اُنْ is mandatory, while its meaning is retained. For example:

أَكَلَ كَيَّ يَشْبَعُ.

“He ate in order that he be sated.”

لَ is used, as usual, to negate the verb and is attached to كَيَّ thus: كَيْلَا *kaylā*.

Example:

شَرَبَ الْمَاءَ كَيْلَا يَعْطَشَ.

“He drank the water in order that he not be thirsty.”

The preposition ل may be combined with كَيَّ thus: لِكَيَّ *likay*, for more or less the same meaning. For example:

أَكَلَ لِكَيَّ يَشْبَعُ.

“He ate in order that he be sated.”

With لَ the whole combination is written as لِكَيْلَا *likaylā*. اُنْ must again be not be expressed.

Example:

شَرَبَ الْمَاءَ لِكَيْلَا يَعْطَشَ.

“He drank the water in order that he not be thirsty.”

By the way, كَيَّ and a following a-case caseful verb are not *directly* replaced by a maṣdar. So, for example, if we have a sentence:

قَرَأَ الْكِتَابَ كَيَّ يَعْلَمَ مَفْهُومَهُ.

“He read the book in order that he know its meaning.”

Then ل is to be used in place of كَيَّ if we wish to replace it and what follows with the maṣdar thus:

قَرَأَ الْكِتَابَ لِعِلْمِ مَفْهُومِهِ.

“He read the book for the knowledge of its meaning.”

21.6. After **حَتَّى** *hattā*

حَتَّى *hattā* is a particle that can be used in multiple ways. Its basic meaning is “until” or “to the point of” or “even” where it indicates an extreme limit.

Before we discuss its use with a verb following it, we will take a short digression to discuss its use with a following noun.

21.6.1. **حَتَّى** *hattā* with a following noun

Consider the following sentence:

أَكَلْتُ السَّمَكَةَ حَتَّى رَأْسِهَا.

“I ate the fish until its head.”

حَتَّى “until”, here, is used as a preposition. Therefore, رَأْس is in the i-case, as the noun following a preposition. The meaning of the sentence is that the fish

was eaten all the way to its head. (Whether the head itself was eaten or not is ambiguous. The sentence itself admits both meanings.)

Consider now a variant of this sentence:

أَكَلْتُ السَّمَكَةَ حَتَّى رَأْسَهَا.

“I ate the fish, even its head.”

رَأْسُ, here, is in the a-case because it is a direct doer of the verb أَكَلَ “ate”. The particle حَتَّى “even”, here, is only a connector between the direct doers in much the same way as وَ “and”. (أَكَلْتُ السَّمَكَةَ وَرَأْسَهَا. “I ate the fish and its head.”)

Consider now yet another variant of this sentence:

أَكَلْتُ السَّمَكَةَ. حَتَّى رَأْسَهَا [أَكَلْتُهَا].

“I ate the fish. Even its head [I ate].”

Now رَأْسُ is in the u-case because it is actually the subject of a new sentence, whose info is (an either expressed or implied) أَكَلْتُهَا “I ate it”. حَتَّى, here, serves as an introductory particle to the second subject and does not affect the case of the following noun.

21.6.2. حَتَّى ḥattā with a following verb

Just as حَتَّى is used for different purposes with a following noun, so too is it used with different purposes with a verb following it.

21.6.2.1. حَتَّى with a following a-case caseful verb

When حَتَّى is used with an expectation or purpose of a future action of the verb following it, then the verb following it is an a-case caseful verb. This is done in the following two scenarios:

1. When حَتَّى is used to indicate an extreme point at which the action of the following verb would occur, or is meant to occur. Here, حَتَّى may be translated as “to the point of” and the verb following it is translated using “-ing”. For example,

قَرَأْتُ الْقُرْآنَ حَتَّى أَخْتِمَهُ.

“I read the Qur’ān to the point of finishing it.”

يَغْضَبُ حَتَّى يَهْرَبُوا مِنْهُ.

“He becomes angry to the point of their fleeing from him.”

غَضِبَ حَتَّى لَا يَمْلِكُ نَفْسَهُ.

“He became angry to the point of not controlling himself.”

It is noteworthy that the use of حَتَّى, here, implies only that the following action is meant to occur, or is at the point of being expected to occur. It doesn’t actually state that the action will actually occur, for something may prevent it from occurring in reality.¹

Note, also, that لَا is not attached to حَتَّى in حَتَّى لَا.

¹Sadan, A., *The subjunctive mood in Arabic grammatical thought* 201

Also, similar to the case of *كَيْ*, there is an assumed (but mandatorily unexpressed) *أَنَّ* which is the real cause of the following caseful verb being in the a-case. In fact, *حَتَّى*, here, can be considered synonymous to *إِلَى أَنَّ* “to [the point] that”. So the above examples can be considered similar in meaning to:

قَرَأْتُ الْقُرْآنَ إِلَى أَنْ أَخْتِمَهُ.
بَغَضَبُ إِلَى أَنْ يَهْرَبُوا مِنْهُ.
غَضِبَ إِلَى أَلَّا يَمْلِكَ نَفْسَهُ.

2. When *حَتَّى* is used with the meaning “to such a purpose that”. This is a similar meaning to *كَيْ* “in order that”. For example,

أَذْهَبُ إِلَيْهِ حَتَّى يَأْمُرَنِي بِشَيْءٍ.
“I go to him to such a purpose that he order me [to do] something.”
وَعَطَّ الْأَبُ ابْنَهُ حَتَّى يَصْلَحَ.
“The father admonished his son to such a purpose that he be righteous.”

Again, there is an assumed (but mandatorily unexpressed) *أَنَّ* which is the real cause of the following caseful verb being in the a-case.

Sometimes, the sentence itself may admit both of the above meanings. For example:

يَأْكُلُ حَتَّى يَشْبَعَ.
“He eats to the point of being full.”
and/or
“He eats to the purpose that he be full.”

Context would be needed to determine which meaning or whether both meanings are intended.

21.6.2.2. *حَتَّى* with no effect on the following verb

If *حَتَّى* is not used with any expectation or purpose of a future action of the verb following it, then it has no effect on this verb. (It goes without saying that an implicit *أَنَّ* is not assumed with *حَتَّى* in this case.)

The verb following *حَتَّى* in this case may even be a caseless verb. For example:
أَكَلْتُ الطَّعَامَ حَتَّى شَبِعْتُ.
“I ate the food until I became full.”

When used with a following caseful verb, the verb is put in the u-case and the meaning is that the action of the verb *before* *حَتَّى* was done to such an extent that it caused the action of the verb *following* *حَتَّى* to definitely occur. The action before *حَتَّى* must necessarily be a past action, and the action following *حَتَّى* must necessarily be a present (not a future) action. For example,

أَكَلْتُ الطَّعَامَ حَتَّى أَشْبَعُ.
“I ate the food to such an extent that I am (being) full.”
غَضِبَ حَتَّى يَهْرَبُونَ مِنْهُ.
“He became so angry that they are fleeing from him.”

غَضِبَ حَتَّى لَا يَمْلِكُ نَفْسَهُ.

“He became so angry that he is not controlling himself.”

Compare these examples with the corresponding ones in the previous subsection that have an a-case caseful verb.

21.7. After لَنْ lan

لَا and أَنْ are combined to form لَنْ lan with the meaning “shall not”. لَنْ is used with the a-case caseful verb to emphatically negate the future.

لَنْ تَذْهَبَ.

“You_{1m} shall not go.”

21.8. After إِذَنْ 'idhan

TODO

21.9. After وَ, فَ, وَأَوْ, and ثُمَّ

21.9.1. As connectors

If the connectors وَ, فَ, وَأَوْ, and ثُمَّ occur after an a-case caseful verb, then a second a-case caseful verb (that doesn't have its own أَنْ, etc.) may be either in the a-case or the u-case. For example,

أَرْغَبُ أَنْ أَخْضُرَ الْمَجْلِسَ وَأَسْمَعَ. (أَسْمَعَ in a-case)

“I desire that I attend the session and [that] I listen.”

or

أَرْغَبُ أَنْ أَخْضُرَ الْمَجْلِسَ وَأَسْمَعُ. (أَسْمَعُ in u-case)

“I desire that I attend the session and I will listen.”

21.9.2. With special meanings

وَ, فَ, وَأَوْ, and ثُمَّ also cause the following caseful verb to be in the a-case in their own right, not simply as connectors. This is discussed in more detail in chapter TODO.

Work in progress

Chapter 22.

The ø-case caseful verb

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

22.1. Introduction

In chapter @ref(u-case-caseful-verbs) we mentioned that caseful verbs have three cases (like nouns). These cases are called:

- i. The u-case
- ii. The a-case
- iii. The ø-case

We have already studied the u-case of caseful verbs in chapter @ref(u-case-caseful-verbs). And we will defer the study of a-case of caseful verbs to chapter @ref(a-case-caseful-verbs). In this chapter we will study the ø-case caseful verb.

We will also study the *verb of command* which is very similar to the ø-case caseful verb.

22.2. Forming the ø-case caseful verb

Here is the u-case caseful verb for the singular masculine absentee participant doer “he”:

يَفْعَلُ
yafealu
“he does”

Note that, because it is in the u-case, the its final letter ends with a ḍammah ُ. In order to form the ø-case caseful verb, we change the ḍammah into a sukūn ْ, thus:

يَفْعَلْ
yafeal

This is done for all participants whose doer pronoun is invisible and u-case verb ends with a ḍammah ُ.

For participants whose doer pronoun is followed by an extra ن in the u-case verb, this final ن is dropped in order to form the $\emptyset$ -case caseful verb. So, for example, the u-case caseful verb:

يَفْعَلَانِ
yafealāni
“they_{2,m} do”

becomes, for the $\emptyset$ -case:

يَفْعَلَا
yafealā

Here is the complete table of the $\emptyset$ -case caseful verb for all doer participants.

Participant	Caseful verb doer pronoun	u-case caseful verb	$\emptyset$ -case caseful verb
he	invisible	يَفْعَلُ	يَفْعَلُ
she	invisible	تَفْعَلُ	تَفْعَلُ
you _{1,m}	invisible	تَفْعَلُ	تَفْعَلُ
you _{1,f}	يَ	تَفْعَلِينَ	تَفْعَلِي
I	invisible	أَفْعَلُ	أَفْعَلُ
they _{2,m}	إِ	يَفْعَلَانِ	يَفْعَلَا
they _{2,f}	إِ	تَفْعَلَانِ	تَفْعَلَا
you ₂	إِ	تَفْعَلَانِ	تَفْعَلَا
they _{3+,m}	9	يَفْعَلُونَ	يَفْعَلُوا
they _{3+,f}	نَ	يَفْعَلْنَ	يَفْعَلْنَ (same)
you _{3+,m}	9	تَفْعَلُونَ	تَفْعَلُوا
you _{3+,f}	نَ	تَفْعَلْنَ	تَفْعَلْنَ (same)
we	invisible	نَفْعَلُ	نَفْعَلُ

Take note the following:

- The u-case and $\emptyset$ -case verbs are the same for the feminine plural absentee and addressee participants:

- يَفْعَلْنَ (they_{3+,f})
- تَفْعَلْنَ (you_{3+,f})

- The u-case and $\emptyset$ -case verbs for the masculine plural absentee and addressee participants have a final silent alif:

- يَفْعَلُوا (they_{3+,m})
- تَفْعَلُوا (you_{3+,m})

- When the $\emptyset$ -case caseful verb ends with a sukūn ُ, and the next word begins with a connecting hamzah ا then the sukūn ُ is converted to an kasrah ِ. For example:

- يَفْعَلُ + الرَّجُلُ = يَفْعَلِ الرَّجُلُ

22.3. With ل for indirect commands

The particle ل when connected to the front of a caseful verb causes it to be in the ø-case and gives it the meaning of an indirect command. In English this can be translated using “should” or “let”:

لِيَذْهَبِ الرَّجُلُ

“The man should go!”

or

“Let the man go!”

(“Let” is being used here as a command for the man, not for the addressee of this speech.)

لِنَذْهَبْ!

“Let’s go!”

The indirect command is only rarely used for the addressee participant.¹

So an example like the following is permissible but rare:

لِتَجْلِسْ

“You should sit!”

Instead, the verb of command is more commonly used which we will study in section @ref(verb-of-command) later in this chapter.

The particles فَ “so” and وَ “and” are frequently used before this ل. The ل then loses its kasrah and gets a sukūn. Examples:

فَلْنَأْكُلْ طَعَامَنَا وَلِنَشْرَبْ شَرَابَنَا.

“So let us eat our food and drink our drink!”

وَلِيَجْلِسُوا عَلَى الْأَرْضِ.

“And they should sit on the ground!”

Finally, the ل before a ø-case caseful verb for the indirect command is mandatory. But it may be dropped by poetic license.²

22.4. With لَا for prohibitions

The word لَا when in front of a ø-case caseful verb gives the meaning of a prohibition. In English this can be translated using “Don’t”.

For example,

لَا تَكْتُبُوا

“Don’t write_{3,m}!”

يَا زَيْدُ، لَا تَدْخُلِ الْبَيْتَ!

“Don’t_{1,m} enter the house!”

The particles فَ “so” and وَ “and” may be used before this لَا. Example:

فَلَا تَأْكُلْ وَلَا تَشْرَبْ!

“So don’t eat_{1,m} and don’t drink_{1,m}!”

Such prohibitions are generally for the addressee participant. However, rarely, they may be issued for the absentee participant as well. Example:

¹ سورة يونس for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان 4/291–293. See also references to شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 10:58 and other tafsirs for the reading فبذلك فلتفرحوا

² 4/291–292 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل

لَا يَمْنَعُ زَيْدًا الدُّخُولَ.

“Let him not prevent Zayd from entering!”

By the way, لَا does not force a verb to be in the u-case $\emptyset$ -case. We have already seen in section @ref(u-case-verb-negation-la) that لَا can be used to negate a u-case caseful verb for the present and future tense. Example:

لَا يَذْهَبُ الرَّجُلُ

lā yadh-habu -rrajulu.

“The man does not go.” or,

“The man is not going.” or,

“The man will not go.”

22.5. With لَمْ for “did not”

The particle لَمْ when in front of an caseful verb causes it to be in the $\emptyset$ -case and gives it the meaning of negating the past tense. In English this can be translated using “did not”. For example,

لَمْ يَذْهَبِ الرَّجُلُ.

“The man did not go.”

We have already learned in section @ref(negating-caseless-verbs) that the caseless verb is negated using the particle مَا. For example:

مَا ذَهَبَ الرَّجُلُ.

mā dhahaba -rrajulu.

“The man did not go.”

or,

“The man has not gone.”

Both لَمْ and مَا are used commonly to negate the past tense. مَا has a more emphatic meaning than لَمْ.

Here are some more examples:

22.6. With لَمَّا for “did not yet”

The word لَمَّا when in front of a $\emptyset$ -case caseful verb gives the meaning “did not yet”. For example,

لَمَّا يَذْهَبُ زَيْدٌ.

“Zayd did not go yet.”

22.7. Other uses of the $\emptyset$ -case caseful verb

The $\emptyset$ -case caseful verb is also used for *consequential actions* and in *conditional statements*. We will deal with these in chapters @ref(the-consequential-action) and @ref(conditional-statements) respectively

22.8. The verb of command

In order to give a direct command to an addressee, Arabic uses the verb of command. The verb of command is very similar to the $\emptyset$ -case caseful verb. The verb of command is only available for the addressee participant.

22.8.1. Forming the verb of command

Here is the verb of command for the addressee participants:

Participant	Verb of command
you _{1,m}	أَفْعَلْ
you _{1,f}	أَفْعَلِيْ
you ₂	أَفْعَلَا
you _{3+,m}	أَفْعَلُوا
you _{3+,f}	أَفْعَلْنَ

In order to form the verb of command, we remove the initial ت from the addressee participant verb. The verb then begins with an sukūn so we place a connecting hamzah in front of it.

When the verb of command occurs in the beginning of a sentence, then the vowel mark for the connecting hamzah is selected according to the following criteria:

- i. When the middle root letter of the verb of command has an ḍammah ُ, then the connecting hamzah gets an ḍammah too. Examples:

Verb	Verb of command for “he”
نَظَرَ يَنْظُرُ نَظْرًا	اُنْظُرْ “Look!”
قَتَلَ يَقْتُلُ قَتْلًا	اُقْتُلْ “Kill!”
مَكَثَ يَمْكُثُ مَكُوثًا	اُمْكُثْ “Stay!”

- ii. Otherwise, when the middle root letter of the verb of command has an fatḥah َ or an kasrah ِ, then the connecting hamzah gets an kasrah ِ. Examples:

Verb	Verb of command for “he”
عَمِلَ يَعْمَلُ عَمَلًا	اَعْمَلْ “Work!”
ذَهَبَ يَذْهَبُ ذَهَابًا	اِذْهَبْ “Go!”
جَلَسَ يَجْلِسُ جُلُوسًا	اِجْلِسْ “Sit!”

Here are some examples of using the verb of command:

The verb of command is not used to issue negative commands, like “Don’t go!”. Instead, the $\emptyset$ -case verb is used with لَا as described in section @ref(la-of-prohibition) above.

لَا تَذْهَبْ

“Don’t go!”

22.8.2. The verb of command for roots begin with hamzah

Appendix A details the rules for spelling words that contain hamzah generally. In addition to those rules, the verb of command for roots that begin with hamzah warrant additional discussion.

Consider the following form 1 verbs and their verbs of command for the singular masculine addressee doer “he”:

Root	Verb	Verb of command
أَمَلَ	أَمَلَ يَأْمُلُ أَمَلًا “to hope”	أَوْمُلْ
أَذِنَ	أَذِنَ يَأْذِنُ أَذْنًا “to permit”	أَذِّنْ

Here are examples of these verbs of commands in the middle of a sentence:

يَا أُمِّي أَذِّنِي لِي أَلْعَبُ!

yā ‘ummi -‘dhanī li -lla‘ib!

“O my mother, permit me to play!”

يَا زَيْدُ أَوْمِلْ الْخَيْرَ!

yā zaydu -‘muli -lkhayr!

“O Zayd, hope for good!”

When these verbs of command occur in the beginning of the sentence, then there would be two hamzahs occurring next to each other which is not permitted. So the second hamzah is pronounced as a long vowel, though it may still be written as a hamzah. Examples:

أَوْمِلْ الْخَيْرَ يَا زَيْدُ!

‘ūmul

not

× u’mul

أَذِّنِي لِي أَلْعَبُ يَا أُمِّي!

‘idhanī

not

× i’dhanī

As a further complication, when the verb of command is preceded by وَ “and” or فَ “so” then the connecting *hamza* is not written and the hamzah of the first root letter is written seated on an alif. Examples:

وَأَوْمِلْ

wa’mul

“And hope!”

فَإِذَنْ
fa'dhan
“So permit!”

22.8.3. Irregular verbs of command

In addition to the rules states above there are four verbs of command (all containing hamzah) that are irregular. We will discuss them below:

22.8.3.1. The verbs أَكَلَ , أَخَذَ , and أَمَرَ

The verbs of command for the following three verbs are irregular:

Root	Verb	Verb of command
أكل	أَكَلَ يَأْكُلُ أَكْلًا “to eat”	كُلْ
أخذ	أَخَذَ يَأْخُذُ أَخْذًا “to take”	خُذْ
أمر	أَمَرَ يَأْمُرُ أَمْرًا “to order”	مُرْ

As you can see, the initial hamzah has been completely deleted for the verbs of command. However, of these verbs, the verb of command for أَمَرَ يَأْمُرُ أَمْرًا is permitted to retain its initial hamzah when preceded by و “and” or ف “so”. Then, it becomes

وَأْمُرْ wa'mur
and
فَأْمُرْ fa'mur

This retaining of the initial hamzah is not done for the other two verbs.

Here are some examples of these verbs of command:

22.8.3.2. The verb سَأَلَ

The verb سَأَلَ يَسْأَلُ سَأْلاً “to question” forms its verb of command both regularly, and irregularly:

- i. Regular: اسْأَلْ is'al
- ii. Irregular: سَلْ sal

If the verb of command is preceded by و “and” or ف “so”, then the regular verb of command اسْأَلْ is'al is often preferred.

Otherwise, the irregular verb of command سَلْ sal is often preferred.

Examples of usage:

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Chapter 23.

The passive verb

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

23.1. Introduction

Consider the sentence:

شَرِبَ زَيْدٌ الْمَاءَ.
shariba zayduni -lmāʾ.
“Zayd drank the water.”

In this sentence, زَيْدٌ “Zayd” is the doer of the verb شَرِبَ “drank”. This construction of the verb, which we have been using so far, is called the *active verb* construction, because the doer of the verb, in this case “Zayd” is known. Now consider the following sentence:

شُرِبَ الْمَاءُ.
shuriba -lmāʾ.
“The water was drunk.”

In this sentence, the doer of the verb, i.e. the person who is doing the action of the verb “to drink”, is not mentioned. From the sentence itself it is unknown who the doer is. This construction of the verb is called the *passive verb* construction.

23.2. Forming the passive verb

So far we have been studying form 1 verbs, which use only the three root letters. As we know, the vowel on the middle root letter is variable for active verbs, for example:

- شَرِبَ يَشْرِبُ “to drink”.
- فَتَحَ يَفْتَحُ “to open”
- كَبُرَ يَكْبُرُ “to become big”
- etc.

The pattern of passive verb for form 1 verbs is always:

فُعِلَ يُفْعَلُ
fuʿila yufʿalu

This is regardless of the vowel on the middle root letter in the active verb. If there is more than one verb from the same root, with different middle root letter vowels for the active verb, then they will share the same passive verb. For example, the active verbs: *حَسَبَ يَحْسِبُ* “to reckon” and *حَسِبَ يَحْسِبُ* “to deem” share the same passive verb: *حُسِبَ يُحْسَبُ*.

The same doer pronouns are used for the passive verb as for the active verb. And the passive caseful verb has the same three cases as the active caseful verb. For example:

- *فُعِلُوا fucilū* “they_{3m}” (caseless)
- *تُفْعَلَانِ tufʿalāni* “you₂” or “they_{2f}” (u-case caseful)
- *أُفْعِلَ ufʿala* “I” (a-case caseful)
- etc.

The complete table showing the doer pronouns is given in appendix @ref(verb-tables).

23.3. The deputy doer

Consider again this sentence with an passive verb construction:

شَرِبَ الْمَاءُ .

 deputy doer

“The water was drunk.”

Note that the noun *الْمَاءُ ʾalmāʾu* “the water” is in the u-case. This is because, in the absence of the doer, the direct doee of the active verb (*الْمَاءُ*) is deputized to take doer’s place in the u-case. It is then known as the *deputy doer*.

The doer pronouns for the passive verb shall therefore match the gender and number of the deputy doer. Here are some examples:

شُكِّرَتِ الْأُمّهَاتُ وَمُدِحْنَ.
shukirati -lʾummahātu wamudiḥn.
 “The mothers were thanked and praised.”

أَنْتُمَا تُغَبَّانِ وَتُخَدَعَانِ.
ʾantumā tuḡḡbanāni watukḥdaeān.
 “You₂ are being cheated and deceived.”

مَا قُطِعَتِ الشَّجَرَةُ.
mā quṭiʿati -shshajarah.
 “The tree was not cut.”

23.3.1. The deputy doer for multiple direct doees

Some verbs, in the active construction, take multiple direct doee. These verbs can be classified into two classes:

- a. Verbs that cause the first direct doee to be affected by, or asked for, the second direct doee. Examples:

مَلَأَ الْغُلَامُ الدَّلْوُ مَاءً.

“The boy filled the bucket (with) water.”

مَنَعَ الْمَرَضُ الرَّجُلَ الْعَمَلِ.

“Sickness prevented the man (from) work.”

سَأَلَ الْفَقِيرُ الْغَنِيَّ دِرْهَمًا.

“The poor [man] asked the rich [man] (for) a dirham.”

- b. Verbs that signify an action of the heart or of intention, like thinking, deeming, making, etc. Examples:

حَسِبْتُ زَيْدًا صَدِيقًا.

“I deemed Zayd [to be] a friend”

وَجَدَتِ الطَّالِبَةُ الْأُسْتَاذَةَ حَلِيمَةً.

“The student_f found the professor_f [to be] forbearing.”

جَعَلَ اللَّهُ الْمَاءَ بَرَكَةً.

“Allāh has made the water a blessing.”

When such verbs are converted to the passive verb construction, then one, and only one, direct doee shall be chosen to be the deputy doer. It is generally preferred to make the first direct doee the deputy-doer, and leave the second direct doee, as is, in the a-case. Here are the same sentences in the passive construction:

مُلِئَتِ الدَّلْوُ مَاءً. (دَلْوٌ “bucket” is feminine.)

“The bucket was filled (with) water.”

مُنِعَ الرَّجُلُ الْعَمَلِ.

“The man was prevented (from) work.”

سُئِلَ الْغَنِيُّ دِرْهَمًا.

“The rich [man] was asked for a dirham.”

حُسِبَ زَيْدٌ صَدِيقًا.

“Zayd was deemed [to be] a friend”

وُجِدَتِ الْأُسْتَاذَةُ حَلِيمَةً.

“The professor_f was found [to be] forbearing.”

جُعِلَ الْمَاءُ بَرَكَةً.

“Water has been made a blessing.”

23.4. Impersonal use

TODO: add examples from Wright p. 268

When verbs are used without a direct doee, then their passive construction gives in an impersonal meaning. There are a few such usages that we will explain in the following subsections.

23.4.1. With prepositional phrases

Some verbs take no direct does, but are used with prepositional phrases. For example,

جَلَسَ النَّاسُ عَلَى الْأَرْضِ.

“The people sat upon the ground.”

Other verbs, which can take a direct doer, may be used without one, and again with a prepositional phrase instead. For example:

كُتِبَ بِالْقَلَمِ.

“The scribe wrote with the pen.”

When such sentences are converted to the passive verb construction then the prepositional phrase may be taken as the deputy doer. However, the preposition causes the noun following it to remain in the i-case. So the deputy doer is not indicated by an apparent dammah (or by the other indicators of the u-case). The verb then appears to be in the singular masculine, with its deputy doer following it. For example:

جُلِسَ عَلَى الْأَرْضِ .
deputy doer

“The ground was sat upon.”

كُتِبَ بِالْقَلَمِ.

“The pen was written with.”

23.4.2. With adverbs of time or place

Other verbs don't take a direct doer but may be used with an adverb of time or place in the a-case. (We will study adverbs of time and place in chapter @ref(adverbs-of-time-and-place), if Allāh wills.) Here is an example:

سَهَرَتِ الْأُمُّ لَيْلَةَ الْقَدْرِ .
a-case adverb of time

“The mother stayed up the Night of Power.”

When this sentence is converted to an passive construction then the adverb of time or place can be taken as the deputy doer in the u-case:

سَهَرَتْ لَيْلَةُ الْقَدْرِ.

“The Night of Power was stayed up [in].”

Note the u-case of لَيْلَةُ *laylatu* as the deputy doer.

23.4.3. With the maṣḍar

The maṣḍar, because it is the action being done may be considered a kind of direct doer. (We will study the use of the maṣḍar as a doer in chapter @ref(absolute-doe), if Allāh wills.) For example:

فُهِمَ الشَّيْخُ فَهْمًا عَمِيقًا.

“The old man understood, a deep understanding.”

When such sentences are converted to the passive verb construction, then the maṣḍar may be taken as the deputy doer in the u-case.

فُهِمَ فَهْمٌ عَمِيقٌ.

“A deep understanding was understood.”

23.4.4. Requirement of specialization

When a prepositional phrase, or an adverb of time or place, or a maṣḍar is to be used as a deputy doer in an passive verb construction, then it is required that they be specialized in meaning, and not used in a general sense. So for example, if we have the sentence:

سَهَرَتِ الْأُمُّ لَيْلَةً.

“The mother stayed up a night.”

then because of the non-specialized meaning of لَيْلَةً, such a sentence is typically not suitable for being converted to a passive verb construction.

23.4.5. Choosing the deputy doer

If a sentence is to be converted to an passive verb construction and it has more than one of the following:

- a direct doer
- a specialized prepositional phrase
- a specialized adverb of time or place
- a specialized maṣḍar

Then only one shall be chosen as the deputy doer. If a direct doer exists, then it is typically chosen. If a direct doer does not exist, then the one desired to be emphasized may be chosen as the deputy doer. For example:

شَهَرَ فِي الْمَسْجِدِ لَيْلَةَ الْقَدْرِ.

“The mosque was stayed up in [on] the Night of Power.”

In the above sentence the prepositional phrase فِي الْمَسْجِدِ was chosen as the deputy doer, and the adverb of time لَيْلَةً remains, as is, in the a-case.

23.5. Cases of the passive caseful verb

The passive caseful verb has three cases, just like the active caseful verb: the u-case, the a-case, and the ø-case. The three cases are used in the same circumstances, and with the same rules that we have already learned.

So the u-case verb is used for making plain statements:

تُذَكَّرُ قِصَّةُ الْمَلِكِ فِي كُتُبِ التَّأْرِيخِ.

“The story of the king is mentioned in the books of history.”

لَا تُرْفَعُ الْأَصْوَاتُ فِي الْمَكْتَبَةِ.

“Voices are not raised in the library.”

The a-case verb is used for expressing wish or purpose:

يَأْمَلُ الْمُسْلِمُونَ أَنْ يُعْفَرَ لَهُمْ.

“The Muslims hope that they be forgiven.”

(Note that يُعْفَرُ has a singular masculine deputy doer because there is no direct doer.)

لَنْ تُسْمَعَ.

“You₂ shall not be heard.”

دُفِعَ الْبَابُ حَتَّى يُفْتَحَ.

“The door was pushed for the result that it open.”

Similarly, the $\emptyset$ -case verb is used in the following cases:

- With لَمْ “was not”:

لَمْ يُؤْذَنْ لِي أَنْ أَدْخُلَ.

“It was not permitted for me that I enter.”

- With لَمَّا “not yet”

لَمَّا يُكْتَبَ كِتَابٌ فِي هَذَا الْمَوْضُوعِ.

“A book has not yet been written in this subject.”

- With لَ for indirect commands¹:

لِيُسْمَعَ صَوْتُهُ!

“Let his voice be heard!”

There is no verb of command for passive verbs. So while indirect commands are typically not used for the addressee participant for active verbs (see section @ref(indirect-commands)), they are the only way to issue commands for the addressee participant in the passive verb construction:

لِتُنْتَصَرُوا!

“Let you_{3m} be aided!”

23.6. Usage of the passive verb

There are cases where it is permissible to use of the passive verb construction, and cases where it is *not* permissible to use of the passive verb construction. We will explain them below:

23.6.1. Permissible use of the passive verb

There can be a number of reasons why a speaker is forced to, or chooses to, use the passive verb construction. Among these reasons are:

- a. When the doer is actually unknown to the speaker. This is the classic use-case, as indicated by the name *passive verb*. (But, as we shall see below, it is not the only use case.) So, if we say:

كُسِرَتِ الزُّجَاجَةُ.

“The glass was broken.”

then, it may be that we don’t know who broke the glass, and that is why we are expressing it in the passive verb construction.

- b. When the doer is known to the speaker, but he does not wish to make him known to others. So the same sentence above. كُسِرَتِ الزُّجَاجَةُ could be used when the speaker knows that it was actually زَيْد “Zayd”, for example, who

¹ 4/291 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل

broke the glass, but the speaker does not wish that others find out that it was Zayd. This itself could be for any reason, for example: the speaker fears Zayd, for fears for Zayd, etc.

- c. When the speaker wishes to draw attention to the act itself rather than the doer of the act. So we might say:

مُنِعْنَا الدُّخُولَ.

“We have been prevented from entering.”

when we wish to focus on the act of our having been prevented, rather than who prevented us.

- d. For stylistic reasons, when it is obvious and known who the doer is. For example:

خُلِقَ الْإِنْسَانُ مِنْ عَجَلٍ

“Man was created of haste [i.e., impatience].” (Qur’ān 21:37. Trans. Saheeh International)

In the above ’āyah it is known and obvious that Allāh created man.

- e. In order to glorify the doer. So we might the passive verb construction to say:

خُلِقَ الْخِنْزِيرُ.

“The pig was created.”

This could be to distance Allāh from being mentioned next to the name of a particularly dirty animal.

- f. When the doer is not mentioned due to contempt for him. For example:

قُتِلَ أَمِيرُ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ عُمَرُ.

“The Commander of the believers, Eumar, was killed.”

In this sentence we chose not to name the killer due to contempt for him.

These reasons are not mutually exclusive, and sometimes the passive verb construction is used for a combination of them.

23.6.2. Impermissible use of the passive verb

The passive verb may not be used when the doer is mentioned with the verb. This is different from English which can use the word “by” to indicate the doer in a passive voice construction, as in: “The book was written by Zayd.”. Such a sentence, in Arabic can only be expressed with the active verb construction:

كَتَبَ زَيْدٌ الْكِتَابَ.

kataba zayduni -lkitāb.

“Zayd wrote the book.”

It may seem like this rule is broken in sentences like:

قُتِلَ بِالسَّيْفِ.

qutila bi-ssayf.

“He was killed by the sword.”

But such is not the case. The active verb construction would be something like:

قَتَلَهُ فُلَانٌ بِالسَّيْفِ.

qatalahu fulānun bi-ssayf.

“So-and-so killed him with the sword.”

As you can see, فُلَانٌ “so-and-so” is actually the doer, and السَّيْفُ “the sword” is merely a prepositional phrase indicating the instrument used in the act.

Work in progress

Chapter 24.

Additional forms of the verb

Warning

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24.1. Introduction

So far we have been studying the form 1 verb (فَعَلَ يَفْعُلُ). The form 1 verb is the basic form of the verb. It consists of only the three root letters for the stateless verb.

In this chapter we will learn additional forms of the verb. These forms add extra letters to three root letters. There are about 15 or so additional forms of the verb. But only 10 or so are in common usage.

Learning these additional forms may seem tedious but we advise you to persevere because additional forms of the verb are used very commonly.

The form 1 verb has variability in the middle (ع) letter, which can have either an fat-ḥah, kasrah, or ḍammah. It also has variability in the pattern its maṣḍar. The additional forms have almost no variability of this kind. So, in one sense, the additional forms of the verb are easier than the form 1 verb.

24.1.1. Topics to cover

- usage of the masdar of one form for another form
- افتعل with the meaning of تفاعل and nuances in the meaning
- avoid using [□□] with form 6, unless as masdar. (Actually added it to Usage and Style chapter in appendix but reference it here.)

24.2. The form 2 verb فَعَّلَ يُفَعِّلُ

The form 2 verb doubles the middle ع letter. The vowel mark on the middle letter does not vary. Here are some examples of form 2 verbs:

Root	Verb	Meaning
علم	عَلَّمَ يُعَلِّمُ	to teach

Root	Verb	Meaning
قتل	قَتَلَ يَقْتُلُ	to massacre
كبر	كَبَّرَ يُكَبِّرُ	to magnify, say اللَّهُ أَكْبَرُ

24.2.1. Meaning patterns

The form 2 verb can denote a strengthening of the meaning. For example,

- كَسَرَ “to break (هـ s.th.)”; كَسَّرَ “to smash (هـ s.th.)”
- قَتَلَ “to kill (هـ s.o.)”; قَتَّلَ “to massacre (هـ s.o.)”

Often it denotes a causative meaning. For example,

- طَهَّرَ “to be pure”, طَهَّرَ “to purify (هـ، هـ s.o., s.th.)”
- عَلَّمَ “to know (هـ s.th.)”, عَلَّمَ “to teach (ب هـ or هـ هـ s.o. s.th.)”

Note that in such cases, if the form 1 verb is intransitive (e.g. طَهَّرَ) then it becomes transitive in form 2 (طَهَّرَ). And if it is transitive in form 1 (e.g. عَلَّمَ), then it becomes doubly transitive in form 2 (عَلَّمَ).

24.3. The form 3 verb فَاعِلٌ يُفَاعِلُ

The basic meaning pattern for the form 3 verb is to express or emphasize the relation of the action to someone else.

Sometimes, as an extension of the basic meaning, it expresses vying with someone in the action of the verb. For example:

- قَتَلَ “to kill (هـ s.o.)”, قَاتَلَ “to fight (هـ s.o., with s.o., or against s.o.)”, i.e., “to vie with another to kill him”.
- سَبَقَ “to precede (هـ، هـ s.o., s.th.)”, سَابَقَ “to race (هـ s.o.)”, i.e., “to vie with another to precede him”.

Part II.

Advanced

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 25.

The Arabic grammatical tradition

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

25.1. History of the Arabic grammatical tradition

During the time of the Prophet ﷺ, the Arabs spoke Classical Arabic natively.

After the time of the Prophet ﷺ, during the Rashidūn caliphate (11–41 AH), the borders of the Islāmic state had expanded beyond the Arabian peninsula. This brought upon an increased intermingling between Arab and non-Arab populations, especially in the towns and urban centers.

There are reports that, during this time, there was an increased occurrence of grammatical and pronunciation errors in spoken Arabic, especially by non-Arabs and the newer generation.

The reports also claim, that in order to safeguard the Qurʾān from being read incorrectly, efforts began to preserve Classical Arabic. This outline of events is traditionally credited as the inception of the Arabic grammatical tradition, and of the profession of the grammarian. Another reason that may have propelled grammatical activity may have been a desire to understand how to correctly produce speech modeled on Classical Arabic.¹

It is difficult to establish the authenticity of many of the reports which list specific individuals and incidents that purportedly launched Arabic grammar as a discipline.² So we are not certain who would qualify to be the very first grammarians, nor are we certain of the extent of their grammatical discourse. We do know that the early grammarians of the first and early second centuries AH, were definitely able to distinguish between correct and incorrect language.³ But their terminology and grammatical analysis were presumably rudimentary.⁴

However, in the latter half of the second century AH, Arabic grammar had

¹See also Carter, “Arabic grammar” 120

²Carter, “Arabic grammar” 119

³Carter, *Sibawayhi’s principles* 5–6

⁴Baalbaki, Introduction to *The early Islamic grammatical tradition* xv; من تاريخ النحو العربي لسعيد الأفعاني 29–30, footnote 2

already developed, from these primitive beginnings, into a highly developed system of linguistic analysis.⁵

Initially, in the second century AH, grammatical activity was centered mainly in two places: the cities of al-Baṣrah and al-Kūfah, in Iraq.⁶ By middle of the third century AH, these Baṣran and Kūfan schools had eventually moved to the Abbasid capital Baghdād. After the fourth century AH, the grammarians were more geographically widespread, with many famous later grammarians operating out of Egypt, Syria, Persia, and al-Andalus (Islāmic Spain).

Figure 25.1 depicts a (year of death) timeline and geographical distribution of some of the more well-known grammarians.

25.2. Attested usage (السَّماع)

In order to develop a grammatical framework for Classical Arabic, the grammarians first needed a collection of authentic Classical Arabic texts. The grammarians used, as their source material for this collection, a corpus of Classical Arabic texts, which we will term *attested usage*. The body of attested usage can be categorized into⁸:

1. Transmitted texts. These include:
 - a. Authorized readings of the Qurʾān
 - b. Poetry of the pre-Islāmic and early Islāmic poets
 - c. A collection of the sayings and proverbs of the Arabs
 - d. the Ḥadīth
2. Elicited speech

We will discuss these categories below:

The Qurʾān

The Qurʾān was transmitted by the Prophet ﷺ to his Companions. When the territories under the Islāmic caliphate expanded, many of the Companions were sent or relocated to the different areas under Muslim rule, and there, they began teaching the Qurʾān to their students from the Tābiʿīn. Those students taught it to the next generation and so on and so forth. The text of the Qurʾān was thus available to the grammarians and used by them as a primary linguistic source.⁹

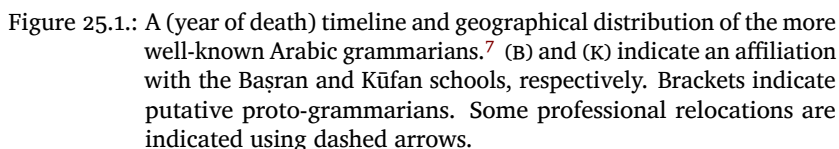
⁵Baalbaki, Introduction to *The early Islamic grammatical tradition* xiii

⁶See also Carter, “Arabic grammar” 126–127

⁷Adapted from Andreas Hallberg’s figure (and TikZ code) at [andreas-hallberg.github.io/timeline-of-arab-grammarians], and from Ovamir Anjum’s presentation at the Muslim Community Association, Santa Clara, Calif., 2013 [youtu.be/cZ6RoRMF-kI].

⁸from Suleiman, *The Arabic grammatical tradition: A study in taʿlīl* 16

⁹Suleiman, *The Arabic grammatical tradition: A study in taʿlīl* 18–19, القياس النحوي لـخالد حسين أبو عمشة



Poetry

From pre-Islāmic times into the Islāmic era, Classical Arabic poetry was composed and transmitted orally, from region to region, and from generation to generation. The grammarians used this transmitted poetry as their second major source of transmitted data.¹⁰

Some native Arabic dialects were beginning to diverge from Classical Arabic in the first and second century AH. Because of this, the grammarians were more discerning in whether they would accept the poetry of a later poet. Generally they would only accept the poetry of a later poet if his language was determined to be uninfluenced by the newer developments in the native dialects. The grammarians generally have a cut-off date somewhere in the middle of the second century AH. Poetry composed after this cut-off date is typically not accepted as a valid source of Classical Arabic.¹¹

Sayings and proverbs of the Arabs

A small portion of prose material, consisting of sayings and proverbs of the Arabs, is also generally accepted as a source of Classical Arabic data.¹²

The Ḥadīth

The Ḥadīth of the Prophet ﷺ were transmitted by his Companions to their students from the Ṭābiʿīn, who then transmitted them to their students from the next generation, and so on. Theoretically, the Ḥadīth texts should be considered a valid source of Classical Arabic. However, as a trend, the grammarians were reluctant to consider the transmitted Ḥadīth texts as part of attested usage. This is because they feared that some of the narrators in the chains of transmission of ḥadīth may have narrated their ḥadīth by meaning, rather than verbatim text. And if the narrator was himself not a native Classical Arabic speaker, then the grammarians could not be certain that the ḥadīth that reached them was correct Classical Arabic. They did not have this view regarding the Qurʾān and poetry because the Qurʾān and poetry required that they be transmitted verbatim.

This policy of the grammarians has received some criticism, with some researchers deeming that they were unnecessarily exclusive, and that if the transmitters of a ḥadīth are deemed competent, then the ḥadīth should be admitted into attested usage. In this sense, Ḥadīth texts should be considered at least as acceptable as poetry, since the possibility of variation in transmission is applicable to both.¹³ In any case, we note that if the grammarians erred then it was on the side of caution.

¹⁰Suleiman, *The Arabic grammatical tradition: A study in ta'līl* 19

¹¹القياس النحوي لخالـد حسين أبو عـمـشة 8

¹²Suleiman, *The Arabic grammatical tradition: A study in ta'līl* 16, 7–8 القياس النحوي لخالـد حسين أبو عـمـشة

¹³Suleiman, *The Arabic grammatical tradition: A study in ta'līl* 16–17, 7–8 القياس النحوي لخالـد حسين أبو عـمـشة
6/1/168ff الاستشهاد بالحديث في اللغة لمحمد الخضر حسين

Elicited speech

In addition to the transmitted texts mentioned above, the grammarians also used, as part of their source data, samples of speech that they obtained themselves by meeting and talking to native Classical Arabic speaking *informants*. Such informants continued to exist, in pockets, into the second and third centuries AH. In general, the speech of the bedouin Arabs was considered purer and more free from errors than that of the urban population. The grammarians would seek out such informants, listen to their ordinary speech in natural settings, and also ask them questions, the answers to which would betray insight into the grammatical issues that they were investigating.¹⁴

Exclusion of the grammarians' writings from attested usage

The grammarians were scholars of Classical Arabic. Yet, generally speaking, they were not native speakers of Classical Arabic. So even though they were knowledgeable in analyzing Classical Arabic, they had not learned it natively. So their writings are not considered attested usage.¹⁵ Excepted are examples that the grammarians made up and adduced to explain a particular grammatical issue.¹⁶ Those are admitted into attested usage, though subject to critique by other grammarians.¹⁷

25.3. *Analogy (القِيَاس) and grammatical reason (العِلَّة)*

Once the source material from attested usage was available to the grammarians, they set about analyzing it in order to develop a grammatical framework. The process of developing a grammatical framework is based on *analogy* and *grammatical reason*.

Analogy is the process of observing a pattern in attested usage, determining a grammatical reason for the pattern, and expounding a grammatical rule that states that whenever the grammatical reason is found, then the pattern is to be expected.¹⁸

Let's explain what we mean.

Let's say, hypothetically, a grammarian goes through the data in attested usage, and comes across sentences like:

(23) جَاءَ الرَّجُلُ

The man came.

(24) ضَرَبَ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا

Zayd beat ʿAmr.

¹⁴Suleiman, *The Arabic grammatical tradition: A study in ta'lil* 22-24

¹⁵36-37 القياس في اللغة العربية لمحمد الخضر حسين

¹⁶Suleiman, *The Arabic grammatical tradition: A study in ta'lil* 16

¹⁷Here is an example:

... ولم يذكره [سيبويه] إلا في نفس عبارته قال «وذلك عجت من ضرب زيد عمراً»، وليس في لفظه ما يدل على أنه محكي عن العرب، فيحتمل أن يكون ذلك رأياً منه، بل هو ظاهر كلامه وقياس منه

[11/75 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان]

¹⁸4-5 القياس النحوي لخلال حسين أبو عمشة

- (25) يَدْخُلُ الْبَيْتَ رَجُلٌ
A man enters the house.
- (26) لَنْ يَبْصِيعَ الْعَمَلُ الصَّالِحُ
The good deed shall not go waste.
- (27) لَمْ تَذْهَبْ هِنْدُ
Hind did not go.

When the grammarian studies these sentences he notes that they are all verbal sentences consisting of (at least) a verb and its doer. He also observes a pattern. And that is that the doer of the verb is always in the u-case. Now, he comes up with a grammatical rule that states that whenever there is a verbal sentence (this is our grammatical reason), then the doer of the verb is be in the u-case.

This rule is made for the benefit of the student who has not gone through the data in attested usage. Let's say that a student is reading a text and comes across a sentence:

- (28) صَرَبَ عَمْرًا زَيْدٌ
Zayd beat ʿAmr.

The student determines that this is a verbal sentence. Being a verbal sentence is the grammatical reason that makes the above analogy-based rule applicable. Now the student observes that صَرَبَ is the verb, and following it are two nouns: عَمْرًا in the a-case, and زَيْدٌ in the u-case. Applying the rule, he determines that the person who did the beating is Zayd, not ʿAmr. This will give him a correct understanding of the text.¹⁹

Furthermore, if the student wishes to construct his own verbal sentence, attempting to conform to SCA, then he knows that he will have to put the verb's doer in the u-case.

25.4. Anomalous usage (الشَّاذُّ)

Sometimes a pattern occurs often enough in attested usage that a rule is built upon it using analogy. However, occurrences contrary to the pattern are also found in attested usage. This usage which is contrary to analogy is called *anomalous usage*.

Let's take a look at an example of anomalous usage. When the second letter of a root is و, then its stem-10 caseless verb is regularly formed by transforming the و into an alif. This is done according to analogy. For example:

Root	stem-10 caseless verb
قوم	اسْتَقَامَ to be steadfast
عود	اسْتَعَادَ to seek refuge
نور	اسْتَنَارَ to seek light

¹⁹ 1/90, cited by Carter, "Arabic grammar" 132 شرح المقدمة المحسبة لابن بابشاذ

²²Baalbaki, "Teaching Arabic at university level" 86

complex and analogy-based rules, even if continually revised and refined, can perhaps never capture its full complexity.

Because of this, attested usage, in general, should not be rejected on the basis of analogy. And an analogy, even if it were sound, should not be applied if it leads to something that is contrary to attested usage.²³

25.6. Classical Arabic dialects and SCA

Classical Arabic consisted of multiple dialects that were spoken by the various tribes of the Arabs in the different regions of the Arabian peninsula. Even within a dialect, there were often multiple ways of choosing and forming words and expressions. When the grammarians described the Arabic of attested usage, they would typically list many of the linguistic variations found within and across the different dialects of Classical Arabic. When Standard Classical Arabic (SCA) emerged as literary standard, it converged to using only a small subset out of the many variations allowed in Classical Arabic.

We will discuss below a few examples out of the many variations of Classical Arabic, and the selections which became standardized in SCA²⁴:

Pluralizing the verb with a plural doer

The grammarians discuss a dialectal feature where a verb is pluralized even when it has a overt plural doer noun. So speakers of this dialect would say:

- (30) ضَرَبُونِي قَوْمُكَ [كتاب سيبويه 2/40]
Your people beat me.

instead of the more normative:

- (31) ضَرَبَنِي قَوْمُكَ

The dialectal feature used in example () is graded by the grammarians as rare.²⁵ It did not make its way into SCA. Instead, the more common usage in example () became the standard.

Elision of the hamzah

Hamzah was considered by the grammarians to be an original root letter. So for example, it is an original root letter in رَأْس *ra's* “head”. However, the preferred pronunciation of native Classical Arabic speakers in some regions was to elide or approximate it in favor of a vowel, or the letters و or ي, depending on the surrounding vowels.²⁶ So they would say رَاس *rās* instead of رَأْس *ra's*.²⁷ This variant pronunciation was not generally adopted in SCA, which retains the full pronunciation of hamzah for most words.

²³ 204 الانتصار لسيبويه على المبرد لابن ولاد cited by Baalbaki, “The book in the grammatical tradition” 130

²⁴ See also van Putten, “When did faṣiḥ become qabiḥ?”

²⁵ 2/40 كتاب سيبويه

²⁶ 3/541ff كتاب سيبويه

²⁷ 3/543 كتاب سيبويه

Matching ك in the far pointing nouns to the gender and number of the persons being spoken to

Classical Arabic had a feature, where the end ك in a far pointing noun could optionally be feminized, dualized, or pluralized, to match the number and gender of the persons being spoken to.²⁸ For example:

(32) وَنَادَاهُمَا رَبُّهُمَا أَلَمْ أَنْهَكُمَا عَنْ تِلْكَ الشَّجَرَةِ وَأَقُلْ لَكُمَا إِنَّ الشَّيْطَانَ لَكُمَا عَدُوٌّ

[7:22 سورة الأعراف] مُبَيَّنٌّ

And their Lord called to them, “Did I not forbid you from *that* tree and tell you that Satan is to you a clear enemy?”

This feature tends to not be used in SCA.

Variations in the pointing nouns

Classical Arabic had a large variety of pointing nouns. For example, “*that_{if}*” was expressed using both تِلْكَ *tilka* and تِيكَ *tika*. SCA uses only تِلْكَ *tilka*. Here is an example:

(33) إِنَّمَا يَدْخُلُ عَلَى رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ ثُمَّ يَقُولُ كَيْفَ تَيْكُمُ ثُمَّ يَنْصَرِفُ

[4750: صحيح البخاري]

The Messenger of Allāh ﷺ would only enter upon me, greet, then say, “How is *that* [lady]?” Then he would leave.

Similarly, Classical Arabic expressed “*there*” using both هُنَاكَ and هُنَالِكَ. In SCA, only هُنَاكَ tends to be used, whereas هُنَالِكَ is hardly ever used.

The imālah

For some words that have a final ي, and also for some long ā vowels in the middle of a word, some tribes would pronounce the vowel as ē, not ā. This vowel sound is known as *imālah*.

Here are a couple of words with *imālah* and with the SCA pronunciation:

Word	SCA pronunciation	pronunciation with imālah
حُبْلَى ²⁹	ḥublā	ḥublē
مَسَاجِد ³⁰	masājid	masējīd

The *imālah* can be heard in the Qur’ānic reading of Ḥaḥṣ ʿan Eāṣim in this āyah:

²⁸ 1/99 معاني النحو

²⁹ 4/120 كتاب سيبويه

³⁰ 4/117 كتاب سيبويه

- (34) [11:41 سورة هود] وَقَالَ ارْكَبُوا فِيهَا بِسْمِ اللَّهِ مَجْرَاهَا وَمُرْسَاهَا إِنَّ رَبِّي لَغَفُورٌ رَحِيمٌ
 And [Noah] said, "Embark therein; in the name of Allāh [are] its course and its anchorage. Indeed, my Lord is Forgiving and Merciful."

The imālah is not used in SCA.

The vowel on the attached pronouns هم/هما/ه

We have learned that when the attached pronouns هم/هما/ه are preceded by a kasrah, long-ī, or ay, then, in SCA, the ه gets a kasrah instead of a ḍammah. For example: به *bihi*, عَلَيْهِمَا *ʔalayhimā*, فِيهِمْ *fihim*. In Classical Arabic, the dominant pronunciation in some regions was to retain the ḍammah on the ه regardless of the preceding vowel. So, for example, they would say هُ *biḥū*.³¹ This variant can be heard in the Qur'ānic reading of Ḥaḥṣ ʔan ʔāṣim in this āyah:

- (35) [48:10 سورة الفتح] وَمَنْ أَوْفَىٰ بِمَا عَاهَدَ عَلَيْهُ اللَّهُ فَسَيُؤْتِيهِ أَجْرًا عَظِيمًا
 And he who fulfills that which he has promised Allāh - He will give him a great reward.

وَهُوَ, فَهُوَ, etc.

When the conjunction وَ or فَ is attached to the pronouns هُوَ and هِيَ then Classical Arabic would optionally pronounce them as فَهُوَ *fahwa* (instead of فَهُوَ *fahuwa*), وَهِيَ *wahya* (instead of وَهِيَ *wahiya*), etc.³² For example:

- (36) عَنْ أَبِي هُرَيْرَةَ، أَنَّ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ ذَكَرَ يَوْمَ الْجُمُعَةِ فَقَالَ فِيهِ سَاعَةٌ لَا صَاحِبَ الْبَخَارِ [يُؤَافِقُهَا عَبْدٌ مُسْلِمٌ، وَهُوَ قَائِمٌ يُصَلِّي، يَسْأَلُ اللَّهَ تَعَالَى شَيْئًا إِلَّا أَعْطَاهُ] إِيَّاهُ :935
 On the authority of Abū Hurayrah, Allāh's Messenger ﷺ mentioned the day of Friday and said, "There is an hour on Friday in which no Muslim servant stands praying and asks Allāh for something except that He will grant it to him."

SCA does not typically use this option.

أَرَاقٌ instead of أَهْرَاقٌ and هَرَاقٌ

In Classical Arabic the stem-4 verb أَرَاقُ يُرِيْقُ *to pour, spill* had variants: هَرَاقٌ يُهْرِيقُ and أَهْرَاقٌ يُهْرِيقُ. For example:

- (37) [5739: سنن النسائي] فَإِنْ أَصْبَحَ مِنْهُ شَيْءٌ أَهْرَاقَهُ
 If anything was left of it the following morning he poured it out.

These variants are not used in SCA.

³¹ 4/195 كتاب سيبويه

³² 5/312 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل

The u-case-ن of the caseful verb

There are five caseful verbs for which the u-case is indicated using a ن. They are:

- i. يَفْعَلُونَ *they*_{3m}
- ii. تَفْعَلُونَ *you*_{3m}
- iii. يَفْعَلَانِ *they*_{2m}
- iv. تَفْعَلَانِ *they*_{2f}/*you*₂
- v. تَفْعَلِينَ *you*_{1f}

In Classical Arabic, the ن could occasionally be dropped, even for the u-case.³³ For example:

- (38) [جامع الترمذي: 2688] وَالَّذِي نَفْسِي بِيَدِهِ لَا تَدْخُلُوا الْجَنَّةَ حَتَّى تُؤْمِنُوا وَلَا تُؤْمِنُوا حَتَّى تَحَابُّوا
By the One in Whose Hand is my soul! You will not enter Paradise until you believe, and you will not believe until you love one another.

The ن is not dropped in SCA for the u-case.

In addition, when these verbs have a speaker-participant pronoun as its direct doer, then Classical Arabic had three acceptable forms³⁴:

- i. يَفْعَلُونَنِي *yafʿalūnani*
- ii. يَفْعَلُونَنِي *yafʿalūnni*
- iii. يَفْعَلُونِي *yafʿalūni*

Option (ii) can be heard in the Qurʾānic reading of Ḥaṣṣan ʿĀṣim in this āyah:

- (39) [سورة الزمر: 39:64] قُلْ أَغْفِرُ اللَّهُ تَأْمُرُونَنِي أَعْبُدُ أَيُّهَا الْجَاهِلُونَ
Say, [O Muḥammad], "Is it other than Allāh that you order me to worship, O ignorant ones?"

SCA uses only option (i).

Summary

Classical Arabic possessed a wide and dynamic range of linguistic features during the period when it was still spoken as a native language.

SCA, by contrast, emerged later as a codified literary variety, after Classical Arabic had largely ceased to function as a mother tongue. As a result, SCA draws on only a portion of the variation that once characterized Classical Arabic. For each linguistic feature, the portion selected by SCA often, but not always, corresponds to what the grammarians identified as the base or archetypal form, from which other variations would branch out. Alternative forms and patterns, once fully natural and widely used, fell into disuse as SCA became crystallized.

By the way, some of the features discussed above, like the elision of the hamzah, the imālah, and variation in the pointing nouns (amongst others), are

³³ 1/210 شرح الكافية الشافية لابن مالك

³⁴ 1/51–53 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك

heard to this day in some of the modern vernacular dialects. This is hardly surprising since they are the product of natural evolution from the Classical Arabic dialects.

It must be stressed that the variations found in attested usage are, generally, all valid Classical Arabic. One cannot take the selection that is used in SCA and, on its basis, pronounce judgement on a non-conforming feature that is found in attested usage.

25.7. Virtual modeling (التَّقْدِير)

When the grammarians were analyzing attested usage, they observed that there is an underlying harmony and order in the Classical Arabic language,³⁵ such that it could be described with a set of coherent and comprehensive basic principles. But these principles often will not describe surface speech directly. (*Surface speech* is defined as the literal utterance that is spoken by the speaker and heard by the listener.) This is because surface speech, even when not anomalous usage, has too much variation and complexity to be wrangled into a minimalist framework of grammatical principles directly. Oftentimes, two surface speech utterances can differ in their apparent form. But there would seem to be a common grammatical principle at work that directs the structure of both surface speech utterances.

In order to describe the language using a minimal set of grammatical principles, the grammarians theorized a *virtual model* of the surface speech. This virtual model would exist only in the mind of the speaker,³⁶ under the level of surface speech. The links between inter-related linguistic phenomena would be more evident in the virtual model than in surface speech. The virtual model would be simpler in its structure, and have less variation, than surface speech. It would thus be more amenable to being described by a set of basic principles.

We will further explain virtual modeling by going through some examples in the section below:

25.7.1. Examples of virtual modeling

25.7.1.1. A virtual model of latent doer pronouns

Let's say that a hypothetical grammarian goes through some data in attested usage, and he finds surface speech samples like the following:

(40) قَرَأَ زَيْدٌ
Zayd read.

(41) رَجَعَتْ هِنْدٌ
Hind returned.

(42) يَذْهَبُ الرِّجَالُ
The men go.

³⁵Baalbaki, "Some aspects of harmony and hierarchy in Sibawayhi's grammatical analysis" 7ff

³⁶Levin, "The theory of al-taqdīr and its terminology." 142–143

The grammarian asks his native Classical Arabic speaking informant what the informant understands by the above samples. The informant tells the grammarian that he understands each one as having a complete meaning: a meaning that expresses an action (signified by the first word), and the doer of that action, (signified by the second word).

Because each sample has a complete meaning, the grammarian determines that each sample is a complete sentence. He classifies the first word in each sentence as a verb, and the second word as a noun. Based on the abundance of sentences like the above, the grammarian formulates a principle, which is that a verbal sentence needs two parts to be a complete sentence: a verb, followed by its doer (noun).

The grammarian then continues going through attested usage and finds surface speech samples like the following:

- (43) تَصَدَّقْنَ
They_f gave charity.

- (44) عَمِلْتُ
I worked.

- (45) تَكْتُبَانِ
You₂ are writing.

- (46) ذَهَبُوا
They went.

Consulting his informant, he finds that these also are complete sentences in their meaning. The informant tells him that the doer of each action is now a person who is not named, but who is known to the informant. So the grammarian classifies the doers as *pronouns*.

The grammarian also notices that the end of each verb is modified and extra sounds (expressed by letters in the script) are added after it. For example: عَمِلْتُ = عَمِلَ + تْ. Based on these observations, the grammarian devises a way, by which these sentences can still be molded to fit into his above stated principle. This is by considering the extra sounds/letters at the end of the verbs (for example, تْ in عَمِلْتُ) to be the doer pronouns. Now the sentences can be considered to have two parts: a verb followed by its doer. So far so good.

But now the grammarian comes across surface speech samples like the following:

- (47) ذَهَبَ
He went.

- (48) رَجَعَتْ
She returned.

- (49) أَعْمَلُ
I work.

(50) نَتَصَدَّقُ

We give charity.

These samples pose a problem for our grammarian. Because his informant tells him that he still understands these samples, in context, to have a complete meaning. The doer of each action is again a person who is not named but who is known to the informant.

So, evidently, samples () through () are complete sentences with pronoun doers, just like samples () through (). But the problem is that there are no apparent extra sounds/letters after the verbs which can be considered the doer.

Some of the verbs in these sentences, like in examples () and (), have extra sounds, but they are before the verb. But some verbs, like in example (), don't even have that. Example () رَجَعْتُ does have an extra ث after the verb, but that letter is kept when there is an overt doer noun, like in example () رَجَعْتُ هُنْدُ above. So the ث doesn't seem like it can be the doer. So what is the grammarian to do?

In order to keep the principle consistent, the grammarian virtually models *latent* doers for these sentences. For example () above, the latent doer is virtually modeled as [هُوَ], thus:

(51) ذَهَبَ [هُوَ]

He went.

Now the sentence has two parts: the verb ذَهَبَ, followed by its doer, the virtually modeled [هُوَ]. Thus it is compliant with the above stated principle that the grammarian developed for verbal sentences.

Here are the other examples with their virtually modeled doers:

(52) رَجَعْتُ [هِيَ]

She returned.

(53) أَعْمَلُ [أَنَا]

I work.

(54) نَتَصَدَّقُ [نَحْنُ]

We give charity.

In this way, a grammarian was able to formulate an analogy-based grammatical principle based on observation of attested usage and theorization of a virtual model.

25.7.1.2. A virtual model of أَنْ before a-case caseful verbs

We present another example of where virtual modeling is useful for coming up with grammatical principles. In chapter (ref), we studied how a a-case caseful verb can occur after the particle ل. For example:

(55) دَرَسْتُ لِأَنْجَحَ

I studied for the reason [that] I may succeed.

The particle ل here signifies the meaning *for the reason*.

The grammarians theorized that between the ل and the a-case caseful أَنْجَحَ, there existed a virtually modeled أَنْ, thus:

- (56) دَرَسْتُ لَ[أَنْ] أَنْجَحَ
I studied for the reason [that] I may succeed.

And it was this أَنْ that actually caused the caseful verb to be in the a-case. This virtual modeling allowed them to reduce the definition of ل to a preposition that only precedes nouns. And it granted to أَنْ the (more-or-less) sole privilege of causing a caseful verb to be in the a-case.³⁷

The virtual modeling of أَنْ between ل and a following a-case caseful verb is also supported by the fact that the surface speech can actually have an أَنْ in that position, for the same meaning. So we can actually also say:

- (57) دَرَسْتُ لِأَنْ أَنْجَحَ
I studied for the reason that I may succeed.

As for the restriction of ل to a preposition that only precedes nouns, then this can be seen when we apply a second level of virtual modeling: and that is to interpret (a surface or virtually modeled) أَنْ and the following a-case caseful verb as a maṣḍar construction. So the virtual model of () دَرَسْتُ لِأَنْ أَنْجَحَ is:

- (58) دَرَسْتُ لِنَجَاحِي
I studied for the reason of my success.
(i.e. in order to achieve success.)

In the virtual model in example (), we can see how ل is a preposition before the i-case noun نَجَاح.

We will see more examples of virtual modeling for the a-case caseful verb in chapter (ref), if Allāh wills.

25.7.1.3. A virtual model of a warning statement

إِيَّاكَ وَالشَّرَّ

TODO. Get from شرح ابن عثيمين 59/4

25.7.2. Some aspects regarding virtual modeling

25.7.2.1. The virtual model is not actually uttered

One point to note, regarding virtual modeling, is that the virtual model representation of a surface speech is often not actually correct as surface speech.³⁸

If we take the virtual model in () ذَهَبَ [هُوَ] as an example, then what we mean is that we don't actually say (in surface speech) ذَهَبَ هُوَ when we intend to mean *He went*. The surface speech () ذَهَبَ is the only correct way to express

³⁷Baalbaki, "Bāb al-fā" 186–189

³⁸Baalbaki, "Bāb al-fā" 190; Versteegh, "The notion of underlying levels" 278

this intended meaning. The representation [هُوَ] ذَهَبَ is only a *virtual model* of the surface speech ذَهَبَ that elucidates the grammar of the sentence.

Sometimes, however, a virtual model representation is actually correct as surface speech, for more-or-less the same, or a similar meaning. This can be, for example, when the virtual model restores a word or expression which is implied and was optionally deleted. For example, we saw that the virtually modeled أَنْ دَرَسْتُ لِأَنْجَحَ () in example () can actually be expressed in surface speech, thus:

(59) دَرَسْتُ لِأَنْ أَنْجَحَ

I studied for the reason that I may succeed.

By the way, coincidentally, هُوَ ذَهَبَ is actually a correct sentence in its own right, but it has a different meaning than the intended ذَهَبَ *He went*. It uses the pronoun هُوَ as an *emphatic follower* (see chapter (ref)).

25.7.2.2. The literal representation used in the virtual model may not be real

Another point is that the grammarians' representation of the virtual model may not necessarily be real.

In the example of latent doer pronouns, the virtually modeled doers, ([هُوَ], [أَنَا], [هِيَ]), and [نَحْنُ] in examples () through () above) are not "real" representations of the latent doer pronouns. They are only written as such because, for his analysis, the grammarian needs some words to represent the latent doer pronouns in the virtual model. And because there are no real words to denote the latent doer pronouns, the grammarian borrows the words that denote the detached pronouns to do so.

As it happens, the virtually modeled latent pronouns are theorized to be (invisible/in audible) *attached* pronouns,³⁹ just like the overt doer pronouns أَنَا, نَحْنُ, هِيَ, etc. Virtually modeling the latent doer pronouns as attached pronouns has benefits that keeps the grammatical framework coherent across different grammatical topics. We will see one such benefit in chapter (ref), when we discuss the emphatic follower.

25.7.2.3. Virtual modeling may be required to correctly interpret a text

Consider the following āyah from the Qurʾān:

(60) وَجَاءُوا عَلَى قَمِيصِهِ بِدَمٍ كَذِبٍ قَالَ بَلْ سَوَّلَتْ لَكُمْ أَنْفُسُكُمْ أَمْرًا فَصَبِرْ جَمِيلًا وَاللَّهُ

[سورة يوسف 12:18] الْمُسْتَعَانُ عَلَى مَا تَصِفُونَ

And they brought upon his shirt false blood. [Jacob] said, "Rather, your souls have enticed you to something, so patience is most fitting. And Allāh is the one sought for help against that which you describe."

تمهيد ز-ط، الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي³⁹

The part *صَبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ* has been analyzed as being able to be bear multiple interpretations, all requiring virtual modeling. One analysis is that *صَبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ* is a subject whose info is deleted. The virtual model for this analysis is:

- (61) [12:18 سورة يوسف for *الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي*] *صَبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ أَمْتَلٌ*
A beautiful patience is exemplary.

The second analysis is that *صَبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ* is a info whose subject is deleted. The virtual model for this analysis is:

- (62) [12:18 سورة يوسف for *الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي*] *أَمْرِي صَبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ*
My affair is a beautiful patience.

A third analysis is that *صَبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ* is used as a deputy to a verb (see section (maf3ool mutlaq)) in a command to oneself. The virtual model for this analysis is:

- (63) [12:18 سورة يوسف for *تفسير ابن عاشور*] *اَصْبِرْ صَبْرًا جَمِيلًا*
Be patient [with] a beautiful patience!

25.7.2.4. Virtual modeling can be used to interpret anomalous usage

Grammarians also sometimes used virtual modeling as a tool to make anomalous usage fit coherently into their grammatical framework.⁴⁰ For example, if we consider the line of poetry that we discussed in section (ref) above:

- (64) [القياس في اللغة العربية لمحمد] *جَارِيَةٌ فِي دِرْعِهَا الْفَضْفَاضِ ~ أَبْيَضُ مِنْ أُخْتِ بَنِي إِبَاضِ*
 [42] الخضر حسين
A girl in her full long shirt ~ whiter than a [woman of the tribe] of Banū Ibād

أَبْيَضُ when taken to mean *whiter* is anomalous usage, as we have mentioned. One attempt to make it fit into the grammarians' analogy-based rules is by interpreting *أَبْيَضُ* not as a comparative noun, but as an adjectival noun synonymous to *مُبَيَّضُ white*. An implied noun *جَسَدُ body* is also inserted.⁴¹ Such that the virtual model is:

- (65) [1/123 الإنصاف للأنباري] *فِي دِرْعِهَا جَسَدٌ مُبَيَّضٌ مِنْ أُخْتِ بَنِي إِبَاضِ*
 ... *in her shirt is a white body from [a woman of the tribe] of Banū Ibād*

Needless to say, this is pretty convoluted virtual modeling. Some grammarians would prefer to let such anomalous usage be, and they wouldn't attempt to force such complicated virtual modeling to make the anomalous usage fit into their analogy-based grammatical system.⁴²

⁴⁰ 42 القياس في اللغة العربية لمحمد الخضر حسين

⁴¹ 1/123 الإنصاف للأنباري

⁴² 42 القياس في اللغة العربية لمحمد الخضر حسين

Here is another example of using virtual modeling with anomalous usage:

ولا يتقدم نعت المصدر على معمله فلا يقال عرفت سوقك العنيف الإبل، لأن معمول المصدر منه بمنزلة الصلة من الموصول، فلا يتقدم نعت المصدر على معمله، كما لا يتقدم نعت الموصول على صلته، فإن ورد ما يوهم خلاف ذلك قدر فعل بعد النعت يتعلّق به المعمول المتأخّر. فمن ذلك قول الحطيئة:
 أَرَمَعْتُ يَأْسًا مُبِينًا مِنْ نَوَالِكُمْ ~ وَلَنْ تَرَى طَارِدًا لِلْحُرِّ كَالْيَأْسِ

فالمبتدأ إلى فهم سامع هذا البيت تعليق من نوالكم بياسا، وهو غير جائز كما ذكرت، بل يتعلّق بيئست مضمرا
 [3/108-109 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك]

25.7.2.5. There can be multiple ‘levels’ of virtual modeling

In order to fit a surface speech into analogy, there can be multiple ‘levels’ of virtual modeling done. As an example, we saw in section (ref) above that in the sentence () دَرَسْتُ لِأَنْجَحَ, first an أَنْ was virtually modeled between لَ and the a-case caseful thus: () دَرَسْتُ لِأَنْ أَنْجَحَ.

And then a further level of virtual modeling was done, where أَنْ and the following a-case caseful verb was reinterpreted as a maṣdar construction: () دَرَسْتُ لِنَجَاحِي.

Sometimes a virtual model mainly details the meaning of a sentence, rather than its syntactic structure. At all layers, however, virtual modeling serves to explain the grammar of the sentence.

25.7.3. Benefits and risks of virtual modeling

Virtual modeling is an analytic tool that allows the grammarian to discover and reconstruct a theorized structure that underlies surface speech.⁴³ This theorized underlying structure is more basic than the surface structure, and more easily described with a set of rules.⁴⁴ Without virtual modeling, the set of rules, which the grammarian would have to formulate, would increase greatly to capture all the different variations in surface speech. Furthermore, the rules would be disparate, and would not readily indicate the links between related linguistic phenomena. Those links are more obvious in the virtual model.

Having said that, virtual modeling is essentially a speculative exercise which is done by the grammarian. Because the virtual model, by its very definition, does not manifest in surface speech, the grammarian can only theorize its existence and formulation. As such, virtual modeling entails risks because it is based on the grammarian’s subjective reasoning.⁴⁵

Therefore, the grammarian does, or should, attempt to validate his virtual modeling approach, to whatever degree possible. One way to do this is by basing the virtual model on the meaning that a native speaker understands from the surface speech, like our hypothetical grammarian did for latent doer pronouns in section (ref) above.

Another way is to attempt to find traces of the virtual model in the surface speech, as was done in section (ref) above, for the virtual modeling of أَنْ between لَ and a following a-case caseful verb.

At the very least, any virtual model should be subservient to, and not contradict, the intended meaning of the surface speech.⁴⁶

25.8. Difference of opinion between the grammarians

The grammarians sometimes differed with one another regarding the extraction of analogy-based rules from attested usage. We have seen a couple of examples

⁴³Baalbaki, “Bāb al-fā” 188

⁴⁴Baalbaki, “Bāb al-fā” 190

⁴⁵Baalbaki, “Bāb al-fā” 190

⁴⁶See also Baalbaki, “Bāb al-fā” 188

of their differences in the sections above. These differences often, though not always, occur along grammatical school lines, with the Kūfans purportedly⁴⁷ holding one opinion, and the Baṣrans another.⁴⁸ Sometimes, the difference is more in terminology than anything else. For example, the Baṣrans in their definition of the *doer*, mandated that the doer can only occur after the verb in word order. The Kūfans on the other hand allowed the doer to occur before the verb. However, both schools allowed sentences like:

(66) زَيْدٌ جَاءَ
Zayd came.

It's just that the Kūfans would analyze زَيْدٌ as a doer, whereas the Baṣrans would analyze it as a subject.⁴⁹

Some more differences between the two schools are that the Kūfans are regarded as more lax in forming analogy-based rules based on anomalous usage. Whereas the Baṣrans liked to keep their rules more taut, attempting to interpret rare and anomalous usages through virtual modeling⁵⁰ so that everything aligned with a minimal set of basic grammatical principles. Both, however, as a general rule, accepted the anomalous usage as valid attested usage. The Kūfans are also thought to be more grounded in that they tried to stay closer to attested usage,⁵¹ rather than venturing into too much virtual modeling.

Generally speaking, the Baṣrans formed their terminology and opinions with a view to building a comprehensive and coherent grammatical system. And it is their terminology and opinions that became the standard with later grammarians. Nevertheless, the Kūfan view is often brought in as a reality check against what may sometimes be deemed to be excessive rule strictness and virtual modeling on the part of the Baṣrans.⁵²

⁴⁷Carter, "Arabic grammar" 126

⁴⁸See Baalbaki, Introduction to *The early Islamic grammatical tradition*, §"The Basran/Kufan divide", pp. xxxix–xlii

⁴⁹معاني النحو 2/45

⁵⁰41–42 القياس في اللغة العربية لمحمد الخضر حسين

⁵¹11/75 التذليل والتكميل لأبي حيان

⁵²See also Carter, "Arabic grammar" 126–127

Work in progress

Chapter 26.

Sentence and government theory

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

26.1. Introduction

In this chapter, we will study the Arabic grammatical model for constructing sentences. We will first define some linguistic terms.

26.1.1. Truth-evaluability

Statements are classified into two types:

- i. a truth-evaluable statement
- ii. a non-truth-evaluable statement

A *truth-evaluable* statement is one that can be judged to be true or false. In other words it is falsifiable. For example, if we have a statement:

(67) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Zayd is standing.

The above statement may be judged to have a truth value. If zayd is actually standing, then the statement is true. And if zayd is not standing, then the statement is false.

A *non-truth-evaluable* statement, on the other hand, does not have a truth value. Here are some examples of non-truth-evaluable statements:

(68) اُضْرِبْ زَيْدًا
Beat Zayd!

(69) لَا تَفْعَلْ
Don't do [it]!

(70) يَا زَيْدُ
O Zayd

(71) مَنْ هُوَ
Who is he?

26.1.2. Syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and stylistics

Syntax and semantics

Semantics is the study of the meanings of words. And *syntax* is the study of how words combine to form phrases and sentences. Syntax deals with the grammatical relationships between the words in a sentence. For example, consider the adjectival noun كَبِير. Semantically, it gives the meaning of something being big. When it is in a linguistic environment, like a phrase or a sentence, then its syntactical role is determined by the grammatical relationships it has with other words in the sentence.

Consider the following sentence:

- (72) الْبَيْتُ كَبِيرٌ
The house is big

In the above sentence, كَبِير is *syntactically* a info.

Now consider the following sentence:

- (73) دَخَلَ بَيْتًا كَبِيرًا
He entered a big house.

Now the same noun كَبِير is syntactically a attribute. In both examples, كَبِير has the same semantic signification.

Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of what sentences mean in a specific context or situation.

Stylistics

In order to express a meaning, there will often be a normal way to choose words or construct a sentence's structure. If, for some effect (rhetorical, persuasive, literary, etc.), the speaker chooses to deviate from this norm, then he is doing so for stylistic reasons.¹

26.2. The theory of government

A sentence in Arabic is constituted from elements. An element can be a noun, a verb, or a particle. Of these elements, some have the quality of case. These are called *caseful* elements. The caseful elements are nouns and caseful verbs. A noun may be either in the u-case, a-case, or i-case. And a caseful verb may be either in the u-case, a-case, or $\emptyset$ -case.

The theory of government states that a caseful element in a sentence is *governed* in a particular case by a *governor*.

For example:

¹Hickey, L, "Stylistics, Pragmatics, and Pragmastylistics"

(74) فِي الدَّارِ
in the house

In the above example, the preposition فِي causes the noun الدَّار to be in the i-case. So we say that the governor فِي governs الدَّار (the governee) in the i-case.

26.3. Some common governees

Let's look at some common governor-governee relationships. We will make use of the following example:

(75) قَرَأَ الْعُلَامُ الطَّوِيلُ كِتَابَ الْجَارِيَةِ فِي الدَّارِ الْكَبِيرَةِ

The i-case noun

A noun in the i-case is governed by a preceding preposition or annexed noun. We have already seen that the i-case noun الدَّار is governed by the preceding preposition فِي. We also see that the i-case annexed-to noun الْجَارِيَةِ is governed by the annexed noun كِتَاب.

The doer

The doer of a verb is governed by its preceding verb. In our example the verb قَرَأَ governs its doer الْعُلَامُ in the u-case.

The direct doee

The direct doee is also governed by its verb. In our example the verb قَرَأَ governs its direct doee كِتَاب in the a-case.

The attribute

A attribute is governed by governor of its attributee. In our example, the attribute الطَّوِيلُ is governed in the u-case by قَرَأَ, which is the governor of its attributee الْعُلَامُ. Similarly, the attribute الْكَبِيرَةِ is governed in the i-case by the preposition فِي because فِي also governs its attributee الدَّار.

Ungoverned elements

Not every element in a sentence is governed by a governor. For example, the caseless verb قَرَأَ has no case, and thus, no governor.

Here is a diagram depicting the above governor-governee relationships:

DIAGRAM

26.4. The two indispensable elements of a sentence

In the Arabic grammatical tradition, a sentence can be modeled as analogous to the structure of a simple *lean-to* building. Figure 26.1 depicts this model. This structure requires two *indispensable* elements in order to be structurally complete.² These two indispensable elements are:

- i. The leaned-against element
- ii. The leaning element

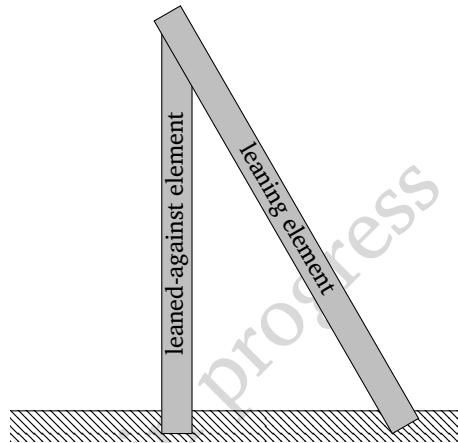


Figure 26.1.: A lean-to building as the model for an Arabic sentence.

The leaned-against element is the primary indispensable element. It represents whom the sentence is about, i.e. its topic. The leaning element rests against the leaned-against element. It expresses some property about the leaned-against element that completes the meaning of the sentence.³

Once the two indispensable elements are in place, the sentence is structurally complete. Other *dispensable* elements (see section (ref) below) may be added in addition to the indispensable elements to add meaning to the sentence, but they are not required to make the sentence structurally complete.

Let's look at the indispensable elements for the two types of Arabic sentences:

26.4.1. The indispensable elements of a nounal sentence

In a nounal sentence the subject is the leaned-against element and the info is the leaning element. Consider the following nounal sentence:

(76) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Zayd is standing.

²Wright 2/250ff; الجملة العربية لفاضل السامرائي 13ff

³See also Talmon, "Musnad, musnad ilayhi and the early history of Arabic grammar: A reconsideration"

DIAGRAM

Example (76) above is a nounal sentence. The subject زَيْدٌ is the leaned-against element. It is the topic of the sentence. The info قَائِمٌ is the leaning element. It is a comment on the topic, giving us some information about زَيْدٌ.

26.4.2. The indispensable elements of a verbal sentence

In a verbal sentence the verb is the leaning element and its doer is the leaned-against element. Consider the following verbal sentence:

(77) قَامَ زَيْدٌ

DIAGRAM

Example (77) above is a verbal sentence. The doer زَيْدٌ is the leaned-against element. It is the topic of the sentence. And the verb قَامَ is the leaning element. It is a comment on the topic.

26.5. Foundational government

In order to build a sentence from the indispensable elements, a sentence needs *foundational government*.⁴

Foundational government is any and all government prior to, and until, the first governed indispensable element. Foundational government may be of different types:

One of the two indispensable elements is the foundational government

In some sentences, the initial governor may be one of the two indispensable elements. In example (77) above, the verb قَامَ governs its doer زَيْدٌ. The caseless verb قَامَ has no case and thus needs no governor. So it is, itself, the foundational government.

DIAGRAM

Another (non-indispensable) element is the foundational government

The initial governor may be internal to the sentence but not one of the two indispensable elements.

Here are some examples:

(78) لَمْ يَضْرِبِ الرَّجُلُ غُلَامَ زَيْدٍ [Owens, J., *The foundations of grammar* §2.2.3, 41]
The man did not beat Zayd's slave.

DIAGRAM

(79) إِنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ
Indeed Zayd is standing.

DIAGRAM

⁴See Owens, J., *The foundations of grammar* §2.3.6.1, 54

The abstract foundational government

Very commonly, the foundational government is not an actual word, but only an abstract concept. When there is one or more careful indispensable elements in a sentence with no overt (i.e. observable) governor, then this necessitates bringing in a *abstract* foundational government.⁵ For example:

- (80) زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ [Peled, *Sentence types* 87]
Zayd is setting out.

The abstract foundational government governs both the leaned-against element (the subject زَيْدٌ), and the leaning element (the info مُنْطَلِقٌ) in the u-case.

