

# withelm GESENIUS' い HEBREW GRAMMAR 

AS EDITED AND ENLARGED BY THE LATE

## E. KAUTZSCH

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## SECOND ENGLISH EDITION

revised in accordance with the twenty-eighth german Edition (1909) by

A. E. COWLEY

WITH A FACSIMILE OF THE SILOAM INSCRIPTION BY J. EU'ING, ANI
A TABI, OF ALPHABETS BY M. LIDZBARSKI

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## TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE

The translation of the twenty-sixth German edition of this grammar, originally prepared by the Rev. G. W. Collins and revised by me, was published in 1898. Since that date a twenty-seventh German edition has appeared; and Prof. Kautzsch was already engaged on a twenty-eighth in 1908 when the English translation was becoming exhausted. He sent me the sheets as they were printed off, and I began revising the former translation in order to produce it as soon as possible after the completion of the German. The whole of the English has been carefully compared with the new edition, and, it is hoped, improved in many points, while Prof. Kautzsch's own corrections and additions have of course been incorporated. As before, the plan and arrangement of the original have been strictly followed, so that the references for sections and paragraphs correspond exactly in German and English. Dr. Driver has again most generously given up time, in the midst of other engagements, to reading the sheets, and has made numerous suggestions. To him also are cbiefly due the enlargement of the index of subjects, some expansions in the new index of Hebrew words, and some additions to the index of passages, whereby we hope to have made the book more serviceable to students. I have also to thank my young friend, Mr. Godfrey R. Driver, of Winchester College, for some welcome help in correcting proofs of the Hebrew index and the index of passages. בן חכם ישמח אב. Many corrections have been sent to me by scholars who have used the former English edition, especially the Rev. W. E. Blomfield, the Rev. S. Holmes, Mr. P. Wilson, Prof. Witton Davies, Mr. G. H. Skipwith, and an unknown correspondent
at West Croydon. These, as well as suggestions in reviews, have all been considered, and where possible, utilized. I am also much indebted to the Press-readers for the great care which they have bestowed on the work.

Finally, I must pay an affectionate tribute to the memory of Prof. Kautzsch, who died in the spring of this year, shortly after finishing the last sheets of the twenty-eighth edition. For more than thirty years he was indefatigable in improving the successive editions of the Grammar. The German translation of the Old Testament first published by him in 1894, with the co-operation of other scholars, under the title Die Heilige Schifift des $A T_{s}$, and now (1910) in the third and much enlarged edition, is a valuable work which has been widely appreciated: the Apocryphen und Pseudepigraphen des $A T_{s}$, edited by him in 1900, is another important work : besides which he published his Grammatik des BiblischAramäischen in 1884, two useful brochures Bibelwissenschaft und Religionsunterricht in 1900, and Die bleibende Bedeutung des $A T_{s}$ in 1903, six popular lectures on Die Poesie und die poetischen Bücher des $A T_{s}$ in 1902, his article ' Religion of Israel' in Hastings' Dictionary of the Bible, v. (1904), pp. 612-734, not to mention minor publications. His death is a serious loss to Biblical scholarship, while to me and to many others it is the loss of a most kindly friend, remarkable alike for his simple piety and his enthusiasm for learning.
A. C. Magdalen College, Oxford, Sept. 1910.

## FROM THE GERMAN PREFACE

The present (twenty-eighth) edition of this Grammar, ${ }^{1}$ like the former ones, takes account as far as possible of all important new publications on the subject, especially J. Barth's Sprachwissenschaftliche Untersuchungen zum Semitischen, pt. i, Lpz. 1907 ; the important works of C. Brockelmann (for the titles see the heading of § I ; vol. i of the Grundriss was finished in 1908); P. Kahle's Der masoretische Text des A Ts: nach der Überlieferung der babylonischen Juden, Lpz. 1902 (giving on p. 5I ff. an outline of Hebrew accidence from a Babylonian MS. at Berlin) ; R. Kittel's Biblia Hebraica, Lpz. 1905 f., 2 vols. (discriminating between certain, probable, and proposed emendations ; see $\S 3 g$, end); Th. Nöldeke's Beiträge zur semit. Sprachwissenschaft, Strassburg, 1904; Ed. Sievers' Metrische Studien (for the titles of these striking works see § $2 r$ ). The important work of J. W. Rothstein, Grundzüge des hebr. Rhythmus, \&c. (see also $\S 2 r$ ), unfortunately appeared too late to be used. The two large commentaries edited by Nowack and Marti have been recently completed; and in P. Haupt's Polychrome Bible (SBOT.), part ix (Kings) by Stade and Schwally was published in 1904.

For full reviews of the twenty-seventh edition, which of course have been considered as carefully as possible, I have to thank Max Margolis (in Hebraica, 1902, p. 159 ff.), Mayer

[^0]Lambert (REJ. 1902, p. 307 ff), and H. Oort (Theol. Tijdschrift, 1902, p. 373 ff.). For particular remarks and corrections I must thank Prof. J. Barth (Berlin), Dr. Gasser, pastor in Buchberg, Schaffhausen, B. Kirschner, of Charlottenburg, (contributions to the index of passages), Pastor Köbler, of Augst, Dr. Liebmann, of Kuczkow, Posen, Prof. Th. Nöldeke, of Strassburg, Pastor: S. Preiswerk junior, of Bâle, Dr. Schwarz, of Leipzig, and Prof. B. Stade, of Giessen (died in 1906). Special mention must be made of the abundant help received from three old friends of this book, Prof. P. Haupt, of Baltimore, Prof. Knudtzon, of Kristiania, and Prof. H. Strack, of Berlin, and also, in connexion with the present edition, Prof. H. Hyvernat, of the University of Washington, who has rendered great service especially in the correction and enlargement of the indexes. I take this opportunity of thanking them all again sincerely. And I am no less grateful also to my dear colleague Prof. C. Steuernagel for the unwearying care with which he has helped me from beginning to end in correcting the proof-sheets.

Among material changes introduced into this edition may be mentioned the abolition of the term $\overline{S^{e}} w \hat{a}$ medium ( $(\mathrm{\xi} 10 \mathrm{~d}$ ). In this I have adopted, not without hesitation, the views of Sievers. I find it, however, quite impossible to follow him in rejecting all distinctions of quantity in the vowels. It is no doubt possible that such matters may in the spoken language have worn a very different appearance, and especially that in the period of nearly a thousand years, over which the Old Testament writings extend, very great variations may have taken place. Our duty, however, is to represent the language in the form in which it has been handed down to us by the Masoretes; and that this form involves a distinction between unchangeable, tone-long, and short vowels, admits in my opinion of no doubt. The discussion of any earlier stage of development belongs not to Hebrew grammar but to comparative Semitic philology.

The same answer may be made to Beer's desire (ThLZ. 1904,
col. 314 f.) for an 'historical Hebrew grammar describing the actual growth of the language on a basis of comparative philology, as it may still be traced within the narrow limits of the Old Testament'. Such material as is available for the purpose ought indeed to be honestly set forth in the new editions of Gesenius; but Beer seems to me to appraise such material much too bighly when he refers to it as necessitating an 'historical grammar'. In my opinion these historical differences have for the most part been obliterated by the harmonizing activity of the Masoretes.
E. KAUTZSCH.

Halle,
July, Igog.

## ADDI'TIONS AND CORRECTIONS

Page 42 , line 13 from below, for note 1 read note 3.
Page 63, § $15 p$. [See also Wickes, Prose Accentuation, 130 f., $87 n$. (who, however, regards the superlinear, Babylonian system as the earlier); and Ginsburg, Introduction to the Hebrew Bible, 76, 78. In Ginsburg's Hebrew Bible, ed. 2 (1908), pp. 108 f., 267 f., the two systems of division are printed in extenso, in parallel columns-the ro verses of the superlinear (Babylonian) system consisting (in Exodus) of v. ${ }^{2.3-6.7 .8-111.12 \cdot 13.1 .1 .16 .16 .17}$ (as numbered in ordinary texts), and the 12 verses of the sublinear (Palestinian) system, consisting of v. ${ }^{2-3.4 .5 .5 .7 .7 .8 .9 .10 .111 .12 .13-16.17}$-S. R. D.]

Page 65, note 1, for אָּ
[Editions often vary in individual passages, as regards the accentuation of the first syllable: but in the 7 occurrences of and the 6 of אנה, Baer, Ginsburg, and Kittel agree in having an
 Metheg on the first syllable and an accent on the second syllable (as
 except that in $\psi 11^{4}$ Ginsburg has

Page 79, § $22 s$, before הִרְדיפחה insert exceptions to $b$ are. After Jer $39^{12}$ add $\psi 5^{2}$; and for Ez $9^{6}$ read Ezr $9^{6}$.
[So Baer (cf. his note on Jud $20^{43}$; also on Jer $39^{12}$, and several of the other passages in question) : but Ginsburg only in 10 of the exceptions to $b$, and Jacob ben Hayyim and Kittel only in 5, viz. Jer $39^{12}, \operatorname{Pr} \mathrm{II}^{21}, 15^{1}, \psi 5^{2}$, Ezr $9^{6}$.-S. R. D.]




Page 175, § 67 . See B. Halper, ‘The Participial formations of the Geminate Verbs' in $Z A W .1910, \mathrm{pp} .42 \mathrm{ff}$, 99 ff ., 201 ff . (also dealing with the regular verb).