- (81) يَقُومُ زَيْدٌ
Zayd stands

The abstract foundational government governs the leaning element (the careful verb يَقُومُ) in the u-case. And, as usual, the verb يَقُومُ governs its doer زَيْدٌ (the leaned-against element) in the u-case.

26.6. Dispensable elements

A dispensable element is any careful element in a sentence, following the foundational government (in government hierarchy), that is not either of the two indispensable elements. The source of government for a dispensable element must be, directly or indirectly, one of the indispensable elements.

We know from section (ref) above, that in a nounal sentence the indispensable elements are the subject and the info. And that in a verbal sentence the indispensable elements are the verb and its doer. So all other elements besides these two, and elements that constitute the foundational government, are dispensable elements. Here is an (incomplete) list of some common dispensable elements:

- the attribute
- the direct doee (usually)
- the absolute doee (see chapter (ref))
- the adverb of time and the adverb of place (see chapter (ref))
- the adverb of reason (see chapter (ref))
- the accompanying doee (see chapter (ref))
- the ḥāl (see chapter (ref))
- the tamyiz (see chapter (ref))

By the way, when we say *dispensable*, we mean that an element is dispensable in the sense that it is not required to make the sentence structurally complete. We don't mean that it is superfluous in terms of its meaning. In fact, a dispensable element may be essential for the correct meaning of the sentence. For example, consider the āyah:

⁵Owens, J., *The foundations of grammar* 55; Peled, *Sentence types* 87–88

- (82) وَمَا خَلَقْنَا السَّمَاءَ وَالْأَرْضَ وَمَا بَيْنَهُمَا لَاعِبِينَ [1/14 معاني النحو cited by سورة الأنبياء 21:16]
And We did not create the heaven and earth and that between them in play.

لَاعِبِينَ is a hāl (see in chapter (ref)), which is a dispensable element. If we remove it from the sentence, then the sentence will be structurally complete but it will have an incorrect meaning.

26.7. Refining the definitions of the nounal sentence and the verbal sentence

We know that there are two basic types of Arabic sentences:

- i. The nounal sentence
- ii. The verbal sentence

Previously we had said that a nounal sentence is one that begins with a noun. And a verbal sentence is one that begins with a verb. We will now refine these definitions:

A *nounal sentence* is one whose indispensable elements are two nouns: a subject (as the leaned-against element) and an info (as the leaning element). And a *verbal sentence* is one whose indispensable elements are a verb (as the leaning element) and its doer (as the leaned-against element).

Consider, for example, the following sentence:

- (83) بَلْ زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Rather Zayd is standing.

The first word in the sentence above is بَلْ. It is a particle and not an indispensable element. Removing it from the sentence, we see that the remaining indispensable elements are two nouns: زَيْدٌ (the subject) and قَائِمٌ (as the info). So the sentence is a nounal sentence.

Let's take a look at another example:

- (84) زَيْدًا رَأَيْتُ [Peled, *Sentence types* 28]
[It was] Zayd I saw.

The first word in the sentence is زَيْدًا. It is a direct doer. We learned in section (ref) above that a direct doer is not usually an indispensable element. Rather, it is usually a dispensable element. Stripping the sentence of this dispensable element, we are left with رَأَيْتُ I saw. This is a verbal sentence. The verb رَأَى is the leaning element and its doer, the pronoun ت, is the leaned-against element.

26.8. Identifying the indispensable elements in a nounal sentence

It can sometimes be complicated to tell which of the two indispensable elements in a nounal sentence is the leaned-against element and which is the leaning element. We will discuss several cases below:

26.8.1. When there is an overt foundational government

When there is an overt foundational government, like *إِنَّ*, *كَانَ*, etc., then it is usually easy to tell which is the leaned-against element and which is the leaning element. For example:

- (85) *فَإِنَّ حَسْبَكَ اللَّهُ* [سورة الأنفال: 8:62]
then sufficient for you is Allāh

In example (85) above, *حَسْبَ* is in the a-case as the subject and the word *اللَّهُ* is in the u-case as the info. This tells us that *حَسْبَ* is the leaned-against element and the word *اللَّهُ* is the leaning element.

26.8.2. One indispensable element is definite and the other indispensable element is indefinite

When one indispensable element is definite and the other indispensable element is indefinite, then it is usually the case that the definite element is the leaned-against element (as the subject) and the indefinite element is the leaning element (as the info).

In terms of pragmatics, the leaned-against element and the leaning element represent 'given' and 'new' information. That is, the listener knows who the leaned-against element is and can identify him or it. So the leaned-against element is a 'given' to the listener. And the speaker is providing 'new' information about the leaned-against element to the listener. The definite element represents the 'given' information, which the listener already knows. And the indefinite element represents 'new' information.

Let's take a look at an example:

- (86) *تَمِيمِي أَنَا* [Peled, *Sentence types* 121]
A Tamimite I am.

The pronoun *أَنَا* is definite. Therefore it is the leaned-against element (as the subject). And the word *تَمِيمِي* is indefinite. Therefore it is the leaning element (as the info). Example (86) is an inverted order sentence where the info is fronted and the subject is placed after it.

In special cases, some grammarians hold that it is possible to have an indefinite subject and a definite info.⁶ One special case is when a question noun is the subject. (Question nouns are considered indefinite.) For example:

- (87) *كَمْ مَالِكَ* [1/231 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك]
How much is your wealth?

- (88) *أَيُّ لَيْلَةٍ لَيْلَةُ الْقَدَرِ* [3513: جامع الترمذي]
Which night is the night of Decree

⁶<https://alababmisir.com/%D8%B3%D8%A4%D8%A7%D9%84-%D9%87%D9%84-%D9%8A%D8%AC%D9%88%D8%B2-%D8%A3%D9%86-%D9%8A%D8%A3%D8%AA%D9%8A-%D8%A7%D9%84%D9%85%D8%A8%D8%AA%D8%AF%D8%A3-%D9%86%D9%83%D8%B1%D8%A9-%D9%88%D8%A7%D9%84%D8%AE/>

Another special case is when the subject is an indefinite comparative noun in sentences like:

- (89) 1/231 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك [حَيْرٌ مِنْكَ زَيْدٌ]
Better than you is Zayd

In the above sentence, حَيْرٌ is considered the subject of the sentence.

26.8.3. Both indispensable elements are definite

When both indispensable elements are definite, then typically the first is the subject and the second is the info. For example:

- (90) 55a: [صحيح مسلم] الدِّينُ النَّصِيحَةُ (90)
The Religion is sincerity.

However, if it is known from context that one of the two elements is the 'given' information and the other is the 'new' information, then the given information will be the subject and the new information will be the info, regardless of word-order.⁷

For example, consider a situation where one wishes to say, "Abū Yūsuf is [like] Abū Ḥanīfah." (Imām Abū Yūsuf was the foremost student of Imām Abū Ḥanīfah.) The normal way to express this sentence is:

- (91) 1/233 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] أَبُو يُوسُفَ أَبُو حَنِيفَةَ
Abū Yūsuf is [like] Abū Ḥanīfah.

DIAGRAM

However, if it is pragmatically known that the topic of the sentence is أَبُو يُوسُفَ, then it is 'given' that أَبُو يُوسُفَ is the leaned-against element (as the subject). Similarly, it is known that likening him to أَبُو حَنِيفَةَ is the 'new' information. Therefore, أَبُو حَنِيفَةَ is the leaning element (as the info). In this case, the sentence order can be flexible, and the info can be fronted (stylistically), for the same meaning, thus:

- (92) أَبُو حَنِيفَةَ أَبُو يُوسُفَ
[Like] Abū Ḥanīfah, Abū Yūsuf is.

DIAGRAM

26.8.4. Both indispensable elements are indefinite

When both indispensable elements are indefinite then, again, the first is likely to be the subject and the second to be the info. Examples:

- (93) 1/232 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] أَفْضَلُ مِنْ زَيْدٍ أَفْضَلُ مِنْ عَمْرٍو
[The person] better than Zayd is better than ʿAmr.

- (94) 42:40 [سورة الشورى] وَجَزَاءُ سَيِّئَةٍ سَيِّئَةٌ مِثْلُهَا
And the retribution for an evil act is an evil one like it

⁷ 1/168 معاني النحو; 1/233 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

26.9. The compound sentence

In a nounal sentence, the info is, by default, a single noun. See example (67) again:

- (67) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Zayd is standing.

In example (67), قَائِمٌ is a single word and it is the info. This is what we may call a *simple* nounal sentence.

In contrast, in a *compound* nounal sentence, the info is itself a complete sentence. For example:

- (95) زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ
Zayd – he stands

In example (95) above, زَيْدٌ is the subject and يَقُومُ is the info. But يَقُومُ is not a single word here. It is in fact a complete sentence. This is because, as we know, a verb *must* be followed by its doer. And if there is no overt doer, then a latent doer pronoun is implicated. So يَقُومُ is a verbal sentence with the meaning *he stands*.

Here is example of a compound nounal sentence, whose info is also a nounal sentence:

- (96) زَيْدٌ أَبُوهُ قَائِمٌ [4/26 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان]
Zayd – his father is standing.

(FIXME: MOVE THIS TO KAANA CHAPTER):

Compound sentences are very common with كَانَ. Remember from section (ref) above that كَانَ is a deficient verb, and thus needs a info to grammatically the sentence. This info may be a single word, like:

- (97) كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا
Zayd was standing.

Or the info of كَانَ may be a complete sentence:

- (98) كَانَ زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ
Zayd used to stand.

(END FIXME)

The info of a compound nounal sentence is typically a truth-evaluable sentence. But it need not be so. A non-truth-evaluable sentence is also valid as a info⁸ For example:

- (99) زَيْدٌ أَضْرَبَهُ [4/27 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان]
Zayd – hit him!
(i.e. *Hit Zayd!*)

⁸ 4/27 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان; 1/347 شرح جمل الزجاجي لابن عصفور

26.9.1. The government of the compound nounal sentence

The info of a compound nounal sentence is a complete sentence. Therefore, it has its own independent internal government for all elements within it (including its own foundational government). But the *entire* info is governed, albeit not markedly, by a governor in the outer sentence. For example, consider the following compound nounal sentence:

- (100) زَيْدٌ لَمْ يَضْرِبْ عَمْرًا
Zayd – he did not hit Emr

In example (100) above, لَمْ يَضْرِبْ عَمْرًا is a complete sentence that is the info of the outer sentence. This inner sentence has its own internal government, starting with its foundational government لَمْ. The foundational government لَمْ governs the verb يَضْرِبْ in the $\emptyset$ -case. And the verb يَضْرِبْ governs an implicated latent doer pronoun (هُوَ) in the u-case, and the direct doee عَمْرًا in the a-case.

We will say that the inner sentence لَمْ يَضْرِبْ عَمْرًا is a positional u-case noun as the info of the outer sentence.

The government of this compound sentence is illustrated in the diagram below:

DIAGRAM

26.9.2. Invalid inner sentences

Some sentences are not valid as inner sentences:

- A sentence beginning with لَكِنْ, حَتَّى, or بَلْ is not valid.⁹
- A vocative sentence is not valid.¹⁰ So, we cannot say, for example:

- (101) 4/28 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان] زيد يا أخاه ×
“Zayd – O his brother.”

26.9.3. The link between the inner and outer sentence

It is usually necessary for there to be a link between the inner sentence, and the subject of the outer sentence. This link is typically supplied by a pronoun. Let's look at some examples:

- (102) 1/278 المقتصد للرجاني] زَيْدٌ قَامَ أَبُوهُ
Zayd – his father stood up.

DIAGRAM

In example (102) above, the link is the pronoun δ in abuuhu.

- (103) 1/278 المقتصد للرجاني] زَيْدٌ قَامَ
Zayd – he stood up.

⁹ 4/28 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان

¹⁰ 4/28 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان

DIAGRAM

In example (103) above, the link is the implied singular masculine pronoun that is the doer of قَامَ.

Generally, if there is no such link between the inner sentence and the subject of the outer sentence, then the compound sentence is invalid.¹¹{.citex} So we cannot say, for example:

- (104) [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 94 citing Peled, *Sentence types* 94] زَيْدٌ قَامَ عَمْرٌ ×
Zayd – Emr stood up

A pointing noun as the link

Instead of a pronoun, an pointing noun may serve as the link. For example:

- (105) [1/204 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية cited by 7:26 سورة الأعراف] وَلِبَاسُ التَّقْوَىٰ ذَٰلِكَ خَيْرٌ
But the clothing of righteousness - that is best.

A repeated subject as the link

The subject of the outer sentence may be repeated in the inner sentence, and this is sufficient as the link. For example:

- (106) [1/204 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية cited by 69:1-2 سورة الحاقة] مَا الْهَاقَةُ هَاقَةً
The Inevitable Reality - What is the Inevitable Reality?

No need for the link

In cases where the info of the outer sentence is more general than its subject a link is not needed. For example:

- (107) [1/204 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية, Wright 2/256D] زَيْدٌ نِعَمَ الرَّجُلُ
Zayd – an excellent man

The link is also not needed when the subject of the outer sentence and its info are perfectly identical in meaning. For example:

- (108) [1/204 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية, Wright 2/256D] نُطْقِي اللَّهَ حُسْبِي
My utterance is "Allāh is sufficient for me."

- (109) [1/204 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية, Wright 2/256D] قَوْلِي لَا إِلَهَ إِلَّا اللَّهُ
My saying is "There is no god but Allāh."

¹¹Peled, *Sentence types* 94 citing المفصل على يعيش ابن شرح; المقتصد للجرجاني

An implied link

The link, even when technically required, is sometimes omitted. But it remains implied. This is in cases in which the sense is perfectly clear without it.¹² For example:

- (110) أَلْسَمُنْ مَنَوَانِ بِدِرْهَمٍ [Wright 2/256C; 1/278; المقتصد للجرجاني; شرح الرضي على الكافية 1/238]
The ghēe is (at the rate of) two manās for a dirham.

In the example above, the sentence with the link restored is أَلْسَمُنْ مَنَوَانِ مِنْهُ بِدِرْهَمٍ *two manās of it for a dirham.*

26.10. Other complete sentences in place of nouns

It is not only the info which can be replaced with a complete sentence. Other grammatical categories are also, by default, a single noun, but which can be replaced with complete sentences. We will discuss some of these categories below, and treat other categories in their respective chapters (like the ḥāl, the CR, and verbs of perception).

26.10.1. The direct doee as a complete sentence

A sentence which is direct speech occurs in the place of a direct doee. For example:

- (111) قَالَ إِنِّي عَبْدُ اللَّهِ [19:30 سورة مريم cited by 1/23 شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب]
[Jesus] said, "Indeed, I am the servant of Allāh.

In the example above, the sentence قَالَ إِنِّي عَبْدُ اللَّهِ is in place of the a-case direct doee of قَالَ.

A complete sentence can also occur as a direct doee with verbs of perception. Examples:

- (112) ظَنَنْتُ زَيْدًا يَقْرَأُ [1/24 شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب]
I believed Zayd [to be] reading.

In the example above, the verbal sentence يَقْرَأُ is in place of the a-case direct doee of ظَنَنْتُ. We will learn more about this category in chapter (ref), if Allāh wills.

26.10.2. The attribute as a complete sentence

The attribute is, in principle, a single noun.

However, an entire sentence may occur in place of the single noun. For example, instead of saying مَرَزْتُ بَرَجُلٍ قَائِمٍ, we can replace the single word attribute قَائِمٍ with the sentence يَقُومُ, thus:

¹²Wright 2/256B

- (113) مَرَزَتْ بِرَجُلٍ يَقُومُ [308 الإيضاح للفارسي]
I passed by a man [that] stands.
 (literally: *I passed by a 'he stands' man.*

Note that the caseful verb يَقُومُ is in the u-case. This is because يَقُومُ is a complete sentence (with an implied doer pronoun). So it has its own internal government that is not affected by any element in the outer sentence. Thus, the case of the attributee رَجُلٍ has no effect on any case within the sentence-attribute. However, the entire sentence attribute is *in place* of a i-case noun as the attribute of رَجُلٍ.

Substituting a single-noun attribute with its corresponding caseful verb is the most basic form of the sentence-attribute. However, more complex sentence-attributes may also be formed. For example:

- (114) 3/276 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكُ لَابِنَ هِشَامٍ [2:281 سورة البقرة] وَأَتَّقُوا يَوْمًا تُرْجَعُونَ فِيهِ إِلَى اللَّهِ
And fear a Day when you will be returned to Allāh.

In example (114) above, the sentence يُرْجَعُونَ فِيهِ إِلَى اللَّهِ is a attribute of يَوْمًا.

There are three conditions that must be met in order for a sentence to occur as a attribute: [3/275–278] أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكُ لَابِنَ هِشَامٍ

1. The attributee must be indefinite, either in wording or in meaning.
2. The sentence-attribute must contain a link that links back to the attributee.
3. The sentence-attribute should be truth-evaluable.

Let's discuss each of these conditions.

Indefiniteness of the attributee

We already saw an example of an indefinite (in wording) attributee in example (114) above. Here is an example of a attributee which is definite in wording, but indefinite in meaning:

- (115) 3/276 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكُ لَابِنَ هِشَامٍ وَلَقَدْ أَمَرْتُ عَلَى اللَّيْمِ بِسُبْحِي
And indeed I pass by the ignoble [person that] insults me

In example (115) the attributee اللَّيْمِ is referring to a general person, and is therefore indefinite in meaning.

A link that links back to the attributee

In example (114), the link, which links back to the attributee يَوْمًا, is the pronoun هِ in فِيهِ.

Sometimes the link is not explicit, but is implied. For example:

- (116) 3/277 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكُ لَابِنَ هِشَامٍ [2:123 سورة البقرة] وَأَتَّقُوا يَوْمًا لَا تَجْزِي نَفْسٌ عَنْ نَفْسٍ شَيْئًا
And fear a Day when no soul will suffice for another soul at all

The implied link is the pronoun هِ in an implied فِيهِ, i.e. فِيهِ تَجْزِي فِيهِ.

The sentence-attribute should be truth-evaluable

The following sentence is impermissible because the attribute أَضْرِبُهُ is a non-truth-evaluable sentence.

- (117) 3/278 [أوضح المسالك لابن هشام] مَرَزْتُ بِرَجُلٍ أَضْرِبُهُ ×
I passed by a man – hit him

26.10.3. The annexed-to noun in an annexation as a complete sentence

The annexed-to noun in an annexation may be a complete sentence instead of a single noun. For example:

- (118) شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب [5:119 سورة المائدة] هَذَا يَوْمٌ يَنْفَعُ الصَّادِقِينَ صِدْقُهُمْ
 1/28]
This is the Day when the truthful will benefit from their truthfulness.

In example (118) above the entire sentence يَنْفَعُ الصَّادِقِينَ صِدْقُهُمْ is the annexed-to noun to the annexed noun يَوْمٌ. As with sentence-infos and sentence-attributes, the sentence-annexed-to noun has its own internal government. And the sentence-annexed-to noun is *in place* of an i-case noun.

Here is another example:

- (119) 1/29 [شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب] 40:16 سورة غافر] يَوْمٌ هُمْ بَرْزُورٌ ط
The Day they come forth

26.11. A foreign element separating a governor from its governee

A foreign element, with respect to a particular governor, is one that is not *directly* governed by the governor. In most cases, a foreign element should not come between (and thus separate) a governor from its governee(s). For example, consider the following sentence:

- (120) 66 الجملة العربية لفاضل السامرائي] عَلِمْتُ مُحَمَّدًا يُؤَلِّفُ كِتَابًا
I knew Muḥammad [to be] writing a book.

In the example above the verbal sentence يُؤَلِّفُ كِتَابًا is in place of the second direct doer of عَلِمْتُ. The noun كِتَابًا is governed directly by the verb يُؤَلِّفُ. So عَلِمْتُ is a foreign element for the verb يُؤَلِّفُ. Therefore, كِتَابًا should not come between the governor عَلِمْتُ and its governee مُحَمَّد. So the following sentence would be impermissible:

- (121) 66 الجملة العربية لفاضل السامرائي] عَلِمْتُ كِتَابًا مُحَمَّدًا يُؤَلِّفُ ×

26.12. The state-of-affairs pronoun

Usually, for pronouns, the pronoun's referent is a single noun that occurs before it. For example, if we say

- (122) زَيْدٌ هُوَ مُنْطَلِقٌ
Zayd is setting out.

Then the pronoun هُوَ refers to the noun زَيْدٌ which occurs before it.

There is a special pronoun, called the *state-of-affairs pronoun* (صَمِيرُ الشَّأْنِ) that behaves differently from other pronouns. It is used to begin compound nominal sentences. Here is an example of a sentence with a state-of-affairs pronoun:

- (123) هُوَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ [1/57 معاني النحو]
[The state of affairs] is: Zayd is setting out.

The pronoun هُوَ in example () above is the state-of-affairs pronoun. It is the subject of the outer sentence. Its info is the inner sentence زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ. What the state-of-affairs pronoun is referring to is explained by the entire sentence زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ that occurs after it.

The state-of-affairs pronoun is typically used for statements that are momentous. Consider, for example, a situation where one hears some hubbub, and wonders, "What is the state of affairs that is causing this hubbub?" The answer to this question is:

- (124) هُوَ الْأَمِيرُ مُقْبِلٌ [2/464 شرح الرضي على الكافية]
It is: the commander is approaching.
(the pronoun "it" is referring to "the state of affairs".)

This pronoun is often left untranslated. So example (124) may simply be translated as *The commander is approaching.*

Here are some rules and guidelines regarding the state-of-affairs pronoun:

The gender of the state-of-affairs pronoun

If the subject of the following sentence is masculine, then the state-of-affairs pronoun is generally the masculine pronoun هُوَ. And if the subject of the following sentence is feminine, then the state-of-affairs pronoun is generally the feminine pronoun هِيَ. Examples:

- (125) هُوَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ [745 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع]
[The state of affairs] is: Zayd is standing.
- (126) هِيَ هِنْدٌ قَائِمَةٌ [745 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع]
[The state of affairs] is: Hind is standing.

Sometimes, however, the gender of the state-of-affairs pronoun can mismatch the gender of the following subject. For example:

- (127) هِيَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ [745 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع]
[The state of affairs] is: Zayd is standing.

- (128) هُوَ هِنْدٌ قَائِمَةٌ [745-756 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع]
[The state of affairs] is: Hind is standing.

The state-of-affairs pronoun is always a singular pronoun

The state-of-affairs pronoun is always a singular pronoun, regardless of whether the subject of the following subject is singular, dual, or plural.¹³

- (129) هُوَ الزَّيْدَانِ قَائِمَانِ
[The state of affairs] is: the two Zayds are standing.
- (130) هِيَ الْهِنْدَاتُ قَائِمَاتٌ
[The state of affairs] is: the Hinds are standing.

The state-of-affairs pronoun is always a pronoun for the absentee person

Even if the subject of the inner sentence is a pronoun for the speaker or addressee persons, the state-of-affairs pronoun is always a pronoun of for the absentee person. For example:

- (131) هُوَ أَنَا زَيْدٌ [1/59 معاني النحو]
[The fact] is: I am Zayd.

The sentence أَنَا أَنَا زَيْدٌ is possible, but in this case the pronoun أَنَا is not a state-of-affairs pronoun. Rather it is repeated for emphasis.¹⁴

The state-of-affairs pronouns هُوَ and هِيَ only introduce nounal sentences

The state-of-affairs pronouns هُوَ and هِيَ only introduce nounal sentences.¹⁵ This can be seen in the examples above.

We will see, in sections (kaana) and (inna), that the state-of-affairs pronoun can also be used with كَانَ and إِنَّ (and its sisters). In these cases, the state-of-affairs pronoun may introduce verbal sentences. For example:

- (132) فَإِنَّهَا لَا تَعْمَى الْأَبْصَرُ [22:46 سورة الحج] cited by شرح الرضي على الكافية
For indeed, it is not eyes that are blinded

26.13. Deletion

TODO

26.14. positional case

في محل رفع/نصب/جزم
TODO

¹³ 1/59 معاني النحو

¹⁴ 1/59 معاني النحو

¹⁵ 2/467 شرح الرضي على الكافية

Work in progress

Chapter 27.

The doer participle as a verb-like governor

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

27.1. Introduction

The verb is the basic, and strongest, governor of a doer or doee. Deverbal nouns, because they are derived from the verb, can also govern in a verb-like manner. In this chapter we will discuss the rules of how such nouns may act as verb-like governors.

27.2. The doer participle as a verb-like governor

The doer participle is the closest of the deverbal nouns to the verb, and thus the strongest of the deverbal nouns in its capacity to act as a verb-like governor.

Consider the following sentence:

- (133) زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ
Zayd – he stands

As we know from chapter (ref), this is a compound sentence. زَيْدٌ is the subject of an outer sentence. The info of the outer sentence is the inner sentence يَقُومُ.

Instead of using the caseful verb يَقُومُ, we can use its doer participle قَائِمٌ, thus:

- (134) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Zayd is standing

As you can see, we have translated the caseful verb يَقُومُ as *stands* and the doer participle قَائِمٌ as *standing*. We will discuss the difference in meaning between the caseful verb and the doer participle in more detail in chapter (ref), if Allāh wills. For now, we will focus on the grammar of the two sentences.

There is one notable similarity between the grammar of examples (133) and (134), and one notable difference:

The similarity

The caseful verb يَقُومُ, and the doer participle قَائِمٌ both govern a latent doer pronoun, implicated as [هُوَ].

The difference

The caseful verb يَقُومُ and its latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] are complementary indispensable elements that constitute a complete sentence. The latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] is the leaned-against element and the caseful verb يَقُومُ is the leaning element. The sentence formed by the caseful verb يَقُومُ and its latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] is in place of a u-case noun as the info of the subject (زَيْدٌ) of the outer sentence.

On the other hand, and the doer participle قَائِمٌ and its latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] are *not* complementary indispensable elements. Rather, قَائِمٌ (as the leaning element) and زَيْدٌ (as the leaned-against element) are complementary indispensable elements. This is a simple sentence, not a compound sentence. The latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] is not the indispensable element of any sentence. But, despite being dispensable from the perspective of sentence completion, the latent doer pronoun is an essential governee of the doer participle.

Let's take a look at another example:

- (135) رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا قَائِمًا
I saw a standing man.

The indispensable elements of this sentence are رَأَيْتُ: the verb رَأَى and its doer pronoun ت. The entire phrase رَجُلًا قَائِمًا has only dispensable elements. قَائِمًا is a attribute of رَجُلًا, governed by the verb رَأَى. The doer participle قَائِمًا has a latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] that refers back to رَجُلًا. But because قَائِمًا is a (dispensable) element of an existing sentence (whose indispensable elements are رَأَيْتُ), therefore it cannot be the indispensable leaning element of a new sentence with its latent doer pronoun [هُوَ].

So, as you can see, whenever the doer participle has a latent doer pronoun, that doer pronoun is not the leaned-against element of any sentence. This is because the doer participle, as a single element, is already a member of an existing sentence.

In contrast, a verb always forms a sentence (as the leaning element) with its doer (as the leaned-against element). If we replace the doer participle قَائِمًا with the verb يَقُومُ thus:

- (136) رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا يَقُومُ

then يَقُومُ is a complete sentence with the verb and its latent doer pronoun as indispensable elements. This complete sentence is the attribute of رَجُلًا.

27.3. The doer participle as the governor of a latent doer pronoun

Let us look into the latent doer pronoun of the doer participle in more detail. It makes sense for a verb to have a doer but how can a noun have a doer? The reason is that the doer participle, because of its closeness to the verb, can act like one. When acting with verbal force, it can govern a doer. It can also, as we will see soon, if Allāh wills, govern a direct doee.

The doer of the doer participle is, by default, a latent pronoun. And it refers back to a referent that occurs before it. In example (134) *زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ* the doer of the doer participle *قَائِمٌ* is the latent pronoun [هُوَ]. And the referent of this doer pronoun is the subject *زَيْدٌ*.

DIAGRAM

Let's see another example:

- (137) *صَاحَ الرَّجُلُ الْقَائِمُ*
The standing man shouted.

then *الْقَائِمُ* governs a latent doer pronoun [هُوَ], that refers back to *الرَّجُلُ*.

The fact that the doer participle has a latent doer pronoun is, in fact, the reason why a doer participle in the info will match the subject in gender.¹

For example, if we say:

- (138) *هِنْدٌ قَائِمَةٌ*
Hind is standing.

then the feminine marker ة is added to the doer participle *قَائِمٌ* only because it has to match the feminine gender of the latent doer pronoun [هي] that occurs with, and is governed by, the doer participle. (The latent doer pronoun [هي] refers back to *هِنْدٌ*.)

When the referent of the latent doer pronoun changes for number or gender, then the latent doer pronoun will change to match it. For example:

- (139) *الرَّيْذَانِ قَائِمَانِ* [1/291 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك]
The two Zayds are standing.

- (140) *الرَّيْذُونِ قَائِمُونَ* [1/291 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك]
The Zayds are standing.

In example (139) above, the latent doer pronoun of *قَائِمَانِ* is implicated as *هُمَا*.

And in example (140) the latent doer pronoun of *قَائِمُونَ* is implicated as *هُمْ*.

As a point of technicality, the alif in the dual suffix of *قَائِمَانِ* and the و in the plural suffix of *قَائِمُونَ* are not themselves the doer pronouns.² Rather, the doer pronouns for the doer participles above are latent.

This is different than for verbs. In the verbs *يَقُومَانِ* and *يَقُومُونَ*, the alif in *ان* and the و in *ون* are, themselves, considered the doer pronouns. And these pronouns are *overt*, not latent.

¹Non-agreement of Mubtada and Khabar

²haazimi 30/5 <https://shamela.ws/book/36130/531>

27.4. The doer participle as the governor of a direct doee

We have seen that the doer participle, when acting with verbal force, governs a doer. In a similar manner, the doer participle for transitive verbs can, optionally, govern a direct doee. In order to introduce this behavior, we use again, as our starting point, the u-case caseful verb. Consider the following example:

- (141) زَيْدٌ يَضْرِبُ عَمْرًا
Zayd beats Amr

Example (141) above is parsed as follows:

- زَيْدٌ is a subject.
- يَضْرِبُ is a caseful verb in the u-case. It governs a latent pronoun (implicated as هُوَ) in the u-case as its doer. The latent doer pronoun هُوَ refers back to its referent: the subject زَيْدٌ.
- عَمْرًا is a direct doee, governed in the a-case by the verb يَضْرِبُ.
- يَضْرِبُ عَمْرًا is an inner sentence which is in place of a u-case noun as the info of the subject زَيْدٌ.

Instead of using the verb يَضْرِبُ in example (141) above we may instead use its doer participle ضَارِبٌ, thus:

- (142) زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ عَمْرًا
Zayd is beating Amr

Example (142) is parsed as follows:

- زَيْدٌ is a subject.
- ضَارِبٌ is the info of the subject زَيْدٌ. It governs a latent pronoun (implicated as هُوَ) in the u-case as its doer. The latent doer pronoun هُوَ refers back to the subject زَيْدٌ.
- عَمْرًا is a direct doee, governed in the a-case by the doer participle ضَارِبٌ.

As you can see, the doer participle ضَارِبٌ can govern a direct doee just like the verb يَضْرِبُ.

However, while a transitive verb can govern a direct doee unconditionally, a doer participle can only govern a direct doee if certain conditions are satisfied. We will discuss these conditions in section (ref) below.

By the way, we again highlight the difference in the doer of the verb يَضْرِبُ vs the doer of the doer participle ضَارِبٌ: The verb يَضْرِبُ and its doer are complementary indispensable pairs that constitute a complete sentence. Whereas, the doer participle ضَارِبٌ does not form a new sentence with its doer.

27.4.1. A doer participle defined by آل as the governor of a direct doee

Example (142) shows the government of a direct doee by an doer participle that is not defined by آل. In a similar manner, an doer participle that is defined by آل, can also govern a direct doee. For example:

- (143) [4/84 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] هَذَا الضَّارِبُ زَيْدًا
This [person] is the beater of Zayd.

By the way, you may be wondering what is the difference between the sentence in example (143) هَذَا الضَّارِبُ زَيْدًا above, and if we had used an annexation thus:

- (143) هَذَا ضَارِبٌ زَيْدٍ *This [person] is the beater of Zayd.*

This is touched upon in section (ma3aani_ism_faa3il).

27.4.2. Word order of the direct doee and its governing doer participle

As with verbs, the direct doee usually follows its governing doer participle (as in the examples above). But when an doer participle is not prefixed by ال, then its direct doee is allowed to precede it. So we can say:

- (144) [1/259 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] هَذَا زَيْدًا ضَارِبٌ
This [person] is beating Zayd.

While the direct doee is permitted to precede its governing doer participle (as above), it is very common, in such a case, for a strengthening-ل to be used with an indirect doee instead, thus:

- (145) هَذَا لِزَيْدٍ ضَارِبٌ
This [person], to Zayd, is beating.

- (146) [Fischer 113] لِلضَّيْفِ مُكْرِمٌ
to the guest, is honoring
(i.e. honoring the guest)

The strengthening-ل is discussed in more detail in section (later chapter).³

Also, the freedom for the governee of a doer participle to precede it is only given to the doer participle not prefixed by ال. When an doer participle is prefixed by ال, then its direct doee is not allowed to precede it.⁴ So we cannot say:

- (147) هَذَا زَيْدًا الضَّارِبُ ×

We would have to say instead

- (148) هَذَا الضَّارِبُ زَيْدًا ✓

TODO: Fronting the direct doee is not permitted for static adjectival noun. See link in example above. Add to section on static adjectival noun

³See also Wright 2/69CD, Fischer §203 Note 2 p. 113 (who consider this strengthening-ل obligatory), and النحو الوافي 2/475–476 (who doesn't consider it obligatory).

⁴النحو الوافي 3/263

27.4.3. A dual or plural doer participle as the governor of a direct doee

A dual or plural doer participle may govern a direct doee just like the singular. So we can say:

- (149) [4/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] هذان ضاربان زيدًا
These two [persons] are beating Zayd.
- (150) [4/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] هم ضاربون زيدًا
These [persons] are beating Zayd.
- (151) [1/439 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] الهندات ضاربات عمرا
The Hinds are beating ʿAmr.

Doer participles defined by ل are again also permitted:

- (152) [2/40 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] هذان الضاربان زيدًا
These two are the beaters of Zayd.
- (153) [2/40 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] هؤلاء الضاربون الرجل
These are the beaters of the man.
- (154) [2/40 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] 4:162 سورة النساء وَالْمُقِيمِينَ الصَّلَاةَ وَالْمُؤْتُونَ الزَّكَاةَ
And the establishers of prayer [especially] and the givers of zakāh

For plurals, the sound plurals are more worthy of being used as verb-like governors⁵ as in the examples above. However, broken plurals are permitted as well. So we can say:

- (155) [4/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] الزيدون ضُرابَ عمراً
The Zayds are beating ʿAmr.
- (156) [4/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] الهندات ضواربَ عمراً
The Hinds are beating ʿAmr.

Flexible word order is again permitted for the dual and the plural as it was for the singular:

- (157) [1/439 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] الزيدان عمرا ضاربان
The two Zayds are beating ʿAmr.
- (158) [4/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] الزيدون عمراً ضُرابَ
The Zayds are beating ʿAmr.
- (159) [1/439 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] الهندات عمرا ضاربات
The Hinds are beating ʿAmr.
- (160) [4/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] الهندات عمراً ضواربَ
The Hinds are beating ʿAmr.

⁵ 4/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل

27.5. Conditions for the doer participle to govern a direct doee

As we mentioned above, there are conditions that must be satisfied in order for an doer participle to be able to govern a direct doee in this manner. The conditions are different for when the doer participle is defined by *أل*, and when it is not defined by *أل*. We will discuss each of these cases separately below:

27.5.1. When the doer participle is not defined by *أل*

When the doer participle is not defined by *أل*, then two conditions must be satisfied:

1. The verbal aspect of the doer participle must be imperfect. That is, it must indicate an ongoing (whether present or past) or future action. Examples:

- present ongoing:

(161) 3/106 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] هذا ضارب زيدا الآن
This [person] is beating Zayd now.

- past ongoing:

(162) 3/107 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] كان زيد ضاربا عمرا
Zayd was beating ʿAmr.

(163) 3/106 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] 18:18 سورة الكهف وَكَلَبُهُمْ بِأَسْطِ ذُرَاعَيْهِ بِالْوَصِيدِ
while their dog stretched his forelegs at the entrance

- future:

(164) 3/106 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] هذا ضارب زيدا غداً
This [person] will beat Zayd tomorrow.

If the verbal aspect indicated by the doer participle is perfect, then the doer participle may not govern a direct doee. So, for example, we cannot say:

(165) 3/106 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] هذا ضارب زيدا أمس ×
This [person] beat Zayd yesterday.

If we desire to use the doer participle, then it will not have verbal force. And *زَيِّد* will have to be a annexed-to noun in an annexation. Furthermore, this annexation will be *real* (see chapter (ref)).

(166) 3/106 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] هذا ضارب زيد أمس
This [person] was the beater of Zayd yesterday.

An exception is made for for transitive verbs that take more than one direct doee, like *أعطى*, *جعل*, etc. When the doer participle of such a verb is annexed to what would have been the first direct doee, then second direct doee is permitted to be in the a-case, even if the aspect is perfect.⁶ For example:

⁶See also 35:1 سورة فاطر for *الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي* and 35:1 سورة فاطر for *البحر المحيط لأبي حيان*

- (167) [3/78 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] هذا معطي زيد أمس درهمًا
This [person] was the giver of Zayd, yesterday, a dirham.

Even the first direct doer may remain in the a-case, if separated from the doer participle. For example:

- (168) [3/78 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] هذا ظان أمس زيدا فاضلا
This [person] was the believer, yesterday, of Zayd as an eminent person.

2. The second condition that should be satisfied is that the doer participle must have *governing support*. This governing support can be provided by the following means:

- The doer participle occurs after a question word. Example:

- (169) [3/107 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] أضراب زيد عمرا
Is Zayd beating ʿamr?

- (170) [Wright 2/65D] هَلْ مُكْرِمٌ أَنْتَ زَيْدًا
Will you be treating Zayd with respect?

- The doer participle occurs after a vocative particle: Example:

- (171) [3/107 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] يَا طَالَعَا جَبَلَا
O scaler [of] a mountain!

- The doer participle occurs in a negation: Example:

- (172) [3/107 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] مَا ضَارِبٌ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا
Zayd is not beating ʿamr.

- (173) [2:145 سورة البقرة] مَا أَنْتَ بِتَابِعٍ قِبْلَتَهُمْ
Nor will you be a follower of their qiblah

- (174) [Wright 2/65D] مَا مُجِيرٌ أَحَدٌ عَدُوَّ أَحِبَّاءِهِ
No one gives protection to the enemy of his loved ones

- The doer participle occurs as a attribute. Example:

- (175) [3/107 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] مررت برجل ضارب زيدا
I passed by a man beating Zayd.

- (176) [Wright 2/65C] مَرَزْتُ بِفَارِسٍ طَالِبٍ نَارَ أَبِيهِ
I passed by a horseman (who was) seeking vengeance for (the murder of) his father

An implied attribute is also considered permissible. Example:

- (177) [3/108 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] كَمْ مَالِي عَيْنَيْهِ مِنْ شَيْءٍ غَيْرِهِ
How many a one fills his eyes with a thing of [someone] other than him

(i.e. كَمْ شَخْصٍ مَالِي How many a person fills...)

- (178) [3/109 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] كَنَاطِحٌ صَخْرَةً يَوْمًا لِيُوهِنَهَا
Like the gorer of a rock, one day, to try to weaken it
 (i.e. كَوَعِلٍ نَاطِحٍ like a goring mountain goat...)

- The doer participle occurs as a ḥāl. Example:

(179) 3/107 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] جاء زيد راكبا فرسا
Zayd came riding a horse.

- The doer participle occurs as a info. Example:

(180) 3/107 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] زيد ضارب عمرا
Zayd is beating Ḥamr.

We will learn in later chapters, if Allāh wills, different forms of infos. The following examples show these different forms, with references to the later chapters.

(181) 3/107 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] كان زيد ضاربا عمرا
Zayd was beating Ḥamr.
 (See chapter (kaana).)

(182) 3/107 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] إن زيدا ضارب عمرا
Indeed Zayd is beating Ḥamr.
 (See chapter (inna).)

(183) 3/107 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] ظننت زيدا ضاربا عمرا
I thought Zayd [was] beating Ḥamr.
 (See chapter (zanna).)

(184) 3/107 [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] أعلمت زيدا عمرا ضاربا بكرة
I let Zayd know Ḥamr is beating Bakr.
 (See chapter (zanna).)

27.5.2. When the doer participle is defined by أل

When the doer participle is defined by أل, then it is permitted to govern a direct doer for a perfect or imperfect aspect. Furthermore, no governing support is required for it to be a governor;⁷ (as was required for the doer participle without أل in section (ref) above).

So we can say:

(185) 2/683 [شرح شذور الذهب للجوجري] جاء الضارب زيدا أمس أو الآن أو غداً
The beater of Zayd came yesterday/today/tomorrow

27.6. The doer participle as the governor of an overt doer pronoun

FIXME: The latent doer pronoun does not **become** overt. Rather, a overt noun can replace it. Or a overt pronoun can occur after it as tawkeed. See Saa3idi tamheed.

The latent doer pronoun becomes overt in some circumstances. In this section, we will discuss one such circumstance. Consider the sentence:

(186) 1/463 [النحو الوافي] الفارس الحصان مُتَعَبُهُ

⁷ 3/254 النحو الوافي

This grammar is parsed as follows:

- الْفَارِسُ is the subject of the outer sentence.
- الْحَصَانُ is a second subject. It is the subject of the inner sentence.
- مُتَبِّع is the info of the inner sentence. It is also an annexed noun.
- The pronoun هُوَ is an annexed-to noun.
- The inner sentence الْحَصَانُ مُتَبِّعُهُ is the info of the subject (الْفَارِسُ) of outer sentence.

The info of the inner sentence مُتَبِّع *one who makes tired* has a latent doer pronoun, implicated as [هُوَ]. It is possible for this latent doer pronoun to refer to either الْفَارِسُ or الْحَصَانُ. Let's discuss both these meanings:

- If the latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] in مُتَبِّع refers to الْحَصَانُ then the meaning is that *the horse makes the horseman tired*. In this case, the pronoun هُوَ in مُتَبِّعُهُ refers to الْفَارِسُ.
- And if the latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] in مُتَبِّع refers to الْفَارِسُ then the meaning is that *the horseman makes the horse tired*. In this case, the pronoun هُوَ in مُتَبِّعُهُ refers to الْحَصَانُ.

Both meanings are possible.

If only the second meaning is desired, then the latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] can be made overt and added after the doer participle مُتَبِّع, thus:

- (187) الْفَارِسُ الْحَصَانُ مُتَبِّعُهُ هُوَ [النحو الوافي 1/464]
The horseman – the horse – [he] makes him tired.
 (i.e. *The horseman makes the horse tired.*)

Now only the second meaning is possible. If the first meaning is desired, the doer pronoun of مُتَبِّع must stay latent and the ambiguity will remain.

By the way, the ambiguity arose in the original sentence (الْفَارِسُ الْحَصَانُ مُتَبِّعُهُ) only because both subjects (الْفَارِسُ and الْحَصَانُ) are singular masculine nouns. If the two subjects are distinguishable in number or gender then there will be no ambiguity. However, even in this case, according to some grammarians, if the info is to refer to the subject of the outer sentence, then the doer pronoun of the doer participle in the info should be made overt. For example:

- (188) زَيْدٌ هِنْدٌ صَارِبُهَا هُوَ [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية 1/207]
Zayd – Hind – [he] is beating her.
 (i.e. *Zayd is beating Hind.*)

But according to other grammarians, because صَارِب can refer only to Zayd and not to Hind, the doer participle's doer pronoun can remain latent,⁸ thus:

- (189) زَيْدٌ هِنْدٌ صَارِبُهَا
Zayd – Hind – [he] is beating her.
 (i.e. *Zayd is beating Hind.*)

⁸ 1/207 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

27.7. The sababi info

Consider again example (141) زَيْدٌ يَضْرِبُ عَمْرًا. From this original sentence, we replaced the verb يَضْرِبُ with its doer participle and came up with (142) زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ عَمْرًا.

Now consider the following example:

- (190) زَيْدٌ يَضْرِبُ أَبُوهُ عَمْرًا
Zayd – his father beats ʿAmr

In example (190) above the doer of يَضْرِبُ is not Zayd but Zayd's father. If we use this sentence as our starting point, we can again replace the verb يَضْرِبُ with its doer participle ضَارِبٌ and say:

- (191) زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ أَبُوهُ عَمْرًا
Zayd – his father is beating ʿAmr

أَبُوهُ is the (overt) doer of the doer participle ضَارِبٌ. And عَمْرًا is its direct doee. So just like a verb can have an overt noun as its doer instead of a latent pronoun, so too can the doer participle have an overt noun as its doer instead of a latent pronoun.

Again, there is one important difference between using the verb يَضْرِبُ vs using its doer participle ضَارِبٌ. And that is that زَيْدٌ يَضْرِبُ أَبُوهُ عَمْرًا in example (190) is a complete sentence. This inner sentence is the info of the outer sentence. Therefore, example (190) is a compound sentence.

However, زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ أَبُوهُ عَمْرًا in example (191) is not a complete sentence. ضَارِبٌ itself, as a single word, is the info of the subject زَيْدٌ.⁹ So example (191) زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ أَبُوهُ عَمْرًا is not a compound sentence.

The info ضَارِبٌ in example (191) زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ أَبُوهُ عَمْرًا is called a sababi info.¹⁰ A deverbal noun is termed *sababi* when it governs a doer which is annexed to a pronoun that refers back to the original referent of the deverbal noun.¹¹ In our example, the deverbal noun ضَارِبٌ governs a doer أَبُو which is annexed to a pronoun هُ that refers back to the original referent of the deverbal noun, the subject زَيْدٌ.

27.7.1. Varying the number or gender of the overt doer of the sababi info

Here is another example of a sentence with a sababi info:

- (192) كَانَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقًا أَبُوهُ [Peled, *Sentence types* 208]
Zayd – his father was setting out.

⁹ مختصر المعاني للتفتازاني

¹⁰ 4/287 الأشباه والنظائر للسيوطي؛ الخبر السببي لوجهة السطل

¹¹ 161 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي (also cited by 4/404 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي)

In example (192) above, مُنْطَلِقًا is the sababi info of كَانَ. The overt doer of the مُنْطَلِقًا is the singular masculine noun أَبُوهُ *his father*.

Let's see what happens when we vary the number or gender of this overt doer of the sababi info.

- (193) كَانَ الزَّيْدَانِ مُنْطَلِقًا أَبَوَاهُمَا [Peled, *Sentence types* 208]
The two Zayds – their fathers were setting out.

In example (193) above, the sababi info مُنْطَلِقًا remains in the singular, even though its doer is the dual أَبَوَاهُمَا.

This is analogous to a verb, which remains in the singular for dual and plural doers. For example أَبَوَاهُمَا يَنْطَلِقُ, كَانَ الزَّيْدَانِ يَنْطَلِقُ, etc.

If the gender of the doer participle's doer is feminine, then the doer participle remains in the singular but it is feminized. For example:

- (194) زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقَةٌ أُمُّهُ
Zayd – his mother is setting out.

- (195) كَانَتْ هِنْدٌ مُنْطَلِقَةً خَالَاتُهَا
Hind – her two maternal aunts were setting out.

This again is analogous to the feminizing a verb that has a feminine doer.

If the doer of the doer participle is a plural, then we have an choice:

If the doer participle has a sound plural, then, again, it is not used and the doer participle remains in the singular. For example:

- (196) كَانَ الزَّيْدُونَ مُنْطَلِقًا آبَاؤُهُمْ
The Zayds – their fathers were setting out.

- (197) زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقَةٌ خَالَاتُهُ
Zayd – his maternal aunts are setting out.

But if the doer participle has a broken plural, then it is allowed to be used, and is indeed preferred,¹² when the doer is a plural.

For example:

- (198) كَانَ الزَّيْدُونَ قِيَامًا آبَاؤُهُمْ
The Zayds – their fathers were standing

Here are some examples of sababi infos from the Qur'an:

- (199) فَآَنَهُوَ عَآَثٌ مُّذُنٌ [سورة البقرة 2:283]
his heart is indeed sinful

(Other analyses besides a sababi info are also possible.¹³ One such differing analysis is discussed in section (ref) below.)

¹² 693–694 cited by Peled, *Sentence types* 208 (footnote)

¹³ سورة البقرة for الدار المصون للسمين الحلبي

- (200) [59:2 سورة الحشر] وَظَنُّوا أَنَّهُمْ مَانِعَتُهُمْ حُصُونُهُمْ مِّنَ اللَّهِ
and they thought that their fortresses would protect them from Allāh
 (Another analysis is also possible: حُصُونُهُمْ can be a subject, and مَانِعَتُهُمْ is its fronted info.¹⁴)

27.7.2. Word order of the doer and the direct doee in a sababi info

If the doer participle is transitive, then the normal word order is doer participle, doer, direct doee. For example:

- (201) [3/89 الهمع للسيوطي] هَذَا ضَارِبٌ أَبِيهِ زَيْدًا
This [person] – his father is beating Zayd.

But the direct doee can be made to precede the doer thus:

- (202) [2/453 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك] هَذَا ضَارِبٌ زَيْدًا أَبِيهِ
This [person] – his father is beating Zayd.

27.8. The sababi attribute

In section (ref) above we have seen how a doer participle can govern a overt doer when it is a sababi info. In a similar manner, a doer participle can govern a overt doer when it is a sababi attribute.

Consider the following example:

- (203) مَرَرْتُ بِرَجُلٍ مُنْطَلِقٍ أَبِيهِ
I passed by a man whose father is setting out

The doer participle *رَجُلٍ مُنْطَلِقٍ* is a attribute of the attributee *رَجُلٍ*. Because it is a sababi attribute, it has a doer أَبِ that is annexed to a pronoun *هو* which refers to the attributee *رَجُلٍ*.

We know that, in general, a attribute will match its attributee in four aspects:

- i. case
- ii. definiteness
- iii. gender
- iv. number (singular/dual/plural)

The sababi attribute will also match its preceding attributee in case and definiteness. (You can see the attribute *مُنْطَلِقٍ* matches its attributee *رَجُلٍ* in the i-case and in being indefinite.) But in matching gender and number the sababi attribute has different rules. Consistent with we learned for the sababi info above, the sababi attribute will, in general, always be singular, and it will match its doer in gender. Here are some examples that show different combinations:

- (204) مَرَرْتُ بِالرَّجُلِ الْمُنْطَلِقِ أَبِيهِ
I passed by the man whose father is setting out.

¹⁴ 59:2 سورة الحشر for الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي

- (205) مَرَزْتُ بِرَجُلٍ مُنْطَلِقٍ أَخَوَاهُ
I passed by a man whose two brothers are setting out.
- (206) رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا مُنْطَلِقًا آبَاؤُهُمْ
I saw men whose fathers are setting out.
- (207) رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا مُنْطَلِقَةً أُمُّهُ
I saw a man whose mother is setting out.
- (208) جَاءَنِي زَيْدٌ الْمُنْطَلِقَةُ أَخَوَاتُهُ
Zayd whose sisters are setting out came to me.
- (209) جَاءَتْنِي امْرَأَةٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ أَبُوهَا
A woman whose father is setting out came to me.
- (210) مَرَزْتُ بِالْمَرْأَةِ الْمُنْطَلِقِ أَخَوَاهَا
I passed by the woman whose two brothers are setting out.

The above examples use the doer participle مُنْطَلِقٌ which only has sound plurals. Therefore it remains in the singular. If an doer participle has a broken plural, it is permitted (and in fact preferred) to use the broken plural for a plural doer.¹⁵ Examples:

- (211) مَرَزْتُ بِرَجَالٍ قِيَامٌ آبَاؤُهُمْ [288 شرح قطر الندى وبل الصدى]
I passed by men whose fathers are standing.
- (212) مَرَزْتُ بِرَجُلٍ قَعُودٌ غُلَامَانِ [288 شرح قطر الندى وبل الصدى]
I passed by a man whose slave-boys are sitting
(Note that the attributive رَجُلٌ is singular in this case.)

Some more aspects of gender agreement of the sababi doer with its governing deverbal noun will be discussed in section (sifah_mush sababi na3t), if Allāh wills.

27.9. The doer participle as the governor of a non-sababi overt doer

When the doer of the doer participle is overt then it will often be a sababi doer, as we have seen in sections (sababi-xabar) and (sababi-na3t) above. However, it is also possible for the doer participle to govern a non-sababi overt doer. For example:

- (213) [1075 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] مررت برجل متكلم محمد في داره
.I passed by a man [whom] Muḥammad was speaking in his house

In the example above محمد is the doer of the doer participle متكلم. But because it is not annexed to a pronoun which refers back to رجل, therefore it is not a sababi doer.

¹⁵ 288 شرح قطر الندى وبل الصدى; 3/453-454 النحو الوافي

27.10. Conditions for the doer participle to govern a doer

In section (ref) above, we discussed the conditions for the doer participle to govern a direct doee. Correspondingly, there exist conditions for the doer participle to govern a doer.

The doer participle can have either an overt doer (either as a noun or as a pronoun), or a latent doer pronoun. We will treat each of these separately below:

27.10.1. Conditions for the doer participle to govern an overt doer

The grammarians differed with regard to the conditions under which the doer participle is allowed to govern an overt doer. According to some, the same conditions are applicable as for governing a direct doee, namely that when an doer participle is not defined by *أل*, then it can only govern an overt doer when

- i. It has an imperfect aspect.
- ii. It has governing support

So it is not allowed to govern an overt doer for a perfect aspect. The following example would then be disallowed:

- (214) [134 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي] زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ أَبُوهُ أَمْسَ ×
Zayd – his father stood yesterday.

Other grammarians, however, allowed such a sentence.¹⁶

when an doer participle is defined by *أل*, then it can only govern an overt doer unconditionally. So it can govern with perfective aspect and without governing support. Examples:

- (215) [1/449 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] جاءني القائم أبوه
The one whose father is standing came.

- (216) [3/257 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان] القائم أبوه ضاحك
The one whose father is standing is laughing.

- (217) [59 شرح ابن الناظم على ألفية ابن مالك] جاء الضارب أبوه زَيْدًا أَمْسَ
The one whose father beat Zayd yesterday came.

27.10.2. Conditions for the doer participle to govern a latent doer pronoun

As a default, the doer participle requires a latent doer pronoun. So it governs a latent doer pronoun unconditionally, except when it is prevented from doing so because of one of the following situations:

¹⁶ 134 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

The doer participle is already governing an overt doer noun

If the doer participle is already governing an overt doer, then it will not also have a latent doer pronoun. This is because one doer participle cannot have two doers.¹⁷ Example:

- (218) 139 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ أَبُوهُ]
Zayd – his father is standing

Beware though, that sometimes it may appear that an doer participle is governing an overt doer, but actually another interpretation may also be possible. Consider the following āyah that we discussed in section (ref) above:

- (199) 2:283 سورة البقرة [فَأَنَّهُوَ عَآثِمٌ قَلْبُهُ]
his heart is indeed sinful

We had discussed this as a case of a sababi info. But another analysis is also possible: The doer participle *أَتَمَّ* is governing a latent doer pronoun, and *قَلْبُهُ* is a sub for the latent doer pronoun.¹⁸

The doer participle is already governing an overt doer pronoun

We discussed in section (ref) above, a situation in which the originally latent doer pronoun of a doer participle becomes overt. Because the doer is now overt the doer participle will not govern an additional latent doer.¹⁹

- (188) 1/207 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية [زَيْدٌ هُنْدَ ضَارِبُهَا هُوَ]
Zayd – Hind – [he] is beating her.
(i.e. Zayd is beating Hind.)

The doer participle is the annexed noun in a real annexation

When doer participle is the annexed noun in a real annexation, then it will not govern a latent doer pronoun.²⁰ This can happen when the doer participle indicates a perfective aspect. We saw an example of this in the conditions for governing a direct doee above:

- 166) 3/106 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية [هذا ضارب زيد أمس]
This [person] was the beater of Zayd yesterday.

By the way, this does not mean that the doer participle cannot govern a latent doer pronoun whenever it signifies a perfective aspect. It only cannot do so in a real annexation. So doer participle will govern a latent doer pronoun when it has a perfective aspect, but no annexation. For example:

- 219) هذا ضاربٌ أمس
This [person] was a beater yesterday.

¹⁷ 139 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

¹⁸ 2:283 سورة البقرة for الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي

¹⁹ 144 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

²⁰ 142 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

The doer participle has crossed over to a entity noun

When the doer participle has crossed over to a entity noun (see section (ref) below), then, in general, it does not govern a latent doer pronoun.²¹ For example:

- (220) زَيْدٌ صَاحِبٌ
Zayd is a companion

But even for entity nouns, the the latent doer pronoun can re-emerge when needed (see section (sec-the-doer-participle-crossover-to-substantive-as-a-attribute)).

27.11. Superficial annexation

Superficial annexation used to eliminate tanwīn

Consider again the sentence:

- (142) زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ عَمْرًا
zaydun ḍāribun ʿamran
Zayd is beating Amr

The doer participle ضَارِبٌ has a tanwīn which is pronounced before pronouncing the direct doee عَمْرًا. In an effort to make the pronunciation easier, this tanwīn is often eliminated and replaced with an annexation. The direct doee is then made into a annexed-to noun in the i-case. The meaning remains the same. So the above sentence then becomes:

- (221) زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ عَمْرُو
zaydun ḍāribu ʿamrin
Zayd is beating Amr

This is called a superficial annexation, as opposed to a real annexation, which is what we have been studying so far. This is because it is only an annexation for the purposes of easing the pronunciation, not in meaning.

Regarding terminology, عَمْرُو syntactically becomes a annexed-to noun in the superficial annexation. But in meaning, it is still the direct doee of the doer participle ضَارِبٌ. We will refer to it as the *semantic direct doee*.

By the way, the sentence زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ عَمْرُو can also be a real annexation. In which case, the meaning will be: *Zayd is the beater of ʿAmr*. So if we come across such a sentence, how can we tell if it is a real annexation or a superficial annexation? The answer is, in this case, context should guide us. We will see below that the superficial annexation is not always identical in form to the real annexation. So in those cases, the form of the annexation will tell us whether it is a real annexation or a superficial annexation.

Here are some more examples of a superficial annexation used to eliminate a tanwīn:

²¹See citations in الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي 154

- (222) الِهْنْدَاتُ ضَارِبَاتُ عَمْرُو [modified from شرح التصريح على التوضيح 1/682]
The Hinds are beating Eamr
 (instead of ضَارِبَاتُ عَمْرًا)

When the doer participle is a semi-flexible, it will not have a tanwīn. But the superficial annexation may still be used in such a case because a tanwīn would have been present if the word were fully-flexible.²² For example:

- (223) الِهْنْدَاتُ ضَوَارِبُ عَمْرُو [modified from شرح التصريح على التوضيح 1/682]
The Hinds are beating Eamr
 (instead of ضَوَارِبُ عَمْرًا)

Superficial annexation used to eliminate the ن of a dual or plural suffix

The superficial annexation is used in situations when the governing doer participle has tanwīn (as above), and also in situations when it ends with a ن arising from a dual or sound plural. Examples:

- (224) الزَّيْدَانِ ضَارِبَا عَمْرُو [modified from شرح التصريح على التوضيح 1/682]
The [two] Zayds are beating Eamr
 (instead of ضَارِبَانِ عَمْرًا)

Definiteness of the superficial annexation

Because this is a superficial and not a real annexation, the annexed noun is not made definite by a definite annexed-to noun. In the examples so far, the annexed-to nouns have been proper nouns (عَمْرُو, زَيْد) which are definite. But the doer participles (ضَارِب, ضَارِبَا, etc.) remain indefinite, because they did not originally have اَل when governing a direct doee. This example proves the above claim:

- (225) هَدِيَا بَلِغَ الْكَعْبَةِ [4/84 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل cited by سورة المائدة 5:95]
as an offering [to Allāh] delivered to the Ka'bah

In example (225) above, the doer participle بَالِغ is a annexed noun to the definite annexed-to noun الْكَعْبَةِ. But this is a superficial annexation. So بَالِغ does not become definite. Therefore بَالِغ can be a attribute to the indefinite هَدِيَا.

If the doer participle is to be made definite in a superficial annexation then a اَل is added to it. For example:

- (226) هَذَانِ الضَّارِبَا زَيْد [2/132 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
These two are the beaters of Zayd.
 (instead of هَذَانِ الضَّارِبَانِ زَيْدًا)

- (227) اَلْمُقِيمِي الصَّلَاةِ [2/132 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل cited by سورة الحج 22:35]
and the establishers of prayer

Adding اَل to the annexed noun is particular to a superficial annexation. As we know, it is not permitted in a real annexation. So when we see اَل with a annexed noun, then we will know that the annexation has to be a superficial one.

²² 1/682 شرح التصريح على التوضيح

When the doer participle does not have tanwīn or a suffixed ن

Consider the following case of a doer participle governing a direct doee:

- (228) الضَّارِبُ زَيْدًا
the beater of Zayd

There is no tanwīn of suffixed ن after the doer participle. Therefore, a superficial annexation is not permitted, and we cannot say:

- (229) × الضَّارِبُ زَيْدٍ [2/132 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]

The following are similarly not permitted:

- (230) × الضَّارِبُ رَجُلًا [3/47 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية]
the beater of the man

- (231) × الضَّارِبُ عَبْدٌ زَيْدٍ [Wright 2/66B] *the beater of the slave of Zayd*

- (232) × الضَّارِبُ عَبْدُهُ [Wright 2/66B] *the beater of his slave*

If, however, the direct doee is defined by آل, or is itself a annexed noun to a annexed-to noun that is defined by آل, then, as an exception, the superficial annexation is again permitted.²³ For example:

- (233) الضَّارِبُ الْعَبْدُ [Wright 2/66A]
the beater of the slave

- (234) الضَّارِبُ رَأْسُ الْعَبْدِ [Wright 2/66A]
the beater of the head of the slave

- (235) الضَّارِبُ الرَّجُلُ [2/132 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
the beater of the man

- (236) الضَّارِبُ/الضَّرَابُ/الضَّارِبَاتُ الرَّجُلُ [3/47 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية]
the beaters of the man

- (237) الضَّارِبُ/الضَّرَابُ/الضَّارِبَاتُ غُلَامُ الرَّجُلِ [3/47 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية]
the beaters of the slave-boy of the man

Two or more direct doees connected by و or أو

When a doer participle governs two or more direct doees connected by و or أو then, if the first is in a superficial annexation then the second may either be in the i-case or the a-case. For example

- (238) هذا ضاربٌ زيدٍ وعمرو/وعمرًا [4/81 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
This [person] is beating Zayd and ʿAmr

By the way, if the first direct doee is in the a-case, then it is not an annexation and the second direct doee would follow in the a-case.

- (239) هذا ضاربٌ زيدًا وعمرًا
This [person] is beating Zayd and ʿAmr

²³Wright 2/66A

Superficial annexation with a overt doer

Consider an doer participle that has a overt doer and is governing a direct doee thus:

- (240) [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 2/458] مررت برجل ضارب أبوه زيدا
I passed by a man whose father [was] beating Zayd.

If we wish to use a superficial annexation, then the doer participle can only be annexed to its direct doee and not to its doer. So we can say:

- (241) [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 2/74] مررت برجل ضارب زيد أبوه
I passed by a man whose father [was] beating Zayd.
 (Remember from section (ref) above that the word order صَارِبٌ زَيْدًا أَبُوهُ is permissible.)

We cannot say:

- (242) [التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان 10/359] مررت برجل ضارب أبيه زيدا ×

27.12. The doer participle with a pronoun as its direct doee

When the doer participle governs a direct doee that is a pronoun, there is considerable variation seen

One possibility is to separate the doer participle from its doee pronoun using the prefix *إِثَّا*, thus:

- (243) [شرح الرضي على الكافية] ضَارِبٌ إِثَّاكَ
beating you
- (244) [شرح الرضي على الكافية] الضَّارِبُ إِثَّاكَ
the beater of you
- (245) [Wright 2/67A] الضَّارِبُونَ إِثَّاهُ
the beaters of me

The second possibility, and by far the more common usage, is to use a superficial annexation, thus:

- (246) [شرح الرضي على الكافية] ضَارِبُكَ
beating you
- (247) [شرح الرضي على الكافية] الضَّارِبُكَ
the beater of you
- (248) [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] الضاربي
the beater of me
- (249) [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] الضارباتي
the beaters_f of me

When the doer participle has a overt doer, then it will follow the attached pronoun, thus:

- (250) هَذَا ضَارِبِي أَبِيهِ
This [person] – his father is beating me.

For the dual and sound *ūn* plural in a superficial annexation, the ن of the suffix is regularly deleted. So we will say:

- (251) هَذَانِ ضَارِبَاكَ [1/196 شرح كتاب سيبويه للسيرافي]
These two are beating you.
 (from ضَارِبَانِ)

- (252) هَؤُلَاءِ ضَارِبُوكَ [1/196 شرح كتاب سيبويه للسيرافي]
These [persons] are beating you.
 (from ضَارِبُونَ)

- (253) الضَارِبَاكَ [2/135 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
the two beaters of you
 (from الضَارِبَانِ)

- (254) الضَارِبُوكَ [2/135 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
the beaters of you
 (from الضَارِبُونَ)

- (255) ضَارِبَايَ [2/135 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
the two beaters of me
 (from الضَارِبَانِ)

- (256) الضَارِبَيَّ [2/135 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
the two beaters of me
 (from الضَارِبَيْنِ)

- (257) الضَارِبَيَّ [2/135 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]
the beaters of me
 (from الضَارِبُونَ and الضَارِبَيْنِ)

Occasionally a ن is inserted between the doer participle annexed noun and the pronoun annexed-to noun. This would permit words like: الضَّارِبُونِي, ضَارِبِنِي, etc. For example:

- (258) فَهَلْ أَنْتُمْ صَادِقُونِي فِيهِ [11291: الكبرى للنسائي]²⁴
So will you tell me the truth about it?

It seems that this usage did not make its way to Standard Classical Arabic. But some grammarians permit this usage by poetic license, or as a rare usage.²⁵

²⁴also narrated as ضَادِقِي in صحيح البخاري 3169

²⁵See for more details شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 1/285; النحو الوافي 2/44; شرح كتاب سيبويه للسيرافي 2/137; Wright 2/67AB

27.13. The doer participle as a verb-like governor

<https://shamela.ws/book/17116/3534>

27.14. The static adjectival noun as a verb-like governor

الأشباه والنظائر: ذكر ما افترق فيه الصفة المشبهة واسم الفاعل

<https://shamela.ws/book/13301/1472>

<https://shamela.ws/book/13301/582#p1>

<https://shamela.ws/book/9985/799>

27.15. The doer of a deverbal noun that fulfils the role of the info

In our discussion of the doer of deverbal nouns, we have consistently stated that the doer of a deverbal noun is not an indispensable element. This is because the deverbal noun, which has a doer, is typically already part of an existing sentence. See example (191) *زَيْدٌ ضَارِبٌ أَبُوهُ عَمْرًا* above.

However, there is one special kind of sentence where that the doer of a deverbal noun is an indispensable element.

Before presenting this special *doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info* sentence, we will first give some background. Consider the sentence:

(259) *زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ*

Zayd is standing.

In example (259) above, *زَيْدٌ* is the subject and *قَائِمٌ* is its info.

We can rearrange the word order to front the info thus:

(260) *قَائِمٌ زَيْدٌ*

Standing, Zayd is.

This fronted info will be common in negative and question sentences. For example:

(261) *أَفَقَائِمٌ زَيْدٌ* [Wright 2/257B]

Is Zayd standing?

(262) *مَا قَائِمَةٌ هِنْدٌ* [Wright 2/257B]

Hind is not going

Now we come to the special *doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info* sentence:

In negative and question sentences like examples (261) and (261) above, the deverbal noun can be analyzed as a subject, and its following doer will fulfil the role of the info.

So, in examples (261) and (261) above, *قَائِمٌ* can be considered a subject *زَيْدٌ* and can be its doer that fulfils the role of the info. Now, you might be thinking: what is the reason for this strange *doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info* analysis?

Why can't we just consider قَائِمٌ a fronted info and زَيْدٌ the backed subject?

The answer is that we can indeed consider قَائِمٌ a fronted info and زَيْدٌ the backed subject as one option. But, as another option, the doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info analysis allows us to keep the deverbal noun in the singular for dual and plural subjects. So we can say:

- (263) أَقَائِمُ الزَّيْدَانِ
Are the two Zayds standing?

- (264) مَا ذَاهِبَةُ الْهِنْدَاتِ
The Hinds are not going

Sentences (263) and (264) are legitimate, but are only permitted for negative and question sentences.²⁶ If it is not a negative or question sentence, then the doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info construction is not permitted. So the following are not correct as complete sentences:

- (265) × قَائِمُ الزَّيْدَانِ
The two Zayds are standing.

- (266) × ذَاهِبَةُ الْهِنْدَاتِ
The Hinds are going

This is because the deverbal noun قَائِمٌ cannot govern the overt doers الزَّيْدَانِ and ذَاهِبَاتُ الْهِنْدَاتِ without the governing support that is provided by being in a negative or question sentence.

So when it is not a negative or question sentence, then only the fronted info construction is permitted and the info will typically match the backed subject in number and gender. For example:

- (267) قَائِمَانِ الزَّيْدَانِ
Standing, the two Zayds are.

- (268) ذَاهِبَاتُ الْهِنْدَاتِ
Going, the Hinds are.

The fronted info construction is also permitted, as an option, even for negative and question sentences. For example:

- (269) أَقَائِمَانِ الزَّيْدَانِ
Are the two Zayds standing?

- (270) مَا ذَاهِبَاتُ الْهِنْدَاتِ
The Hinds are not going

When the deverbal noun and the doer are both singular, and it is a negative or question sentence, then a double analysis is possible²⁷:

²⁶Some grammarians did not require this condition based on the sentence خَبِيرٌ بَنُو لَهَبٍ. For details on the dispute, see أوضح المسالك لابن هشام 1/191 footnote 3.

²⁷Wright 2/258A

- i. the fronted info analysis
- ii. the doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info analysis

Such is the case in examples (261) أَفَأَتِمُّ زَيْدٌ and (262) مَا قَائِمَةٌ هِنْدٌ above.

Here are some more examples of doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info sentences:

- (270) هَلْ مَضْرُوبٌ بُنُوكَ [Wright 2/257C]
Are your sons beaten?
 (بُنُو is a deputy doer.)

- (271) أَأَرَاغِبُ أَنْتَ عَنْ ءَالِ يٰهَيْتَى يٰكَأَبْرَاهِيمَ ط [سورة مريم 19:46 cited by Wright 2/257D]
Have you no desire for my gods, O Abraham?
 (A double analysis is reportedly possible, but the doer-that-fulfils-the-role-of-the-info analysis is preferred.²⁸)

- (272) خَلِيلَيَّ مَا وَافِيَ بَعْهُدَيَّ أَنْتُمَا [Wright 2/257D]
My two friends, you are not keeping my promise.

- (273) أَمُنَجِرُ أَنْتُمْ وَعَدًا وَثَقْتُ بِهِ [Wright 2/257D]
Are you fulfilling a promise that I put my trust on?

27.16. The maṣḍar as a verb-like governor

<https://shamela.ws/book/36130/1479#p1>

مسألة الفرق بين اسم الفاعل والمصدر في العمل - كتاب ما لم ينشر من الأمالي الشجرية
 - ابن الشجري
 الدرر السنية

²⁸See سورة مريم 19:46 for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

Chapter 28.

The maṣḍar

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

28.1. Introduction

Consider the example:

(274) ذَهَابَ زَيْدٌ
Zayd's going

The noun ذَهَابٌ *going* is the maṣḍar of the verb ذَهَبَ يَذْهَبُ *to go*.

Like the verb ذَهَبَ يَذْهَبُ, the maṣḍar ذَهَابٌ signifies the action of going. But unlike the verb, the maṣḍar does not include tense. So it doesn't say when the action of going happened or will happen.

The maṣḍar is classified as a primitive noun, not a deverbal noun. In other words, in terms of grammatical theory, it is not considered to be derived from the verb. (Rather, the verb is considered to be derived from the maṣḍar.)

Also the maṣḍar is not an adjectival noun. Technically, this would put it in the category of entity nouns. But because the maṣḍar signifies the action of a verb, and not an actual entity, it is an abstract entity noun, not a concrete entity noun. In fact, we will treat it in a category of its own. We will see, if Allāh wills, that the maṣḍar can cross over to a concrete entity noun and then refer to an entity.

28.2. The maṣḍar as a verb-like governor in an annexation

As a noun which is related to a verb, a maṣḍar can govern in a verb-like manner. Let's start with a sentence which has a verb:

(275) <!- يسرنى أن تأتي

(276) أرجو أن يعتدل الجو [nahw_wadih 1/54]

I hope that the weather becomes moderate

->

أَنْ in the above example is that maṣḍari أَنْ. This means that, as we learned in chapter (ref), it and its following verb can be interpreted as a maṣḍar construction, thus:

(277) يسرنى إتيانك

We also learned that this interpretation of the maṣḍari أَنْ clause in example () above allows us to grammatically model the أَنْ clause as one structural element. In example () above the maṣḍar construction إتيانك is modeled as the doer of the verb يسر.

But example () is also a legitimate sentence in its own right. The maṣḍar إتيان signifies the occurrence of the verb أتى يأتى. But unlike the verb, it does not indicate tense. If we had started with a caseless verb, for example:

(278) يسرنى أن أتيت

then it would have the same modeled maṣḍar:

(279) يسرنى إتيانك

In order to add tense to sentence with maṣḍar, we would have to use other means, for example, an adverb:

(280) يسرنى إتيانك غدا

(281) يسرنى إتيانك أمس

In example () above, the maṣḍar إتيان is a annexed noun in an annexation. Syntactically, the pronoun ك is in the i-case as the annexed-to noun in the annexation, but semantically, it is considered the doer of the. maṣḍar إتيان.

In example () above the verb تأتى was used without a direct doer. Let's see what happens when we add a direct doer. For example:

(282) يسرنى أن تأتيني

In example () above, the pronoun ي me is the direct doer of the verb تأتى. If we model the أَنْ clause in example () above as a maṣḍar construction, then we will get:

(283) يسرنى إتيانك إيتاي

Now, the pronoun ك your is again the syntactic annexed-to noun and the semantic doer of the maṣḍar إتيان. But the maṣḍar now also has a direct doer إيتاي in the a-case.

The *maṣḍar* in an annexation governing a u-case doer

Here is another example of a *maṣḍar* governing a semantic doer and a direct doee:

- (284) [3/102 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ شُرْبِ زَيْدٍ الْعَسَلِ

But this is not the only word order which is possible. We can flip the order of the doer and the direct doee, thus:

- (285) [3/102 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ شُرْبِ الْعَسَلِ زَيْدٌ

Now the semantic direct doee *العسل* is the annexed-to noun in the i-case and the doer *زيد* is in the u-case.

This word order of the direct doee's being the annexed-to noun and the doer occurring after it in the u-case (شُرْبِ الْعَسَلِ زَيْدٌ) is not as usual as the usual word order (شُرْبِ زَيْدٍ الْعَسَلِ).¹ Nevertheless, it is common enough.²

The *maṣḍar* in an annexation governing only a direct doee without a doer

The doer of the *maṣḍar* need not be mentioned. In this case, the *maṣḍar* is a annexed noun noun to its semantic direct doee directly. For example:

- (286) [Wright 2/57C] مَنَعَهُمْ مِنْ قَوْلِ الْحَقِّ
He hindered them from saying the truth.

Sometimes, context would be needed to tell whether the annexed-to noun is the semantic doer or the semantic direct doee. For example:

- (287) [11/70 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ ضَرْبِ زَيْدٍ

In example () above, *زيد* may either have been the person who did the beating or the person who was beaten.³ Context would be needed to disambiguate.

The *maṣḍar* governing a deputy doer

Just like the *maṣḍar* can govern a doer in the u-case it can similarly govern a deputy doer. For example:

- (288) [3/109 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] سَرَرَنِي إِعْطَاءُ الدَّنَائِيرِ الْفَقِيرِ
The giving of the dīnārs to the poor-one made me happy.

The *maṣḍar* governing multiple direct doees

The *maṣḍar* can govern multiple direct doees just like its verb. For example:

- (289) [3/109 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] عَرَفْتُ إِعْطَاءَكَ الْفَقِيرَ دَرَهَمًا

- (290) [3/109 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] عَرَفْتُ إِعْطَاءَكَ خَالِدًا جَعْفَرًا مُقِيمًا

¹Wright 2/59B

²3/103 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

³11/70 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان

28.2.0.1. The maṣḍar in an annexation to an adverb of time/place

The adverb of time/place, like a ;mafulb, is considered a doee. As such, it can be a annexed-to noun to a governing maṣḍar. Any doer and/or direct doees will then occur after it in their respective syntactic cases. For example:

- (291) [3/103 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ ضَرْبِ الْيَوْمِ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا
I wondered at today's beating [by] Zayd [to] ʿamr

A attribute to a governing maṣḍar in an annexation

A maṣḍar which is governing a governee (like a doer or a direct doee) can be described by a attribute, but that attribute should occur after the maṣḍar's governees.⁴ For example, we should not say:

- (292) [3/108 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] عرفت سوقك العنيف الإبل ×
I knew your harsh driving of the camels

We should say instead:

- (293) عرفت سوقك الإبل العنيف

A attribute to the governee of a maṣḍar in an annexation

When the maṣḍar is governing a doer or a direct doee in an annexation, and that governee is to be described by a attribute, then the attribute may, optionally, be either in the i-case, or in the u-case for the doer and the a-case for the direct doee.⁵ So we can say:

- (294) [3/104 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] عجبت من شرب زيد الطريف والظريف
 (295) [2/189 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ أَكْلِ الطَّعَامِ الْحَارِّ/الْحَارَّ زَيْدٌ
I wondered at the eating of the hot food [by] Zayd

A conjunction to the governee of a maṣḍar in an annexation

When the maṣḍar is governing a doer or a direct doee in an annexation, and that governee is followed by a conjunction and post-conjunction, then the post-conjunction may, optionally, be either in the i-case, or in the u-case for the doer and the a-case for the direct doee.⁶ So we can say:

- (296) [2/189 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] سَأَعْنِي إِهْمَالُ سَعِيدٍ وَخَالِدٍ/خَالِدٍ
 (297) [Wright 2/58A] كَرِهْتُ أَكْلَ الْخُبْزِ وَاللَّحْمِ/اللَّحَمَ
I disliked eating the bread and the meat.
 (298) [2/189 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] سَأَعْنِي ضَرْبُ خَالِدٍ وَسَعِيدٍ/سَعِيدًا خَلِيلٌ

⁴ 2/188 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان; 3/108 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك

⁵ 3/104–105; Wright 2/59C شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية; 2/189 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

⁶ 2/57D–58A النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

28.3. The tanwined maṣdar as a verb-like governor

In section (ref) above, we have seen how the maṣdar governing in an annexation. However, an annexation is not the only form in which a maṣdar can govern in a verb-like manner. A maṣdar can also govern when it is tanwined. For example:

- (299) عَجِبْتُ مِنْ ضَرْبٍ زِيدَا [3/94 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية; 1/189 كتاب سيبويه]
- (300) عَجِبْتُ مِنْ ضَرْبٍ زِيداً بَكْرٌ [1/189 كتاب سيبويه]
- (301) عَجِبْتُ مِنْ ضَرْبٍ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا [modified from 1/189 كتاب سيبويه; Wright 2/59A]
- (302) أَوْ اطْعَمْتُ فِي يَوْمٍ ذِي مَسْغَبَةٍ ﴿١٤﴾ يَتِيمًا ذَا مَقْرَبَةٍ ﴿١٥﴾ شرح 90:14-15 سورة البلد, cited by شرح 3/115 التسهيل لابن مالك
Or feeding on a day of severe hunger An orphan of near relationship
- (303) بَضْرَبَ بِالسِّيُوفِ رُؤُوسَ قَوْمٍ [3/94; Wright 2/57C] شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية
by striking, with the swords, the heads of a people

The tanwined maṣdar governing a doer and a direct doee is comparatively rarer than the maṣdar governing in an annexation.⁷ Some grammarians mandate that when a tanwined maṣdar is a governor then its doer should not be mentioned after it.⁸ So they would allow example (299) above but not examples (300) and (301).

28.4. The maṣdar prefixed by ال as a verb-like governor

In addition to the maṣdar governing in an annexation and when tanwined, the maṣdar can also govern when it is prefixed by ال. This is the rarest out of the three formations.⁹

- (304) عَجِبْتُ مِنَ الضَّرْبِ زِيدَا [3/94 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية]
- (305) ضَعِيفُ النَّكَائَةِ أَغْدَاءُهُ [3/116; Wright 2/57D] شرح التسهيل لابن مالك
weak in harming his enemies
- (306) فَلَمْ أَتَكَلَّ عَنْ الضَّرْبِ مَسْمِعَا [3/116; Wright 2/57D] شرح التسهيل لابن مالك
and I did not desist from beating Mismac

28.5. The maṣdar as a verb-like governor compared to the doer participle

We have already seen, in chapter (ref), that the doer participle is also a noun that is related to a verb, and that can govern in a verb-like manner. But the

⁷Wright 2/59B; 3/94 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

⁸11/75 التذيل والتكميل لأبي حيان

⁹3/94 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

maṣḍar and the doer participle are different in how they govern a doer and a direct doee.

Firstly, the maṣḍar is a primitive noun. So it does not govern a latent doer pronoun. When the maṣḍar is governing a direct doee without a doer as in example () مَنَعَهُمْ مِنْ قَوْلِ الْحَقِّ then, no latent doer pronoun is virtual modeled.

Secondly, when the maṣḍar is governing in an annexation, (for example عَجِبْتُ مِنْ ضَرْبِ زَيْدٍ عَمْرًا) then this annexation is real, not superficial.¹⁰ However, when the doer participle is governing in an annexation, then the annexation is superficial (see section (ref)).

Thirdly, the doer participle not prefixed by ال only governs in a verb-like manner when it has an imperfective meaning. The maṣḍar on the other hand can govern for both a perfective and imperfective meaning. For example:

(307) عَجِبْتُ مِنْ ضَرْبِكَ زَيْدًا أَمْسًا/غَدًا/الآن [modified from شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية 3/94]

The maṣḍar as a verb-like governor does have one similarity to the governing doer participle. And that is that both their doers are not the leaned-against element of a new sentence. So, for example, in the sentence:

(308) عَجِبْتُ مِنْ شَرْبِ الْعَسَلِ زَيْدٌ [3/102 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية]

the doer زَيْدٌ does not form an inner sentence with the maṣḍar شَرِبَ. Rather, the maṣḍar شَرِبَ, as a single-word element, is in the i-case, governed by the preposition مِنْ.