Page 177, at the end of $\S 67 g$ the following paragraph has been accidentally omitted:

Rem. According to the prevailing view, this strengthening of the first radical is merely intended to give the bi-literal stem at least
a tri-literal appearance. (Possibly aided by the analogy of verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$, as P. Haupt has suggested to me in conversation.) But cf. Kautzsch, ' Die sog. aramaisierenden Formen derVerba ע ע ע im Hebr.' in Oriental. Studien zum 70. Geburtstag Th. Nöldekes, 1906, p. 77 Iff . It is there shown ( 1 ) that the sharpening of the ist radical often serves to emphasize a particular meaning (cf. oix ? and
 radical often appears to be occasioned by the nature of the first letter of the stem, especially when it is a sibilant. Whether the masoretic pronunciation is based on an early tradition, or the Masora has arbitrarily adopted aramaizing forms to attain the above objects, mast be left undecided.

Page 193, the second and third paragraphs should have the marginal letters $d$ and $e$ respectively.

Page 200, § $72 \boldsymbol{z}$, line 2, after Est $2^{18}$ add $4^{14}$.





## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations have occasionally been used for works and periodicals frequently quoted:-
AJSL. = American Journal of Semitic Languages.
CIS. $=$ Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum.
Ed.Mant. $=$ Biblia Hebraica ex recensione Sal. Norzi edidit Raphael Hayyim Basila, Mantuae 1742-4.
Jabl. = Biblia Hebraica ex recensione D. E. Jablonski, Berolini, 1699:
$J Q R$. = Jewish Quarterly Review.
KAT. ${ }^{3}=$ Die Keilinschriften und das Alte Testament, 3rd ed. by H. Zimmern and H. Winckler, 2 vols., Berlin, 1902 f.

Lexicon $=$ A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament, based on the Thesaurus and Lexicon of Gesenius, by F. Brown, S. R. Driver, and C. A. Briggs, Oxford, 1906.
$N B . \quad=$ J. Barth, Die Nominalbildung in den semitischen Sprachen. Lpz. 1889-94.
$N G G W .=$ Nachrichten der Göttinger Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften.
$O L Z . \quad$ Orientalistische Literaturzeitung. Vienna, 1898 ff.
PRE. = Realencyclopädie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche, 3rd ed. by A. Hauck. Lpz. 1896 ff.
PSEA = Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archæology. London, 1879 ff.
$R E J . \quad=$ Revue des Etudes Juives. Paris, 1880 ff.
Sam. = The (Hebrew) Pentateuch of the Samaritans.
SBOT. = Sacred Books of the Old Testament, ed. by P. Haupt. Lpz. and Baltimore, 1893 ff.
$T h L Z .=$ Theologische Literaturzeitung, ed. by E. Schürer. Lpz. 1876 ff.
$V B . \quad=$ Vorderasiatische Bibliothek, ed. by A. Jeremias and H. Winckler. Lpz. 1907 ff.
$Z A$. $=$ Zeitschrift für Assyriologie und verwandte Gebiete, ed. by C. Bezold. Lpz. 1886 ff.
$Z A W$. = Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft, ed. by B. Stade, Giessen, 188 Iff , and since 1907 by K. Marti.

ZDMG. = Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft, $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{l}} \mathrm{z}$. 1846 ff ., since 1903 ed. by A. Fischer.
ZDPV. = Zeitschrift des deutschen Palästinavereins, Lpz. 1878 ff ., since 1903 ed. by C. Steuernagel.

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$$
\text { Rem.-Line I probably began with } \Omega \text {, cf. § } 145^{\circ} \text {, since there }
$$

is hardly room for
Line 2. The reading להקקב is supported by the fact that
Ephemeris, i. 53. The next word was probably, as


# HEBREW GRAMMAR 

## INTRODUCTION

## § 1. The Semitic Languages in General.


#### Abstract

B. Stade, Lehrb. der hebr. Gramm., Lpz. 1879, § 2 ff. ; E. Kס̈nig, Hist.-krit. Lehrgeb. der hebr. Spr., i. Lpz. 1881, $\S 3$; H. Strack, Einl. in das A. T., 6th ed., Munich, 1906, p. 231 ff. (a good bibliography of all the Semitic dialects); Th. Noldeke, article 'Semitic Languages', in the gth ed. of the Encycl. Brit. (Die semit. Sprachen, 2nd ed., Lpz. 1899), and Beitr. zur sem. Sprachwiss., Strassb., 1904; W. Wright, Lectures on the Comparative Grammar of the Semitic Languages, Cambr. 1890; H. Reckendorf, 'Zur Karakteristik der sem. Sprachen,' in the Actes $d u X^{\text {me }}$ Congrès internat. des Orientalistes (at Geneva in 1894), iii. I ff., Leiden, 1896 ; O. E. Lindberg, Vergl. Gramm. der sem. Sprachen, i A: Konsonantismus, Gothenburg, 1897 ; H. Zimmern, Vergl. Gramm. der sem. Sprachen, Berlin, 1898; E. Kønig, Hebräisch und Semitisch: Prolegomena und Grunalinien einer Gesch. der sem. Sprachen, \&c., Berlin, 1901; C. Brockelmann, Semitische Sprachwissenschaft, Lpz. 1906, Grundriss der vergl. Gramm. der sem. Sprachen. vol. i (Laut- und Formenlehre), parts i-5, Berlin, 1907 f. and his Kurzgef. rergleichende Gramm. (Porta Ling. Or.) Berlin, 1908.-The material contained in inscriptions has been in process of collection since 1881 in the Paris Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum. To this the best introductions are M. Lidzbarski's Handbuch der Nordsem. Epigraphik, Weimar, 1898, in 2 parts (text and plates), and his Ephemeris zur sem. Epigraphik (5 parts published), Giessen, 1900 f. [G. A. Cooke, Handbook of North-Semitic Inscriptions; Oxford, 1903].


1. The Hebrew language is one branch of a great family of lan- $a$ guages in Western Asia which was indigenous in Palestine, Phoenicia, Syria, Mesopotamia, Babylonia, Assyria, and Arabia, that is to say, in the countries extending from the Mediterranean to the other side of the Euphrates and Tigris, and from the mountains of Armenia to the southern coast of Arabia. In early times, however, it spread from Arabia over Abyssinia, and by means of Phoenician colonies over many islands and sea-boards of the Mediterranean, as for instance to the Carthaginian coast. No comprehensive designation is found in early times for the languages and nations of this family; the name Semites or Semitic ${ }^{1}$ languages (based upon the fact that according to $\mathrm{Gn}_{\mathrm{I}}{ }^{211}$ f. almost all nations speaking these languages are descended from Shem) is, however, now generally accepted, and has accordingly been retained here. ${ }^{2}$

[^1]$b$ 2. The better known Semitic languages may be subdivided ${ }^{1}$ as follows:-
I. The South Semitic or Arabic branch. To this belong, besides the classical literary language of the Arabs and the modern vulgar Arabic, the older southern Arabic preserved in the Sabaean inscriptions (less correctly called Himyaritic), and its offshoot, the Ge'ez or Ethiopic, in Abyssinia.
II. The Middle Semitic or Canaanitish branch. To this belongs the Hebrew of the Old Testament with its descendants, the New Hebrew, as found especially in the Mishna (see below, § $3 a$ ), and Rabbinic ; also Phoenician, with Punic (in Carthage and its colonies), and the various remains of Canaanitish dialects preserved in names of places and persons, and in the inscription of Mêša', king of Moab.
c III. The North Semitic or Aramaic branch. The subdivisions of this are-( I ) The Eastern Aramaic or Syriac, the literary language of the Christian Syrians. The religious books of the Mandaeans (Nasoraeans, Sabians, also called the disciples of St. John) represent a very debased offshoot of this. A Jewish modification of Syriac is to be seen in the language of the Babylonian Talmud. (2) The Western or Palestinian Aramaic, incorrectly called also 'Chaldee '. ${ }^{2}$ This latter dialect is represented in the Old Testament by two words in Gn $3 \mathrm{I}^{47}$, by the verse Jer $10^{11}$, and the sections Dn $2^{4}$ to $7^{28}$; Ezr $4^{8}$ to $6^{18}$, and $7^{12-26}$, as well as by a number of non-Jewish inscriptions and Jewish papyri (see below, under $m$ ), but especially by a considerable section of Jewish literature (Targums, Palestinian Gemara, \&c.). To the same branch belongs also the Samaritan, with its admixture of Hebrew forms, and, except for the rather Arabic colouring of the proper names, the idiom of the Nabataean inscriptions in the Sinaitic peninsula, in the East of Palestine, \&c.

For further particulars about the remains of Western Aramaic (including those in the New Test., in the Palmyrene and Egyptian Aramaic inscriptions) see Kautzsch, Gramm. des Biblisch-Aramäischen, Lpz. 1884, p. 6 ff.
d IV. The East Semitic branch, the language of the AssyrioBabylonian cuneiform inscriptions, the third line of the Achaemenian inscriptions.

[^2]hebr.-aram. Wörterbuchs zum A.T., Lpz. 1886 ; P. Haupt, 'Assyrian Phonology, \&c.,' in Hetraica, Chicago, Jan. 1885, vol. i. 3 ; Delitzsch, Assyrische Grammatik, 2nd ed., Berlin, 1906.

If the above division into four branches be reduced to two principal groups, No. I, as South Semitic, will be contrasted with the three North Semitic branches. ${ }^{1}$

All these languages stand to one another in much the same relation as those $e$ of the Germanic family (Gothic, Old Norse, Danish, Swedish; High and Low German in their earlier and later dialects), or as the Slavonic languages (Lithuanian, Lettish; Old Slavonic, Serbian, Russian; Polish, Bohemian). They are now either wholly extinct, as the Phoenician and Assyrian, or preserved only in a debased form, as Neo-Syriac among Syrian Christians and Jews in Mesopotamia and Kurdistan, Ethiopic (Ge ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ez}$ ) in the later Abyssinian dialects (Tigrê, Tigriña, Amharic), and Hebrew among some modern Jews, except in so far as they attempt a purely literary reproduction of the language of the Old Testament. Arabic alone has not only occupied to this day its original abode in Arabia proper, but has also forced its way in all directions into the domain of other languages.