An exception to the doer of a maṣḍar not being a leaned-against element, and also to the maṣḍar not governing a latent doer pronoun, is when the maṣḍar occurs as the deputy to a verb. For example:

(309) ضَرَبَا زَيْدًا [3/93 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية]
Hit Zayd!

The maṣḍar as a deputy to a verb will be covered in more detail in section (mmutlaq), if Allāh wills.

TODO: Add to mmutlaq chapter

28.6. The maṣḍar governing an indirect doee

wright 2/61

28.7. The maṣḍar governing a direct doee with a strengthening-لِ

wright 2/61D

¹⁰ 71/9 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للحازمي

28.8. An intervening word in the annexation**28.9. The mimi maşdar****28.10. The manufactured maşdar****28.11. The one-time noun****28.12. The noun of manner****28.13. The entity noun→maşdar crossover**

The entity noun→maşdar crossover is a concrete entity noun that crosses over to be used like a maşdar. Examples:

entity noun→maşdar crossover	verb	actual maşdar
سَلَام <i>peace</i>	السَّلَامُ عَلَيَكُمْ <i>to say</i> (على to s.o.)	تَسْلِيم
عَطَاء <i>a gift</i>	أَعْطَى يُعْطِي <i>to give</i>	إِعْطَاء
كَلَام <i>a speech</i>	كَلَّمَ يُكَلِّم <i>to speak (to s.o.)</i>	تَكْلِيم
كَلَام <i>a speech</i>	تَكَلَّمَ يُتَكَلَّم <i>to speak</i>	تَكَلَّم
قُبْلَة <i>a kiss</i>	قَبَّلَ يُقَبِّل <i>to kiss (s.o.)</i>	تَقْبِيل
عَذَاب <i>a punishment</i>	عَذَّبَ يُعَذِّب <i>to punish (s.o.)</i>	تَعْذِيب
حَمْل <i>a load</i>	حَمَلَ يُحْمِل <i>to carry (s.th.)</i>	حَمْل
عِشْرَة <i>association</i>	عَاشَرَ يُعَاشِر <i>to consort (with s.o.)</i>	مُعَاشَرَة

The entity noun→maşdar crossover originally signifies the meaning of a concrete entity noun.¹¹ So, for example the maşdar تَكْلِيم signifies the action of speaking to someone, and the entity noun→maşdar crossover كَلَام signifies the concrete entity noun *speech*. But the entity noun→maşdar crossover, once it crosses over to a maşdar, can signify the action of the verb, just like the actual maşdar. As such, it can even govern in a verb-like manner.¹² So we can say:

- (310) [3/100 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] بِعِشْرَتِكَ الْكَرَامُ تُعَدُّ مِنْهُمْ
By your associating with the generous-ones you will be reckoned [as one] amongst them.
 (الكرام is in the a-case as the direct doer of the entity noun→maşdar crossover عِشْرَة.)
- (311) [3/99 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] وَبَعْدَ عَطَاكَ الْمِائَةَ
And after your giving of the one hundred (camels)

¹¹ معاني النحو 3/164-167

¹² 3/101 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

(عَطَاءُ is in the a-case as the direct doer of the entity noun→maṣḍar crossover (عَطَاءُ).)

- (312) 2/435 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك] قَالُوا كَلَامُكَ هُنْدًا وَهِيَ مُضْغِيَّةٌ يَشْفِيكَ
They said “Your speaking to Hind while she is giving ear will cure you.”
 (هُنْد is in the a-case as the direct doer of the entity noun→maṣḍar crossover
 (كَلَامُ).)

28.14. The maṣḍar→entity noun crossover

Just like the entity noun→maṣḍar crossover crosses over from a entity noun to a maṣḍar, the maṣḍar→entity noun crossover crosses over from a maṣḍar to a entity noun. Here are some examples¹³

maṣḍar→entity noun crossover	plural	verb
عِلْمٌ <i>a science</i> عَقْلٌ <i>an intellect</i>	عُلُومٌ عُقُولٌ	عَلِمَ يَعْلَمُ <i>to know</i> عَقَلَ يَعْقِلُ <i>to make sense (هـ of s.th.)</i>
عَمَلٌ <i>a deed</i> ظَنْ <i>a conjecture</i>	أَعْمَالٌ ظُنُونٌ	عَمِلَ يَعْمَلُ <i>to work</i> ظَنَّ يَظُنُّ <i>to conjecture</i>
صَوْتُ <i>a sound</i> مَعِيشَةٌ <i>a livelihood</i>	أَصْوَاتٌ مَعَاشٍ	صَاتَ يَصُوتُ <i>to make a sound</i> عَاشَ يَعِيشُ <i>to live</i>
عَقْدٌ <i>a contract</i> وَعْدٌ <i>a promise</i>	عُقُودٌ وَعُودٌ	عَقَدَ يَعْقِدُ <i>to enter into a contract</i> وَعَدَ يَعِدُّ <i>to promise</i>
عِدَّةٌ <i>a promise</i> مَوْعِدٌ/مَوْعِدَةٌ <i>a promise</i>	عِدَاتٌ مَوَاعِدٌ	وَعَدَ يَعِدُّ <i>to promise</i> وَعَدَ يَعِدُّ <i>to promise</i>
تَضْعِيفٌ <i>a double</i> تَجَرِبَةٌ <i>a trial, experiment</i>	تَضَاعِيفٌ تَجَارِبٌ	ضَعَّفَ يُضَعِّفُ <i>to double (هـ s.th.)</i> جَرَّبَ يُجَرِّبُ <i>to try (هـ، s.o., s.th.)</i>

As you can see, once a maṣḍar crosses over to a entity noun, it can, and often does, have a plural.

28.14.1. Plurals of maṣḍar→entity noun crossovers

As you can see, most of the maṣḍar→entity noun crossovers in the table above are from stem 1 verbs. There are relatively fewer from stem 2 verbs. Most form broken plurals. All the plurals above are amongst those that are attested usage from Classical Arabic.

Most maṣḍars are not attested to have plurals from Classical Arabic. For example, perhaps we may not find the maṣḍar اسْتَعْمَلَ (from the verb اسْتَعْمَلَ (يُسْتَعْمَلُ) to have the its plural as attested usage in Classical Arabic. This has led

¹³mostly taken from 129ff دراسات في النحو للزعبلاني

some grammarians to restrict plurals of *maṣḍars* to only those recorded from attested usage.¹⁴

After the era of native Classical Arabic, when SCA became the language of science and literature, new terms and meanings were added to the language and used with their technical meanings. Many of these new terms are *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossovers and they are often from higher stem verbs. Here are some examples¹⁵

<i>maṣḍar</i> →entity noun crossover	plural	verb
اِسْتِعْمَال <i>a use</i>	اِسْتِعْمَالَات	اِسْتَعْمَلَ يَسْتَعْمِلُ <i>to use</i> (هـ s.th.)
اِخْتِمَال <i>a possible interpretation</i>	اِخْتِمَالَات	اِخْتَمَلَ يَخْتَمِلُ <i>to bear a meaning (of a text)</i>
اِعْتِقَاد <i>a creed</i>	اِعْتِقَادَات	اِعْتَقَدَ يَعْتَقِدُ <i>to believe (a creed)</i>
اِشْكَال <i>a textual difficulty</i>	اِشْكَالَات	اَشْكََلَ يَشْكِلُ <i>to be difficult (of a text)</i>
تَعْرِيف <i>a definition</i>	تَعْرِيفَات	عَرَفَ يَعْرِفُ <i>to define</i> (هـ s.th.)
تَفْصِيل <i>an explanation</i>	تَفْصِيلَات	فَسَّرَ يَفْسِّرُ <i>to explain</i> (هـ s.th.)
حَذْف <i>a deletion</i>	حَذُوف	حَذَفَ يَحْذِفُ <i>to delete</i> (هـ s.th.)

Because of the need to pluralize technical terms, some scholars have permitted that new *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossovers can be pluralized without restriction.¹⁶

As you can see, many of these *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossovers are from higher stem verbs. Since, broken plurals are not easily formed from words with many letters, the *āt* plural is preferred for these *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossovers. The *maṣḍar* pattern تَفْعِيل of stem 2 فَعَّلَ verbs can easily form a plural on the pattern تَفَاعِيل, but even for new *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossovers on this pattern, the *āt* plural often tends to be in current usage.

Remember, however, from section (ref), that there are conditions that should be satisfied in order for a word to have a *āt* plural. So if a *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossover does not end with ة and has fewer than five letters than we may prefer to form a broken plural than a *āt* plural. Nevertheless the *āt* plural may be more common in actual usage. For example: بَيَان *a statement*, plural: بَيَانَات, أُبَيِّنَة.¹⁷

28.14.2. The ability of *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossovers to govern in a verb-like manner

The default for concrete entity nouns is that they will not govern in a verb-like manner. But a *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossover, even though it has crossed over to a entity noun, its *maṣḍar* origin retains some influence. Because of this, we

¹⁴ 138 دراسات في النحو للزعبلاوي; 96 جمع المصدر وأحكامه لحياي

¹⁵ mostly taken from 99–100 جمع المصدر وأحكامه لحياي, 141–142 دراسات في النحو للزعبلاوي

¹⁶ 129ff دراسات في النحو للزعبلاوي

¹⁷ 147–151 دراسات في النحو للزعبلاوي

do sometimes find a *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossover governing in a verb-like manner. This is most apparently visible in the plural of a *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossover. For example:

- (313) [107 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] وَجَرَّبُوهُ فَمَا زَادَتْ تَجَارِبُهُمْ أَبَا قَدَامَةَ إِلَّا الْحَزَمَ وَالْقَنَعَا
And they tried him, but their tryings of Abū Qudāmah did not increase but [his] resolve and contentment
 (The plural *maṣḍar*→entity noun crossover تَجَارِبُ is governing أَبَا in the a-case as a direct doer.)

28.15. The *maṣḍar*→adjectival noun crossover

A *maṣḍar*→adjectival noun crossover is a *maṣḍar* that crosses over to be used like an adjectival noun. For example, the *maṣḍar* عَدْلُ of the verb يَعْدِلُ *to act justly* is used as an adjectival noun to mean *just*. Similarly, the *maṣḍar* رَضَى of the verb يَرْضَى *to be pleased* is used as an adjectival noun to mean *pleasing*. Here is an example sentence:

- (314) [2/238 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] هَذَا رَجُلٌ عَدْلٌ
This is a just man.

When a *maṣḍar* is used as an adjectival noun, then, normally, it is not feminized, dualized or pluralized, regardless of the number or gender of the described noun. So we will say:

- (315) [3/176 شرح الفارسي على ألفية ابن مالك] مررت برجل عدل أو رضي
 (316) [3/176 شرح الفارسي على ألفية ابن مالك] مررت بامرأتين رضي
 (317) [3/176 شرح الفارسي على ألفية ابن مالك] مررت برجلين عدل
 (318) [3/176 شرح الفارسي على ألفية ابن مالك] مررت برجال عدل

Sometimes, a particular *maṣḍar* is used very often as an adjectival noun. Then, exceptionally, it is feminized and pluralized.¹⁸ Such is the case with the *maṣḍar*→adjectival noun crossover عَدْلُ. So we can (optionally) say:

- (319) [3/176 شرح الفارسي على ألفية ابن مالك] امرأة عدلة
 (320) [3/176 شرح الفارسي على ألفية ابن مالك] نساء عدلات
 (321) [3/176 شرح الفارسي على ألفية ابن مالك] قوم عدول

Also, excepted from the restriction of not being pluralized is a *maṣḍar*→adjectival noun crossover which ends with a *ḍ*. This is readily pluralized with an *āt* plural. For example ثَقَّةٌ *trustworthy*. So we can say:

- (322) رَجَالٌ ثِقَاتٌ
trustworthy men

¹⁸ [2/238 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]

28.16. The maṣḍar used figuratively to describe a concrete entity noun

Along the same lines as the maṣḍar→adjectival noun crossover we sometimes see a maṣḍar used figuratively to describe a concrete entity noun. For example:

- (323) [1/193 معاني النحو] ترتع ما رتعت حتى إذا اذكرت فإنما هي إقبال وإدبار
 [The she-camel] pastures at pleasure until she remembers [her offspring], then
 she is only (the act of) approaching and withdrawing.

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 29.

The government of the preposition

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

29.1. The need for governing the preposition

In the Arabic grammatical model, prepositional phrases are dispensable elements. In order to bring a dispensable caseful element into a sentence, a suitable element of the original sentence must act as governor of the new dispensable element. For example, consider the sentence

(324) جَلَسَ زَيْدٌ
“Zayd sat.”

We would like to add the prepositional phrase عَلَى الْأَرْضِ “on the ground” to the sentence, thus:

(325) جَلَسَ زَيْدٌ عَلَى الْأَرْضِ
“Zayd sat on the ground.”

In order to do this, a suitable element in the original sentence (جَلَسَ زَيْدٌ) must act as the governor for the preposition عَلَى. The verb جَلَسَ is this suitable element.

Now, you may be thinking: we introduced the concept of government for determining the case of an element. But prepositions don't have case. So why should they need to be governed, and in what manner may they be governed?

This is a valid objection. “Governing” a preposition is definitively problematic.¹ However, we can work around this problem with the following reasoning:

The noun الْأَرْضِ is governed by the preposition عَلَى and not directly by the verb جَلَسَ. This is because it is the preposition which *causes* the noun following it to be in the i-case. In order to bring the dispensable (caseful) element الْأَرْضِ in the sentence, we have to establish an unbroken chain of governor-governee dependencies that links back to a governing element in the original sentence.

¹Owens, J., *The foundations of grammar* 177

Saying that عَلَيَّ is governed by جَلَسَ allows us to accomplish this. So جَلَسَ will govern عَلَيَّ. And عَلَيَّ will govern الْأَرْضَ.

ADD DIAGRAM

Another way to look at this is that a prepositional phrase may be parsed (virtually) as a direct doee.² Consider the example:

- (326) مَرَرْتُ بِزَيْدٍ
“I passed by Zayd.”

In the above example, the prepositional phrase بِزَيْدٍ may be parsed (virtually) as in the a-case as a direct doee. So much so, that if we wish to add a second doee using a conjunction then it may be added in the a-case. For example:

- (327) مَرَرْتُ بِزَيْدٍ وَعَمْرٍا³
“I passed by Zayd and ʿAmr.”

Of course the more usual مَرَرْتُ بِزَيْدٍ وَعَمْرٍو is also permitted.

So we can consider the verb as governing the entire prepositional phrase in the a-case. And within the prepositional phrase, the preposition governs its following noun in the i-case.

ADD DIAGRAM

29.2. Prepositions not needing a governor

What we have just said regarding a preposition requiring a governor is true of *essential* prepositions. An essential preposition is that which, by its addition, gives a distinctly new meaning to the sentence. They are also used to connect an indirect doee to its governing verb. The preposition ب in (326) مَرَرْتُ بِزَيْدٍ is an example of an essential preposition.

There also exist *non-essential* prepositions. These merely give emphasis to an existing meaning in the sentence. Non-essential prepositions do not need a governor. Here is an example of a non-essential preposition:

- (328) [استيفاء حالات تعلق الجار والمجرور و الظرف وأثره في المعنى لعلني هاني] ما جاء من رجل
“Not a man came.”

The preposition مِنْ only emphasizes the meaning of the sentence. If we drop it the basic meaning would remain the same:

- (329) [استيفاء حالات تعلق الجار والمجرور و الظرف وأثره في المعنى لعلني هاني] ما جاء رجل
“Not a man came.”

By the way, مِنْ happens to be a non-essential preposition in the example above. But it may be an essential preposition in other sentences. For example:

- (330) خَرَجَ زَيْدٌ مِنَ الْبَيْتِ
“Zayd came out from the house.”

²Kasher, A., “The term *al-fiʿl al-mutaʿaddi bi-ḥarf jarr*” §3.1 124 citing ابن جني 2/439; Owens, J., *The foundations of grammar* 176 citing المبرد 176.

³Not all grammarians permit this. See ابن جني 2/439 and المبرد 176 for details.

29.3. Valid governors of the preposition

The verb is the typical governor of the preposition. We have already given an example of a verb governing a preposition: (325) جَلَسَ زَيْدٌ عَلَى الْأَرْضِ. Besides the verb, nouns that have the effect of a verb may also govern the preposition. Such nouns include:

The maṣḍar

Also included are deverbal nouns like:

The doer participle

The doee participle

The static adjectival noun

The emphatic nouns

The comparative noun

Grammarians differ regarding whether the the noun of time and the noun of place are permitted to govern a preposition. Some grammarians allow them to govern prepositions.⁴ Others disagree.⁵ Here are examples (considering them permissible) as governors:

The noun of time

(331) [2/440 النحو الوافي] انقضى مسعاك لتأييد الحق
 “Your [period of] effort for aiding the truth has ended.”

The noun of place

(332) [2/443 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك] رأيت مدخلك إلى الدار
 “I saw your [place of] entrance to the house.”

Also permitted as governors are primitive nouns used with an adjectival meaning. For example:

⁴ 2/443 حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك citing 2/440 النحو الوافي

⁵ 2/209 الخصائص لابن جني

29.4. One governor governing multiple prepositions

One governor can govern multiple different prepositions with no problems. For example:

But if the multiple governees are the same preposition, then in general they may not be governed by the same governor.⁶ So we can't say:

- (333) × مَرَزْتُ بِزَيْدٍ بِعَمْرٍو [شرح التصريح وحاشية ياسين] 1/378
 “I passed by Zayd by ʿAmr”

(although, separating the second preposition with a conjunction is of course allowed: مَرَزْتُ بِزَيْدٍ وَبِعَمْرٍو.)

But if the same preposition is used with different meanings then it is permissible to have them being governed by the same governor. For example:

- (334) مَرَزْتُ بِزَيْدٍ بِالْبَادِيَةِ [شرح التصريح وحاشية ياسين] 1/378
 “I passed by Zayd in the desert.”

If the first preposition restricts the verb, and the second preposition is applied after the verb has been restricted, then too may the multiple same prepositions be used.⁷ For example:

- (335) كُلَّمَا رُفِقُوا مِنْهَا مِنْ ثَمَرٍ رَفَا [سورة البقرة 2:25]

(The first مِنْ restricts the governing verb رُفِقُوا to الْجَنَّاتِ “the gardens”. And the second مِنْ is restricted to “from the fruit from the gardens.”⁸)

29.5. A meaningful connection between the preposition and its governor

In order for a preposition to be governed by a governor, there needs to be a meaningful connection between the governor and the governed prepositional phrase.⁹

Consider the following example:

- (336) شَبَّهْتُ خَالِدًا وَهُوَ يَجُودُ بِمَالِهِ بِالْبَحْرِ [معاني النحو] 3/131

“I likened Khālid, while he (was) being generous with his wealth, with the sea.”

(The وَهُوَ يَجُودُ in وَهُوَ يَجُودُ is translated as “while.” See section (ref).)

In the above example, the prepositional phrase بِالْبَحْرِ “with the sea” is meaningfully connected to the verb شَبَّهْتُ “to liken,” not with the verb يَجُودُ “to be generous.” Therefore, it is شَبَّهْتُ that governs the preposition in بِالْبَحْرِ, not يَجُودُ.

Similarly, the prepositional phrase بِمَالِهِ “with his wealth” is meaningfully connected to the verb يَجُودُ “to be generous,” not with the verb شَبَّهْتُ “to liken.” Therefore, it is يَجُودُ that governs the preposition in بِمَالِهِ, not شَبَّهْتُ.

Here is another example:

⁶ 2/444 النحو الوافي footnote 3

⁷ 2/444 النحو الوافي footnote 3

⁸ 2:25 سورة البقرة for الكشف للزمخشري

⁹ 3/131–133 معاني النحو, 2/442D–445 النحو الوافي

- (337) أَلْيَوْمَ يَيْسُ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا مِنْ دِينِكُمْ [5:3 سورة المائدة cited by معاني النحو 3/131]
 “This day those who disbelieve have despaired of [defeating] your religion;”

In the above example, the prepositional phrase *مِنْ دِينِكُمْ* “of your religion is meaningfully connected to the verb *يَيْسُ* “to despair,” not with the verb *كَفَرُوا* “to disbelieve.” Therefore, it is *يَيْسُ* that governs the preposition in *مِنْ دِينِكُمْ* not *كَفَرُوا*.¹⁰

29.6. The combination of verbs with prepositions: the indirect doee

In theory, prepositions impart their own meanings.¹¹ And there is no restriction on which prepositions may be used with a given governing verb (or verbal noun), as long as the prepositional phrase be meaningfully connected with its governor.¹²

The following examples show a possible set of prepositions that are meaningfully governed by the verb *أَنْصَرَفَ* “to turn around, leave”:

- (338) [2/161 النحو الوافي] أَنْصَرَفَ إِلَى مَصْنَعِهِ
 “He left to his workplace.”
- (339) [2/161 النحو الوافي] أَنْصَرَفَ مِنَ الْمَصْنَعِ إِلَى بَيْتِهِ
 “He left from the workplace to his house.”
- (340) [2/161 النحو الوافي]¹³ أَنْصَرَفَ الْعَالِمُ عَنِ الْهَزْلِ
 “The scholar left off joking.”
- (341) [2/161 النحو الوافي] أَنْصَرَفَ فِي سَيَّارَتِهِ
 “He left in his caravan.”

Having said that, in practice, certain verbs are more meaningfully connected with certain prepositions, sometimes almost to the exclusion of others.¹⁴ For example, the verb *أَفْسَمَ* “to swear” requires the preposition *بِ* in order to transit to what is being sworn by.¹⁵ For example,

- (342) [203 أسرار العربية للأنباري] أَقْسَمَ بِاللَّهِ
 “I swear by Allāh”

The combination of a verb and its governed preposition can even acquire a specific meaning. Consider, for example, the verb *وَجَدَ*. It’s basic meaning is “to find.” It may be used with prepositions like *بِ*, *عَلَى*, *فِي* with this basic meaning. For example:

¹⁰ 5:3 سورة المائدة for *الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي*

¹¹ Kasher, A., “The term *al-fi’l al-muta’addi bi-ḥarf jar*” §2.7 124

¹² النحو الوافي 2/161

¹³ See also صحيح البخاري [4064] أَخَذَ انْهَزَمَ النَّاسُ عَنِ النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ

¹⁴ Kasher, A., “The term *al-fi’l al-muta’addi bi-ḥarf jar*” §3.3

¹⁵ Kasher, A., “The term *al-fi’l al-muta’addi bi-ḥarf jar*” §3.3 129 citing ابن الأنباري

- (343) وَجَدْتُ الْكِتَابَ بِجَهْدٍ
“I found the book with effort.”
- (344) وَجَدْتُ الْكِتَابَ فِي الْبَيْتِ
“I found the book in the house.”
- (345) وَجَدْتُ الْكِتَابَ عَلَى الْخِزَانَةِ
“I found the book on the cupboard.”

But this verb also has specific meanings when used with these prepositions and certain indirect doers (albeit possibly with different *maṣḍars*). For example:

- (346) وَجَدَ عَلَيْهِ [Lane: root وجد]
“He was angry with him.”
- (347) وَجَدَ بِهَا [Lane: root وجد]
“He loved her.”
- (348) قَدْ وَجَدَ فِي نَفْسِهِ عَلَى [صحيح مسلم: 1649b]
“he may have some feelings against me”

In such cases, the preposition almost seems to lose some of its independent meaning. Instead, the meaning of the expression is obtained from the combination of the verb with the preposition.

29.7. The virtual model of general beingness

Consider the sentence:

- (349) 2/211 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية زَيْدٌ فِي الدَّارِ
“Zayd is in the house.”

We mentioned in section (ref) above, that the governor of a preposition must be a verb, or what has the effect of a verb. But we find no such word in the sentence above. So what then is the governor of the preposition *فِي*?

In order to remain consistent with the Arabic grammatical model, we *virtually model* a governor. This virtually modeled governor has the meaning given by the verb “is” or its verbal noun “being”. We will refer to it as *general beingness*.

In Arabic grammatical terminology, general beingness is represented by the verb *أَسْتَقَرَّ* or its doer participle *مُسْتَقَرٌّ*, or by the word *كَانَ*, which is the doer participle of the verb *كَانَ*.

Using these representations of general beingness, we can explicate (one interpretation of) example (349) *زَيْدٌ فِي الدَّارِ* as:

- (350) زَيْدٌ [مُسْتَقَرٌّ] فِي الدَّارِ
“Zayd is [being] in the house.”

The word “being” is not really needed in the translation because the verb “is” conveys the same concept. But we have added it to explicate the involvement of general beingness in the grammar of the sentence.

Note that virtually modeling general beingness in a sentence as we did in example (350) above is not same as if the words *أُسْتَقَرَّ* “to settle”, *مُسْتَقَرَّ* “settled”, or *كَانَ* “being” were actually expressed. When expressed, they impart their own meaning. For example

- (351) *زَيْدٌ مُسْتَقَرٌّ فِي الدَّارِ*
“Zayd is settled in the house.”

When virtually modeling general beingness we only use the words *أُسْتَقَرَّ*, *مُسْتَقَرَّ*, and *كَانَ* terminologically. In fact, according to the prevalent opinion among the grammarians, general beingness can only be virtually modeled.¹⁶ If one of these (or any other) words is actually expressed, then it will impart a specific meaning, not the meaning of general beingness. Having said that, some grammarians did permit general beingness to be expressed.¹⁷

29.8. Virtually modeled general beingness as the info of a sentence

The virtual model of general beingness in the sentence in example (349) *زَيْدٌ فِي الدَّارِ* solves another problem for us. Remember how we said that, in the Arabic grammatical model, the preposition is a dispensable element. So if we remove it (and the following i-case noun *الدَّارِ*) from the sentence, we should still be left with a complete sentence. Let's try doing that:

- (352) *زَيْدٌ [مُسْتَقَرٌّ]*
“Zayd is [being].”

See how the virtually modeled general beingness serves as the indispensable leaning element: the info. If we were to not virtually model general beingness, we would be left with a grammatically incomplete sentence.

We also take this opportunity to explain an apparent inconsistency. Back in chapter (ref), we had said that a prepositional phrase can be the info of a sentence. We now state that, strictly speaking, it is the (virtually modeled) governor of the preposition which is the info. But because the actual info is virtually modeled and is not expressed, we can say, loosely speaking, that the prepositional phrase is the info.

This approach of applying a terminological label differently when loosely speaking vs when strictly speaking is common.¹⁸ We will see other examples of it in sections (refs) if Allāh wills.

¹⁶ النحو الوافي 1/477

¹⁷ شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية 2/211 footnote

¹⁸ النحو الوافي 1/215, 2/118, 2/442

29.9. Other virtually modeled governors besides general beingness

While general beingness is necessarily virtually modeled and never expressed (see section (ref) above), other governors of prepositions too may be optionally suppressed. This is done on the condition that the overall meaning or context supplies the meaning of the suppressed governor.¹⁹ For example:

- (353) أَلْحُرُّ بِالْحَرِّ [سورة البقرة 2:178 cited by النحو الوافي 2/447]
 “the free for the free”

In the above example, the info has been analyzed as the virtually modeled governor يَنْتَقِصُ “is retributed against” or يُقْتَلُ “is killed”. So the sentence with the virtually modeled meaning is الْحُرُّ يَنْتَقِصُ أَوْ يُقْتَلُ بِالْحَرِّ “the free is retributed against, or killed, for the free.”²⁰

29.10. The prepositional phrase as a attribute

Consider the sentence

- (354) [استيفاء حالات تعلق الجار والمجرور و الظرف وأثره في المعنى لعلي هاني] رَأَيْتُ طَائِرًا عَلَى الْغَصَنِ
 “I saw a bird on the branch.”

Now the logical assumption is that the bird was on the branch, not that my act of seeing was done on a branch. So this means that the preposition عَلَى is not meaningfully connected with the verb رَأَيْتُ. Therefore, رَأَيْتُ is not the governor of the preposition عَلَى.²¹ So what then is governing the preposition عَلَى.

Here again, we virtually model the governor of general beingness, as if to say:

- (355) رَأَيْتُ طَائِرًا [مُسْتَقَرًّا] عَلَى الْغَصَنِ
 “I saw a bird [being] on the branch.”

general beingness [مُسْتَقَرًّا] is virtually modeled as the governor of the preposition عَلَى. The virtually modeled general beingness is also a attribute to the direct doer طَائِرًا. But because the virtually modeled general beingness is not expressed, we may say, loosely speaking, that the prepositional phrase is the attribute.

In order for a prepositional phrase to be a attribute, its attributee will usually be an indefinite noun, like طَائِرًا is in example (354) above. In the case where the prepositional phrase occurs after a definite noun, (like in رَأَيْتُ الطَّائِرَ عَلَى الْغَصَنِ) it will typically be analyzed as a ḥāl. We will discuss this in more detail in chapter (ref) section (ref) if Allāh wills.

Here are some more examples of prepositional phrases as attributes:

¹⁹ النحو الوافي 2/447 footnote

²⁰ سورة البقرة for تفسير ابن عاشور

²¹ استيفاء حالات تعلق الجار والمجرور و الظرف وأثره في المعنى لعلي هاني

- (356) [سورة البقرة 2:265] كَمَثَلِ جَنَّةٍ بِرَبْوَةٍ
 “like a garden on high ground”
 (بِرَبْوَةٍ is analyzed as a attribute.²²)
- (357) [سورة البقرة 2:129] رَبَّنَا وَأَبْعَثْ فِيهِمْ رَسُولًا مِنْهُمْ
 “Our Lord, and send among them a messenger from themselves”
 (مِنْهُمْ is analyzed as a attribute.²³)

When a prepositional phrase is, loosely speaking, a attribute, its governor is typically the virtually modeled general beingness.²⁴ However, it is conceivable that the virtually modeled governor of the preposition be interpreted, if not formally then at least in meaning, as some other verb (or verbal noun).²⁵ For example:

- (358) [سورة النمل 27:12] فِي تِسْعِ آيَاتٍ إِلَىٰ فِرْعَوْنَ وَقَوْمِهِ
 “[These are] among the nine signs [you will take] to Pharaoh and his people.”

In one interpretation of the above āyah, the prepositional phrase إِلَىٰ فِرْعَوْنَ “to Pharaoh” has been analyzed as attribute of آيَاتٍ “signs”. The meaning with the virtually modeled governor has been explained as وَاصِلَةٌ إِلَىٰ فِرْعَوْنَ “arriving to Pharaoh”.²⁶

Here is another example:

- (359) [سورة التوبة 9:125] فَزَادَتْهُمْ رِجْسًا إِلَىٰ رِجْسِهِمْ
 “it has [only] increased them in evil [in addition] to their evil”

In the above āyah, the prepositional phrase إِلَىٰ رِجْسِهِمْ “to their evil” has been analyzed as attribute of رِجْسًا “evil”. The meaning with the virtually modeled governor has been explained as كُفْرًا مَّضْمُومًا إِلَىٰ كُفْرِهِمْ “in disbelief in addition to their disbelief.”²⁷

29.11. The word-order for different categories of attributes

TODO

When a attributee is described by more than one attribute and النحو الوافي 3/496

²² سورة البقرة 2:265 البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

²³ سورة البقرة 2:129 البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

²⁴ 1/213 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية 2/285 أوضح المسالك لابن هشام

²⁵ footnote 2/447 النحو الوافي

²⁶ سورة النمل 27:12 where الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي 2/1005. But see also التبيان في إعراب القرآن للعكبري this interpretation is critiqued.

²⁷ سورة التوبة 9:125 للكشاف للزمخشري

29.12. The prepositional phrase in other functions

Besides the info and the attribute a prepositional phrase may also occur as a ḥāl and a connecting sentence.²⁸ We will cover these two remaining topics in their respective chapters in sections (ref) and (ref) respectively.

29.13. Word order of the preposition and its governor

A prepositional phrase may freely precede its governor.²⁹ This may be done for a number of purposes:

To limit and particularize the effect of the governor to the noun following the preposition.³⁰

For example:

- (360) [2790: صحيح البخاري] وَمِنْهُ تَفْجَرُ أَنْهَارُ الْجَنَّةِ
“and from it originate the rivers of Paradise”
- (361) [3/121 معاني النحو cited by سورة آل عمران 3:122] وَعَلَى اللَّهِ فَلْيَتَوَكَّلِ الْمُؤْمِنُونَ
“and upon Allāh the believers should rely.”

For drawing attention to the noun following the preposition³¹

- (362) [3/123 معاني النحو cited by سورة آل عمران 3:180] وَاللَّهُ بِمَا تَعْمَلُونَ خَبِيرٌ
“And Allāh, of what you do, is [fully] Aware.”
- (363) [4770: صحيح البخاري] أَلِهَذَا جَمَعْتُنَا
“Is it for *this* (that) you have gathered us?”
- (364) [51:18 سورة الذاريات] وَيَالِأَسْحَارٍ هُمْ يَسْتَغْفِرُونَ
“And in the hours before dawn they would ask forgiveness”
(The prepositional phrase بِالْأَسْحَارِ is placed not just before its governor in the info يَسْتَغْفِرُونَ, but also before the subject هُمْ.)

When governing the preposition (and also the adverbs of time and place (section ref)), the placement of the governee is especially flexible.³² Even when the placement of the governees of a governor might be restricted in general, a license is often given to prepositions. For example, we saw in section (ref), that when a doer participle is prefixed with ال, then its governees may not precede it. So for example, we cannot say × هذا زيد الضارب. We have to say instead ✓ هذا الضارب زيد. But an exception is made for the preposition which is governed by the doer participle. So we can say:

²⁸ 2/441–442 النحو الوافي

²⁹ 2/444A النحو الوافي

³⁰ 3/121 معاني النحو

³¹ 3/121 معاني النحو

³² 1/289D–290A شرح الرضي على الكافية

(365) [3/263 النحو الوافي] أنا لك المرافق

I am, for you, the travelling companion.

We will see, in sections (refs) if Allāh wills that the governee, in this case, are permitted to be placed where other types of governees are not.

TODO: Add content to:

- إِنَّ and its sisters: ibn_aqil 1/278 fn; 1/349
- كَانَ and its sisters طَعَامُكَ
- Hījāzi مَا: sharh uthaymeen 22/4 (مكا بي أنت معينا)

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 30.

The verb كَانَ

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

30.1. Introduction

We have learned that a verb must have a doer in the u-case and can have a direct doer in the a-case. In this chapter, we will learn about a new type of verb, whose doer is called its subject, and whose direct doer is called its info.

The principal verb of this type is كَانَ which is used to mean “was”. There are other verbs which behave in a similar manner and they are called the *sisters* of كَانَ.

30.2. كَانَ as a deficient verb

In chapter (gov), we learned that a verbal sentence is formed from a verb and its doer. The verb constitutes the leaning element and its doer constitutes the leaned-against element. For example:

(366) قَامَ زَيْدٌ
Zayd stood up.

In example (366) above قَامَ is the leaning element and زَيْدٌ is the leaned-against element.

Most verbs behave in this manner. They are termed *sufficient* verbs because the verb contains sufficient meaning to be the leaning element by expressing some property about its doer (the leaned-against element).

There are some verbs, however, that do not contain sufficient meaning to be the leaning element of a sentence. These verbs are termed *deficient* verbs. For such verbs, the verb's direct doer is needed to complete the meaning of the sentence. The verb كَانَ, which means “was”, is one such verb. If we say كَانَ زَيْدٌ Zayd was then the meaning is, in general, incomplete. The listener would be left wondering, Zayd was what? So, in order to complete the meaning of the sentence, we have to add a direct doer for كَانَ. For example:

(367) كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا [Peled, *Sentence types* 171]
Zayd was standing

Now the sentence is structurally complete.

30.3. A كَانَ sentence as a nounal sentence

The fact that كَانَ is not an indispensable element of its sentence also changes the classification of the sentence. The leaned-against element in example (367) زَيْدٌ needs a leaning element to complete the sentence. Because the verb كَانَ does not complete the meaning of the sentence, therefore it cannot be the leaning element. The sentence becomes structurally complete when we add the direct object قَائِمًا. Therefore, the direct object قَائِمًا is the leaning element.

So indispensable elements in example (367) become زَيْدٌ (the leaned-against element) and قَائِمًا (the leaning element). These two are nouns, not a verb and its doer. Therefore the sentence is reclassified as a nounal sentence, not a verbal sentence (see section (3amal)).¹ زَيْدٌ is considered the subject, and قَائِمًا is considered the info.²

Although كَانَ is not an indispensable element anymore, it still governs both indispensable elements. Therefore, it is the foundational government of the sentence (see section (ref)).

The diagram below depicts the government of example (367).

DIAGRAM

30.4. Conjugation table for كَانَ

كَانَ is a hollow verb. Here is its conjugation table for easy reference:

Doer pronoun	caseless verb	u-case caseful verb	a-case caseful verb	ø-case caseful verb
he	كَانَ	يَكُونُ	يَكُونُ	يَكُنْ
she	كَانَتْ	تَكُونُ	تَكُونُ	تَكُنْ
you _{1m}	كُنْتَ	تَكُونُ	تَكُونُ	تَكُنْ
you _{1f}	كُنْتِ	تَكُونِينَ	تَكُونِي	تَكُونِي
I	كُنْتُ	أَكُونُ	أَكُونُ	أَكُنْ
they _{2m}	كَانَا	يَكُونَانِ	يَكُونَا	يَكُونَا
they _{2f}	كَانَتَا	تَكُونَانِ	تَكُونَا	تَكُونَا
you ₂	كُنْتُمَا	تَكُونَانِ	تَكُونَا	تَكُونَا
they _{3m}	كَانُوا	يَكُونُونَ	يَكُونُوا	يَكُونُوا
they _{3f}	كُنَّ	يَكُنَّ	يَكُنَّ	يَكُنَّ
you _{3m}	كُنْتُمْ	تَكُونُونَ	تَكُونُوا	تَكُونُوا
you _{3f}	كُنْتُنَّ	تَكُنَّ	تَكُنَّ	تَكُنَّ

¹See also Peled, *Sentence types* 171

²This is according to the classification of the Baṣrans. The Kūfans considered the a-case governee of كَانَ its ḥāl. See شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي 2/137

Doer pronoun	caseless verb	u-case caseful verb	a-case caseful verb	∅-case caseful verb
we	كُنَّا	نَكُونُ	نَكُونُ	نَكُونُ

Here are some examples showing some of the different conjugations:

- (368) كَانَتْ زَيْنَبٌ جَائِعَةً
Zaynab was hungry.
- (369) كَانَ الْعَلَامُ زَيْدًا
The boy was Zayd.
- (370) كَانَتِ النِّسَاءُ فِي بُيُوتِهِنَّ
The women were in their houses.
- (371) كَانُوا مَسْرُورِينَ وَفَرِحِينَ
They_{3m} were happy and rejoicing.
- (372) كُنْتُ نَائِمَةً
I_f was sleeping.
- (373) كُنْتُ لِي أَخًا
You_{1m} were a brother to me.

30.5. Word order of كَانَ, its subject, and its info

Verb, subject, info

In sentence word order, the natural sequence is verb, subject, info.

- (374) كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا [Wright 2/100B]
Zayd was standing.

Verb, info, subject

The sequence verb, info, subject is also permissible.

- (375) كَانَ قَائِمًا زَيْدٌ [Wright 2/100B]
Zayd was standing.

Info, verb, subject

So is the sequence info, verb, subject:

- (376) قَائِمًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ [Wright 2/100B]
Zayd was standing.

This last order is common in questions and alternative sentence sentences.³
For example:

- (377) أَقَائِمًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ
Was Zayd standing?
- (378) أَكْرَمَ الضَّيْفَ غَنِيًّا كَانَ أَوْ فَقِيرًا [Wright 2/100B]
Honor the guest, be he rich or poor.

Sometimes, however, this inversion is impossible because of an indistinguishable case of the two nouns.

For example, in order to express *My brother was my companion*, we must say:

- (379) كَانَ أَخِي رَفِيقِي [Wright 2/100C]
My brother was my companion.

This is because, if we invert it, it would naturally mean:

- (380) كَانَ رَفِيقِي أَخِي [Wright 2/100C]
My companion was my brother.

Subject, verb, info

What about the sequence: subject, verb, info? For example:

- (381) زَيْدٌ كَانَ قَائِمًا
Zayd – he was standing.

Remember that a verb must be followed by its doer. So this is actually a compound sentence. زَيْدٌ is the subject of the outer sentence. And the info of the outer sentence is the inner sentence كَانَ قَائِمًا. The subject of كَانَ is a latent pronoun, implicated a [هُوَ].

Word order when كَانَ's info has a a-case governee

We know from chapter (ref) that a deverbal noun can have a doer. The natural word order is for this doer to occur after its governor, thus:

- (382) كَانَ زَيْدٌ آكِلًا طَعَامَكَ [الأشباه والنظائر للسيوطي] 2/59
Zayd was eating your food.

Other word orders are also possible. We will discuss the different combinations below:

- (383) Basic order: كَانَ زَيْدٌ آكِلًا
- (a) كَانَ زَيْدٌ آكِلًا طَعَامَكَ ✓
- (b) كَانَ زَيْدٌ طَعَامَكَ آكِلًا ✓

³Wright 2/100B

(c) طَعَامَكَ كَانَ زَيْدٌ أَكَلًا ✓

(d) كَانَ طَعَامَكَ زَيْدٌ أَكَلًا ×

(384) Basic order: كَانَ أَكَلًا زَيْدٌ

(a) كَانَ أَكَلًا طَعَامَكَ زَيْدٌ ✓

(b) كَانَ أَكَلًا زَيْدٌ طَعَامَكَ ✓

(c) طَعَامَكَ كَانَ أَكَلًا زَيْدٌ ✓

(d) كَانَ طَعَامَكَ أَكَلًا زَيْدٌ ×

(385) Basic order: أَكَلًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ

(a) أَكَلًا طَعَامَكَ كَانَ زَيْدٌ ✓

(b) طَعَامَكَ أَكَلًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ ✓

(c) أَكَلًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ طَعَامَكَ ✓

(d) أَكَلًا كَانَ طَعَامَكَ زَيْدٌ ×

As you can see, only three of the combinations are disallowed.⁴ And in all three كَانَ is separated from its subject (زَيْدٌ) by the governee (طَعَامَكَ) of its info (أَكَلًا).

Even some of these disallowed combinations become permitted if the governee of the info of كَانَ is not a direct doer but a preposition or an adverb of time and place. Recall from section (ref) that the word order of prepositions and adverbs of time and place is especially flexible. So we can say:

(386) [1/280 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] كَانَ عِنْدَكَ زَيْدٌ مُقِيمًا
Zayd was, at your place, staying.

(387) [1/280 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] كَانَ فِيكَ زَيْدٌ رَاجِبًا
Zayd was, of [your favour], desirous

Some of the combinations above, though allowed, are considered ungainly by some grammarians⁵, like (385) (3) أَكَلًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ طَعَامَكَ. But again, if the governee of the info of كَانَ is not a direct doer but a preposition or an adverb of time and place, then there is no problem. For example:

(388) [1/432 الهمع للسيوطي] مُسَافِرًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ الْيَوْمَ
Journeying Zayd was today

(389) [1/432 الهمع للسيوطي] رَاجِبًا كَانَ زَيْدٌ فِيكَ
Desirous Zayd was, of [your favour]

⁴There is some difference of opinion regarding the permissibility of some of the combinations. See 1/432 الهمع للسيوطي; 2/59 الأشباه والنظائر للسيوطي; 1/280 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية.

⁵1/432 الهمع للسيوطي

Word order of a compound sentence when كَانَ's info has a a-case governee

The subject can be made to precede كَانَ, such that it becomes a compound sentence:

(390) [2/59 الأشباه والنظائر للسيوطي] زَيْدٌ كَانَ أَكَلًا طَعَامَكَ

Now the subject of كَانَ is a latent pronoun [هُوَ]. Since this latent pronoun is attached to كَانَ, the info أَكَلًا's governee طَعَامَكَ can no longer come between كَانَ and its subject. Now all twelve combinations are permissible.⁶ Here is a sampling out of them:

(391) (a) طَعَامَكَ زَيْدٌ كَانَ أَكَلًا [2/59 الأشباه والنظائر للسيوطي]

(b) زَيْدٌ طَعَامَكَ أَكَلًا كَانَ [2/59 الأشباه والنظائر للسيوطي]

(c) طَعَامَكَ أَكَلًا زَيْدٌ كَانَ [2/59 الأشباه والنظائر للسيوطي]

30.6. Negation of كَانَ

TODO

30.7. A pronoun as the info of كَانَ

When a pronoun is the info of كَانَ, then it may optionally be attached to كَانَ or separated using the prefix إِيَّا.

Examples:

(392) [2930a cited by صحيح مسلم] إِنْ يَكُنْهُ فَلَنْ تُسَلِّطَ عَلَيْهِ وَإِنْ لَمْ يَكُنْهُ فَلَا خَيْرَ لَكَ فِي قَتْلِهِ [1/231 شرح الكافية الشافية لابن مالك]

If he is he (i.e. the Dajjāl), you would not be able to overpower him, and if he is not he there is no good for you in killing him

(393) [1/114 أوضح المسالك لابن هشام] الصَّدِيقُ كُنْتُهُ

The friend – you are he.

(الصَّدِيقُ كُنْتُ إِيَّاهُ) is also permitted.⁷

(394) [1/114 أوضح المسالك لابن هشام] كَانَهُ زَيْدٌ

Zayd was he.

For the other sisters of كَانَ it is preferred that the pronoun be separated using the prefix إِيَّا. An attached pronoun for the other sisters is rare.⁸

⁶inferred from الهمع للسيوطي 1/433

⁷1/275 النحو الوافي, 1/104, شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

⁸2/245 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان

30.8. A separating-pronoun between the subject and info of كَانَ

TODO

كَانَ زَيْدًا هُوَ الْقَائِمُ (395)

1/249 النحو الوافي

30.9. A maṣḍari 'an as the subject or info of كَانَ

Recall from chapter (ref) that the clause of a maṣḍari 'an is equivalent to a maṣḍar, which is a noun. Consider the following example:

(396) البسيط cited by سورة الأنعام 6:23 ثُمَّ لَمْ تَكُنْ فَتَنْتَهُمْ إِلَّا أَنْ قَالُوا وَاللَّهِ رَبَّنَا مَا كُنَّا مُشْرِكِينَ

[714 لابن أبي الربيع

Then there will be no [excuse upon] examination except they will say, "By Allāh, our Lord, we were not those who associated."

The clause قَالُوا أَنْ is equivalent to قَوْلُهُمْ their saying. Due to this equivalence to a noun, a maṣḍari 'an can be the subject or the info of كَانَ. For the āyah in example (396), فَتَنْتَهُمْ is read in both the u-case (فَتَنْتَهُمْ) and the a-case (فَتَنْتَهُمْ) in different recitations.⁹ So the قَالُوا أَنْ clause is analyzed as the subject of كَانَ when فَتَنْتَهُمْ is read in the a-case as the info. and it is analyzed as the info of كَانَ when فَتَنْتَهُمْ is read in the u-case as the subject.

In general, a maṣḍari 'an will be more likely to be the subject because is considered more definite.¹⁰

30.10. A complete sentence as the info of كَانَ

So far we have seen examples where the info of كَانَ is a single noun in the a-case. In example (382) كَانَ زَيْدٌ أَكَلًا طَعَامَكَ the info of the كَانَ is the noun أَكَلًا. The info أَكَلًا is governing a latent doer pronoun [هُوَ] and the direct doer طَعَامَكَ, but still, the info itself is a single noun, not a complete sentence.

Here is another example:

(397) البسيط لابن أبي الربيع كَانَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقًا

Zayd was setting out.

In example (397) above the info of كَانَ is the noun مُنْطَلِقًا.

In section (ref), we learned that the info of a nounal sentence can be a complete sentence. So, the info of كَانَ can be a complete sentence. For example:

(398) البسيط لابن أبي الربيع كَانَ زَيْدٌ أَبُوهُ مُنْطَلِقٌ

Zayd – his father was setting out.

(literally: Zayd was – his father is setting out.)

⁹ سورة الأنعام 6:23 for القراءات العشر من الشاطبية والدرة --- دار الصحابة

¹⁰ 3:147 سورة آل عمران for الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي; 715 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع

In example (398), the info of كَانَ is the complete sentence أَبُوهُ مُنْطَلِقٌ *His father is setting out*. As we stated in section (ref), when the info is a sentence, then internally it is governed independently with its own foundational government. So كَانَ has no governing effect *within* the info sentence.¹¹ The inner sentence زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ has its own internal government with زَيْدٌ as the subject and مُنْطَلِقٌ as the info. That is why مُنْطَلِقٌ is in the u-case and not in the a-case.

The entire info sentence أَبُوهُ مُنْطَلِقٌ in place of a a-case noun as the info of كَانَ.

Here are some more examples of كَانَ with a sentence as its info:

- (399) [692 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ زَيْدٌ أَخُوهُ صَاحِكٌ
Zayd – his brother was laughing.

- (400) [692 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ أَبُوهُ
Zayd – setting out, his father was.
(literally: *Zayd was – setting out, his father is.*)

In example, (400) above, the sentence info is أَبُوهُ مُنْطَلِقٌ. مُنْطَلِقٌ is the fronted info and أَبُوهُ is the subject. Although this sentence is grammatically correct, we will see in the next section that a sababi info is more likely to be used instead.

When كَانَ has a info that is a complete sentence, then the info of the inner sentence will match its subject in number and gender. For example:

- (401) [693 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ الزَّيْدَانِ أَبَوَاهُمَا حَسَنَانِ
The two Zayds – their fathers [were] handsome.
- (402) [693 footnote 3 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ الزَّيْدَانِ حَسَنَانِ أَبَوَاهُمَا
The two Zayds – handsome, their fathers [were].
(fronted info.)
- (403) [693 footnote 3 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ الزَّيْدُونَ حَسَنُونَ آبَاؤُهُمْ
The Zayds – handsome, their fathers [were].
(sound plural as the fronted info.)
- (404) [693 footnote 3 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ الزَّيْدُونَ حَسَنًا آبَاؤُهُمْ
The Zayds – handsome, their fathers [were].
(broken plural as the fronted info.)

30.11. A state-of-affairs pronoun as the subject of كَانَ

كَانَ may have a state-of-affairs pronoun as its subject. And the info of كَانَ will be an inner sentence. For example

- (405) [745 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
[The state of affairs] was – Zayd is standing.

¹¹ 683 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع

In example (405) above, the subject of *كَانَ* is a latent state-of-affairs pronoun [هُوَ]. And the info of *كَانَ* is the inner sentence *زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ* *Zayd is standing*. Compare example (405) with example (367) *كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا*, where the subject of *كَانَ* is *زَيْدٌ*. And the info of *كَانَ* is the single element *قَائِمًا*.

Similarly, if the subject of the inner sentence is a feminine noun, then the state-of-affairs pronoun subject of *كَانَ* is typically feminine, thus:

- (406) [745 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] *كَانَتْ هِنْدٌ قَائِمَةً*
[The state of affairs] was – Hind is standing.

By the way, although the gender of the state-of-affairs pronoun usually matches the gender of the subject of its info, it is possible for it to mismatch.¹² (We also mentioned this in section (ref).)

In practice, usage of the state-of-affairs pronoun in sentences like example (405) *كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ* is uncommon, but nevertheless existent.¹³ Instead the construction in example (367) *كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا* is far more likely to be used. But, as we will see in sections (ref) and (ref), if Allāh wills, when the info of *كَانَ* is a verbal sentence, then the state-of-affairs pronoun is very commonly used as the subject of *كَانَ*.

30.12. *كَانَ* with a *sababi* info

Consider again example (400) *كَانَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ أَبُوهُ*. Instead of using a sentence info, we can reconstruct the sentence to have *مُنْطَلِقًا* to be the info of *كَانَ*, and have *أَبُوهُ* as the doer of the doer participle *مُنْطَلِقًا*, thus:

- (407) [692 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] *كَانَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقًا أَبُوهُ*
Zayd – his father was setting out.

This is a *sababi* info construction. (See section (ref) for an introduction to the *sababi* info.) The info of *كَانَ* in example (407) above is not a complete sentence. Rather, it is the single element *مُنْطَلِقًا*. A sentence with a *sababi* info like (407) *كَانَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقًا أَبُوهُ* will be preferred over a sentence with a fronted info like (400) *كَانَ زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ أَبُوهُ*.¹⁴

When *كَانَ* has a *sababi* info, then, as mentioned in section (ref), it generally remains singular regardless whether its doer is dual or plural. So we get:

- (408) *كَانَ الزَّيْدَانِ مُنْطَلِقًا أَبَوَاهُمَا*
The two Zayds – their fathers [were] setting out.
- (409) *كَانَ الزَّيْدُونَ مُنْطَلِقَةً جَدَّائِهِمْ*
The Zayds – their grandmothers [were] setting out.

But if the info has a broken plural, then it is permitted (and in fact preferred) to be used.¹⁵

¹² 745 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع 746 footnote 1

¹³ See the analysis of the reading *مُؤْمِنَانِ أَبَوَاهُ* in *فَكَانَ أَبَوَاهُ* for *البحر المحيط لأبي حيان* 18:80 سورة الكهف

¹⁴ 694 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع

¹⁵ 693 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع

- (410) [693 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ الزَّيْدُونَ حَسَنًا آبَاؤُهُمْ
The Zayds – their fathers [were] handsome.

30.13. كَانَ with a prepositional or adverbial info

It is possible for the info of كَانَ to be a prepositional or adverbial info. For example:

- (411) [682 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ زَيْدٌ فِي الدَّارِ
Zayd was in the house.
- (412) [682 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] كَانَ مُحَمَّدٌ عِنْدَكَ
Muhammad was at your place.

In such cases, the info of كَانَ is technically the implication of *general beingness* [مُسْتَقَرًّا] (see section (ta3alluq)). The implicated general beingness governs the preposition/adverb. The preposition or adverb is not directly governed by كَانَ.¹⁶

30.14. كَانَ as a sufficient verb

As we mentioned in section (ref) above, the verb كَانَ that we have been using so far is called the *deficient* كَانَ.

There is another type of كَانَ called the *sufficient* كَانَ. This كَانَ has sufficient meaning to not need an info. The meaning that the sufficient كَانَ gives is the meaning of *exists*. In English, we usually express this meaning using *there was*. For example,

- (413) كَانَ مَلِكٌ
[There] was a king.
 (literally: *A king was.*)

Note that كَانَ مَلِكٌ *king* is in the u-case as the subject. If it were in the a-case, then it would change the meaning:

- (414) كَانَ مَلِكًا
He was a king.

When كَانَ is sufficient then it serves as the leaning element. So the sentence is a verbal sentence.

Here is another example of a sufficient كَانَ:

- (415) [Wright 2/99D] كَانَ تَاجِرٌ وَكَانَ لَهُ بَنُونَ
There was a trader, and he had sons.

Incidentally, in example (415), the past verb of *have*: *had* is expressed using لَ with the preposition لَ.

¹⁶ أَكَانَ لِلنَّاسِ عَجَبًا [10:2 سورة يونس] أَكَانَ لِلنَّاسِ عَجَبًا [10:2 سورة يونس] But see the tafsirs of عَجَبًا لابن أبي الربيع 682; The possible exception to this rule.

30.15. Significations of the caseless verb كَانَ

The general signification of the caseless verb كَانَ is to indicate a state that existed in the past, and that has possibly ceased. For example:

- (416) كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا
Zayd was standing.

This statement is regarding Zayd's state in the past and the implication is that he is possibly no longer standing.

This is the most common signification of the caseless verb كَانَ and the one that we have been using so far. But كَانَ is special in that it admits additional significations:

The second signification of كَانَ is to indicate a state that, at first, had not yet begun, and which then began and remained, possibly up to the present. It has, in this sense, the meaning *became, has become, or happened*. Examples:

- (417) أَبَىٰ وَأَسْتَكْبَرَ وَكَانَ مِنَ الْكَافِرِينَ [سورة البقرة 2:34]
He refused and was arrogant and became of the disbelievers.

- (418) اخْتَرَقَ الْخَشَبُ فَكَانَ تُرَابًا
[النحو الوافي 1/548]
The wood burned and so became dust.

A third signification of كَانَ is to indicate a state that will be in the future. For example:

- (419) وَيَخَافُونَ يَوْمًا كَانَ شَرُّهُ مُسْتَطِيرًا [سورة الإنسان 76:7]
and [they] fear a Day whose evil will be widespread.

A fourth signification of كَانَ is to indicate a state that always existed and will always exist.¹⁷ For example:

- (420) وَكَانَ اللَّهُ غَفُورًا رَحِيمًا [سورة الأحزاب 33:73]
And ever is Allāh Forgiving and Merciful.
- (421) وَلَا تَقْرُبُوا الزَّوَاجَ ۚ إِنَّهُ كَانَ فَلْحَشَةً وَسَاءَ سَبِيلًا [سورة الإسراء 17:32]
And do not approach unlawful sexual intercourse.1 Indeed, it is ever an immorality and is evil as a way.

30.16. Significations of the u-case caseful verb يَكُونُ

30.16.1. يَكُونُ used for habitual is

Consider the sentence, *The mother cooks the food*. The verb *cooks* implies that the action is habitually done, not necessarily that it is being done at present. If we wished to say that the action is being done at present, we might instead say,

¹⁷ سورة آل عمران for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

The mother is cooking the food. English maintains this distinction between the present and the habitual for most verbs. But it does not for the verb *is*. So if we say, *The sky is blue*, then it can mean both (i) that the sky is blue at present, or (ii) that it is habitually blue, not necessarily that it is blue at present.

In Arabic the situation is somewhat different. Arabic does not usually have a distinction between the present and the habitual for most verbs. So تَطْبُخُ الْأُمُّ may mean both (i) that the mother is cooking the food at present, or (ii) that she habitually does.

But for the verb *is*, Arabic can distinguish between the present and the habitual. So if we say السَّمَاءُ زُرْقَاءُ, then this can, in general, mean both (i) that the sky is blue at present, and (ii) that it is habitually blue. If we wish to specify the habitual meaning, we may use the caseful verb يَكُونُ, thus:

- (422) تَكُونُ السَّمَاءُ زُرْقَاءُ
The sky is (habitually) blue.

While we call this the habitual يَكُونُ, it can include a range of meanings, including continually, recurring, regularly, typically, generally, often, sometimes, can, may, etc. Habitual يَكُونُ is negated using مَا or لَا, just like other u-case caseful verbs.

Here are some examples:

- (423) سَنَّ النَّسَائِي قَالَ وَمَا الْبَيْعُ وَالْمَزْرُ؟ فَلْتِ شَرَابٌ يَكُونُ مِنَ الْعَسَلِ وَالْمَزْرُ يَكُونُ مِنَ الشَّعِيرِ [5604]
He said: 'What is mead and beer?' I said: 'A drink that is from honey, and beer is from barley.'
- (424) [667: صحيح البخاري] إِنَّهَا تَكُونُ الظُّلْمَةُ وَالسَّبِيلُ
[There] is [at times] darkness and flooding

30.16.2. قَدْ يَكُونُ for *may be*

When the meaning *may be* is desired, the caseful verb يَكُونُ may be preceded by the particle قَدْ. For example,

- (425) 401- جمع الجوامع للسيوطي قَالَ أَبُو الدَّرْدَاءِ يَا رَسُولَ اللَّهِ يَشْرِقُ الْمُؤْمِنُ قَالَ قَدْ يَكُونُ ذَلِكَ [5b]¹⁸
Abū al-Dardā' said, "O Messenger of Allah, Can a believer steal?" He said, "That may be."

30.16.3. يَكُونُ used for future *will be*

Another usage of the caseful verb يَكُونُ is for the future tense to mean *will be*. In this case, it is often preceded by سَوْفَ or سَيُ. سَوْفَ and سَيُ are optional and are commonly dropped, especially when the context indicates the future. Future يَكُونُ is negated by لَا. Here are some examples:

¹⁸See <https://islamqa.info/ar/answers/264450> for the takhrij of this ḥadīth.

- (426) [25:77 سورة الفرقان] فَقَدْ كَذَّبْتُمْ فَسَوْفَ يَكُونُ لِزَامًا
For you [disbelievers] have denied, so it [i.e., your denial] is going to be adherent.
- (427) [1553: رياض الصالحين] لَا يَكُونُ اللَّعَّانُونَ شُفَعَاءَ وَلَا شُهَدَاءَ يَوْمَ الْقِيَامَةِ
The frequent cursers will be neither intercessors nor witnesses [on] the day of resurrection.
 (يَوْمَ is in the a-case because it is an adverb of time, see chapter @ref(adverb-of-time).)
- (428) [101:4 سورة القارعة] يَوْمَ يَكُونُ النَّاسُ كَالْفَرَاشِ الْمَبْثُوثِ
It is the Day when people will be like moths, dispersed,
- (429) [7: صحيح مسلم] يَكُونُ فِي آخِرِ الزَّمَانِ ذُجَّالُونَ كَذَّابُونَ
There will be in the end of time charlatan liars

30.17. Significance of the a-case caseful verb يَكُونُ

Like a-case caseful verbs in general, يَكُونُ *be* expresses the meaning of purpose, wish, or expectation. It occurs after the particles أَنْ, لَنْ, لَ, كَيْ, and إِذَنْ. All this is consistent with what we have learned about a-case caseful verbs in chapter @ref(a-case-caseful-verbs). Here are some examples:

- (430) [26:193-194 سورة الشعراء] نَزَلَ بِهِ الرُّوحُ الْأَمِينُ. عَلَى قَلْبِكَ لِتَكُونَ مِنَ الْمُنْذِرِينَ
The Trustworthy Spirit [i.e., Gabriel] has brought it down. Upon your heart, [O Muḥammad] - that you may be of the warners -
- (431) [4:172 سورة النساء] لَنْ يَسْتَنْكِفَ الْمَسِيحُ أَنْ يَكُونَ عَبْدًا لِلَّهِ وَلَا الْمَلَائِكَةُ الْمُقَرَّبُونَ
Never would the Messiah disdain to be a servant of Allāh, nor would the angels near [to Him]
- (432) [10:99 سورة يونس] أَفَأَنْتَ تُكْرِهُ النَّاسَ حَتَّى يَكُونُوا مُؤْمِنِينَ
Then, [O Muḥammad], would you compel the people in order that they become believers?

30.18. The Ø-case caseful verb يَكُنْ

As with other verbs, the Ø-case caseful verb يَكُنْ is used for negative commands, indirect commands, and with لَمْ for negation, etc. Examples:

- (433) [سورة آل] وَلْتَكُنْ مِنْكُمْ أُمَّةٌ يَدْعُونَ إِلَى الْخَيْرِ وَيَأْمُرُونَ بِالْمَعْرُوفِ وَيَنْهَوْنَ عَنِ الْمُنْكَرِ
 [3:104 عمران]
And let there be [arising] from you a nation inviting to [all that is] good, enjoining what is right and forbidding what is wrong,¹ and those will be the successful.

- (434) [3:60 سورة آل عمران] الْحَقُّ مِنْ رَبِّكَ فَلَا تَكُنْ مِنَ الْمُمْتَرِينَ
The truth is from your Lord, so do not be among the doubters.
- (435) [60:31 صحيح البخاري] لَمْ يَكُنِ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ سَبًّا وَلَا فَحَاشًا وَلَا لَعْنًا
The Prophet ﷺ was not one who would abuse (others) or say obscene words, or curse (others)

30.18.1. Deletion of ن

For the $\emptyset$ -case caseful conjugations of كَانَ that don't have a و between ك and ن, the ن may optionally be deleted if certain conditions are satisfied. These conjugations are:

- يَكُنْ which becomes يَكْ
- تَكُنْ which becomes تَكْ
- نَكُنْ which becomes نَكْ
- أَكُنْ which becomes أَكْ

These are the conditions, all of whom must be satisfied¹⁹:

i. The verb is not followed by a sukūn. Examples:

- (436) × لَمْ يَكِ الَّذِينَ ...
 لَمْ يَكُنِ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا مِنْ أَهْلِ الْكِتَابِ وَالْمُشْرِكِينَ مُنْفَكِّينَ حَتَّى تَأْتِيَهُمُ الْبَيِّنَةُ
 [98:1 سورة البينة]
Those who disbelieved among the People of the Scripture and the polytheists were not to be parted [from misbelief] until there came to them clear evidence

- (437) × لَمْ يَكِ الرَّجُلُ حَاضِرًا
 لَمْ يَكُنِ الرَّجُلُ حَاضِرًا
The man was not present.

ii. The verb is not followed by an attached pronoun. Example:

- (438) × إِنْ يَكُ فَلَنْ ... وَإِنْ لَمْ يَكُ ...
 إِنْ يَكُنْهُ فَلَنْ تُسَلِّطَ عَلَيْهِ وَإِنْ لَمْ يَكُنْهُ فَلَا خَيْرَ لَكَ فِي قَتْلِهِ
 [29:30a صحيح مسلم]
If he is he (i.e. the Dajjāl), you would not be able to overpower him, and if he is not he there is no good for you in killing him

iii. The verb is not at the end of a sentence. Example:

- (439) × وَلَمْ أَكْ
 وَلَمْ أَكُ بَعِيًّا [19:20 سورة مريم]
and I have not been unchaste

Here are some more examples which satisfy the conditions so the ن is deleted.
 Examples:

¹⁹Conditions and examples taken from <https://github.com/zahidsyed/learning-nahw-analytically>

- (440) [سورة النحل 16:127] وَلَا تَكُ فِي ضَيْقٍ مِّمَّا يَمْكُرُونَ
and do not be in distress over what they conspire.
- (441) [سورة مريم 19:9] وَقَدْ خَلَقْتُكَ مِنْ قَبْلُ وَلَمْ تَكُ شَيْئًا
for I created you before, while you were nothing
- (442) [سورة المدثر 74:43-44] قَالُوا لَمْ نَكُ مِنَ الْمُصَلِّينَ ﴿٤٣﴾ وَلَمْ نَكُ نَطْعُمُ الْمَسْكِينِ ﴿٤٤﴾
They will say, "We were not of those who prayed, Nor did we used to feed the poor.
- (443) [سورة القيامة 75:37] أَلَمْ يَكُ نُطْفَةً مِنْ مَنِيٍّ يُمْنَى
Had he not been a sperm from semen emitted?

30.19. The verb of command كُنْ

The verb of command كُنْ is used to mean *Be!*. Examples:

- (444) [سورة الأنبياء 21:69] قُلْنَا يَنَارُ كُونِي بَرْدًا وَسَلَامًا عَلَىٰ إِبْرَاهِيمَ
We [i.e., Allāh] said, *O fire, be coolness and safety upon Abraham.*
- (445) [سورة البقرة 2:65] فَقُلْنَا لَهُمْ كُونُوا قِرَدَةً خَاسِئِينَ
"and We said to them, 'Be apes, despised.'

The verb of command كُنْ followed by the name of a person in the a-case is used to express one's guessing that the person whom one sees is the individual named. For example:

- (446) [Wright 2/44C] كُنْ أَبَا ذَرٍّ
I presume that the person approaching is Abū Dharr
- (447) [Wright 2/44C] كُنْ أَبَا زَيْدٍ
I guess that you are Abū Zayd.

30.20. The caseless verb كَانَ combined with a caseful verb

In section (ref) above, we mentioned that the info كَانَ can be a complete sentence. The examples we gave were where the info of كَانَ were nounal sentences.

Instead of a nounal sentence as the info of كَانَ, the info is very often a verbal sentence. كَانَ combined with verbal sentences to express complex tenses. The most common combination is the caseless verb كَانَ with a caseful verb in its info.

Consider again example (367):

- (367) [Peled, Sentence types 171] كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا
Zayd was standing

The info of كَانَ is (as a single element) the doer participle قَائِمًا. Let's try to replace the doer participle قَائِمًا with its caseful verb يَقُومُ. We get:

- (448) كَانَ زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ
Zayd used to stand.
 (literally: *Zayd was – he stands.*)

When كَانَ is combined with a following caseful verb, or its doer participle, it indicates an imperfect action that was occurring in the past. The tense is usually either:

- i. Past-continuous (*he was doing*), or
- ii. Past-habitual (*he used to do*).

In general, كَانَ with a caseful verb can indicate either tense. Whereas كَانَ with a doer participle typically indicates the past-continuous tense. The exact difference in signification between the doer participle and its caseful verb is discussed in more detail in chapter (ref).

Let's discuss the grammar of the new sentence (448) كَانَ زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ. The subject of كَانَ is زَيْدٌ. And the info of كَانَ is the complete verbal sentence يَقُومُ *he stands*. The doer of the caseful verb يَقُومُ is the latent pronoun [هُوَ] that refers back to the subject زَيْدٌ.

The word order of كَانَ, its subject, and the caseful verb

The sequence (كَانَ, subject, caseful verb) is a very commonly used word order. But there is also another word order which is also very frequently used. And that is (كَانَ, caseful verb, subject). For example:

- (449) كَانَ يَقُومُ زَيْدٌ
Zayd used to stand.

There are two methods to analyze example (449) above²⁰:

The first method is to consider زَيْدٌ the doer of the caseful verb يَقُومُ. The sentence كَانَ يَقُومُ زَيْدٌ *Zayd stands* is then the info of كَانَ. And the subject of كَانَ is a latent state-of-affairs pronoun [هُوَ]. The state-of-affairs pronoun will typically go untranslated in this case.

The second method is to consider زَيْدٌ the subject of كَانَ. The sentence يَقُومُ *he stands* (with a latent doer pronoun) is then the info of كَانَ, but which is made to precede its subject. By the way, it seems that this second method is not used when the subject is dual or plural. This is because we typically always find the caseful verb in the singular when it precedes the subject, regardless of whether the subject is singular, dual, or plural. For example:

²⁰For details on the dispute amongst the grammarians on the parsing of this word order, see حاشية 4/184; التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان 2/137; الصبان على شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك الدر المصون للسمين 9:117 سورة التوبة for الدر المصون للسمين الحلبي; مَا كَانَ يَضَعُ فِرْعَوْنُ 7:137 سورة الأعراف for الحلبي مَا كَادَ يَرْبِعُ قُلُوبَ فَرِيقٍ مِّنْهُمْ

- (450) كَانَ يَقُومُ الزَّيْدَانِ ✓
 كَانَ يَقُومَانِ الزَّيْدَانِ ✗
The two Zayds were standing.

Both word orders (448) كَانَ زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ and (449) كَانَ يَقُومُ زَيْدٌ have, more or less, a similar meaning.

But choosing one of two word orders can affect the conjugation of the caseful verb for dual and plural subjects. Here is a table that compares conjugations for the two options:

كَانَ زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ	كَانَ يَقُومُ زَيْدٌ
كَانَتِ هُنْدٌ تَقُومُ	كَانَتْ تَقُومُ هُنْدٌ
كَانَا الزَّيْدَانِ يَقُومَانِ	كَانَ يَقُومُ الزَّيْدَانِ
كَانَتِ الْهِنْدَانِ تَقُومَانِ	كَانَتْ تَقُومُ الْهِنْدَانِ
كَانَ الزَّيْدُونَ يَقُومُونَ	كَانَ يَقُومُ الزَّيْدُونَ
كَانَتِ الْهِنْدَاتُ يَقُمْنَ	كَانَتْ تَقُومُ الْهِنْدَاتُ

When the subject of كَانَ is a dual or plural pronoun, then it seems that only the (كَانَ, subject, caseful verb) is used. And the (كَانَ, caseful verb, subject) is unused. For example:

- (451) كَانُوا يَقُومُونَ ✓
 كَانَ يَقُومُونَ ✗
They were standing.

Here are some more examples of كَانَ followed by a caseful verb:

كَانَ يَعْبُدُ مُشْرِكُو مَكَّةَ الْأَصْنَامَ

or

كَانَ مُشْرِكُو مَكَّةَ يَعْبُدُونَ الْأَصْنَامَ

The polytheists of Makkah used to worship idols.

[1420: صحيح البخاري] كَانَتْ تُحِبُّ الصَّدَقَةَ

She used to love [to practice] charity.

[64:6 سورة التغابن] كَانَتْ تَأْتِيهِمْ رُسُلُهُمْ بِالْبَيِّنَاتِ

their messengers used to come to them with clear evidences

(Sound plurals, even of rational beings, may be treated as grammatically singular feminine. See section @ref(sound-plurals-sing-fem).)

[صحيح] كُنْتُ أَلْعَبُ بِالْبَنَاتِ عِنْدَ النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَكَانَ لِي صَوَاجِبٌ يَلْعَبْنَ مَعِيَ [6130: البخاري]

I used to play with dolls in the presence of the Prophet, and I had companions, playing with me.

Occasionally, the particle قَدْ precedes the combination of كَانَ and the caseful verb. Example:

[2781: صحيح مسلم] قَالُوا هَذَا قَدْ كَانَ يَكْتُبُ لِمُحَمَّدٍ

They said, 'This [person] used to transcribe for Muḥammad ﷺ'

The following caseful verb may also be an passive verb. Example:

[2641: صحيح البخاري] إِنَّ أَنَاسًا كَانُوا يُؤْخَذُونَ بِأَلْوَحِي فِي عَهْدِ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ
Indeed people were (sometimes) judged (literally: held) by the [revealing of] divine inspiration in the lifetime of the Prophet.

30.20.1. One كَانَ suffices multiple caseful verbs

If the signification of an action occurring continually in the past applies to more than one caseful verb, then it is sufficient to prefix كَانَ to only the first one. Example:

[2452: صحيح مسلم] كَانَتْ تَعْمَلُ بِيَدِهَا وَتَصَدَّقُ
She used to work with her hand and spend (that income) on charity.
(تَصَدَّقُ is abbreviated to تَصَدَّقُ. See section @ref(form-5-verbs-abbrev).)

30.20.2. Negation of كَانَ and a caseful verb

In order to negate the combination of كَانَ and the following caseful verb, multiple options are available. Using لَا يَفْعَلُ as an example caseful verb, we can have:

- مَا كَانَ يَفْعَلُ
- لَمْ يَكُنْ يَفْعَلُ
- كَانَ لَا يَفْعَلُ

Examples:

[982: الأدب المفرد] مَا كَانَ أَحَدٌ يَبْدَأُ، أَوْ يَبْذُرُ، ابْنَ عُمَرَ بِالسَّلَامِ
No one preceded or got ahead of Ibn Umar with (giving) the greeting.

[5:79: سورة المائدة] كَانُوا لَا يَتَنَاهَوْنَ عَنْ مُنْكَرٍ فَعَلُوهُ
They used not to prevent one another from wrongdoing that they did.

[introduction: صحيح مسلم] لَمْ يَكُونُوا يَسْأَلُونَ عَنِ الْإِسْنَادِ
They would not ask about the chains of narration

In terms of the differences between these constructions مَا كَانَ يَفْعَلُ imparts more emphasis in the denial than لَا يَفْعَلُ.

There is also difference between the options مَا كَانَ يَفْعَلُ and كَانَ لَا يَفْعَلُ in terms of when one would be used instead of the other.²¹ For example, if someone says to you: *I thought I saw you writing yesterday*. To reply in the negative, you would say: مَا كُنْتُ لَا أَكْتُبُ instead of كُنْتُ لَا أَكْتُبُ to mean *I was not writing*.

The construction كَانَ لَا يَفْعَلُ is also used when one wishes to say that one never used to do something due to one's circumstances And also to mean that one did not know how to do something in the past. For example,

مَا كُنْتُ أَحْفَظُ شِعْرًا
I used to not memorize any poetry.

As for كَانَ لَا يَفْعَلُ, it connotes an intentional or purposeful lack of doing something. Whereas, with مَا كَانَ يَفْعَلُ, the lack of action may be incidental. For example, كَانَ لَا يَقْرَأُ الْقُرْآنَ "He used to not read the Qur'an imparts that the person was intentionally not doing so. Whereas مَا كَانَ يَقْرَأُ الْقُرْآنَ does not convey the intentionality of the lack of action. For example, the person may not have been reading the Qur'an because he did not know how to.

²¹ 1/222 معاني النحو

30.20.3. The combination كَانَ يَكُونُ

Occasionally, كَانَ can be combined with its own caseful verb يَكُونُ. This gives the meaning *was being or used to be*. يَكُونُ is, in this combination, often optional and may be dropped for no change in meaning. Examples:

[676: صحيح البخاري] كَانَ يَكُونُ فِي مِهْنَةٍ أَهْلِهِ

and

[6039: صحيح البخاري] كَانَ فِي مِهْنَةٍ أَهْلِهِ

He used to keep himself busy serving his family

[2398: جامع الترمذي] قَدْ كَانَ يَكُونُ فِي الْأُمَمِ مُحَدِّثُونَ

There used to be in the nations inspired persons

[Wright 2/21C] رَجَالٌ كَانُوا يَكُونُونَ مَعَ الْمُلُوكِ

men that used to be with the kings

[Fischer 107] كَانَ يَكُونُ فِي الْبَيْتِ

He used to be in the house.

30.20.4. Possible occurrence

Sometimes كَانَ is used with a caseful verb to express an action that could, should, or would have occurred. Examples:

[Fischer 108] كَانَ يَكُونُ شَوْءٌ أَذْبٌ

It would have been a misbehavior.

[1788: صحيح مسلم] فَقَالَ حَذِيفَةُ أَنْتَ كُنْتَ تَفْعَلُ ذَلِكَ

Hudhayfah said: 'You might have done that.'

This meaning can also be for the future, for example in a question:

[2606: سنن ابن ماجه] أَيُّ شَيْءٍ كُنْتَ تَصْنَعُ

Which thing would you do?

[2709: سنن النسائي] مَا كُنْتَ صَانِعًا فِي حَجَّكَ (452)

What would you do for your Hajj?

30.20.5. Omission of كَانَ

If one or more caseless verbs precedes the caseful verb or if the context indicates that the action was occurring in the past, then كَانَ can be omitted, and the caseful verb is used by itself.²² For example:

[2:91: سورة البقرة] قُلْ فَلِمَ تَقْتُلُونَ أَنْبِيَاءَ اللَّهِ مِنْ قَبْلُ

Say, Then why did you kill the prophets of Allāh before?

(تَقْتُلُونَ before كُنْتُمْ.)

[2:102: سورة البقرة] وَاتَّبِعُوا مَا تَتْلُوا الشَّيَاطِينُ عَلَىٰ مُلْكِ سُلَيْمَانَ

And they followed [instead] what the devils had recited during the reign of Solomon

(تَتْلُوا before كَانَتْ.)

²²Wright 2/21C

30.20.6. كَانَ followed by a doer participle or doee participle instead of a caseful verb

Instead of a caseful verb after كَانَ, its doer participle or doee participle may be used instead. And this can give the effect of a state of being rather than an action being done. For example:

كَانَ سَاكِنًا [Wright 2/198A]

He was dwelling

كَانَتْ أَلْعَصِيّ مَرْكُوزَةً فِي الْأَرْضِ [Wright 2/198A]

The staffs were sticking in the ground.

(كَانَتْ would imply that they were being stuck.)

When the verbal noun refers to an action taking place in the future, the idea of futurity is transferred to a past time. For example:

أَمْرٌ كَانَ مَفْعُولًا [Wright 2/196A]

a matter which was to be done

30.21. The caseless verb كَانَ combined with a caseless verb

كَانَ is combined with a following caseless verb to denote an action completed prior to some past (specified or implied) point in time. Example:

مَاتَ الرَّشِيدُ بِطُوسَ وَكَانَ خَرَجَ إِلَى خُرَاسَانَ لِمُحَارَبَةِ رَافِعِ بْنِ اللَّيْثِ

[Wright 2/5C]

al-Rashīd died at Tūs after (literally: and) he had set out for Khurāsān to combat Rāfi' ibn al-Layth.

The particle قَدْ is often used when كَانَ is combined with a caseless verb. قَدْ may be placed either between كَانَ and the following caseless verb, or before كَانَ. Examples:

كُنْتُ قَدْ رَبَّيْتُ جَارِيَةً [Wright 2/5C]

I had brought up a girl

قَدْ كَانَتْ فَرَعَتْ مِنْ عَمَلِهَا

She had been done with her work.

When there are multiple caseless verbs, and one (or more) of them occurred farther in the past than the others, it is indicated with قَدْ, the others having merely كَانَ. We re-use a previous example here and extend it:

مَاتَ الرَّشِيدُ بِطُوسَ وَكَانَ خَرَجَ إِلَى خُرَاسَانَ لِمُحَارَبَةِ رَافِعِ بْنِ اللَّيْثِ. وَكَانَ رَافِعٌ هَذَا قَدْ خَرَجَ وَخَلَعَ الطَّاعَةَ وَتَغَلَّبَ عَلَى سَمَرْقَنْدَ.

[Wright 2/6A]

“al-Rashīd died at Tūs after he had set out for Khurāsān to combat Rāfi' ibn al-Layth. And this Rāfi' had already rebelled and cast off his allegiance and taken forcible possession of Samarqand.”

(Note how قَدْ is only used before Rāfi's action of rebelling.)

30.21.1. Negation

This combination may, again, be negated in multiple ways. Examples:

[6609: صحيح البخاري] لَا يَأْتِي ابْنَ آدَمَ النَّذْرُ بِشَيْءٍ لَمْ يَكُنْ قَدْ قَدَّرْتَهُ
Vowing does not bring to the son of Adam anything I have not already written in his fate,

[1778: سنن أبي داود] وَدِدْتُ أَنِّي لَمْ أَكُنْ خَرَجْتُ الْعَامَ
I wish I had not come out (for Hajj) this year

[3/139 إحياء علوم الدين لأبي حامد الغزالي] [A report narrated in without a chain]
And he had not brought her anything

30.22. The caseful verb يَكُونُ combined with a caseless verb

The caseful verb يَكُونُ is combined with a caseless verb (often with an interposed قَدْ) to express that the action is conceived of having been completed in the future. Examples:

[1793: مشكاة المصابيح] يَكُونُ قَدْ وَجَبَ عَلَيْكَ صَدَقَةٌ
Charity will have been incumbent upon you

[Fischer 108] فَلِنَأْخُذْهُ فَنَكُونُ قَدْ أَخَذْنَا عَوْضًا
Let us take him for (then) we will have taken a substitute

30.22.0.1. The a-case verb يَكُونُ combined with a caseless verb

An a-case يَكُونُ is combined with a caseless verb to express being in a state of an action having occurred or that might have occurred. For example:

[Fischer 110] خَافَ أَنْ يَكُونَ قَدْ أَخْطَأَ
He feared that he could have erred.

[p. 59 المذهب فيما وقع في القرآن من المعرب للسيوطي] وَيَجُوزُ أَنْ يَكُونُوا سَبَقُوا
And that they might have been preceded is possible

يَشْتَرِطُ فِي النَّائِبِ أَنْ يَكُونَ قَدْ حَجَّ عَنْ نَفْسِهِ
It is conditional for the deputy that he be in as state of already having performed the Hajj for himself.