The Semitic family of languages is bounded on the East and North by another of still wider extent, which reaches from India to the western limits of Europe, and is called Indo-Germanic ${ }^{2}$ since it comprises, in the most varied ramifications, the Indian (Sanskrit), Old and New Persian, Greek, Latin, Slavonic, as well as Gothic and the other Germanic languages. With the Old Egyptian language, of which Coptic is a descendant, as well as with the languages of north-western Africa, the Semitic had from the earliest times much in common, especially in grammatical structure; but on the other hand there are fundamental differences between them, especially from a lexicographical point of riew ; see Erman, 'Das Verhältnis des Aegyptischen zu den semitischen Sprachen,' in the ZDMG. xlvi, 1892, p. 93 ff., and Brockelmann, Grundriss, i. 3.
3. The grammatical structure of the Semitic family of languages, $f$ as compared with that of other languages, especially the Indo-Germanic, exhibits numerous peculiarities which collectively constitute its distinctive character, although many of them are found singly in other languages. These are- (a) among the consonants, which in fact form the substance of these languages, occur peculiar gutturals of different grades; the vowels are subject, within the same consonantal framework, to great changes in order to express various modifications of the same stem-meaning; (b) the word-stems are almost invariably triliteral, i.e. composed of three consonants; (c) the verb is restricted to two tense-forms, with a peculiarly regulated ase; (d) the noun has only two genders (masc. and fem.) ; and peculiar expedients are adopted for the purpose of indicating the case-relations; (e) the

[^3]oblique cases of the personal pronoun, as well as all the possessive pronouns and the pronominal object of the verb, are denoted by forms appended directly to the governing word (suffixes); $(f)$ the almost complete absence of compounds both in the noun (with the exception of many proper names) and in the verb; ( $g$ ) great simplicity in the expression of syntactical relations, e.g. the small number of particles, and the prevalence of simple co-ordination of clauses without periodic structure. Classical Arabic and Syriac, however, form a not unimportant exception as regards the last-mentioned point.
g. 4. From a lexicographical point of view also the vocabulary of the Semites differs essentially from that of the Indo-Germanic languages, although there is apparently more agreement here than in the grammar. A considerable number of Semitic roots and stems agree in sound with synonyms in the Indo-Germanic family. But apart from expressions actually borrowed (see below, under $i$ ), the real similarity may be reduced to imitative words (onomatopoetica), and to those in which one and the same idea is represented by similar sounds in consequence of a formative instinct common to the most varied families of language. Neither of these proves any historic or generic relation, for which an agreement in grammatical structure would also be necessary.

Comp. Friedr. Delitzsch, Studien über indogermanisch-semitische Wurzelverwandtschaft, Lpz. 1873; Nöldechen, Semit. Glossen zu Fick und Curtius, Magdeb. 1876 f.; McCurdy, Aryo-Semitic Speech, Andover, U.S. A., I881. The phonetic relations have been thoroughly investigated by H. Möller in Semitisch und Indogermanisch, Teil i, Konsonanten, Copenhagen and Lpz. 1907, a work which has evoked considerable criticism.
$h$ As onomatopoetic words, or as stem-sounds of a similar character, we may compare, e.g.
 7רㄱํㄱำ,
 der hl. Schriften A.T.'s, Braunschw. 1881, p. 38, draws attention moreover to the Semitic equivalents for earth, six, seven, horn, to sound, to measure, to mix, to smell, to place, clear, to kneel, raven, goat, ox, \&c. An example of a somewhat different kind is am, ham (sam), gam, kam, in the sense of the German samt,
 (with) samt, ald also, moreover, Arab. yמd to collect; Pers. ham, hamah (at the
 harder kovos, Lat. cum, cumulus, cunctus; with the corresponding sibilant Skt. sam, Gk. $\sigma \dot{v} \nu, \xi^{\prime} v, \xi u v \delta_{s}=k o \iota v \delta_{s}$, Goth. sama, Germ. samt, sammeln; but many of these instances are doubtful.
$i$ Essentially different from this internal connexion is the occurrence of the same words in different languages, where one langange has borrowed directly from the other. Such loan-words are-

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With the exception of the Assyrio-Babylonian (cuneiform), all varieties of Semitic writing, although differing widely in some respects, are derived from one and the same original alphabet, represented on extant monuments most faithfully by the characters used on the stele of Mêša', king of Moab (see below, § $2 d$ ), and in the old Phoenician inscriptions, of which the bronze bowls from a temple of Baal (CIS. i. 22 ff. and Plate IV) are somewhat earlier than Mêsac. The old Hebrew writing, as it appears on the oldest monument, the Siloam inscription (see below, § $2 d$ ), exhibits essentially the same character. The old Greek, and indirectly all European alphabets, are descended from the old Phoenician writing (see § $5 i$ ).
$l$ See the Table of Alphabets at the beginning of the Grammar, which shows the relations of the older varieties of Semitic writing to one another and especially the origin of the present Hebrew characters from their primitive forms. For a more complete view, see Gesenius' Scripturae linguaeque Phoeniciae monumenta, Lips. 1837 , 4 to, pt. i. p. 15 ff., and pt. iii. tab. I-5. From numerous monuments since discovered, our knowledge of the Semitic characters, especially the Phoenician, has become considerably enlarged and more accurate. Cf, the all but exhaustive bibliography (from 1616 to 1896) in Lidzbarski's Handbuch der Nordsemilischen Epigraphik, i. p. 4 f., and on the origin of the Semitic alphabet, ibid., p. 173 ff., and Ephemeris (see the heading of § $\mathrm{I} a$ above), i. pp. 109 ff ., 142, 26 Iff ., and his 'Altsemitische Texte', pt. i , Kanaanäische Inschriften (Moabite, Old-Hebrew, Phoenician, Punic), Giessen, 1907.-On the origin and development of the Hebrew characters and the best tables of alphabets, see $\S 5 a$, last note, and especially $\S 5 e$.
6. As regards the relative age of the Semitic languages, the oldest literary remains of them are to be found in the Assyrio-Babylonian (cuneiform) inscriptions, ${ }^{1}$ with which are to be classed the earliest Hebrew fragments occurring in the old Testament (see § 2).

The earliest non-Jewish Aramaic inscriptions known to us are that of ז ZA. 1908, p. 376, and that found at Teima, in N. Arabia, in 1880, probably of the fifth cent. b.c., cf. E. Littmann in the Monist, xiv. 4 [and Cooke, op. cit., p. 195]. The monuments of Kalammus of Sam'al, in the reign of Shalmanezer II, 859-829 B.c. (cf. A. Šanda, Die Aramüer, Lpz. 1902, p. 26), and those found in 1888-1891 at Zenjîrlî in N. Syria, including the Hadad inscription of thirty-four lines (early eighth cent. B.c.) and the Panammu inscription ( 740 b.c.), are not in pure Aramaic. The Jewish-Aramaic writings begin about the time of Cyrus (cf. Ezr $6^{3 \text { fif }}$ ), specially important being the papyri from Assuan ed. by Sayce and Cowley, London, 1906 (and in a cheaper form by Staerk, Bonn, 1907), which are precisely dated from 47 I to 4 II b.c., and three others of 407 B. c. ed. by Sachau, Berlin, 1907.

[^4]Monuments of the Arabic branch first appear in the earliest centuries A. D. (Sabaean inscriptions, Ethiopic translation of the Bible in the fourth or fifth century, North-Arabic literature from the sixth century A. D.).

It is, however, another question which of these languages has adhered longest and most faithfully to the original character of the Semitic, and which consequently represents to us the earliest phase of its development. For the more or less rapid transformation of the sounds and forms of a language, as spoken by uations and races, is dependent on causes quite distinct from the growth of a literature, and the organic structure of a language is often considerably impaired even before it has developed a literature, especially by early contact with people of a different language. Thus in the Semitic group, the Aramaic dialects exhibit the earliest and greatest decay, next to them the Hebrew-Canaanitish, and in its own way the Assyrian. Arabic, owing to the seclusion of the desert tribes, was the longest to retain the original fullness and purity of the sounds and forms of words. ${ }^{1}$ Even here, however, there appeared, through the revolutionary influence of Islam, an ever-increasing decay, until Arabic at length reached the stage at which we find Hebrew in the Old Testament.
Hence the phenomenon, that in its grammatical structure the ancient $n$ Hebrew agrees more with the modern than with the ancient Arabic, and that the latter, although it only appears as a written language at a later period, has yet in many respects preserved a more complete structure and a more original vowel system than the other Semitic languages, cf. Nöldeke, 'Das klassische Arabisch und die arabischen Dialekte,' in Beitrige zur semitischen Sprachwissenschaft, p. I ff. It thus occupies amongst them a position similar to that which Sanskrit holds among the Indo-Germanic languages, or Gothic in the narrower circle of the Germanic. But even the toughest organism of a language often deteriorates, at least. in single forms and derivatives, while on the contrary, in the midst of what is otherwise universal decay, there still remains here and there something original and archaic ; and this is the case with the Semitic languages.
Fuller proof of the above statements belongs to the comparative Grammar of the Semitic languages. It follows, however, from what has been said: (I) that the Hebrewlanguage, as found in the sacred literature of the Jews, has, in respect

[^5]to its organic structure, already suffered more considerable losses than the Arabic, which appears much later on the historical horizon; (2) that, notwithstanding this fact, we cannot at once and in all points concede priority to the latter; (3) that it is a mistake to consider with some that the Aramaic, on account of its simplicity (which is only due to the decay of its organic structure), is the oldest form of Semitic speech.

## § 2. Sketch of the History of the Hebrew Language.

See Gesenius, Gesch. der hebr. Sprache u. Schrift, Lpz. 1815, §§ 5-18; Th. Nöldeke's art., 'Sprache, hebräische,' in Schenkel's Bibel-Lexikon, Bd. v, Lpz. 1875; F. Buhl, 'Hebräische Sprache,' in Hauck's Realencycl. für prot. Theol. und Kirche, vii (1899), p. 506 ff.; A. Cowley, ؛Hebrew Language and Literature,' in the forthcoming ed. of the Encycl. Brit.; W. R. Smith in the Encycl. Bibl., ii. London, 1901, p. 1984 ff.; A. Lukyn Williams, 'Hebrew,' in Hastings' Dict. of the Bible, ii. p. 325 ff., Edinb. 18 g 9.

1. The name Hebrew Language asually denotes the language of the sacred writings of the Israelites which form the canon of the Old Testament. It is also called Ancient Hebrew in contradistinction to the New Hebrew of Jewish writings of the post-biblical period ( $\$ 3 a)$. The name Hebrew language (עִבְרִית does not occur in the Old Testament itself. Instead of it we find in Is i $9^{18}$ the term language of Canaan, ${ }^{1}$ and ${ }^{\text {Pהוּרית: in the Jews' language }}$ $2 \mathrm{~K}_{1} 8^{26.28}$ (cf. Is $36^{11.13}$ ) Neh $13^{24}$. In the last-cited passage it already agrees with the later (post-exilic) usage, which gradually extended the name Jews, Jewish to the whole nation, as in Haggai, Nehemiah, and the book of Esther.
 (בְּשְ also a religious significance, employed by the people themselves, while the former appears as the less significant name by which the nation was known amongst foreigners. Hence in the Old Testament Hebrews are only spoken of either when the name is employed by themselves as contrasted with foreigners ( $\mathrm{Gn} 40^{15}, \mathrm{Ex}^{26}{ }^{61} 3^{18} \& \mathrm{c}$., Jon $1^{9}$ ) or when it is put in the mouth of those who are not Israelites (Gn $39^{14.17} 4^{11^{12}} \& \mathrm{cc}$.) or, finally, when it is used in opposition to other nations (Gn $14^{19} 43^{32}$, Ex $2^{11.13} 21^{2}$ ). In $1 \mathrm{~S}_{13^{3.7}}$ and $14^{21}$ the text is clearly corrupt. In the Greek and Latin authors, as well as in Josephus, the name 'Eßpaĩor, Hebraei, ${ }^{2}$ \&c., alone occurs. Of the many explanations of the gentilic עִבְ, the derivation from עֲ ( $\$ 86 h$ ) appears to be the only one philologically possible. The name accordingly denoted the Israelites as being those who inhabited the 'eber, i. e. the district on the other side of the Jordan (or according to others the Euphrates), and would therefore originally be only appropriate when used by the nations on this side of the Jordan or Euphrates. We must, then, suppose that after the crossing of the river in question it had been retained by the Abrahamidae as an old-established name, and within certain limits

[^6](see above) had become naturalized among them. In referring this name to the patronymic Eber, the Hebrew genealogists have assigned to it a much more comprehensive signification. For since in Gn $10^{21}$ (Nu $24^{24}$ does not apply) Shem is called the father of all the chibdren of Eber, and to the latter there also belonged according to Gn $11^{14} \mathrm{ff}$. and $10^{25} \mathrm{ff}$. Aramean and Arab races, the name, afterwards restricted in the form of the gentilic 'ibri exclusively to the Israelites, must have originally included a considerably larger group of countries and nations. The etymological significance of the name must in that case not be insisted upon. ${ }^{1}$
The term ${ }^{〔} \beta$ קaiari is first used, to denote the old Hebrew, in the prologue $C$ to Jesus the son of Sirach (about izo b. c.), and in the New Testament, Rv $9^{11}$. On the other hand it serves in $\mathrm{Jn}_{5}{ }^{2}, 19^{13.17}$ perhaps also in $19^{20}$ and Rv $16^{16}$ to denote what was then the (Aramaic) vernacular of Palestine as opposed to the Greek. The meaning of the expression ¿Bpais $\delta i d \lambda \in \kappa$ cos in Acts $21^{10}, \mathbf{2 2}^{2}$, and $26^{14}$ is doubtful (cf. Kautzsch, Gramm. des Bibl.-Aram., p. 19 f.). Josephus also uses the term Hebrew both of the old Hebrew and of the Aramaic vernacular of his time.

The Hebrew language is first called the sacred language in the JewishAramaic versions of the Old Testament, as being the language of the sacred books in opposition to the lingua profana, i. e. the Aramaic vulgar tongue.
2. With the exception of the Old Testament (and apart from the $d$ Phoenician inscriptions; see below, $f-h$ ), only very few remains of old Hebrew or old Canaanitish literature have been preserved. Of the latter-(i) an inscription, unfortunately much injured, of thirtyfour lines, which was found in the ancient territory of the tribe of Reuben, about twelve miles to the east of the Dead Sea, among the ruins of the city of Díbôn (now Dîbân), inhabited in earlier times by the Gadites, afterwards by the Moabites. In it the Moabite king Mêsa' (about 850 b.c.) recounts his battles with Israel (cf. $2 \mathrm{~K}^{4}{ }^{4 \mathrm{f}}$ ), his buildings, and other matters. ${ }^{2}$ Of old Hebrew : (2) an inscription

[^7]of six lines (prolably of the eighth century b.c. ${ }^{1}$ ) discovered in June, 1880, in the tunnel between the Virgin's Spring and the Pool of Siloam at Jerusalem; (3) about furty engraved seal-stones, some of them pre-exilic but bearing little except proper names ${ }^{2}$; (4) coins of the Maccabaean prince Simon (from 'the 2 nd year of deliverance', 140 and 139 b.c.) and his successors, ${ }^{3}$ and the coinage of the revolts in the times of Vespasian and Hadrian.
e 3. In the whole series of the ancient Hebrew writings, as found in the Old Testament and also in non-biblical monuments (see above, $d$ ), the language (to judge from its consonantal formation) remains, as regards its general character, and apart from slight changes in form and differences of style (see $k$ to $w$ ), at about the same stage of development. In this form, it may at an early time have been fixed as a literary language, and the fact that the books contained in the Old Testament were handed down as sacred writings, must have contributed to this constant uniformity.
$f$ To this old Hebrew, the language of the Canaanitish or Phoenician ${ }^{4}$ stocks came the nearest of all the Semitic languages, as is evident partly from the many Canaanitish names of persons and places with a Hebrew form and


[^8]on 'Canaanite glosses' 1 to Assyrian words in the cuneiform tablets of Tell-el-Amarna [about 1400 b.c.] cf. H. Winckler, 'Die Thontafeln von Tell-el-Amarna,' in Keilinschr. Bibliothek, vol. v, Berlin, 1896 f. [transcription and translation]; J. A. Knudtzon, Die El-Amarna-Tafeln, Lpz. 1907 f.; H. Zimmern, ZA. 189 I, p. 154 ff. and $K A T .^{3}$, p. 651 ff.), and partly from the numerous remains of the Phoenician and Punic languages.

The latter we find in their peculiar writing ( $\S \mathrm{I} k, l$ ) in a great number of inscriptions and on coins, copies of which have been collected by Gesenius, Judas, Bourgade, Davis, de Vogǘ㇒, Levy, P. Schröder, v. Maltzan, Euting, but especially in Part I of the Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum, Paris, 1881 ff. Among the inscriptions but few public documents are found, e.g. two lists of fees for sacrifices; by far the most are epitaphs or votive tablets. Of special importance is the inscription on the sarcophagus of King Ešmûnazar of Sidon, found in 1855, now in the Louvre; see the bibliography in Lidzbarski, Nordsem. Epigr., i. 23 ff. ; on the inscription, i. 97 ff., 141 f., $4{ }^{17}$, ii. plate iv, 2 ; [Cooke, p. 30 ff.]. To these may be added isolated words in Greek and Latin authors, and the Punic texts in Plautus, Poenulus 5, 1-3 (best treated by Gildemeister in Ritschl's edition of Plautus, Lips. 1884, tom. ii, fasc. 5). From the monuments we learn the native orthography, from the Greek and Latin transcriptions the pronunciation and vocalization; the two together give a tolerably distinct idea of the language and its relation to Hebrew.

Phoenician (Punic) words occurring in inscriptions are, e.g. א God, go





 Hannibal, \&c. See the complete vocabulary in Lidzbarski, Nordsem. Epigr., i. 204 ff.

Variations from Hebrew in Phoenician orthography and inflection are, $h$ e.g. the almost invariable omission of the vowel letters ( $\$ 7 \mathrm{~b}$ ), as
 alonim) gods; the fem., even in the absolute state, ending in $\Omega$ (ath) ( $\$ 80 \mathrm{l}$ ) as well as $\mathcal{K}(\hat{o})$, the relative $\mathbb{K}$ (Hebr. nunciation are more remarkable, especially in Punic, where the $\mathfrak{i}$ was regularly pronounced as $\hat{u}, ~ e . g$. rûs = שׂ่า head; $i$ and $e$ ofter as the obscure dull sound of $y$, e.g. הִ . ynnynnu
 Gn $22^{24} \mathrm{M} \omega \chi^{2}$ ). See the collection of the grammatical peculiarities in Gesenius, Monumenta Phoenicia, p. 430 ff. ; Paul Schröder, Die phöniz. Sprache, Halle, 1869; B. Stade, 'Erneute Prüfung. des zwischen dem Phðnic. und Hebr. bestehenden Verwandtschaftsgrades,' in the Morgenländ. Forschungen, Lpz. 1875, p. 169 ff.
4. As the Hebrew writing on monuments and coins mentioned $i$ in $d$ consists only of consonants, so also the writers of the Old

[^9]Testament books used merely the consonant-signs ( $\oint$ I $k$ ), and even now the written scrolls of the Law used in the synagogues must not, according to ancient custom, contain anything more. The present pronunciation of this consonantal text, its vocalization and accentuation, rest on the tradition of the Jewish schools, as it was finally fixed by the system of punctuation ( $\S 7 h$ ) introduced by Jewish scholars about the seventh century A.d. ; cf. § $3 b$.
l. An earlier stage in the development of the Canaanitish-Hebrew language, i.e. a form of it anterior to the written documents now extant, when it must have stood nearer to the common language of the united Semitic family, can still be discerned in its principal features:-(1) from many archaisms preserved in the traditional texts, especially in the names of persons and places dating from earlier times, as well as in isolated forms chiefly occurring in poetic style; (2) in general by an a posteriori conclusion from traditional forms, so far as according to the laws and analogies of phonetic change they clearly point to an oller phase of the language; and (3) by comparison with the kindred languages, especially Arabic, in which this earlier stage of the language has been frequently preserved even down to later times ( $\S$ I $m, n$ ). In numerous instances in examining linguistic phenomena, the same-and consequently so much the more certain-result is attained by each of these three methods.