30.23. The verb of command كُنْ combined with a caseful verb

Occasionally, the verb of command كُنْ is combined with a caseful verb, thus:

[Fischer 121] كُنْ أَنْتَ تُكَلِّمُهُمْ
You be speaking to them!

30.24. كَانَ with the ل of denial

One special use of كَانَ is what is termed the ل of denial. This is a negative كَانَ (either مَا كَانَ or لَمْ يَكُنْ with the appropriate suffixes or prefixes for the subject) followed by ل and then an a-case caseful verb. This expresses the meaning of:

- i. to deny being the one to do something, or

ii. to deny going to do something

Here are some examples:

لَمْ تَكُنْ زَيْنَبُ لِيُضْرِبَ وَلَدَهَا

Zaynab was not one to beat her child.

or

Zaynab was not going to beat her child.

[8:33 سورة الأنفال] وَمَا كَانَ اللَّهُ لِيُعَذِّبَهُمْ وَأَنْتَ فِيهِمْ

But Allāh would not punish them while you, [O Muḥammad], are among them

[3112: سنن أبي داود] فَقَالَ أَتُحْشِنُ أَنْ أَقْتُلَهُ مَا كُنْتُ لِأَفْعَلَ ذَلِكَ

He said: Do you fear that I shall kill him ? I am not going to do that.

[1503: سنن ابن ماجه] قَالَ لَمْ أَكُنْ لِأَفْعَلَ

He said: I was not going to do that.

[4005: صحيح البخاري] فَلَمْ أَكُنْ لِأَفْشِي سِرَّ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ

30.25. كَانَ with the ل of deserving

Closely related, yet distinct from, the use of كَانَ with the ل of denial (above) is the use of كَانَ with a ل that signifies deserving, behooving, appropriateness, or possibility. This is, again, a negative كَانَ followed by the preposition ل and a following i-case noun, and then أَنْ followed by an a-case caseful verb. This signifies that the action of the verb does not behoove, or is not appropriate or deserving or possibly for the person denoted by the noun after ل.²³ For example:

[27:60 سورة النمل] فَأَنْ بَتْنَا بِهِ حَدَائِقَ ذَاتَ بَهْجَةٍ مَا كَانَ لَكُمْ أَنْ تُنْبِتُوا شَجَرَهَا

causing to grow thereby gardens of joyful beauty which you could not [otherwise] have grown the trees thereof

مَا كَانَ لِبَشَرٍ أَنْ يُؤْتِيَهُ اللَّهُ الْكِتَابَ وَالْحُكْمَ وَالنَّبُوءَةَ ثُمَّ يَقُولَ لِلنَّاسِ كُونُوا عِبَادًا لِي مِنْ دُونِ

[3:79 سورة آل عمران] اللَّهُ

It is not for a human [prophet] that Allāh should give him the Scripture and authority and prophethood and then he would say to the people, 'Be servants to me rather than Allāh.'

[سنن] قَالَ أَبُو بَكْرٍ مَا كَانَ لِابْنِ أَبِي قُحَافَةَ أَنْ يُصَلِّيَ بَيْنَ يَدَيْ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ

[940: أبي داود]

Abū Bakr said ; it was not befitting for the son of Abū Quhāfah to lead the prayer in the presence of the Messenger of Allāh ﷺ

30.26. FINI

30.27. TODO:

كان زيد آكلا طعامك

See 1/280-284 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

[66 الجملة العربية لفاضل السامرائي] كانت الحمى تأخذ زيدا

²³ 3:79 سورة آل عمران for تفسير ابن عاشور and البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

أن المصدرية as subject or info of kaana. Both permitted but subject more worthy. [basit 714–715A]

شرح جمل الزجاجي لأبن عصفور p 411

info of kaana is a pronoun

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 31.

إِنَّ and its sisters

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

31.1. Introduction

The archetypal nounal sentence is governed by an abstract foundational government that governs a subject and its info, both in the u-case.

For example:

(453) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Zayd is standing.

In example (453) above, an abstract foundational government governs the subject زَيْدٌ and its info قَائِمٌ both in the u-case.

إِنَّ and its sisters are a set of six foundational government particles that take an archetypal nounal sentence as their input and transform it, by governing the subject in the u-case and the info in the u-case. Furthermore, each particle has its own meaning that it imparts to the input sentence.

The set of إِنَّ and its sisters is:

- i. إِنَّ *indeed*
- ii. اِنَّ *that*
- iii. كَأَنَّ *as if*
- iv. لَيْكِنَّ *but*
- v. لَبَيَّتْ *would that*
- vi. لَعَلَّ *perhaps*

We will discuss them in the following sections.

31.2. إِنَّ *inna*

31.2.1. Basic meaning of إِنَّ

إِنَّ has an assertive meaning. It asserts the property which its info expresses about its subject. For example:

(454) إِنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ
Indeed Zayd is standing. .

As you can see, the foundational government particle إِنَّ has transformed the input example (453) by governing the subject زَيْدٌ in the a-case and its info قَائِمٌ in the u-case. It has also added the assertive meaning “indeed”.

31.2.2. إِنَّ with a pronoun subject

When the subject of إِنَّ (or any of its sisters) is a pronoun, then the attached pronouns are used. So we will say, for example:

(455) إِنَّهُ قَائِمٌ وَإِنِّهَا جَالِسَةٌ وَإِنِّكُمَا قَائِمَانِ وَإِنَّهُمْ جَالِسُونَ

When the subject is a pronoun for the singular speaker-participant يَ, then a guarding-ن may optionally be inserted. So we can say either إِنِّي or إِنِّي. Examples:

(456) إِنِّي/إِنِّي قَائِمٌ

And when the subject is a pronoun for the plural speaker-participant نَا, then the two ن can optionally be combined. So we can say either إِنَّا or إِنَّا. Examples:

(457) إِنَّا/إِنَّا قَائِمُونَ

The above rules, which allow adding or dropping a ن, are common for all of the sisters of إِنَّ that end with ن: So we can say:

- إِنَّا or إِنَّا and إِنِّي or إِنِّي.
- أَنَا or أَنَا and أَنِّي or أَنِّي.
- كَأَنَّا or كَأَنَّا and كَأَنِّي or كَأَنِّي.
- لَكِنَّا or لَكِنَّا and لَكِنِّي or لَكِنِّي.

لَيْتَ and لَعَلَّ have modified rules, which will be covered in their respective sections, if Allāh wills.

31.2.3. An إِنَّ as part of a larger sentence

An إِنَّ sentence can itself, be a part of a larger sentence. For example:

(458) [1/355 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] زَيْدٌ إِنَّهُ قَائِمٌ
Zayd – indeed he is standing.
(The sentence إِنَّهُ قَائِمٌ is the info of the subject زَيْدٌ.)

We will explore this more in section (inna vs anna) below.

31.3. اَنَّ anna

31.3.1. Interpretation of the اَنَّ clause as a maṣḍar construction

اَنَّ may be translated as “that”. اَنَّ is unique amongst اِنَّ and its sisters that when it transforms an input nounal sentence the output is actually not a structurally complete sentence anymore. Here is its output after transforming example (453):

- (459) اَنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ
that Zayd is standing

As you can see above, example (459) does not stand by itself as a complete sentence. Terminologically, زَيْدًا is the subject of اَنَّ and قَائِمٌ is its info. But once اَنَّ has been added to the sentence, then the resulting output actually only constitutes a single element of a sentence (in terms of sentence structure). Let's explain what we mean by making example (459) a part of a larger sentence:

- (460) يُعْجِبُنِي اَنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ
That Zayd is standing pleases me.

Now the sentence is structurally complete. In this sentence, the اَنَّ clause (i.e. اَنَّ, its subject, and its info together) constitutes the leaned-against element of the sentence as the doer of the verb يُعْجِبُنِي. The verb يُعْجِبُنِي is the leaning element of the sentence.

The grammarians have theorized that the اَنَّ clause is able to constitute a single sentence element because it is interpreted as a maṣḍar construction. And the maṣḍar is then able to take the place of a single element of the sentence. In example (460) the maṣḍar is interpreted as follows:

- (461) اَنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ = اَنَّ قِيَامَ زَيْدٍ that Zayd is standing = Zayd's [being] standing

If we replace the اَنَّ clause in example (460) with this interpreted maṣḍar construction, we get:

- (462) يُعْجِبُنِي قِيَامَ زَيْدٍ
Zayd's [being] standing pleases me..

Now we can see how the interpreted maṣḍar construction قِيَامَ زَيْدٍ constitutes the leaned-against element of the sentence. (Technically, the annexed noun قِيَامٌ is the leaned-against element and زَيْدٍ is its annexed-to noun governee, but loosely speaking they can be considered one unit.)

By the way, the interpretation of the اَنَّ clause as a maṣḍar construction does not mean that the sentence with the maṣḍar construction will have exactly the same meaning as the sentence with اَنَّ. Rather the maṣḍar interpretation only helps us analyze the sentence grammatically. And it will also help us determine when we can use the maṣḍari اَنَّ as opposed to other alternatives.

31.3.2. إِنَّ clauses as different elements of a sentence

Let's get back to example (460) *يُعْجِبُنِي أَنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ* *That Zayd is standing pleases me*. In this sentence, as we just discussed, *أَنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ*, because of its interpretation as the *maṣḍar* construction *قِيَامُ زَيْدٍ*, constitutes a single element, in terms of sentence structure. In example (460), it constitutes the doer of a verbal sentence, which is an indispensable element. But an *أَنَّ* clause need not only constitute a doer, or an indispensable element for that matter. An *أَنَّ* clause may constitute various elements of a sentence. We will discuss them below:

The *أَنَّ* clause as a doer

We have already seen an example of the *أَنَّ* clause as the doer in example (460) *يُعْجِبُنِي أَنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ*. Here is another example:

- (463) [1/176 شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب] بلغني أن زيدًا منطلقًا
[The news] that Zayd is setting out has reached me.

If we replace the *أَنَّ* clause with its interpreted *maṣḍar* we get:

- (464) [1/176 شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب] بلغني انطلاق زيد
Zayd's setting out has reached me.

The *أَنَّ* clause as a deputy doer

- (465) [nawh_waadiH 1/264] عُرِفَ أَنَّ السَّارِقَ جَرِيءٌ
That the thief is bold was known.

If we replace the *أَنَّ* clause with its interpreted *maṣḍar* we get:

- (466) [nawh_waadiH 1/264] عُرِفَ جَرَاءَةُ السَّارِقِ
The thief's boldness was known.

The *أَنَّ* clause as a direct doer

The *أَنَّ* clause can occur in the position of a direct doer. Here is an example:

- (467) عَلِمْتُ أَنَّكَ فَاضِلٌ
I knew that you are excellent.

If we replace the *أَنَّ* clause with its interpreted *maṣḍar* we get:

- (468) عَلِمْتُ فَضْلَكَ
I knew your excellence.

The أَنَّ clause in the i-case

The أَنَّ clause can occur after a preposition. For example:

- (469) [1/177 شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ أَنَّ بَكْرًا واقِفٌ
I wondered at that Zayd is stopped standing.

If we replace the أَنَّ clause with its interpreted maṣḍar we get:

- (470) [1/177 شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ وَقُوفٍ بِكَرٍ
I wondered at Zayd's being stopped standing.

The أَنَّ clause can even occur as an annexed-to noun. For example:

- (471) قَالَ أَيْنَ تُرِيدُ قَالَ أُرِيدُ أَخًا لِي فِي هَذِهِ الْقَرْيَةِ قَالَ هَلْ لَكَ عَلَيْهِ مِنْ نِعْمَةٍ تَرُدُّهَا قَالَ لَا
 غَيْرَ أَنِّي أَحْبَبْتُهُ فِي اللَّهِ عَزَّ وَجَلَّ
 [2567a: صحيح مسلم]
 [He said, "Where are you intending [to go]?" He said, "I intend [to go to] a brother of mine in this town." He said, "Do you have upon him a favor that [you are seeking repayment for]?" He said, "No, **except that** I have loved him [for the sake of] Allāh the Exalted and Glorious."

The أَنَّ clause as a info

- (472) [409 الجنى الداني] أَمْرُكَ أَنْكَ ذَاهِبٌ
Your state-of-affairs is that you are going.
 (The interpreted maṣḍar ذَاهِبٌ is the info.)

The أَنَّ clause as a subject

The أَنَّ clause as a subject is not as common as the other categories, and has some restrictions. Generally, it won't begin the sentence. Instead, its info will usually precede it.¹ For example:

- (473) [408 الجنى الداني] فِي ظَنِّي أَنْكَ فَاضِلٌ
[It is] in my estimation that you are excellent.
 (في ظني is analyzed as a fronted info and the interpreted maṣḍar construction فَضْلُكَ your excellence is the backed subject.)
- (474) [41:39 سورة فصلت] وَمِنْ ءَايَاتِهِ أَنْتَ تَرَى الْأَرْضَ خَاشِعَةً
And of His signs is that you see the earth stilled
- (475) [2/205 أوضح المسالك لابن هشام] أَحَقُّ أَنْكَ ذَاهِبٌ
[Is it] really that you are going?
 (The interpreted maṣḍar ذَاهِبٌ is the subject. حَقًّا is analyzed as an adverb info.³)

¹See [408 الجنى الداني] for an exception. See also [1/204 شرح الأشموني لألفية ابن مالك] (editor's footnote) for another example.

²See [41:39 سورة فصلت] for [إعراب القرآن للدعاس] and [2/206 أوضح المسالك لابن هشام] (editor's footnote).

³See [2/206 أوضح المسالك لابن هشام] (editor's footnote).

The إِنَّ clause may even be a subject of كَانَ and كَانَتْ. Examples:

- (476) [408 الجنى الداني] كان في ظني أنك فاضل
[It] was in my estimation that you are excellent.

As the subject of إِنَّ, the إِنَّ clause must be separated from إِنَّ:

- (477) [408 الجنى الداني] إن عندي أنك فاضل
Indeed [it is your rank] with me that you are excellent.
i.e. You are excellent in my sight.

When the إِنَّ clause is a governee of كَانَ then it can, in general, be either the subject or the info. For example:

- (478) [59:17 سورة الحشر] فَكَانَ عَاقِبَتُهُمَا أَنَّهُمَا فِي النَّارِ
So the outcome for both of them is that they will be in the Fire
(In some recitations عَاقِبَةُ is in the u-case.⁴)

Compare also to section (masdar an in kaana chapter).

31.3.3. The interpreted maṣḍar when the info of إِنَّ is a prepositional/adverbial phrase

Consider the following sentences, where the info of إِنَّ is a prepositional or adverbial phrase:

- (479) [haazimi 24/10] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ أَنْ زَيْدًا عِنْدَكَ
I wondered at that Zayd is at [your place].
(The info of إِنَّ is an adverbial phrase: عِنْدَكَ at your place.)
- (480) [haazimi 37/15] عَلِمْتُ أَنْ زَيْدًا فِي الدَّارِ
I knew that Zayd is in the house.
(The info of إِنَّ is a prepositional phrase: فِي الدَّارِ in the house.)

In such cases, the interpreted maṣḍar is general beingness, represented by the maṣḍar كَوْن or اسْتِقْرَار, as below:

- (481) [haazimi 24/10] عَجِبْتُ مِنْ اسْتِقْرَارِ زَيْدٍ عِنْدَكَ
I wondered at Zayd's being at [your place].
- (482) [haazimi 37/15] عَلِمْتُ كَوْنَ زَيْدٍ فِي الدَّارِ
I knew Zayd's being in the house.

⁴ سورة معاني القرآن للفراء; 5/149 معاني القرآن وإعرابه للزجاج; 59:17 سورة الحشر for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان
7:5 الأعراف

31.3.4. The interpreted maṣḍar when the info of أَنَّ is a entity noun

Consider the following sentence, where the info of أَنَّ is a entity noun:

- (483) علمت أن زيداً أسد [haazimi 37/15]
I knew that Zayd is a lion.
 (The info of أَنَّ is a entity noun: أسدٌ a lion.)

In this case as well, the interpreted maṣḍar can be general beingness:

- (484) علمت كون زيد أسداً [haazimi 37/15]
I knew Zayd's being a lion.

Or the interpreted maṣḍar can be formed from the entity noun, using the suffix يَّة -iyyah (see section (ref)), as below:

- (485) علمت أسدية زيد [haazimi 37/15]
I knew Zayd's lion-like-ness.

31.3.5. Optionally delete the preposition before أَنَّ

When the أَنَّ clause is in the i-case following a preposition, then it is allowed to (optionally) delete the preposition, for the same meaning, as long as the meaning remains clear. So, instead of saying:

- (486) عجبني أنك قائم [شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] 2/151
I wondered at that you are standing.

we can say:

- (487) عجبني أنك قائم [شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] 2/151
I wondered that you are standing.

31.3.6. لِأَنَّ because

The preposition لـ when attached before أَنَّ can signify the meaning *because*.⁵
 For example:

- (488) قَالَ كَانَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ إِذَا أُتِيَ بِطَعَامٍ أَكَلَ مِنْهُ وَبَعَثَ بِفَضْلِهِ إِلَيَّ وَإِنَّهُ بَعَثَ إِلَيَّ يَوْمًا بِفَضْلَةٍ لَمْ يَأْكُلْ مِنْهَا لِأَنَّ فِيهَا نَوْمًا فَسَأَلْتُهُ أَحْرَامًا هُوَ قَالَ لَا وَلَكِنِّي أَكْرَهُهُ [2053: صحيح مسلم]
 He said, "The Messenger of Allāh ﷺ would, when he was brought some food, eat from it and send its extra to me. And indeed he sent to me, one day, some extra having not eaten from it **because** in it was some garlic. So I asked him, 'Is it unlawful?' He said, 'No, but I dislike it because of its odor.'"

⁵Wright 1/293B

31.3.7. لَعَلَّ with the meaning of إِنَّ

As a niche use, لَعَلَّ can be used with the meaning of إِنَّ (see section (ref) below).
For example:

- (489) [5/178 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان] اثبت السوق أنك تشتري لنا شيئا
Come to the market [so] that you may buy for us something.
- (490) [5/178 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان] ما أدري أنه صاحبه
I don't know, perhaps he is his companion.

31.4. كَأَنَّ ka'anna

كَأَنَّ signifies as if. Examples:

- (491) [1/272 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] كَأَنَّ الْعِلْمَ نُورٌ
[It is] as if knowledge is a light.
- (492) [1/272 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] كَأَنَّ عَلِيًّا أَسَدٌ
[It is] as if Aliyy is a lion.
- (493) [4192: سنن أبي داود] فَجِئَءَ بَنَا كَأَنَّا أَفْرَحُ
So we were brought [and it was] as if we [were] chicks.
- (494) [74:50 سورة المدثر] كَأَنَّهُمْ حُمُرٌ مُسْتَنَفِرَةٌ
As if they were alarmed donkeys
- (495) [65: صحيح البخاري] كَأَنِّي أَنْظُرُ إِلَى بَيَاضِهِ فِي يَدِهِ
It is as if I am looking at its whiteness in his hand.

31.5. لَكِنَّ lākinna

لَكِنَّ signifies but. It forms a complete sentence with its subject and its info. But it will usually follow a previous sentence and contrast it. Examples:

- (496) الشَّمْسُ مُشْرِقَةٌ لَكِنَّ الْجَوَّ بَارِدٌ
[1/272 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
The sun is bright but the air is cold.
- (497) [7:61 سورة الأعراف] قَالَ يَقَوْمِ لَيْسَ بِي ضَلَالَةٌ وَلَكِنِّي رَسُولٌ مِّن رَّبِّ الْعَالَمِينَ
[Noah] said, "O my people, there is not error in me, but I am a messenger from the Lord of the worlds."

31.6. لَيْتَ layta

لَيْتَ has a wishful meaning. For example:

- (498) [4/568 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] لَبِتْ زَيْدًا قَائِمًا
Would that Zayd were standing.

The vocative يَا is frequently used before لَيْتَ. For example:

- (499) [36:26 سورة يس] قَالَ يَلَيْتَ قَوْمِي يَعْلَمُونَ
He said, "I wish my people could know"

When the subject is a pronoun for the singular speaker-participant يَ, then a guarding-ن is inserted by default, thus: لَيِّتَنِي. For example:

- (500) [78:40 سورة النبأ] وَيَقُولُ الْكَافِرُ يَلَيْتَنِي كُنْتُ تُرَابًا
and the disbeliever will say, "Oh, I wish that I were dust!"

Very rarely, the guarding-ن can be omitted thus: لَيِّتِي.⁶

When the subject is a pronoun for the plural speaker-participant نَا, then the ن of the pronoun is never omitted, and we will say: لَيِّتْنَا. For example:

- (501) [33:66 سورة الأحزاب] يَلَيِّتُنَا أَطَعْنَا اللَّهَ وَأَطَعْنَا الرَّسُولَ
How we wish we had obeyed Allāh and obeyed the Messenger.

لَيْتَ can be combined with أَنْ thus:

- (502) [4/569 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] لَبِتْ أَنْ زَيْدًا خَارِجٌ
Would that Zayd were going out.

- (503) [Fischer 180] لَيْتَ أَنَّهُ شَاعِرٌ
Would that he were a poet.

31.7. لَعَلَّ laʿalla

لَعَلَّ signifies *perhaps*. It tends to be used in situations signifying hope for, or apprehension from, an impending event.⁷

Example of hope:

- (504) [1/305 معاني النجوى] لَعَلَّ زَيْدًا يَكْرُمُنِي
Perhaps (i.e. I hope) Zayd will honor me.

Example of apprehension:

- (505) [4/570 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] لَعَلَّ بَكْرًا يَضْرِبُ
Perhaps (i.e. I fear) Bakr will beat.

⁶ 1/332 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي

⁷ 4/569 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل

Opposite to لَئِيتَ, when the subject is a pronoun for the singular speaker-participant ي, then a guarding-ن is not inserted by default, thus: لَعَلِّي. For example:

- (506) إِذْ رَأَى نَارًا فَقَالَ لِأَهْلِهِ امْكُثُوا إِنِّي آنَسْتُ نَارًا لَعَلِّي آتِيكُمْ مِنْهَا بِقَبَسٍ أَوْ أَجْدٍ عَلَى (20:10 سورة طه) النَّارِ هُدًى
 When he saw a fire and said to his family, "Stay here; indeed, I have perceived a fire; perhaps I can bring you a torch or find at the fire some guidance."

Very rarely, a guarding-ن can be added thus: لَعَلَّيْنِ.⁸

But like لَئِيتَ, the subject is a pronoun for the plural speaker-participant نَا, then the ن of the pronoun is not never omitted, and we will say: لَعَلَّنَا. For example:

- (507) (4359: صحيح البخاري) أَخْبَرَ صَاحِبَكَ أَنَّا قَدْ جِئْنَا وَلَعَلَّنَا سَنَعُودُ إِنْ شَاءَ اللَّهُ
 Inform your companion that we came and perhaps we will come again, if Allāh wills.

Here are some more examples showing the semantic range of لَعَلَّ:

- (508) (2362: صحيح مسلم) لَعَلَّكُمْ لَوْ لَمْ تَفْعَلُوا كَانَ خَيْرًا
 Perhaps if you did not do [it], it would be better.
- (509) (4029: سنن ابن ماجه) إِنْ كُمْ لَا تَذَرُونَ لَعَلَّكُمْ أَنْ تُبْتَلَوْا
 Indeed you do not know, perhaps you will be tested.
- (510) قَالَ كُنَّا عِنْدَ عُمَرَ فَقَالَ أَيُّكُمْ سَمِعَ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ يَذْكُرُ الْفِتَنَ فَقَالَ (صحيح مسلم 144a)
 We were with Eumar and he said, "Which of you has heard the Messenger of Allāh mention the tribulations?" Some people said, "We did hear him." So he said, "Perhaps you are meaning the tribulation of a man in regard to his household and his neighbor?"

لَعَلَّ can also be used for a past event. For example:

- (511) (6824: صحيح البخاري) لَعَلَّكَ قَبَّلْتَ أَوْ غَمَزْتَ أَوْ تَطَرَّتَ
 Perhaps you (only) kissed or winked or looked?
- (512) (180: صحيح البخاري) لَعَلَّنَا أَغْجَلْنَاكَ
 Perhaps we have forced you to hurry?

لَعَلَّ is often connected in meaning to a previous sentence, signifying in its meaning a connotation of *in order to*. In this sense, it approaches the meaning of كَيْ.⁹ For example:

⁸ 1/333 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي

⁹ See (with caution) also 2:21 سورة البقرة for تفسير ابن عاشور and 2:21 سورة البقرة for الكشف للزمخشري

سورة البقرة for تفسير ابن عاشور and يَا أَيُّهَا النَّاسُ اعْبُدُوا رَبَّكُمُ الَّذِي خَلَقَكُمْ وَالَّذِينَ مِنْ قَبْلِكُمْ لَعَلَّكُمْ تَتَّقُونَ
 يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا كُتِبَ عَلَيْكُمُ الصِّيَامُ كَمَا كُتِبَ عَلَى الَّذِينَ مِنْ قَبْلِكُمْ لَعَلَّكُمْ تَتَّقُونَ 2:183

- (513) فَلَمَّا قُبِضَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ فَخَرَجَ مُسْنِلِمَةُ الْكَذَّابِ قُلْتُ لِأَخْرَجَنِّي إِلَى [4072: صحيح البخاري] مُسْنِلِمَةَ لَعَلِّي أَقْتُلُهُ فَأَكْافِي بِهِ حَمْرَةَ

When the Messenger of Allāh ﷺ passed away, and then Musaylimah the Liar appeared, I said, "I will surely go out to Musaylimah so **that** I may kill him and so make amends for [killing] Hamzah.

31.8. A prepositional/adverbial phrase as the info of إِنَّ and its sisters

A prepositional/adverbial phrase can occur as the info of إِنَّ and its sisters. For example:

- (514) إِنَّ زَيْدًا فِي الدَّارِ
Indeed Zayd is in the house.

- (515) إِنَّ زَيْدًا عِنْدَكَ Indeed Zayd is at [your place].

In such cases, based on what we have learned in section (ref), the info is actually implicated as general beingness, and the preposition or adverb is its governee. But loosely speaking we may say that the prepositional/adverbial phrase is the info.

31.9. A complete sentence as the info of إِنَّ and its sisters

The info of إِنَّ and its sisters may be a complete sentence. Examples:

- (516) [272 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] إِنَّ الْعِلْمَ يُعَزِّزُ صَاحِبَهُ
Indeed the knowledge – it makes esteemed its companion.
(The info of إِنَّ is the verbal sentence يُعَزِّزُ صَاحِبَهُ it makes esteemed its companion.)
- (517) [1/272 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] إِنَّ الْعَالِمَ قَدْرُهُ مُرْتَفِعٌ
Indeed the scholar – his worth is high.
(The info of إِنَّ is the nounal sentence قَدْرُهُ مُرْتَفِعٌ his worth is high.)
- (518) [1/272 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] لَعَلَّكَ اجْتَهِدْتَ
Perhaps you may exert yourself.
(The info of لَعَلَّ is the verbal sentence اجْتَهِدْتَ you exert yourself.)

The info of إِنَّ (and its sisters) can even be a compound itself itself. Here is an example where the info of إِنَّ is a كَانَ sentence with its own subject and verbal sentence info:

- (519) وَإِنَّ أَبَا هُرَيْرَةَ كَانَ يَلْزِمُ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ بِشَيْخِ بَطْنِهِ وَيَحْضُرُ مَا لَا يَحْضُرُونَ [118: صحيح البخاري] وَيَحْفَظُ مَا لَا يَحْفَظُونَ
And indeed Abū Hurayrah used to stick with the Messenger of Allāh with the fill of his stomach and be present for what they [were] not present for, and memorize what they [were] not memorizing.

31.10. Word order of the subject and the info with إِنَّ and its sisters

31.10.1. Word order for a single element info

The subject of إِنَّ (and its sisters) must always follow it in word order. And its info must always follow the subject. So, for example, we cannot say:

(520) [162 شرح قطر الندى وبل الصدى] إِنَّ قَائِمٌ زَيْدًا ×

We must say instead:

(521) إِنَّ زَيْدًا قَائِمٌ
Indeed Zayd is standing.

31.10.2. Word order for a prepositional or adverbial phrase info

When the info is itself (loosely speaking) the prepositional or adverbial phrase, then then it may be placed before the subject. Sometimes, placing the prepositional/adverbial phrase before the subject is optional. For example:

(522) 1/273 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] إِنَّ فِي الدَّارِ ضُيُوفًا كِرَامًا
Indeed in the house are noble guests.

(523) 1/273 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] لَيْتَ عِنْدَكَ مُحَمَّدًا
O that with you was Muḥammad

In such cases, where the prepositional/adverbial phrase info may be placed either before or after the subject, the signification can be slightly different. For example, if we say:

(524) إِنَّ مَعَكَ صَاحِبَكَ. [Wright 2/80C]
*Indeed, with you, is **your** companion.*

This puts the logical accent on the subject صَاحِبَكَ “your companion”. If the subject is placed first then this puts the logical accent on the info:

(525) إِنَّ صَاحِبَكَ مَعَكَ. [Wright 2/80C]
*Indeed your companion is **with you**.*

When the prepositional/adverbial phrase has a pronoun that refers to the subject, then it must obligatorily be placed before the subject. For example:

(526) 3/1244 ارتشاف الضرب من لسان العرب] إِنَّ فِي الدَّارِ سَاكِنَهَا
Indeed in the house is its resident.

(527) 3/1244 ارتشاف الضرب من لسان العرب] إِنَّ عِنْدَ هِنْدٍ بَعْلَهَا
Indeed with Hind is her husband.

31.10.3. Word order when the info has a governee

If the info has a governee, then the normal word order is for it to follow its governor. For example:

- (528) [1/349 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] **إِنَّ زَيْدًا أَكَلَ طَعَامَكَ**
Indeed Zayd is eating your food.

Optionally, the governee of the info can be made to precede it. For example:

- (529) [2/317 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] **إِنَّ زَيْدًا طَعَامَكَ أَكَلَ**
Indeed Zayd is eating your food.

But the governee of the info should not, in general, precede the subject. So we cannot say:

- (530) [1/349 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] **إِنَّ طَعَامَكَ زَيْدًا أَكَلَ** ×

However, when the governee of the info is a preposition or adverb, then there is some disagreement amongst the grammarians, with regard to whether the governee of the info can precede the subject.¹⁰ Some grammarians allowed sentences like:

- (531) [1/349 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] **إِنَّ عِنْدَكَ زَيْدًا جَالِسٌ**
Indeed with you Zayd is sitting.
- (532) [1/349 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] **إِنَّ بِكَ زَيْدًا وَاثِقٌ**
Indeed in you Zayd is trusting.
- (533) [11:8 سورة هود for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان] **إِنَّ الْيَوْمَ زَيْدًا مُسَافِرٌ**
Indeed today Zayd is a journeying-one.
- (534) [3/65 المساعد على تسهيل الفوائد لابن عقيل] علمت أن **اليوم** زيداً سائر
I knew that today Zayd is a travelling-one.

Others disallowed such sentences and mandated that the governee of the info not precede the subject even in the case of preposition or adverb governee.¹¹ So they allow:

- (535) [1/349 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] **زَيْدًا جَالِسٌ عِنْدَكَ**
Indeed Zayd is sitting with you.
- (536) [1/349 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية] **زَيْدًا وَاثِقٌ بِكَ**
Indeed Zayd is trusting in you.

It is also allowed to make the governee of the info precede it (but not the subject) (as in example (529) above). For example:

- (537) **زَيْدًا عِنْدَكَ جَالِسٌ**
 (538) **إِنَّ زَيْدًا بِكَ وَاثِقٌ**

¹⁰ 2/464 شرح كتاب سيبويه للسيرافي; 3/1244 ارتشاف الضرب من لسان العرب

¹¹ 1/349 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية

31.11. A state-of-affairs pronoun as the subject of إِنَّ and its sisters

A state-of-affairs pronoun can occur as the subject of إِنَّ and its sisters. In this case, as usual, the info will be a complete sentence.

As with كَانَ, when the subject is a state-of-affairs pronoun, then the info can be a nounal sentence or a verbal sentence.

For example:

- (539) [667: صحيح البخاري] إِنَّهَا تَكُونُ الظُّلْمَةُ وَالسَّيْلُ
The state-of-affairs is: [there] is [at times] darkness and flooding

- (540) وَقَالَ إِنَّهُ قَدْ اجْتَمَعَ لَكُمْ فِي يَوْمِكُمْ هَذَا عِيدَانِ
<https://sunnah.com/urn/504350>

31.12. إِنَّ with a ل of beginning

The ل of beginning is a particle which generally occurs in the beginning of a sentence signifies an assertive meaning. For example, if we start with:

- (541) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Zayd is standing.

then we can make the sentence more assertive by using ل of beginning in its beginning:

- (542) لَزَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Indeed Zayd is standing.

The ل of beginning, in sentences without إِنَّ (as above), is placed in the beginning of the sentence and is attached only to the subject. If the info were fronted, we wouldn't say:

- (543) [2/353: شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] لَقَائِمٌ زَيْدٌ ×

31.12.1. The ل of beginning placed before the info of إِنَّ

This ل of beginning is frequently found used with إِنَّ. But instead of occurring before إِنَّ thus:

- (544) لَإِنَّ ×

it is placed between the subject of إِنَّ and its info, thus:

- (545) [2/352: شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَقَائِمٌ
Indeed Zayd is standing.

When إِنَّ is used together with ل of beginning as in the example above, then the sentence signifies extra assertion, compared to if had only إِنَّ or only the ل of beginning.

In a similar manner to example () above, we can say:

- (546) [شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] 2/352 *إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَفِي الدَّارِ*
Indeed Zayd is in the house.

The *ج* of beginning has certain restrictions placed on its usage, when used with *إِنَّ*:

Firstly, it can only be used with *إِنَّ* and not with any of its sisters.

Secondly, the *إِنَّ* sentence should be an affirmative sentence, not a negative sentence. So we cannot say:

- (547) [1/288 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] *إِنَّ عَلِيًّا لَّمَّا حَضَرَ* ×

Instead, we should say (without the *ج* of beginning):

- (548) [1/288 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] *إِنَّ عَلِيًّا مَا حَضَرَ*
Indeed Ealiyy was not present.

Additionally, when the info of *إِنَّ* is a verbal sentence with a caseless verb, then the *ج* of beginning is not attached to the caseless verb. But if *قَدْ* is used before the caseless verb, then the *ج* of beginning may be attached before it. So we cannot say:

- (549) [1/288 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] *إِنَّ الْعِلْمَ لَرَفَعَ قَدْرَ صَاحِبِهِ* ×

But we can say:

- (550) [1/288 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] *إِنَّ الْعِلْمَ لَقَدْ رَفَعَ قَدْرَ صَاحِبِهِ*
Indeed the knowledge – it has raised the worth of its companion.

Or we can say without both the *ج* of beginning and *قَدْ*

- (551) [1/288 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] *إِنَّ الْعِلْمَ رَفَعَ قَدْرَ صَاحِبِهِ*
Indeed the knowledge – it raised the worth of its companion.

This restriction is not placed on a *خabar* which is a verbal sentence with a caseful verb. So we can say:

- (552) [2/352 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] *إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَيُخْرَجُ الْيَوْمَ*
Indeed Zayd – he will go out today.

When the caseful verb has *سَوْفَ*, then grammarians have disagreed with regards to allowing *ج* of beginning to attach to it. [شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] 2/354

- (553) [2/354 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] *إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَسَوْفَ يَقُومُ*
Indeed Zayd – he will soon stand.

Also, rigid caseless verbs are exempted from being restricted and may be used with *ج* of beginning directly. For example:

- (554) [2/352 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] *إِنَّ زَيْدًا لِنِعْمِ الرَّجُلُ*
Indeed Zayd – how excellent the man.

- (555) [2/352 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إِنَّ عَمْرًا لَبِئْسَ الْغُلَامُ
Indeed Zayd – how wretched the boy.

However, لَبِئْسَ is a rigid verb, but ل of beginning does not attach to it because of the undesirableness of two لs coming together. So we won't say:

- (556) [2/352 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَيْسَ بِقَائِمٍ ×
Indeed Zayd – he is not standing.

When a governee of the info is placed before it in word order (but still after the subject), such that it comes between the subject and the info, then ل of beginning will attach to the fronted governee, thus:

- (557) [2/352 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَفِي الدَّارِ قَائِمٌ
Indeed Zayd, in the house is standing.

- (558) [2/355 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَطَعَامُكَ آكِلٌ
Indeed Zayd, your food he is eating.

But if the governee of the info is placed after the info then the info will have ل of beginning, not its governee. So we won't say:

- (559) [2/235 الأصول في النحو لابن السراج] إِنَّ زَيْدًا آكَلُ لَطَعَامِكَ ×

Instead, we will say:

- (560) [2/235 الأصول في النحو لابن السراج] إِنَّ زَيْدًا لَأَكُلُ طَعَامَكَ
Indeed Zayd is eating your food.

Also, if the subject has a attribute which occurs between it and the info, then again ل of beginning is placed with the info. For example:

- (561) [2/355 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إِنَّ زَيْدًا الْفَاضِلُ لَقَائِمٌ
Indeed the excellent Zayd is standing

31.12.2. The ل of beginning placed before the subject of إِنَّ

So far, we have seen the ل of beginning attached before the info of إِنَّ. But, if the info occurs before the subject in word order, then ل of beginning is actually attached before the subject. In this way, ل of beginning again occurs between the subject and the info. For example:

- (562) [1/373 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] إِنَّ فِي الدَّارِ لَزَيْدًا
Indeed in the house is Zayd.

If the info occurs after the subject in word order, but a governee of the info occurs before the subject, then we have two options: ل of beginning may optionally be attached before the subject or before the info. For example:

- (563) إِنَّ فِيهَا زَيْدًا لَقَائِمٌ
إِنَّ فِيهَا لَزَيْدًا قَائِمٌ
[2/357 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي]
Indeed in it Zayd is standing.

31.12.3. The ل of beginning with a separating-pronoun

If a separating-pronoun occurs between the subject and the info of إِنَّ, and a ل of beginning is to be used, then the ل of beginning will be attached before the separating-pronoun. For example, if we start with:

- (564) [شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إن زيدًا هو القائم
Indeed Zayd is the standing one.

and we add ل of beginning, we get:

- (565) [شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي] إن زيدًا **لهو** القائم
Indeed Zayd is the standing one.

31.13. When to use إِنَّ vs أَنَّ

31.13.1. The basic principle

The basic principle in choosing whether to use إِنَّ vs أَنَّ is:

- إِنَّ is used to begin a complete sentence. As a complete sentence, it can then be a part of an larger sentence.
- أَنَّ is used to begin a clause which is part of a larger sentence. The larger sentence, in order for its meaning to work, requires a maṣḍari interpretation of the أَنَّ clause.

In theory, this is a pretty clear demarcation. But in practice it can be a little tricky to tell when to use إِنَّ vs أَنَّ. Let's work through some examples:

- (566) نُطْقِي اللَّهَ حَسْبِي
[Wright 2/256D, شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية 1/204, previously cited in section (ref)]
My utterance is "Allāh is sufficient for me."

In the example above, the sentence info اللَّه حَسْبِي *Allāh is sufficient for me*, is simply being reported as speech. It's not an interpreted maṣḍar of the info which is expressing a property about the subject نُطْقِي. Rather, the info, as a complete sentence, is the complement of the subject. So it can begin with إِنَّ but not أَنَّ, thus: نُطْقِي إِنَّ اللَّهَ حَسْبِي.

Here are a couple more examples:

- (567) [شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية 1/355] خَيْرُ الْقَوْلِ إِنِّي أَحْمَدُ
The best of speech is: Indeed I praise.
- (568) [أوضح المسالك لابن هشام 1/325] قَوْلِي إِنَّهُ فَاضِلٌ
My saying is: Indeed he is excellent.

But if the info expresses a property about the subject, not as a complete sentence, but as an interpreted maṣḍar, then أَنَّ is used. For example:

- (569) [1/325 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكُ لِابْنِ هِشَامٍ] اِعْتَقَادِي أَنَّهُ فَاضِلٌ
My belief is that he is excellent.
 (i.e. اِعْتَقَادِي فَضْلَهُ *My belief is his being excellent.*)

In the example above, it is not exactly the sentence *هُوَ فَاضِلٌ* “he is excellent” which is my belief. Rather my belief is his *being* excellent.

Here are some more examples of a complete sentence with *إِنَّ* in a larger sentence. In all the examples, the *إِنَّ* sentence is part of the larger sentence, as is. It does not need to be interpreted as a *maṣḍar* construction.

- (570) [1/324 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكُ لِابْنِ هِشَامٍ] زَيْدٌ إِنَّهُ فَاضِلٌ
Zayd – indeed he is excellent.
- (571) [1/323 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكُ لِابْنِ هِشَامٍ] مَرَرْتُ بِرَجُلٍ إِنَّهُ فَاضِلٌ
I passed by a indeed-he-is-excellent man.
 (The sentence *إِنَّهُ فَاضِلٌ* is the attribute of *رَجُلٍ*.)
- (572) [1/275 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] أَحْتَرِمُ الَّذِي إِنَّهُ مُخْلِصٌ فِي عَمَلِهِ
I respect the one who – indeed he is sincere in his work.
 (The *إِنَّهُ* sentence *إِنَّهُ مُخْلِصٌ فِي عَمَلِهِ* is the connecting sentence of the connected noun *الَّذِي*. See chapter (ref).)
- (573) [1/276 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] جِئْتُ وَإِنَّ الشَّمْسَ تَغْرُبُ
I came while the sun was setting.
 (The *جِئْتُ* sentence *وَإِنَّ الشَّمْسَ تَغْرُبُ* is a *ḥāl*. See chapter (ref).)

Now let's again consider some tricky areas:

31.13.2. When *أَنَّ* or *إِنَّ* occur as a annexed-to noun

Consider the following sentence:

- (574) [1/355 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] اجْلِسْ حَيْثُ إِنَّ زَيْدًا جَالِسٌ
Sit where – indeed Zayd is sitting.

In the above example *حَيْثُ* is an adverb of place (see chapter (ref)) which is a annexed noun to the sentence-annexed-to noun *جَالِسٌ*. The *إِنَّ* sentence does not require the *maṣḍari* interpretation *جُلُوسٌ* for the meaning to work.

Now consider this sentence:

- (575) [2769a: صحيح مسلم] قَالَ كَعْبُ بْنُ مَالِكٍ لَمْ أَتَخَلَّفْ عَنْ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ فِي غَزْوَةٍ غَرَّاهَا قَطُّ
Ka'ab ibn Mālik said, “I didn't remain behind the Messenger of Allāh ﷺ in any expedition that he went on, ever, except in the expedition of Tabūk, other than that I remained behind in the expedition of Badr ...

In this example, the *أَنَّ* clause *قَدْ تَخَلَّفْتُ أَنِّي* is annexed-to noun of *غَيْرِ*. *أَنَّ* is used instead of *إِنَّ* because, in order for the meaning to work, the *maṣḍar* of *تَخَلَّفَ* is interpreted, thus: *غَيْرِ تَخَلُّفِي* *other than my remaining behind*.

31.13.3. In reported speech

When a sentence is reported as (direct or indirect) speech, then اِنَّ is used instead of اِنَّ in the beginning of the reported speech. (By the way, direct speech can also begin without اِنَّ.) Here are examples with اِنَّ:

- (576) [1/650 النحو الوافي] تُعَيِّرُنَا أَتَا قَلِيلٌ عَدِيدُنَا فَقُلْتُ لَهَا إِنَّ الْكَرَامَ قَلِيلٌ
She reproaches us that we – our number is few. So I said to her, “Indeed the noble are few.”

- (577) [1283: صحيح البخاري] فَقِيلَ لَهَا إِنَّهُ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ
Then it was said to her Indeed he is the Prophet ﷺ

In the following example, the pronoun in إِنَّهَا indicates indirect speech, yet still اِنَّ is used instead of اِنَّ:

- (578) [1695a: صحيح مسلم] قَالَتْ إِنَّهَا حُبِلَى مِنَ الزَّنا
She said that she had become pregnant as a result of fornication.

The reason for using اِنَّ instead of اِنَّ is, again, that the reported speech is not interpreted as a maṣḍar in order to connect it to the verb قَالَ before it. Rather, the entire reported speech is, as is, the direct doer of the verb قَالَ.

With other verbs that may indicate reported speech, اِنَّ is typically used. For example:

- (579) صَلَّى بِنَا سَعِيدٌ بْنُ جُبَيْرٍ بِجَمْعِ الْمَغْرِبِ ثَلَاثًا بِإِقَامَةٍ ثُمَّ سَلَّمَ ثُمَّ صَلَّى الْعِشَاءَ رَكْعَتَيْنِ ثُمَّ ذَكَرَ أَنَّ عَبْدَ اللَّهِ بْنَ عُمَرَ فَعَلَ ذَلِكَ وَذَكَرَ أَنَّ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ فَعَلَ ذَلِكَ
 [483: سنن النسائي]
Sa'eed bin Jubair led us in prayer in Jam'. (He prayed) Maghrib, three Rak'ahs with an Iqamah, then he prayed 'Isha', two Rak'ahs. Then he mentioned that 'Abdullah bin 'Umar had done that, and he mentioned that the Messenger of Allah ﷺ had done that.

The reason is that now, the maṣḍari meaning of the speech is interpreted as the direct doer of ذَكَرَ. That is, *he mentioned* [#3abd] Allāh's **doing** that.

Occasionally, we will find اِنَّ used with قَالَ. And that is when قَالَ is not simply reporting speech, but signifying the speaker's belief, estimation, or claim of the maṣḍari content of the following speech.¹² For example:

- (580) [1/650 النحو الوافي] أَتَقُولُ الْمَرَاصِدُ أَنَّ الْجَوَّ بَارِدٌ فِي الْأُسْبُوعِ الْمُقْبِلِ
*Does the forecaster say that the weather is cold in the upcoming week?
 (i.e. Does the forecaster estimate the weather to be cold ...)*

¹² 4/319 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل also 1/650 النحو الوافي

31.13.4. After verbs of perception

After, verbs of perception (see chapter (ref)), if a sentence suspends its government (see section (ref)), then either إِنَّ or أِنَّ may be used. For example:

- (581) علمت إن الرياء بلاءٌ
علمت أن الرياء بلاءٌ
[1/651 النحو الوافي]
I knew that showing off is a trial.

If ل of beginning is used, then, of course; it would only be used with إِنَّ not أِنَّ. For example:

- (582) علمت إن الإسراف لطريق الفقر [1/651 النحو الوافي]
I knew indeed extravagance is the path to poverty.

31.13.5. After إِذَا or suddenness

After إِذَا or suddenness (see chapter (ref)), either إِنَّ or أِنَّ may be used¹³:

- (583) خرجت فإذا إن زيدا قائم
خرجت فإذا أن زيدا قائم
[1/356 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية]
I came out [and] suddenly Zayd was standing.

31.13.6. After an oath

- 278 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان
1/650 النحو الوافي

31.13.7. After ف in a CR

When the CR begins with a فَ, either إِنَّ or أِنَّ (or neither) may be used.¹⁴ For example:

- (584) [1/279 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] إن تَجْتَهِدْ فَإِنَّكَ/فَأَنَّكَ نَاجِحٌ
If you exert yourself then you will be successful.

31.14. A conjunction following إِنَّ and its sisters

When a conjunction is used with the subject of إِنَّ, and the post-conjunction is placed after the info of إِنَّ then it can optionally either be put in the a-case or the u-case. For example:

- (585) [1/375 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] إن زيدا قائم وعمرًا

¹³ 1/356 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية; 1/277 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان¹³

¹⁴ 1/279 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

(586) [1/376 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *إِنْ زيدا قائم وعمرو*

If the post-conjunction is put in the u-case (وَعَمْرُو), then it can be thought of as the subject of a new sentence, i.e.:

(587) [1/376 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *إِنْ زيدا قائم وَعَمْرُو كَذَلِكَ*
Indeed Zayd is standing and Eamr [is like that as well].

When post-conjunction is put before the info of *إِنْ*, then according to the dominant view, the post-conjunction must be in the a-case. So we will say:

(588) [1/376 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *إِنْ زيدا وعمرا قائمان*

(589) [1/376 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *إِنَّكَ وزيدا ذاهبان*

Some grammarians permitted the post-conjunction to be in the u-case in this case as well.¹⁵

The rules for *أَنَّ* and *لَنَكَنَّ* are the same as the rules for *إِنْ*. So we will say, for example:

(590) [1/377 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *علمت أن زيدا قائم وعمرو/وعمرا*

(591) [1/377 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *علمت أن زيدا وعمرا قائمان*

(592) [1/377 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *لكن عمرا منطلق وخالدا/خالد*

(593) [1/377 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *لكن عمرا وخالدا منطلقان*

As for *كَأَنَّ*, *لَيْتَ*, and *لَعَلَّ*, only the a-case is permitted for the post-conjunction, whether or not it is after the info or before. So we will say, for example:

(594) [1/377 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *ليت زيدا وعمرا قائمان*

(595) [1/377 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *ليت زيدا قائم وعمرا*

As mentioned, *كَأَنَّ* and *لَعَلَّ* are treated similarly to the above two examples.

31.15. The lightened *إِنْ*

296 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

The particles *إِنْ*, *أَنَّ*, *كَأَنَّ*, and *لَنَكَنَّ*, because of the *shaddah* on the *ن*, can be termed *heavy*. They have *lightened-from-the-heavy* versions: *إِنْ*, *أَنَّ*, *كَأَنَّ*, and *لَنَكَنَّ*. The lightened particles have somewhat different rules from their original heavy counterparts. In this section we will treat the lightened *إِنْ*. We will treat the rest of the lightened particles in subsequent sections, if Allāh wills.

¹⁵ 1/376 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

31.15.1. Governance of the lightened **إِنَّ**

The lightened **إِنَّ** is less assertive in meaning than the heavy **إِنَّ**.¹⁶ In using it there are two optional possibilities:

The first, and more common, option is that the lightened leaves the case of its subject in the u-case, just like a basic nounal sentence. But now, a **لَ** is almost always required. For example:

- (596) **إِنَّ سَعِيدَ لَمْجْتَهْدُ** [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 1/296-297
Indeed Sa'ed is an exorter [of himself].

Note that the subject **سَعِيدُ** is in the u-case, and that a **لَ** is used with the info: **لَمْجْتَهْدُ**. This **لَ** is now called the *differentiator* **لَ**, because it differentiates the lightened **إِنَّ** from another type of **إِنَّ** called the *negating-إِنَّ* (see chapter (ref)). Occasionally, when the meaning is clear without it, the differentiator **لَ** may be omitted.¹⁷ For example:

- (597) **إِنَّ الْعَاقِلُ يَتَّبِعُ سَبِيلَ الرَّشَادِ** [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 1/297
Indeed the sensible one follows the path of right conduct.

The second, and less commonly used, option is for the lightened **إِنَّ** to govern its subject in the a-case, just like the heavy **إِنَّ**. Now the **لَ** (called **لَ** of beginning again) is optional, as it was with **إِنَّ**. Examples:

- (598) **إِنَّ سَعِيدًا مُجْتَهْدُ** [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 1/297
Indeed Sa'ed is an exorter [of himself].
- (599) **وَأَنَّ كُلًّا لِّمَّا يَفْعِلْنَهُمْ رَبُّكَ أَعْمَلَهُمْ** [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 11:111 سورة هود cited by أحكام ومعان 1/297
And indeed, each [of the believers and disbelievers] - your Lord will fully compensate them for their deeds.

31.15.2. A verbal sentence after the lightened **إِنَّ**

Unlike the heavy **إِنَّ**, the lightened **إِنَّ** can be followed directly by a verb. But the verb that follows it is usually constrained to be a canceling verb. Examples:

- (600) **وَإِنْ كَانَتْ لَكَبِيرَةً إِلَّا عَلَى الَّذِينَ هَدَى اللَّهُ** [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 2:143 سورة البقرة cited by أحكام ومعان 1/297
And indeed, it is difficult except for those whom Allāh has guided.
- (601) **قَالَ تَاللَّهِ إِنْ كِدْتُ تُرْدِينِ** [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 37:56 سورة الصافات cited by أحكام ومعان 1/297
He will say, "By Allāh, you almost ruined me.
- (602) **وَإِنْ تَظُنُّكَ لَمِنَ الْكَاذِبِينَ** [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 26:186 سورة الشعراء cited by أحكام ومعان 1/297
and indeed, we think you are among the liars.

¹⁶ 1/299 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

¹⁷ 1/297 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

- (603) النحو العربي: أحكام cited by سورة القلم 68:51 [وَأِنْ يَكَادُ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا لَيُزْلِقُونَكَ بِأَبْصَرِهِمْ
[1/298 ومعان]

And indeed, those who disbelieve would almost make you slip with their eyes [i.e., looks]

- (604) [6627: صحيح البخاري] وَأَيْمُ اللَّهِ إِنْ كَانَ لَخَلِيفًا لِلْإِمَارَةِ، وَإِنْ كَانَ لَمَنْ أَحَبَّ النَّاسُ إِلَيَّ
By Allāh, he was fit for [assuming] the command, and he was from the most beloved of people to me.

Rarely, a non-canceling verb is found to occur after the lightened إِنْ. For example:

- (605) [1/382 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية, 1/298, النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] إِنْ قَتَلْتَ لِمُسْلِمًا
Indeed you killed a Muslim

The analysis of this sentence is that the subject of the lightened إِنْ is implicated to be a deleted state-of-affairs pronoun. And the verb which follows with its governees is a sentence which is the info of the lightened إِنْ.¹⁸

31.16. The lightened أَنْ

31.16.1. Governance of the lightened أَنْ

The lightened أَنْ retains the governance of the the heavy إِنْ.¹⁹ But its subject is (almost) always a deleted state-of-affairs pronoun. And its info is then a complete sentence. For example:

- (606) [1/383 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] علمت أن زيد قائم
I knew that [the state-of-affairs is:] Zayd is standing.

Note, in the above example, that زَيْدٌ is in the u-case because it is the subject of an independent sentence زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ. The subject of أَنْ is a deleted state-of-affairs pronoun, implicated thus: أَنَّهُ.

Occasionally, the subject the lightened أَنْ is not deleted, in which case it won't be a state-of-affairs pronoun.²⁰ In this case the info may either be a single noun or a complete sentence.²¹

- (607) [4/552 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] أَظُنُّ أَنَّكَ قَائِمٌ
I estimate that you are standing.

- (608) [4/552 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] أَحْسَبُ أَنَّهُ ذَاهِبٌ
I deem that he is going.

¹⁸ 26/6 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للعثيمين

¹⁹ 1/300 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

²⁰ 1/384 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية; 1/300 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

²¹ 1/385 editors footnote شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

But most of the time, the subject of the lightened اِنَّ will be a deleted state-of-affairs pronoun, and its info will be a sentence. The sentence which is the info of this lightened اِنَّ can begin either with a noun or with a verb.

When it begins with a noun, then it does not need any separation between it and the اِنَّ. For example:

- (609) النحو العربي: أحكام [10:10 سورة يونس] وَعَاخِرُ دَعْوِهِمْ اِنَّ اَلْحَمْدَ لِلّٰهِ رَبِّ الْعَالَمِينَ [301 ومعان]
And the last of their call will be, "Praise to Allāh, Lord of the worlds!"

Similarly, if the sentence info begins with a fixed verb, then again no separation is needed between it and the اِنَّ. For example:

- (610) [53:39 سورة النجم] وَأَنْ لَّيْسَ لِلْإِنْسَانِ إِلَّا مَا سَعَى
And that there is not for man except that [good] for which he strives

- (611) أَوَلَمْ يَنْظُرُوا فِي مَلَكُوتِ السَّمٰوٰتِ وَالْأَرْضِ وَمَا خَلَقَ اَللّٰهُ مِنْ شَيْءٍ وَأَنْ عَسَىٰ أَنْ
 [301 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 7:185 سورة الأعراف] يَكُوْنُ قَدْ أَقْرَبَ أَجَلُهُمْ
Do they not look into the realm of the heavens and the earth and everything that Allāh has created and [think] that perhaps their appointed time has come near?

But if the verb is flexible, then it is preferred that it be separated from the lightened اِنَّ by one of the following:

- قَدْ. For example:

- (612) قَالُوا نُرِيدُ أَنْ نَأْكُلَ مِنْهَا وَنَطْمِئِنَّ قُلُوبُنَا وَنَعْلَمَ أَنْ قَدْ صَدَقْتُنَا وَنَكُوْنُ عَلَيْهَا مِنْ
 [301 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] 5:113 سورة المائدة] اَلشَّاهِدِيْنَ
They said, "We wish to eat from it and let our hearts be reassured and know that you have been truthful to us and be among its witnesses."

- The particles سَوْفَ or سَ. For example:

- (613) اَلَمْ اَنْ سَيَكُوْنُ مِنْكُمْ مَّرْضٰى
 [73:20 سورة المزمل] اَحْكَامَ وَمَعَانَ [1/301]

- One of the particle of negation لَمْ, لَنْ, or لَا

- (614) اَفَلَا يَرَوْنَ اَلَّا يَرْجِعُ اِلَيْهِمْ قَوْلًا
 [20:89 سورة طه] اَحْكَامَ وَمَعَانَ [1/302]

- (615) اَيَحْسَبُ اَنْ لَّمْ يَرَوْهُ اَحَدٌ
 [90:7 سورة البلد] اَحْكَامَ وَمَعَانَ [1/302]

- (616) اَيَحْسَبُ الْاِنْسَانُ اَلَنْ نَجْمَعَ عِظَامَهُ
 [73:3 سورة المزمل] اَحْكَامَ [1/302] وَمَعَانَ

In (non-Qur'ānic) SCA, أَنْ is not joined in writing to the following particle. So we will write لَا أَنْ²², أَنْ لَنْ, and أَنْ لَمْ. But in pronunciation, the ن is assimilated with the ل, as usual, so we will say 'allā, 'allan, and 'allam, respectively. For example:

- (617) [4/298 النحو الوافي] تَبَيَّنْتُ أَنْ لَا أَصَافِرُ
I was sure that I will not journey.

• The conditional particle لَوْ For example:

- (618) [72:16 سورة الجن cited by النحو 1/302 العربي: أحكام ومعان] وَاللَّوِ اسْتَقْدُمُوا عَلَى الطَّرِيقَةِ لِأَسْمَقَيْنَهُمْ مَاءً غَدَقًا
[72:16 سورة الجن cited by النحو 1/302 العربي: أحكام ومعان]

31.16.2. When to use the lightened أَنْ vs the a-case-izing أَنْ

When أَنْ is to be followed by a caseful verb (whether or not separated by a particle like لَا), then the question is should we use the lightened أَنْ or the a-case-izing أَنْ?

If we choose the lightened أَنْ, then the caseful verb is put in the u-case. For example:

- (619) [4/553 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] عَلِمْتُ أَنْ لَا يَخْرُجَ زَيْدٌ
I knew that Zayd will not go out.

And if we choose the a-case-izing أَنْ, then the caseful verb is put in the u-case. For example:

- (620) [3/406 شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي] اِسْتَهْبْتُ أَنْ لَا يَخْرُجَ زَيْدٌ²³
I desired that Zayd not go out.

The general principle is that the lightened أَنْ is used when the verb before it signifies certainty, like عَلِمَ to know. This is because it is the lightened from the heavy أَنْ, which is used assertively.

As for the a-case-izing أَنْ, it is used when the verb before it signifies a wanting for something to happen, or a fearing that something not happen. Here are some examples that can illustrate this:

- (621) [4/554 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] عَلِمْتُ أَنْ سَيَخْرُجُ زَيْدٌ
I knew that Zayd will go out.
- (622) [4/554 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] أَرْجُو أَنْ تُحْسِنَ إِلَيَّ
I hope that you will do good to me.

²²4/298 النحو الوافي

²³The term مخففة is used by the authour here to mean الخفيفة الناصبة للمضارع as can be seen from the statement المشددة تختص به "أَنْ" الناصبة للعلم واليقين والمعرفة وما جرى مجراها من أفعال التحقيق تختص به "أَنْ" المشددة لأفعال الناصبة للأسماء دون "أَنْ" المخففة الناصبة للأفعال

- (623) [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 4/554] أَخَافُ أَنْ تُسِيءَ إِلَيَّ
I fear that you will do evil to me.

There are a class of verbs that vary in the amount of certainty or wanting that they signify. Such verbs include: ظَنَّ to conjecture, حَسِبَ to deem, خَالَ to imagine, رَأَى to opine, etc. In this context, they can be translated in idiomatic English as *to think*. Furthermore, the caseless verb can be used where in English we would use the present tense (in accordance with what we learned in section (madi used for moment of utterance)).

With such verbs, both the lightened اَنْ (and therefore also the heavy اَنَّ), and the a-case-izing اَنْ can be used. In theory, the lightened اَنْ (and the heavy اَنَّ) is used when the speaker *believes* the following statement to be true.²⁴

For example:

- (624) [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 4/554] ظَنَنْتُ أَنَّكَ تَخْرُجُ
I [believe] that you are going out.
 or *I [believe] that you will go out.*
- (625) [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 4/554] ظَنَنْتُ أَنْ سَتَخْرُجُ
I [believe] that you will go out.
- (626) [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 3/406] حسبت أن زيدا منطلق
I [believe] that Zayd is setting out.
- (627) [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 3/406] ظننت أنك أخونا
I [believe] that you are our brother.
- (628) [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 3/406] قَدْ حَسِبْتُ أَنْ لَا تَقُولَ ذَلِكَ
I [believe] that you will not say that.
- (629) [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 3/407] أَرَى أَنْ سَيَفْعَلُ
I [believe] that he will do [it].

Conversely, the a-case-izing اَنْ is used when the the speaker *feels* the following statement, without any strong evidence or indicator which is guiding his feeling.²⁵

- (630) [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 4/554] ظننت أن تَخْرُجَ
I [feel] that you will go out.
- (631) [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 3/407] ظَنَنْتُ أَنْ لَا تَفْعَلَ
I [feel] that you will not do [it]

Despite this theoretical difference between the two uses, practically, the a-case-izing اَنْ is used more commonly in such situations because it is the default.²⁶

²⁴ [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 3/406]

²⁵ [شرح كتاب سيويه للسيرافي 3/407]

²⁶ 64 شرح قطر الندى وبل الصدى

When أَنْ is followed directly by a caseless verb (without an intervening قَدْ), then it seems that the أَنْ is a-case-izing (despite their being no effect of the a-case-izing أَنْ on the caseless verb). This is because the lightened أَنْ would have required قَدْ.²⁷ For example:

- (632) 5/97 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] كَرِهْتُ أَنْ قُمْتَ
I disliked that you stood.

We list the following examples to illustrate the range of أَنْ.

- (633) 3/407 شرح كتاب سيبويه للسيرافي [75:25 سورة القيامة] تَظُنُّ أَنْ يُفْعَلَ بِهَا فَاقْرَأْ
- (634) 2:230 سورة البقرة] فَلَا جُنَاحَ عَلَيْهِمَا أَنْ يَتَرَاجَعَا إِنْ ظَنَّا أَنْ يُقِيمَا حُدُودَ اللَّهِ [3/407 شرح كتاب سيبويه للسيرافي]
- (635) 3/407 شرح كتاب سيبويه للسيرافي [5:71 سورة المائدة] وَحَسِبُوا أَلَّا تَكُونَ فِتْنَةً
4/554 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل
And they thought there would be no [resulting] punishment
(Some recitations have the verb following أَنْ in the u-case.²⁸)
- (636) 4/554 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل [90:7 سورة البلد] أَلَيْحَسِبُ أَنْ لَمْ يَرَهُ أَحَدٌ
- (637) 4/554 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل [73:20 سورة المزمل] عَلِمَ أَنْ سَيَكُونُ مِنْكُمْ مَرْضًى
- (638) 4/554 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل [20:89 سورة طه] أَفَلَا يَرَوْنَ أَلَّا يَرْجِعُ إِلَيْهِمْ قَوْلًا
- (639) 26:82 سورة الشعراء] وَالَّذِي أَطْمَعُ أَنْ يَغْفِرَ لِي خَطِيئَتِي يَوْمَ الدِّينِ
4/554 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل
- (640) 26:61 صحيح البخاري] وَأَنَا أَرْجُو أَنْ يُبْرِئَنِي اللَّهُ، وَلَكِنَّ وَاللَّهِ مَا ظَنَنْتُ أَنْ يُنْزَلَ فِي شَأْنِي وَحْيًا
- (641) سنن] فَأَنْزَلَ اللَّهُ عَزَّ وَجَلَّ وَفَخِذَهُ عَلَى فَخِذِي فَتَقُلْتُ عَلَى حَتَّى ظَنَنْتُ أَنْ سَتَرْتُصْ فَخِذِي
3099: النسائي
- (642) 2751: صحيح البخاري] وَحَسِبْتُ أَنْ قَدْ قَالَ وَالرَّجُلُ رَاعٍ فِي مَالٍ أَبِيهِ
- (643) 6464: صحيح البخاري] وَاعْلَمُوا أَنْ لَنْ يَدْخُلَ أَحَدَكُمْ عَمَلُهُ الْجَنَّةَ
- (644) عَنْ ابْنِ عَبَّاسٍ أَنَّ النَّبِيَّ قَالَ سَأَلْتُ اللَّهَ مَسْأَلَةً وَدِدْتُ أَنِّي لَمْ أَكُنْ سَأَلْتُهُ ذَكَرْتُ رُسُلَ رَبِّي فَقُلْتُ يَا رَبِّ سَخَرْتَ لِسُلَيْمَانَ الرِّيحَ وَكَلَّمْتَ مُوسَى فَقَالَ تَبَارَكَ وَتَعَالَى أَلَمْ أَجِدْكَ يَتِيمًا مُسْتَدْرِكًا فَأَوْثَيْتُكَ وَصَالًا فَهَدَيْتُكَ وَعَائِلًا فَأَغْنَيْتُكَ؟ قَالَ فَقُلْتُ نَعَمْ فَوَدِدْتُ أَنْ لَمْ أَسْأَلْهُ
3944: الحاكم

²⁷But see النحو العربي: أَنْ غَضِبَ اللَّهُ (cited by: 24:9 سورة النور for the recitation البحر المحيط لأبي حيان 1/301). See also تفسير ابن عاشور for 24:9 سورة النور for a counter-argument.

²⁸4/554 footnote 7 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل

Chapter 32.

Significance of the doer participle

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

32.1. Introduction

The doer participle basically signifies the meaning of one who does the action of a verb. Consider the verb *اُنْطَلَقَ يَنْطَلِقُ* *to set out*. Its doer participle is *مُنْطَلِقٌ*. The basic significance of the doer participle *مُنْطَلِقٌ* is *a setter-out* or *a setting-out one* or *one who sets out*.

Consider the sentence *زَيْدٌ يَنْطَلِقُ*. We know that the u-case caseful verb can signify a present or future tense. So we can translate it as:

- (652) [الجرجاني 486 citing دراسات في النحو للزعلابي] *زَيْدٌ يَنْطَلِقُ*
Zayd is setting out
or *Zayd sets out*
or *Zayd will set out*.

Now consider the sentence *زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ*. The basic significance of the doer participle *مُنْطَلِقٌ* is *one who sets out*. However, in addition to this basic significance, the doer participle can also signify the meaning of the verb. So we can translate it, in context, as:

- (653) [الجرجاني 486 citing دراسات في النحو للزعلابي] *زَيْدٌ مُنْطَلِقٌ*
Zayd is a setter out
or *Zayd is setting out*
or *Zayd will set out*.

We will explore this verbal significance of the doer participle in the sections below.

32.2. The doer participle as a dynamic adjectival noun

Adjectival nouns, most commonly, are *static adjectival nouns* (see chapter ()). The word *static* implies a lack of dynamic progressive activity. Consider the sentence:

- (654) زَيْدٌ طَوِيلٌ
Zayd is tall.

In example () above, the static adjectival noun طَوِيل signifies the static quality of being tall without any aspect of the progression of time.

As opposed to the static adjectival noun, the doer participle can be used as a *dynamic adjectival noun*. Which means that it can signify an adjectival quality along with an aspect of the progression of time. In this sense, it has the signification of both a u-case caseful verb, and an adjectival noun. Consider the sentence:

- (655) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ
Zayd is standing.

In example () above, the doer participle قَائِمٌ signifies the quality of being in the state of standing along with the aspect of the progression of time which is inherent in the verb يَقُومُ.

The usage of the doer participle قَائِمٌ instead of the verb يَقُومُ points to the dynamic quality of Zayd's being in a state of standing as time progresses. Whereas the sentence زَيْدٌ يَقُومُ would indicate only Zayd's verbal action of standing as time progresses, without highlighting his state as being in the standing position.

Consider the following example, where both the u-case caseful verb and the doer participle are used:

- (656) [2281: سنن النسائي] كُنْتُ مُسَافِرًا فَأَتَيْتُ النَّبِيَّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ يَأْكُلُ وَأَنَا صَائِمٌ
“I was traveling and I came to the Prophet while he was **eating** and I was **fasting**.”

The verb يَأْكُلُ indicates the doer's activity of eating. Whereas the doer participle صَائِمٌ indicates the doer's being in a state of fasting as time progresses.

Incidentally, in example () above, both the verb يَأْكُلُ and the doer participle صَائِمٌ are in a ḥāl construction (see chapter()). The ḥāl syntactically signifies the state of its referent. As a matter of fact, the doer participle, when used as a dynamic adjectival noun, is often a ḥāl, or part of a ḥāl. This serves to emphasize its “state-describing” significance.

Here are some more examples of the doer participle being used as a dynamic adjectival noun:

- (657) [marmor 134] فَلَبِثَ الْأَوْسُ وَالْخَزْرَجُ مُتَحَارِبِينَ عِشْرِينَ سَنَةً فِي أَمْرِ سُمَيْرٍ
“So al-ʿAws and al-Khazraj stayed (in a state of) **fighting each other** for twenty years because of the matter of Sumayr.”
- (658) [marmor 99A] فَمَا الَّذِي أَنتَ فِيهِ الْآنَ مُجْمِعٌ
“So what is it that you are now (in a state of being) **decided** about?”
- (659) لَمَّا كَانَ يَوْمُ أُحُدٍ انْهَزَمَ النَّاسُ عَنِ النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَأَبُو طَلْحَةَ بَيْنَ يَدَيِ النَّبِيِّ
[4064: صحيح البخاري] صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مُجَوَّبٌ عَلَيْهِ بِخَجَفَةٍ لَهُ
“When it was the day of Uḥud, the people left the Prophet ﷺ while Abū

Talhah was in front of the Prophet ﷺ, **shielding** him with a leather shield of his.”

- (660) [3769: جامع الترمذي] فَخَرَجَ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ مُسْتَمِلٌ عَلَى شَيْءٍ
 “So the Prophet ﷺ came out while he was **(in a state of) covering** something [with his garment].”

- (661) وَإِذَا هُوَ مُعْتَمِدٌ عَلَى عَصَا فِي صَلَاتِهِ فَقُلْنَا بَعْدَ أَنْ سَلَمْنَا . فَقَالَ حَدَّثَنِي أُمُّ قَيْسٍ بِنْتُ مَخْصَنِ أَنَّ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ لَمَّا أَسَنَّ وَحَمَلَ اللَّحْمَ اتَّخَذَ عُمُودًا فِي مُصَلَّاهُ [948: سنن أبي داود] يَعْتَمِدُ عَلَيْهِ
 “And incidentally, he was **resting** on a staff in his prayer. We [asked] him (about resting on the staff) after we had given the salutation; He said: Umm Qays daughter of Miḥṣan said to me that when the Messenger of Allah ﷺ became aged and the flesh grew increasingly on him, he took a prop at his place of prayer and he **would rest** on it.”
 (Note how the doer participle مُعْتَمِدٌ indicates a state and the careful verb يَعْتَمِدُ indicates the activity.)

- (662) [48: موطأ مالك] قَبِينَا أَنَا نَازِلٌ تَحْتَ شَجَرَةٍ إِذَا رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ
 While I was **in a dismounted state** under a tree, the Messenger of Allah [came]

- (663) [56: صحيح البخاري] إِذَا مَرَضَ الْعَبْدُ أَوْ سَافَرَ، كُتِبَ لَهُ مِثْلُ مَا كَانَ يَعْمَلُ مُقِيمًا صَحِيحًا
 When a slave journeys or falls ill, a [similar reward] is written for him as what he used to do while **staying** (i.e. not journeying) [and] healthy.

- (664) [5979: صحيح البخاري] إِنَّ أُمِّي قَدِمَتْ وَهِيَ رَاجِبَةٌ
 My mother has arrived and she is desirous (of my favor).

32.2.1. The doer participle as a dynamic adjectival noun with a direct doer

When the doer participle is derived from a transitive verb, then the doer participle, when acting as a dynamic adjectival noun, may take a direct doer (as long as it satisfies the conditions specified in section (ref)). Here are some examples:

- (665) [3498: سنن النسائي] وَأَنَا مُتَّبِعٌ فِي ذَلِكَ قَضَاءِ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ فِي مَرْيَمَ الْمُغَالِيَّةِ
 I am **am following**, in that [matter], **the ruling** of the Messenger of Allāh ﷺ concerning Maryam al-Maghāliyyah.

- (666) [298: مسند أحمد] مَنْ كَانَ مِنْكُمْ مُلْتَمِسًا لَيْلَةَ الْقَدْرِ فَلْيَلْتَمِسْهَا فِي الْعَشْرِ الْأَوَاخِرِ وَتَرَا
 “Whoever amongst you is **seeking** the Night of Decree, then let him seek it in the last ten days of Ramaḍān, [in the] the odd [nights].”
 (Note the the doer participle مُلْتَمِسًا has a direct doer لَيْلَةَ الْقَدْرِ.)

- (667) [638: سنن أبي داود, graded weak by al-'Albānī] إِنَّهُ كَانَ يُصَلِّي وَهُوَ مُسْبِلٌ إِزَارَهُ
 “Indeed he was praying while **trailing** his lower garment.”

- (668) [451: الأدب المفرد] وَوَقَفْتُ عِنْدَ بَابِ عَائِشَةَ فَإِذَا هُوَ مُسْتَقْبِلُ الْمَغْرِبِ
 “And I stopped at the door of Eā’ishah and incidentally, it was facing the west.”
- (669) جامع الترمذي] كَانَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ حَامِلَ الْحَسَنِ بْنِ عَلِيٍّ عَلَى عَاتِقِهِ
 :3784
 “The Messenger of Allah ﷺ was carrying al-Ḥasan ibn ʿAlīyy on his shoulder”
 (حَامِلُ الْحَسَنِ is a superficial annexation.)
- (670) [1204: سنن النسائي] أَنَّ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ كَانَ يُصَلِّي وَهُوَ حَامِلٌ أُمَامَةَ
 “that the Messenger of Allah used to pray while he [was] **carrying** Umāmah”
- (671) أَنَّ أَبَا بَكْرٍ اسْتَأْذَنَ عَلَى رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ مُضْطَجِعٌ عَلَى فِرَاشِهِ لِأَبِي
 :2402a صحيح مسلم] مَرِطَ عَائِشَةَ
 “that Abū Bakr sought permission from the Messenger of Allah ﷺ [for entrance in his apartment] while he was lying on his bed having on him Eā’ishah’s bed-sheet.”

However, when the main intent is to indicate the state of the doer independent of the action of the doer upon any doee, then the doer participle can occur without a direct doee. For example:

- (672) [431: مسند أحمد] قَالَ عُمُتَانُ أَجَلٌ وَلَكِنَّا كُنَّا خَائِفِينَ
 Euthman said, “Yes, but we were in a state of fear.”

In such cases, the doer participle can be followed with a verb (typically its own), specifying the direct doee. For example:

- (673) [maghazi 28 cited by Marmorstein, M., *Tense and text in Classical Arabic* 138] فَخَرَجْنَا خَائِفِينَ نَخَافُ الرِّصْدَ
 “So we set out afraid, fearing ambush.”
- (674) [893: صحيح البخاري] وَرَزَيْقٌ عَامِلٌ عَلَى أَرْضٍ يَغْمَلُهَا
 “Ruzayq was (in a state of) working on the land, working (i.e. farming) it.”

32.2.2. The doer participle as a dynamic adjectival noun for verbs of posture

Verbs of posture include: جَلَسَ to sit, قَامَ to stand, اِضْطَجَعَ to lie down, etc.

With such verbs, the caseful verb, when used for the present or past, tends to be used only for the habitual tense and not for the continuous tense. So if we say زَيْدٌ يَجْلِسُ then it will usually mean *Zayd sits* and not *Zayd is sitting*.

For the continuous tense, only the doer participle tends to be used. So, in order to say *Zayd is sitting* we will usually say زَيْدٌ جَالِسٌ.

Here are some examples of the doer participle and caseful verb for verbs of posture:

The doer participle for verbs of posture indicating the continuous tense

- (675) [2044a: صحيح مسلم] رَأَيْتُ النَّبِيَّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مُقْعِنًا يَأْكُلُ تَمْرًا
 “I saw the Prophet ﷺ squatting, eating dates.”
- (676) [177a: صحيح مسلم] قَالَ كُنْتُ مُتَكِنًا عِنْدَ عَائِشَةَ
 “I was resting at [the house of] ʿĀʾishah”
- (677) [4605: سنن أبي داود] لَا أَلْفَيْنَ أَحَدَكُمْ مُتَكِنًا عَلَى أَرَبِكَيْهِ ...
 “Let me not find one of you reclining on his couch ...”
- (678) أَنْ أَبَا بَكْرٍ رَضِيَ اللَّهُ عَنْهُ اسْتَأْذَنَ عَلَى رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ مُضْطَجِعٌ
 [514: مسند أحمد] عَلَى فِرَاشِهِ لَا بَسَ مِرْطَ عَائِشَةَ
 “that Abū Bakr sought permission from the Messenger of Allah ﷺ [for entrance in his apartment] while he was **lying** on his bed having on him ʿĀʾishah’s bed-sheet.”
- (679) [564: الأدب المفرد] كُنْتُ جَالِسًا عِنْدَ مُعَاوِيَةَ، فَحَدَّثَ نَفْسَهُ ثُمَّ انْتَبَهَ
 “I was **sitting** with Muʿāwiyah when he [muttered to] himself, then he came to his senses.”
- (680) [2672d: صحيح مسلم] إِنِّي لَجَالِسٌ مَعَ عَبْدِ اللَّهِ وَأَبِي مُوسَى وَهُمَا يَتَخَذَتَانِ
 I was sitting with ʿAbd Allāh and Abū Mūsā while they were talking to each other.
- (681) [2027a: صحيح مسلم] سَقَيْتُ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مِنْ زَمْزَمَ فَشَرِبَ وَهُوَ قَائِمٌ
 I served the Messenger of Allah some Zamzam and he drank (it) while he was **standing**.
- (682) [732a: صحيح مسلم] هَلْ كَانَ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ يُصَلِّي وَهُوَ قَاعِدٌ
 Did the Prophet ﷺ pray while he was **sitting**?

The caseful verb for verbs of posture indicating the habitual tense

- (683) تِلْكَ صَلَاةُ الْمُنَافِقِ يَجْلِسُ يَرْقُبُ الشَّمْسَ حَتَّى إِذَا كَانَتْ بَيْنَ قَرْنَيْ الشَّيْطَانِ قَامَ فَتَقَرَّ
 [160: جامع الترمذي] أَرْبَعًا لَا يَذْكُرُ اللَّهَ فِيهَا إِلَّا قَلِيلًا
 That is the prayer of the hypocrite. He sits watching the sun, until when it is between the horns of the devil he stands and pecks out four (units of prayer), not remembering Allah in them but a little.”
- (684) [53: صحيح البخاري] كُنْتُ أَقْعُدُ مَعَ ابْنِ عَبَّاسٍ، يُجْلِسُنِي عَلَى سَرِيرِهِ
 I used to sit with Ibn ʿAbbās and he would seat me on his couch.
- (685) [918: صحيح البخاري] كَانَ جَذْعٌ يَقُومُ إِلَيْهِ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ
 [There] was a stem (of a date palm) [which] the Prophet ﷺ would stand against.

- (686) وَرَكَعَ رَكْعَتَيْنِ قَبْلَ صَلَاةِ الْفَجْرِ ثُمَّ يَضْطَجِعُ عَلَى شِقِّهِ الْأَيْمَنِ حَتَّى يَأْتِيَهُ الْمُؤَذِّنُ لِلصَّلَاةِ [994: صحيح البخاري]
And he would pray two units [of (sunnah) prayer] before the Fajr prayer, then he **would lie** on his right side until the mu'adhhdhin would come to him for the (obligatory) prayer”

Rarely, the caseful verb has been found to be used to indicate a continuous tense. But in such cases it will likely be in a *hāl* or with an adverb which will help indicate its continuous, rather than habitual, significance. Examples:

- (687) 994: سنن أبي داود [994: سنن أبي داود] أَنَّهُ رَأَى رَجُلًا يَتَكَبَّرُ عَلَى يَدِهِ الْيُسْرَى
that he saw a man **reclining** on his left hand
- (688) 3/429 [tarikh tabari 3/429] رَأَيْتُ عُمَرَ بْنَ الْخَطَّابِ وَهُوَ يَجْلِسُ وَالنَّاسُ مَعَهُ
I saw Eumar ibn al-Khattāb while he [was] **sitting** while the people [were] with him

Transitive verbs of posture

The verbs of posture are usually intransitive verbs, as you can see in the examples so far. But a transitive verb of posture can also be used. For example:

- (689) 5687: سنن النسائي [5687: سنن النسائي] سَأَلْتُ ابْنَ عَبَّاسٍ وَهُوَ مُسْنِدٌ ظَهْرُهُ إِلَى الْكَعْبَةِ عَنِ الْبَاقِ
I asked Ibn Eabbās, while he was leaning his back against the Kaebah, about (a drink called) al-Bādhaq
- (690) 2741: صحيح البخاري [2741: صحيح البخاري] وَقَدْ كُنْتُ مُسْنِدَتَهُ إِلَى صَدْرِي
“I had been leaning him against my chest.”
- (691) 2861: جامع الترمذي [2861: جامع الترمذي] فَبَيَّنَا أَنَا قَاعِدٌ وَرَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مُتَوَسِّدٌ فَخَذِي
So while I was sitting and the Prophet ﷺ [was] using my thigh as a headrest

Other verbs that have similar behavior to the verbs of posture

In addition to verbs of posture, there are a few other verbs that indicate show the same distinction of the doer participle being used for the continuous tense and the caseful verb for the habitual tense. For example: *نام* to sleep, *صام* to fast. The reason that these verbs show the same behavior as verbs of posture may be that the doer is not actively *doing* anything except remaining in a condition. Here are some examples with these verbs:

- (692) 859: صحيح البخاري [859: صحيح البخاري] قُلْنَا لِعَمْرٍو إِنَّ نَاسًا يَقُولُونَ إِنَّ النَّبِيَّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ تَنَامُ عَيْنُهُ وَلَا يَنَامُ قَلْبُهُ
“We said to Eamr: ‘Indeed some people say that the Prophet ﷺ his eye sleeps but his heart does not sleep.’”

- (693) جَاءَتْ مَلَائِكَةٌ إِلَى النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ نَائِمٌ فَقَالَ بَعْضُهُمْ إِنَّهُ نَائِمٌ وَقَالَ
[7281: صحيح البخاري] بَعْضُهُمْ إِنَّ الْعَيْنَ نَائِمَةٌ وَالْقَلْبَ يَقْظَانُ
Some angels came to the Prophet ﷺ while he was sleeping. Some of them
said, “He is sleeping.” Some [others] of them said, “His eye[s] are sleeping
but his heart is awake.”
- (694) [1121d: صحيح مسلم] إِنِّي رَجُلٌ أَصُومُ أَفَاصُومُ فِي السَّفَرِ
“I am a man who [habitually] fasts, so should I fast in journeying?”
- (695) [1101c: صحيح مسلم] سَبَرْنَا مَعَ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ صَائِمٌ
We travelled with the Messenger of Allah ﷺ while he [was] fasting.

32.2.3. The doer participle as a dynamic adjectival noun for verbs of motion

The doer participle is very common with verbs of motion, like: دَهَبَ to go, مَشَى to walk, رَجَعَ to return, سَارَ to travel, etc. The doer participle for these verbs, in its capacity as a dynamic adjectival noun, highlights the situation of being in a move rather than the actual dynamic movement.¹ Here are the examples:

- (696) [485: صحيح البخاري] وَذَلِكَ الْمَسْجِدُ عَلَى حَافَةِ الطَّرِيقِ الْيُمْنَى، وَأُنْتُ ذَاهِبٌ إِلَى مَكَّةَ
And that mosque is on the right edge of the path as you are **going** to Makkah
- (697) [1194: صحيح البخاري] كَانَ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ يَأْتِي قُبَاءَ رَاكِبًا وَمَاشِيًا
The Prophet ﷺ used to come to Qubā' while riding and while walking.
- (698) [3116: سنن النسائي] لَجَقْنِي عَبَايَةُ بْنُ رَافِعٍ وَأَنَا مَاشٍ، إِلَى الْجُمُعَةِ
Ēabāyah ibn Rāfi' joined me while I was **walking** to the jumue'ah
- (699) [2281: سنن النسائي] كُنْتُ مُسَافِرًا فَأَتَيْتُ النَّبِيَّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ يَأْكُلُ وَأَنَا صَائِمٌ
“I was journeying and I came to the Prophet ﷺ while he was eating and I was fasting.”
- (700) [16844: السنن الكبير للبيهقي] تَبَيَّنَا النَّبِيَّ سَائِرًا إِلَى تَبُوكَ نَزَلَ عَنْ رَاحِلَتِهِ
“While the Prophet ﷺ was **travelling** to Tabūk, he dismounted off his mount”
- (701) [16539: مسند أحمد] ثُمَّ أَرَدَقْنِي وَرَاءَهُ عَلَى الْعَصْبَاءِ رَاجِعِينَ إِلَى الْمَدِينَةِ
Then he seated me behind him on (his camel) al-Ēaḍbā' while we [were] returning to al-Madinah
- (702) [953: سنن النسائي] اتَّبَعْتُ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ وَهُوَ رَاكِبٌ
[move to verbs of motion]
“I followed the Messenger of Allah ﷺ when he was **riding**”

¹Marmorstein, M., *Tense and text in Classical Arabic* 127

Unlike verbs of posture and temporary state, verbs of motion are frequently used for the continuous tense. Here are some examples:

- (703) أَذْرَكْنِي أَبُو عَاسٍ وَأَنَا أَذْهَبُ إِلَى الْجُمُعَةِ [907: صحيح البخاري]
 Abū Eās overtook me while I [was] going to the jumueah
- (704) بَيْنَمَا أَنَا أَسِيرُ مَعَ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ بَيْنَ الْجُفْهَةِ وَالْأَبْوَاءِ إِذْ غَشِيَتْنَا رِيحٌ وَظُلْمَةٌ شَدِيدَةٌ [1463: سنن أبي داود] While I was travelling with the Messenger of Allah ﷺ between al-Juhfah and al-'Abwā', suddenly a wind and intense darkness enveloped us

32.2.4. The doer participle as a dynamic adjectival noun with a habitual sense

When the doer participle is used as a dynamic adjectival noun, then it usually has a continuous meaning. However, it can admit a habitual meaning as well. For example:

- (705) زَيْدٌ مُكْرِمٌ ضَيْفَانِهِ [482 دراسات في النحو للزعبلوي] Zayd is an honoring-one to his guests

32.3. The doer participle used to indicate a future event

In addition to its use as a dynamic adjectival noun, the doer participle is used to indicate the future tense.

Here too, the doer participle is used instead of the caseful verb. When a caseful verb is used to indicate a future event, then it merely signifies that the speaker thinks that the doer will take an action. For example, the caseful verb أَذْهَبُ (when used to indicate the future tense) merely signifies the speaker's intention of going some time in the future.

In contrast, when the doer participle is used to indicate the future tense, then it signifies that, in the estimation of the speaker, the event will definitely take place. In other words, the doer's future action is so settled and resolved in the speaker's mind that doer can already be described by the doer participle. So, for example, if the speaker says أَنَا ذَاهِبٌ and the context tells us he is referring to a future action, then the use of the doer participle ذَاهِبٌ instead of the caseful verb يَذْهَبُ, signifies that the speaker is so sure that he will do this action that he can already be described as a "goer".

Here are some examples of the doer participle being used to indicate the future tense:

- (706) وَقَالَ إِنِّي ذَاهِبٌ إِلَى رَبِّي سَيَهْدِينِ [37:99 سورة الصافات] And [then] he said, "Indeed, I will go to [where I am ordered by] my Lord; He will guide me.
- (707) فَهُوَ ذَاهِبٌ وَتَارِكُهُ لِلنَّاسِ [2959a: صحيح مسلم] For he is going to go and leave it for the people.

- (708) [1925: صحيح البخاري] إِنِّي ذَاكِرٌ لَّكَ أَمْرًا
I am going to mention to you a matter.
- (709) جامع الترمذي [2433] سَأَلْتُ النَّبِيَّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ أَنْ يَشْفَعَ لِي يَوْمَ الْقِيَامَةِ فَقَالَ أَنَا فَاعِلٌ
I asked the Prophet ﷺ that he intercede for me on the Day of Resurrection. So he said, "I will do [it]."
- (710) [2:30 سورة البقرة] وَإِذْ قَالَ رَبُّكَ لِلْمَلَائِكَةِ إِنِّي جَاعِلٌ فِي الْأَرْضِ خَلِيفَةً
And [mention, O Muḥammad], when your Lord said to the angels, "Indeed, I will make upon the earth a successive authority."
- (711) [2408d: صحيح مسلم] أَلَا وَإِنِّي تَارِكٌ فِيكُمْ ثَقَلَيْنِ
Unquestionably, I am leaving amongst you two weighty [things]
(In English, "I am leaving s.th." can indicate the future tense.)
- (712) [6158: صحيح البخاري] زَعَمَ ابْنُ أُمِّی أَنَّهُ قَاتِلٌ رَجُلًا قَدْ أَجَرْتُهُ
"My maternal brother claims that he will kill a man whom I have given protection to."
- (713) [27:35 سورة النمل] وَإِنِّي مُرْسِلَةٌ إِلَيْهِمْ بِهَدِيَّةٍ فَنَظِرَةٌ بِمَ يَرْجِعُ الْمُرْسَلُونَ
"But indeed, I will send to them a gift and see with what [reply] the messengers will return."
- (714) [4553: صحيح البخاري] إِنِّي سَأَلْتُ هَذَا عَنِ هَذَا الرَّجُلِ الَّذِي يَزْعُمُ أَنَّهُ نَبِيٌّ
I am going to ask this [person] about this man who claims that he is a prophet.
- (715) [15841: مسند أحمد] وَيُحَكِّ يَا فُلَانُ تَرَى هَذَا كَائِنًا
A mercy on you O so-and-so! Do you think this **will** be?

The use of the doer participle instead of the caseful verb to indicate a future event can also, depending on context, indicate that the event is imminent, i.e. that it is in the very near future. In such cases it can be translated using "be going to". For example:

- (716) وَقَالَ أَبُو جَهْلٍ فَمَا تُرِيدُ هَذَا سَيِّدُ كِنَانَةَ وَهُوَ لَنَا جَارٌ عَلَى مَنْ تَخَلَّفَ فَقَالَ عُتْبَةُ لَا شَيْءَ
[1/38 مغازي الواقدي] cited by Marmorstein, M., *Tense and text in Classical Arabic* 171
Abū Jahl said, "So what do you want? This is the chief of Kinānah and he is for us a protector over who remains behind." So ʿUtbaḥ said, "[I want] nothing. I am going out."

By the way, it is not just the doer participle which is used to indicate an imminent future event. The caseful verb can also be used with this meaning. For example,

- (717) [560a: صحيح مسلم] قَالَتْ أَيَّنَ قَالَ أَصَلِّي قَالَتْ اجْلِسْ قَالَ إِنِّي أَصَلِّي
She said, "Where [are you going]?" He said, "I am going to pray." She said, "Sit!" He said, "Indeed I am going to pray."

The doer participle of verbs of posture and verbs of motion don't have any special behavior when used with a future tense meaning. Examples:

- (718) إِنْ شَاءَ اللَّهُ لَنَقَائِمُ الْعَشِيَّةَ فِي النَّاسِ، فَمُحَذَّرُهُمْ هَؤُلَاءِ الَّذِينَ يُرِيدُونَ أَنْ يَعْصِبُوهُمْ
[6830: صحيح البخاري] أُمُورُهُمْ
I, if Allāh wills, **will stand** tonight amongst the people and **warn** them
about these [people] who want to forcibly seize their affairs.

32.4. The doer participle used to indicate a hypothetical event

The doer participle, is used very commonly in conditional hypothetical clauses with كَانَ. Here are some examples:

- (719) [467: صحيح البخاري] وَلَوْ كُنْتُ مُتَّخِذًا مِنَ النَّاسِ خَلِيلًا لَاتَّخَذْتُ أَبَا بَكْرٍ خَلِيلًا
If I were to take [anyone] from the people as a friend, I would have taken
Abū Bakr as a friend.
- (720) [5185: مسند أحمد] لَوْ كُنْتُ مُصَلِّيًا قَبْلَهَا أَوْ بَعْدَهَا لَاتَّمَمْتُهَا
If I were to pray before it or after it, I would have completed them.
- (721) [صحيح] وَلَوْ كَانَ مُحَمَّدٌ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ كَاتِمًا شَيْئًا مِمَّا أَنْزَلَ عَلَيْهِ لَكَتَمَ هَذِهِ الْآيَةَ
[177b: مسلم]
And if Muḥammad were to conceal anything from what was revealed to
him, he would have concealed this āyah.
- (722) [3708: مسند أحمد] لَوْ كُنْتُ قَاتِلًا رَسُولًا لَصَرَبْتُ أَعْنَاقَكُمْ
If I were a killer of a messenger I would have struck your necks.
- (723) [1159: جامع الترمذي] لَوْ كُنْتُ أَمِيرًا أَحَدًا أَنْ يَسْجُدَ لِأَحَدٍ لِأَمَرْتُ الْمَرْأَةَ أَنْ تَسْجُدَ لِزَوْجِهَا
If I were to order anyone that he prostrate to anyone, I would have ordered
the woman to prostrate to her spouse
- (724) [12289: مسند أحمد] لَوْ كَانَ لَكَ مَا عَلَى الْأَرْضِ مِنْ شَيْءٍ أَكُنْتُ مُفْتَدِيًا بِهِ
If you had everything that is on the earth would you ransom yourself with
it?
- (725) [546: صحيح مسلم] إِنْ كُنْتُ لَا بُدَّ فَاعِلًا فَوَاحِدَةً
If you must do it then (only) once.

The caseful verb is also used in such clauses, but it tends to indicate a hypothetical *current* situation. For example:

- (726) [746a: صحيح مسلم] لَوْ كُنْتُ أَقْرَبُهَا أَوْ أَدْخُلُ عَلَيْهَا لَاتَّبِعُهَا حَتَّى تَشَافِيَنِي بِهِ
If (the current situation were such that) I were nearing her or entering
upon her, I would have come to her so that she would [tell] it to me
face-to-face.

- (727) سورة [39:95] قُلْ لَوْ كَانَ فِي الْأَرْضِ مَلَائِكَةٌ يَمْشُونَ مُطْمَئِنِّينَ لَنَزَّلْنَا عَلَيْهِم مِّنَ السَّمَاءِ مَلَكًا رَسُولًا [17:95] الإسراء

Say, "If there were upon the earth angels walking securely, We would have sent down to them from the heaven an angel [as a] messenger."

- (728) [39:19] سنن ابن ماجه إِنَّ عَبْدَ اللَّهِ رَجُلٌ صَالِحٌ لَوْ كَانَ يُكْثِرُ الصَّلَاةَ مِنَ اللَّيْلِ
Indeed Eabd Allāh is a righteous man, if only he would pray much in the night.

The doer participle can also be used in non-conditional hypothetical sentences (see section (kaana)). For example:

- (729) [1807a] صحيح مسلم يَا سَلَمَةُ أَتَرَكَ كُنْتَ فَاعِلًا
O Salamah, do you think you could do [it]?

- (730) [61] مسند أحمد أَوْكُنْتَ فَاعِلًا ذَاكَ
Would you have done that?

The caseful verb is also used in such sentences. For example:

- (731) [1788] صحيح مسلم أَنْتَ كُنْتَ تَفْعَلُ ذَلِكَ
You would/may have done that

32.5. Interchangeability of the caseful verb and the doer participle

We have described above, the situations when the doer participle is used instead of the caseful verb. We would like to state that these are more like trends rather than hard and fast rules. We sometimes find a caseful verb where an doer participle could have worked, and vice versa.

For the indication of a dynamic state, consider, for instance, example (671) (وَهُوَ مُضْطَجِعٌ عَلَى فِرَاشِهِ لَا بَيْسَ لَابَيْسٍ مِرْطٌ عَائِشَةُ) above and compare it with with example (732) below:

- (732) سنن أبيي فَإِنِّي رَأَيْتُ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ يَلْبِسُ النَّعَالَ الَّتِي لَيْسَ فِيهَا شَعْرٌ [1772] داود
"I have seen the Messenger of Allah ﷺ **wearing** the sandals which don't have hair on them (i.e. tanned)."

Consider also the following two narrations:

- (733) [1747] صحيح مسلم ... وَلَا آخَرَ قَدْ اشْتَرَى عَنَمًا أَوْ خِلْفَاتٍ وَهُوَ مُنْتَظِرٌ وَلَدَهَا
"... nor another who has bought sheep or pregnant she-camels and he is **waiting** for their giving birth"
- (734) [3124] صحيح البخاري ... وَلَا أَحَدٌ اشْتَرَى عَنَمًا أَوْ خِلْفَاتٍ وَهُوَ يَنْتَظِرُ وَلَدَهَا
"... nor one who has bought sheep or pregnant she-camels and he is **waiting** for their giving birth"

Similarly, for the indication of the future tense, contrast example (@ism_fail_going_to_my_lord) with example (735) below:

- (735) **صحيح مسلم** [2310a]
 فَقَالَ يَا أَيُّسَ أَذْهَبْتَ حَيْثُ أَمَرْتُكَ قَالَ قُلْتُ نَعَمْ أَنَا أَذْهَبُ يَا رَسُولَ اللَّهِ
 He said “O Unays, did you go where I commanded you [to go]?” I said,
 “Yes I am going, O Messenger of Allah”

Consider also the following two narrations:

- (736) **صحيح مسلم** [208a]
 أَرَأَيْتُمْ لَوْ أَخْبَرْتُكُمْ أَنَّ خَيْلًا تَخْرُجُ بِسَفْحِ هَذَا الْجَبَلِ أَكُنْتُمْ مُصَدِّقِي
 “Do you think if I were to inform you that there were horsemen emerging
 out of the foot of this mountain, would you **believe** me?”
- (737) **صحيح البخاري** [4972]
 أَرَأَيْتُمْ إِنْ حَدَّثْتُكُمْ أَنَّ الْعَدُوَّ مُصِيبُكُمْ أَوْ مُمْسِيكُمْ، أَكُنْتُمْ تُصَدِّقُونِي
 “Do you think if I told you that an enemy is going to attack you in the
 morning or in the evening, will you **believe** me?”

32.6. The doer participle without **أَل** used with a past significance

We have seen, in the sections above, that the doer participle without **أَل** has a strong correlation with the u-case caseful verb, giving an imperfect meaning. But, the doer participle without **أَل** can also carry the significance of the caseless verb. Such that it can indicate that the doer has completed the action of the verb. As when the doer participle was used in an imperfect sense, here too it can indicate being in a state. Examples:

- (738) **لا آتيك مجرمًا** [Fischer 112]
 I shall not come to you as one who has committed a crime.
 (وَقَدْ أَجْرَمْتُ is here in place of the caseless verb مُجْرِمًا.)
- (739) **صحيح البخاري** [2316]
 جِيءَ بِالنُّعَيْمَانِ أَوْ ابْنِ النُّعَيْمَانِ شَارِبًا
 al-Nuʿaymān or al-Nuʿaymān’s son was brought (in a state of) of having
 drunk (wine).
- (740) **موطأ مالك** [48]
 قَالَ جَابِرٌ فَقَبِينَا أَنَا نَازِلٌ تَحْتَ شَجَرَةٍ إِذَا رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ
 “While I was (resting) dismounted under a tree, the Messenger of Allah
 ﷺ [came].”
- (741) **مسند أحمد** [15147, graded weak by al-ʿArnaʿūti]
 لَوْ كُنْتُ مُتَوَضِّئًا أَكَلْتُهُ
 If I were in a state of having done wuḍūʿ, I would have eaten it.

When used with a caseless significance, then, according to most authorities, the doer participle cannot usually have a direct doer. (See section (ref).)

32.7. The doer participle prefixed with أل

Consider the sentence:

- (742) رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ
I saw the man.

The definite article أل indicates that the listener would know identity of the person who was seen because of his being referred to as a definite entity: الرَّجُلُ the man.

Consider now the sentence:

- (743) رَأَيْتُ الضَّارِبَ
I saw the beater_m.

Now the person who was seen is identified, not by his virtue of being an entity, but because of his being the doer of the verb يَضْرِبُ. In this sense, the noun الضَّارِبَ is similar in meaning to الَّذِي يَضْرِبُ/يَضْرِبُ the one who beat/beats.

Similarly, if we say:

- (744) جَاءَتِ الضَّارِبَةُ
The beater_f came.

then this is similar to saying جَاءَتِ الَّتِي ضَرَبَتْ/تَضْرِبُ The one_f who beat/beats came.

Because of the equivalence of this أل to the connected nouns (الَّذِي, الَّتِي, etc.), this أل, that is prefixed to doer participles (and to deverbal nouns in general) is called the *connected noun* أل. We will learn more about the *connected noun* أل in section (ref).

For now, we note that when the connected noun أل, is prefixed to a deverbal noun then the deverbal noun retains its capability to govern a doer and a a-case governee.

So in example (@) جَاءَتِ الضَّارِبَةُ, the doer participle الضَّارِبَةُ is governing a latent doer pronoun [هِيَ]. And in the following example, the doer participle is also governing a direct doee:

- (745) [601: صحيح مسلم] فَقَالَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مَنْ الْقَائِلُ كَلِمَةً كَذَا وَكَذَا
The Messenger of Allah ﷺ said: "Who is the one who said such and such speech?"

- (746) عَاتَبْتُ الْمُخْلِفَ الْوَعْدَ
I reproved the promise-breaker.

The construction الْوَعْدَ الْمُخْلِفَ can also be converted to a superficial annexation, thus:

- (747) عَاتَبْتُ الْمُخْلِفَ الْوَعْدَ
I reproved the promise-breaker.

When the *connected noun* آل is used with an doer participle, then the doer participle includes the meaning of the verb. So much so, that an actual verb may be conjuncted to the *meaning of the verb* that is included in the doer participle.² For example:

- (748) سورة [إِنَّ الْمُصَّدِّقِينَ وَالْمُصَدِّقَاتِ وَأَقْرَضُوا اللَّهَ قَرْضًا حَسَنًا يُضَاعَفْ لَهُمْ وَلَهُمْ أَجْرٌ كَرِيمٌ
الحديد 57:18]
“Indeed, the men who practice charity and the women who practice charity and [they who] have loaned Allāh a goodly loan - it will be multiplied for them, and they will have a noble reward.”

32.8. The doer participle→entity noun crossover

Sometimes, the doer participle crosses over to be used as an entity noun. When this happens, it loses its purely verbal meaning of the doer of a verb, and signifies only an entity, just like an entity noun. There are two categories of doer participle→entity noun crossovers:

- i. The lexical doer participle→entity noun crossover
- ii. The ad hoc doer participle→entity noun crossover

In reality, these are not completely distinct categories. They more represent a spectrum of meanings. And it can be a judgement call as to which category a particular noun may belong. We will discuss each of these categories in the following sub-sections:

32.8.1. The lexical doer participle→entity noun crossover

The doer participle is from the class of adjectival nouns, not entity nouns. And in terms of its meaning, it has a relatively temporary and incidental meaning when compared to an entity noun. For example the doer participle ضارب *beater* would only be applicable to someone when he is associated with the act of beating. Otherwise he would not be referred to as a ضارب. On the other hand, an entity noun like رجل *man* has a more permanent meaning, that is not associated with any action from him.

Some doer participle's can take on this more permanent meaning of an entity noun. Usually, their meaning will be somewhat distinct from the original doer participle or the verb from which it is derived. Such a doer participle is termed a lexical doer participle→entity noun crossover because its new meaning often deserves a new lexical definition in the dictionary.

For example, the doer participle صاحب (from the verb يَصْحَبُ *to accompany*) is predominantly used as an entity noun to mean *companion*. With this meaning, it can no longer act as a verb-like governor. So it will not have a latent doer pronoun, and it will not govern a direct doee. So we cannot say:

- (749) [العدناني 487 citing دراسات في النحو للزعيلاوي] حَسَامٌ صَاحِبٌ يَاسِرًا ×
Hassām is a companion of Yāsir.

² سورة الحديد for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

Additionally any *أل* that is prefixed to a doer participle→entity noun crossover cannot be the connected noun *أَل*. It will be the regular *أل* that is prefixed to entity nouns.³ So when it is the annexed noun in an annexation then it must be a real annexation, and the *أل* is dropped.

So we will say:

(750) [العدناني 487 citing دراسات في النحو للزعلابوي] *صَحِبَ حَسَّامٌ يَاسِرًا فَهُوَ صَاحِبُهُ*
Hassām accompanied Yāsir so he is his companion.

With regard to their plurals, the default behavior for the doer participle, especially when used with a verbal meaning, is to have a sound plural. But when the doer participle crosses-over to a entity noun then it is more likely to have a broken plural.⁴

Here are some examples of entity nouns from cross-over doer participles:

entity noun	meaning	plural	verb
صَاحِب	a companion	أَصْحَاب	صَحِبَ يَصْحَبُ to accompany
سَائِل	a beggar	سُؤَال, سَائِلَة	سَأَلَ يَسْأَلُ to ask
عَالِم	a scholar	غُلَمَاء	عَلَّمَ يَعْلَمُ to know
قَاضِي	a judge	قُضَاة	قَضَى يَقْضِي to decree
كَاتِب	a scribe	كُتَّابَة	كَتَبَ يَكْتُبُ to write
شَاعِر	a poet	شُعْرَاء	شَعَرَ يَشْعُرُ to be aware
بَالِغ	a legally mature person	بَالِغُونَ	بَلَغَ يَبْلُغُ to reach
مُصِيبَة	a calamity	مُضَائِب	أَصَابَ يَصِيبُ to strike
جَارِيَة	a girl	جَوَار	جَرَى يَجْرِي to run
طَالِب	a student	طُلَّاب, طَلَبَة	طَلَبَ يَطْلُبُ to seek
شَارِب	a moustache	شَوَارِب	شَرَبَ يَشْرَبُ to drink
سَاجِل	a shore	سَوَاجِل	سَخَلَ يَسْخُلُ to abrade
جَامِع	a large mosque	جَوَامِع	جَمَعَ يَجْمَعُ to gather
جَامِعَة	a university	جَامِعَات	جَمَعَ يَجْمَعُ to gather
قَائِمَة	a leg (of a beast, furniture)	قَوَائِم	قَامَ يَقُومُ to stand
وَارِث	an heir	وَرَثَات, وَرَثَة	وَرِثَ يَرِثُ to inherit
وَالِد	a parent	وَالِدُونَ	وَلَدَ يَلِدُ to beget (offspring)
حَامِل	a carrier	حَمَلَة	حَمَلَ يَحْمِلُ to carry
قَارِئ	a reciter	قُرَّاء	قَرَأَ يَقْرَأُ to read, recite
مُعَلِّم	a teacher	مُعَلِّمُونَ	عَلَّمَ يَعْلَمُ to teach

When the doer participle that has crossed over to a entity noun refers to human beings, then often, but not always, a feminine version of the crossed over entity noun will also exist, with a *ة*. So *صَاحِبَة* is a female companion, *وَالِدَة*

³ 484 دراسات في النحو للزعلابوي

⁴ 503 السيوطي citing دراسات في النحو للزعلابوي

is a female parent, etc. Sometimes, however, the entity noun exists for only one gender and not for the other, e.g. جَارِيَةٌ *a girl*. Also sometimes, the same entity noun is used for both genders, e.g. بَالِغٌ *a legally mature person*. So we will say:

- (751) [1/136 المذكر والمؤنث لابن الأنباري] رجل بالغٌ، وامرأة بالغ
A legally mature man and a legally mature woman

There is often some flexibility in these cases, so بَالِغَةٌ can also be used for a female legally mature person. The dictionary is the best guide in these matters.

Recall from section (ref) that the *ø* that exists in a feminine doer participle is because of its latent doer pronoun. So when we say هِنْدٌ قَائِمَةٌ *Hind is standing* then the *ø* in هِنْدٌ is to match its latent doer pronoun [هي] that refers to هِنْدٌ. But the *ø* that exists in a doer participle→entity noun crossover is no longer because of a latent doer pronoun. This is because, as mentioned previously, the doer participle→entity noun crossover is not a verb-like governor, so it will not govern a latent doer pronoun. So the *ø* in the doer participle→entity noun crossovers صَاحِبَةٌ *female companion* and وَالِدَةٌ *female parent* is a fixed feminine marker, just like the *ø* in any other feminine entity noun, e.g. شَجَرَةٌ *tree*, امْرَأَةٌ *woman*, etc.

Additionally, once a doer participle has crossed over to a entity noun, then like all entity nouns, it loses its genderizability. So we cannot add or remove a feminine marker (like *ø*) at will. For example, if we wish to say *The building is a university*, then we will say

- (752) الْبِنَاءُ جَامِعَةٌ
The building is a university.

We cannot remove *ø* from جَامِعَةٌ in order to match the gender of الْبِنَاءُ. If we do so then the meaning will be:

- (753) الْبِنَاءُ جَامِعٌ
The building is a large mosque.

In this case, جَامِعٌ happens to exist as another doer participle→entity noun crossover. So example () is a valid sentence, but with a different meaning than intended.

Sometimes it can be difficult to tell whether a noun from this category is an doer participle with its original meaning, or one that has crossed over to a entity noun. If you find that it is used independently (in meaning) without referring to an (implicit or explicit) referent, then it is likely that it is a doer participle→entity noun crossover. Another clue is that it is used with a broken plural.⁵ But broken plurals may be used for governing doer participles as well (as we saw in section (ref)) so this isn't a definitive indicator. A more reliable indicator is whether it is made definite by being annexed to a definite annexed-to noun in a real annexation. Here are some examples:

- (754) [503 دراسات في النحو للزعلوي] هؤلاء حملة الأقلام
*These are **the** carriers of the pens.*

⁵ 503 دراسات في النحو للزعلوي

- (755) وَمَنْ تَرَكَ مَالًا فَلِوَرَثَتِهِ وَأَنَا وَارِثٌ مَنْ لَا وَارِثَ لَهُ أَغِقِلْ لَهُ وَارِثُهُ وَالْحَالُ وَارِثٌ مَنْ لَا وَارِثَ
 [2899: سنن أبي داود] لَهُ يَغِقِلْ عَنْهُ وَيَرِثُهُ
 Whoever leaves wealth then [it is] for his heirs. And I am **the heir** of he who has no heir, paying blood-wit for him and inheriting from him. And the maternal uncle is the heir of he who has no heir, paying blood-wit for him and inheriting from him.

Another possible indicator is whether the doer participle as an info mismatches in gender with the subject. For example:

- (756) الْعُودُ قَائِمَةٌ
 The stick is a leg (of some furniture or other structure).
 (If the doer participle was intended, then we would say الْعُودُ قَائِمٌ The stick is standing.)

But this isn't always reliable because the subject may match in gender with the doer participle→entity noun crossover anyway. For example:

- (757) الْعَصَا قَائِمَةٌ
 The stick is a leg.
 or The stick is standing.
 (عَصَا is a feminine noun.)

Another indicator also whether the singular feminine of the doer participle is used as a info or attribute for non-intelligent beings. For example:

- (758) الْأَعْوَادُ قَائِمَةٌ
 The sticks are standing.

In the above example قَائِمَةٌ is likely to be an doer participle. (By the way, a entity noun reading is also possible: *the sticks (collectively) are a leg.*) But if we say:

- (759) الْأَعْوَادُ قَوَائِمٌ
 The sticks are legs.

then قَوَائِمٌ is more likely to be a entity noun. Context is a useful guide here.

32.8.2. The ad hoc doer participle→entity noun crossover

This second category consists of doer participles that are made entity nouns on an ad hoc basis. That is, the dictionary will typically not list the doer participle (for this category of meaning) separately for any distinct meaning.

Th ad hoc doer participle→entity noun crossover is routinely formed for doer participles that signify the action of a perfect verb. This is especially done when the doer participle of the perfect action is to be the annexed noun in a (now real) annexation.

So for example, if someone has done the action of beating, then he can be described as a ضَارِبٌ. Now, if we wish to refer to this specific person, we have a choice: Either we can use the connected noun آل or we can use the regular

أل. Either way, the word will look the same: الضَّارِب. But its meaning will be slightly different.

In the case of the connected noun أل, we are defining the person based on an action of beating that he did. الضَّارِب, in this case, remains a doer participle.

And in the case of the regular أل, we are defining him by virtue of his entity. Just like we would say الرَّجُل *the man*, الْمَرْأَة *the woman*, etc. الضَّارِب, in this case, becomes an entity noun.

Either of these can generally be used when describing the definite doer of a perfect verb. When the semantic direct doer of the verb is mentioned, then the doer participle الضَّارِب retains its أل and governs the semantic direct doer in the a-case. For example:

- (760) هَذَا الضَّارِبُ زَيْدًا أَمْسَ [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 4/100; 2/265 في الأصول في النحو لابن السراج]
This [person] [was] the one who beat Zayd yesterday
 (الضَّارِب is a doer participle governing a latent doer pronoun and a direct doer.)

But the entity noun الضَّارِب cannot govern a direct doer and so it has to be annexed to the semantic direct doer in a real annexation. So we will say:

- (761) هَذَا ضَارِبٌ زَيْدٍ أَمْسَ [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 4/32; 3/171 معاني النحو citing الزجاجي]
This [person] [was] the beater of Zayd yesterday
 (ضَارِب is an entity noun in a real annexation.)

In theory, if the speaker intends to define the person by his being the doer of the verb ضَرَب, then he would use example (760).⁶ And if the speaker intends to define the person by virtue of his entity then he would use example (761).

But in practice, they are often (but not always) close enough in meaning that they can be used interchangeably. Here is another example:

- (762) مَنْ قَاتِلُهَا فَقَالَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ ﷺ [مسند أحمد 7060]
The Messenger of Allah ﷺ said: "Who is the sayer of it?"
 Compare with example (745) مَنْ الْقَاتِلُ كَذَا وَكَذَا above.

32.8.3. The doer participle→entity noun crossover as an attribute

Once an doer participle has crossed over to an entity noun, it can still be used as an attribute. This is because the doer participle→entity noun crossover still signifies its verbal meaning to some degree. So, for example, ضَارِب, even once it has crossed over to an entity noun still signifies its verbal meaning of being a one who beats. But because it is now an entity noun, it will lose its أل when it is an annexed noun. Consider the following example:

- (763) مررت بزيد ضارب عمر [المقتضب للمبرد 4/149]
I passed by the beater-of-Eamr Zayd

See also the tafsirs of:

⁶ 2/265 في الأصول في النحو لابن السراج

- (764) [1:4 سورة الفاتحة] مَلِكِ يَوْمِ الدِّينِ (764)
Sovereign of the Day of Recompense.

- (765) الْحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ فَاطِرِ السَّمَوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ جَاعِلِ الْمَلَكِةِ رُسُلًا أُولَٰئِكَ أَجْنَحَةٌ مِّثْلَىٰ وَثُلَاثَ ۖ وَرُبَّمَا ۚ
 [35:1 سورة فاطر] (765)
[All] praise is [due] to Allāh, Creator of the heavens and the earth, [who] made the angels messengers having wings, two or three or four.

32.8.4. The doer participle→entity noun crossover of doubly transitive verb

As we have mentioned, when an doer participle crosses over to a entity noun, then it cannot govern a doer or an a-case governee like a direct doee. But an exception is made for the doer participle of transitive verb that has two direct does. When an doer participle of such a verb is used with a perfect meaning (as a entity noun) in a real annexation, then it's first semantic direct doee is made into the annexed-to noun but it's second direct doee remains in the a-case. We mentioned this already in section (ref) and gave the following example:

- (766) [3/78 شرح التسهيل لابن مالك] هذا معطي زيد أمس درهمًا (766)
This [person] was the giver of Zayd, yesterday, a dirham.

32.8.5. An doer participle can co-exist with its doer participle→entity noun crossovers

When a cross-over entity noun exists, it does not mean that the original doer participle meaning has ceased to exist. Both can continue to exist and context will clue us in as to which meaning is intended. For example, بَالِغ is used as an doer participle here:

- (225) [5:95 سورة المائدة] هَذِبًا بَالِغَ الْكَعْبَةِ (225)
as an offering [to Allāh] delivered to the Ka'bah

For some cross-over entity nouns, however, the entity noun usage is predominant and the original doer participle meaning is virtually non-existent. Such is the case for صَاحِب a companion and وَالِد a parent.⁷

32.9. Eligibility to be described with the doer participle

Theoretically, anyone who is the doer of a verb can be described with its doer participle. So, for example, any person who is the doer of the verb قَرَأَ, even once, can be called a قَارِئ. And from context it will be understood that the person is being called a قَارِئ within the situation of a certain reading or recitation. Here are some examples:

⁷ سيبويه 488 citing دراسات في النحو للزعبلاني

- (767) أَنَّ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ صَلَّى الظُّهْرَ فَجَعَلَ رَجُلٌ يَقْرَأُ خَلْفَهُ بِسَبِّحِ اسْمَ رَبِّكَ [398b: صحيح مسلم] الْأَعْلَى فَلَمَّا انْصَرَفَ قَالَ أَيُّكُمْ قَرَأَ أَوْ أَيُّكُمْ الْقَارِئُ

that the Messenger of Allah ﷺ prayed the *ḏhuhr* prayer, and a man began to recite behind him [*sūrat al-A'elā*]. When [the Prophet ﷺ concluded the prayer and] turned around, he said: "Which of you recited?" or "Which of you [was] the reciter?"

- (768) [5042: صحيح البخاري] سَمِعَ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ قَارِئًا يَقْرَأُ مِنَ اللَّيْلِ فِي الْمَسْجِدِ
The Prophet ﷺ heard a **reciter** reciting the *Qur'ān* in the mosque at night.

Having said that, the doer participle is a noun. And a noun, by its very nature, signifies a more permanence and constancy in its meaning than a verb. So there can be scenarios where being described by an doer participle can have a higher bar of eligibility than simply being the doer of a verb. Consider for example سورة الكافرون:

قُلْ يٰٓأَيُّهَا الْكٰفِرُوْنَ ۖ لَا اَعْبُدُ مَا تَعْبُدُوْنَ ۖ وَلَا اَنْتُمْ عٰبِدُوْنَ مَا اَعْبُدُ ۖ وَلَا اَنَا عٰبِدُ مَا عٰبَدْتُمْ ۖ وَلَا اَنْتُمْ عٰبِدُوْنَ مَا اَعْبُدُ ۖ لَكُمْ دِيْنُكُمْ وَلِيَ دِيْنِ ۖ

[سورة الكافرون]

Say, "O disbelievers, I do not worship what you worship. Nor are you worshippers of what I worship. Nor will I be a worshipper of what you worship. Nor will you be worshippers of what I worship. For you is your religion, and for me is my religion."

Ibn al-Qayyim says, in the tafsir of this *sūrah*:

Negation isn't employed for [the disbelievers] except by the doer participle. And for [the Prophet ﷺ], **negation** is employed once using the verb, and once using the doer participle.

And this is – and Allāh knows best – due to a marvelous wisdom, which is that the greater objective is [the Prophet's ﷺ] disassociation from their gods from every perspective and in every [instance of] time. So [the Prophet ﷺ, in speaking to the disbelievers with the words of the revealed *sūrah*], used first the verb [أَعْبُدُ], which signifies dynamic occurrence, and then used for this same negation the doer participle [عَابِدُ] in the second instance, i.e. "This [worshipping of what you worship] is not my description nor my state of affairs." [This is] as if he had said: "Worshipping other than Allāh will not be an verbal action of mine, nor a description of mine." Thus he used two negations for two negated items [a verbal action, and a description], that are intended by the negation.

As for [the negation used for the disbelievers], he used only the doer participle [عَابِدُونَ], which signifies the description [of its referent by the doer participle] and the stability [of this description], i.e. "The stable, requisite, description [of being a worshipper] of Allāh is negated from you. For this description cannot be established for you. It is only established for the one who singles out Allāh exclusively for worship, and then does not associate anyone with Him. But

you, because you have worshipped other than Him, are not from His worshippers.” Even if they may have worshipped Allāh some of the time. For the polytheist worships Allāh and worships, with Him, others besides Him. Just like the People of the Cave said: *And when you have withdrawn from them and that which they worship other than Allāh* [سورة الكهف 18:16] i.e., “you have withdrawn from their gods excluding Allāh, for you have not withdrawn from Him.” And similarly did the polytheists say regarding their gods: “*We only worship them that they may bring us nearer to Allāh in position.*” [سورة الزمر 39:3]. Thus they used to worship, with Him, others besides Him. So the verb [عَبَدَ يَعْْبُدُ] is not negated from them because of its occurrence from them. But the description [عَابِد] is negated because whoever worshipped other than Allāh is not established on the worship of Allāh, and is not described by [being a worshipper of Allāh].⁸

32.10. Verbs for which the doer participle is rarely used

32.10.1. The doer participle for stative verbs

Technically, an doer participle can be formed from any verb.⁹ For form 1 verbs, it will always be on the pattern فَاعِل. However, there are some *stative* verbs whose doer participles are rarely used.

These are verbs which indicate only being in a static state, with virtually no dynamic action. The meaning signified is usually (but not exclusively) an innate permanent quality. For such verbs, their static adjectival nouns (see chapter (ref)) are generally used instead of their doer participles. The following table lists some such verbs, along with their rarely used doer participles, and their commonly used static adjectival nouns.

verb	meaning	doer participle	static adjectival noun
كَرَّمَ	to be noble, generous	كَارِم	كَرِيم noble, generous
بَخَلَ	to be stingy	بَاخِل	بَخِيل stingy
فَرَحَ	to be joyous	فَارِح	فَرِح joyous
ضَاقَ	to be narrow	ضَائِق	ضَيِّق narrow
حَسَنَ	to be handsome	حَاسِن	حَسَن handsome

Nevertheless, the doer participles for such verbs can be used, on occasion, to indicate a incidental dynamic state that has only temporarily occurred. As opposed to the more permanent static state that the static adjectival noun would signify.¹⁰ For example:

⁸ سورة الكافرون for تفسير ابن القيم 109:6

⁹ النحو الوافي 3/242

¹⁰ النحو الوافي 3/240 footnote 3; النحو الوافي 3/292

فَلَعَلَّكَ تَارِكٌ بَعْضَ مَا يُوحَىٰ إِلَيْكَ وَضَائِقٌ بِهِ صَدْرُكَ أَنْ يَقُولُوا لَوْلَا أُنزِلَ عَلَيْهِ كُتُبٌ أَوْ

(769) *فَلَعَلَّكَ تَارِكٌ بَعْضَ مَا يُوحَىٰ إِلَيْكَ وَضَائِقٌ بِهِ صَدْرُكَ أَنْ يَقُولُوا لَوْلَا أُنزِلَ عَلَيْهِ كُتُبٌ أَوْ*
 3/240 footnote 3 cited by النحو الوافي [سورة هود 11:12] *جَاءَ مَعَهُ مَلَكٌ*
Then would you possibly leave [out] some of what is revealed to you, or is your breast constrained by it because they say, "Why has there not been sent down to him a treasure or come with him an angel?"

According to the commentary on this āyah, ضَائِقٌ is used in place of he more commonly used ضَيِّقٌ to indicate a temporary constrictedness.¹¹

32.10.2. The doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover

Sometimes, for stative verbs like the above what would appear to be an doer participle is very commonly used. But actually, these usages are from the class of doer participle→static adjectival noun crossovers. Here are some examples:

verb	meaning	doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover
عَدَلَ	to be just	عَادِلٌ just
بَسَلَ	to be courageous	بَاسِلٌ courageous
صَلَحَ	to be righteous	صَالِحٌ righteous
رَبَحَ	to be profitable	رَابِحٌ profitable
نَعَمَ	to be soft	نَاعِمٌ soft

We will study this category in more detail in section (ref), if Allāh wills.

32.10.3. Verbs for which the doer participle is rarely used in place of the caseful verb

The doer participle is also not found used in place of a caseful verb for various other classes of verbs, including verbs that indicate mental states, perception, or action.¹² Such verbs include رَأَى to see, رَجَا to hope, أَرَادَ to want, and others. For such verbs, only the verb is typically used when the meaning of the verb is needed. Nevertheless, the doer participle for such verbs has been found to be used on occasion. Examples:

(770) *تَارِيخُ الطَّبَرِيِّ* [أَنَّ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ ص لَمَّا انْصَرَفَ مِنَ الطَّائِفِ مُرِيدًا مَكَّةَ مَرَّ بِهِ بَعْضُ أَهْلِ مَكَّةَ
 2/347 cited by Waltisberg, M., *Satzkomplex und funktion* 293]

that the Messenger of Allah, when he departed from al-Tā'if intending (as his destination) Makkah, one of the people of Makkah passed by him.

(771) *صَحِيحُ الْبُخَارِيِّ* [أَرَانِي اللَّيْلَةَ عِنْدَ الْكَعْبَةِ فَرَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا آدَمَ كَأَحْسَنِ مَا أَنْتَ رَأَيْ مِنْ آدَمَ الرَّجَالِ
 :6999]

¹¹ سورة للكشاف للزمخشري and others; شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل cited by النحو الوافي 3/240 footnote 3 cited by النحو الوافي 11:12

¹² See Marmorstein, M., *Tense and text in Classical Arabic* 124

I saw myself (in a dream) near the Ka'bah last night, and I saw a man with whitish red complexion, the best you may see amongst men of that complexion.

The doer participle of such verbs may also freely be used when its essential "doer" meaning is intended. For example:

- (772) [210: سنن الدارمي] وَكَمْ مِنْ مُرِيدٍ لِلْخَيْرِ لَنْ يُصِيبَهُ
How many of an intender of goodness shall not achieve it.

32.11. Further reading

1. Fischer §201–§204, pp. 111–113.
2. Kinberg, N., *Semi-imperfectives and imperfectives: A case study of aspect and tense in Arabic participial clauses*
3. Marmorstein, M., *Tense and text in Classical Arabic*
4. Odilavdze, N., *Western scholars' opinions on rendering the tense by means of the participle in Arabic*
5. Owens, J., and M. Yavrumyan, *The participle*
6. van Putten, M., *The morphosyntax of objects to participles in the Qur'ān*
7. Waltisberg, M., *Satzkomplex und funktion*
8. Wright, vol. ii, §30–§31 pp. 63–69, §72–§74 pp. 194–198.
9. Youssef, Z., *Das partizip im Arabischen*
10. دراسات في النحو للزعبلاني pp. 480–525.
11. معاني النحو 3/170ff.
12. النحو الوافي 3/240 footnote 3, 3/241, 3/292ff.
13. دلالة سياق اسم الفاعل في الحديث النبوي الشريف صحيح مسلم أنموذجاً لشادي محمد جميل عايش
14. تحرير اسم الفاعل من مزاعم المجازاة لحامد علي أبو صعيلىك

Work in progress

Chapter 33.

The static adjectival noun

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

33.1. Introduction

The static adjectival noun is a deverbal noun. The static adjectival noun is called as such because it assigns an adjectival quality to its referent *statically*, i.e. without any aspect of the progression of time. **حسن** *handsome, good* is an example of a static adjectival noun.

We saw in chapter (ref) that the doer participle can be used as a *dynamic* adjectival noun because it can signify an adjectival quality along with signifying the progression of time.¹ In this sense, the doer participle is the closest of the adjectival nouns to the verb.

The static adjectival noun, although not as close to the verb as the doer participle, can also govern in a manner which is similar (but not quite exactly the same) as the governing of the doer participle. In this chapter, we will explore its significance and its ability to govern in a verb-like manner.

33.2. The forms of the static adjectival noun

The static adjectival noun comes in various forms. We will list the most common of them²:

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern **فَعِل**

¹See also Abdel-Ghani, *Conditional sentences within the Arab grammatical tradition* 48 footnote 2

²The following list is taken mostly from النحو الوافي 3/285ff

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
فَرَحَ	<i>to be joyous</i>	فَرَحٌ	<i>joyous</i>
حَزَنَ	<i>to be sad</i>	حَزَنٌ	<i>sad</i>
حَذَرَ	<i>to be precautious</i>	حَذَرٌ	<i>precautious</i>
تَعَبَ	<i>to be tired</i>	تَعَبٌ	<i>tired</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فُعْلَان

Feminine: usually فُعْلَى

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
عَطَشَ	<i>to be thirsty</i>	عَطَشَانٌ	<i>thirsty</i>
طَمِئَ	<i>to be thirsty</i>	طَمَّانٌ	<i>thirsty</i>
شَبِعَ	<i>to be sated</i>	شَبِعَانٌ	<i>sated</i>
يَقَظَ	<i>to be awake</i>	يَقَظَانٌ	<i>awake</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern أَفْعَل

Feminine: فُعْلَاء

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
حَمَرَ	<i>to be red</i>	أَحْمَرٌ	<i>red</i>
خَضَرَ	<i>to be green</i>	أَخْضَرٌ	<i>green</i>
عَرَجَ	<i>to be lame</i>	أَعْرَجٌ	<i>lame</i>
حَوَرَ	<i>to be big-eyed</i>	أَحْوَرٌ	<i>big-eyed</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فَعِيل

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
شَرَّفَ	<i>to be noble</i>	شَرِيفٌ	<i>noble</i>
قَبَحَ	<i>to be ugly</i>	قَبِيحٌ	<i>ugly</i>
بَخَلَ	<i>to be stingy</i>	بَخِيلٌ	<i>stingy</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فُعْل

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
صَعَّبَ	<i>to be difficult</i>	صَعْبٌ	<i>difficult</i>
صَحَّمَ	<i>to be large</i>	صَحْمٌ	<i>large</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فُعَال

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
جَبَنَ	<i>to be cowardly</i>	جَبَانٌ	<i>cowardly</i>
حَصَّنَ	<i>to be chaste</i>	حَصَانٌ	<i>chaste</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فُعَالٌ

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
شَجَعَ	<i>to be brave</i>	شُجَاعٌ	<i>brave</i>
فُرَّتْ	<i>to be sweet</i>	فُرَاتٌ	<i>sweet</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فُعَل

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
صَلَّبَ	<i>to be hard (rigid)</i>	صَلْبٌ	<i>hard (rigid)</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فُعَلٌ

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
مَلَحَ	<i>to be salty</i>	مِلْحٌ	<i>salty</i>

Static adjectival noun's on the pattern فُعِيل

verb	meaning	static adjectival noun	meaning
مَاتَ	<i>to die</i>	مَيِّتٌ	<i>dead, dying</i>

33.3. The static adjectival noun as the governor of a latent doer pronoun

Just like the doer participle, the static adjectival noun will, by default, govern a latent doer pronoun.³ Consider the following examples:

- (773) 161 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [مررت بامرأة حسنة]
I passed by a handsome woman.
 (حسنة has a latent doer pronoun implicated as هي.)
- (774) 161 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [مررت برجلين حسنين]
I passed by two handsome men.
 (هما has a latent doer pronoun implicated as هما.)

33.4. The static adjectival noun as the governor of a sababi overt doer

TODO: sifah should be valid for both genders if mismatch. Also for ism_fail like murDi3. Add forward reference to ism_fail chapter. [النحو الوافي 3/303-304]

Similar to the doer participle the static adjectival noun can govern a overt doer. So we can say:

- (775) 1077 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع [مررت برجل حسن وجهه]
 (776) 1077 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع [مررت برجلين حسن أبواهما]
 (777) 1077 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع [مررت برجال حسن آباؤهم]
 (778) الرجال كريمة أمهاتهم
 (779) رأيت الرجال الكريمة أمهاتهم

Also similar to the doer participle, when static adjectival noun's doer is a broken plural (as in example () above هم (آباؤهم)), then the static adjectival noun is permitted, and preferred, to also be a broken plural.⁴

So we can say:

- (780) 1077 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع [مررت برجال حسان آباؤهم]
 (781) [النحو الوافي 3/453] هؤلاء زملاء كرام آباؤهم

But if the doer of the static adjectival noun is a sound plural, then it is preferred that the static adjectival noun remain singular. Examples:

- (782) [النحو الوافي 3/454] هؤلاء زملاء كريم والدوهم
 (783) [النحو الوافي 3/454] هؤلاء زميلات كريمة والداتهن

³ 161 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

⁴ 288 شرح قطر الندى وبل الصدى; fawzan_sharh_qatr 248; 3/453-454 النحو الوافي

By the way, when the static adjectival noun is a attribute, then instead of using a sababi na3t (as in examples () above), we can use a sentence attribute. So instead of saying *مررت برجل حسن وجهه*, we can say:

(784) [1076 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] مررت برجل حسن وجهه

Now the attribute is the sentence *حسن وجهه handsome, his face is*. *حسن* in this sentence is a fronted info.

The static adjectival noun cannot govern a non-sababi overt doer

In section (ref) above, we saw that an doer participle can govern a non-sababi overt doer. Unlike the doer participle the static adjectival noun can only govern a sababi overt doer. So we cannot say:

(785) [1075 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] مررت برجل حسن عمرو في داره ×
I passed a man [whom] *Emr* was handsome in his house.

33.5. The static adjectival noun in a superficial annexation

Like the doer participle, the static adjectival noun forms a superficial annexation with its governee. In section (ref), we learned that the doer participle forms a superficial annexation between the doer participle and its semantic direct doee. The static adjectival noun is typically from an intransitive verb. so it will not have a direct doee. Instead, it forms a superficial annexation in two ways:

- i. A superficial annexation between the static adjectival noun and its semantic doer.
- ii. A superficial annexation between the static adjectival noun and its tamyiz.

33.5.1. Superficial annexation between the static adjectival noun and its semantic doer

The static adjectival noun can form a superficial annexation between the static adjectival noun and its semantic doer. It does this by first transforming its doer into a *direct doee-like* governee. Wil will explaining this process below:

Consider the sentence:

(786) [1077 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] مررت برجل حسن وجهه

In this sentence, the static adjectival noun has a definite sababi doer *وجهه*. This sentence is transformed in the following manner⁵:

First step of the transformation

Firstly, the annexed-to noun *ه* in *وجهه* is transferred to being a latent doer pronoun of the static adjectival noun *حسن*.

⁵ 1080 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع

Second step of the transformation

Secondly, وجه, with its annexed-to noun ه eliminated, is made into الوجه to keep it definite (to match وجهه which was also definite).

Now that the static adjectival noun حسن already has a doer (its latent doer pronoun هو), the noun الوجه cannot be its doer. So it is made into what we will call a *direct doee-like governee*. So it is put into the a-case thus: أَلَوْجَةُ.

We call أَلَوْجَةُ a direct doee-like governee, and not a true direct doee because, in meaning, it is still the doer of the static adjectival noun حسن. The static adjectival noun حسن is derived from an intransitive verb حَسَنَ which does not take a direct doee.

With this transformation, the sentence becomes:

(787) البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] مررت برجل حسن الوجه (787)

It is important to note that this transformation affects only the syntax of the sentence, but not its meaning. The static adjectival noun حسن is still describing a quality of الوجه, not رجل.

But now that الوجه is not syntactically the doer of the static adjectival noun, the static adjectival noun match its syntactic referent رجل in gender and number, not its semantic doer الوجه. So we will say:

(788) مررت برجلين حسنين الوجهين

(789) مررت برجال حسان الوجوه

(790) مررت بمرأة حسنة الوجه

(791) مررت بمرأتين حسنتين الوجهين

Remember, that it الوجه were syntactically the doer, then we would have said instead:

(792) مررت برجلين حسنين وجهاهما

(793) مررت بمرأة حسن وجهها

etc.

The transformation that we have described above works exactly the same for definite static adjectival nouns. So we will say:

(794) مررت بالرجل الحسن الوجه

(795) جاءت المرأتان الحسنتان الوجهين

etc.

Final step of the transformation

A sentence with a direct doee-like governee, like in example () مررت برجل حسن above, while grammatically correct, is rarely used in practice.⁶ The main purpose of the direct doee-like governee is that it is used as an intermediate step for the final step of the transformation: and that is into a superficial annexation⁷ This is done by converting the direct doee-like governee into a syntactic annexed-to noun.

Lets start with static adjectival nouns with their direct doee-like governees:

- Indefinite static adjectival noun: حَسَنُ الْوَجْهَةِ
- Definite static adjectival noun: الْحَسَنُ الْوَجْهَةِ

The a-case direct doee-like governees are converted into annexed-to nouns in the i-case:

- Indefinite static adjectival noun: حَسَنُ الْوَجْهِ
- Definite static adjectival noun: الْحَسَنُ الْوَجْهِ

Here are some examples using this superficial annexation:

(796) مررت برجل حسن الوجه [1078, 1081 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع]

(797) جاء الرجل الحسن الوجه

Note that, because الوجه is a a-case governee, and not the doer, of the static adjectival noun, therefore, the static adjectival noun is feminized, dualized, or pluralized to match its referent, not الوجه. Examples:

(798) 3/439 شرح الرضي على الكافية] هند حسنة الوجه

(799) 3/439 شرح الرضي على الكافية] الزيدان حسنا الوجهين

(800) 3/439 شرح الرضي على الكافية] الزيدون حسنو الوجوه

33.6. The static adjectival noun with a tamyīz

Remember from section (ref), that the tamyīz is a a-case governee that specifies the scope of its governor. As a verb-like noun, the static adjectival noun can govern a tamyīz. So we can say, for example:

(801) 1080 البسيط لابن أبي الربيع] مررت برجل حسن وجهًا

(802) جاءت المرأة الحسنه وجهًا

(803) 9/241 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان] الزيدون حسنون وجوها

⁶ 166 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

⁷ 167 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

33.6.1. Superficial annexation of the static adjectival noun with a tamyīz

As with the static adjectival noun that has a direct doee-like governee, the static adjectival noun with a tamyīz also can also form a superficial annexation.

So *حَسَنٌ وَجْهًا* will become:

(804) [171 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي] *حَسَنٌ وَجْهٌ*

Again, the static adjectival noun will match its referent in gender and number. So, for example, we will say:

(805) [9/227 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان] *هم حسنو وجوه*

Unlike, the static adjectival noun with a direct doee-like governee, a static adjectival noun prefixed by *الـ* with a tamyīz does not form a superficial annexation. This is because a definite annexed noun with an indefinite annexed-to noun is fundamentally inconsistent with an annexation construction.⁸ {cite} So *الْحَسَنُ وَجْهًا*, however, does not form a superficial annexation to become:

(806) [169 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي] *الحسنُ وجهٌ* ×

Finally, whereas the static adjectival noun with its direct doee-like governee (e.g. *حَسَنُ الْوَجْهَةِ*) is pretty much only used as an intermediate step to form a superficial annexation, such is not the case for the static adjectival noun with a tamyīz. The static adjectival noun with a tamyīz can be used, as is, without converting it into a superficial annexation.⁹

33.7. The word order of the static adjectival noun and its a-case governee

Recall from section (ref) above that the a-case governee of a doer participle is permitted to precede its governing doer participle in word order. So we can say:

(807) [3/143 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *زيد عمرا ضارب*

But this is not permitted for the static adjectival noun.[^] [3/143 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية; 1/259 للسيرافي] So we cannot say:

(808) [3/143 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *زَيْدٌ الْوَجْهَةُ حَسَنٌ* ×

Nor is the tamyīz allowed to precede its governing static adjectival noun (see section (ref)). So we cannot say:

(809) [4/164 المقتضب للمبرد] *زيد وجها حسن* ×

⁸ 169 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

⁹ 3/439 شرح الرضي على الكافية 167 citing الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

33.8. Uncommon constructions of the static adjectival noun

There are some constructions of the static adjectival noun, that are uncommonly found. Some are disagreed upon with regard to their grammatical correctness. Some grammarians allow some of them unconditionally, others by poetic license only, while others would disallow them.¹⁰ {.citex}

We list these constructions here for completeness:

Governing a doer

(810) 162 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [حَسَنُ الْوَجْهِ]

(811) 162 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [الْحَسَنُ الْوَجْهُ]

(812) 163 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [حَسَنُ وَجْهِ]

(813) 163 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [الْحَسَنُ وَجْهِ]

Governing a a-case governee

(814) 166 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [حَسَنُ وَجْهِهِ]

(815) 166 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [الْحَسَنُ وَجْهِهِ]

In a superficial annexation

(816) 169 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [حَسَنُ وَجْهِهِ]

When the static adjectival noun is defined by *أل* and the semantic doer is not defined by *أل*, then a superficial annexation is disallowed.¹¹ {.citex} For example:

(817) 169 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي [الْحَسَنُ وَجْهِهِ] ×

33.9. Superficial annexation to an annexation

It is possible for the doer of a static adjectival noun to itself be in an annexation. For example:

(818) زَيْدٌ حَسَنٌ وَجْهٌ أَبِيهِ

(819) رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ الطَّوِيلَةَ لِحْيَةً أَبِيهِ

Superficial annexations can, in general, be formed from such constructions after, of course, first transforming the doers into a-case governees.

But when the static adjectival noun is defined by *أل*, then a superficial annexation is only permitted, if the annexed-to noun of semantic doer also is defined by *أل*.¹² Compare this with section (ref) for the doer participle. Examples:

¹⁰ 162–170 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

¹¹ 166 الضمير المستتر لسعود بن عبيد الله الصاعدي

¹² 3/145–146 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

- (820) ✓ زَيْدٌ حَسَنٌ وَجْهَ الْآبِ
- (821) ✓ زَيْدٌ حَسَنٌ وَجْهَ أَبِي
- (822) ✓ زَيْدٌ حَسَنٌ وَجْهَ أَبِيهِ
- (823) رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ الطَّوِيلَ لِحْيَةَ الْآبِ ✓
- (824) × رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ الطَّوِيلَ لِحْيَةَ أَبِي
- (825) × رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ الطَّوِيلَ لِحْيَةَ أَبِيهِ

33.10. Significance of the static adjectival noun

The static adjectival noun is typically derived from a stative verb. A stative verb is one which, rather than describing any process or action, signifies that its doer is in a particular state. Furthermore, its doer does not do any actual work or action that causes him to be in the state described by the static adjectival noun.

33.10.1. Permanence of the meaning of the static adjectival noun

Some static adjectival nouns have a very permanent meaning. For example:

static adjectival noun	meaning
أَخْضَرُ	green
أَعْرَجُ	lame
شَرِيفُ	noble, highborn
زَنْئِيمُ	ignoble, baseborn

Others are fairly permanent but can change gradually. For example:

static adjectival noun	meaning
جَمِيلُ	beautiful
قَبِيحُ	ugly

Others can change fairly quickly. For example

static adjectival noun	meaning
جَوْعَانُ	hungry
فَرِحَ	joyous
تَعَبَ	tired

33.10.2. Transitivity of the verb from which the doer participle is derived

The static adjectival noun is typically derived from intransitive verbs. Rarely, we find a static adjectival noun which is derived from a transitive verb. For example:

static adjectival noun	meaning
تُكْلَان	[bereft (of child)]

33.10.3. Static adjectival nouns whose meaning aligns with the doer

Most of the time, the static adjectival noun aligns in meaning with the doer of the verb from which it is derived. For example, *حَسَن* *handsome* aligns in meaning with the doer of the verb *حَسُنَ to be handsome*. Occasionally, however, the static adjectival noun aligns in meaning with the doer of its verb. Examples:

static adjectival noun	meaning	verb
حَمِيد	<i>praiseworthy</i>	حَمَدَ <i>to praise (s.o.)</i>
ذَمِيم	<i>blameworthy</i>	ذَمَّ <i>to blame (s.o.)</i>
مَنْع	<i>inaccessible, impregnable</i>	مَنَعَ <i>to prevent (s.o., s.th.)</i>

33.11. The doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover

Whereas static adjectival noun are typically derived from stative verbs, doer participles are derived from both intransitive verbs (like *قَائِم* from *قَامَ to stand*), and transitive verbs (like *ضارب* from *ضَرَبَ to beat*). Furthermore, when a verb has a stative meaning, then, as we learned in section (ref) its doer participle is often not in common usage. Instead, a static adjectival noun will often exist for the stative verb and the static adjectival noun will be generally used instead. For example, the doer participle *كَارِم* of the stative verb *كَرَّمَ to be noble, generous* is rarely used. Instead, the static adjectival noun *كَرِيم* *noble, generous* will generally be used instead. But, as we also learned, *كَارِم* could be used when a dynamic meaning is intended.

The above is the general rule for doer participles of stative verbs. However, there are some stative verbs, for which the doer participle is commonly used, but only after it crosses over to become a static adjectival noun. As with the doer participle→entity noun crossover there are two categories of doer participle→static adjectival noun crossovers:

- i. The lexical doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover
- ii. The ad hoc doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover

33.11.1. The lexical doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover

The lexical doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover is one which is commonly used with its static adjectival noun meaning. It will typically have its own entry in a dictionary. Examples are:

verb	meaning	doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover
طَهَّرَ	to be clean	طَاهِر clean
صَمَرَ	to be lean	صَامِر lean
صَلَحَ	to be righteous	صَالِح righteous
نَعَّمَ	to be soft	نَاعِم soft
بَشَلَ	to be courageous	بَاسِل courageous

Sometimes, a true static adjectival noun with a similar meaning, can co-exist with the lexical doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover, For example طهير *clean*.

Sometimes, lexical doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover occurs for verbs which are not purely stative. In fact, it can even occur for transitive verbs. Here are some examples:

verb	meaning	doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover
عَدَلَ	to act justly	عَادِل just
رَبَحَ	to gain a profit	رَابِح profitable
ظَلَمَ	to wrong (s.o.)	ظَالِم unjust, tyrannical
رَجِمَ	to have mercy (on s.o.)	رَاحِم merciful
قَطَعَ	to cut (s.th.)	قَاطِع sharp, incisive

Occasionally, the meaning of the doer participle can change considerably when it crosses over to a static adjectival noun. For example:

verb	meaning	doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover
كَتَمَ	to conceal (s.th.)	كَاتِم concealed
دَفَقَ	to pour (s.th.)	دَافِق poured forth

In the above examples, we can see that the lexical doer participle→static adjectival noun crossovers actually have the meaning of the doer participles. So سِرٌّ كَاتِمٌ [Lane's Lexicon «دَفَقَ»] is a *concealed secret*, and مَاءٌ دَافِقٌ [Lane's Lexicon «دَفَقَ»] is *water that is poured forth*.¹³ But the doer participle can still be used with its original meaning. For example:

¹³See also قُهُوٌّ فِي عَيْشَةٍ رَاضِيَةٍ سورة الحاقة 69:21 for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

- (826) *صحيح*] وَلَوْ كَانَ مُحَمَّدٌ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ كَاتِمًا شَيْئًا مِمَّا أُنْزِلَ عَلَيْهِ لَكَتَمَ هَذِهِ الْآيَةَ [177b: مسلم
 And if Muḥammad were to conceal anything from what was revealed to him, he would have concealed this āyah.

When an doer participle crosses over to a static adjectival noun, then it will govern in the manner of a static adjectival noun. So, it can govern a doer, and the doer is transformed into a direct doee-like governee, which is then used in a superficial annexation. For example:

- (827) طَاهِرُ الْقَلْبِ [2/41] شرح التصريح على التوضيح
clean of heart
 (The transformation is طَاهِرُ الْقَلْبِ → طَاهِرٌ قَلْبُهُ)
- (828) ضَامِرُ الْكُشْحِ [10/298] التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان
lean of flank
 (The transformation is ضَامِرُ الْكُشْحِ → ضَامِرٌ كُشْحُهُ)

The process above is normal and straightforward when it comes to doer participle→static adjectival noun crossovers that are derived from intransitive verbs. But if a doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover is derived from a transitive verb, then there is more care required when using it in a superficial annexation. For example, consider the following two doer participle→static adjectival noun crossovers that are derived from transitive verbs:

verb	meaning	doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover
ظَلَمَ	to wrong (s.o.)	ظَالِمٌ unjust, tyrannical
رَحِمَ	to have mercy (on s.o.)	رَاحِمٌ merciful

Now let's say that we wish to use the doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover رَاحِمٌ in a superficial annexation. Then, it is preferred that the actual direct doee of the doer participle not be mentioned. So, for example, we can say

- (829) زَيْدٌ رَاحِمُ الْقَلْبِ
Zayd is merciful of heart.

But we shouldn't say:

- (830) × زَيْدٌ رَاحِمُ الْقَلْبِ النَّاسِ
Zayd is merciful of heart to the people.

Sometimes, the meaning of the syntactic annexed-to noun can cause ambiguity. For example if we say:

- (831) زَيْدٌ رَاحِمُ الْأَبْنَاءِ [3/104] شرح التسهيل لابن مالك [modified from

then there are two routes to end up with this construction:

verb	meaning	doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover
اطْمَأَنَّ	to be tranquil	مُطْمَئِنُّ الْقَلْبِ <i>tranquil of heart</i> [3/308 التذليل والتكميل لأبي حيان]
اسْتَقَامَ	to be upright	مُسْتَقِيم <i>straight</i>
اعْتَدَلَ	to be moderate	مُعْتَدِل <i>moderate</i>

33.11.2. The ad hoc doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover

The ad hoc doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover can be created from any doer participle, on the fly, when what is intended by the doer participle is a more permanent quality. So, for example, the doer participle قَائِم can cross over to a static adjectival noun. Now it will statically signify *one who stands*. For example, a person who stands a lot can be described statically as قَائِم. Now it will no longer signify the dynamic progression of time while standing.

Once قَائِم is a static adjectival noun, now it can follow the same transformation of governing a direct doer-like governee and then into a superficial annexation.¹⁶ So we can say:

- (835) زَيْدٌ قَائِمُ الْأَبِ [2/222 المساعد على تسهيل الفوائد لابن عقيل]

Zayd's father is a stander.

(The process of transformation is زَيْدٌ قَائِمُ أَبُوهُ → زَيْدٌ قَائِمُ الْأَبِ → زَيْدٌ قَائِمُ (الْأَبِ).)

But we should not use the superficial annexation زَيْدٌ قَائِمُ الْأَبِ with the dynamic meaning of the doer participle *Zayd's father is standing*. This is because then قَائِم is not a static adjectival noun and thus cannot govern a direct doer-like governee.¹⁷ And it is derived from a transitive verb, so it cannot govern a true direct doer either. So we can't say (with a temporary meaning):

- (836) زَيْدٌ قَائِمُ الْأَبِ غَدًا × [3/140 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *Zayd's father will stand tomorrow.*

We should only say, in this case:

- (837) زَيْدٌ قَائِمٌ أَبُوهُ غَدًا [3/140 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] *Zayd's father will stand tomorrow.*

An ad hoc doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover can be formed from a transitive doer participle using the same reasoning. So we can say:

- (838) زَيْدٌ صَارِبُ الْأَبِ [2/222-223 المساعد على تسهيل الفوائد لابن عقيل]

Zayd's father is a beater.

¹⁶ 2/230 شرح الأشموني للألفية ابن مالك 2/222; المساعد على تسهيل الفوائد لابن عقيل

¹⁷ 4/393 شرح ألفية ابن مالك للشاطبي 3/140; شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية

But one should only use such a construction when context makes it clear that Zayd's father is the beater. Otherwise the apparent meaning, out of context, is *Zayd is the beater of the father*. By the way, we have already learned in section (ref) above that when a doer participle→static adjectival noun crossover is derived from a transitive verb, then the true direct doer of the verb should not be used. So we shouldn't say:

- (839) × زَيْدٌ ضَارِبُ الْآبِ عَمْرًا [2/223 المساعد على تسهيل الفوائد لابن عقيل]
Zayd's father is a beater of Emr.

33.12. The entity noun→static adjectival noun crossover

It is possible for an entity noun to cross over to a adjectival noun. Sometimes this crossing over is metaphorical, such that the entity noun is used with an adjectival noun meaning. For example:

- (840) مررت برجل أسد
I passed by a lion man
 (lion is used metaphorical to mean courageous.)

Othertimes, the entity noun is simply used descriptively. For example:

- (841) مررت برجل عبد *I passed by a slave man*

When an entity noun crosses over to a adjectival noun, then it will govern a latent doer pronoun. This doer can also be an overt sababi doer. For example:

- (842) مررت برجل عبد أبوه [الكشاف للزمخشري] سورة النساء 4:172

33.13. The lexical static adjectival noun→entity noun crossover

Very often, a static adjectival noun can cross over to an entity noun.

Here are some examples:

static adjectival noun→entity noun crossover	meaning
صَغِير	a baby
كَبِير	a elder person
صَغِيرَة	a minor sin
كَبِيرَة	a major sin
نَصِيحَة	an advice
حَسَنَة	a good deed

As with doer participle→entity noun crossovers when an adjectival noun crosses over to an entity noun, it loses its genderizability. For example, the feminine static adjectival noun *حَسَنَة* good crosses over to an entity noun to mean *a good deed*. Let's use it in a sentence:

(843) الصَّيَامُ حَسَنَةٌ.

Fasting is a good deed.

The subject in this sentence is the masculine noun الصَّيَامُ *fasting*. And the info is the feminine noun حَسَنَةٌ *a good deed*. Note that the info does not match the subject in gender. This is because it lost its genderizability since it is no longer acting as an static adjectival noun *good*, but rather as the entity noun *a good deed*.

What if we have the sentence:

(844) الصَّدَقَةُ حَسَنَةٌ.

The feminine gender of the subject الصَّدَقَةُ *charity* now matches the gender of the info حَسَنَةٌ. So now, technically, the info could be the static adjectival noun, meaning *good*. So the sentence could mean *Charity is good*.

Or the info could be the entity noun meaning *a good deed*. Then the sentence would mean *Charity is a good deed*.

Context would be needed to tell us which meaning is intended.

Frequently, when a static adjectival noun can cross over to a entity noun, then it uses a different plural from the original static adjectival noun. For example, كَبِيرَةٌ as a static adjectival noun can use the broken plural كِبَارٌ. So we can say:

(845) الْجَوَارِي كِبَارٌ. *The girls are big.*

(كَبِيرَاتٌ could also have been used.)

But when كَبِيرَةٌ crosses over to a entity noun, then it will use the plural كِبَائِرٌ. For example:

(846) هَذِهِ الْأَفْعَالُ كِبَائِرٌ

These acts are major sins.

The static adjectival noun→entity noun crossover on the pattern فَعِيلٌ

There is a special category of lexical static adjectival noun→entity noun crossovers and that is on the pattern فَعِيلٌ, when it has the meaning of the doer participle. Examples are:

static adjectival noun→entity noun crossover	meaning	verb	definition
قَتِيلٌ	<i>a killed person</i>	قَتَلَ	<i>to kill (s.o.)</i>
خَرِيجٌ	<i>a wounded person</i>	خَرَجَ	<i>to wound (s.o.)</i>
أَجِيرٌ	<i>a hired person</i>	أَجَرَ	<i>to hire (s.o.)</i>

These static adjectival noun→entity noun crossovers are used under the following general guidelines:

- They can be used as a attribute (by crossing back over to a adjectival noun as in section (ref) above)).

- When with an (explicit or implicit) noun as its referent has been previously mentioned, then only the masculine noun is used, even for feminine referents.
- When used without an (explicit or implicit) noun as its referent, then the feminine noun (with ة) may be used for a feminine referent.

Here are some examples:

- (847) [4/94 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية] مررت بامرأة جريح
I passed by a wounded-person woman.
- (848) [2/209 المساعد على تسهيل الفوائد لابن عقيل] مررت برجل جريح أبوه
I passed by a man whose father was a wounded-person.
- (849) رَأَيْتُ قَتِيلًا وَقَتِيلَةً
I saw a male killed person and a female killed person.

Not all static adjectival nouns with the meaning of the doer participle cross over (lexically) to entity nouns. Some remain as static adjectival nouns and then are feminized as usual. For example:

- (850) رَجُلٌ حَمِيدٌ وَامْرَأَةٌ حَمِيدَةٌ
a praiseworthy man and a praiseworthy woman
- (851) رَجُلٌ ذَمِيمٌ وَامْرَأَةٌ ذَمِيمَةٌ
a blameworthy man and a blameworthy woman
- (852) حِصْنٌ مَنِيعٌ وَقَلْعَةٌ مَنِيعَةٌ
an impregnable fort and an impregnable citadel

Another example of lexical static adjectival noun→entity noun crossovers that is on the pattern فَعِيل is:

static adjectival noun→entity noun crossover	meaning	verb	definition
زَهِيْنَةٌ	a pledged-item	زَهَنَ	to pledge (s.th.)

In this case, the entity noun has a ة and can be used for both masculine and feminine referents. For example:

- (853) [2837: سنن أبي داود] كُلُّ غُلَامٍ زَهِيْنَةٌ بِعَقِيْقَتِهِ
Every boy is a pledge by his ʿAqīqah

The masculine زَهِيْن can also be used but it will generally retain its adjectival noun sense.¹⁸

¹⁸Lane's Lexicon entry زَهَن

33.14. Definiteness of a static adjectival noun in a superficial annexation

We learned in section (ref) that the annexed noun in a superficial annexation is not made definite by a definite annexed-to noun. We saw this in example (796) *مررت برجل حسن الوجه* where *حَسَن* in the superficial annexation remains indefinite even though it is a annexed noun to a definite annexed-to noun *الْوَجْه*. Therefore, the indefinite *حَسَن* is a attribute to the indefinite attributee *رَجُل*.

If the attributee is definite, then the static adjectival noun annexed noun is prefixed by *ال*.

(854) *مررت بالرجل الحسن الوجه* [شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل 4/116]

(855) *مررت بزيد الحسن الوجه، وهند الجائلة الوشاح* [2/132 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل]

This rule of a static adjectival noun not becoming definite because of a definite annexed-to noun is followed more strictly than for the doer participle.¹⁹ In the case of an doer participle, we saw in section (ref) that it can cross over to a entity noun in an ad hoc manner. When this happens, then it it becomes definite when it is a annexed noun to a definite annexed-to noun (section (ref)).

But the static adjectival noun, when it is a annexed noun to its semantic doer, cannot be understood as a real annexation. That is *حَسَنُ الْوَجْه* *handsome of face* can only be understood to mean that the face is handsome, never *the face's handsome-one*. So we cannot, in general, say:

(856) *مررت بزيد حسن الوجه* × [الجامي citing 496 دراسات في النحو للزغبلاوي]

We would have to say *مررت بزيد الحسن الوجه* instead, as in example () above.

All this notwithstanding, some grammarians allow, on occasion, a static adjectival noun, when a annexed noun to its semantic doer, to become definite by a definite annexed-to noun. This is by reason of aligning to the *form* of a real annexation. For more discussion on this, see *تفسير ابن عثيمين* 40:3 سورة غافر

(857) *غَافِرُ الذَّنْبِ وَقَابِلُ التَّوْبِ شَدِيدُ الْعِقَابِ ذِي الطَّوْلِ لَا إِلَهَ إِلَّا هُوَ إِلَيْهِ الْمَصِيرُ* [سورة غافر 40:3]

The forgiver of sin, acceptor of repentance, severe in punishment, owner of abundance. There is no deity except Him; to Him is the destination.

33.15. Further reading

1. الصفة المشبهة (قراءة جديدة في البنية الشكلية والدلالية لبعض الأوصاف المشتقة). د. فيصل إبراهيم صفا

¹⁹ 495 دراسات في النحو للزغبلاوي

Work in progress

Chapter 34.

The adverb of time and and the adverb of place

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

34.1. Introduction

Consider the sentence:

“Zayd went to the market one day.”

The term “one day” here is an *adverb of time*. It describes the verb “went” and tells us the time in which the action of going occurred.

In this chapter, we will study two kinds of adverbs in Arabic: the *adverb of time* and the *adverb of place*. These two adverbs are treated together because they both describe the space (of time and place, respectively) in which the action of a verb occurs. There are other kinds of adverbs as well, and we will study them in other chapters, if Allāh wills.

The adverb, in Arabic, is a noun that qualifies a verb. It is put in the a-case. Let’s express the above sentence in Arabic:

- (858) ذَهَبَ زَيْدٌ إِلَى السُّوقِ يَوْمًا.
“Zayd went to the market one day.”

The noun *يَوْم* is functioning as an adverb of time. When used thus, as an adverb, we can translate it idiomatically as “one day” instead of “a day”.

34.2. Determining when a noun is an adverb of time or place

The term *adverb* in Arabic grammar technically does not refer to any specific class of nouns. Generally, nouns can be used for different functions, including as adverbs. For example, the noun *يَوْم* doesn’t necessarily need to be used as an adverb. It may be used, for example, as the subject of a sentence:

- (859) الْيَوْمُ طَوِيلٌ.
“The day is long.”

Even when it is in the a-case, it is not necessarily an adverb. Here it is as a direct doer:

- (860) أَنْتَظِرُ يَوْمًا سَهْلًا.
“I wait for an easy day.”

The way that we can tell when a noun is an adverb of time or place is if it satisfies the following conditions:

1. The noun is in the a-case.
2. The noun is extra, such that the sentence is complete, albeit more vague, without it.
3. The noun signifies the time or place in which the verb occurred.

In the sentence أَنْتَظِرُ يَوْمًا سَهْلًا, the noun يَوْم is not signify the time in which the verb أَنْتَظِرُ is occurring. So it is not an adverb of time.

Having said that, there are nouns that are used exclusively or mostly as adverbs, like قَبْل “before”. So, loosely speaking, such nouns, themselves, may be referred to as adverbs.

34.3. The adverb or time

The adverb of time is more unrestricted than the adverb of place. So we will deal with it first. We have already seen an example of an adverb of time in the sentence:

- (861) ذَهَبَ زَيْدٌ إِلَى السُّوقِ يَوْمًا.
“Zayd went to the market one day.”

In the above example, the adverb of time يَوْم is singular and indefinite. But an adverb of time can occur in other formations as well. For example:

As a definite common noun:

- (862) ذَهَبَ زَيْدٌ إِلَى السُّوقِ الْيَوْمِ.
“Zayd went to the market today.”
(اليَوْم “the day” is also used to mean “today”).

With a attribute:

- (863) قَتَلْتُهُ السَّنَةَ الْمَاضِيَةَ. [Wright 2/110A]
“I killed him last year.”

As a proper noun:

- (864) صُمْتُ رَمَضَانَ. [Wright 2/110A]
“I fasted (the month of) Ramaḍān.”

As an annexed noun to a annexed-to noun:

- (865) جِئْتُ زَمَنَ الشِّتَاءِ. [Wright 2/110A]
“I came in the winter-time.”

As an annexed noun to a sentence:

- (866) صَحَبْتُ صَدِيقِي يَوْمَ خَرَجْنَا مِنَ الْمَدِينَةِ.
“I accompanied my friend the day we left the city.”

As a dual or plural:

- (867) تَأَمَّلْ شَهْرَيْنِ فِي اخْتِيَارِ الْأُسْتَاذِ. [Wright 2/109D]
“Reflect two months upon the choice of a teacher.”
- (868) سَكَنَ فِي بَعْضِ الْقُرَى أَيَّامًا. [Wright 2/109D]
“He stayed in one of the villages (a few) days.”

The adverb before its verb in sentence word order¹:

- (869) [سورة المائدة 5:3] الْيَوْمَ أَكْمَلْتُ لَكُمْ دِينَكُمْ
“This day I have perfected for you your religion”

34.4. The adverb of place

The adverb of place is more restricted than the adverb of time. Only some nouns are suitable to function as adverbs of place. Such nouns fall under some categories that we will discuss in the next few subsections:

34.4.1. Vague and unbounded nouns

Generally, only vague and unbounded nouns are permitted to be used as adverbs of place. A noun that denotes a specific place are not permitted. So, for example, we can't use the noun بَيْت as an adverb of place to say جَلَسْتُ بَيْتًا. Instead we'll have to use the preposition فِي and say جَلَسْتُ فِي بَيْتٍ.

Directional nouns are considered vague enough to be used as adverbs of place. Such nouns include:

- قُدَّام “in front (of)”
- وَّرَاء “behind”
- فَوْق “above”
- تَحْتَ “under”, أَسْفَلَ “lower”, دُون “beneath”
- يَمِين “right”
- يَسَار “left”

Permitted also are general spatial nouns including, but not limited to:

- وَسْط “in the middle (of)”
- حَوْل “around”
- لَدَى, لَدُنْ, عِنْد “at, with, by”
- مَعَ “with”
- بَيْن “between”

¹ النحو الوافي 2/245

Some of the nouns above we have introduced previously in section (ref) as *pseudo-prepositions*. But they are actually nouns, that when used as adverbs give meanings similar to prepositions.

Here is an example of the use of these nouns as adverbs of place:

- (870) نَظَرَ يَمِينًا وَيَسَارًا (وَشَمَالًا) [Wright 2/111B]
 “He looked right and left.”