Although the systematic investigation of the linguistic development indicated above belongs to comparative Semitic philology, it is nevertheless indispensable for the scientific treatment of Hebrew to refer to the groundforms ${ }^{1}$ so far as they can be ascertained and to compare the corresponding forms in Arabic. Even elementary grammar which treats of the forms of the language occurring in the Old Testament frequently requires, for their explanation, a reference to these ground-forms.
$l$
5. Even in the language of the Old Testament, notwithstanding its general uniformity, there is noticeable a certain progress from an earlier to a later stage. Two periods, though with some reservations, may be distinguished: the first, down to the end of the Babylonian exile; and the second, after the exile.
$m$ To the former belongs, apart from isolated traces of a later revision, the larger half of the Old Testament books, viz. (a) of the prose and historical writings, a large part of the Pentateuch and of Joshaa, Judges, Samuel, and Kings; (b) of the poetical, perhaps

[^10]
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embellishments which the Hebrew poets who knew Aramaic adopted into their language. ${ }^{1}$

The prophets, at least the earlier, in language and rhythm are to be regarded almost entirely as poets, except that with them the sentences are often more extended, and the parallelism iop less regular and balanced than is the case with the poets properly so called. The language of the later prophets, on the contrary, approaches nearer to prose.
$r$ On the rhythm of Hebrew poetry, see besides the Commentaries on the poetical books and Introductions to the O.T., J. Ley, Grundzüge des Rhythmus, dic., Halle, 1875 ; Leitfaden der Metrik der hebr. Poesie, Halle, 1887 ; 'Die metr. Beschaffenheit des B. Hiob,' in Theol. Stud. u. Krit., 1895 , iv, 1897, i; Grimme, 'Abriss der bibl.-hebr. Metrik,' ZDMG. 1896, p. 529 ff., 1897, p. 683 ff ; Psalmenprobleme, de., Freiburg (Switzerland), 1902 (on which see Beer in ThLZ. 1903, no. 11); 'Gedanken über hebr. Metrik,' in Altschüler's Vierteljahrschrift, i (1903), r ff. ; Doller, Rhythmus, Metrik u. Strophik in d. bibl.-hebr. Poesie, Paderborn, 1899; Schloegl, De re metrica veterum Hebraeorum disputatio, Vindobonae, 1899 (on the same lines as Grimme) ; but especially Ed. Sievers, Metrische Studien : i Studien zur hebr. Metrik, pt. I Untersuchungen, pt. 2 Textproben, Lpz. 1901: ii Die hebr. Genesis, I Texte, 2 Zur Quellenscheidung u. Textkritik, Lpz. 1904 f. : iii Samuel, Lpz. 1907; Amos metrisch bearbeitet (with H. Guthe), Lpz. 1907 ; and his Alttest. Miszellen (I Is 24-27, 2 Joma, 3 Deutero-Zechariah, 4 Malachi, 5 Hosea, 6 Joel, 7 Obadiah, 8 Zephaniah, 9 Haggai, 10 Micah), Lpz. 1904-7.-As a guide to Sievers' system (with some criticism of his principles'see Baumann, ' Die Metrik u. das A.T.,' in the Theol. Rundschau, viii (1905), 4 I ff. ; W. H. Cobb, $A$ criticism of systems of Hebrew Metre, Oxford, 1905 ; Cornill, Einleitung ins A.T.'s, Tübingen, 1905, p. . 1 ff.; Rothstein, Zeitschr. für d. ev. Rel.-Unterricht, 1907, p. 188 ff. and his Grundzüge des hebr. Rhythmus, Lpz. 1909 (also separately Psalmentexte u. der Text des Hohen Liedes, Lpz. 1909); W. R. Arnold, 'The rhythms of the ancient Heb.,' in O. T. and Semitic Studies in memory of W. R. Harpèr, i. 165 ff., Chicago, 1907, according to whom the number of syllables between the beats is only limited by the physiological possibilities of phonetics ; C. v. Orelli, 'Zur Metrik der alttest. Prophetenschriften,' in his Kommentar zu den kl. Propheten', p. 236 ff., Munich, 1908.In full agreement with Sievers is Baethgen, Psalmen ${ }^{3}$, p. xxvi ff., Göttingen, 1904. [Cf. Budde in DB. iv. 3 ff. ; Duhm in EB. iii. 3793 ff.]

Of all views of this matter, the only one generally accepted as sound was at first Ley's and Budde's discovery of the Qina- or Lamentation-Verse ( $Z A W$. 1882, 5 ff ; 1891, 234 ff. ; 1892, 31 ff.). On their predecessors, Lowth, de Wette, Ewald, see Lohr, Klagelied d' p. 9. This verse, called by Duhm 'long verse', by Sievers simply 'five-syllabled ' (Fünfer), consists of two members, the second at least one beat shorter than the other. That a regular repetition of an equal number of syllables in arsis and thesis was observed by other poets, had been established by Ley, Duhm, Gunkel, Grimme, and others, especially Zimmern, who cites a Babylonian hymn in which the members are actually marked ( $Z A$. x. I ff., xii. 382 ff ; ; cf. also Delitzsch, Das babyl. Wellschöpfungsepos, Lpz. 1896, pp. 60 ff.). Recently, however, E. Sievers, the recognized authority on metre in other branches of literature, has indicated, in the works mentioned above, a number of fresh facts and views, which have frequently been confirmed by the conclusions of Ley and others. The most important are as follows:-

Hebrew poetry, as distinguished from the quantitative Classical and Arabic

[^11]and the syllabic Syriac verse, is accentual. The number of unstressed syllables between the beats (ictus) is, however, not arbitrary, but the scheme of the verse is based on an irregular anapaest which may undergo rhythmical modifications (e. g. resolving the ictus into two syllables, or lengthening the arsis so as to give a double accent) and contraction, e.g. of the first two syllables. The foot always concludes with the ictus, so that toneless endings, due to change of pronunciation or corruption of the text, are to be disregarded, although as a rule the ictus coincides with the Hebrew wordaccent. The metrical scheme consists of combinations of feet in series (of 2, 3 or 4), and of these again in periods-double threes, very frequently, double fours in narrative, fives in Lamentations (see above) and very often elsewhere, and sevens. Sievers regards the last two metres as catalectic double threes and fours. Connected sections do not always maintain the same metre throughout, but often exhibit a mixture of metres.

It can no longer be doulted that in the analysis of purely poetical passages, this system often finds ready confirmation and leads to textual and literary results, such as the elimination of glosses. There are, however, various difficulties in carrying out the scheme consistertly and extending it to the prophetical writings and still more to narrative: (I) not infrequently the required number of feet is only oltained by sacrificing the clearly marked parallelism, or the grammatical connexion (e. g. of the construct state with its genitive), and sometimes even by means of doubtful emendations; (2) the whole system assumes a correct transmission of the text and its pronunciation, for neither of which is there the least guarantee. To sum up, our conclusion at present is that for poetry proper some assured and final results have been already obtained, and others may be expected, from the principles laid down by Sievers, although, considering the way in which the text has been transmitted, a faultless arrangement of metres cannot be expected. Convincing proof of the consistent use of the same metrical schemes in the prophets, and a fortiori in narrative, can hardly be brought forward.

The great work of D. H. Müller, Die Propheten in ihrer ursprüngl. Form (2 vols., Vienna, 1896 ; cf. his Strophenbau u. Responsion, ibid. 1898, and Komposition u. Strophenbau, ibid. 1907), is a study of the most important monuments of early Semitic poetry from the point of view of strophic structure and the use of the refrain, i. e. the repetition of the same or similar phrases or words in corresponding positions in different strophes.

The arrangement of certain poetical passages in verse-form required by early scribal rules (Ex $1^{1-19}$; Dt $3^{2^{1-43}} ;$ Ju $5 ;$ IS $2^{1-10} ; 2$ S 22, $23^{1-7} ; \psi$ 18, 136 ; Pr. $31^{10-31}$; 1 Ch $16^{8-36}$ : cf. also Jo $12^{9-24}$; Ec $3^{2-8}$; Est $9^{7-10}$ ) has nothing to do with the question of metre in the abore sense.

Words are used in poetry, for which others are customary in prose, e.g. $S$ אָאדה ; רָאָה to come =

To the poetic meanings of words belongs the use of certain poetic epithets as substantives; thus, for example, אביר (only in constr. st. אֲבִיר) the strong one for God; אֵבִּיר the strong one for bull, horse ; לִבָּ אֹ.