Generally, these nouns indicate place by being annexed to a annexed-to noun reference point. For example أَمَامَ الْبَيْتِ “in front of the house”. When they are annexed to a definite noun then they too will be definite. But this in no way restricts their vagueness and thus ability to be used as adverbs of place.² For example,

- (871) بَايَعْنَا النَّبِيَّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ تَحْتَ الشَّجَرَةِ [صحيح البخاري: 7208]
 “We gave the oath of allegiance to the Prophet ﷺ under the tree”

There are some nouns whose meaning is associated with the word “side”:

- “side” جِهَةٌ, وَجْهٌ, نَاجِيَةٌ, جَانِبٌ
- “inside” جَوْفٌ, دَاخِلٌ
- “outside” خَارِجٌ

With these nouns, it is more common to use prepositions like مِنْ, إِلَى, فِي before them. For example,

- (872) نِمْتُ فِي خَارِجِ الدَّارِ [Wright 2/112A]
 “I slept outside the house.”
- (873) زَيْدٌ فِي جَانِبِ عَمْرٍو.
 or
 زَيْدٌ إِلَى جَانِبِ عَمْرٍو. [شرح الرضي على الكافية: 1/489]
 “Zayd is beside ʿAmr”
- (874) زَيْدٌ مِنْ خَارِجِ الدَّارِ. [شرح الرضي على الكافية: 1/489]
 “Zayd is outside the house.”

But there are (rare) examples of them being used as adverbs of place as well:

- (875) أَتَشَوُّفٌ دَاخِلًا وَخَارِجًا [مسند أحمد ط الرسالة: 6520]
 “I (was) looking inside and outside.”
- (876) فَهُوَ مُتَّكِيٌّ عَلَيْهَا دَاخِلَ الْمَسْجِدِ [مسند أحمد ط الرسالة: 15837]
 “And he (was) relying on [our arms] inside the mosque”

Some place nouns are vague in that they mean “place”, like مَكَانٌ, and مَقَامٌ. These nouns are permitted to be used as adverbs of place when unspecified and indefinite. For example:

² 1/488 شرح الرضي على الكافية

- (877) [754: سنن ابن ماجه] فَتُصَلِّي فِي بَيْتِي مَكَانًا
“that you may pray in my house (at) a place”

- (878) وَلَكِنْ وَاللَّهِ لَا تَجْتَمِعُ ابْنَةُ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ، وَابْنَةُ عَدُوِّ اللَّهِ مَكَانًا وَاجِدًا
أَبَدًا
<https://shamela.ws/book/25794/15437>

The word مَكَان may be annexed to a vague expression like كَذَا وَكَذَا and remain vague. For example:

- (879) ثُمَّ مُوعِدُكَ مَكَانَ كَذَا وَكَذَا
<https://shamela.ws/book/25794/21044#p1>

- (880) وَلَكِنِّي رَأَيْتُهُ انْطَلَقَ مَكَانَ كَذَا وَكَذَا
<https://shamela.ws/book/25794/19824>

However, when these nouns are specified, typically by definiteness, then it is better that they only be used as nouns of place when construed with a verb conveying the idea of stopping or remaining. For example,

- (881) جَلَسْتُ مَكَانَ زَيْدٍ [Wright 2/111D]
“I sat down in Zayd’s place.”

- (882) اْمْكُثْ مَكَانَكَ [940: سنن أبي داود]
“Stay (at) your place.”

- (883) اجْلِسُوا مَكَانَكُمْ [4039: صحيح البخاري]
“Sit (at) your places.”

The noun مَكَان is also used in an annexation to mean “in place of”. With this meaning, it may be used as an adverb of place unrestrictedly. For example,

- (884) خُذْ هَذَا مَكَانَ ذَلِكَ [2/261: النحو الوافي]
“Take this in place of that.”

So too may the noun بَدَل “replacement” be used in this way.

- (885) خُذْ هَذَا بَدَلَ ذَلِكَ [2/261: النحو الوافي]
“Take this in replacement of that.”

34.4.2. Units of distance and space

Units of distance and space are permitted to be used as adverbs of place. For example:

- (886) سَارُوا مِيَلًا
“They travelled a mile.”

- (887) مَشَيْتُ فَرَسَخَيْنِ [Wright 2/111B]
“I walked two parasangs.”
(A فَرَسَخ is a unit of distance approximately equal to three miles.)

- (888) جَرَى غُلُوبَةً [Wright 2/111B]
“He ran the distance of a bowshot.”

34.4.3. Nouns of place

In section (ref) we studied the *noun of place*, which is formed on the pattern *مَفْعَل* or *مَفْعَل*. The noun of place is permitted to be used as an adverb of place, but only when construed with the verb from which it is derived. For example,

- (889) قَعَدْتُ مَقْعَدَ زَيْدٍ,
جَلَسْتُ مَجْلِسَ زَيْدٍ [Wright 2/112A]
I sat down in Zayd's seat.

- (890) رَأَى النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ ذَهَبَ مَذْهَبًا مُوَاكِفًا لِلقِبْلَةِ [5741: مسند أحمد ط الرسالة]
"He saw the Prophet ﷺ going a path facing towards the qiblah."

Also included in this category are the vague place nouns (like *مَكَان*, *مَوْضِع*, and *مَقَام*) annexed to the verb's *maṣḍar*. They may occur as adverbs of place instead of the verb's actual noun of place. For example,

- (891) قَاتَلْتُ مَوْضِعَ الْقِتَالِ [1/490: شرح الرضي على الكافية]
"I fought (in) the place of fighting."

Some grammarians allow using the noun of place of one verb as an adverb of place with another verb, when both verbs are close in meaning, or when one verb is used with the meaning of another verb.³ So according to these grammarians, we can say:

- (892) جَلَسْتُ مَجْلِسَ زَيْدٍ [9:5: سورة التوبة for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان]
قَعَدْتُ مَجْلِسَ زَيْدٍ [9:5: سورة التوبة for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان]
"I sat (in) Zayd's seat."

According to other grammarians, it is the meaning of remaining stopped (in either the verb or the noun of place) that allows freedom in mixing and matching verbs and nouns of place.⁴ So according to these grammarians, we can say:

- (893) جَلَسْتُ مَوْضِعَ الْقِيَامِ [1/490: شرح الرضي على الكافية]
"I sat in the place of standing."
(894) تَحَرَّكْتُ مَكَانَ السَّكُونِ [1/490: شرح الرضي على الكافية]
"I moved in the place of resting."
(895) قَعَدْتُ مَوْضِعَكَ [1/490: شرح الرضي على الكافية]
"I sat in your place."
(896) جَلَسْتُ مَنْزِلَ فُلَانٍ [1/490: شرح الرضي على الكافية]
"I sat in the so-and-so's place of alighting."
(897) نَمْتُ مَبِيتَهُ [1/490: شرح الرضي على الكافية]
"I slept in his place of spending the night."

³ واقعُوا لَهُمْ كُلُّ مَرَصِدٍ [9:5: سورة التوبة for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان]
⁴ 1/490: شرح الرضي على الكافية

34.4.4. Gray area in vagueness

There is actually considerable difference of opinion among the grammarians with regard to which nouns are permissible as adverbs of place. We got a taste of this in the previous section with respect of nouns of place as adverbs. Most of this disagreement centers around whether a noun is sufficiently vague. Consider the following example:

- (898) [12:9 سورة يوسف] أَفْتُلُوا يُوسُفَ أَوْ اطْرَحُوهُ أَرْضًا
“Kill Joseph or cast him out to [another] land;”

The noun *أَرْضًا* is in the a-case. Our first thought would be that it is an adverb of place. However, in the *tafsir* of this āyah, scholars have differed with regard to how to analyze *أَرْضًا*.

Some do analyze it as an adverb of place.⁵ Others deem the noun *أَرْضًا* not vague enough to be an adverb of place.⁶ Other analyses are then proposed like it's being in the a-case is due to the dropping of a preposition (see (ref)) or because the verb *أَطْرَحَ* “to cast” is used with the meaning of another (transitive) verb (section (ref)) like *أَوْدَعَ* “to deposit”.

34.4.5. Irregular adverbs of place

There are some examples of adverbs of place that don't align with the examples that we have given. They are considered irregular adverbs of place. We will list these irregular adverbs of place below:

The verbs *دَخَلَ* “to enter”, *سَكَنَ* “to dwell”, and *نَزَلَ* “to alight” may govern place nouns in the a-case without an intermediate preposition.⁷ So we can say:

- (899) دَخَلْتُ الدَّارَ
“I entered the house,”
(900) سَكَنْتُ الْبَيْتَ
“I dwelled (in) the house,”
(901) نَزَلْتُ الْبَلَدَ
“I alighted (in) the country.”

Also permitted is the country name *الشَّامُ* “Syria” with the verb *ذَهَبَ* “to go.” So we can say:

- (902) ذَهَبْتُ الشَّامَ
“I went (to) Syria.”

Some grammarians consider the nouns governed by these verbs as direct does, whereas others consider them adverbs of place.⁸

The expressions below are also irregular in that they contain specific, i.e. non-vague, adverbs of place:

⁵ 12:9 سورة يوسف for الكشاف للزمخشري

⁶ 12:9 سورة يوسف for تفسير ابن عاشور and 12:9 سورة يوسف for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان#

⁷ 2/253 النحو الوافي

⁸ 7/251 التذييل والتكميل لأبي حيان

مُطِرْنَا السَّهْلَ وَالْجَبَلَ (903)

قُلِبَ زَيْدُ الظَّهْرِ وَالْبَطْنِ (904)

34.5. The deputy adverb of time and place

The adverb of time or place may be substituted by another noun. This other noun then becomes the adverb in the a-case as the deputy of the original adverb. The meaning of the original (substituted) adverb is then implied. The substitute may be from the following categories:

34.5.1. A qualifier

When an adverb of time or place is qualified by another noun, then the adverb may be dropped and the qualifier may take its place.⁹

Such qualifiers include:

- A attribute:

(905) جَلَسْتُ شَرْقِي الدَّارِ [2/191 معاني النحو]

“I sat east of the house.”

(جَلَسْتُ مَكَانًا شَرْقِي الدَّارِ)

(906) جَلَسْتُ عِنْدَهُ طَوِيلًا مِنْ الدَّهْرِ [Wright 2/110B]

“I sat with him (for) a long (time).” (for زَمَنًا طَوِيلًا)

- A number:

(907) سَارُوا أَرْبَعَةَ أَمْيَالٍ [Wright 2/111B]

“They travelled four miles.”

(Technically the number أَرْبَعَةَ is the adverb in the a-case.)

- A fraction or a whole:

(908) لَبِثْنَا يَوْمًا أَوْ بَعْضَ يَوْمٍ [23:113 سورة المؤمنون]

“We remained a day or part of a day”

- A pointing noun:

(909) جِئْتُ هَذَا الْوَقْتِ [2/191 معاني النحو]

“I came (at) this time.”

(910) خَرَجَ مُحَمَّدٌ هَذِهِ السَّاعَةَ [2/191 معاني النحو]

“Muḥammad left (at) this hour.”

(911) سَرْتُ هَذِهِ الْمَسَافَةَ [2/191 معاني النحو]

“I travelled this distance.”

⁹ 2/191 معاني النحو

34.5.2. A maṣḍar

A maṣḍar may substitute an adverb of time or place if:

- the meaning “at the time of” or “the amount of time of” is implied for adverb of time;
- and the meaning “at the place of” “the amount of space of” is implied for the adverb of place.

Examples:

- (912) جَاءَ طُلُوعُ الشَّمْسِ [Wright 2/110C]
 “He came (at the time of) the rising of the sun.”
 (جَاءَ وَقْتُ طُلُوعِ الشَّمْسِ)
- (913) جِئْتُ صَلَاةَ الْعَصْرِ [معاني النحو 2/191]
 “I came (at the time of) the ʿaṣr prayer.”
 (جِئْتُ وَقْتُ صَلَاةِ الْعَصْرِ.)
- (914) اُنْتَظَرْتُهُ حَلَبَ نَاقَةٍ [معاني النحو 2/191]
 “I waited for him (the amount of time of) the milking of a she-camel.”
 (اُنْتَظَرْتُهُ مِقْدَارَ حَلَبِ نَاقَةٍ)
- (915) جَلَسْتُ قُرْبَ زَيْدٍ [شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية 2/200]
 “I sat near Zayd.”
 (literally: “I sat (at the place of) the nearness of Zayd.”)

This substitution by a maṣḍar is more common for the adverb of time than for the adverb of place.¹⁰

34.6. Using prepositions instead of adverbs of time and place

Often we can replace a noun used as an adverb of time or place by a preposition followed by the same noun. This preposition is usually في. For example, instead of saying: خَرَجْتُ يَوْمًا مَاطِرًا “I left (on) a rainy day,” we can say:

- (916) خَرَجْتُ فِي يَوْمٍ مَاطِرٍ
 “I left (on) a rainy day.”
 (literally “in a rainy day”.)

The noun يَوْمٍ is technically no longer an adverb since it is not in the a-case. The preposition في signifies that the verb occurs *in* the time or place denoted by the adverb. So, in the example above, my act of leaving occurred *in* a time which is denoted by “a rainy day”. In cases like the example above, the choice of whether to use an adverb or preposition is a matter of style, and is up to the speaker.

¹⁰ 2/200 شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية

Note, however, that this substitution with *في* is not always literally correct.¹¹ For example, we can't say × طار الطائر في فوق الشجرة for "The bird flew above the tree." Instead we have to say طار الطائر فوق الشجرة. Nevertheless, the idea of *في* is still correct in that the bird flew *in* the space which is above the tree.

And sometimes, if we substitute a noun used as an adverb with *في* followed by the noun, then the sentence may be grammatically correct, but with a different meaning from the original. Consider the following examples:

- (917) [2/179 معاني النحو] فَعَلْتُ هَذَا سَبْعَةَ أَيَّامٍ
"I did this (for) seven days."

- (918) [2/179 معاني النحو] فَعَلْتُ هَذَا فِي سَبْعَةِ أَيَّامٍ
"I did this (in) seven days."

Example (917) indicates that I did an action repeatedly during seven days. Whereas example (918) indicates that I did the action once, and it took seven days to complete the action.

Similarly, consider these two examples:

- (919) [2/181 معاني النحو] أَذْرُسُ اللَّيْلَ وَالنَّهَارَ
"I study night and day."

- (920) [2/181 معاني النحو] أَذْرُسُ فِي اللَّيْلِ وَالنَّهَارِ
"I study in the night and day."

Example (919) is about the amount of time that I study. This is the answer to "How much do you study?" Whereas example (920) is about the period of time during which I study. This is the answer to "When do you study?"

34.6.1. Using other prepositions besides *في*

While *في* is the most general preposition for substituting an adverb, other prepositions are also used. This often depends on the adverb itself. For example, instead of saying أَخْرُجُ غَدًا for "I will leave tomorrow," we can say:

- (921) أَخْرُجُ بِالْغَدِ
"I will leave tomorrow"

And instead of saying نَظَرَ يَمِينًا وَشِمَالًا for "He looked right and left," we can say:

- (922) نَظَرَ عَنِ الْيَمِينِ وَعَنِ الشِّمَالِ
"He looked right and left."

One common preposition used before a class of adverbs is *مِنْ*. We will discuss it separately in the next section below.

¹¹ [2/179 معاني النحو]

34.7. Using مِنْ before some adverbs

There are some nouns that are used as adverbs, but are also used with the preposition مِنْ to give the same adverbial meaning. Some of these nouns are عِنْدَ “by, with”, قَبْلَ “before”, بَعْدَ “after”, فَوْقَ “above”, تَحْتَ “under”,¹² etc.

Often times, مِنْ signifies its literal meaning “from”, as usual. For example:

- (923) [النحو الوافي] 2/262 مَكَثْتُ عِنْدَكَ سَاعَةً ثُمَّ خَرَجْتُ مِنْ عِنْدِكَ إِلَى بَيْتِي
 “I stayed at your [place] an hour, then I left *from* your place to my house.”

Other times, the significance of this مِنْ is less obvious. Consider the following examples:

- (924) قَرَأْتُ الْقُرْآنَ بَعْدَ صَلَاةِ الْعَصْرِ
 “I read the Qur’ān after the ḥaṣr prayer.”
- (925) قَرَأْتُ الْقُرْآنَ مِنْ بَعْدِ صَلَاةِ الْعَصْرِ
 “I read the Qur’ān (during a time which starts) from after the ḥaṣr prayer.”

Example (925) specifies the *beginning of the time period* that is indicated by the adverb. Technically, this is not necessarily when the action of the verb began. But this usage of مِنْ could be used to signify that the action started very close to the beginning of the time period. That is, it could indicate that I started to read the Qur’ān right after the ḥaṣr prayer.¹³ Often, when the meaning of مِنْ is subtle, it is not translated as “from”. For example:

- (926) [سورة الحج] 22:5 لِكَيْلَا يَعْلَمَ مِنْ بَعْدِ عِلْمٍ شَيْئًا
 “so that he knows, after [once having] knowledge, nothing”
- (927) [سورة النحل] 16:70 لِكَيْ لَا يَعْلَمَ بَعْدَ عِلْمٍ شَيْئًا
 “so that he will not know, after [having had] knowledge, a thing”

Sometimes it may be left untranslated.

34.8. قَبْلَ and its sisters

There are a class of nouns, which are usually adverbs of time and place, that are sometimes flexible, and sometimes rigid. These nouns are:

- قَبْلَ “before”
- بَعْدَ “after”
- دُونَ “beneath”,
- أَسْفَلَ “lower”
- فَوْقَ “above”
- تَحْتَ “under”
- قُدَّامَ “in front”

¹² معاني النحو 2/193

¹³ التذييل والتكميل لأبي and من الفرق بين بعد ومن بعد في اللفظ القرآني لعلي هاني، 201-2/193 معاني النحو 11/142 حيان

- وَرَاءَ, خَلْفَ “behind”
- عَلُو, عَلٍ “on top”
- أَوَّلَ “first”

Also usually included with these are¹⁴:

- يَمِين “right”
- شِمَال “left”
- آخِر “last”

Collectively, we will call them قَبْل and its sisters.

We have already seen some of these being used as adverbs of time or place. The cases for determining when they are flexible and when rigid are as follows:

- a. When used as annexed nouns with a mentioned annexed-to noun: When used as annexed nouns then قَبْل and its sisters are flexible. For example,

(928) قَامَ الْأَمِيرُ أَمَامَ الْجَيْشِ
“The commander stood in front of the army”

As we’ve previously discussed, instead of using these nouns as adverbs, it is common to also precede them with a preposition, like مِنْ. For example:

(929) قَامَ الْأَمِيرُ مِنْ أَمَامَ الْجَيْشِ
“The commander stood in front of the army”

In this case, whether قَبْل or one of its sisters is an adverb in the a-case, or following a preposition in the i-case, then it is flexible. This is indicated in the examples above by the fatḥah on its ending when in the a-case, and the kasrah when in the i-case.

- b. When used as annexed nouns but the annexed-to noun is not mentioned: Rarely, for stylistic reasons, the annexed-to noun in sentences like the example above is dropped. But the presence of the annexed-to noun is intended by the speaker. In such cases, the annexed noun will be flexible and without tanwin. For example:

(930) a. قَامَ الْأَمِيرُ أَمَامَ
b. قَامَ الْأَمِيرُ مِنْ أَمَامَ
“The commander stood in front [of the army]”

- c. More commonly, the annexed-to noun is deleted, both in expression and in intention, but the adverb is still understood to be bounded implicitly. In this case, قَبْل and its sisters will be rigid. Their ending will have a ḍammah regardless of whether they are in the a-case (as an adverb) or in the i-case (following مِنْ). For example:

¹⁴See النحو الوافي 3/142, footnote 1 for references to the difference of opinion regarding them

(931) a. قَدِمَ الْجَيْشُ وَقَامَ الْأَمِيرُ أَمَامَ

b. قَدِمَ الْجَيْشُ وَقَامَ الْأَمِيرُ مِنْ أَمَامَ

“The army arrived, and the commander stood in front (of the army)”

This usage is quite common. Much more so than case b. where the annexed-to noun is dropped only stylistically.

- d. Lastly, قَبْلَ and its sisters may occur as indefinite nouns without an implicit or explicit annexed-to noun. They then have an absolute and unbounded meaning. In this case, they are flexible. For example,

(932) a. قَامَ الْأَمِيرُ أَمَامًا

b. قَامَ الْأَمِيرُ مِنْ أَمَامَ

“The commander stood in front”

In the example above, we can see that أَمَامَ is a flexible noun due to its tanwīn.

The difference in meaning between some of these cases is quite subtle. In practice, cases a. and c. are more common. And case b. is rare.

Here are some more examples:

(933) [مصنف ابن: يُخْرِجُ غُلَمَاءَهُ إِلَى الْحَجِّ فَلَا يَخْرُمُونَ مِنْ ذِي الْخُلَيْفَةِ، يُخْرِمُونَ مِنْ أَمَامِ ذَلِكَ 14178: أَبِي شَيْبَةَ]

“He would take his (slave) boys out for the Ḥajj. But they would not enter iḥrām from Ḍhu l-Ḥulayfah; they would enter iḥrām from before that [location].”

The words أَوَّلَ and أَسْفَلَ also have some rules that are specific to them and we will treat them separately in section (ref).

34.9. The governor of the adverb of time and place

(TODO)

Like the preposition (see (ref)), the adverb of time and place is governed by a verb, or what has the effect of a verb.

34.9.1. The adverb of time and place as a info

674: مشكاة المصابيح

34.9.2. The use of an adverb without an obvious verb

The adverb of time and place is associated with the verb in a sentence. It indicates the time or place in which the action of the verb occurs. However, there are some sentences with adverbs that do not have an obvious verb

Sometimes, this is in partial sentences, like in the response to the question “When did you arrive?” one may answer:

(934) يَوْمَ الْجُمُعَةِ [النحو الوافي 2/246]

“The day of Friday.”

يَوْمَ is used as an adverb and the verb “I arrived” is implied.

Othertimes, it may be a complete sentence. For example:

(935) الْأَزْهَارُ أَمَامَنَا [النحو الوافي 2/247]

“The flowers (are) in front of us.”

(936) مَاءٌ بَارِدٌ عِنْدَ يَوْمٍ حَارٍّ نِعْمَةٌ

“Some cold water (being) on a hot day, is a blessing.”

In such sentences, the missing verb is “is” or its verbal noun “being”. This verb is unexpressed in Arabic.

34.10. Multiple adverbs of place with a single verb

34.10.1. Multiple adverbs with conjunctions

It is possible for multiple adverbs to be used with a single verb. This is regularly done with using particles like **وَ** and **فَ**. For example:

(937) اَلْتَمَسْتُهُ لَيْلًا وَنَهَارًا

“I searched for it night and day”

(938) لَقِيتُهُ صَبَاحًا فَمَسَاءً [معاني النحو 2/202 (referencing الرضي)]

“I met him evening after morning.”

(i.e., every morning and evening.)

(939) لَقِيتُهُ يَوْمًا فَيَوْمًا

“I met him day after day.”

34.10.2. Multiple adverbs without conjunctions

If particles like **وَ** and **فَ** are not used then multiple adverbs may be used for one verb in one of the following cases¹⁵:

- a. When one is an adverb of time and the other an adverb of place. For example:

(940) اجْلِسْ عِنْدِي سَاعَةً

“Sit with me an hour.” (عِنْدُ is an adverb of place and سَاعَةً is a adverb of time.)

- b. When both are adverbs of the same kind:

¹⁵ النحو الوافي 2/255

i. When the second adverb is a replacement for the first. For example:

(941) [النحو الوافي 2/255] أَقَابِلَكَ يَوْمَ الْجُمُعَةِ ظَهْرًا

“I will meet you Friday afternoon.”

(ظَهْر is a replacement for يَوْم and specifies when on Friday.)

ii. When the adverb is a comparative noun (see chapter (ref)). For example:

(942) [النحو الوافي 2/256] الْمَرِيضُ الْيَوْمَ أَحْسَنُ مِنْهُ أَمْسَ

“The patient today is better than he (was) yesterday.”

34.10.3. Compound adverbs

Instead of using particles like وَ and فَ between adverbs, compound adverbs may be formed. There are two ways to form a compound adverb:¹⁶

a. Both adverbs end with a fat-ḥah without tanwin. For example,

(943) لَقِيتُهُ يَوْمَ يَوْمٍ

“I met him day after day.”

b. The adverbs form an annexation. For example,

(944) [النحو الوافي 2/271] تَزُورُنَا صَبَاحَ مَسَاءٍ

“You visit us morning and night.”

Both options can be used more or less interchangeably. Unless there is a compound adverb with a set meaning. For example:

(945) دَرَجَةُ حَرَارَةِ الْجَوِّ بَيْنَ بَيْنٍ

“The degree of the temperature of the air is intermediate.”

34.11. Some commonly used adverbs of time and place

34.11.1. هُنَا and هُنَاكَ

34.11.2. أَسْفَلَ

أَسْفَلَ is actually a comparative noun, meaning “lower”. And even when it is used as an adverb of place, it is with this comparative meaning.¹⁷

Most of the directional nouns, like أَمَامَ, خَلْفَ, وَرَاءَ, فَوْقَ, and تَحْتَ are used as annexed nouns. For example, فَوْقَ الْأَرْضِ means “above the Earth.”

We have learned that comparative nouns are used with the the preposition مِنْ to express their “-er” meaning. For example أَكْبَرُ مِنَ الْبَيْتِ “bigger than the house.” They may also be used as annexed nouns to express their “-est” meaning. For example, أَكْبَرُ الْبُيُوتِ, أَكْبَرُ بَيْتٍ “biggest house.”

أَسْفَلَ too may be used in both these formations. We will discuss them below:

¹⁶ 2/202–204 معاني النحو, 2/271, النحو الوافي

¹⁷ 79 شرح شيخ زاده على قواعد الإعراب

34.11.2.1. مِنْ أَسْفَلَ used before مِنْ

Usually مِنْ أَسْفَلَ is used with مِنْ to express the adverb of place “lower (than)” Here are some examples of مِنْ أَسْفَلَ, as an adverb of place:

- (946) [8:42 سورة الأنفال] ¹⁸ وَالرَّكْبُ أَسْفَلَ مِنْكُمْ
“and the caravan was lower [in position] than you”
- (947) [3/289 كتاب سيبويه] زَيْدٌ أَسْفَلَ مِنْكَ
“Zayd is lower than you.”
- (948) [1036: سنن النسائي] وَضَعَ رَاخَتَيْهِ عَلَى رُكْبَتَيْهِ وَجَعَلَ أَصَابِعَهُ أَسْفَلَ مِنْ ذَلِكَ
“He put his palms on his knees and put his fingers lower than that.”
- (949) نَهَى رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ أَنْ يَقُومَ الْإِمَامُ فَوْقَ شَيْءٍ وَالنَّاسُ خَلْفَهُ يَعْني [1692: مشكاة المصابيح] أَسْفَلَ مِنْهُ
“The Messenger of Allāh ﷺ forbade that the imām should stand on anything when the people are behind him, meaning lower than him.”

Note, in the examples above, that مِنْ أَسْفَلَ does not have tanwīn. This is because it is a semi-flexible noun.

Now, in the case of قَبْلُ and its sisters we saw that their rigidity and flexibility is determined by whether or not they are annexed nouns and if they have annexed-to nouns in an annexation.

But مِنْ أَسْفَلَ, when used with before مِنْ as an adverb of place, is not an annexed noun. So its rigidity and flexibility is determined by whether or not it is compared to a noun (with مِنْ):

If the adverb of place مِنْ أَسْفَلَ is followed by مِنْ and a compared noun, then it is flexible. By the way, there may be another مِنْ before مِنْ أَسْفَلَ as well, as we learned in section (ref). Here is an example,

- (950) [33:10 سورة الأحزاب] إِذْ جَاءُوكُمْ مِنْ فَوْقِكُمْ وَمِنْ أَسْفَلَ مِنْكُمْ
“[Remember] when they came at you from above you and from below you”

And if the adverb of place مِنْ أَسْفَلَ is not followed by مِنْ and a compared noun, but the adverb is still understood to be bounded implicitly, then it will be rigid ending with a ḍammah. For example:

- (951) [621: صحيح البخاري] وَقَالَ بِأَصَابِعِهِ وَرَفَعَهَا إِلَى فَوْقِ وَطْأَتِهَا إِلَى أَسْفَلِ
“and he gestured with his fingers and raised them up upward and lowered [them] downward.”
- (952) [137 فقه اللغة للثعالبي] وَالطَّفْرُ وَثْبٌ مِنْ أَسْفَلِ إِلَى فَوْقِ
“and *atṭafr* is a leap from down to up.”

¹⁸ وَقَرَأَ زَيْدُ بْنُ عَلِيٍّ: أَسْفَلُ] سورة الأنفال for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

34.11.2.2. أَسْفَلَ as an annexed noun

Most of the time, we will want to say that something is *below* or *lower than* another thing. In this case, we will use أَسْفَلَ مِنْ as we have described above.

However, sometimes, we may want to say that something is at the *lowest* place. In this case, we can use أَسْفَلَ as an annexed noun to be an adverb of place.¹⁹

For example,

(953) [1/484 النحو الوافي] تَعْلُكَ أَسْفَلَ رَجْلِكَ

“Your sandal is (at) the lowest [part] of your foot.”

(Note the partitive meaning of أَسْفَلَ annexed to a singular annexed-to noun.)

34.11.2.3. Non-adverbial use of أَسْفَلَ

By the way, أَسْفَلَ need not always be an adverb of place. It may be used like other common nouns. In the following example, it is the doer of a verb and also an annexed noun.

(954) [1059: سنن أبي داود] لَمْ تَبْتَئْ أَسْفَلَ نِعالِهِمْ

“The lower [part] of their sandals did not get wet.”

34.11.3. أَوَّل

أَوَّل is used as an adverb of time, meaning “first”

Much of what we have said about أَسْفَلَ applies also to the noun أَوَّل.

However there is some difference from أَسْفَلَ:

- The meaning of “first” is inherently superlative. In English we don't say that something is *more first than* another thing. We can try to capture this meaning by translating it as “prior to”.
- أَوَّل, despite being on the pattern أَفْعَل, is irregular in that it can take tanwin when used in an absolute and unbounded sense.

34.11.3.1. أَوَّل used before مِنْ

أَوَّل is a semi-flexible noun when used with مِنْ:

(955) [7510: صحيح البخاري] لَا تَسْأَلْهُ عَنْ شَيْءٍ أَوَّلَ مِنْ حَدِيثِ الشَّفَاعَةِ

“Don't ask him about anything prior to the ḥadīth of intercession”

(956) [1641: صحيح البخاري] لَا تَبْتَدِئْ بِشَيْءٍ أَوَّلَ مِنَ الْبَيْتِ، تَطَوَّفَانِ بِهِ

“They_{2f} would not begin with anything prior to the House, performing the ṭawāf around it.”

When مِنْ is not used but أَوَّل is implicitly bounded then it is rigid with a ḍammah on its ending:

¹⁹See ظرف أَشْفَلَ (ثُمَّ رَدَّذْنَاهُ أَشْفَلَ سَافِلِينَ) 95:5 سورة التين for one interpretation of أَشْفَلَ as a ظرف

- (957) [4924: صحيح البخاري] أَيُّ الْقُرْآنِ أُنْزِلَ أَوَّلُ
 “Which [part] of the Qurʾān was revealed first (of all the sūrah)s?”

- (958) [753: سنن ابن ماجه] أَيُّ مَسْجِدٍ وُضِعَ أَوَّلُ
 “Which mosque was established first (of all the mosques)?”

When **أَوَّلُ** is used in an absolute and unbounded sense, then it takes tanwīn despite being on the pattern **أَفْعَلْ**:

- (959) [1062: سنن النسائي] يَبْتَذِرُونَهَا أَيُّهُمْ يَكْتُبُهَا أَوَّلًا
 “They (were) rushing (to see) which of them would write it first”
- (960) [20165: مسند أحمد ط الرسالة] وَأَمَّا الدَّارُ الَّتِي دَخَلْتَ أَوَّلًا فَدَارُ غَامَةِ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ
 “And as for the house that you entered first, it was for the common people of the Muslims.”
- (961) [1700: مشكاة المصابيح] أَيُّهُمَا جَاءَ أَوَّلًا عَمِلَ عَمَلَهُ
 “Which of them came first [that] did his deed?”

34.11.3.2. **أَوَّلُ** as an annexed noun

Like **أَسْفَلَ**, when **أَوَّلُ** can be used as an annexed noun as well, even when it is an adverb of time. For example

- (962) [739: صحيح مسلم] كَانَ يَنَامُ أَوَّلَ اللَّيْلِ
 “He used to sleep the first [part] of the night”

The usage of **أَوَّلُ** as an annexed noun when it is an adverb of time is probably not as uncommon as it is for **أَسْفَلَ**.

34.11.3.3. Non-adverbial use of **أَوَّلُ**

Just like **أَسْفَلَ**, **أَوَّلُ** need not be used adverbially. Here it is as the info of a sentence and an annexed noun:

- (963) [6:163: سورة الأنعام] وَأَنَا أَوَّلُ الْمُسْلِمِينَ
 “and I am the first [among you] of the Muslims.”

Even when used non-adverbially, **أَوَّلُ** may take tanwīn. For example, here it is the subject of **إِنَّ** in the a-case:

- (964) [151: جامع الترمذي] إِنَّ لِلصَّلَاةِ أَوَّلًا وَآخِرًا
 “Indeed the prayer has a first [time] and a last [time]”

34.11.4. **بَعْدَ**

- used for time and place
- meaning “yet”

34.11.5. ذَات

34.12. TODO

- (965) ثُمَّ مَوَّعُكَ مَكَانَ كَذَا وَكَذَا
<https://shamela.ws/book/25794/21044#p1>
- (966) وَلَكِنِّي رَأَيْتُهُ انْطَلَقَ مَكَانَ كَذَا وَكَذَا
<https://shamela.ws/book/25794/19824>
- (967) وَلَكِنْ وَاللَّهِ لَا تَجْتَمِعُ ابْنَةُ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ، وَابْنَةُ عَدُوِّ اللَّهِ مَكَانًا وَاحِدًا
 أَبَدًا
<https://shamela.ws/book/25794/15437>
- (968) [388a: صحيح مسلم] إِنَّ الشَّيْطَانَ إِذَا سَمِعَ النَّدَاءَ بِالصَّلَاةِ ذَهَبَ حَتَّى يَكُونَ مَكَانَ الرُّوحَاءِ

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 35.

The absolute doee

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

35.1. Introduction

The absolute doee is, fundamentally, the verb taking it's own maṣḍar as a doee in the a-case. For example,

- (969) **صَرَبَ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا صَرْبًا**
“Zayd beat ʿAmr a beating”

In the above example **صَرْبًا** is the maṣḍar of the verb **صَرَبَ** and is governed by it in the a-case as its absolute doee.

This sort of sentence is unfamiliar in English, as evinced by its awkward translation, “Zayd beat ʿAmr a beating.” Nevertheless, we can find some parallels so you can get a feel for it:

- (970) 1. “He died an honorable death.”
2. “He slept the sleep of the just.”
3. “He lived two lives.”

The absolute doee is somewhat different from the direct doee in that the direct doee only occurs for transitive verbs. Whereas, the absolute doee can occur for any verb, whether transitive or intransitive. Also, the absolute doee is effectively an adverb because it qualifies the meaning of the verb as we will learn in this chapter, if Allāh wills.

The absolute doee is used for the following purposes:

1. To reinforce or emphasize the meaning of the governing verb.
2. To qualify the meaning of the governing verb.
3. To act as a deputy for the governing verb, substituting it and fulfilling it's role.

35.2. The reinforcing absolute doee

Reinforcing and emphasizing the meaning of the governing verb is the basic function of the absolute doee. Consider again our earlier example:

- (971) ضَرَبَ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا ضَرْبًا
“Zayd beat ʿAmr a beating”

The absolute doee ضَرْبًا signifies that beating actually occurred, as if to counter any possible suspicion that it didn't. If the usage of the governing verb can support both a literal and a metaphorical meaning, then the absolute doee can also signify that the meaning of the verb is literal, and not metaphorical.¹

For greater emphasis, the maṣdar may be repeated.² For example,

The reinforcing absolute doee, when used purely for emphasis and not also for other purposes, cannot be dualized or pluralized. So we cannot say وَغَدَّتْكَ × وَغَدُّوْا (“I promised you promises”).³ Though, this sentence is correct for the other purposes of the absolute doee, which we will learn in subsequent sections, if Allāh wills.

35.3. The qualifying absolute doee

With regard to the meaning of the governing verb, the qualifying absolute doee indicates either what kind was intended, or its quantity, or both.

The kind of the maṣdar is frequently used with a attribute or in an annexation. For example,

- (972) ضَرَبْتُهُ ضَرْبًا شَدِيدًا [Wright 2/54A]
“I beat him (with) a severe beating.”

- (973) ضَرَبَهُ ضَرْبَ الظَّالِمِ [Wright 2/54B]
“He beat him (with) the beating of an oppressor.”

Such a qualifying absolute doee may also be signified simply with the definite article ال. ⁴ For example, if a specific kind of beating is known before-hand to both the speaker and addressee, then the speaker may simply say:

- (974) أَضْرِبُهُ الضَّرْبَ
“I will beat him (with) *the* beating.”

The qualifying maṣdar may also be annexed to a pronoun referring to the doer of the verb. For example,

- (975) ضَرَبَ ضَرْبَهُ
“He beat him (with) his beating”

¹See 2/194–195. But see also تفسير ابن القيم for سورة النساء 4:164 (وكلم الله موسى تكليماً) and تفسير ابن عثيمين for سورة النمل 27:50 (ومكروا مكراً ومكرنا مكراً)

²Wright 2/55B

³النحو الوافي 2/211

⁴النحو الوافي 2/207 (footnote 4)

The quantity of the maṣdar often uses the *one-time noun*. It may be dualized or pluralized. For example,

- (976) صَرَبْتُهُ صَرْبَةً وَصَرَبَنِي صَرْبَتَيْنِ أَوْ صَرَبَاتٍ [Wright 2/53D]
 “I beat him one blow and he beat me two blows or (three or more) blows.”

Some maṣdars themselves end with a ة, like تَلَاوَةٌ, so they are readily dualized or pluralized⁵ (to the sound *āt* plural) without resorting to the one-time noun. For example,

- (977) تَلَا الْقَارِئُ تِلَاوَاتٍ
 “The reader recited recitations.”

But in reality, when a maṣdar is dualized or pluralized in this manner, it seems to leave its maṣdar meaning, which is purely a verbal meaning, and begins to denote a regular (non-verbal) noun.⁶ So تِلَاوَاتٍ will denote, not so much the actions of reciting but kinds of recitations.

The same goes for maṣdars that don't end with a ة but for whom a broken plural has been recorded from Classical Arabic, like غُلُومٌ, which is the plural of عِلْمٌ “knowledge”, and وُعُودٌ which is the plural of وَعْدٌ “promise”.

So we can say:

- (978) وَعَدْتُكَ وُعُودًا
 “I promised you promises.”

وُعُودٌ here refers to different kinds or occasions of promises, rather than the purely verbal actions of promising.⁷

Plurals have not been recorded for all maṣdars. For example, ضَرْبٌ does not have a recorded plural for its maṣdar meaning of “beating”.

So can we pluralize it if we wish to say “I beat him (many) kinds of beatings”? Some authorities allow us to form a new broken plural if there is a need.⁸ So according to them we should be able to coin a new plural ضُرُوبٌ⁹ “beatings” and say,

- (979) صَرَبْتُهُ ضُرُوبًا
 “I beat him (many kinds of) beatings”

Other authorities are more conservative and would only allow using broken plurals for existing meanings of words if one has been recorded for them. Following this opinion, we might then say:

- (980) صَرَبْتُهُ أَنْوَاعًا مِنَ الضَّرْبِ
 “I beat him (many) kinds of beatings”

⁵ 817 الكليات للكفوي 137D citing دراسات في النحو للزعبلاوي

⁶ المصباح وحاشية ياسين على التصريح 137-138 citing دراسات في النحو للزعبلاوي

⁷ See also تفسير ابن عاشور 33:10 سورة الأحزاب (وتظنون بالله الظنونا)

⁸ 139 دراسات في النحو للزعبلاوي

⁹ this plural already exists for ضَرْبٌ but for its other meaning “example”

In any case, any maṣḍar may at least be dualized to indicate the kinds of its action.¹⁰ So we can say:

- (981) ضَرَبَنِي ضَرَبَيْنِ [Wright 2/55D]
 “He beat me two (kinds of) beatings.”
 or
 “He beat me (on) two (occasions of) beatings.”

By the way, you should be able to see that saying ضَرَبَنِي ضَرَبَيْنِ is different from if we had said

- (982) ضَرَبَنِي ضَرَبَتَيْنِ
 “He beat me (with) two blows.”

The former signifies the kinds or occasions of beating whereas the latter indicates the number of individual acts of beating.

By the way, for maṣḍars that themselves end with ʔ, if we wish to specify that the action occurred only once, we cannot, of course, form a one-time noun by appending another ʔ to it. In such a case, we may qualify the maṣḍar with the attribute وَاحِدَةً “once”. For example:

- (983) رَحِمَهُ رَحْمَةً وَاحِدَةً [Wright 1/123C]
 “He took one mercy upon him.”

It is also important to mention that the qualifying absolute doee includes the reinforcing meaning.¹¹ We cannot use the qualifying absolute doee without also emphasizing the meaning of the verb. For example,

- (984) فَاصْبِرْ صَبْرًا جَمِيلًا [سورة المعارج 70:5]
 “So be patient with gracious patience”

In section (ref), we will see that in order to only qualify the verb without emphasizing it, we can substitute the verb with the absolute doee which then becomes a *deputy to the verb*.¹²

Finally, the qualifying absolute doee may qualify both the kinds and quantity of the meaning of the verb. For example:

- (985) قَرَأْتُ الْكِتَابَ قِرَاءَتَيْنِ نَافِعَتَيْنِ [النحو الوافي 2/209]
 “I read the book two useful readings.”

35.4. The deputy to the maṣḍar as an absolute doee

Frequently, instead of using the maṣḍar as the absolute doee directly, it is substituted by another word. This word is then called the deputy to the maṣḍar as an absolute doee because it fulfils the absolute doee’s role. The maṣḍar may still figure in the expression. It will just not technically be the absolute doee, because the first a-case doee in that position is now its deputy.

The deputy to the maṣḍar can be one of several categories:

¹⁰ النحو الوافي 2/212

¹¹ النحو الوافي 2/207–209

¹² معاني النحو 2/203

A attribute to a deleted *maṣḍar*

For example:

- (986) *ضَرَبْتُهُ شَدِيدًا* [Wright 2/54A]
 “I beat him severely.”
 (*ضَرَبْتُهُ ضَرْبًا شَدِيدًا* “I beat him a severe beating.”)
- (987) *2/184 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكَ إِلَى أَلْفِيَةِ ابْنِ مَالِكٍ لَابِنِ هِشَامٍ سَبْرْتُ أَحْسَنَ السَّبْرِ*
 “I travelled the best (kind) of travelling.”
 (*سَبْرْتُ السَّبْرِ أَحْسَنَ السَّبْرِ* (for

When the *maṣḍar* is thus substituted with its attribute, then the masculine adjectival noun is typically used for the attribute, even if the *maṣḍar* was a feminine noun. For example:

- (988) *كَتَبُوا سَرِيعًا*
 “They wrote quickly.”
 (*كَتَبُوا كِتَابَةً سَرِيعَةً* (for

This is because even when *maṣḍars* end with a feminine marker, they are abstract enough in their meaning that when they are absent, only the idea of them retains influence, not their actual wording. And because that abstract idea is not feminine in its meaning, it doesn't cause the attribute to match the feminine wording of the *maṣḍar* in gender. So, by default, the masculine adjectival noun is used for the attribute.

Also, the a-case adjectival noun in such phrases as *ضَرَبْتُهُ شَدِيدًا* may, where the sense allows or requires it, be a deputy to the adverb of time instead of a deputy to the absolute doer.¹³ For example: *سَارَوْا طَوِيلًا* “They travelled a long time,” (for *سَارَوْا زَمَنًا طَوِيلًا*. See section (ref).)

In fact, according to some authorities, when the a-case noun in such phrases could be applied to both a deleted absolute doer or a deleted adverb of time (or, for that matter, other a-case functions like a direct doer), then it is possible that both meanings could be intended.¹⁴ For example,

- (989) *ضَرَبْتُهُ كَثِيرًا*
 “I beat him a lot.”

This sentence could mean, at the same time, both *ضَرَبْتُهُ ضَرْبًا كَثِيرًا* “I beat him a lot [of beatings],” and *ضَرَبْتُهُ زَمَنًا كَثِيرًا* “I beat him (for) a lot [of time].”

An entity noun→*maṣḍar* crossover

The entity noun→*maṣḍar* crossover may be a regular common noun that is used in place of a verb's *maṣḍar* (see (ref)).

For example:

¹³Wright 2/54D

¹⁴معاني النحو 2/196–199

- (990) **صحيح** [فَرَجَعَ إِلَى قَوْمِهِ فَقَالَ يَا قَوْمِ اسْلِمُوا فَإِنَّ مُحَمَّدًا يُعْطِي عَطَاءً لَا يَخْشَى الْفَاقَةَ] (2312a: مسلم)

“So he returned to his people and said, ‘O my people, embrace Islām for indeed Muḥammad gives a gift not fearing want.’”

(إِعْطَاء “gift” is a entity noun→maṣḍar crossover for the actual maṣḍar عَطَاء)

- (991) **أنهزموا هزيمة شنيعة**

[Wright 2/56B]

“They were defeated an atrocious defeat”

(The maṣḍar of **أنهزم** is properly **أنهزام**)

Also falling under the category of entity noun→maṣḍar crossover is the maṣḍar of another form of the verb from the same root.¹⁵ For example:

- (992) **أَقْتَتَلُوا قِتَالًا شَدِيدًا** [Wright 2/56B]

“They fought with one another a hard fight”

(قَاتَلَ is properly the maṣḍar of the form 3 verb قَاتَل)

- (993) **وَتَبَتَّلْ إِلَيْهِ تَتَبِيلًا** [سورة المزمل 73:8]

“and devote yourself to Him with [complete] devotion”

(بَتَّلَ is properly the maṣḍar of the form 2 verb تَبَتَّل)

A synonymous maṣḍar from a different root

For example:

- (994) **جَلَسَ قُعُودًا** [Wright 2/56C]

“I sat (with) a sitting”

A noun that indicates the type of maṣḍar

For example:

- (995) **رَجَعَ أَافْهَقَرَى** [Wright 2/56C]

“He returned walking backwards.”

رَفْهَقَرَى is a noun which means “backward walk”.

A noun of manner of the pattern فَعْلَة

For example:

- (996) **مشى القط مشية الأسد** [النحو الوافي 2/218]

“The cat walked (with) the gait of a lion”

¹⁵ النحو الوافي 2/215

The number of the maṣḍar

For example:

- (997) صَرَبْتُ ثَلَاثَ صَرَبَاتٍ
“I beat him three blows”

The maṣḍar may also be omitted from the annexed-to noun such that only the number remains. For example:

- (998) صَرَبْتُ ثَلَاثًا
“I beat him three (blows)”
(Note the feminine number ثَلَاث instead of the masculine ثَلَاثَة because the deleted annexed-to noun will be feminine in such circumstances.)

A partial or whole fraction

Words like كُلُّ, جَمِيع, “all”; بَعْضُ, “some”; شَطْرُ, نِصْفُ, “half”, etc. can be used to indicate how much of an action is done.

For example:

- (999) [4:129 سورة النساء] فَلَا تَبِيلُوا كُلَّ الْمَالِ
“So do not incline completely [toward one]”
(1000) [1/452 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] أَهْمَلُ الطَّالِبُ بَعْضَ الْإِهْمَالِ
“The student was negligent somewhat”

Included in this category is the word شَيْءُ “thing”. When used in the a-case governed by a verb it can signify the meaning “a bit” or “somewhat”, etc.¹⁶ For example:

- (1001) [2405: صحيح مسلم] فَسَارَ عَلِيٌّ شَيْئًا ثُمَّ وَقَفَ
“So ʿAlīyy went a bit, then he stopped”

The a-case noun شَيْئًا isn’t always a absolute doee after a verb. It may be, depending on the meaning of the sentence, a direct doee. For example, in the شَيْئًا وَجَدْتُ “I found something.” However, in some circumstances, شَيْئًا may make sense both as an absolute doee and as a direct doee.¹⁷ For example:

- (1002) [4:36 سورة النساء] وَلَا تُشْرِكُوا بِهِ شَيْئًا
“and associate nothing with Him”

Regarding this āyah, the mufasssīr Ibn ʿĀshūr says:

تُشْرِكُوا is in the a-case due to its being a [direct] doee for شَيْئًا, i.e. “Don’t make a partner anything from what is worshipped”, similar to His saying, وَلَنْ تُشْرِكَ بِرَبِّنَا أَحَدًا [72:2 سورة الجن] (“And we will never associate with our Lord anyone”).

¹⁶See, for example, 17:74 سورة الإسراء for تَفْسِيرُ ابْنِ عَبَّاسٍ

¹⁷2/199 معاني النحو

And it is permissible that شَيْئًا is in the a-case due to its being [a deputy to] the maṣdar, i.e. “a bit of associating even if it is slight”, similar to His saying, فَلَنْ يَضُرُّوكَ شَيْئًا [5:42 سورة المائدة] (“never will they harm you at all.”).¹⁸

The instrument or implement used in the action

The type of action may be indicated with the the instrument or implement used in the action. For example:

- (1003) ضَرَبْتُهُ سَوْطًا [Wright 2/56D]
 “I beat him (with) a whip.”
 (for ضَرَبَ سَوْطًا)

A pronoun

A absolute doee can be substituted by a pronoun that refers to it.¹⁹ For example:

- (1004) أَحْسَنَ الْإِكْرَامَ وَأَكْرَمَهُ ضَيْفَهُ
 “He perfected generosity and was generous (with it) [to] his guest.”
 (i.e., he was generous with the generosity)

A pointing noun

Similar to the pronoun as a deputy maṣdar absolute doee, a pointing noun may be used in the same vein. For example

- (1005) 2/159 [النحو الواضح لعلي الجارم] الرَّجُلُ الْمَهْدَبُ لَا يُعَامِلُ النَّاسَ هَذِهِ الْمَعَامَلَةَ
 “The refined man does not deal with the people (with) this dealing.”
- (1006) يَحْفَظُونَ أَسْرَارَهُمْ هَذَا الْحِفْظَ [Wright 2/54A]
 “They keep their secrets (with) this keeping”
 (i.e. so carefully)

35.5. The absolute doee with a deleted governing verb

The governing verb of the specifying absolute doee may be deleted if there is sufficient context or circumstance to supply its meaning. For example, in response to the question,

هَلْ جَلَسَ الزَّائِرُ عِنْدَكَ؟
 “Did the visitor sit with you?”
 one may reply:

- (1007) 2/219 [النحو الوافي] جُلُوسًا طَوِيلًا
 “A long sitting”
 (for جَلَسَ جُلُوسًا طَوِيلًا “He sat a long sitting.”)

¹⁸ 4:36 سورة النساء for تفسير ابن عاشور

¹⁹ See also 5:115 سورة المائدة for تفسير ابن عاشور

Similarly, if one sees a hunter striking his quarry with an arrow successfully, he might say:

(1008) [2/219 النحو الوافي] إَصَابَهُ سَرِيعَةً

“A quick striking”

(for أَصَابَ إَصَابَةً سَرِيعَةً “He struck a quick striking.”)

In both the above scenarios, the deleted governing verb is implied. So the complete sentence includes both the implied governing verb, and the absolute doee

35.6. The absolute doee as a deputy of the deleted governing verb

In some cases, the deleted governing verb is replaced by the absolute doee. The absolute doee is then a deputy of the deleted verb. This can be done in the following circumstances:

35.6.1. The absolute doee as a deputy of the verb in a command or supplication

For example, instead of using the verb of command أَصْبِرُوا “Be patient,” one may say:

(1009) صَبْرًا

“Patience”

In terms of governance, the complete sentence is أَصْبِرُوا صَبْرًا. The sentence صَبْرًا is valid on its own right as a use of the reinforcing absolute doee. But that is not exactly what the utterance صَبْرًا, by itself, signifies. Rather the governing verb أَصْبِرُوا is substituted with the absolute doee, such that the verb is no longer present in meaning, and the absolute doee is now its deputy, fulfilling its role.

Why then would one choose to use a absolute doee instead of a verb?²⁰ The maṣḍar signifies only a meaning of the action of the verb. The verb signifies both the meaning of its maṣḍar and is also linked to a time in which the action originates, continues, or renews. So the verb is more temporary than its maṣḍar. Therefore, if we use a absolute doee instead of a verb, then it is not explicitly linked to any time, nor does it explicitly imply a renewal of the action. So the absolute doee as a deputy for the verb signifies a constancy and inseparableness of the action. Whereas the verb is a direct application of the action.

Secondly, the verb is necessarily tied to its doer. So, also in circumstances where the objective is the action itself, and not who does it, the absolute doee may be used as a deputy to the verb.

Here are some more examples of a absolute doee as a deputy for the verb:

²⁰ 2/203 معاني النحو

- (1010) [4973: صحيح البخاري] قَالَ أَبُو لَهَبٍ تَبًّا لَكَ أَلِهَذَا جَمَعْتَنَا فَنَزَلَتْ تَبَّتْ يَدَا أَبِي لَهَبٍ
 “Abū Lahab said: ‘A perishing for you! Is it for this (that) you have gathered us?’ So there was revealed: ‘May the hands of Abū Lahab be ruined’” [سورة
 المد 111:1]
 (تَبَّ is a absolute doer of the verb تَبَّ “to perish”).

- (1011) شُكْرًا لَكُمْ
 “A thanking for you”
 (for أَشْكُرُك “I thank you.”)

- (1012) سُبْحَانَ اللَّهِ “The glorification of Allāh!”
 (سُبْحَانَ is a entity noun→maṣḍar crossover for the verb سَبَّحَ “to glorify”).

In the above example, the sentence with the verb could be, e.g., أَسْبَحُ سُبْحَانَ “I glorify the glorification of Allāh.” But again, though this may be a valid sentence on its own right, it is not exactly what the utterance سُبْحَانَ اللَّهِ, by itself, signifies. The entity noun→maṣḍar crossover سُبْحَانَ, as a deputy to the verb does not explicitly specify the verb or its doer. Rather, the entity noun→maṣḍar crossover سُبْحَانَ replaces its governing verb. The purpose is to mention the glorification of Allāh without being limited by a time limit for the action of the verb, or a need to mention the doer of the verb.²¹

Similarly,

- (1013) مَعَادُ اللَّهِ
 “The refuge of Allāh”
 (مَعَادُ is a maṣḍar of عَادَ يَعُودُ “to seek refuge”).

Using the u-case maṣḍar instead of the absolute doer

In situations that call for a course of action, the u-case maṣḍar may optionally be used instead of using the (a-case) absolute doer.

For example, in a situation that calls for patience, one might say

- (1014) صَبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ [2/206 معاني النحو]
 “A beautiful patience”

instead of saying صَبْرًا جَمِيلًا. Here, the implied meaning is صَبْرٌ فِيهِ جَمِيلٌ “The thing to be done in the matter is a beautiful patience.”²²

The u-case maṣḍar (instead of the a-case absolute doer) has the force of more constancy and generality. Additionally, it can imply that the action called for has, in the speaker’s estimation, already begun and become established. Here are some more examples:

- (1015) رَحْمَةُ اللَّهِ عَلَيْهِ [2/206 معاني النحو]
 “The mercy of Allāh on him”

²¹ 2/206 معاني النحو

²² See also (فَصْبْرٌ جَمِيلٌ) سورة يوسف 12:18 البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

- (1016) وَيَحُّ لَزَيْدٍ [Lane's Lexicon, root ويح]
 "A mercy on Zayd"

In the above example, the following alternative (using the absolute doee) is also possible:

- (1017) (1) وَيَحُّ لَزَيْدٍ [Lane's Lexicon, root ويح]
 (2) وَيَحُّ زَيْدٍ [Lane's Lexicon, root ويح]
 "A mercy on Zayd"

(as though one were to say: أَلَزَمَهُ اللَّهُ وَيَحُّ "May *Allāh* may mercy to attend him constantly!")

The words وَيَلُّ and وَيِبُّ are used in a similar manner to وَيَحُّ above. These are all maṣḍars of disused verbs. وَيَحُّ and وَيِسُّ typically signify compassion and a mild chiding. Whereas وَيَلُّ and وَيِبُّ typically signify a severe chiding, calling for misfortune and destruction.

35.6.2. The absolute doee as a deputy of a verb that is a info

There is a set of circumstances where the governing verb can be deleted, and its place is taken by the absolute doee as its deputy. This is when the verb is the info of a noun sentence, and the verb's maṣḍar wouldn't ordinarily be a info in the u-case for the subject.²³

Here are some examples that should illustrate what we mean:

Consider the sentence أَنْتَ تَأْكُلُ وَتَشْرَبُ "You are eating and drinking." The verbs in this sentence may be deleted and each is substituted with its a-case absolute doee as a deputy. So we can say:

- (1018) أَنْتَ أَكَلًا وَشَرِبًا [2/208 معاني النحو]
 "You are eating and drinking."
 (أَنْتَ تَأْكُلُ وَتَشْرَبُ)

What allows this is that the maṣḍars أَكَلُ and شَرِبُ wouldn't ordinarily work as u-case infos for this subject. That is, we can't say × أَنْتَ أَكَلٌ وَشَرِبٌ. So when we use the maṣḍars in the a-case as absolute doees (أَنْتَ أَكَلًا وَشَرِبًا), it is understood that they are acting as a deputy for their respected deleted verbs.

Here are some more examples:

- (1019) الْأَمْطَرُ سَحًّا سَحًّا [2/225 النحو الوافي]
 "The rain (is) pouring (and) pouring."
 (سَحٌّ is the maṣḍar of the verb سَحَّ يَسْحُ "to pour down abundantly (of rain)")
- (1020) مَا الْأَسَدُ مَعَ فَرِيَسَتِهِ إِلَّا فَتَكًا [2/226 النحو الوافي]
 "The lion is not, with his prey, [anything] but slaying"
 (فَتَكٌ is the maṣḍar of يَفْتِكُ "to assault and slay")

²³ 2/209 معاني النحو

(1021) [2/222 النحو الوافي] أَسْفَاهُهُ وَأَنْتَ مُتَّقِفٌ؟

“[Do you act] foolishly while you are an educated [person]?”

(سَفَاهَةٌ is the maṣḍar of سَفِهَ “to be foolish”)

As you can see from the examples above, these circumstances are usually limited to one of the following kind of sentences:

- a repeated maṣḍar
- multiple maṣḍars joined with conjunctive particles
- a restricted maṣḍar
- a maṣḍar that is asked about in a question

35.6.3. The absolute doee as a deputy for a verb in detailing a vague consequential action

This is a very specific circumstance where the absolute doee may occur as a deputy to a verb. Consider an action that is done as a consequence of some matter. If this consequential action is expressed only vaguely, then the following sentence can add detail to this vague action using absolute does. ²⁴ Here is an example:

(1022) [2/224 النحو الوافي] إِنْ أَسَاءَ إِلَيْكَ الصَّدِيقُ فَاسْلُكْ مَسْلِكَ الْعُقَلَاءِ. فَإِمَّا عِتَابًا كَرِيمًا وَإِمَّا صَفْحًا جَمِيلًا

If a friend does you wrong then take the path of the intelligent: So either an honorable reproving or a gracious pardoning”

In the example above, the consequential vague action is فَاسْلُكْ مَسْلِكَ الْعُقَلَاءِ “take the path of the intelligent”. The maṣḍars عِتَاب “reproving” and صَفْح “pardoning” are then used as absolute does to detail this vague action, فَإِمَّا عِتَابًا كَرِيمًا “So either an honorable reproving or a gracious pardoning.” ²⁵

35.6.4. The absolute doee as a deputy for a verb in emphasizing the meaning of an entire sentence

One usage of the absolute doee as a deputy for a verb is in emphasizing the meaning of an entire sentence. The absolute doee in such cases are maṣḍars (or entity noun→maṣḍar crossovers) like:

- أَحَقُّ حَقًّا “truly” for أَجُتُّ حَقًّا “I assert a truth”
- بَقِيًّا “certainly” for أَوقُنْ بَقِيًّا “I ascertain a certainty”

For example,

(1023) [6982: صحيح البخاري] تَبَدَّى لَهُ جَبْرِيلُ فَقَالَ يَا مُحَمَّدُ إِنَّكَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ حَقًّا

“Gabriel would appear before him and say, ‘O Muḥammad! Indeed you are Allāh’s Messenger ﷺ truly’”

(1024) [4:157 سورة النساء] وَمَا قَتَلُوهُ يَقِيًّا

“And they did not kill him, for certain.”

²⁴ 1/459 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

²⁵ See also 47:4 سورة محمد (فَإِمَّا مَنًّا بَعْدُ وَإِمَّا فِدَاءً)

35.6.5. The dualized absolute doee as a deputy of the verb

There are some absolute does that are dualized and annexed to a pronoun in set phrases. The dual indicates a recurringness of the action. These include:

- لَبَّيْكَ – لَبَّ is the entity noun→maṣdar crossover of the verb لَبَّيْتُ “to remain.” The a-case dualized maṣdar annexed to the addressee pronoun, لَبَّيْكَ, signifies “I remain for you (i.e. at your service) time after time.” A verb لَبَّيْتُ تَلْبِيَةً “to utter لَبَّيْكَ” is derived from this phrase.
- أَسْعِدْ بُسْعِدْ – سَعْد is the entity noun→maṣdar crossover of the verb سَعِدْتُ “to help” The a-case dualized maṣdar annexed to the addressee pronoun, سَعِدْكَ, signifies “I am at your aid time after time.”
- حَنَانِيكَ – from حَنَان “mercy”. حَنَانِيكَ signifies “Let your mercy be continuous to me.”
- ذَوَالِيكَ – from ذَوَال which is equivalent to مَدَاوِلَة and تَدَاوُل “taking by turns”. ذَوَالِيكَ signifies “Make (you) the action to be done by turns.”
- حَذَارِيكَ – from حَذَر “Beware”. حَذَارِيكَ signifies “Twice beware!”

35.7. Differentiating the absolute doee from the other a-case does

The absolute doee is a kind of doee. Other kinds of does include the direct doee, the adverb of time and the adverb of place, and the adverb of reason. Generally, all adverbs can be considered to be in the category of does. All does are governed by verbs and occur in the a-case.

Sometimes it is not easy to disambiguate the exact function of an a-case noun occurring as a doee. We have already seen some instances of this. For example, we mentioned that in example (989) صَرَبَتْهُ كَثِيرًا, that the a-case doee كَثِيرًا could be analyzed as either a absolute doee or a adverb of time, depending on context.

Similarly, in example (1002) وَلَا تُشْرِكُوا بِهِ شَيْئًا [سورة النساء 4:36] “and associate nothing with Him”, شَيْئًا has been analyzed to support both a absolute doee meaning and a direct doee meaning.

For some verbs, their maṣdars are re-used as common nouns. For example:

- أَكَلَ يَأْكُلُ أَكْلًا – أَكَلَ is re-used to mean “a food”
- صَادَ يَصِيدُ صَيْدًا – صَادَ is re-used to mean “a prey”
- قَالَ يَقُولُ قَوْلًا – قَالَ is re-used to mean “a saying” or “a speech”
- سَأَلَ يَسْأَلُ سُؤَالَ – سَأَلَ is re-used to mean “a question”

When these nouns are in the a-case governed by their verb, then how do we tell whether they are a absolute doee or a direct doee? For example:

- (1025) أَكَلَ زَيْدٌ أَكْلًا
 “Zayd ate an eating.”
 or
 “Zayd ate a food.”

By itself, أَكَلًا supports both functions of the direct doee and the absolute doee. And we have to look at context to see which of the two meanings the speaker intended.

Sometimes, if the a-case doee is qualified, then that can help us distinguish between the two functions. For example,

- (1026) أَكَلَ زَيْدٌ أَكَلًا سَرِيعًا
 “Zayd ate a fast eating”
 (i.e. “Zayd ate quickly.”)

In the above example, the attribute سَرِيع “fast” is applied to the attributee أَكَلًا. Now, unless Zayd was eating “fast food” (unlikely in classical times), the attribute applies to the manner in which Zayd was eating. Hence أَكَلًا is a absolute doee and not a direct doee.

Sometimes, the qualifier may be applicable to both the absolute doee and the doee. Yet each meaning will be distinct. For example,

- (1027) صَادَ زَيْدٌ صَيْدَ الْأَسَدِ
 “Zayd hunted (in the manner of) the hunting of a lion.”
 or
 “Zayd hunted the lion’s prey.”

In the above example, the doee صَيْد is qualified in an annexation with the annexed-to noun الْأَسَد “the lion”. But the qualifier is applicable to both meanings of صَيْد: the absolute doee meaning: “hunting”, and the direct doee meaning: “prey”. When applied to the absolute doee meaning then the sentence means that Zayd hunted in a ferocious and daring manner, like a lion does. And when applied to the direct doee meaning then the sentence means that Zayd hunted a prey which was (previously) the prey of a lion. However, both of these meanings are distinct from each other. In this sort of case, context should help in figuring out the intended meaning.

In the case of maṣḍars like أَكَلَ and صَيْدَ, when they are re-used as common nouns, then their existence is not tied to the action of the verb. For example, أَكَلٌ, meaning “food”, exists prior to the action of eating. And صَيْدٌ, meaning “prey” exists prior to the action of hunting.

But in the case of maṣḍars like قَوْلٌ and سُؤَالٌ, even when they are a direct doee, they only come into existence with the action of their verb. So there is no قَوْلٌ, either as a absolute doee or as a direct doee, before the action of “saying”. And there is no سُؤَالٌ, either as a absolute doee or as a direct doee, before the action of “asking”.

In such cases, even when a qualifier is applied, the line between the absolute doee and the direct doee can remain blurry. And that is not really a big deal because both meanings will be similar. For example,

- (1028) سَأَلَ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا سُؤَالًا صَعْبًا
 “He asked a difficult questioning.”
 (i.e. the questioning was difficult upon ʿAmr)
 or
 “He asked a difficult question.”

This sort of ambiguity can sometimes be found in the other adverb does as well.

35.8. Candidates for governing the absolute doee

The verb is the fundamental governor of the doer and the doee. But we have seen (in sections (ref)), that nouns that have a verbal quality to them, like the maṣḍar, the doer participle, etc., can also govern a doer and a doee.

So a absolute doee may occur, governed by either a verb (as we have seen), or a doer participle, or a doee participle, or a static adjectival noun, or even another maṣḍar.

Here are some examples:

(1029) [1/449 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] فَرَحْتُ بِأَجْتِهَادِكَ أَجْتِهَادًا حَسَنًا

“I rejoiced at your striving a good striving”

(the absolute doee أَجْتِهَادًا is governed by the preceding maṣḍar أَجْتِهَادُ)

(1030) [1/449 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] أَنَا مُكْرِمٌ خَالِدًا إِكْرَامًا عَظِيمًا

“I will honor Khālid a great honoring.”

(the absolute doee إِكْرَامًا is governed by the doer participle مُكْرِمٌ)

Work in progress

Chapter 36.

The ḥāl

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

36.1. Introduction

The ḥāl (الْحَال) is a kind of adverb, governed typically by a verb, that describes the state of the *person of ḥāl* during the time that the ḥāl's governing verb is taking place. Here is an example of a ḥāl:

ḥāl
 رَاكِبًا

 person of ḥāl
 زَيْدٌ

 governor
 جَاءَ

“Zayd came riding”

In the example above, the usage of the ḥāl signifies that Zayd, while he was coming, was in a riding state.

36.2. Matching the ḥāl to the person of ḥāl

Consider again the example:

(1031) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ رَاكِبًا [Wright 2/112C]
“Zayd came riding”

The ḥāl رَاكِبًا is an adjectival noun matching the person of ḥāl زَيْدٌ in number (singular) and gender (masculine).

If the person of ḥāl is feminine in gender or more than one in number, then the ḥāl will match it accordingly. For example:

(1032) قَامَتْ ابْنَتُهُ إِلَيْهِ بَاكِئَةً [Fischer 196D]
“His daughter [went and] stood to him crying”

- (1033) وَتَبَا مُسْرِعَيْنِ [صحيح البخاري: 4794]
 “they_{2m} got up hastening”
- (1034) جَاءَ سَعِيدٌ وَخَالِدٌ رَاكِبَيْنِ [أحكام ومعان: 2/38]
 “Saeid and Khālīd came riding.”

For plurals, both sound and broken plurals may be used:

- (1035) وَأَدْخُلُوا أَلْبَابَ سَجْدًا [سورة البقرة: 2:58]
 “and enter the gate bowing humbly”
 (The person of ḥāl is the plural masculine doer pronoun in اَدْخُلُوا and the ḥāl سَجْدٌ is the plural of سَجَدَ.)
- (1036) خَرَجْنَا مُتَوَجِّهِينَ إِلَى الْيَمَنِ [Fischer 196D]
 “We left heading towards Yemen”

As with attributes and infos, when the person of ḥāl is a plural of non-intelligent beings, the singular feminine is typically used for the ḥāl. For example:

- (1037) صَالَتِ الْأُسُودُ عَلَى الْفَرِيسَةِ فَاتَكَّهَ
 “The lions pounced on the prey slaying”

36.3. The governor of the ḥāl

The governor of the ḥāl may be one of the following:

A verb

The verb is the typical governor of the ḥāl. For example:

- (1038) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ رَاكِبًا [Wright 2/113D]
 “Zayd came riding”

A maṣḍar

- (1039) رَكُوبُكَ السَّيَّارَةُ مُسْرِعَةً خَطَرٌ عَلَيْكَ [أحكام ومعان: 2/51]
 “Your riding the car speeding is a danger for you.”

A quasi-verb

A quasi-verb is a deverbal verbal noun like an doer participle or an doer participle, or an adjectival noun, etc. For example:

- (1040) زَيْدٌ صَارِبٌ عَمْرًا قَائِمًا [Wright 2/113D]
 “Zayd is beating ʿamr standing.”
- (1041) زَيْدٌ حَسَنٌ قَائِمًا [Wright 2/113D]
 “Zayd is handsome standing.”
- (1042) زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا أَحْسَنُ مِنْهُ قَاعِدًا [Wright 2/114A]
 “Zayd, standing, is more handsome than him sitting.”

An expression that has verbal force

An expression that has verbal force could be:

- a preposition or adverb of time or place with a following noun in the i-case
- a pointing noun
- a question word
- a word like لَعَلَّ, كَأَنَّ, لَيْتَ

In such cases there will typically be the implicit existential verb “is” providing the verbal force.

Examples:

- (1043) زَيْدٌ فِي الْبَارِ قَائِمًا [Wright 2/114A]
“Zayd is in the house standing.” (the existential verb “is” is implied)
- (1044) هَذَا عَمْرُو مُنْطَلِقًا [Wright 2/114A]
“This is ʿamr (in the act of) setting out.”
- (1045) وَهَذَا بَعْلِي شَيْخًا [سورة هود 11:72 cited by Wright 2/114B]
“and this, my husband, is an old man”
- (1046) مَا شَأْنُكَ قَائِمًا [Wright 2/114B]
“What is your matter, standing?”
(i.e. “Why are you standing?”)
- (1047) مَا لَكَ وَاقِفًا [Wright 2/114B]
“What (happened) to you, standing?”
(i.e. “Why are you standing?”)

36.4. Valid persons of ḥāl

The person of ḥāl may be the doer of the governing verb but it may also be the direct doee, or even other nouns in a sentence.

Let’s see some examples.

The person of ḥāl as a doer

- (1048) فَخَرَجَ مِنْهَا خَائِفًا [سورة القصص 28:21]
“So he left it, fearful”

The person of ḥāl as a direct doee

- (1049) وَأَرْسَلْنَاكَ لِلنَّاسِ رَسُولًا [سورة النساء 4:79]
“And We have sent you, [O Muḥammad], to the people as a messenger”
- (1050) رَكِبْتُ الْفَرَسَ مُسَرَّجًا [Wright 2/113A]
“I rode the horse saddled”

The person of ḥāl as a deputy doer

- (1051) 2/28 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] تَوَكَّلَ الْفَاكِهَةُ نَاضِجَةً
 “The fruit is eaten fresh”

The person of ḥāl as a subject

- (1052) 2/28 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] الْفَاكِهَةُ لَذِيذَةٌ نَاضِجَةٌ
 “The fruit is delicious (when it is) fresh.”

The person of ḥāl as a info

- (1053) 2/28 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] هَذَا هُوَ الْهَلَالُ طَالِعًا
 “This is the crescent (as it is) rising.”

The person of ḥāl in the i-case following a preposition

- (1054) مَرَزْتُ بِزَيْدٍ جَالِسًا [Wright 2/113A]
 “I passed by Zayd (as he was) sitting.”
- (1055) كُنْتُ فِي الْبُسْتَانِ زَاهِرًا [Wright 2/113B]
 “I was in the garden (while it was) in bloom.”

The person of ḥāl in the i-case in as the annexed-to noun in an annexation

The annexed-to noun in an annexation is permitted to be a person of ḥāl if it satisfies any one of the following conditions:

- i. When the annexed noun is naturally capable of being the governor of the ḥāl (as a maṣḍar or doer participle, etc.). For example:

- (1056) أَعْجَبَنِي قِيَامُ زَيْدٍ مُسْرِعًا [Wright 2/119C]
 “Zayd’s standing speedily pleased me.”
 (The governor is the annexed noun قِيَامُ which is a maṣḍar)
- (1057) إِلَى اللَّهِ مَرْجِعُكُمْ جَمِيعًا [سورة المائدة 5:105]
 “To Allāh is your return all together”
 (The governor is the annexed noun مَرْجِعُ which is a maṣḍar)
- (1058) أَنْتَ شَارِبُ الْمَاءِ صَافِيًا [2/50 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
 “You are drinking the water clear.” (The governor is the annexed noun شَارِبُ which is a doer participle)

- ii. When the annexed noun is a real part of the annexed-to noun. For example:

- (1059) وَنَزَعْنَا مَا فِي صُدُورِهِمْ مِّنْ غِلٍّ إِخْوَانًا [سورة الحجر 15:47]
 “And We will remove whatever is in their breasts of resentment, [so they will be] brothers”
 (The annexed noun صُدُورُ is a real part of the annexed-to noun person of ḥāl هُمْ.)

(1060) [49:12 سورة الحجرات] أَیَحِبُّ أَحَدُكُمْ أَنْ یَأْكُلَ لَحْمَ أَخِیهِ مَیْتًا

“Would one of you like to eat the flesh of his brother when dead?”
(The annexed noun لَحْم is a real part of the annexed-to noun person of ḥāl أخ.)

- iii. When the annexed noun is not really but is virtually a part of the annexed-to noun. Such that the meaning would still be correct if the annexed noun was removed. For example:

(1061) [16:123 سورة النحل] ثُمَّ أَوْحَيْنَا إِلَیْكَ أَنْ اتَّبِعْ مِلَّةَ إِبْرَاهِیمَ حَنِیْفًا

“Then We revealed to you, [O Muḥammad], to follow the religion of Abraham, inclining toward truth”

مِلَّة is virtually a part of ḥāl of the person of إِبْرَاهِیم حَنِیْفًا such that the meaning is correct without it: اتَّبِعْ إِبْرَاهِیمَ حَنِیْفًا.)

When none of these conditions are satisfied then the annexed-to noun cannot be a person of ḥāl. So we cannot say:

(1062) [2/51 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] مَرَرْتُ بِغُلَامٍ هِنْدٍ جَالِسَةً ×

“I passed by Hind’s slave boy (when she was) sitting.”

Determining the person of ḥāl when there is more than one possibility

When the sentence has more than one noun as a possible person of ḥāl, usually the meaning, gender, or number is sufficient to determine whom the ḥāl is describing. But sometimes context will be needed to determine who the person of ḥāl is. For example:

(1063) [2/386A النحو الوافي] قَابَلْتُ أَخَا رَاكِبًا

“I met the brother riding”

In the example above, the ḥāl رَاكِبًا may be applicable to either the speaker (assuming he is male), or to أَخَا “the brother”. Context should tell us which is intended. If context is not sufficient then is more suitable for the closer of the two to the ḥāl to be the person of ḥāl. Or, to avoid ambiguity, it may be better that the expression not be used in this case.¹

36.5. The ḥāl after verbs like رَأَى and وَجَدَ

The verbs رَأَى and وَجَدَ are what are known as verbs of perception (see chapter (ref)). That is, they signify an act that takes place in the mind. So they may take two direct doees. For example:

(1064) [70:6 سورة المعارج] إِنَّهُمْ يَرَوْنَهُ بَعِيدًا

“Indeed, they see it [as] distant,”

(بَعِيدًا has been analyzed as a second direct doee²)

¹ النحو الوافي 2/386

² 70:6 سورة المعارج for إعراب القرآن للدرويش

- (1065) [سورة النساء 4:64] لَوْجَدُوا اللَّهَ تَوَّابًا رَحِيمًا
 “they would have found Allāh Accepting of Repentance and Merciful.”
 (تَوَّابًا has been analyzed as a second direct doer³)

However, if these verbs are mere verbs of sense, i.e. they express nothing but acts of the external organs of sense, then they may still have two governees in the a-case but the second governee will no longer be a direct doer but a ḥāl.⁴ For example:

- (1066) رَأَيْتُكَ نَائِمًا [Wright 2/50C]
 “I saw you sleeping.”
- (1067) وَجَدْتُهُ مَرِيضًا [Wright 2/50C]
 “I found him sick.”

36.6. Multiple ḥāls or persons of ḥāl

There may be one or multiple ḥāls that correspond to one or multiple persons of ḥāl. This occurs in the following cases:

36.6.1. Multiple ḥāls for one person of ḥāl

These are examples of multiple ḥāls corresponding to one person of ḥāl:

- (1068) [سورة الأعراف 7:150] وَلَمَّا رَجَعَ مُوسَى إِلَى قَوْمِهِ غَضَبَانَ أَسِفًا
 “And when Moses returned to his people, angry and grieved”
- (1069) [سورة الفجر 89:28] اَرْجِعِي إِلَىٰ رَبِّكَ رَاضِيَةً مَّرْضِيَّةً
 “Return to your Lord, well-pleased and pleasing [to Him]”
- (1070) [صحيح مسلم 974b] مَا لَكَ يَا عَائِشُ حَشِيًا رَابِيَةً
 “Why are you, O ʿĀʾishah, panting and short of breath?”
 (حَشِيًا, on the pattern فَعْلَى, is the feminine of حَشِيَان meaning “short of breath”. رَابِيَةً has a similar meaning.)

As you can see, there is no need for a conjunction like و to connect the multiple ḥāls (though we may use the word “and” in the translation). If such a و is inserted, then the noun(s) following it is technically no longer a ḥāl. Rather, it is now a post-conjunction to the preceding ḥāl.⁵ For example:

- (1071) [النحو الوافي 2/430] أَقْبَلَ الْمُتَنَصِّرُ قَرَحًا وَمُسْرَعًا وَمُصَافِحًا رَفَاقَهُ
 “The victor approached rejoicing, hastening, and shaking hands with his companions.”

³ إعراب القرآن للدرويش for سورة النساء 4:64

⁴ Wright 2/50B

⁵ النحو الوافي 2/386

In the above example, *فَرِحًا* is a ḥāl, *مُسْرِعًا* and *مُصَافِحًا* are post-conjunctions. This distinction is technically correct. However, loosely speaking, words like *مُسْرِعًا* and *مُصَافِحًا* in the example above may be referred to as ḥāls.⁶

See also section (ref) later in this chapter for multiple ḥāls when one or more is a *sentence ḥāl*.

36.6.2. One ḥāl for multiple persons of ḥāl

If there are multiple persons of ḥāl and the same ḥāl can be used to describe all of them, then one ḥāl, appropriately dualized or pluralized, may be used. We have already seen an example of this in example (1034) earlier in this chapter:

- (1034) جَاءَ سَعِيدٌ وَخَالِدٌ رَاكِبَيْنِ [أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/38]
 “Saeid and Khālid came riding.”

Here is another example:

- (1072) وَسَخَّرَ لَكُمُ الشَّمْسَ وَالْقَمَرَ دَائِبَيْنِ [سورة إبراهيم: 14:33]
 “And He subjected for you the sun and the moon, continuous [in orbit]”

Sometimes the multiple persons of ḥāl may even occur in different functions in the sentence. For example:

- (1073) قَابَلَ عَلِيٌّ صَدِيقَهُ مَسْرُورَيْنِ [أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/28]
 “‘Aliyy met his friend (while they both were) happy.”
- (1074) لَقِيتُهُ رَاكِبَيْنِ [Wright 2/113B]
 “I met him (while we both were) riding”

36.6.3. Multiple ḥāls for multiple persons of ḥāl

If there are multiple persons of ḥāl, and each is to be described by different ḥāls, then the individual ḥāls may occur in the sentence without any conjunction. If context and meaning are not sufficient to determine which ḥāl applies to which person of ḥāl, then the first ḥāl (in sentence word order) should apply to the second person of ḥāl, and the second ḥāl should apply to the first person of ḥāl.⁷ For example:

- (1075) لَقِيتُ خَالِدًا مُصْعِدًا مُنْحَدِرًا [أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/39]
 “I met Khālid (while he was) going up (and I_m was) coming down.”

But if meaning and context are sufficient to disambiguate, then the ḥāls may occur in either order. For example:

- (1076) لَقِيتُ هِنْدًا مُصْعِدًا مُنْحَدِرَةً [أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/39]
 “I met Hind (while I_m was) going up (and she was) coming down.”

⁶See, for example, the analysis of *يَدْعُونَ رَبَّهُمْ خَوْفًا* سورة السجدة 32:16 *البحر المحيط لأبي حيان* in *طَمَعًا* (وَطَمَعًا)

⁷But see also Wright 2/115CD

36.7. Definiteness of the ḥāl

The ḥāl is typically an indefinite noun, as we have seen in all the examples so far. Occasionally, however, it does occur as a definite noun. The most common such ḥāl is the noun وَحْدٌ annexed to a pronoun, meaning “alone”. For example:

- (1077) جَاءَ الضَّيْفُ وَحْدَهُ [النحو الوافي 2/375]
 “The guest came by himself.”

Other definite nouns may also occur as ḥāls. For example:

- (1078) ادْخُلُوا الْأَوَّلَ فَأَلَّأُولَ [النحو الوافي 2/376]
 “Enter! the first then the first”
 (i.e. “Enter in order”)
- (1079) كَلَّمْتُهُ فَاهُ إِلَى فِيَّ [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان 2/34]
 “I spoke to him his mouth to my mouth.”
 (i.e. face to face)

The definite ḥāl may also occur in a comparative statement. For example:

- (1080) زَيْدٌ الرَّكَّابِ أَحْسَنُ مِنْهُ الْمَاشِي [Wright 2/116D]
 “Zayd as the rider is more handsome than he is (as) the walker.”

Although, it is more usual to use the indefinite ḥāl in this case: زَيْدٌ رَاكِبًا أَحْسَنُ مِنْهُ مَاشِيًا.

36.8. Definiteness of the person of ḥāl

The person of ḥāl is typically a definite noun, as we have seen in all the examples so far. Sometimes, however, it does occur as an indefinite noun. Usually, when the person of ḥāl is indefinite, it occurs in the following circumstances:

The ḥāl precedes the indefinite person of ḥāl

- (1081) فِيهَا قَائِمًا رَجُلًا [Wright 2/117B]
 “in it (i.e. the house) is a man standing”

The order of the ḥāl and the person of ḥāl is treated in more detail in section (ref).

The indefinite person of ḥāl is qualified by a attribute or a annexed-to noun

- (1082) عِنْدِي غَلَامٌ رَجُلٌ قَائِمًا [Wright 2/117D]
 “in my house is a man’s slave standing”
- (1083) قَدِمَ طِفْلٌ صَغِيرٌ بَاكِيًا [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان 2/45]
 “a small child came crying”

- (1084) 41:10 سورة فصلت [وَبَارَكَ فِيهَا وَقَدَّرَ فِيهَا أَقْوَاتَهَا فِي أَرْبَعَةِ أَيَّامٍ سَوَاءً لِّلنَّاسِ لِيْنِ] cited by [2/45 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
 “and He blessed it and determined therein its [creatures’] sustenance in four days without distinction - for [the information of] those who ask.”

The indefinite person of ḥāl is in a negative statement or a question

- (1085) [2/403 النحو الوافي] مَا خَابَ عَامِلٌ مُّخْلِصًا
 “A worker, when sincere, does not fail.”
- (1086) [2/403 النحو الوافي] لَا تَشْرَبْ فِي كُوبٍ مَكْسُورًا
 “Don’t drink in a cup (when it is) broken.”
- (1087) [2/44 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] أَجَاءَ أَحَدٌ رَاكِبًا
 “Did anyone come riding?”

The indefinite person of ḥāl without any special circumstance

Occasionally, the person of ḥāl may be indefinite without any special circumstance.⁸ For example:

- (1088) [1113: صحيح البخاري] وَصَلَّى وَرَاءَهُ قَوْمٌ قِيَامًا
 “and [some] people prayed behind him standing”

36.9. The order of the ḥāl, the person of ḥāl and the governor

The normal order is: first the governor, then the person of ḥāl, then the ḥāl. However, there is much variability permitted, subject to certain rules.

36.9.1. The ḥāl preceding the governor

The ḥāl may precede the governor if the governor is an verb or quasi-verb that flexes based on the doer.

So we can say:

- (1089) [Wright 2/118B] رَاكِبًا جَاءَ زَيْدٌ
 “Zayd came riding.”
- (1090) [2/53 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] مُسْرِعًا دَا رَاجِلٌ
 “In haste is this this (man) departing.”
 (لَا is a pointing noun like هَذَا. See section (ref).)
- (1091) [add ref to alfiyyah ibn malik] مُخْلِصًا زَيْدٌ دَعَا
 “Sincerely did Zayd supplicate.”
 (The ḥāl مُخْلِصًا precedes not just its governor in the info دَعَا, but also the subject زَيْدٌ.)

⁸ 2/45-47 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان

If the governor is a verb or adjectival noun that is rigid (does not flex based on the doer), then the ḥāl rarely⁹, if ever¹⁰, precedes the governor. Examples of such governors are the verb of wonder and the comparative noun. For example:

- (1092) مَا أَحْسَنَ زَيْدٌ ضَاحِكًا [Wright 2/118B]
 (not × أَحْسَنَ زَيْدٌ ضَاحِكًا)
 “How handsome is Zayd (when) laughing!”
- (1093) زَيْدٌ أَحْسَنُ مِنْ عَمْرٍو ضَاحِكًا [Wright 2/118B]
 (not × ضَاحِكًا أَحْسَنُ مِنْ عَمْرٍو)
 “Zayd is more handsome than ʿamr (when) laughing.”

An exception is permitted when a noun, in one ḥāl, is compared with itself or another noun in another ḥāl. In this case, the ḥāl regularly precedes its comparative noun governor. For example:

- (1094) زَيْدٌ قَائِمًا أَحْسَنُ مِنْهُ قَاعِدًا [Wright 2/118C]
 “Zayd when standing is more handsome than [himself] when sitting.”
- (1095) زَيْدٌ مُفْرَدًا أَنْفَعُ مِنْ عَمْرٍو مُعَانًا [Wright 2/118C]
 “Zayd when alone is more useful than ʿamr when assisted (by others).”

If the governor is not a verb or a quasi-verb but an expression that has verbal force, then the ḥāl usually does not precede the governor.¹¹

- (1096) كَأَنَّ زَيْدًا رَاكِبًا أَسَدٌ [Wright 2/118D]
 (not × كَأَنَّ زَيْدًا أَسَدٌ)
 “[It is] as if Zayd, when riding, is a lion.”
- (1097) زَيْدٌ فِي الدَّارِ قَائِمًا [Wright 2/118D]
 (not × قَائِمًا فِي الدَّارِ)
 “Zayd is in the house standing.”
- (1098) تِلْكَ هِنْدٌ بَاجِئَةٌ [2/53 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
 (not × تِلْكَ هِنْدٌ بَاجِئَةٌ)
 “That is Hind, searching.”

36.9.2. The ḥāl preceding the person of ḥāl

The ḥāl is generally allowed to precede the person of ḥāl when the person of ḥāl is in the u-case or a-case. For example:

- (1099) جَاءَ ضَاحِكًا زَيْدٌ [Wright 2/119A]
 “Zayd came riding.”

⁹ibn uthaymeen

¹⁰wright

¹¹See, however, البحر المحيط لأبي حيان سورة الزمر 39:67 for the recitation والسماوات مطويات بيمينه. Also mentioned by Wright 2/118D

- (1100) [2/48 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] شَرِبْتُ الْمَاءَ صَافِيًا
 “I drank the water clear.”

Excepted from this general permissibility is if the person of ḥāl is restricted by *إِلَّا*. For example:

- (1101) [2/48 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] مَا جَاءَ أُسَامَةُ إِلَّا رَاكِبًا
 “Usamah did not come except riding.”
- (1102) [6:48 سورة الأنعام] وَمَا نُرْسِلُ الْمُرْسَلِينَ إِلَّا مُبَشِّرِينَ وَمُنذِرِينَ
 “And We send not the messengers except as bringers of good tidings and warners.”

When the person of ḥāl is in the i-case then: if it is a annexed-to noun in an annexation, then the ḥāl should follow the person of ḥāl and not precede it.
 For example:

- (1103) [Wright 2/119C] أَعْجَبَنِي قِيَامُ زَيْدٍ مُسْرِعًا
 “Zayd’s standing speedily pleased me.”

If the person of ḥāl is in the i-case due to a preceding preposition, then the ḥāl will usually follow it and not precede it. For example:

- (1104) [Wright 2/119B] مَرَرْتُ بِهِنْدٍ جَالِسَةً
 “I passed by Hind (when she was) sitting.”

Occasionally, however, the ḥāl has been found to precede the i-case person of ḥāl preceded by a preposition. For example:

- (1105) [34:28 سورة سبأ] وَمَا أَرْسَلْنَاكَ إِلَّا كَافَّةً لِلنَّاسِ
 “And We have not sent you except comprehensively to mankind”

36.9.3. Reasons for varying the normal order

The natural order, as we have mentioned, is: first the governor, then the person of ḥāl, then the ḥāl. So normally we would say:

- (1106) [2/55 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] خَضَرَ مُحَمَّدٌ مَاشِيًا
 “Muhammad came walking.”

The speaker may choose to vary this normal order for a variety of reasons. For example, if Muḥammad had been previously hampered from walking due to an illness or injury, then in order to emphasize his being able to walk, the speaker may say:

- (1107) [2/55 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] خَضَرَ مَاشِيًا مُحَمَّدٌ

Or if the listener was incorrectly assuming that Muḥammad came riding and not walking, then the speaker may wish to disabuse him by saying

- (1108) [2/55 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] مَاشِيًا خَضَرَ مُحَمَّدٌ

There may be other reasons as well.¹²

¹² 2/354 معاني النحو

36.10. Transitory and permanent meanings for the ḥāl

Fundamentally, the ḥāl is transitory in its meaning; i.e. it is not meant to be a permanent description of the person of ḥāl. For example:

- (1109) [2/28 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] جَاءَ سَعِيدٌ غَاضِبًا
“Saeid came angry”

- (1110) [2/28 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] أَقْبَلَ خَالِدٌ رَاكِبًا
“Khālid came riding.”

In the above examples, the ḥāls غَاضِبًا “angry” and رَاكِبًا “riding” are meant to be transitory descriptions, such that it is conceivable that Saeid may cease to be angry, and that Khālid could come walking instead of riding.

However, it is possible that the ḥāl have a more permanent meaning. This is primarily when the ḥāl describes person of ḥāl as it comes in to existence or relevance.

For example:

- (1111) [4:28 سورة النساء] وَخَلَقَ الْإِنْسَانَ ضَعِيفًا
“and mankind was created weak”

- (1112) [3:36 سورة آل عمران] قَالَتْ رَبِّ إِنِّي وَضَعْتُهَا أُنْثَى
“she said, ‘My Lord, I have delivered a female.’”

- (1113) [2/29 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] وَلَدَتْهُ أَرْزُقُ الْعَيْنَيْنِ أَفْطَسَ الْأَنْفِ
“She gave birth to him blue-eyed (and) snub-nosed”

The ḥāl may also have a more permanent meaning in the sense that while it describes the person of ḥāl linked in time to the governor, its meaning also applies more permanently to the person of ḥāl. For example:

- (1114) [6:126 سورة الأنعام] وَهَذَا صِرَاطُ رَبِّكَ مُسْتَقِيمًا
“And this is the path of your Lord, [leading] straight”
(The ḥāl مُسْتَقِيمًا “straight” applies permanently to the person of ḥāl صِرَاطُ رَبِّكَ “path of your Lord”)

36.11. Difference in meaning between the ḥāl and the attribute

The ḥāl and the attribute are typically both sourced from adjectival nouns. And generally when you use the adjectival noun as a ḥāl it will have a different meaning from when it is used as an attribute.

Consider the following two examples:

- (1115) [2/334 معاني النحو] هَذَا الْفَرَسُ الْأَسْبَقُ
“This is the foremost horse.”

- (1116) [2/334 معاني النحو] هَذَا الْفَرَسُ سَابِقًا
“This is the horse (when it is) foremost”

The former sentence is describing the horse as being foremost, but not necessarily at the time when the speaker is pointing to it. So, at the moment of pointing to it, the horse may actually be tethered. Whereas the latter sentence is describing the horse at the moment of pointing at it. It would likely be running and being foremost at that time.

Similarly, consider:

(1117) أَقْبَلَ الطَّالِبُ الْمُقَصِّرُ [معاني النحو 2/333]
“The slacking student approached.”

(1118) أَقْبَلَ الطَّالِبُ مُقَصِّرًا [معاني النحو 2/333]
“The student approached (while) slacking.”

The same distinction applies to the above two examples. The former sentence describes the student as a slacker generally. But he may not be slacking at the moment when he is approaching. Whereas the latter sentence describes the student as slacking when he is approaching. He may not be a slacker in general.

However, there can sometimes be some overlap in meaning.¹³ For example, in the scenario when all the following conditions are satisfied:

- the ḥāl has a transitory meaning,
- the meaning of the ḥāl is a description of motion or posture (like “sitting”, “standing”, “sleeping”, “running”, etc.),
- the person of ḥāl is indefinite,
- the governor is an expression that has verbal force (see section (ref)).

In such a case, the adjectival noun used as a attribute may have a somewhat similar meaning to it being used a ḥāl. For example:

(1119) فِيهَا رَجُلٌ قَائِمٌ
“In it (i.e. the house), is a standing man.”
(attribute)

(1120) فِيهَا رَجُلٌ قَائِمًا
[معاني النحو 2/352 cited by سيويوه 1/272]
“In the house, is a man standing.”
(ḥāl)

There may also be a case where the ḥāl is indistinguishable from the attribute due to the person of ḥāl being indefinite and in the a-case. For example:

(1121) رَأَيْتُ طَالِبًا مُقَصِّرًا [معاني النحو 2/352]
“I saw a student slacking.”
or
“I saw a slacking student.”

¹³See also معاني النحو 2/350 cited by شرح إبي سعيد بهامش كتاب سيويوه 1/272

36.12. An primitive noun as the ḥāl

Because the ḥāl is a description of the person of ḥāl, and a description is likely to be an adjectival noun, and adjectival nouns are typically deverbal nouns, it therefore follows that the ḥāl is likely to be a deverbal noun. Most of the examples we have seen so far have been of the ḥāl as a deverbal noun. For example: رَاكِبًا, غَاضِبًا, etc. However, it is possible for the ḥāl to be primitive noun. Here are some examples:

- (1122) طَلَعَ الْقَمَرُ بَدْرًا [Wright 2/115A]
“The moon rose (as) a full moon.”
- (1123) كَرَّ زَيْدٌ أَسَدًا [Wright 2/115A]
“Zayd charged (like) a lion.”
- (1124) بَعَهُ مُدًّا بِدِرْهَمٍ [Wright 2/115A]
“Sell it (at the rate of) a mudd for a dirham”
(a mudd is a measure of volume)
- (1125) بَعْتُ الشَّاءَ شَاءً وَدِرْهَمًا [Wright 2/115A]
“I sold the sheep (at the rate of) a sheep [for] a dirham.”
- (1126) بَايَعْتُهُ يَدًا بِيَدٍ [Wright 2/115A]
“I traded with him hand in hand”
(i.e. for ready money)
- (1127) بَيَّنْتُ لَهُ حِسَابَهُ بَابًا بَابًا [Wright 2/115A]
“I explained his account for him item by item.”
- (1128) دَخَلَ الْقَوْمُ رَجُلًا رَجُلًا [2/30 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
“The people entered, man by man.”
- (1129) كَلَّمْتُهُ فَاهُ إِلَى فِيٍّ [Wright 2/115B]
“I spoke to him his mouth to my mouth.”
(i.e. face to face)
- (1130) هَذَا عَنَّا أَطْيَبُ مِنْهُ زَبِيًّا [Wright 2/115B]
“This (fruit), as a grape, is better than it as a raisin.”
- (1131) وَكَذَلِكَ أَنْزَلْنَاهُ قُرْآنًا عَرَبِيًّا [2/33 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان cited by سورة طه 20:113]
“And thus We have sent it down as an Arabic Qur’ān”
- (1132) هَذِهِ أَمْوَالُكَ ذَهَبًا [2/34 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
“These are your wealths, as gold.”
- (1133) هَذِهِ فِضَّتُكَ خَاتَمًا [2/34 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
“This is your silver, as a ring.”
- (1134) هَذَا خَاتَمُكَ فِضَّةً [2/34 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان]
“This is your ring, in silver”

36.13. A maṣḍar as the ḥāl

The maṣḍar can sometimes *appear* to be a ḥāl. For example:

- (1135) أَقْبَلَ عَلَيَّ رَكْضًا [معاني النحو 2/345]
 “ʿĀliyy approached (in the state of) running.”

In the above example, the opinion of some scholars would be that the maṣḍar رَكْضًا is a ḥāl. And this is a substitute for saying رَاكِضًا عَلَيَّ.

When the maṣḍar is used thus it remains in the indefinite singular regardless of the number of the persons of ḥāl. For example:

- (1136) أَقْبَلَ الْقَوْمُ رَكْضًا
 “The people approached running.”

The reasons for using a maṣḍar رَكْضًا in this way instead of the adjectival noun رَاكِضًا may be:

- i. Emphasis. The maṣḍar signifies purely the meaning of the verb “to run”. Whereas the adjectival noun signifies the meaning of the verb along with person described by the adjectival noun (the runner). So using the maṣḍar as a ḥāl draws attention to the meaning of running rather than the person who is running. The maṣḍar used in this way can also be seen as a sort of metaphor, as if ʿĀliyy, while executing the action of running, *became* the act of running.¹⁴
- ii. Expanding the sense of the adverb to incorporate other adverbs. The maṣḍar رَكْضًا, in the above example, can also be analyzed as an absolute doee (being a deputy to the maṣḍar إِفْتَال meaning:

- (1137) أَقْبَلَ عَلَيَّ إِفْتَال رَكْضٍ [معاني النحو 2/348]
 “ʿĀliyy approached (in) the type of approaching (that is) running.”

The use of the maṣḍar in this way could then be used to intend both the ḥāl meaning and the absolute doee meaning together. That is ʿĀliyy’s type and state of approaching was running.

Depending on the meaning of the maṣḍar, other types of adverbs, like the adverb of reason, may be included in this expanded sense as well.¹⁵

Some scholars are conservative in analyzing a maṣḍar as a ḥāl, and instead prefer that it be analyzed as another adverb, like a (deputy) absolute doee or an adverb of reason, etc.¹⁶ And if the meaning of the maṣḍar does not allow it to be analyzed as another adverb, and only as a ḥāl then it is accepted as a permitted usage but one that is restricted to what has been recorded from Classical Arabic.

Here are some examples of maṣḍars having being analyzed as ḥāl. They may fit other adverbs instead or as well.

¹⁴معاني النحو 2/348

¹⁵معاني النحو 2/348

¹⁶See مجموع مقالات فيصل المنصور 529–530

- (1138) قَتَلْتُهُ صَبْرًا [Wright 2/114C]
“I killed him in cold blood.”
- (1139) 2/12 شرح ابن يعيش على المفصل] كَلَّمْتُهُ مُشَافَهَةً
“I spoke to him face to face.”
- (1140) 32:16 سورة السجدة] يَدْعُونَ رَبَّهُمْ خَوْفًا وَطَمَعًا
“they supplicate their Lord in fear and aspiration”
(خَوْفًا (above) is analyzed as either a adverb of reason or a ḥāl.¹⁷⁾
- (1141) 2:274 سورة البقرة] الَّذِينَ يُنْفِقُونَ أَمْوَالَهُمْ بِاللَّيْلِ وَالنَّهَارِ سِرًّا وَعَلَانِيَةً
“Those who spend their wealth [in Allāh’s way] by night and by day, secretly and publicly”
(سِرًّا is analyzed as either a ḥāl or a attribute to a deleted absolute doer (إِنْفَاقًا).¹⁸⁾
- (1142) 4:10 سورة النساء] إِنَّ الَّذِينَ يَأْكُلُونَ أَمْوَالَ الْيَتَامَى ظُلْمًا
“Indeed, those who devour the property of orphans unjustly”
(ظُلْمًا (above) is analyzed as either a adverb of reason or a ḥāl.¹⁹⁾
- (1143) 6:31 سورة الأنعام] حَتَّىٰ إِذَا جَاءَتْهُمْ السَّاعَةُ بَغْتَةً
“until when the Hour [of resurrection] comes upon them unexpectedly”
(بَغْتَةً (above) is analyzed as either a ḥāl or a absolute doer.²⁰⁾

36.14. A sentence as the ḥāl

In the examples so far, the ḥāl has always been a single word, usually an adjectival noun. For example, جَاءَ زَيْدٌ ضَاحِكًا “Zayd came laughing”. Instead, of using the adjectival noun ضَاحِكًا, we can instead use the u-case caseful verb يَضْحَكُ:

- (1144) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ يَضْحَكُ [Wright, 2/331C]
“Zayd came laughing.”

Actually, يَضْحَكُ is not just a verb. Rather, it is a complete sentence comprising of the verb itself and the doer which, in this case, is the hidden pronoun “he”. So the ḥāl here is a sentence.

As we know, the ḥāl describes the person of ḥāl during time of ḥāl’s governing verb. The use of the caseful verb يَضْحَكُ signifies that Zayd’s action of laughing was ongoing during the time of the governor جَاءَ. So يَضْحَكُ has a past meaning because of the caseless verb جَاءَ. An additional verb like كَانَ is not needed to transport the verb يَضْحَكُ to the past. Similarly, if the governor was in the present or the future, the caseful verb in the ḥāl would automatically be transported to the present or future as well. For example:

¹⁷See سورة السجدة for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

¹⁸2:274 سورة البقرة for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

¹⁹4:10 سورة النساء for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

²⁰6:30 سورة الأنعام for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

- (1145) سَيَأْتِي زَيْدٌ يَضْحَكُ
“Zayd will come laughing.”

In fact, it is not permitted for the ḥāl sentence that begins with the caseful verb to itself be prefixed with سَيَ or سَوْفَ.²¹ So we cannot say (intending سَيَضْحَكُ to be a ḥāl):

- (1146) × سَيَأْتِي زَيْدٌ سَيَضْحَكُ or
يَأْتِي زَيْدٌ سَيَضْحَكُ ×

This restriction only applies to caseful verbs that begin a sentence ḥāl. If a caseful verb begins a sentence that is not a ḥāl then it may begin with سَيَ or سَوْفَ. For example:

- (1147) [سورة الصافات 37:99] وَقَالَ إِنِّي ذَاهِبٌ إِلَىٰ رَبِّي سَيَهْدِينِ
“And [then] he said, ‘Indeed, I will go to [where I am ordered by] my Lord; He will guide me.’”

Here are some more examples of sentence ḥāls comprised of a caseful verb and a doer (or deputy doer) pronoun:

- (1148) [سورة يوسف 12:16] وَجَاءُوا أَبَاهُمْ عِشَاءً يَبْكُونَ
“And they came to their father at night, weeping.”

36.14.1. The link between the sentence ḥāl and the person of ḥāl

The sentence comprising of only the caseful verb and its doer is the simplest, and one of the most common, kind of ḥāl sentence. However, more complex ḥāl sentences are also possible. And the person of ḥāl need not always be the doer of the verb in the sentence.

But the sentence ḥāl needs to have a link between it and the person of ḥāl. This link is often a pronoun that refers back to the person of ḥāl. In the examples above this link pronoun was the doer pronoun of the caseful verb. Here is an example of a more complex ḥāl sentence:

- (1149) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ يَدُهُ عَلَىٰ رَأْسِهِ [Wright, 2/331A]
“Zayd came (with) his hand on his head.”

In the example above, the sentence يَدُهُ عَلَىٰ رَأْسِهِ is the ḥāl. Note that يَد is in the u-case because it is the subject of the sentence. It is not in the a-case because it is not, by itself, the ḥāl. The entire sentence يَدُهُ عَلَىٰ رَأْسِهِ is considered to be in the a-case as the ḥāl. The link is the pronoun ه in يَدُهُ and رَأْسِهِ.

Here are some more examples:

- (1150) [سورة البقرة 2:36] أَهْبِطُوا بَعْضُكُم لِبَعْضٍ عَدُوٌّ
“Go down, [all of you], as enemies to one another”
(The sentence بَعْضُكُم لِبَعْضٍ عَدُوٌّ is the ḥāl. The link is the pronoun كُمْ in بَعْضُكُم.)

²¹ شرح الرضي على الكافية 2/354 citing معاني النحو. But see تفسير ابن عاشور for سورة الصافات 37:99 for a dissenting opinion.

36.15. The ۉ of ḥāl and its rules

Instead of, or in addition to, a pronoun as the link between the sentence ḥāl and the person of ḥāl, a special ۉ, called the ۉ of ḥāl, may be used. The ۉ of ḥāl signifies that the sentence ḥāl occurred *while* the governing verb took place. Here are some examples of the ۉ of ḥāl:

(1151) قَامَ زَيْدٌ وَهُوَ بَاكِ [Wright 2/330C]

“Zayd stood up while he was crying.”

(1152) [425: سنن ابن ماجه] أَنَّ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مَرَّ بِسَعْدٍ وَهُوَ يَتَوَضَّأُ

“that the Messenger of Allāh ﷺ passed by Saʿd while he was performing ablution”

We have defined the ḥāl as an adverb that describes the person of ḥāl. However, sometimes, the ḥāl sentence that is linked with a ۉ of ḥāl won't apparently describe the person of ḥāl. In fact, it may not even refer to the person of ḥāl at all. For example:

(1153) ذَهَبَ زَيْدٌ وَعَمْرُو يَشْتَغِلُ [Wright 2/331A]

“Zayd went while ʿAmr was busy.”

In the example above, the ḥāl's description of the person of ḥāl is only circumstantial, in that it alludes to the time in which the action of the governing verb occurred. In such cases the meaning of the ḥāl approaches that of the adverb of time. This is another of the cases where the lines between different types of adverbs get blurred. We have seen similar cases in sections (ref). Here are some more examples:

Depending on the sentence, the ۉ of ḥāl can be either mandatory, optional, or disallowed.

Let's go over the different types of ḥāl sentences, and discuss the ruling of the ۉ of ḥāl in each type of sentence.

36.15.1. The ḥāl sentence is a nounal sentence

When the ḥāl sentence is a nounal sentence, then there are three possibilities:

- i. The ḥāl sentence is devoid of a pronoun referring back to the person of ḥāl. In this case, the ۉ of ḥāl is obligatory. For example:

(1154) وَجُوبَ الرِّبْطِ بِالْوَاوِ لَعِبِ الْجَبَّارِ [4/125 cited by المقتضب للمبرد] مَرَرْتُ بِزَيْدٍ وَعَمْرُو فِي الدَّارِ

[فتحي زيدان]

“I passed by Zayd while ʿAmr (was) in the house.”

In the above example the person of ḥāl is زَيْدٌ and the ḥāl is the nounal sentence عَمْرُو فِي الدَّارِ. The sentence ḥāl does not have a pronoun that refers back to the person of ḥāl. Therefore the ۉ of ḥāl is necessary to link the sentence ḥāl to the person of ḥāl.

We have also already seen this usage in example (1153) ذَهَبَ زَيْدٌ وَعَمْرُو يَشْتَغِلُ. Here are more examples:

- (1155) 8:5 سورة الأنفال] كَمَا أَخْرَجَكَ رَبُّكَ مِنْ بَيْتِكَ بِالْحَقِّ وَإِنَّ فَرِيقًا مِّنَ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ لَكَاذِبُونَ
cited by النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان 2/58]

“[It is] just as when your Lord brought you out of your home [for the battle of Badr] in truth, while indeed, a party among the believers were unwilling,”

- (1156) النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان cited by 12:14 سورة يوسف] قَالُوا لَئِنْ أَكَلَهُ الْأَذْنَبُ وَنَحْنُ عُصْبَةٌ
2/58]

“They said, ‘If a wolf should eat him while we are a [strong] clan,’”

- ii. The sentence ḥāl begins with a pronoun that refers to person of ḥāl. In this case as well, the و of ḥāl is obligatory. The link between the sentence ḥāl and the person of ḥāl is now both the pronoun and the و of ḥāl. We saw this usage in examples (1151) وَأَمَّا بَنُو إِسْرَءِيلَ وَهُمْ يَدْعُونَ دَاوُدَ وَهُوَ بَالِكٌ and (1152) أَنْ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مَرَّ بِسَعْدٍ وَهُوَ يَتَوَضَّأُ.

Here are some more examples:

- (1157) 2/58 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان cited by 4:43 سورة النساء] لَا تَقْرُبُوا الصَّلَاةَ وَأَنْتُمْ سُكَارَى
“do not approach prayer while you are intoxicated”

- (1158) كَذَبْتُمْ وَأَنْتُمْ تَعْلَمُونَ [Wright 2/330D]
“You lied, knowing (that you did so).”

- (1159) 9:54 سورة التوبة] وَلَا يَأْتُونَ الصَّلَاةَ إِلَّا وَهُمْ كُسَالَى
“and that they come not to prayer except while they are lazy”

Some grammarians admitted optionally dropping the و of ḥāl in this case to allow sentences like:

- (1160) وجوب الربط بالواو لعبد الجبار cited by 2/317 معاني القرآن وإعرابه للزجاج] جَاءَنِي زَيْدٌ هُوَ فَارِسٌ
[فتحي زيدان]
“Zayd came to me while he (was) on horseback.”
(instead of the more normal usage with the و of ḥāl: وَهُوَ جَاءَنِي زَيْدٌ وَهُوَ فَارِسٌ)

But this opinion is considered anomalous by the majority of the grammarians.²²

- iii. The ḥāl sentence has a pronoun that refers to the person of ḥāl but it does not begin the ḥāl sentence. In this case, the و of ḥāl is optional. But generally, it will be preferred to have the و of ḥāl. For example:

- (1161) 2/61 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] جَاءَ مُحَمَّدٌ وَيَدُهُ فِي جَيْبِهِ. (more preferred)
2/61 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] جَاءَ مُحَمَّدٌ يَدُهُ فِي جَيْبِهِ. (less preferred)
Muḥammad came (with) his hand in his pocket.”

If the ḥāl sentence's info is a quasi-sentence (consisting of an prepositional or adverbial phrase), and the info precedes the subject, then dropping the و of ḥāl is normal.²³ For example:

²² وجوب الربط بالواو لعبد الجبار فتحي زيدان

²³ 1/203 دلائل الإعجاز للجرجاني

- (1162) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ فِي يَدِهِ سَوْطٌ
 “Zayd came (with) a whip in his hand.”
 (The ḥāl sentence is فِي يَدِهِ سَوْطٌ. Its info فِي يَدِهِ precedes its subject سَوْطٌ.)

36.15.2. The ḥāl sentence is a verbal sentence that begins with a caseless verb

There are several possible cases here:

- i. The ḥāl sentence is devoid of a pronoun that refers back to the person of ḥāl. In this case the و of ḥāl is mandatory. Furthermore, if the ḥāl sentence is affirmative, the caseless verb shall be preceded by the particle قَدْ. And if the ḥāl sentence is negative, the caseless verb shall not be preceded by the particle قَدْ. Examples:

- (1163) جِئْتُ وَقَدْ طَلَعَتِ الشَّمْسُ [أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/58]
 “I came while the sun had already risen.”

- (1164) جِئْتُ وَمَا طَلَعَتِ الشَّمْسُ [أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/58]
 “I came while the sun had not risen.”

- ii. The ḥāl sentence has a pronoun that refers back to the person of ḥāl. In this case the و of ḥāl is optional. Furthermore, if the ḥāl sentence is affirmative, the caseless verb can optionally be preceded by the particle قَدْ. And if the ḥāl sentence is negative, the caseless verb shall not be preceded by the particle قَدْ. Here are some examples:

Affirmative with و of ḥāl and with قَدْ. (This is the most common case.):

- (1165) وَمَا لَنَا أَلَّا نُقَاتِلَ فِي سَبِيلِ اللَّهِ وَقَدْ أُخْرِجْنَا مِنْ دِيَارِنَا وَأَبْنَائِنَا [2:246 سورة البقرة] cited by Wright 2/332B
 “And why should we not fight in the cause of Allāh when we have been driven out from our homes and from our children?”

Affirmative with و of ḥāl and without قَدْ:

- (1166) فَأَلَا أَنْؤْمِنُ لَكَ وَاتَّبَعَكَ الْأَرْذَلُونَ [26:111 سورة الشعراء] cited by أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/62
 “They said, ‘Should we believe you while you are followed by the lowest [class of people]?’”

Affirmative without و of ḥāl and without قَدْ:

- (1167) أَوْ جَاءُوكُمْ حَصِرَتْ صُدُورُهُمْ أَنْ يُقَاتِلُوكُمْ [4:90 سورة النساء] cited by أحكام ومعان: النحو العربي: 2/62 and Wright 2/332B
 “or those who come to you, their hearts strained at [the prospect of] fighting you”

Affirmative without و of ḥāl and with قَدْ:

- (1168) رَأَيْنَاهُ قَدْ تَغَيَّرَ لِزَيْدٍ وَكَانَ عَلَى جُنْدِهِ [Wright 2/332C]
 “We saw him (when) he had changed [color due to being enraged] at Zayd who (was) [in command of] his army.”

Negative with و of ḥāl (more common):

- (1169) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ وَمَا قَامَ أَبُوهُ [Wright 2/332D]
 “Zayd came without his father having stood up.”

Negative without و of ḥāl (less common):

- (1170) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ مَا قَامَ أَبُوهُ [Wright 2/332D]
 “Zayd came without his father having stood up.”

iii. The ḥāl sentence is an exception, preceded by **لَا**. In this case the و of ḥāl is prohibited. For example:

- (1171) وَمَا يَأْتِيهِمْ مِّن رَّسُولٍ إِلَّا كَانُوا بِهِ يَسْتَهْزِءُونَ [سورة الحجر 15:11 cited by النحو العربي: 2/61 أحكام ومعان]
 “And no messenger would come to them except that they ridiculed him.”
 (The sentence وَمَا يَأْتِيهِمْ مِّن رَّسُولٍ إِلَّا كَانُوا بِهِ يَسْتَهْزِءُونَ is the ḥāl beginning with a caseless verb.)

Some grammarians allowed the و of ḥāl in this case, but the examples they cite are considered irregular to normal usage.²⁴

iv. The caseless verb is followed by the conjunction **أَوْ**. In this case, the caseless verb is used with a conditional meaning. For example:

- (1172) أَحْفَظُ زَوْجِي غَابٌ أَوْ حَصَرَ [النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان 2/61]
 (1173) أَوْضِحَ الْمَسَالِكَ لَابِنِ and حالات الربط بـ (و) (ما) and عَلَةُ امْتِنَاعٍ رِبَطَ الْمَضَارِعِ الْمُثْبِتَ بِالْوَاوِ [الأضربته ذهب أو مكث 2/289 هشام]
 “I will certainly beat him [whether] he went or stayed.”

36.15.3. The ḥāl sentence is a verbal sentence that begins with a caseful verb

When a sentence ḥāl begins with a caseful verb, then, if the caseful is used with a continuous meaning (i.e. not with **لَمْ** or **لَمَّا**), then the ḥāl sentence will contain a pronoun that refers to the person of ḥāl. If the caseful is used with a past meaning (i.e. with **لَمْ** or **لَمَّا**), then the ḥāl sentence may or may not have a pronoun that refers to the person of ḥāl.²⁵

There are again a number of possible cases.

i. The sentence is affirmative and the caseful verb is preceded by the particle **قَدْ**. In this case, the و of ḥāl is obligatory. For example,

²⁴ حالات الربط بـ (و) (ما) and عَلَةُ امْتِنَاعٍ رِبَطَ الْمَضَارِعِ الْمُثْبِتَ بِالْوَاوِ [الأضربته ذهب أو مكث 2/289 هشام]

²⁵ Derived from sections حالات الربط بـ (و) (ما) and عَلَةُ امْتِنَاعٍ رِبَطَ الْمَضَارِعِ الْمُثْبِتَ بِالْوَاوِ [الأضربته ذهب أو مكث 2/289 هشام]

- (1174) [61:5 سورة الصف cited by Wright 2/331C] لِمَ تُؤْذُونَنِي وَقَدْ تَعْلَمُونَ أَنِّي رَسُولُ اللَّهِ إِلَيْكُمْ
 “why do you harm me while you certainly know that I am the messenger of Allāh to you?”

- ii. The sentence is affirmative and the caseful verb is not preceded by the particle *قَدْ*. We assume here that the sentence ḥāl contains a pronoun that refers to the person of ḥāl.

In this case, the *و* of ḥāl is usually not used. We have already seen examples of this case earlier, like (1144) *جَاءَ زَيْدٌ يَضْحَكُ* and (1148) *وَجَاءُوا آبَاهُمْ عِشَاءً وَيَبْكُونَ*.

Here are some more examples:

- (1175) [Wright 2/331C] *جَاءَ الْأَمِيرُ تُقَادُ الْجَنَائِبُ بَيْنَ يَدَيْهِ*
 “The commander came with the horses led in front of him.”
 (جَنَائِبُ is the plural of جَنِيب which is a word for a tractable horse that is led.)
- (1176) [28:20 سورة القصص] *وَجَاءَ رَجُلٌ مِنْ أَقْصَى الْمَدِينَةِ يَسْعَى*
 “And a man came from the farthest end of the city, running.”

What we have shown above constitutes the more common usage. However, we do sometimes see a ḥāl sentence beginning with a caseful verb with the *و* of ḥāl and without *قَدْ*. For example,

- (1177) [2/59 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] *حَالَاتِ الرِّبْطِ يَوَاوُ الْحَالِ الْجَبَارِ فَتَحِي* *قُمْتُ وَأَصْلَكَ عَيْنَهُ*
 [زيدان]
 “I stood up, slapping his eye.”

More usually though, if a *و* of ḥāl is to be used with a caseful verb, then a pronoun referring to the doer is inserted before it, converting the ḥāl sentence to a nominal sentence, thus:

- (1178) *قُمْتُ وَأَنَا أَصْلَكَ عَيْنَهُ*
 “I stood up, slapping his eye.”

We have already covered this type of ḥāl sentence in section (ref) above.

- iii. The sentence is negative and the caseful verb is negated with *لَا* or *مَا*. We again assume here that the sentence ḥāl contains a pronoun that refers to the person of ḥāl. In this case, the *و* of ḥāl is prohibited.

- (1179) [5:84 سورة المائدة] *أَوْضَحَ* *وَمَا لَنَا لَا نُؤْمِنُ بِاللَّهِ*
 [2/289 المسالك لابن هشام]
 “And why should we not believe in Allāh”
- (1180) [2/60 النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان] *أَوْضَحَ* *عَهْدْتُكَ مَا تَصْبُو وَفِيكَ شَبِيبَةٌ*
 [2/290 المسالك لابن هشام]
 “I knew you when you were not childish while [you had] in you youth.”
 (مَا تَصْبُوا “You were not childish” is a sentence ḥāl)

- iv. The sentence is negative and the caseful verb is negated with **لَمْ**. Here, the sentence ḥāl need not contain a pronoun that refers to the person of ḥāl. In this case, the ِ of ḥāl is usually kept, although it is permissible to drop it. For example:

(1181) النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان cited by [6:93 سورة الأنعام] أَوْ قَالَ أُوحِيَ إِلَيَّ وَلَمْ يُوحَ إِلَيْهِ شَيْءٌ [2/60]

“or says, ‘It has been inspired to me,’ while nothing has been inspired to him”

(1182) النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان cited by [6:93 سورة الأنعام] فَأَتَقَلَّبُوا بِنِعْمَةٍ مِنَ اللَّهِ وَفَضْلٍ لَمْ يَمَسْسَهُمْ سُوءٌ [2/60]

“So they returned with favor from Allāh and bounty, no harm having touched them.”

(1183) النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان [2/60] أَقْبَلَ مُحَمَّدٌ وَلَمْ يَحْمِلْ كُتُبَهُ

[2/60] أَقْبَلَ سَعِيدٌ لَمْ يَحْمِلْ كُتُبَهُ

“Muḥammad/Saeid approached while he didn’t carry his books.”

If the sentence ḥāl does not have a pronoun that links to the person of ḥāl then the ِ of ḥāl is to be used. For example:

(1184) النحو العربي: أحكام ومعان [2/60] أَقْبَلَ سَعِيدٌ وَلَمْ تَطْلُعِ الشَّمْسُ

“Saeid approached while the sun had not risen.”

(1185) النحو العربي: أحكام [2/60] وَلَقَدْ خَشِيتُ بِأَنْ أَمُوتَ وَلَمْ تَذَرْ لِلْخَرْبِ دَائِرَةً عَلَى ابْنَيْ صَمْصَمٍ [2/60]

“And indeed I feared that I would die, while a turn [of misfortune] had not [yet] turned, in battle, on the two sons of Ḍamḍam”

(وَلَمْ تَذَرْ لِلْخَرْبِ دَائِرَةً) is the sentence ḥāl

- v. The sentence is negative and the caseful verb is negated with **لَمْ**. Here again, the sentence ḥāl need not contain a pronoun that refers to the person of ḥāl. In this case, the ِ of ḥāl is typically chosen to be used.²⁶ For example:

(1186) أَمْ حَسِبْتُمْ أَنْ تَدْخُلُوا الْجَنَّةَ وَلَمَّا يَعْلَمِ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ جَاهَدُوا مِنْكُمْ وَيَعْلَمِ الصَّابِرِينَ [3:142 سورة آل عمران]

“Or do you think that you will enter Paradise while Allāh has not yet made evident those of you who fight in His cause and made evident those who are steadfast?”

36.15.4. The sentence ḥāl strengthens the meaning of the preceding sentence as a whole

Sometimes the ḥāl describes, not just a single word as the person of ḥāl but the preceding sentence as a whole. (See section (ref)). If the ḥāl is itself a sentence, then the ِ of ḥāl is not used.

For example:

²⁶From [إعراب القرآن للدرويش] وإن كانت منفية بـ «لما» فالمختار ربطها بالواو: 7:4 سورة الأعراف

- (1187) حالات and 2/289 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكَ لِابْنِ هِشَامٍ [2:2 سورة البقرة] ذَٰلِكَ الْكِتَابُ لَا رَيْبَ فِيهِ
[الربط بواو الحال الجبار فتحي زيدان]
“This is the Book about which there is no doubt”
(The sentence لَا رَيْبَ فِيهِ, in this interpretation, is analyzed as a ḥāl to the preceding sentence ذَٰلِكَ الْكِتَابُ.)

36.15.5. The sentence ḥāl is a post-conjunction

If a sentence ḥāl is preceded by a conjunction (see section (multiple ḥals) above), then an additional و of ḥāl is not typically tacked on to the conjunction.

For example:

- (1188) [7:4 سورة الأعراف] فَجَاءَهَا بِأَسْنَاءَ نَبَاتًا أَوْ هُمْ قَائِلُونَ
“and Our punishment came to them at night or while they were sleeping at noon.”
(An additional و of ḥāl is not tacked on to the conjunction أَوْ.)

However, according to some grammarians, a و of ḥāl, can be added to the conjunction and it would be acceptable.²⁷ For example:

- (1189) [7:4 سورة الأعراف for معاني القرآن للفراء] أَتَيْتَنِي وَالْيَا أَوْ وَأَنَا مَعْرُوفٌ
“You came to me, while I was adjacent, or while I was remote.”

36.16. Purposes of the و of ḥāl

The و of ḥāl essentially distances the ḥāl from the influence of the governing verb.²⁸ For example, consider the expression:

- (1190) [1/213 دلائل الإعجاز للجرجاني] جَاءَنِي زَيْدٌ يُسْرِعُ
“Zayd came to me hastening.”

The above example is almost equivalent to saying جَاءَنِي زَيْدٌ مُسْرِعًا. The ḥāl جَاءَ is tightly bound to the governor جَاءَ. So the expression asserts Zayd's coming and his hastening as one assertion.

Consider now the expression with the و of ḥāl:

- (1191) [1/214 دلائل الإعجاز للجرجاني] جَاءَنِي زَيْدٌ وَهُوَ يُسْرِعُ
“Zayd came to me while he was hastening.”

Here the ḥāl sentence وَهُوَ يُسْرِعُ is a more independent assertion. Now, the only link between the ḥāl and its governing verb is that the ḥāl expresses the state of the person of ḥāl when the action of the governing verb took place.

The و of ḥāl can be used for a different purposes. We will list them below. In the following discussion, there will be three distinct expressions that we will refer to:

i. The و of ḥāl

²⁷ معاني القرآن للفراء citing حالات الربط بواو الحال الجبار فتحي زيدان

²⁸ 357–358 معاني النحو cited by 1/213–214 دلائل الإعجاز للجرجاني

- ii. The ḥāl sentence which follows the ۹ of ḥāl
- iii. The *preceding statement* which precedes the ۹ of ḥāl

Here are some purposes of the ۹ of ḥāl:

- The ۹ of ḥāl indicates that the event in the preceding statement took place at the time when the ḥāl occurred. For example:

(1192) جَاءَ زَيْدٌ وَالشَّمْسُ طَالِعَةٌ [مغني اللبيب لابن هشام] 606 cited by معاني النحو 2/361
 “Zayd came when the sun was risen.”

(1193) سَأَزُورُكَ وَالْقَمَرُ طَالِعٌ [معاني النحو 2/367]
 “I will visit you when the moon is risen.”

- The ۹ of ḥāl indicates that the person of ḥāl was already in the state described by the ḥāl before the event in the preceding statement occurred. For example:

(1194) وَمَا لَنَا أَلَّا نُقَاتِلَ فِي سَبِيلِ اللَّهِ وَقَدْ أَخْرَجَنَا مِنْ دِيَارِنَا وَأَبْنَائِنَا [سورة البقرة 2:246 cited by معاني النحو 2/368]
 “And why should we not fight in the cause of Allāh when we have been driven out from our homes and from our children?”

- The ۹ of ḥāl indicates that the ḥāl after it is something obvious and should be taken into account, when considering the preceding statement. For example:

(1195) أَمْ حَسِبْتُمْ أَنْ تَدْخُلُوا الْجَنَّةَ وَلَمَّا يَأْتِكُمْ مَثَلُ الَّذِينَ خَلَوْا مِنْ قَبْلِكُمْ [سورة البقرة 2:214 cited by معاني النحو 2/367]
 “Or do you think that you will enter Paradise while such [trial] has not yet come to you as came to those who passed on before you?”

(1196) أَرَأَيْتَ لَوْ مَضْمَضْتَ مِنَ الْمَاءِ وَأَنْتَ صَائِمٌ [سنن أبي داود 2385]
 “What do you think if you rinse your mouth with water while you are fasting?”

- The ۹ of ḥāl indicates that the ḥāl sentence is describing something extraordinary. For example:

(1197) عَبَرَ النَّهْرَ وَلَمْ يَحْرُكْ يَدَهُ [معاني النحو 2/368]
 “He crossed the river while not (even) moving his hand!”

(1198) دَخَلَ عَلَى الْأَمِيرِ وَبِيَدِهِ سَيْفُهُ [معاني النحو 2/368]
 “He entered upon the commander while in his hand was his sword!”

- To differentiate between a ḥāl and a attribute. For example:

(1199) رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا عِنْدَهُ مَالٌ [معاني النحو 2/368]
 “I saw a man (who) had wealth.”
 (The sentence رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا عِنْدَهُ مَالٌ can be analyzed as a attribute.)

(1200) رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا وَعِنْدَهُ مَالٌ [معاني النحو 2/368]
 “I saw a man while he had wealth.”
 (The sentence رَأَيْتُ رَجُلًا وَعِنْدَهُ مَالٌ can only be analyzed as a ḥāl.)

There may be other purposes as well.²⁹

36.17. A quasi-sentence as the ḥāl

(Compare this section to section (ref).) A quasi-sentence, in this context, is a prepositional or adverbial phrase. For example: عَلَى الْغُصْنِ “on the branch” and بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ “between the clouds”.

Just like a complete sentence, a quasi-sentence too may occur as a ḥāl. For example:

- (1201) أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكَ لِابْنِ هِشَامٍ [رَأَيْتُ الْهَلَالَ بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ] 2/285
 “I saw the crescent between the clouds.”
 (بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ is analyzed as a ḥāl.)
- (1202) جَامِعُ الدُّرُوسِ الْعَرَبِيَّةِ لِمُصْطَفَى الْغُلَايِينِي [نَظَرْتُ الْغُصْفُورَ عَلَى الْغُصْنِ] 3/101
 “I looked at the sparrow on the branch.”
- (1203) 2/52 [الْأَصُولُ فِي النُّحُو لِبْنِ السَّرَاجِ] كَتَبَ عُمَرُ إِلَى أَبِي عُبَيْدَةَ بِالشَّامِ
 “Eumar wrote to Abi Eubaydah in Syria.”
- (1204) 2/285 [أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكَ لِابْنِ هِشَامٍ] 28:79 [سُورَةُ الْقَصَصِ] فَخَرَجَ عَلَى قَوْمِهِ فِي زِينَتِهِ
 “So he came out before his people in his adornment.”
 (فِي زِينَتِهِ is analyzed as a ḥāl.³⁰)
- (1205) 3:46 [سُورَةُ آلِ عِمْرَانَ] وَيُكَلِّمُ النَّاسَ فِي الْمَهْدِ
 “He will speak to the people in the cradle”
 (فِي الْمَهْدِ has been analyzed as a ḥāl.³¹)

Now, you might be thinking: Didn't we learn in chapter (ref) that بَيْنَ is an adverb of place? So why are we now saying that it is a ḥāl?

Well, first of all, we are saying that the quasi-sentence بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ is a ḥāl, not just بَيْنَ. Secondly, we say that the quasi-sentence is a ḥāl only loosely speaking.

Remember that an adverb of time or place is governed by a verb. And the adverb of time or place indicates the time or place where the action of the verb occurred. In a sentence like (1201) رَأَيْتُ الْهَلَالَ بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ, the crescent was between the clouds before the action of seeing took place. So, in this case, we say that بَيْنَ is an adverb of place, but it is governed, not by the verb رَأَى, but by an implied general beingness (see section (ref)) So it is as if we are saying:

“I saw the crescent (while it was) [being]^{between the clouds}.”

And it is this implied general beingness which is technically the ḥāl.³² While بَيْنَ remains (technically) an adverb of place.

Because the actual ḥāl “being” is (necessarily) unexpressed and only implied, we can loosely say that the quasi-sentence بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ is a ḥāl.

²⁹ 2/368–369 معاني النحو

³⁰ See 28:79 سورة القصص for تفسير ابن عاشور

³¹ 3:46 سورة آل عمران for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

³² 3/101 جامع الدروس العربية لمصطفى الغلاييني

Similarly, in example (1202) نَظَرْتُ الْعُصْفُورَ عَلَى الْغُصْنِ, the prepositional phrase عَلَى الْغُصْنِ is governed, not by the verb نَظَرَ but by an implied verb “being” which is the true ḥāl. But, loosely speaking, we may say that the quasi-sentence عَلَى الْغُصْنِ is the ḥāl.

Similarly, in example (1203) كَتَبَ عُمَرُ إِلَى أَبِي عُبَيْدَةَ بِالشَّامِ, the act of writing was done by ʿUmar in al-Hijāz, not in Syria. So the prepositional phrase بِالشَّامِ is describing the state of Abū ʿUbaydah while he was in Syria.

This is yet another instance of where the lines between different types of adverbs get blurred. In fact, some grammarians have classified the ḥāl to be of the same class of adverbs as the adverb of time and the adverb of place.³³

From the perspective of meaning, the quasi-sentence بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ “between the clouds” describes the state of the person of ḥāl أَهْلَالٌ during the occurrence of the verb رَأَى. Similarly, the quasi-sentence عَلَى الْغُصْنِ “on the branch” describes the state of the person of ḥāl الْعُصْفُورُ during the occurrence of the verb نَظَرَ.

Here is an example of where the quasi-sentence does not work as a ḥāl:

- (1206) وَقَعَ الْحَجَرُ فِي الْحُفْرَةِ
“The stone fell in the pit.”

In the above example, the stone went in the pit due to the action of the verb وَقَعَ. So the preposition فِي is governed by the verb وَقَعَ. Because فِي is not governed by an implied governor meaning “being”, therefore, the quasi-sentence فِي الْحُفْرَةِ is not a ḥāl.

One indicator to test if the quasi-sentence is valid as ḥāl in any particular sentence, is to insert a وَ of ḥāl and a pronoun (referring to the person of ḥāl) before the quasi-sentence (thus making it a complete sentence). The purpose of the وَ of ḥāl, here, is to make the ḥāl a pre-existing state. If the resulting expression (with the وَ of ḥāl is interpreted as making the ḥāl a pre-existing state) retains the same meaning as the original, then the quasi-sentence could be valid as a ḥāl. Let’s use this test on some of the examples above.

- (1207) وَقَعَ الْحَجَرُ وَهُوَ فِي الْحُفْرَةِ
“The stone fell while it had already been in the pit.”
(This does not retain the same meaning as the original وَقَعَ الْحَجَرُ فِي الْحُفْرَةِ. So the quasi-sentence in the original example is not a ḥāl.)

- (1208) رَأَيْتُ أَهْلَالَ وَهُوَ بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ
“I saw the crescent while it had already been between the clouds.”
(This retains the meaning of the original رَأَيْتُ أَهْلَالَ بَيْنَ السَّحَابِ. So the quasi-sentence in the original example is valid as a ḥāl.)

- (1209) نَظَرْتُ الْعُصْفُورَ وَهُوَ عَلَى الْغُصْنِ
“I looked at the sparrow while it had already been on the branch.”
(This retains the meaning of the original نَظَرْتُ الْعُصْفُورَ عَلَى الْغُصْنِ. So the quasi-sentence in the original example is valid as a ḥāl.)

³³ 4/166 المقتضب للمبرد

There may be examples where a quasi-sentence could be validly interpreted either as a ḥāl (governed by an implied governor meaning “being”), or as governed by an overt verb.³⁴ For example:

- (1210) الأُصول في النحو لابن السراج] رَأَيْتُ زَيْدًا فِي الدَّارِ
“I saw Zayd in the house.”

Without context, the prepositional phrase *في الدار* could either be governed by *رَأَيْتُ*, signifying that the act of seeing was done in the house. Or it could be governed by the implication of general beingness, as a ḥāl for *زَيْدٌ*.³⁵

A quasi-sentence can only be a ḥāl if it is governed by an implied (unexpressed) governor. This implicated governor will typically be general beingness, as in the examples above.³⁶ In fact, some grammarians insist that the implied governor can only be general beingness.³⁷ However, it is conceivable that the implied governor of the preposition be interpreted, if not formally then at least in meaning, as some other verb (or verbal noun).³⁸ For example:

- (1211) [3:194 سورة آل عمران] رَبَّنَا وَءَاتِنَا مَا وَعَدْتَنَا عَلَى رُسُلِكَ
“Our Lord, and grant us what You promised us through Your messengers”

In one interpretation of the above āyah, the prepositional phrase *عَلَى رُسُلِكَ* “through Your messengers” has been analyzed as ḥāl of *مَا وَعَدْتَنَا* “what You promised us” The meaning with the implicated governor has been explained as *مُنَزَّلًا عَلَيْهِمْ* “sent down on [Your messengers].”³⁹

36.18. Interpreting a sentence as a ḥāl vs. a attribute

We have just seen how a sentence (or quasi-sentence) can be interpreted as a ḥāl. And we already know that a sentence (or quasi-sentence) can be interpreted as a attribute. So how can we tell when a sentence (or quasi-sentence) is a ḥāl vs. when it is a attribute?

We may use the following guidelines⁴⁰:

- When a sentence (or quasi-sentence) occurs after a specific definite noun, then it will be a ḥāl.
- And when a sentence (or quasi-sentence) occurs after a unspecified indefinite noun, then it will be a attribute.
- And when a sentence (or quasi-sentence) occurs after a generic definite noun or an specified indefinite noun then it may be interpreted as either a ḥāl or a attribute.

³⁴See also, for example, the tafsir of *تَحْتَ الشَّجَرَةِ* in *البحر المحيط لأبي حيان* for 48:18 سورة الفتح

³⁵2/52 الأُصول في النحو لابن السراج

³⁶1/213 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية, 2/285 أَوْضَحَ الْمَسَالِكَ لابن هشام

³⁷(مَا وَعَدْتَنَا عَلَى رُسُلِكَ) 3:194 سورة آل عمران for *البحر المحيط لأبي حيان*

³⁸2/447 footnote النحو الوافي

³⁹3:194 سورة آل عمران for *تفسير ابن عاشور*

⁴⁰560 مغني اللبيب لابن هشام

However, in this case when both the attribute and the ḥāl interpretations are possible, one may still be preferred over the other depending on what the overall meaning and context demands.⁴¹

This is because when a sentence is interpreted as a ḥāl then it will be describing the state of the person of ḥāl. And when a sentence is interpreted as a attribute then it will be specifying or identifying the attributee.

What we mean by a *specific definite* noun is one that refers to a specific entity. Not one that refers to a generic type (for which Arabic also uses the definite).

For example, in the sentence *زَيْدٌ فِي الدَّارِ* “Zayd is in the house,” *زَيْدٌ* is a specific definite noun because it refers to a specific person. On the other hand, if we say *الْفِيلُ حَيَوَانٌ* “The elephant is an animal,” then we may be using *الْفِيلُ* to refer to the species, and not a specific elephant. In this case, *الْفِيلُ* is a *generic definite* noun.

And what we mean by an unspecified indefinite noun is one that is not restricted by a attribute or other qualifier. So it is applicable to any entity denoted by that noun. For example, *رَجُلٌ* in *فِي الدَّارِ رَجُلٌ* is an unspecified indefinite noun. But in *فِي الدَّارِ رَجُلٌ كَبِيرٌ* and *فِي الدَّارِ رَجُلٌ حَنِيفٌ* it is a specified indefinite noun.

Here are some examples of sentences analyzed as attributes or ḥāls:

- (1212) 560 مغني اللبيب لابن هشام [سورة الإسراء 17:93] حَتَّى تُنَزِّلَ عَلَيْنَا كِتَابًا نَقْرُؤُهُ
“until you bring down to us a book we may read”
(*نَقْرُؤُهُ* is analyzed as a attribute because *كِتَابٌ* is an unspecified indefinite noun.)
- (1213) 1699a: صحيح مسلم] فَلَقَدْ رَأَيْتُهُ يَقِيهَا مِنَ الْحِجَارَةِ بِنَفْسِهِ
“for indeed I saw him protecting her from the stones with his [body].”
(*يَقِيهَا* is analyzed as a ḥāl because the pronoun *ه* in *رَأَيْتُهُ* is a specific definite noun.)
- (1214) 43:31 سورة الزخرف] وَقَالُوا لَوْلَا نُزِّلَ هَذَا الْقُرْآنُ عَلَى رَجُلٍ مِنَ الْقَرْيَتَيْنِ عَظِيمٍ
And they said, “Why was this Qur’ān not sent down upon a great man from [one of] the two cities?”
(*رَجُلٍ* is a attribute to *عَظِيمٍ*. *عَظِيمٍ* is a second attribute.)
- (1215) 561 مغني اللبيب لابن هشام [سورة الجمعة 62:5] كَمَثَلِ الْجَمَارِ يَحْمِلُ أَسْفَارًا
“is like that of a donkey who carries volumes [of books]”
(*الْجَمَارِ* is a generic definite noun. So, the sentence *يَحْمِلُ أَسْفَارًا* has been analyzed as either a ḥāl or a attribute.⁴²)

Consider now the following example:

- (1216) 40:28 سورة غافر] وَقَالَ رَجُلٌ مُؤْمِنٌ مِنْ آلِ فِرْعَوْنَ يَكْتُمُ إِيمَانَهُ
“And a believing man from the family of Pharaoh who concealed his faith said,”

⁴¹ النحو الوافي 3/477

⁴² سورة الجمعة for الكشف للزمخشري

In the above example, there are two (quasi-) sentences after the first attribute مُؤْمِن:

- i. مِنْ آلِ فِرْعَوْنَ
- ii. يَكُنْتُمْ إِيْمَانَهُ

There are now multiple possible interpretations:

Since مِنْ آلِ فِرْعَوْنَ is now a specified indefinite noun (having been described by the attribute مُؤْمِن) it is permissible for both مِنْ آلِ فِرْعَوْنَ and يَكُنْتُمْ إِيْمَانَهُ to be ḥāls. Or مِنْ آلِ فِرْعَوْنَ can be a attribute and يَكُنْتُمْ إِيْمَانَهُ can be a ḥāl. Or both مِنْ آلِ فِرْعَوْنَ and يَكُنْتُمْ إِيْمَانَهُ can be attributes.⁴³

36.19. Multiple ḥāls when one or more is a sentence or quasi-sentence

From section (ref) earlier in this chapter, we learned that there may be more than one ḥāl for one person of ḥāl. These multiple ḥāls may consist of sentence and quasi-sentence ḥāls. For example:

- (1217) [3:39 سورة آل عمران] فَنَادَتْهُ الْمَلَائِكَةُ وَهُوَ قَائِمٌ يُصَلِّي فِي الْمِحْرَابِ
 “So the angels called him while he was standing in prayer in the chamber,”
 (هُوَ قَائِمٌ and فِي الْمِحْرَابِ have both been analyzed as ḥāls as one interpretation.⁴⁴)

When one or more of these multiple ḥāls is a sentence or quasi-sentence, then it is usual, though not imperative, that the ḥāls be in the following order⁴⁵:

1. First, any ḥāls that are comprised of a single word
2. Then any quasi-sentence ḥāls
3. Then any sentence ḥāls

This is the same order that is usually followed for attributes as well.
 Here is an example:

- (1218) [28:21 سورة القصص] فَخَرَجَ مِنْهَا خَائِفًا يَتَرَقَّبُ
 “So he left it, fearful and anticipating [apprehension].”

36.20. Suppressing the governor of the ḥāl

The governor of the ḥāl may be suppressed (i.e. omitted) in some cases optionally, and in other cases necessarily. We will discuss these cases below

⁴³ 40:28 سورة غافر for تفسير ابن عثيمين

⁴⁴ 3:39 سورة آل عمران for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

⁴⁵ 3:46 سورة آل عمران for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان

36.20.1. Optional suppressing of the governor of the ḥāl**36.20.2. Necessary suppressing of the governor of the ḥāl**

The governor is also omitted when it is conceptual with the meaning “existing” or “being”. We have seen this in section (ref) above.

36.21. TODO topics

- حذف عامل الحال
- الحال المؤكدة
- الحال من حيث الزمن/الحال المقدرة
- [2/400 النحو الوافي] الحال السببي

Work in progress

Work in progress

Chapter 37.

The connected nouns

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

37.1. Introduction

Consider the sentence:

رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ.

“I saw the man.”

If the listener (or reader) can identify the individual referred to by the noun “the man” (maybe from a pre-existing mutual understanding with the speaker), then there is no problem with this sentence. But often, further clarification is needed for the listener to correctly identify the individual to whom the speaker is referring. This further clarification can be provided in a number of ways.

One way is to use an adjectival noun to describe the noun. For example:

رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ الطَّوِيلَ.

“I saw the *tall* man.”

Another way is to use a pointing noun, thus:

رَأَيْتُ ذَٰلِكَ الرَّجُلَ.

“I saw *that* man.”

But sometimes, a whole sentence is needed to provide the needed identification. In this case, Arabic uses what is called a *connected noun* and a *connecting sentence*. This example should help you understand what we mean:

رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ الَّذِي لَقِيتُهُ بِالْأَمْسِ .

connecting sentence

connected noun

“I saw the [specific] man whom I met yesterday.”

In the above sentence, the connected noun is الَّذِي *alladhi*. It is applied to singular masculine nouns, like الرَّجُلَ. By itself it may be translated as “the

one_{im} that/which/who/whom”. It is called a connected noun because it is directly followed by, i.e. *connected* to, a connecting sentence. The connecting sentence contains necessary information for the listener to correctly identify the individual that the connected noun refers to. The connecting sentence in the above example is the sentence لَقِيْتُهُ بِالْأَمْسِ “I met him yesterday.”

Note by the way, that we did not translate the pronoun “him” in our original translation (above). This is because it would sound unnatural in English to say: “I saw the [specific] man (whom) I met *him* yesterday.” But this pronoun is an essential part of the Arabic connecting sentence and is called the *refer-back pronoun*. We will deal with it in section @ref(refer-back-pronoun) later in this chapter.

There are two types of connected nouns:

1. The specific connected nouns
2. The general connected nouns

We will study both these types separately within this chapter.

37.2. The specific connected nouns

The specific connected nouns have a significance which is restricted to a specific individual or category of individuals, and its connecting sentence should contain sufficient information to identify that specific individual.

The specific connected nouns is a group of nouns where each noun is applied to a gender and number of individuals. They are:

connected noun	Description
الَّذِي 'alladhī	Singular masculine. For both intelligent and non-intelligent beings. Rigid. Only one ل in its spelling.
الَّتِي 'allatī	Singular feminine. For both intelligent and non-intelligent beings. Also used for plural non-intelligent beings of both genders. Rigid. Only one ل in its spelling.
الَّذَانِ 'alladhānī	Dual masculine. For both intelligent and non-intelligent beings. Flexible: الَّذَيْنِ 'alladhaynī in the a-case and i-case. Two ل's in its spelling.
الَّتَانِ 'allatānī	Dual feminine. For both intelligent and non-intelligent beings. Flexible: اللَّتَيْنِ 'allataynī in the a-case and i-case. Two ل's in its spelling.
الَّذِينَ 'alladhīna	Plural masculine. For both intelligent beings. Rigid. Only one ل in its spelling.
الَّذِيْنَ 'allātī	For plural feminine intelligent beings. Also used for non-intelligent beings of both genders but اللَّتِي is more common there. Rigid. Two ل's in its spelling. Has the following variants: اللَّاتِ 'allātī, اللَّائِي 'allā'ī, اللَّوَاتِي 'allawātī

37.2.1. Grammatical position of the specific connected noun

Consider again the same example:

رَأَيْتُ الرَّجُلَ الَّذِي لَقِيتُهُ بِالْأَمْسِ.

“I saw the [specific] man whom I met yesterday.”

In this example, the connected noun *الَّذِي* *alladhī* is a attribute (in the a-case) to the described noun *الرَّجُلَ*. Because *الَّذِي* is a rigid noun, it will appear the same in all cases without any change to its ending.

As a attribute, the connected noun may also come as the last in a series of attributes, and can also be combined with a pointing noun. For example:

رَأَيْتُ ذَٰلِكَ الرَّجُلَ الطَّوِيلَ الَّذِي لَقِيتُهُ بِالْأَمْسِ.

“I saw that [specific] tall man whom I met yesterday.”

But connected nouns need not only occur as attributes. They may occur in various grammatical positions. Here are some examples:

As a subject:

وَالَّذِينَ يَكْنِزُونَ الذَّهَبَ وَالْفِضَّةَ وَلَا يَنْفِقُونَهَا فِي سَبِيلِ اللَّهِ فَبَشِّرْهُمْ بِعَذَابٍ أَلِيمٍ
“And those who hoard gold and silver and spend it not in the way of Allāh - give them tidings of a painful punishment.”

9:34 سورة التوبة

As an info:

خَيْرَ أَيْمَنِكُمُ الَّذِينَ تُحِبُّونَهُمْ وَيُحِبُّونَكُمْ
“The best of your rulers are the ones whom you love and who love you”

18:55 صحيح مسلم

هَٰؤُلَاءِ عَلَى الْمُنْبَرِ

“They are the ones which (are) on the pulpit.”

36: سنن الدارمي

As a doer:

قَدْ بَلَغَنَا الَّذِي قُلْتُمُوهُ.

“The [specific] one (thing) that you said has reached us.”

As a direct doer:

رَبَّنَا أَرِنَا الَّذِينَ أَضَلَّانَا مِنَ الْجِنَّ وَالْإِنْسِ
“Our Lord, show us those who misled us of the jinn and men”

41:29 سورة فصلت

Following a preposition:

أَوْ كَالَّذِي مَرَّ عَلَى قَرْيَةٍ
“Or [consider such an example] as the one who passed by a township”

2:259 سورة البقرة

As a annexed-to noun in an annexation:

قَدْ سَمِعَ اللَّهُ قَوْلَ الَّتِي تُجَادِلُكَ فِي زَوْجِهَا
“Certainly has Allāh heard the speech of the one who argues [i.e., pleads] with you, [O Muḥammad]”

58:1 سورة المجادلة

37.3. The refer-back pronoun

The connecting sentence is directly follows the connected noun. As we mentioned in the introduction, the connecting sentence provides clarifying information for the listener (or reader) to identify the individual referred to by the connected noun.

In the connecting sentence is a pronoun that refers back to the connected noun. This pronoun is called the *refer-back pronoun*. and it is an essential (though not always apparent) part of the connecting sentence.

Let us identify some of the refer-back pronouns in the examples we have given.

وَالَّذِينَ يَكْنِزُونَ الذَّهَبَ وَالْفِضَّةَ

“And those who hoard gold and silver”

refer-back pronoun: the plural masculine doer pronoun **و** in يَكْنِزُونَ

خَيْرٌ أَيْمَتِكُمُ الَّذِينَ تُحِبُّونَهُمْ

“The best of your rulers are the ones whom you love and who love you”

refer-back pronoun: the plural masculine direct doer attached pronoun **هُمْ** in تُحِبُّونَهُمْ

قَدْ بَلَغَنَا الَّذِي قُلْتُمُوهُ.

“The [specific] one (thing) that you said has reached us.”

refer-back pronoun: the singular masculine direct doer attached pronoun **هُ** in قُلْتُمُوهُ

رَبَّنَا ارْأِنَا الَّذِينَ أَضَلَّانَا مِنَ الْجِنِّ وَالْإِنْسِ

“Our Lord, show us those who misled us of the jinn and men”

refer-back pronoun: the dual masculine doer pronoun **ا** in ارْأِنَا

أَوْ كَالَّذِي مَرَّ عَلَى قَرْيَةٍ

“Or [consider such an example] as the one who passed by a township”

refer-back pronoun: the implied singular masculine doer pronoun “he” in مَرَّ

قَدْ سَمِعَ اللَّهُ قَوْلَ الَّتِي تُجَادِلُكَ فِي زَوْجِهَا

“Certainly has Allāh heard the speech of the one who argues [i.e., pleads] with you, [O Muḥammad]”

refer-back pronoun: the implied singular feminine doer pronoun “she” in تُجَادِلُكَ

37.3.1. Matching the refer-back pronoun with the connected noun

The refer-back pronoun matches the specific connected noun in gender and number. And the refer-back pronoun is generally an absent-person pronoun (هُ، هُوَ، هَا، etc.). In the example وَالَّذِينَ يَكْنِزُونَ الذَّهَبَ وَالْفِضَّةَ “And those who hoard gold and silver,” the refer-back pronoun is the plural masculine absent-person doer pronoun **و** “they” in يَكْنِزُونَ “they hoard”. And it matches the plural masculine connected noun الَّذِينَ.

However, there is an exception to the refer-back pronoun being an absent-person pronoun. And that is when the connected noun refers to the speaker or the addressed person, like أَنَا الَّذِي, or أَنْتُمْ الَّذِينَ, etc. In these cases, the refer-back pronoun may optionally:

- i. either be an absent-person pronoun to match the connected noun (as usual),
- ii. or match the pronoun for the speaker or addressed person (as the case may be)

The latter is generally more common but both options are permissible. For example:

أَنَا الَّذِي حَضَرْتُ.

refer-back pronoun: the singular masculine doer pronoun for the speaker **أَنَا** in حَضَرْتُ.

حَضَرْتُ

or

أَنَا الَّذِي حَضَرَ.

refer-back pronoun: the implied singular masculine doer pronoun for the absent person “he” in حَضَرَ

“I am the one (who) was present.”

Here are some examples from Classical Arabic:

أَنَا الَّذِي سَمَّيْتِ أُمِّي حَيْدَرَه

Wright 2/324B

“I am the one whom my mother named Ḥaydarah”

(The refer-back pronoun is the speaker person’s direct doer pronoun in سَمَّيْتِ, which is an abbreviation of سَمَّيْتِي “she named me”).

فَقَالَ مُوسَى يَا آدَمُ أَنْتَ الَّذِي خَلَقَكَ اللَّهُ بِيَدِهِ

2134: جامع الترمذي

“Mūsā said: O Ādam, you are the one whom Allāh created with His Hand”

(The refer-back pronoun is the addressed person’s direct doer pronoun كَ in خَلَقَكَ.)

There is one circumstance where matching the refer-back pronoun to the (absent person) connected noun is mandated. And that is when the connected noun is the called-out person using the particle أَيُّهَا or أَيُّهَا. For example,

يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا

“O you who have believed”

not

× يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنْتُمْ

Similarly,

يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِي نَزَّلَ عَلَيْهِ الدُّكْرُ

15:6 سورة الحجر

“O you upon whom the message has been sent down”

37.4. The general connected nouns مَنْ and مَا

The general connected nouns are unrestricted in significance, and may be applied to any individual who fits the criteria given in the connecting sentence. The most commonly general connected nouns are:

- مَنْ *man*. Typically used for intelligent beings and translated as “who”.
- مَا *mā*. Typically used for non-intelligent beings and translated as “what”.
- أَيُّ *ʾayy*. Used for both intelligent and non-intelligent beings. Translated as “which”, “whichever” or “any”.

There are also a couple of rarely or dialectally used general connected nouns that we will not cover. These are دُو *dū*, and لَا *lā*.

In this section we will deal with مَنْ and مَا. We will deal with أَيُّ separately in section (give ref) later in this chapter.

Unlike the specific connected nouns (الَّذِي, etc.), the general connected nouns do not vary for number and gender.

For example:

أُحِبُّ مَنْ يَعْدِلُ [Wright 2/322A]

“I love [him] who is just.”

وَمِنْهُمْ مَّنْ يَسْتَمِعُونَ إِلَيْكَ
[10:42 سورة يونس] “And among them are those who listen to you.”
أُصْنَعُ مَا بَدَا لَكَ.

“Do what seems (good) to you.”

مَرَرْتُ بِمَا يُعْجِبُكَ.
“I passed by what will please you.”

عرفت ما اشتريته، وما اشتريتهما، وما اشتريتها، وما اشتريتهن [https://shamela.ws/book/13257/195]

37.4.1. مَنْ and مَا after prepositions

When مَنْ and مَا are directly preceded by the prepositions مِنْ and عَنْ, these prepositions lose their ن and are joined to the following noun with the noun's م doubled. For example: مَمَّنْ *mimman*, مَمَّا *mimmā*, عَمَّنْ *eamman*, عَمَّا *eamma*.

The preposition فِي is also often (though not always) optionally attached to these connected nouns, thus: فِيمَنْ *fīman*, فِيمَا *fīmā*.

The remaining prepositions follow the normal rules: مَا عَلَى مَا، etc. But we will see, if Allāh wills, in chapter @ref(questions), that مَا and مَنْ are also used as question nouns, in which case the rules of joining prepositions to them will differ.

37.4.2. The refer-back pronoun for the general connected nouns

The general connected nouns مَنْ and مَا are themselves singular masculine in number and gender. However, they can be used to signify persons or things of any number and gender.

Their refer-back pronouns can then, optionally:

- i. Either match the gender and number of the persons or things meant by the connected noun. For example, for مَنْ:

^{1^} وَمِنْهُمْ مَّنْ يَسْتَمِعُونَ إِلَيْكَ
“And among them are those who listen to you”

^{2^} قَدْ خَابَتْ مَن فَعَلَتْ ذَلِكَ مِنْهُنَّ وَخَسِرَتْ
“She has thwarted herself, whoever did that from them_{3f}, and lost.”

Note also how, in this example how, in addition to the feminine refer-back doer pronouns in فَعَلَتْ and خَسِرَتْ, the feminine gender of the person signified by مَنْ has also caused the ث of femininity to be added to the verb خَابَ (of which مَنْ is the doer noun).

Examples for مَا:

عرفت ما اشتريته، وما اشتريتهما، وما اشتريتها، وما اشتريتهن [https://shamela.ws/book/13257/195]

- ii. Or be singular masculine to match the connected noun itself. This is generally more common for مَا. For example:

¹ 10:42 سورة يونس

² 3318: جامع الترمذي

^{3^} وَمِنْهُمْ مَّنْ يُؤْمِنُ بِهِ وَمِنْهُمْ مَّنْ لَا يُؤْمِنُ بِهِ

“And of them are those who believe in it, and of them are those who do not believe in it.”

جَمَعْتُ مِمَّنْ أَلَوَقُ مَا سَقَطَ. “I gathered what fell from the leaves.”

صَلِّ مِمَّنْ الرُّكْعَاتِ مَا يَتَيَسَّرُ.

“Pray from the units (of prayer) what is easy.”

^{4^} لَمْ أَجِدْ مَا أَعْتَذِرُ بِهِ

“I did not find what I (could) make an excuse for with”.

Both options can be utilized together as well. For example:

بَلَىٰ مَنْ أَسْلَمَ وَجْهَهُ لِلَّهِ وَهُوَ مُحْسِنٌ فَلَهُ أَجْرُهُ عِنْدَ رَبِّهِ وَلَا خَوْفٌ عَلَيْهِمْ وَلَا هُمْ يَحْزَنُونَ

سورة البقرة 2:112

“Yes, [on the contrary], whoever submits his face [i.e., self] in Islām to Allāh while being a doer of good will have his reward with his Lord. And no fear will there be concerning them, nor will they grieve.”

فَمَنْ تَبِعَ هُدَايَ فَلَا خَوْفٌ عَلَيْهِمْ وَلَا هُمْ يَحْزَنُونَ

سورة البقرة 2:38

“whoever follows My guidance - there will be no fear concerning them, nor will they grieve.”

37.4.3. Applicability of *مَا* and *مَنْ* to intelligent and non-intelligent beings

As we mentioned earlier, *مَنْ* is typically used to refer to intelligent beings. And *مَا* is typically used to refer to non-intelligent beings. However, there are some circumstances in which these roles can differ.

مَنْ may be used for non-intelligent beings when a non-intelligent being is compared with an intelligent being. For example,

وَاللَّهُ خَلَقَ كُلَّ دَابَّةٍ مِّن مَّاءٍ فَمِنْهُمْ مَّن يَمْشِي عَلَىٰ بَطْنِهِ وَمِنْهُمْ مَّن يَمْشِي عَلَىٰ رِجْلَيْنِ وَمِنْهُمْ مَّن يَمْشِي عَلَىٰ أَرْبَعٍ

سورة النور 24:45

“Allāh has created every [living] creature from water. And of them are those that move on their bellies, and of them are those that walk on two legs, and of them are those that walk on four.”

مَنْ may also be used for non-intelligent beings when attributes usually applicable to intelligent beings are applied to a non-intelligent being. For example:

أَسِرْبَ الْقَطَا، هَلْ مِّنْ يُعِيرُ جَنَاحَهُ * لَعَلِّي إِلَىٰ مَنْ قَدْ هَوَيْتُ أُطِيرُ

Wright 2/314D

O flock of birds, is there who will lend his wing that perhaps I may fly to whom I love

جَنَاحَ: “lend”, يُعِيرُ: “is there?”, هَلْ: “is there?”, قَطَا: a species of bird, فَمَا: “O”, أَسِرْبَ: “flock”, هَلْ: “is there?”, يُعِيرُ: “lend”, جَنَاحَ: “wing”, لَعَلِّي: “Perhaps I”, هَوَيْتُ: “I love”, أُطِيرُ: “I fly”.

مَنْ may also be used for non-intelligent beings when there is a mixed group including both intelligent and non-intelligent beings, and the intelligent beings are given preference. For example:

³ سورة يونس 10:40

⁴ مساوئ الأخلاق للخرائطي

13:15 سورة الرعد

وَلِلَّهِ يَسْجُدُ مَنْ فِي السَّمٰوٰتِ وَالْاَرْضِ

“And to Allāh prostrates whoever is within the heavens and the earth”

Similarly, *ma* may, in some circumstances, be used for intelligent beings. This may be when there is a mixed group including both intelligent and non-intelligent beings, and the non-intelligent beings are given preference because of their larger number. For example:

62:1 سورة الجمعة

يُسَبِّحُ لِلّٰهِ مَا فِي السَّمٰوٰتِ وَمَا فِي الْاَرْضِ

“Whatever is in the heavens and whatever is on the earth is exalting Allāh”

Ma may also be used for intelligent beings when the person being referred to is vague to the speaker. For example:

3:35 سورة آل عمران

رَبِّ اِنِّیْ نَذَرْتُ لَكَ مَا فِي بَطْنِيْ مُحَرَّرًا

“My Lord, indeed I have pledged to You what is in my womb, consecrated [for Your service]”

Ma may also be used for intelligent beings when the characteristics of an intelligent being are highlighted when referring to them. For example:

4:3 سورة النساء

فَانكِحُوْا مَا طَابَ لَكُمْ مِنَ النِّسَاءِ

“then marry those that please you of [other] women”

37.4.4. Grammatical position of the general connected nouns

The general connected noun may occur in various grammatical positions. Here are some examples:

As a subject:

16:96 سورة النحل

مَا عِنْدَكُمْ يَنْقَدُ

“Whatever you have will end”

As an info:

153: الأدب المفرد

مَا لَكَ مَا قَدَّمْتَ، وَمَالٌ وَّارِثَكَ مَا أُخِّرْتَ

“Your wealth is what you have sent forward, and the wealth of your inheritors is what you have left behind.”

As a doer:

668: صحيح البخاري

فَعَلَهُ مَنْ هُوَ خَيْرٌ مِنِّيْ

“it was done by one who was better than I”

As a direct doer:

41:40 سورة فصلت

اعْمَلُوا مَا يَشَآءُكُمْ

“Do whatever you will”

Following a preposition:

3563: جامع الترمذي

وَأَعْنِيْ بِفَضْلِكَ عَمَّنْ سِوَاكَ

“and make me independent from (all) who are besides You”

As an annexed-to noun in an annexation:

2283: صحيح مسلم

فَذٰلِكَ مَثَلُ مَنْ أَطَاعَنِيْ

“So that is the similitude of the one who obeyed me”

Fischer 218

مَا تَرَى رَأْيِيْ مَا نَرَى.

“You do not think what we think.”

(literally: “You do not opine the opinion of what we opine.”)

Fischer 218

أَمْرٌ مَا تَحْذَرُ

“the matter of which you are wary”

Unlike the specific connected nouns (الَّذِي, etc), the general connected nouns do not occur as attributes. So while we can say:

مَرَرْتُ بِالرَّجُلِ الَّذِي أَحْسَنَ إِلَيَّ.
“I passed by the man who was good to me.”

we cannot say:

× مَرَرْتُ بِالرَّجُلِ مَنْ أَحْسَنَ إِلَيَّ.

We will have to say instead:

مَرَرْتُ بِمَنْ أَحْسَنَ إِلَيَّ.

The general connected noun can, however, occur as a replacement. For example,

والمسلمون من تبع رسول الله صلى الله عليه وسلم كثير
“And the Muslims, who follow the Messenger of Allāh, are many”

Fischer §421.2.
Originally, from
السيرة النبوية لابن
هشام.

37.4.5. Use with the preposition مِنْ

The preposition مِنْ is frequently used with the general connected nouns to restrict the applicability of the connected noun to a group or type. This مِنْ may come either before the connected noun, or after its connecting sentence. For example:

فَأَعْطَانِي مَا كَانَ عِنْدَهُ مِنْ خُبْزٍ.
“Then he gave me what he had of bread.”

Fischer 218

مَنْ دَخَلَ الشَّامَ مِنَ الْعَرَبِ
“Those Arabs who entered Syria”
(literally: “Who entered Syria from the Arabs”)

Fischer 218

فَانكِحُوا مَا طَابَ لَكُمْ مِنَ النِّسَاءِ
“then marry those that please you of [other] women”

4:3 سورة النساء

اللَّهُمَّ اقْسِمْ لَنَا مِنْ حَشِيَّتِكَ مَا يَحُولُ بَيْنَنَا وَبَيْنَ مَعَاصِيكَ
O Allāh, apportion for us, from the fear of You, (that) what shall come between us and disobedience of You
(The connected noun مَا is the direct doer of the verb of command اقْسِمْ.)

3502: جامع الترمذي

37.4.6. Use with a repeated word to express vagueness or uncertainty

The general connected nouns مَنْ and مَا are used with a word that is repeated to express a vague or uncertain quantity or quality. For example:

هُمْ مَا هُمْ
“They are what they are.”

Fischer 218

نَزَلَ مَنْ نَزَلَ مِنْهُمْ
“Some of them came down.”
(literally: Came down who came down from them.)

Fischer 218

جَمَعْتُ مَا جَمَعْتُ
“I gathered what I gathered.”