Of word-forms, we may note, e.g. the longer forms of prepositions of place


 use of the article, of the relative pronoun, of the accusative particle תN; the construct state even before prepositions; the shortened imperfect with the same meaning as the ordinary form ( $\S 109 i$ ); the wider governing power of prepositions; and in general a forcible brevity of expression.
$t$ 7. The second period of the Hebrew language and literature, after the return from the exile until the Maccabees (about 160 b.c.), is chiefly distinguished by a constantly closer approximation of the language to the kindred western Aramaic dialect. This is due to the influence of the Aramaeans, who lived in close contact with the recent and thinly-populated colony in Jerusalem, and whose dialect was already of importance as being the official language of the western half of the Persian empire. Nevertheless the supplanting of Hebrew by Aramaic proceeded only very gradually. Writings intended for popular use, such as the Hebrew original of Jesus the son of Sirach and the book of Daniel, not only show that Hebrew about 170 b.c. was still in use as a literary language, but also that it was still at least understood by the people. ${ }^{1}$ When it had finally ceased to exist as a living language, it was still preserved as the language of the Schools-not to mention the numerous Hebraisms introduced into the Aramaic spoken by the Jews.

For particulars, see Kautzsch, Gramm. des Bibl.-Aram., pp. 1-6. We may conveniently regard the relation of the languages which co-existed in this later period as similar to that of the High and Low German in North Germany, or to that of the High German and the common dialects in the south and in Switzerland. Even amongst the more educated, the common dialect prevails orally, whilst the High German serves essentially as the literary and cultured language, and is at least understood by all classes of the people. Wholly untenable is the notion, based on an erroneous interpretation of Neh $8^{8}$, that the Jews immediately after the exile had completely forgotten the Hebrew language, and therefore needed a translation of the Holy Scriptures.
$u$ The Old Testament writings belonging to this second period, in all of which the Aramaic colouring appears in various degrees, are : certain parts of the Pentateuch and of Joshua, Ruth, the books of Ezra, Nehemiah, Chronicles, Esther; the prophetical books of Haggai, Zechariah, Isaiah III( $56-66$ ), Malachi, Joel, Jonah, Daniel; of the poetical books, a large part of Proverbs, Job, Song of Songs, Ecclesiastes, and most of the Psalms. As literary compositions, these books are sometimes far inferior to those of the first period, although work was still produced which in purity of language and aesthetic value falls little short of the writings of the golden age.

Later words (Aramaisms) are, e.g. אַחְ ָici declaration,


[^12]
 (to say) to command; (ָָּנָ (to answer) to begin speaking.—Orthographical and grommatical peculiarities are, the frequent scriptio plena of $\mathfrak{i}$ and ${ }^{1}-$,
 of $\boldsymbol{n}-$
 \&c. Cf. Dav. Strauss, Sprachl. Studien zu d. hebr. Sirachfragmenten, Zürich, 1900, p. 19 ff ; for the Psalms Cheyne, Origin of the Psalter, p. 46 Iff ., and especially Giesebrecht in $Z A W$. 188 I , p. 276 ff .; in general, Kautzsch, Die Aramaismen im A. T. (i, Lexikal. Teil), Halle, 1902.

But all the peculiarities of these later writers are not Aramaisms. Several do not occur in Aramaic and must have belonged at an earlier period to the Hebrew vernacular, especially it would seem in northern Palestine. There certain parts of Judges, amongst others, may have originated, as is

 Songs, the later Psalms, and Ecclesiastes.

Rem. I. Of dialectical varieties in the old Hebrew language, only one w express mention occurs in the O.T. (Ju $12^{6}$ ), according to which the Ephraimites in certain cases pronounced the $\mathfrak{G}$ as D. (Cf. Marquart in ZAW. 1888, p. 15 Iff .) Whether in Neh $13^{24}$ by the speech of Ashdod a Hebrew, or a (wholly different) Philistine dialect is intended, cannot be determined. On the other hand, many peculiarities in the North Palestinian books (Judges and Hosea) are probably to be regarded as differences in dialect, and so also some anomalies in the Moabite inscription of Mêša (see above, d). On later developments see L. Metman, Die hebr. Sprache, ihre Geschichte u. lexikal. Entwickelung seit Abschluss des Kanons u. ihr Bau in d. Gegenwart, Jerusalem, 1906.
2. It is evident that, in the extant remains of old Hebrew literature, ${ }^{2}$ the entire store of the ancient language is not preserved. The canonical books of the Old Testament formed certainly only a fraction of the whole Hebrew national literature.

## § 3. Grammatical Treatment of the Hebrew ${ }^{\circ}$ Language.

Gesenius, Gesch. der hebr. Sprache, \$§ 19-39; Oehler's article, 'Hebr. Sprache,' in Schmid's Encykl. des ges. Erziehungs- u. Unterrichtswesens, vol. iii. p. 346 ff. (in the 2nd ed. revised by Nestle, p. 314 ff .). Cf. also the literature cited above in the headings of $\delta \S_{1}$ and 2 ; also Bottcher, Lehrb. der hebr. Spr., i. Lpz. 1866, p. 30 ff. ; L. Geiger, Das Studium der Hebr. Spr. in Deutschl. vom Ende des XV. bis zur Mitte des XVI. Jahrh., Breslau, 1870; B. Pick, 'The Study of the Hebrew Language' among Jews and Christians,' in Bibliotheca Sacra, 1884, p. 450 ff., and 1885 , p. 470 ff .; W. Bacher, article 'Grammar' in the Jew. Encyclopaedia, vol. vi, New York and London, 1904. Cf. also the note on $d$.

1. At the time when the old Hebrew language was gradually $a$ becoming extinct, and the formation of the O.T. canon was

1 Tֶּ a caprice of the Masoretes.

2 According to the calculation of the Dutch scholar Leusden, the O.T. contains 5,642 different Hebrew and Aramaic words; according to rabbinical calculations, 79,856 altogether in the Pentateuch. Cf. also E. Nestle, $Z A W$; 1906, p. 283 ; H. Strack, $Z A W$. 1907, p. 69 ff.; Blau, ' Neue masoret. Studien,' in $J Q R$. xvi. 357 ff., treats of the number of letters and words, and the ve sedivision in the $0 . T$.
approaching completion, the Jews began to explain and critically revise their sacred text, and sometimes to translate it into the vernacular languages which in various countries had become current among them. The oldest translation is the Greek of the Seventy (more correctly Seventy-two) Interpreters (LXX), which was begun with the Pentateuch at Alexandria under Ptolemy Philadelphus, but only completed later. It was the work of various authors, some of whom had a living knowledge of the original, and was intended for the use of Greek-speaking Jews, especially in Alexandria. Somewhat later the Aramaic translations, or Targums (תַרַגּוּמִים i. e. interpretations), were formed by successive recensions made in Palestine and Babylonia. The explanations, derived in part from alleged tradition, refer almost exclusively to civil and ritual law and dogmatic theology, and are no more scientific in character than much of the textaal tradition of that period. Both kinds of tradition are preserved in the Talmud, the first part of which, the Mis̈na, was finally brought to its present form towards the end of the second century; of the remainder, the Gemãra, one recension (the Jerusalem or Palestinian Gem.) about the middle of the fourth century, the other (the Babylonian Gem.) about the middle of the sixth century a.d. The Mišna forms the beginning of the New-Hebrew literature; the langaage of the Gemaras is for the most part Aramaic.
2. To the interval between the completion of the Talmud and the earliest grammatical writers, belong mainly the vocalization and accentuation of the hitherto unpointed text of the O . T, according to the pronunciation traditional in the Synagogues and Schools ( $\$ 7 h, i$ ), as well as the greater part of the collection of critical notes which
 which has since been transmitted with rigid uniformity by the MSS.,

[^13]and is still the received text of the O.T., has obtained the name of the Masoretic Text.
E. F. K. Rosenmüller already (Handbuch für d. Liter. der bibl. Kritik u. C Exegese, 1797, i. 247 ; Vorrede zur Stereotyp-Ausg. des A.T., Lpz. 1834) maintained that our O.T. text was derived from Codices belonging to a single recension. J. G. Sommer (cf. Cornill, ZAW. 1892, p. 309), Olshausen (since 1853), and especially De Lagarde (Proverbien, 1863 , p. 1 ff.), have even made it probable that the original Masoretic text was derived from a single standard manuscript. Cf., however, E. Konig in Ztschr. f. kirchl. Wiss., 1887, p. 279 f., and especially his Einleitung ins A.T., p. 88 ff. Moreover a great many facts, which will be noticed in their proper places, indicate that the Masora itself is by no means uniform but shows clear traces of different schools and opinions; cf. H. Strack in Semitic Studies in memory of . . . Kohut, Berlin, 1897, p. 563 ff. An excellent foundation for the history of the Masora and the settlement of the masoretic tradition was laid by Joh. Buxtorf in his Tiberias seu Commentarius Masorethicus, first published at Basel in 1620 as an appendix to the Rabbinical Bible of 1618 f. For more recent work see Geiger, Jüdische Ztschr., iii. 78 ff., followed by Harris in $J Q R$. i. 128 ff., 243 ff. ; S. Frensdorff, Ochla W'ochla, Hanover, 1864 ; and his Massor. Wörterb., part i, Hanover and Lpz. 1876 ; and Ch. D. Ginsburg, The Massora compiled from Manuscripts, \&c., 3 vols., Lond. 1880 ff ., and Introduction to the Massoretico-critical edition of the Hebr. Bible, Lond. 1897 (his text, reprinted from that of Jacob b. Hayyîm [Venice, 1524-5] with rariants from MSS. and the earliest editions, was published in 2 vols. at London in 1894, 2nd ed. 1906; a revised edition is in progress); H . Hyvernat, 'La langue et le langage de la Massore' (as a mixture of NewHebrew and Aramaic), in the Revue biblique, Oct. 1903, P. 529 ff. and B: 'Lexique massoretique,' ibid., Oct. 1904, p. 52 Iff., 1905, p. 48 I ff., and p. 515 ff. In the use of the Massora for the critical construction of the Text, useful work has been done especially by S. Baer, in the editions of the several books (only Exod.-Deut. have still to appear), edited from 1869 conjointly with Fr. Delitzsch, and since 189 I by Baer alone. Cf. also $\S 7$ h.

The various readings of the $Q^{\circ}$ rê (see § 17) form one of the oldest and most important parts of the Masora. The punctuation of the Text, however, is not to be confounded with the compilation of the Masora. The former was settled at an earlier period, and is the result of a much more exhaustive labour than the Masora, which was not completed till a considerably later time.
3. It was not until about the beginning of the tenth century that $d$ the Jews, following the example of the Arabs, began their grammatical compilations. Of the numerous grammatical and lexicographical works of R. Sa adya, ${ }^{1}$ beyond fragments in the commentary on the Sepher Yeṣira (ed. Mayer-Lambert, pp. 42, 47, 75, \&c.), only the explanation in Arabic of the seventy (more correctly ninety) llapax legomena in the O.T. has been preserved. Written likewise in Arabic, but frequently translated into Hebrew, were the still extant works of the grammarians R. Yehuda Heayyûǵg (also called Abu Zakarya Yahya, about the year 1000) and R. Yona (Abu 'I-Walìd Merwân ibn Ganâh, about. 1030). By the aid of these earlier labours, Abraham ben Ezra (commonly called Aben Ezra, ob. i167) and R. David Qimhi (ob. c. 1235) especially gained a classical reputation by their Hebrew grammatical writings.

[^14]From these earliest grammarians are derived many principles of arrangement and technical terms, some of which are still retained, e. g. the naming of the conjugations and weak verbs according to the paradigm of פעל, certain

4. The father of Hebrew philology among Christians was John Reuchlin (ob. 1522), ${ }^{2}$ to whom Greek literature also is so much indebted. Like the grammarians who succeeded him, till the time of John Buxtorf the elder (ob. 1629), he still adhered almost entirely to Jewish tradition. From the middle of the seventeenth century the field of investigation gradually widened, and the study of the kindred languages, chiefly through the leaders of the Dutch school, Albert Schultens (ob. 1750) and N. W. Schröder (ob. 1798), became of fruitful service to Hebrew grammar.
5. In the nineteenth century ${ }^{3}$ the advances in Hebrew philology are especially connected with the names of W. Gesenius (born at Nordhausen, Feb. 3, 1786; from the year 1810 Professor at Halle, where he died Oct. 23, 1842), who above all things aimed at the comprehensive observation and lucid presentation of the actually occurring linguistic phenomena ; H. Ewald (ob. 1875, at Göttingen; Krit. Gramm. der Hebr. Spr., Lpz. 1827; Ausführl. Lehrb. d. hebr. Spr., 8th ed., Gött. 1870), who chiefly aimed at referring linguistic forms to general laws and rationally explaining the latter; J. Olshausen (ob. 1882, at Berlin; Lehrb. der hebr. Sprache, Brunswick, 1861) who attempted a consistent explanation of the existing condition of the language, from the presupposed primitive Semitic forms, preserved according to him notably in old Arabic. F. Böttcher (Ausführl. Lehrb. d. hebr. Spr. ed. by F.Mühlau, 2 vols., Lpz. 1866-8) endeavoured to present an exhaustive synopsis of the linguistic phenomena, as well as to give an explanation of them from the sphere of Hebrew

[^15]
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single letters, words, or even whole sentences, which are then often added in the margin and thence brought back into the text in the wrong place; such omission is generally due to homoioteleuton (cf. Ginsburg, Introd., p. 1 II ff.), i.e. the scribe's eye wanders from the place to a subsequent word of the same or similar form. Other causes are dittography, i.e. erroneous repetition of letters, words, and even sentences; its opposite, haplography; and lastly wrong division of words (cf. Ginsburg, Introd., p. 158 ff ), since at a certain period in the transmission of the text the words were not separated. ${ }^{1}$ Intentional changes are due to corrections for the sake of decency or of dogma, and to the insertion of glosses, some of them very early.

Advance in grammar is therefore closely dependent on progress in textual criticism. The systematic pursuit of the latter has only begun in recent years: cf. especially Doorninck on Ju i-16, Leid. 1879; Wellhausen, Text der Bb. Sam., Gött. 187ı; Cornill, Ezechiel, Lpz. 1886 ; Klostermann, Bb. Sum. u. d. Kön., Nördl. 1887 ; Driver, Notes on the Hebr. text of the Books of Sam., Oxf. 1890; Klostermann, Deuterojesaja, Munich, 1893; Oort, Textus hebr. emendationes, Lugd. 1900 ; Burney on Kings, Oxf. 1903; the commentaries of Marti and Nowack; the Internat. Crit. Comm.; Kautzsch, Die heil. Schriften des A.T. ${ }^{2}$, 1909-10. A critical edition of the O.T. with full textual notes, and indicating the different documents by colours, is being published in a handsome form by P. Haupt in The Sacred Books of the Old I'est., Lpz. and Baltimore, 1893 ff. (sixteen parts have appeared : Exod., Deut., Minor Prophets, and Megilloth are still to come) ; Kittel, Biblia hebraica ${ }^{2}$, 1909, Masoretic text from Jacob b. Hayyìm (see c), with a valuable selection of variants from the versions, and emendations.

## §4. Division and Arrangement of the Grammar.

The division and arrangement of Hebrew grammar follow the three constituent parts of every language, viz. (1) articulate sounds represented by letters, and united to form syllables, (2) words, and (3) sentences.

The first part (the elements) comprises accordingly the treatment of sounds and their representation in writing. It describes the nature and relations of the sounds of the language, teaches the pronunciation

[^16]of the written signs (orthoepy), and the established mode of writing (orthography). It then treats of the sounds as combined in syllables and words, and specifies the laws and conditions under which this combination takes place.

The second part (etymology) treats of words in their character as parts of speech, and comprises: (1) the principles of the formation of words, or of the derivation of the different parts of speech from the roots or from one another; (2) the principles of inflexion, i.e. of the various forms which the words assume according to their relation to other words and to the sentence.

The third part (syntax, or the arrangement of words): (i) shows how the word-formations and inflexions occurring in the language are used to express different shades of ideas, and how other ideas, for which the language has not coined any forms, are expressed by periphrasis; (2) states the laws according to which the parts of speech are combined in sentences (the principles of the sentence, or syntax in the stricter sense of the term).

## FIRST PART

# ELEMENTARY PRINCIPLES OR THE SOUNDS AND CHARACTERS 

## CHAPTER I

## THE INDIVIDUAL SOUNDS AND CHARACTERS

§ 5. The Consonants: their Forms and Names. (Cf. the Table of Alphabets.)
Among the abundant literature on the subject, special attention is directed to : A. Berliner, Beiträge zur hebr. Gramm., Berlin, 1879, p. 15 ff., on the names, forms, and pronunciation of the consonants in Talmud and Midrash; H. Strack, Schreibkunst u. Schrift bei d. Hebräern, PRE. ${ }^{3}$, Lpz. 1906, p. 766 ff.; Benzinger, Hebr. Archäologie ${ }^{2}$, Tübingen, 1907, p. $1 \boldsymbol{7}^{2}$ ff.; Nowack, Lehrbuch d. hebr. Archäol., Freiburg, 1894, i. 279 ff.; Lidzbarski, Handbuch d. nordsem. Epigraphik, Weimar, 1898, i. 173 ff.; also his art. 'Hebrew Alphabet,' in the Jewish Encyclopaedia, i, 1901, p. 439 ff. (cf. his Ephemeris, i. 316 ff.) ; and 'Die Namen der Alphabetbuchstaben', in Ephemeris, ii. 125 ff.; Kenyon, art. 'Writing,' in the Dictionary of the Bible, iv. Edinb. 1902, p. 944 ff.; Noldeke, 'Die semit. Buchstabennamen,' in Beitr. zur semit. Sprachwiss., Strassb. 1904, p. 124 ff.; F. Praetorius, Ueber den Ursprung des kanaan. Alphabets, Berlin, 1906; H. Grimme, 'Zur Genesis des semit. Alphabets,' in ZA. xx. 1907, p. 49 ff.; R. Stübe, Grundlinien zu einer Entwickelungsgesch. d. Schrift, Munich, I907; Jermain, In the path of the Alphabet, Fort Wayne, 1907.-L. Blau, Studien zum althebr. Buchwesen, dic., Strassb. 1902; and his 'Ueber d. Einfluss d. althebr. Buchwesens auf d. Originale', \&c., in Festschr. zu Ehren A. Berliners, Frkf. 1903.

The best tables of alphabets are those of J. Euting in G. Bickell's Outlines of Heb. Gram. transl. by S. I. Curtiss, Lpz. 1877 ; in Pt. vii of the Oriental Series of the Palaeographical Soc., London, 1882 ; and, the fullest of all, in Chwolson's Corpus inscr. Hebr., Petersburg, 1882; also Lidzbarski's in the Jewish Encycl., see above.