Fischer 218

37.5. Deleting the refer-back pronoun

The refer-back pronoun may be deleted (and its meaning is then implicit) if some conditions are satisfied. Some conditions are specific to the case of the refer-back pronoun. These are:

- (a) When the refer-back pronoun is the subject of a nominal sentence, then it may be deleted, and its meaning will be implied. When deleting the refer-back pronoun in this case, it is preferred that the connecting sentence not be too short.

For example:

انظُرُوا إِلَى مَنْ أَسْفَلَ مِنْكُمْ ^{5^6}

“Look at who is lower than you.”

(instead of انظُرُوا إِلَى مَنْ هُوَ أَسْفَلَ مِنْكُمْ)

وَلَهُ مَنْ فِي السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ ^{7^}

“To Him belongs whoever is in the heavens and the earth.”

(instead of مَنْ هُوَ فِي السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ)

مَا أَنَا بِالَّذِي قَائِلٌ لَكَ شَيْئًا ^{8^}

I am not the one who says anything to you.

(instead of مَا أَنَا بِالَّذِي هُوَ قَائِلٌ لَكَ شَيْئًا)

If the connecting sentence is very short, the deleting the refer-back pronoun subject is permissible, though rare. For example:

لَا يَنْطِقُ بِمَا سَفَهُ ^{9^}

“He does not speak what is foolish.”

(instead of بِمَا هُوَ سَفَهُ)

- (b) When the refer-back pronoun is an attached pronoun for the direct doer it is permissible to delete it. For example:

هَذَا مَا كُنْتُمْ لَأَنْفُسِكُمْ ^{10^}

“This is what you hoarded for yourselves”

(instead of مَا كُنْتُمْ لَكُمْ)

- (c) When the refer-back pronoun is in the i-case, it is permissible to delete it:

- (i) When the refer-back pronoun is the annexed-to noun in an annexation whose annexed noun is a doer participle or the direct doer implying a present or future meaning. For example:

(1219) فَاقْضِ مَا أَنْتَ قَاضٍ [سورة طه 20:72]

“So decree whatever you are to decree.”

(instead of مَا أَنْتَ قَاضِيهِ)

⁵ صحيح مسلم 2963c

⁶ See also صحيح مسلم 2963c and سنن ابن ماجه 4142 for variants with the refer-back pronoun.

⁷ سورة الأنبياء 21:19

⁸ Wright 2/322D

⁹ Wright 2/322D

¹⁰ سورة التوبة 9:35

(1220) [مسند أحمد: 21023] قَالَ أَتَبْعُ إِلَيَّ مَا لَسْتَ آكِلًا
 “He said: Do you send to me what you do not eat?”
 (instead of مَا لَسْتَ آكِلُهُ)

- (ii) When the refer-back pronoun is attached to a preposition or adverb, and the same preposition or adverb has already been used (with the same meaning) with the connecting noun or its described noun. The preposition/adverb is deleted along with its attached pronoun. For example:

¹¹ أَنَا عِنْدَ مَنْ أَنتَ.
 “I am at his [house] at whose you (are).”
 (instead of مَنْ أَنتَ عِنْدَهُ)

¹² مَرَرْتُ بِالَّذِي مَرَّ سُلَيْمَانُ.
 “I passed by the (same) one that Sulaymān did.”
 (instead of مَرَرْتُ بِالَّذِي مَرَّ بِهِ سُلَيْمَانُ)

In addition to the above conditions that are specific to the case of the refer-back pronoun, a further, general, condition should be satisfied, which is: that the omission of the refer-back pronoun be obvious to the listener, and the listener can re-construct the original meaning by restoring the refer-back pronoun to get the intended meaning.

If the refer-back pronoun is deleted, and the remaining connecting sentence (with the refer-back pronoun deleted) is valid as a connecting sentence on its own right, then it will give a different meaning (even if slightly) from the original. And the listener will not know that the refer-back pronoun has been deleted. In this case, it is not permitted to delete the refer-back pronoun. Here is an example that should explain what we mean:

Consider the sentence:

جاء الذي ضربته في داره.
 “The one whom I beat (him) in his house, came.

شرح ابن عقيل على
 الألفية 1/168

The connecting sentence is “I beat him in his house.” and the refer-back pronoun is the a-case direct doee pronoun ه “him”. If we delete this pronoun, the sentence becomes

جاء الذي ضربت في داره.
 “The one who I beat in his house, came.

Now the meaning of the sentence is markedly different. The connecting sentence جاء الذي ضربت في داره is valid on its own right but it gives a different meaning from the original. It does not specify that I beat *him* in his house, just that I beat in his house, possibly others. Because the omission of the refer-back pronoun is not obvious, the sentence now does not signify the original intent. And so deleting the refer-back pronoun in this case is not permitted.

¹¹Wright 2/323C

¹²Wright 2/323D

37.6. The general connected noun أَيَّ

أَيَّ ‘ayy “which/whichever” is a general connected noun similar to مَا “what” and مَنْ “who”. But it differs from مَا and مَنْ in a few aspects:

Firstly, أَيَّ is (generally) fully flexible. So it will display its case as a vowel mark on its final letter. Whereas مَا and مَنْ, as we know, are rigid.

Secondly, أَيَّ can be, and, in fact, properly is, the annexed noun in an annexation. Whereas مَا and مَنْ cannot be annexed nouns. For example,

يُغْجِبُنِي أَيُّ التَّلَامِذَةِ يَجْتَهِدُ.

“Whichever of the students strives, pleases me.”

(أَيَّ is in the u-case)

فَأُوْ إِلَى أَهْمَ يَحْمِيكَ.

“So take shelter with whichever of them protects you.”

(أَيَّ is in the i-case)

Also, أَيَّ is used indiscriminately for both intelligent and non-intelligent beings. For example,

أَحْمِلُ أَيُّ الْحَقِيْبَتَيْنِ هِيَ الْأَثْقَلُ

“I shall carry whichever of the two bags is the heavier.”

(أَيَّ is in the a-case)

Note how, in the above examples, the final vowel mark on أَيَّ varies, depending on its case due to its being a flexible noun.

أَيَّ, like مَا and مَنْ, is itself a singular masculine noun. And, like مَا and مَنْ, أَيَّ can be used, unchanged, for both genders. The previous example used أَيَّ with حَقِيْبَةٌ which is a feminine noun. But a feminine version أَيَّة does exist and can be used with feminine annexed-to nouns. It is, however, only commonly used if its annexed-to noun is a feminine pronoun. For example,

صَادِقِي أَيَّتَهُنَّ تَنْصَحُكَ.

“Befriend whichever of them_{3,f} is sincere to you_{1,f}.”

By the way, أَيَّ (like مَا and مَنْ) is also a question noun and we will discuss its properties in more detail in section ...

37.6.1. The connected noun أَيَّ without a annexed-to noun

أَيَّ can sometimes occur without a annexed-to noun. Technically, it will then be indefinite, and thus tanwined. However, it will carry the meaning of an implied annexation. For example,

سَأَقَاتِلُ أَيًّا يُقَاوِمُنِي.

“I will fight whichever [of them, the enemies, etc.] resists me.”

37.6.2. The connected noun أَيَّ with a deleted refer-back pronoun

Consistent with what we have already learned for the other connected nouns, the refer-back pronoun may be deleted in connected sentences for the connected noun أَيَّ.

- iii. A parenthetical clause, which is a sentence within the main sentence that adds information to it, but which can be deleted without affecting the completeness of the main sentence. For example:

قَدِمَ الَّذِي أَطَالَ اللَّهُ عُمُرَهُ أَحْسَنَ إِلَيَّ.

“The one who - may Allah lengthen his age - was good to me has arrived.”

قَدِمَ الَّذِي وَهُوَ مُبْتَسِمٌ أَحْسَنَ إِلَيَّ.

“The one who - and he is smiling - was good to me has arrived.”

37.8. Deleting the connected noun and/or the connecting sentence

TODO. See □□□□□□ □□□□□□

(1221) [5687: سنن النسائي] أَنَا أَوَّلُ الْعَرَبِ سَأَلَهُ

I [was] the first of the Arabs [who] asked him

37.9. Sentences without connected nouns

There are some sentences where we might expect a connected noun but which are always, or often (as the case may be), expressed in Arabic without a connected noun. These sentences are of different types:

37.9.1. Sentences with indefinite nouns needing a qualifying sentence

When an indefinite noun needs a qualifying sentence, it is natural in English to insert “that”, “which”, “who”, etc. between the noun and the following sentence. For example, “I passed by a man *who* was sleeping.”

In Arabic, however, we will not use any connected noun in such sentences. This is because the connected nouns are considered definite nouns. And therefore they may not be a attribute to an indefinite noun. So while we can say:

مَرَرْتُ بِالرَّجُلِ الَّذِي يَنَامُ.

“I passed by the man who is sleeping.”

we cannot say

× مَرَرْتُ بِرَجُلٍ الَّذِي يَنَامُ.

Instead, we put the qualifying sentence directly after the indefinite noun. The qualifying sentence will then not be a connecting sentence, but will itself be the attribute to the described noun:

مَرَرْتُ بِرَجُلٍ يَنَامُ.

“I passed by a man (who) is sleeping.”

Here is another example:

جَلَسْتُ فِي مَجْلِسٍ قَدْ رُسِّ بِمَاءِ الْوَرْدِ.

“I sat in a sitting (that) had been sprinkled with rose-water.”

A connected noun can, however, follow an indefinite noun, if we intend to start a separate sentence with it, or if it is a *replacement* (see chapter @ref(the-replacement)). For example.

وَأَبْعَثْهُ مَقَامًا مَحْمُودًا الَّذِي وَعَدْتَهُ
“Resurrect him to a praiseworthy station, the one that you promised him”

614: صحيح البخاري

وَبِئْسَ لِكُلِّ هُمَزَةٍ لُّمَزَةٌ
الَّذِي جَمَعَ مَالًا وَعَدَّدَهُ
“Woe to every scorner and mocker
Who collects wealth and [continuously] counts it.”

104:1-2 سورة الهمزة

37.9.2. Sentences containing a noun with generic definiteness

Sometimes the definite article *أل* does not determine a particular individual, but makes a noun definite only in a generic way. In this case a qualifying sentence may directly follow it without any intermediate connected noun used as a attribute.¹⁴ Because there is no connected noun, the qualifying sentence is, again, not analyzed as a connecting sentence. For example:

كَمَثَلِ الْجِمَارِ يَحْمِلُ أَشْفَارًا
“like that of a donkey who carries volumes [of books]”
(Note how the translator has translated *الْجِمَارِ* as “a donkey” because in English an indefinite noun is often used to indicate a generic type.)

62:5 سورة الجمعة

أَنْتَ الْوَزِيرُ لَا يُعْصَى
“You are the (sort of) vizier (who) is not disobeyed.”

Fischer 219

هُمْ الْفَوَارِسُ يَحْمُونَ النِّسَاءَ.
“They are the (kind of) horsemen (who) protect the women.”

Fischer 219

37.9.3. Sentences with prepositional or adverbial phrases

If a sentence has a definite noun which is to be qualified by a prepositional or adverbial phrase, then in many cases, that phrase may directly follow the definite noun without any intermediate connected noun used a attribute. But using a connected noun is also permissible if one wishes to emphasize that the specificity of the noun. When there is no connected noun, the prepositional or adverbial phrase is not analyzed as a connecting sentence, but is considered attached to an implied verb that has the idea of “being”, like “is”, “are”, etc. When there is a connected noun, then it is analyzed as a connecting sentence, as usual. For example:

سَرْتُ فِي الْحَدِيقَةِ عِنْدَ الْمَسْجِدِ.
“I walked in the garden next to the mosque.”

or

سَرْتُ فِي الْحَدِيقَةِ الَّتِي عِنْدَ الْمَسْجِدِ.

or

سَرْتُ فِي الْحَدِيقَةِ الَّتِي هِيَ عِنْدَ الْمَسْجِدِ.
“I walked in the [specific] garden that [is] next to the mosque.”

¹⁴Wright 2/318C

Work in progress

Chapter 38.

The question nouns مَا, مَنْ, and أَيَّ

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

38.1. Introduction

In chapter (connected nouns) we studied the use of مَا “what”, مَنْ “who”, and أَيَّ “which” as the general connected nouns. In this chapter, we will study the use of these same nouns as *question nouns*.

There are other question nouns besides the ones above, like كَيْفَ “how”, أَيْنَ “where”, مَتَى “when”. There are also question words which are particles, not nouns, like هَلْ and أ. We will study all these elsewhere, if Allāh wishes.

38.2. مَنْ and مَا

38.2.1. Position of question words in the beginning of the sentence

All question words typically occur in the beginning of the question sentence. (Particles like وَ, فَ, etc. are allowed to precede them.) For example,

مَنْ أَنْتَ؟
“Who are you?”

Wright 2/311D

وَمَا تِلْكَ بِيَمِينِكَ؟
“And what is that in your right hand?”

سورة طه 20:17

In both the above examples, the question nouns مَا and مَنْ are in the u-case as the subject of their respective question sentences.

When the question is asking about the direct doer of a verb, then too is the question noun placed in the beginning of the sentence. For example,

مَا تَقُولُ؟
“What do you say?”

Wright 2/312A

مَنْ قَتَلْتَ؟
“Whom did you kill?”

Wright 2/311D

مَا فَرَضَ رَبُّكَ عَلَىٰ أُمَّتِكَ؟
“What has your Lord enjoined upon your Ummah?”

صحيح مسلم 162a

In the above three examples, the question nouns مَا and مَنْ are analyzed as the a-case direct doer of the verb following it.

The question nouns are exempted from being placed in the beginning of the question noun when they are in the i-case: either following a preposition, or as the annexed-to noun in an annexation. For example,

3688: جامع الترمذي

لِمَنْ هَذَا الْقَصْرُ؟

“Whose is this palace?”

Wright 2/311D

بِنْتُ مَنْ أَنْتَ؟

“Whose daughter are you?”

38.2.2. مَا shortened to مَ in the i-case

When the question noun مَا *mā* is in the i-case it is typically shortened to مَ *ma*. Example:

4108: سنن ابن ماجه

بِمَ يَرْجِعُ؟

“With what does he return?”

This shortened مَ is also usually joined to the preposition before it, even for prepositions constituting more than one letter (which don't typically join to the word directly following it). So we get:

- بِمَا for مَ بِمَا
- لِمَا for مَ لِمَا
- فِي مَا for مَ فِي مَا
- إِلَى مَا for مَ إِلَى مَا
- عَلَى مَا for مَ عَلَى مَا
- حَتَّى مَا for مَ حَتَّى مَا
- (مِنْ مَا) for مَ مِنْ مَا
- (عَنْ مَا) for مَ عَنْ مَا

When pausing on this shortened مَ, a هَ is appended to it to preserve the sound of the fatḥah. For example:

لِمَهْ؟

limah?

“For what?”

The shortened مَ is also used when it is the annexed-to noun in an annexation. However, in this case it won't be joined to the previous word. For example:

Wright 1/275A

مِثْلُ مَ أَنْتَ؟

“What are you like?”

38.2.3. مَا and مَنْ referred back to with an i-case pronoun

As an alternative to placing the question noun مَا or مَنْ after the preposition or annexed noun, the question noun may be placed in the beginning of the sentence and it is referred back to by a pronoun. For example,

23:88 سورة المؤمنون

قُلْ مَنْ بِيَدِهِ مَلَكُوتُ كُلِّ شَيْءٍ

Say, “In whose hand is the realm of all things”

10:5 سورة يونس

مَاذَا يَسْتَعْجِلُ مِنْهُ الْمُجْرِمُونَ

“for which [aspect] of it would the criminals be impatient?”

38.2.4. Verb gender when inquiring about the doer of a verb

The question nouns مَا and مَنْ are themselves masculine singular nouns. But they can be used to ask about nouns of any gender or number. For example,

وَمَا تِلْكَ بِيَمِينِكَ؟

20:17 سورة طه

“And what is that in your right hand?”

مَنْ هَؤُلَاءِ الرَّجَالُ؟

“Who are these men?”

When inquiring about the doer of a verb, then the verb is usually construed with a masculine singular doer to match the question noun. For example:

مَنْ جَاءَ؟

“Who has come?”

مَا يُبْكِيكَ؟

3894: جامع الترمذي

“What makes you cry?”

Occasionally, the feminine verb may be used if asking about a feminine doer. For example:

مَنْ كَانَتْ أُمُّكَ؟¹

Wright 2/313C

“Who was your mother?”

If the question is regarding a specific number and gender, then we are more likely to insert the corresponding specific connected noun (الَّذِي, etc.) between the question noun مَنْ and the verb. For example:

مَنْ اللَّتَانِ تَظَاهَرَتَا عَلَى النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ مِنْ أَزْوَاجِهِ

4913: صحيح البخاري

“Who are the ones_{2f} from his wives, who aided one another against the Prophet ?

Note that now the dual feminine doer pronoun اِ in تَظَاهَرَتَا is the refer-back pronoun that refers back to the connected noun اللَّتَانِ.

38.2.5. An indefinite noun after مَنْ and مَا

The question nouns مَا and مَنْ cannot occur as annexed nouns. Nor can either of them be a replacee. So any indefinite noun after them must necessarily be the info of the question sentence. For example, مَنْ فَارِسٌ؟ can only mean, “Who is a horseman?” not “Who horseman?” or “Which horseman?”

Wright 2/312C

38.2.6. مَنْ دَا and مَا دَا

To lend more force to the question or to make it more lively, دَا may be appended to the question nouns مَا and مَنْ. For example,

مَا دَا قَالَ رَبُّكُمْ

صحيح البخاري
:4800

“What did your lord say?”

With مَنْ دَا especially, but also with مَا, the specific connected noun الَّذِي is often appended as well. For example:

مَنْ دَا الَّذِي قَالَ هَذَا

3802: سنن ابن ماجه

“Who is the one that said this?”

¹See also سورة البحر المحيط لأبي حيان and (فإن كانتا اثنتين) 4:176 سورة النساء for البحر المحيط لأبي حيان (ثم لم تكن فتنتهم) 6:23 الأنعام

Wright 2/312B

مَاذَا الَّذِي تَقُولُ؟

“What is it that you say?”

Note that دَا is also a variant pointing noun meaning “this” or “that”. In which case, it can be the info of the question sentence by itself. For example:

1086: الأدب المفرد

فَدَقَّقْتُ الْبَابَ، فَقَالَ: مَنْ ذَا؟ فَقُلْتُ: أَنَا، قَالَ: أَنَا، كَأَنَّهُ كَرِهَهُ.

“So I knocked at the door. He said, ‘Who is that?’ I said, ‘I.’ He said ‘I? I?’ as if he disliked it.”

38.2.7. Why

Arabic has no distinct question word for “why”. Instead, the question noun مَا is used with a preposition, typically لَ to give the meaning “For what?”. For example,

705b: صحيح مسلم

لِمَ فَعَلَ ذَلِكَ

“Why did he do that?”

Wright 2/312B

لِمَاذَا وَلَّيْتُ بَعْدَ مَجِيئِكَ إِلَى هَهُنَا؟

“Why did you turn back after your coming here?”

Sometimes, other prepositions like عَلَى and بِ may be used. But this is dependent on the verb in the sentence. For example,

مشكاة المصابيح
:4562

عَلَامَ يَقْتُلُ أَحَدُكُمْ أَخَاهُ

“Why does one of you kill his brother?”

i.e. “on what [basis]”

مشكاة المصابيح
:2840

بِمَ يَأْخُذُ أَحَدُكُمْ مَالَ أَخِيهِ؟

“Why should any of you take his brother’s property?”

i.e. “by what [justification]”

And often times, the meaning “why” is conveyed using مَا when a suitable verb exists. For example:

مَا يُبْكِيكَ؟

“What makes you cry?”

i.e. “Why are you crying?”

38.2.8. Applicability of مَا and مَنْ to intelligent and non-intelligent beings

In (give ref) we discussed how, sometimes, the connected noun مَا may be used for intelligent beings and مَنْ for non-intelligent beings. Those same guidelines apply for مَا and مَنْ when they are question nouns. For example, when inquiring about the nature or qualities of a person مَا may be used. Examples:

832: صحيح مسلم

فَقُلْتُ لَهُ مَا أَنْتَ قَالَ أَنَا نَبِيٌّ. فَقُلْتُ وَمَا نَبِيٌّ قَالَ أَرْسَلَنِي اللَّهُ

“I said, ‘Who are you?’ He said, ‘I am a prophet.’ So I said, ‘And who is a prophet?’ He said ‘Allāh has sent me.’”

38.3. أَيُّ

In section .. we studied أَيُّ as a general connected noun. Just like مَا and مَنْ, أَيُّ too can be a question noun for “which” questions. Many of the rules that apply

the question nouns مَا and مَنْ also apply to أَيْ. For example, the default position of أَيْ is in the beginning of the question sentence.

However, أَيْ is also different from مَا and مَنْ in some respects. For example, consistent with what we learned in its use as a connected noun, the question noun أَيْ is a fully-flexible noun and can be used indiscriminately for both intelligent and non-intelligent beings.

Also, أَيْ is typically the annexed noun in an annexation. When أَيْ is a connected noun, then its annexed-to noun is usually definite. But when أَيْ is a question noun, then its annexed-to noun may be either definite or indefinite.

38.3.1. أَيْ with a definite annexed-to noun

When the annexed-to noun of أَيْ is a definite noun, the annexation has the meaning “which [one] of”. For example,

فَأَيُّ آيَاتِ اللَّهِ تُنْكِرُونَ
“So which of the signs of Allāh do you deny?”

40:81 سورة غافر

أَيُّ الْأَعْمَالِ أَفْضَلُ
“Which of the deeds is best?”

1449: سنن أبي داود

فَأَيُّ الْفَرِيقَيْنِ أَحَقُّ بِالْأَمْنِ
“So which of the two parties has more right to security?”

6:81 سورة الأنعام

مِنْ أَيِّ أَيَّامِ الشَّهْرِ كَانَ يَصُومُ
“From which of the days of the month would he fast?”

1160: صحيح مسلم

As in the examples above, the annexed-to noun in such a case is typically a plural or a dual. If the annexed-to noun is a definite singular noun, then there is an implied partitive meaning, i.e. “which part of”.² For example,

فِي أَيِّ طَعَامِهِ يُبَارِكُ لَهُ
“in which (part) of his food is the blessing”

3845: سنن أبي داود

مِنْ أَيِّ الْمَالِ
“From which (category) of wealth?”

4063: سنن أبي داود

However, if the noun is of generic definiteness then the partitive aspect indicates one out of the set that constitutes the generic type. In English the plural is often used to signify the generic type. For example the generic type الْعَمَلُ “the deed” can be translated in English as “deeds”. So أَيْ الْعَمَلِ means “which one from the generic type ‘deeds’” or simply “which deed”. Examples:

أَيُّ الْعَمَلِ أَحَبُّ إِلَى اللَّهِ عَزَّ وَجَلَّ؟
“Which deed is most beloved to Allāh?”

1: الأدب المفرد

أَيُّ الدُّعَاءِ أَفْضَلُ
“Which supplication is best?”

637: الأدب المفرد

أَيُّ الذَّنْبِ أَعْظَمُ عِنْدَ اللَّهِ
“Which deed is most enormous in the sight of Allāh?”

4477: صحيح البخاري

²Wright 2/220A

38.3.2. أَيَّ with a indefinite annexed-to noun

When the annexed-to noun of أَيَّ is a indefinite noun, the annexation has the meaning “which” without “of”. For example,

2606: سنن ابن ماجه

أَيَّ شَيْءٍ كُنْتَ تَصْنَعُ
“Which thing would you do?”

1887: صحيح مسلم

أَيَّ شَيْءٍ نَشْتَهِي
“What thing shall we desire?”

3513: جامع الترمذي

أَيُّ لَيْلَةٍ لَيْلَةُ الْقَدَرِ
“Which night is the night of Decree”

If the annexed-to noun is a dual or plural indefinite then then inquiry is about the complete number, not just one of them. For example:

Wright 2/220A

أَيُّ رَجَالٍ؟
“Which men?”

Wright 2/220A

أَيُّ رَجُلَيْنِ؟
“Which two men?”

38.3.3. Matching the rest of the question sentence with أَيَّ

أَيَّ itself, like مَا and مَنْ, is singular masculine. For the purpose of matching the rest of the question sentence with أَيَّ, either it can match the singular masculine to match with the word أَيَّ, or it can match the gender and number of what أَيَّ refers to. For example,

5254: صحيح البخاري

أَيُّ أَزْوَاجِ النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ اسْتَعَاذَتْ مِنْهُ
Which of the wives of the Prophet sought refuge (fwith Allāh) from him?
(اسْتَعَاذَتْ is a feminine verb to match the feminine “wife”).

1423: صحيح مسلم

فَأَيُّ نِسَاءِ رَسُولِ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ كَانَ أَحْظَى عِنْدَهُ مِنِّي
“So which of the women of the Prophet was dearer to him than I?”
(أَيَّ is a masculine verb to match masculine كَانَ.)

38.3.4. أَيَّ standalone without a annexed-to noun

Occasionally, أَيَّ is used without a annexed-to noun. It is then, technically, indefinite. However, the meaning of an annexation is still implicit. This may be when أَيَّ has already been used once with an annexation, and subsequent uses of أَيَّ are restricted to the previously mentioned annexation. For example,

1: الأدب المفرد

أَيُّ الْعَمَلِ أَحَبُّ إِلَى اللَّهِ عَزَّ وَجَلَّ؟ قَالَ الصَّلَاةُ عَلَى وَقْتِهَا، فَلْتُمْ ثُمَّ أَيُّ؟
“‘Which deed is most beloved to Allāh?’ He replied, ‘Prayer at its proper time.’ I said, ‘Then which?’”

See also section ... below, where أَيَّ is used standalone in a response.

38.3.5. أَيَّ annexed to multiple annexed-to nouns

One أَيَّ may be annexed to multiple annexed-to nouns separated by وَ “and”. For example,

أَيُّ زِرَاعَةِ الْفَاكِهَةِ وَزِرَاعَةِ الْقُطْنِ أَرْبَحُ؟
 “Which one of the agriculture of fruit, and the agriculture of cotton is more profitable?”

3/107 النحو الوافي

In such a case, it is optional to have one أَيَّ or to repeat it. So we could also say, for the same meaning:

أَيُّ زِرَاعَةِ الْفَاكِهَةِ وَأَيُّ زِرَاعَةِ الْقُطْنِ أَرْبَحُ؟
 However, if one of the annexed-to nouns is an attached pronoun then repeating أَيَّ is mandatory.³ Example:

أَيِّي وَأَنْتَ أَعْلَمُ؟
 “Which one of you and me is more knowledgeable?”
 أَيِّي وَأَنْتَ is equivalent to أَيُّنَا but it spells out the two options to choose from.

38.4. The question sentence within another sentence⁴

TODO

38.5. Usage of question nouns in quoting and standalone⁵

TODO

38.6. Differentiating question words from their other functions

Many of the question words (أَيَّ، مَنْ، مَا، كَيْفَ، etc.) also have other functions. For example, in chapter @ref(the-connected-nouns) we learned that مَنْ، مَا، and أَيَّ are also connected nouns. Many of the question nouns can also be used as *conditional nouns* that we will study in chapter @ref(...), if Allāh wills.

In this section, we will discuss briefly how to determine when words like أَيْ، مَنْ، مَا، كَيْفَ، etc. are question words, and when they could have one of their other functions.

The basic principle regarding a question sentence is that it is to be treated as one unit. A word from within a question sentence is not, individually, affected by anything outside the question. Let's try to understand this using an example.

Consider the following sentence:

إِسْأَلْ أَيُّهُمْ قَامَ
 'is'al 'ayyuhum qām

“Ask: ‘Which of them stood?’”

³Wright 2/220B

⁴التعليق. See ٢/٣٧ (نحو وأخواتها) ٢/٣٧; النحو الوافي ٢/٣٧; Howell, part II, book 5, §444, pp. 155–165.

⁵الحكاية. See Wright, vol. i., §352–353, pp. 275B–276B, vol. ii, §170, p. 313

The speaker is commanding the addressed person to ask a group of people the question: “Which of them stood”.

The question sentence is أَيُّهُمْ قَامَ *’ayyuhum qām* “Which of them stood”. This entire sentence is considered the direct doer of the verb of command أَسْأَلْ “ask!”. The question noun أَيُّ *’ayyu* is in the u-case because it is the subject of the question sentence. It does not become أَيَّ *’ayya* in the a-case because it is not, by itself, the direct doer of أَسْأَلْ. Rather, as we have just stated, the entire question sentence is the direct doer. But because the direct doer is a sentence, and not an individual word, it does not indicate its case using, for example, an *fatḥah*.

Now, let’s modify the example. Consider now this sentence:

أَسْأَلُ أَيُّهُمْ قَامَ
’is’al ’ayyahum qām

Ask the one of them who stood!

Now, the noun أَيُّ is in the a-case because it (individually) is the direct doer of the verb of command أَسْأَلُ. The speaker is now commanding the addressed person to ask (something) of only the person who stood, out of a group of people. The rest of the people are not to be asked. Because the noun أَيُّ is individually affected by the preceding verb أَسْأَلُ it is now not a question noun, and must be one of the other functions that the word أَيُّ can have. As a matter of fact, it is here a connected noun, and the sentence following it: قَامَ “he stood” is its connecting sentence.

The other noteworthy point regarding questions (besides their being considered one unit) is that they may only be preceded either by a verb of knowledge, (like عَلِمَ, دَرَى, etc.) or by an expression indicating that the question is being quoted. We have already seen an example of the question being quoted in the example:

أَسْأَلُ أَيُّهُمْ قَامَ
“Ask: ‘Which of them stood?’”

An example of a question being preceded by a verb of knowledge is:

مَا عَلِمْتُ أَذْهَبَ أَمْ مَكَثَ
I don’t know whether he went or stayed.

Here the question sentence is: أَذْهَبَ أَمْ مَكَثَ “Did he go or did he stay?”

By the way, a question sentence may be part of a bigger question as well. For example:

أَتَدْرِي أَيُّهُمْ فِي الدَّارِ؟
’atadri ’ayyuhum fī -ddār

Do you know: which of them is in the house?

Note now the subtle difference in meaning if we change the case of أَيُّ in the above example from the u-case to the a-case:

أَتَدْرِي أَيُّهُمْ فِي الدَّارِ؟
’atadri ’ayyahum fī -ddār

Do you know the one of them who is in the house?

When أَيُّ was in the u-case it was a question noun. And the speaker was

asking the addressed person if he could figure out who, from among the group of people, was in the house.

When **أَيُّ** is in the a-case it is now a connected noun. The connecting sentence's refer-back pronoun is omitted (as is permissible in this case, see section @ref(...)). With the refer-back pronoun restored, the sentence is **أَتَدْرِي أَيُّهُمْ هُوَ فِي الدَّارِ؟** And the speaker is asking the addressed person if he is familiar with the person who is in the house. Now he is not asking the addressed person to identify him, but rather if knows him as a person.

This difference is apparent with **أَيُّ** because it is a flexible noun whose case is indicated by the vowel mark at its end. The same occurs in the other question nouns that are also connected nouns: **مَا**, and **مَنْ** but it won't often be as apparent because they are rigid nouns.

As a final note, sometimes, one of the words like **أَيُّ**, **مَنْ**, **مَا**, **كَيْفَ**, etc. may be preceded by parts of a sentence that are neither quoting, nor a verb of knowledge. Here we can be sure that the word is not a question word and must be one of its other functions. However, it still may not be easy to figure out what that other function is. Nevertheless, the meaning of the sentence can still usually be gleaned. For example:

فَلْتَدْخُلْ مِنْ أَيِّ أَبْوَابِ الْجَنَّةِ شَاءَتْ

“then let her enter from whichever of the doors of paradise she wishes.”[^{question-vs-other-functions}]

Work in progress

Part III.

Backmatter

Work in progress

Work in progress

Glossary of terms

Term used in this book	Term used in native Arabic grammar	Term used by Western grammars
absolute doee	المَفْعُولُ الْمُطْلَق	absolute accusative
ø-case	حَالَةُ الْجَزْمِ / الْمَجْزُومِ	jussive mood
C	الشَّرْطُ	protasis
CR	جَوَابُ الشَّرْطِ	apodosis
adjectival noun	الصِّفَةُ	epithet
adverb of time	ظَرْفُ الزَّمَانِ / المَفْعُولُ فِيهِ	??
adverb of place	ظَرْفُ الْمَكَانِ / المَفْعُولُ فِيهِ	??
annexation	الإِصْطِفَاءُ	??
annexed noun	المُصَّافِ	construct noun
annexed-to noun	المُصَّافِ إِلَيْهِ	??
[verb of] command	الأَمْرُ	imperative
info	الخَبَرُ	predicate / comment
connected noun	الاسْمُ الْمُوَصُولُ	relative pronoun
connecting sentence	الصَّلَاةُ	??
deputy –	نَائِبٌ عَنْ -- / نَائِبٌ --	??
direct doee	المَفْعُولُ بِهِ	object
doer	الْفَاعِلُ	subject
i-case	حَالَةُ الْجَرِّ / الْمَجْزُورِ	genitive case
particle	الْحَرْفُ	particle
pointing noun	اسْمُ الْإِشَارَةِ	demonstrative pronoun
preposition	حَرْفُ الْجَرِّ	preposition
prohibition	النَّهْيُ	??
pronoun	الصَّمِيرُ	pronoun
proper noun	الْعَلَمُ	??
a-case	حَالَةُ / الْمَنْصُوبِ	accusative case (nouns) /
	النَّصْبِ	subjunctive mood (verbs)
questioning	الاسْتِفْهَامُ	interrogative
u-case	حَالَةُ الرَّفْعِ / الْمَرْفُوعِ	nominative case (nouns) /
		indicative mood (verbs)
refer-back pronoun	الرَّابِطُ / الْعَائِدُ	??
inflexible	الْمَثْبُتُ	??

Term used in this book	Term used in native Arabic grammar	Term used by Western grammars
semi-flexible state	الْمَمْنُوعُ مِنَ الصَّرْفِ الإِعْرَابِ	diptote inflection / case (nouns) / mood (verbs)
subject (of إِنَّ, كَانَ, etc.)	اسْمٌ --	??
subject (of sentence) tanwīn	الْمُبْتَدَأُ، الْمُبْتَدَأُ بِهِ التَّنْوِين	subject / topic nunation

Work in progress

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Work in progress

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Appendix A.

Rules for writing hamzah

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

A.1. Seats of hamzah

Hamzah is traditionally not considered a full letter in the 28-letter Arabic alphabet. Instead, it is written as a *diacritic* on top of the basic alphabetical script. As a diacritic, it is written in four different ways:

1. Seated on an alif: أ or إ
2. Seated on an wāw: وُ
3. Seated on an yā': يَ
4. Unseated: ء

Here are some rules and examples of writing hamzah in the above four ways:

- When unseated hamzah comes between two letters that are joined, then it is written above the line that joins them, for example: خَطِيئَةٌ *khaṭi'ah*. In this word, the yā' ي joins to the tā' *marbūṭah* ة.

As a special case, when unseated hamza comes between joined lām and alif (لا), then it is positioned between them thus: لاَ. (In most cases, this is replaced with لَ as we will explain in the next point below.) And this is different from hamzah on the alif following the lām: لَأ.

- When unseated hamzah is followed by an alif: ء, the combination of hamzah and alif is usually written as آ as a convention. Examples: آمَنَ *āmana*, ظَمَانَ *q̣ham'ān*, شَنَانَ *shana'ān*. However, when the alif is a suffix or part of a suffix, or the hamzah is doubled, or there is an alif before the hamzah then we will write ء, not آ. Examples: شَيَّانٍ *shay'āni*, سَأَلَ *sa'al*, قَرَأَاتٍ *qirā'āt*.

- When hamzah is seated on alif, if it has an kasrah, it is written below the alif: اِ. Otherwise, it is written above the alif: اَ, اُ, ا. ¹
- When hamzah is seated on yā' ي the dots of the yā' are no longer written.¹ Here's how it will appear in different positions:

Isolated	End	Middle	Beginning
ئ	ئ	ئ	ئ

Note that hamzah is seated on yā' in the middle position ئ is different from unseated hamzah between two joining letters ئ.

So how do we know when to write hamzah unseated and when seated? And how do we choose between its three different seats? There are a set of rules that we need to follow in order to correctly write hamzah.

A.2. Rules for determining the seat of hamzah

We will first learn how to determine the seat of hamzah for a word without any prefix or suffix.

Hamzah can occur in three positions in a word:

1. At the beginning of the word
2. In the middle of the word
3. At the end of the word

We will treat each of these positions below.

A.2.1. Hamzah in the beginning of the word

When hamzah occurs in the beginning of a word, then:

- a. If the hamzah carries a long-ā vowel, it is written unseated followed by an alif and written as آ, for example آمَنَ āmana.
- b. If the hamzah carries any other vowel, it is written seated on an alif, and is marked with the appropriated vowel mark, for example أَسْلَمَ aslama, أُرِيدُ uridu, إِسْلَامُ islām, إِيمَانُ imān, أُؤْخَذُ ūkhiḏha.

¹But see also van Putten, "When did faṣiḥ become qabiḥ?" 8–9 footnote 6

A.2.2. Hamzah in the middle of the word

Arabic has three short vowels, three long vowels, two semi-vowels, and a zero-vowel indicated by a sukūn ْ. Each of these has an order of precedence and a preferred spelling for hamzah. We have shown them in the table below:

Precedence	Vowel	Preferred hamzah
1.	<i>ī/ay</i>	ء
2.	<i>i</i>	ئ
3.	<i>ū/aw</i>	ء
4.	<i>u</i>	ؤ
5.	<i>ā</i>	ء
6.	<i>a</i>	أ
7.	– (ْ)	ء

Main rule: Disregard any shaddah ّ. Consider the vowel on the consonant before the hamzah and the vowel on the hamzah itself. Determine which of the two vowels wins by being higher in precedence in the above table. The winning vowel's seat will be the seat of the hamzah.

Exception: If the vowel *ā* wins, but it is written not as an alif but as a ع, then the hamzah will be seated on an alif.

Examples:

Word	Vowel before hamzah	Vowel on hamzah	Winning vowel	Seated hamzah
هَيْئَة <i>hay'ah</i>	<i>ay</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ay</i>	ء
خَطِيئَة <i>khaṭi'ah</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ī</i>	ء
اِسْتِيْآس <i>'isti'ās</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ī</i>	ء (Exception: آ is not written as ا when the preceding vowel is <i>ī</i> .)
تَوَّءَم <i>taw'am</i>	<i>aw</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>aw</i>	ء
سَوَّءَة <i>saw'ah</i>	<i>aw</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>aw</i>	ء
مَوَّئِل <i>maw'il</i>	<i>aw</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
سَائِل <i>sā'il</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
تَسَاوُل <i>tasā'ul</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>u</i>	ؤ
تَسَاءَل <i>tasā'ala</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ā</i>	ء
قِرَاءَات <i>qirā'āt</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ā</i>	ء
نَوَّان <i>nū'ānun</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ū</i>	ء

Word	Vowel before hamzah	Vowel on hamzah	Win- ning vowel	Seated hamzah
مَسْئُول mas'ul	—	ū	ū	ء
تَرْيَس tar'is	—	ī	ī	ء
مِرْأَة mir'āh	—	ā	ā	ء
ظَمَان ḡham'ān	—	ā	ā	ء
مَسْأَلَة mas'alah	—	a	a	أ
الْمِرْأَة almar'ah	—	a	a	أ
أَسْئَلَة as'ilah	—	i	i	ئ
أَفْئِدَة af'idah	—	i	i	ئ
بَيْس bi'sa	i	—	i	ئ
أَبْوَس ab'us	—	u	u	و
سُؤْل su'l	u	—	u	و
كَأْس ka's	a	—	a	أ
سُئِل su'ila	u	i	i	ئ
يَأْس ya'isa	a	i	i	ئ
مُطْمَئِنِّن mutma'inn	a	i	i	ئ
سُؤَال su'āl	u	ā	u	و
رَيْس ra'is	a	ī	ī	ء
رُؤُس ru'ūs	u	ū	ū	ء
شُؤْن shu'ūn	u	ū	ū	ء
رُؤُف ra'ūf	a	ū	ū	ء
لُؤْيِي lu'ayy	u	a	u	و
شَنَان shana'ān	a	ā	ā	ء
سَأَلَ sa'ala	a	a	a	أ
رَأْس ra'asa	a	a	a	أ
سَيَّيْه sayyi'ah	i	a	i	ئ
يُرْأَس yura'isu	a	i	i	ئ
رُئِس ru'isa	u	i	i	ئ
تَفَوَّل tafa'ul	a	u	u	و
سَعَال sa'āl	a	ā	ā	ء

Word	Vowel before hamzah	Vowel on hamzah	Winning vowel	Seated hamzah
لَا <i>laʿāl</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ā</i>	ء
رَأَى <i>raʿā</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ā</i>	أ (using exception)

A.2.3. Hamzah in the end of the word

When hamzah occurs at the end of a word, disregard the vowel on hamzah itself, and consider only the vowel on preceding consonant. Plug it into the precedence table as above to determine the seat of hamzah.

Word	Vowel on consonant before hamzah	Seated hamzah
دَعَا <i>duʿāʿu</i>	<i>ā</i>	ء
سَوَّى <i>sūʿu</i>	<i>ū</i>	ء
جِئَ <i>jīʿa</i>	<i>ī</i>	ء
دَاوَا <i>dawʿa</i>	<i>aw</i>	ء
شَايَا <i>shayʿa</i>	<i>ay</i>	ء
بَطَأَ <i>buṭʿu</i>	—	ء
عَبَّ <i>ʿibʿu</i>	—	ء
شَاطَأَ <i>shaṭʿu</i>	—	ء
يَهْدَى <i>yuhaddiʿu</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
مُتَّكِيَا <i>muttakiʿa</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
سَيَّى <i>sayyiʿu</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
بَطَأَ <i>baṭuʿa</i>	<i>u</i>	و
يَهْدَا <i>yahdaʿu</i>	<i>a</i>	أ
مُبْتَدَا <i>mubtadaʿi</i>	<i>a</i>	إ

The exception to this rule is when the previous letter is a doubled wāw with an ḍammah. In this case the hamzah will again be unseated. Example تَبَوَّأَ *tabawwuʿu*.

Note also that مُبتدأ *mubtadaʿi* can be written with the hamzah below the alif because of the kasrah on the hamzah. But it is also common to write it as مُبتدأ *mubtadaʿ*, especially when the hamzah is unvoveled.

A.3. With prefixes and suffixes

A.3.1. Prefixes

If hamzah is in the beginning of a word, adding a prefix to the word will not alter the writing of the hamzah. Hamzah will continue to be seated on an alif. Here are some examples of words with beginning hamzahs and prefixes.

Word without prefix	Prefix	Word with prefix
أُسْتَاذ	ل	لَأُسْتَاذ
آخِرَة	ال	الْآخِرَة

A.3.2. Suffixes

If hamzah is at the end of a word, adding a suffix to the word can, in general, alter the writing of the hamzah. Hamzah is now, generally, treated as if it is in the middle of the word, and the rules for hamzah in the middle of a word apply. Examples:

Word	Vowel on consonant before hamzah	Shortened vowel on hamzah	Winning vowel	Seated hamzah
بَرِيْثُوْنَ <i>bariʿūna</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>ī</i>	ء
بَرِيْثَانِ <i>bariʿāni</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ī</i>	ء
بَرِيْثِيْنَ <i>bariʿīna</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>ī</i>	ء
بَرِيْثِيْنَ <i>bariʿayni</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>ay</i>	<i>ī/ay</i>	ء
سَيِّت <i>siʿat</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ī</i>	ء
شَيْه <i>shayʿuhu</i>	<i>ay</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>ay</i>	ء
شَيْه <i>shayʿahu</i>	<i>ay</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ay</i>	ء
شَيْه <i>shayʿihi</i>	<i>ay</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>ay</i>	ء
شَيْثَانِ <i>shayʿāni</i>	<i>ay</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ay</i>	ء

Word	Vowel on con- sonant before hamzah	Short- ened vowel on hamzah	Win- ning vowel	Seated hamzah
شَيْئِينَ <i>shay'ayni</i>	ay	ay	ay	ء
مَجِيئُهُ <i>majī'uhu</i>	ī	u	ī	ء
مَجِيئَاهُ <i>majī'ahu</i>	ī	a	ī	ء
مَجِيئِيهِ <i>majī'ihī</i>	ī	i	ī	ء
سُوِّئِيهِ <i>sū'ihī</i>	ū	i	i	ئ
ذَوِّئِيهِ <i>ḏaw'ihī</i>	aw	i	i	ئ
يَسُوِّئُون <i>yasū'ūna</i>	ū	ū	ū	ء
سُوِّئُهُ <i>sū'uhu</i>	ū	u	ū	ء
سُوِّئَاهُ <i>sū'ahu</i>	ū	a	ū	ء
سُوِّئَان <i>sū'āni</i>	ū	ā	ū	ء
ذَوِّئَاهُ <i>ḏaw'ahu</i>	aw	a	aw	ء
ذَوِّئَان <i>ḏaw'āni</i>	aw	ā	aw	ء
مُرْجَات <i>murja'āt</i>	a	ā	ā	ء
خَاطِئِينَ <i>khāṭi'īn</i>	i	ī	ī	ء
خَاسِئِينَ <i>khāsi'īn</i>	i	ī	ī	ء
مُتَّكِيْنَ <i>muttaki'īna</i>	i	ī	ī	ء
مُتَّكِيُون <i>muttaki'ūna</i>	i	ū	i	ئ
يُبَرِّئُون <i>yubarri'ūna</i>	i	ū	i	ئ
يُبَرِّئَان <i>yubarra'ūna</i>	a	ū	ū	ء
اقْرَءُوا <i>iqra'ū</i>	a	ū	ū	ء
سَيِّئَات <i>sayyi'āt</i>	i	ā	i	ئ
فَيِّئَات <i>fi'āt</i>	i	ā	i	ئ
فَيِّئُون <i>fi'ūn</i>	i	ū	i	ئ
مَيِّئَات <i>mi'āt</i>	i	ā	i	ئ
مَيِّئُون <i>mi'ūn</i>	i	ū	i	ئ
يُطْفِئُوا <i>yutfi'ū</i>	i	ū	i	ئ

Word	Vowel on consonant before hamzah	Shortened vowel on hamzah	Winning vowel	Seated hamzah
مُسْتَهْزِئُونَ <i>mustahzi'ūn</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
مُنْشِئُونَ <i>munshi'ūn</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
يُضَاهِئُونَ <i>yudāhi'ūna</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ
مُرْجِئُونَ <i>murji'ūn</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>i</i>	ئ

There are some exceptions:

- If the letter before the hamzah has a sukūn and is not wāw or yā', then the hamzah will be written unseated. Examples:

– جُزْءَانِ *juz'āni*

– عِبْءَانِ *ib'āni*

– عِبْءَيْنِ *ib'ayni*

– بَطْءُهُ *buṭ'ahu*

– بَطْءُهُ *buṭ'uhu*

– بَطْءِهِ *buṭ'ihī*

(ان, ين, ه, and ه are suffixes.) Note that the combination ٰء is not written as ٰآ when the alif is part of the suffix.

A.4. Tanwīn on final hamzah

Tanwīn on final hamzah only affects the writing of the hamzah in the case of a tanwīned fatḥah ً. When writing a tanwīned fatḥah ً on a hamzah at the end of a word:

1. If there is an alif before a unseated hamzah ا, then we don't add a silent alif when writing the tanwīned fatḥah ً. For example دَاء becomes دَاءً *dā'an*, not دَاءَا.
2. Otherwise, we add the silent alif after the hamzah so that the hamzah is now in the middle of the word with a suffix alif after it. We now pretend

that the hamzah has an fat-ḥah and that the alif after it is a long-ā vowel. Then we go through the rules for writing hamzah in the middle of a word (given above) to determine how hamzah will be written. We then write the tanwined fat-ḥah َ on the hamzah. Examples:

- مَبْتَدَأٌ becomes مَبْتَدِئًا، مَبْتَدِئاً، مَبْتَدِئَا
- مَلَجَأٌ becomes مَلَجِئًا، مَلَجِئاً، مَلَجِئَا
- جُزْءٌ becomes جُزِئًا، جُزِئاً، جُزِئَا
- شَيْءٌ becomes شِئًا، شِئاً، شِئَا
- سَيِّئٌ becomes سِئًا، سِئاً، سِئَا

A.5. Variants

There are some historical and regional variants to the above rules. The main one is when the letter before hamzah has a sukūn, the hamzah is generally written unseated. So with this variant, we write:

- مَسْأَلَةٌ instead of مَسْأَلَةٌ
- أَفْتَدَةٌ instead of أَفْتَدَةٌ

However, this rule appears to be not consistently followed. For example, *nash'ah* is generally always written نَشَاءَةٌ never نَشْأَةٌ.

Another variant is that when an unsuffixed word has final hamzah and is followed by a suffix starting with long vowel, then the hamzah is written unseated. Examples:

- مُتَكَيِّنٌ *muttaki'ūn* instead of مُتَكَيِّنٌ
- يُطْفِئُوا *yutfi'ū* instead of يُطْفِئُوا
- مُسْتَهْزِئُونَ *mustahzi'ūn* instead of مُسْتَهْزِئُونَ
- مُنْشِئُونَ *munshi'ūn* instead of مُنْشِئُونَ
- يَضَاهِئُونَ *yudāhi'ūna* instead of يَضَاهِئُونَ
- مُرْجِئُونَ *murji'ūn* instead of مُرْجِئُونَ
- سَيِّئَاتٌ *sayyi'āt* instead of سَيِّئَاتٌ

Excepted from this variant are deficient words like:

- فِتْنٌ *fi'ūn*

- مِثُون *miṭūn*

Another, more modern, variant is to modify the precedence rule of vowels. According to this modern variant, the vowel before hamzah is compared with the *shortened* vowel on the hamzah. This can result in some changes in the hamzah seat. For example:

- مَسْئُول *mas'ūl* instead of مَسْئُول
- رُؤُوس *ruṭūs* instead of رُؤُوس
- رَأِيس *ra'īs* instead of رَأِيس
- أَقْرَأُوا *iqra'ū* instead of أَقْرَأُوا

Excepted from this variant is the combination *a'ā* which will continue to be written as اَآ or آ. For example: مَرْجَأَات, شَنَان.

A.6. Why so complicated?

Hamzah was not always pronounced in some Classical Arabic dialects. For speakers of these dialects, when hamzah would occur in the middle of a word, they would usually replace it with a و, ي, or another vowel, depending on the surrounding vowels. So they would adjust their pronunciation as follows:

Pronunciation with hamzah	Pronunciation without hamzah
هَيْئَة <i>hay'ah</i>	هَيْة <i>hayyah</i>
خَطِئَة <i>khaṭi'ah</i>	خَطِية <i>khaṭiyyah</i>
تَوَاءَم <i>taw'am</i>	تَوَم <i>tawwam</i>
تَسَاوُل <i>tasā'ul</i>	تَسَاوِل <i>tasāwul</i>
بِئْسَ <i>bi'sa</i>	بِيسَ <i>bīsa</i>
سَوَال <i>su'āl</i>	سَوَال <i>suwāl</i>
سَوَّل <i>su'l</i>	سَوَّل <i>sūl</i>
كَاس <i>ka's</i>	كَاس <i>kās</i>

When the Classical Standard Arabic variety emerged, then, for reasons that are beyond the scope of this text, the pronunciation *with* hamzah and the consonantal spelling *without* hamzah became standardized. So ء is now added as a diacritic on top of the various *seats* that would instead have been dialectally pronounced without hamzah.

A.7. Typographical limitations

Unfortunately, most digital fonts do not currently allow for correctly typing an unseated hamzah between two joined letters (أ), as in خَطِيئَةٌ *khaṭiʿah*. In most fonts, the hamzah character (Unicode `u+0621`) will break the joining between the two letters surrounding it, and the output will be rendered incorrectly: خَطِيءَةٌ *khaṭiʿah*.

Two fonts which allow for the correct typesetting are

- Amiri from Alif Type (amirifont.org)
- Naskh™ from DecoType (decotype.com)

We have used the Amiri font for typesetting this appendix chapter.

For most other fonts, an unseated hamzah between two joined letters would have to be approximated in one of two ways:

1. Hamzah seated on yāʾ: ع. Example: خَطِيئَةٌ. This is a reprehensible, yet more prevalent, and better supported, approximation.

Beware, though, that this approximation would not allow for the correct rendering of a complex (but thankfully rare) word like لَّالٍ *laʿāl* “pearl seller”, where the hamzah is not allowed to disturb the lām-alif ligature لا.

2. Hamzah superscript on a TATWEEL character: ٲ. Example: خَطِيئَةٌ. The Unicode input sequence is:

```
u+0640 ARABIC TATWEEL
u+0654 ARABIC HAMZA ABOVE
```

This is a more accurate approximation, but some fonts may not position the hamzah correctly on the taṭwīl, or position vowel marks on the superscript hamzah correctly.

Kitab (github.com/nuqayah/kitab-font) is one font that uses this technique to correctly position the hamzah, for example: خَطِيئَةٌ.

Unfortunately, with either of these techniques, the digital representation of the word will have extra Unicode characters (the ع and the TATWEEL) that are not technically part of the spelling of the word.

Work in progress

Appendix B.

Usage and style

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

B.1. “There is a ...” sentences.

In English the plain existence of an indefinite subject is expressed using the word “there”. For example:

- “There is a gloom in the house.”
- “There is a type of jealousy which is liked and [there is] a type of jealousy which is disliked.
- “There are reasons.”
- “There is a god.”
- “Is there food?”

The word “there” in these examples does not indicate a specific place. Rather it signifies the existence of the subject of the sentence. This use of “there” is called the *existential* “there”.¹

Expressing such sentences in Arabic can sometimes be tricky. There is a modern tendency to use the ḥarf makan هُنَاك and the majhūl verb يُوجَدُ. So one might find:

(1222) هُنَاك حَزَنٌ فِي الْبَيْتِ. or

يُوجَدُ حَزَنٌ فِي الْبَيْتِ.

There is a gloom in the house.

(1223) هُنَاك غِيْرَةٌ يَسْتَحِبُّ وَهْنَاك غِيْرَةٌ يَكْرَهُ. or

تَوْجَدُ غِيْرَةٌ تَسْتَحِبُّ وَتَوْجَدُ غِيْرَةٌ تَكْرَهُ.

There is a type of jealousy which is liked and there is a type of jealousy which is disliked.

(1224) هُنَاك أَسْبَابٌ. or

تُوجَدُ أَسْبَابٌ.

There are reasons.

¹See also Haspelmath, M., “What do we mean by existential clause?”

- (1225) هناك إله. or
يوجد إله.
There is a god.

- (1226) هل هناك طعام؟ or
هل يوجد طعام؟
Is there food?

Sometimes in place of هُنَاكَ, its synonyms تَمَّ or ثَمَّة is used. These usages of تَمَّ, ثَمَّة, and يُوجَدُ are foreign to Arabic and should generally be avoided.

In Classical Arabic, expressing such sentences falls under the category of sentences with indefinite subjects. We have discussed this topic in chapter @ref(chap-indef-subjects).

There are various strategies for expressing such sentences:

B.1.1. Using or manufacturing scope

If, for example, there is a jārr wa-majrūr, or other shibh jumlah then it can readily be used as a khabar that precedes the muftada'. For example:

- (1227) فِي الْبَيْتِ حَزَنٌ.
In the house is gloom.

Sometimes, a jārr wa-majrūr, or other shibh jumlah is not original, but can readily be manufactured. For example, in the sentence, "There are reasons." the reasons must be for something, and that something can be used as a khabar:

- (1228) لِلْأَمْرِ أَسْبَابٌ.
For the situation, are reasons.

B.1.2. Using or manufacturing an introductory sentence

Similarly, an introductory sentence or shibh jumlah can be manufactured to pave the way for the main sentence. For example:

- (1229) [1996: سنن ابن ماجه] مِنَ الْعَيَّةِ مَا يُحِبُّ اللَّهُ وَمِنْهَا مَا يَكْرَهُ اللَّهُ
There is a kind of jealousy what Allāh loves, and a kind that Allāh dislikes.

- (1230) الْفَجْرُ فَجْرَانِ فَجْرٌ يَحْرُمُ فِيهِ الطَّعَامُ وَتَحِلُّ فِيهِ الصَّلَاةُ وَفَجْرٌ تَحْرُمُ فِيهِ الصَّلَاةُ وَيَحِلُّ فِيهِ الطَّعَامُ [687: مستدرک الحاكم]
There are two dawns: a dawn in which food is forbidden while prayer becomes permissible, and a dawn in which prayer is forbidden while food becomes permissible.

B.1.3. Using an interjection

Sometimes it hard to come up with any of the above solutions, as in the sentence: "There is a god." Such sentences, if they are able to be converted to an interjection, may be expressed with the subject itself as a one word sentence²:

(1231) إِنَّهُ
"[There is] a god!"

(1232) أَمِيرَانِ هَلَكَ الْقَوْمُ [cited by Brockelmann, *Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik der semitischen Sprachen* 2/6]
[There are] two commanders?! The people are destroyed!

Consider also this example:

(1233) [178: صحيح مسلم] سَأَلْتُ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ هَلْ رَأَيْتَ رَبَّكَ قَالَ نُورٌ أَنَّى أَرَاهُ

The statement نُورٌ أَنَّى أَرَاهُ has been explained by Ibn Taymiyyah with the following wording³:

كَانَ نَمُّ نُورٍ ، أَوْ حَالَ دُونَ رُؤْيِيهِ نُورٌ فَأَنَّى أَرَاهُ.
"There was light, or light came between [my] seeing Him, so how could I see Him?"

This solution should only be considered if the sentence makes sense as an interjection, and can not be used as a blanket solution. For example, the question:

"Is there food?"

can be expressed in Arabic, not as an interjection, but as:

(1234) [2052d: صحيح مسلم] هَلْ مِنْ غَدَاءٍ
Is there any food?

Similarly:

(1235) [758e: صحيح مسلم] هَلْ مِنْ مُسْتَغْفِرٍ هَلْ مِنْ تَائِبٍ هَلْ مِنْ سَائِلٍ هَلْ مِنْ دَاعٍ
Is there one seeking forgiveness? Is there a penitent? Is there an asker? Is there a caller?

B.1.4. Negative and past existential sentences

English also uses the word "there" with this existential meaning for sentences like:

- "There was a king."
- "There is no hope."

²Cantarino, V., *Syntax of modern Arabic prose* 1/5 citing Brockelmann, *Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik der semitischen Sprachen* 2/35

³21 اجتماع الجيوش الإسلامية لابن القيم

These sentences can be expressed in Arabic without indefinite subjects. For example:

- (1236) كَانَ مَلِكٌ.
There was a king.
 This uses the *self-sufficient* كَانَ. (See section @ref(self-sufficient-kaana).)
- (1237) لَا أَمَلٌ.
There is no hope.
 This uses the *nāfiyah lil-jins* لَا. (See section @ref(la-nafiyah-lil-jins).)

B.1.5. Legitimate use of هُنَاكَ and تَمَّ and يُوجَدُ

If, of course, a place is intended by “there” then there is no problem using هُنَاكَ or its synonyms. It would appear that they are still locatives, though there may be a suggestion of the existential. For example:

- (1238) كُنَّا نَادِينُ بِالصَّبَاحِ وَهُنَاكَ عَبْدُ اللَّهِ بْنُ عَمْرٍو وَكَانَ هُنَاكَ امْرَأَةٌ مِنْ بَنِي الْمُغْبِرَةِ يُقَالُ لَهَا [8461: مستدرک الحاكم]
We used to meet socially in the morning and Eabd Allāh ibn Eamr would be there. And there was a woman there from Banū al-Mughīrah called Fāṭimah. And she heard Eabd Allāh ibn Eamr saying, “That is Yazīd ibn Muḩāwiyah.”
- (1239) أَتَمَّ لَكَغْ [2122: صحيح البخاري]
Is [the] little chap there?
- (1240) جَلَبْتُ أَنَا وَمَحْرَمَةُ الْعَبْدِيِّ بَرًّا مِنْ هَجَرَ فَأَتَيْنَا بِهِ مَكَّةَ فَجَاءَنَا رَسُولُ اللَّهِ ﷺ يَمْشِي فَسَاوَمَنَا [3336: سنن أبي داود]
I and Makhrafah al-Abdi imported some garments from Hajar, and brought them to Mecca. The Messenger of Allah ﷺ came to us walking, and after he had bargained with us for some trousers, we sold them to him. There was a man who was weighing for payment. The Messenger of Allah ﷺ said to him: Weigh out and give overweight.
- (1241) إِذَا سَجَدَ وَتَمَّ بِهِمَّةً أَرَادَتْ أَنْ تَمُرَّ بَيْنَ يَدَيْهِ تَجَافَى [26809: مسند أحمد]
When the Messenger of Allah ﷺ used to prostrate, and there was a lamb that wanted to pass in front of him, he would have his arms to the side.
- (1242) رَأَيْتُ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ ﷺ يَزِمِي الْجِمَارَ عَلَى نَاقَةٍ صَهْبَاءَ لَيْسَ تَمَّ صَرْبٌ وَلَا طَرْدٌ وَلَا إِلَيْكَ إِلَيْكَ [1942: سنن الدارمي]
I saw the Prophet ﷺ stone the Pillar, on the Day of Sacrifice, from atop a reddish-brown camel of his; and there wasn't any beating or driving them off or [telling them to] go away.
- (1243) أَنَّ رُكْبًا وَقَفُوا عَلَى عُثْمَانَ بْنِ عَفَّانَ فَمَدَحُوهُ وَأَثْنَوْا عَلَيْهِ وَتَمَّ الْمُقْدَادُ بْنُ الْأَسْوَدِ فَأَخَذَ [23826: مسند أحمد]
... that a group of riders came by Euthmān ibn Eaffān and praised him. And

al-Miqdād ibn al-ʿAswad was there. So he took a handful [of dirt] from the ground and threw it in the faces of the riders.

Similarly, *يُوجَدُ* may be used with no problem if the meaning “is (to be) found” is intended. For example:

- (1244) *صحيح* [3166: البخاري]
Whoever killed a person having a treaty with the Muslims, shall not smell the smell of Paradise though its smell is perceived from a distance of forty years.

B.1.6. Technical and scientific use of *يُوجَدُ*

Our above directive to avoid the use of *يُوجَدُ* to mean “there is” holds for normal sentences. Sometimes, however, a more technical meaning of “exists” is intended, especially in the language of science. In this case, *يُوجَدُ* and its ism mafeʿul *موجود* may be used when needing to discuss the existence of something in a scientific text. But such usage should be restricted to its domain, and should not, ideally, spill over to normal sentences, where a simple “there is” is intended.

By the way, the disused verb *أَيَسَ* *to be*, (theorized, along with *لَا*, to be the origin of the verb *لَيْسَ*⁴) is also used to express the existence of an object in philosophical works.

B.2. Pronoun of separation after question nouns

In later writing we find the following forms:

- مَنْ هِيَ زَيْنَبُ؟
 Who is Zaynab?
 مَا هُوَ الْإِسْلَامُ؟
 What is Islām?
 لِمَاذَا هُوَ حَزِينُ؟
 Why is he sad?

The insertion of the pronoun of separation (*هُوَ*, *هِيَ*, etc.) after question nouns is best avoided. So it is better to say:

- مَنْ زَيْنَبُ؟
 Who is Zaynab?
 مَا الْإِسْلَامُ؟
 What is Islām?

As for “why” sentences, Arabic has a native expression using *مَا لَ* followed by a noun or pronoun in the i-case and then an adjective in the a-case. For example:

- مَا لَهُ حَزِينًا؟
 Why is he sad?

Another option, that is sometimes possible, is to convert the “why” question into a “what” question, thus:

⁴Wilmsen, D., “Another Croft cycle in Arabic: The *laysa* negative existential cycle,” 329–331; Wright 1/96C

مَا أَخْزَنَهُ

Why is he sad? (literally: What has made him sad?)

B.3. “What happened to ...”

When asking the question, “What happened to a person/thing?” the verbs *فَعَلَ* and *صَنَعَ* are used and the person or thing asked about is made the doer. For example:

يَا أَبَا عُمَيْرٍ مَا فَعَلَ النَّعْغِيُّ

What happened to al-nughayr

bukhari:6129

مَا فَعَلَ أَصْحَابُكَ

What happened to your companions?

riyadussalihin:30

مَا فَعَلَتِ الرِّيطَةُ

What happened to the thin cloak?

ibnmajah:3603

فَيَسْأَلُونَهُ مَاذَا فَعَلَ فُلَانٌ مَاذَا فَعَلَ فُلَانٌ

So they ask him: What happened to so-and-so? What happened to so-and-so?

nasai:1833

B.4. about

The word “about” is often indiscriminately translated as *عَنْ*. *عَنْ* is to be used, but only in specific circumstances. For example, with the verb *سَأَلَ*.

سَأَلَهُ عَنْ أَمْرٍ.

He asked him about a matter.

We have also found *عَنْ* in the narration:

مَا هَذَا الَّذِي يَذْكُرُونَ عَنِ الْحَسَنِ

abudawud:4621

Usually, though, the preposition *فِي* should be used instead. For example:

B.5. “What about ...”

Avoid *عَنْ* مَاذَا when asking “What about someone/something?”

Instead use *بِأَلْ*.

For example:

حَتَّى إِذَا فَرَغَ مَسَيَّتٍ، فَقُلْتُ مَا بِأَلِ الْعَظْمِ وَالرَّوْتَةِ

bukhari:3860

إِذَا تَوَاجَعَا الْمُسْلِمَانِ بِسَيْفَيْهِمَا فَكَلَاهُمَا مِنْ أَهْلِ النَّارِ. قِيلَ فَهَذَا الْقَاتِلُ، فَمَا بِأَلِ الْمَقْتُولِ

bukhari:7083

عَنْ عَائِشَةَ، أَنَّهَا قَالَتْ يَا رَسُولَ اللَّهِ مَا الشَّيْءُ الَّذِي لَا يَجِلُّ مَنَعُهُ قَالَ الْمَاءُ وَالْمِلْحُ وَالنَّارُ .

قَالَتْ قُلْتُ يَا رَسُولَ اللَّهِ هَذَا الْمَاءُ قَدْ عَرَفْنَاهُ فَمَا بِأَلِ الْمِلْحِ وَالنَّارِ

ibnmajah:2474

When the question “What about ...?” is asked as a follow-up to a previous statement then the asked about person/thing can be asked by itself in a single word. For example:

عَنِ النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ أَنَّهُ نَهَى أَنْ يَشْرَبَ الرَّجُلُ قَائِمًا . فَتَادَهُ فَقُلْنَا فَلَا أَكُلُ فَقَالَ
“what about eating?” muslim:2024b

قَالَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ لِلْمُتَلَاعِنِينَ ” حِسَابُكُمَا عَلَى اللَّهِ أَحَدُكُمَا كَاذِبٌ لَا سَبِيلَ
لَكَ عَلَيْهَا ” . قَالَ يَا رَسُولَ اللَّهِ مَا لِي
“What about my wealth?” abudawud:2257

B.6. To make someone do something

In order to express the meaning: to make someone do something, we have a few options:

1. To use a causative verb, like form 4, if one is available with this meaning.
For example:

(1245) [2/104] المقتضب للمبرد] أَدَخَلْتُهُ الدَّارَ

2. To use the expression حَمَلَهُ عَلَى أَنْ يَفْعَلَ. For example

(1246) [1/37] التبيان في إعراب القرآن للعكبري] وَقَالُوا سَيِّئًا ; أَيَّ حَمَلْتُهُ عَلَى أَنْ يَسَاءَ

(1247) [عجل root المصباح المنير للفيومي] وَأَعَجَلْتُهُ بِالْأَلْفِ حَمَلْتُهُ عَلَى أَنْ يَعْجَلَ

This expressions is especially common in questions like “What made you ...?” For example:

(1248) [2221: سنن أبي داود] مَا حَمَلَكَ عَلَى مَا صَنَعْتَ

3. To use the verb جَعَلَ. For example:

(1249) [2/104] المقتضب للمبرد] جَعَلْتُهُ يَدْخُلُهَا

Work in progress

Appendix C.

Narrations, quotes and humor

C.1. Narrations

عَنْ عَبْدِ الرَّحْمَنِ بْنِ عَوْفٍ، قَالَ سَمِعْتُ رَسُولَ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ يَقُولُ قَالَ اللَّهُ أَنَا الرَّحْمَنُ وَهِيَ الرَّحِمُ شَقَقْتُ لَهَا اسْمًا مِنْ اسْمِي مَنْ وَصَلَهَا وَصَلْتَهُ وَمَنْ قَطَعَهَا بَتَّتهُ

[1694: سنن أبي داود]

قَالَ ابْنُ عَبَّاسٍ قَالَ النَّبِيُّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ فَأَلْفَى ذَلِكَ أُمَّ إِسْمَاعِيلَ وَهِيَ تُحِبُّ الْإِنْسَ فَنَزَلُوا وَأَرْسَلُوا إِلَى أَهْلِهِمْ فَنَزَلُوا مَعَهُمْ حَتَّى إِذَا كَانَ بِهَا أَهْلٌ أَبْيَاتٍ مِنْهُمْ وَشَبَّ الْغُلَامُ وَتَعَلَّمَ الْعَرَبِيَّةَ مِنْهُمْ وَأَنْفَسَهُمْ وَأَجْبَهُمْ حِينَ شَبَّ

[3364: صحيح البخاري]

عَنْ عَدِيِّ بْنِ حَاتِمٍ أَنَّ رَجُلًا خَطَبَ عِنْدَ النَّبِيِّ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ فَقَالَ مَنْ يُطِيعَ اللَّهَ وَرَسُولَهُ فَقَدْ رَشِدَ وَمَنْ يَعْصِيهِمَا فَقَدْ غَوَى فَقَالَ رَسُولُ اللَّهِ صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِ وَسَلَّمَ بئس الخطيب أنت قل ومن يعص الله ورسوله قال ابن مثير فقد غوي

[870: صحيح مسلم]

حَدَّثَنَا يَحْيَى عَنْ أَجْلَحَ قَالَ حَدَّثَنَا يَزِيدُ بْنُ الْأَصَمِّ عَنْ ابْنِ عَبَّاسٍ قَالَ جَاءَ رَجُلٌ إِلَى النَّبِيِّ ﷺ يَرَاغِبُهُ الْكَلَامَ فَقَالَ مَا شَاءَ اللَّهُ وَشِئْتُ فَقَالَ جَعَلْتَنِي لِلَّهِ عَدْلًا مَا شَاءَ اللَّهُ وَحْدَهُ

[3247: مسند أحمد]

عَنْ ابْنِ شِهَابٍ أَنَّ أَنَسَ بْنَ مَالِكٍ رَضِيَ اللَّهُ عَنْهُ أَخْبَرَهُ أَنَّهُ سَمِعَ عُمَرَ بْنَ الْخَطَّابِ رَضِيَ اللَّهُ عَنْهُ يَقُولُ {فَأَبْتَنَّا فِيهَا حَبًّا وَعِنَبًا وَقَضْبًا وَزَيْتُونًا وَخَلًّا وَحَدَائِقَ غُلَبًا وَفَاكِهَةً وَأَبًّا} [عبس: 13-17]

[٢٨] قَالَ فُكِّلَ هَذَا قَدْ عَرَفْنَاهُ فَمَا الْأَبُّ ثُمَّ تَقَضَّ عَصَا كَانَتْ فِي يَدِهِ فَقَالَ هَذَا لَعَمْرُ اللَّهِ التَّكْلُفُ اتَّبِعُوا مَا تَبَيَّنَ لَكُمْ مِنْ هَذَا الْكِتَابِ هَذَا حَدِيثٌ صَحِيحٌ عَلَى شَرْطِ الشَّيْخَيْنِ وَلَمْ يُخْرِجَاهُ [التعليق - من تلخيص الذهبي] ٣٨٩٧ - على شرط البخاري ومسلم

[3897: مستدرک الحاكم]

عن سعيد بن جبیر عن ابن عباس قال بعث ربُّ العزة ملك الموت فأخذ من أديم الأرض من عذبتها ومالحها فخلق منه آدم ومن ثم سُمي آدم لأنه خُلِقَ من أديم الأرض
[2:31 سورة البقرة for تفسير الطبري]

وعن أبي عبيد حدثني يحيى بن سعيد عن سفيان عن إبراهيم بن المهاجر عن مجاهد عن ابن عباس قال كنت لأدري ما «فاطر السموات» (١) حتى أتاني أعرابيَان يَخْتَصِمَانِ في بئر فقال أحدهما: أنا فطرتهما أي ابتدأتها
[212/3 شعب الإيمان للبيهقي (ط الرشد)]

الْحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ فَاطِرِ السَّمَوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ جَاعِلِ الْمَلَكِ رُسُلًا أُولَئِكَ أَجْنَحَةٌ مَّتَنَّى وَتُلَّتْ (□)
[35:1 سورة فاطر] وَرُبَّعٌ يَزِيدُ فِي الْخَلْقِ مَا يَشَاءُ إِنَّ اللَّهَ عَلَى كُلِّ شَيْءٍ قَدِيرٌ

قال الأصمعي: قرأت هذه الآية (١)، وإلى جنبي أعرابيٌّ، فقلت: والله غفور رحيم، سهواً، فقال الأعرابي: كلام من هذا؟ قلت: كلام الله. قال: أعد فأعدت: والله غفور رحيم، فقال: ليس هذا كلام الله، فتنبهت، فقلت: والله عزيزٌ حكيمٌ. فقال: أصبت، هذا كلام الله. فقلت له: أتقرأ القرآن؟ قال: لا. قلت: فمن أين علمت أني أخطأت؟ فقال: يا هذا عرِّ فحكم فقطع، ولو غفر ورحم لما قطع.

[1/546 زاد المسير في علم التفسير لابن الجوزي]

وَالسَّارِقُ وَالسَّارِقَةُ فَاقْطَعُوا أَيْدِيَهُمَا جَزَاءً بِمَا كَسَبَا نَكَالًا مِنَ اللَّهِ وَاللَّهُ عَزِيزٌ حَكِيمٌ (□)
[38:5 سورة المائدة]

فقال أبو حاتم: لا تعجبون من هذا، أخبرني الأصمعي أن معتوها جاء إلى أبي عمرو بن العلاء فقال: يا أبا عمرو، لم سميت الخليل خيلاً؟ فبقي أبو عمرو ليس عنده فيه جواب. فقال: لا أدري. فقال: لكني أدري. فقال: علمنا نعم. قال: لا اختياها في المشي. فقال أبو عمرو لأصحابه بعد ما ولى المجنون: اكتبوا الحكمة وارووها ولو عن معتوه.

[187 مجالس العلماء للزجاجي]

وَأَخْبَرَنَا أَبُو حَاتِمٍ عَنْ الْأَصْمَعِيِّ قَالَ: قَالَ أَبُو عَمْرٍو بْنُ الْعَلَاءِ: سَمِعْتُ أَعْرَابِيًّا يَمَانِيًا يَقُولُ:
فَلَانَ لُغُوبَ جَاءَتْهُ كِتَابِي فَاحْتَقَرَهَا. فَقُلْتُ: يَقُولُ: جَاءَتْهُ كِتَابِي فَقَالَ: أَلَيْسَ بِصَحِيفَةٍ؟
[1/370] جمهرة اللغة لابن دريد

قال ابن سلام فقلت أنا ليونس هل سمعت من ابن أبي إسحاق شيئاً قال نعم قلت له هل
يقول أحدهم الصويق يعني السويق قال نعم عمرو بن تميم تقولها وما تريد إلى هذا عليك بباب
من النحو يطرد وينقاس
[32] طبقات النحويين واللغويين للزبيدي

حدثنا أبو بكر بن دريد قال رأيت رجلاً في الوراقين بالبصرة يفضل كتاب المنطق ليعقوب
بن السكيت ويقدم الكوفيين فقليل للرياشي وكان قاعداً في الوراقين قال فقال إنما أخذنا اللغة
عن حرشة الضباب وأكلة اليرابيع وهؤلاء أخذوا اللغة عن أهل السواد أصحاب الكواميخ
وأكلة الشوايز أو كلام يشبه هذا
[69] أخبار النحويين البصريين للسريافي

C.2. Quotes

وكان المازني يقول:

من أراد أن يعمل كبيراً في النحو بعد كتاب سيبويه فليستحي

[40] أخبار النحويين البصريين للسريافي

وذكر بعض شيوخنا أن الخليل بن أحمد رحمه الله، سئل عن العلل التي يعتل بها في النحو،
ف قيل له: عن العرب أخذتها أم اخترعتها من نفسك؟ فقال:
إن العرب نطق على سبيلها وطباعها. وعرفت مواقع كلامها، وقام في عقولها الله، وإن لم
يُنقل ذلك عنها، واعتلت أنا بما عندي أنه علة لما عللته منه. فإن أكن أصبت العلة فهو الذي
التمست. وإن تكن هناك علة له فثلي في ذلك مثل رجل حكيم دخل داراً محكمة البناء، عجبة
النظم والأقسام؛ وقد صحت عنده حكمة بانها، بالخبر الصادق أو بالبراهين الواضحة والحجج
اللائحة، فكلما وقف هذا الرجل في الدار على شيء منها قال: إنما فعل هذا هكذا لعللة كذا

وكذا، ولسبب كذا وكذا. سنحت له وخطرت بباله محتملة لذلك، فجائز أن يكون الحكيم الباني للدار فعل ذلك للعلة التي ذكرها هذا الذي دخل الدار، وجائز أن يكون فعله لغير تلك العلة، إلا أن ذلك مما ذكره هذا الرجل محتمل أن يكون علة لذلك. فإن سنح لغيري علة لما علته من النحو هو أليق مما ذكرته بالمعاول فليأت بها.

[65 الإيضاح في علل النحو للزجاجي]

وقال الفراء أموت وفي نفسي شيء من حتى

[6/180 وفيات الأعيان لابن خلكان]

ويقال ما زال النحو مجنونا حتى عقله ابن السراج بأصوله

[6/2535 معجم الأدباء للحمودي]

Without exaggeration one could say that the entire linguistic tradition in Arabic is nothing but a huge commentary on the *Kitāb Sibawayhi*.

[Kees Versteegh, *Landmarks in linguistic thought III: The Arabic linguistic tradition* 39]

النحو والله جاف، لكن هذا «التقدير» والله روح النحو، وقلبه النابض.

[محاضرة "التقدير النحوي بين الواقع والتفعيد" لـ أ.د. رياض الخوام]

C.3. Humor

لمَ ضرب زيد عمراً؟
لأنه سرق واو داود.

ترنو بطرف فاتر فاتن ... أضعف من حجة نحوي

[3/469 يتيمة الدهر للنعالي]

اضرب أيهم أفضل

[2/399 كتاب سيبويه]

يعجبني أيهم ضربته في داره

[1/168 شرح ابن عقيل على الألفية]

ومثله ما حكى أن بعض الفقراء وقف على باب نحوي فقرعه فقال النحوي من الباب فقال سائل فقال ينصرف فقال اسمي أحمد فقال النحوي لغلامه أعط سيويوه كسرة.

[1/40 ثمرات الأوراق في المحاضرات لابن حجة الحموي]

وكان لبعضهم ولد نحوي يتقعر في كلامه، فاعتل أبوه علة شديدة أشرف منها على الموت، فاجتمع عليه أولاده، وقالوا له: ندعو لك فلانا أخانا، قال: لا إن جاءني قتلي، فقالوا: نحن نوصيه أن لا يتكلم، فدعوه، فلما دخل عليه قال له يا أبت: قل لا إله إلا الله تدخل بها الجنة وتفوز من النار، يا أبت: والله ما أشغلني عنك إلا فلان، فإنه دعاني بالأمس، فأهرس وأعدس واستبذج وسكبج وطهبج وأفرج ودجج وأبصل وأمضر ولوزج وافلوزج فصاح أبوه غمضوني، فقد سبق [أخوكم] ملك الموت إلى قبض روحي.

[475 المستطرف في كل فن مستظرف للأبشيبي]

ووقع نحوي في كنيف، فجاء كئاس ليخرجه، فصاح به الكئاس ليعلم أهو حي أم لا، فقال له النحوي: أطلب لي حبلا دقيقا وشدني شدا وثيقا واجذبني جذبا رقيقا، فقال الكئاس: [أمرأتي] طالق إن أخرجتك منه، ثم تركه وانصرف.

[475 المستطرف في كل فن مستظرف للأبشيبي]

حدثنا أبو طاهر، قال: حدثنا وكيع، قال: حدثني محمد بن خلاد، قال: ثنا الوليد بن هشام القحذي، قال:

دخل خالد بن صفوان الحمام وفيه رجل مع ابنه، فأراد أن يعرف خالدًا ما عنده من البيان فقال: يا بُني، ابدأ بيدك ورجلاك، ثم التفت إلى خالد فقال: يا أبا صفوان، هذا كلام قد ذهب أهله. قال: هذا كلام ما خلق الله له أهلاً قط.

[49 أخبار في النحو لأبي طاهر بن أبي هاشم]

ركب نحويّ سفينة فقال للملاح: أتعرف النحو؟ قال: لا، قال: ذهب نصف عمرك.
فهاجت الريح واضطربت السفينة فقال له الملاح: أتعرف السباحة؟ قال لا، قال: ذهب
كل عمرك.

[392 روض الأخيار المنتخب من ربيع الأبرار للأمامي]

Work in progress

Appendix D.

Modifying SCA to sound like a vernacular dialect

Warning

THIS BOOK IS A WORK IN PROGRESS. IT IS INCOMPLETE AND MAY HAVE TYPOGRAPHICAL AND OTHER ERRORS. IT IS NOT YET READY TO BE STUDIED FROM.

SCA is not typically used in informal settings. Rather Arabs use their native modern vernacular dialects in everyday settings. For the student of Arabic, in order to fit in, and not seem overly formal in these settings, it's not a bad idea to learn a vernacular dialect. Which vernacular dialect you should learn can depend on where you think you would be using your spoken Arabic. The Egyptian, Levantine, and Urban Hijāzi dialects cover a wide strata of the Arab population and, in our opinion, learning any one of these would be useful.

But if you don't find yourself having enough time to learn both SCA and a dialect, you can water down your spoken SCA to sound more like a vernacular. Here are some tips to do this:

1. Soften the semi-vowels. Examples:

Word	pronunciation in exact SCA	pronunciation in watered down SCA
بَيْت	<i>bayt</i>	<i>beyt</i>

2. Replace middle and end hamzahs by their seat letters. Examples:

3. Drop the case endings. Example:

The ِ of the u-case plural masculine caseful verb is also a case ending so it too is dropped.

Drop also the final fathah of the singular masculine caseless verb.

4. Use only ِ in instead of *ūna/īna* for the sound masculine plural.

5. For caseful verbs where the second letter has a sukoon, convert yaf3al to yif3al and taf3al to tif3al.

6. Use only ما and لا for negation, never لم or ليس.
7. Use the plural masculine verb instead of the dual verbs and the feminine plural verb.
8. Drop اَنْ before the a-case caseful verb.
9. Learn the vernacular words for:
 - The verb *to go*
 - The verb *to want*
 - The verb *to bring*
 - The question nouns:

TODO: add examples

Work in progress