1. The Hebrew letters now in use, in which both the manuscripts of the O.T. are written and our editions of the Bible are printed, commonly called the square character ( 3 ), also the Assyrian character (

Old Hebrew (or Old Canaanitish ${ }^{2}$ ) writing, as it was used on
${ }^{1}$ The name (Assyria) is here used in the widest sense, to include the countries on the Mediterranean inhabited by Aramaeans; cf. Stade in $Z A W$. 1882, p. 292 f. On some other names for Old Hebrew writing. cf. G. Hoffmann, ibid. 1881, p. 334 ff. ; Buhl, Canon and Text of the O.T. (transl. by J. Macpherson), Edinb. 1892, p. 200.
${ }^{2}$ It is tacitly assumed here that this was the mother of all Semitic alphabets. In $Z D M G .1909$, p. 189 ff., however, Pratorius has shown good
public monuments in the beginning of the ninth and in the second half of the eighth century b.c., is to be seen in the inscription of Mêšá, as well as in that of Siloam. The characters on the Maccabaean coins of the second century b.c., and also on ancient gems, still bear much resemblance to this (cf. § $2 d$ ). With the Old Hebrew writing the Phoenician is nearly identical (see § I $k$, § $2 f$, and the Table of Alphabets). From the analogy of the history of other kinds of writing, it may be assumed that ont of and along with this monumental character, a less antique and in some ways more convenient, rounded style was early developed, for use on softer materials, skins, bark, papyrus, and the like. This the Samaritans retained after their separation from the Jews, while the Jews gradually ${ }^{1}$ (between the sixth and the fourth century) exchanged it for an Aramaic character. From this gradually arose (from about the fourth to the middle of the third century) what is called the square character, which consequently bears great resemblance to the extant forms of Aramaic writing, such as the Egyptian-Aramaic, the Nabatean and especially the Palmyrene. Of Hebrew inscriptions in the older square character, that of 'Arâq al-Emir ( $5 \frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of the mouth of the Jordan) probably belongs to 183 b.c. ${ }^{2}$

The Jewish sarcophagus-inscriptions of the time of Christ, found in Jerusalem in 1905, almost without exception exhibit a pure square character. This altered little in the course of centuries, so that the age of a Hebrew MS. cannot easily be determined from the style of the writing. The oldest known biblical fragment is the Nash papyrus (found in 1902), containing the ten commandments and the beginning of Dt $6^{41}$., of the end of the first or beginning of the second century a.d. ; cf. N. Peters, Die älteste Abschr. der io Gebote, Freibg. i. B. 1905. Of actual MSS. of the Bible the oldest is probably one of $820-850$ A. D. described by Ginsburg, Introd., p. 469 ff ., at the head of his sixty principal MSS. ; next in age is the codex of Moses ben Asher at Cairo (897 A. D., cf. the art. 'Scribes' in the Jew. Encycl. xi and Gottheil in $J Q R$. 1905, p. 32). The date ( 916 A. D.) of the Codex prophetarum Babylon. Petropol. (see $\S 8 g$, note) is quite certain.-In the synagogue-rolls a distinction is drawn between the Tam-character (said to be so called from Rabbi Tam, grandson of R. Yishāqî, in the twelfth century) with its straight strokes, square corners and 'tittles' (tāgîn), in German and Polish MSS., and the foreign character with rounded letters and tittles in Spanish MSS. See further E. Kønig, Einl. in das A. T., Bonn, 1893, p. 16 ff.

[^17]b 2. The Alphabet consists, like all Semitic alphabets, solely of consonants, twenty-two in number, some of which, however, have also a kind of vocalic power ( $\S 7 b$ ). The following Table shows their form, names, pronunciation, and numerical value (see $k$ ):-

| FORM. | NAME. | pronunciation. | nUMERICAL value. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\kappa$ | ' A ${ }^{\text {lĕpph }}$ | 'spiritus lenis | I |
| 1 | Beth | $b(b h$, but see § $6 n$ ) | 2 |
| 2 | Gimĕl (Giml) | $g(g h, \quad, \quad, \quad$ ) | 3 |
| 7 | Dālĕth | $d(d h$, , ", ") | 4 |
| $\cdots$ | Hē |  | 5 |
| 1 | $W \bar{a} w(W \bar{a} u)$ | $w(u)^{1}$ | 6 |
| 1 | Zâyı̆n | z, as in English (soft $s$ ) | 7 |
| $\pi$ | Hêth | $h$, a strong guttural | 8 |
| 0 | TTêth | $t$, emplatic $t$ | 9 |
| , | Yôd | $y(i)^{1}$ | 10 |
| 7, final 7 | Kaph | $k(k h$, but see § $6 n)$ | 20 |
| 5 | Lāmĕd | $l$ l | 30 |
| $\square$, final D | Mêm | $m$ | 40 |
| d, final ; | Nün | $n$ | 50 |
| 0 | Sāmèkh | s | 60 |
| ע | ${ }^{\text {A A }}$ y ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | ' a peculiar guttural (see below) | 70 |
| 5, final 9 | Pê | $p(f$, see § $6 n)$ | 80 |
| $\boldsymbol{y}$, final $\gamma$ | Sądê | $s$, emphatic $s$ | 90 |
| $p$ | Q $\hat{f}$ | $q$, a strong $k^{2}$ formed at the back of the palate | 100 |
| 7 | Rȩ̂ |  | 200 |
| j | Sin | $\xi$ |  |
| 14 | Sin ${ }^{3}$ | $\check{s}$, pronounced sh | 300 |
| $\pi$ | $T \bar{a} w(T \bar{a} u)$ | $t(t h$, but see § $6 \boldsymbol{n}$ ) | 400 |

${ }^{1}$ Philippi, 'Die Aussprache der semit. Consonanten 1 und $\because$ ' in ZDMG. 1886, p. 639 ff., 1897, p. 66 ff., adduces reasons in detail for the opinion that ' the Semitic I and 'are certainls by usage consonants, although by nature they are vowels, viz. $u$ and $i$, and consequently are consonantal vowels'; cf. $\S 8$ m.
${ }_{2}$ As a representation of this sound the Latin $q$ is very suitable, since it oscupies in the alphabet the place of the Semitic $P$ (Greek кónaa).
${ }^{3}$ Nestle (Actes du onzième Congrès . .. des Orientalistes, 1897, iv. 113 fi.) has shown that the original order was $\mathscr{*}, \dot{W}$.
3. As the Table shows, five letters have a special form at the end $c$ of the word. They are called final letters, and were combined by the Jewish grammarians in the mnemonic word better, with A. Müller and Stade, Of these, $7, \boldsymbol{\jmath}, \mathfrak{\eta}, \varphi$ are distinguished from the common form by the shaft being drawn straight down, while in the usual form it is bent round towards the left. ${ }^{2}$ In the case of D the letter is completely closed.
4. Hebrew is read and written from right to left. ${ }^{3}$ Words must $d$ not be divided at the end of the lines; ${ }^{4}$ but, in order that no empty space may be left, in MSS. and printed texts, certain letters suitable for the purpose are dilated at the end or in the middle of the line. In our printed texts these literae dilatabiles are the five following:
 letters suitable for the purpose are also employed in this way, as 7, כ, ר; cf. Strack in the T'leol. Lehrb., 1882, No. 22; Nestle, ZAW. 1906, p. 170 f.

Rem. 1. The forms of the letters originally represent the rude outlines of $\boldsymbol{e}$ perceptible objects, the names of which, respectively, begin with the consonant represented (akrophony). Thus Yôd, in the earlier alphabets the rude picture of a hand, properly denotes hand (Heb. יָ ), but as a letter simply the sound ' (y), with which this word begins; 'Ayin, originally a circle, properly an eye ( $\dagger: \psi^{4}$ ), stands for the consonant y. In the Phoenician alphabet, especially, the resemblance of the forms to the objects denoted by the name is still for the most part recognizable (sce the Table). In some letters ( $\downarrow, I, I, \cup, U)$ the similarity is still preserved in the square character.

It is another question whether the present names are all original. They may be merely due to a later, and not always accurate, interpretation of the forms. Moreover, it is possible that in the period from about 1500 to 1000 b.c. the original forms underwent considerable change.

The usual explanation of the present names of the letters ${ }^{5}$ is :
${ }^{1}$ In the Talmud, disregarding the alphabetical order, מִן i.e. prophet. See the discussions of this mnemenic word by Nestle, ZAW. 1907 , p. 119 ff., König, Bacher (who would read prophets, Is $52^{8}$ ), Krauss, Marmorstein, ibid. p. 278 ff. All the twenty-two letters, together with the five final forms, occur in $\mathrm{Zp} 3^{8}$.
${ }^{2}$ Chwolson, Corpus Inscr. Hebr., col. 68, rightly observes that the more original forms of these letters are preserved in the literae finales. Instances of them go back to the time of Christ.
${ }^{3}$ The same was originally the practice in Greek, which only adopted the opposite direction exclusively about 400 B.c. On the boustrophēdon writing (alternately in each direction) in early Greek, early Sabaean, and in the Safa-inscriptions of the first three centuries A.D., cf. Lidzbarski, Ephemeris, i. 116 f.
${ }^{4}$ This does not apply to early inscriptions or seals. Cf. Mèša', ll. 1-5, 7,8 , \&c., Siloam 2, 3, 5, where the division of words appears to be customary.
${ }^{5}$ We possess Greek transcriptions of the Hebrew names, dating from the fifth century b.c. The LXX give them (in almost the sarie form as Eusebius, I'raep. Evang. 10.5) in La 1-4, as do also many Codices of the Vulgate (e.g. the


 weapon (according to Nestle, comparing the Greek $\zeta \hat{\eta} \tau a$, rather $\overline{1} \underline{\underline{I}}$ olive-tree), תיn fence, barrier (but perhaps only differentiated from $\boldsymbol{i}$ by the left-hand stroke), טֵית a winding(?), according to others a leather bottle or a snake (but perhaps only differentiated from $\pi$ by a circle round it), hand, פָ bent
 snake,' as in Ethiopic), סַמֶּ prop (perhaps a modification of $\mathfrak{i}$ ),
 the head (Lidzb., 'perhaps קְּשֶ bow'),
$\boldsymbol{g}$ With regard to the origin of this alphabet, it may be taken as proved that it is not earlier (or very little earlier) than the fifteenth century b. c., since otherwise the el-Amarna tablets ( $\$ 2 f$ ) would not have been written exclusively in cuneiform. ${ }^{1}$ It seems equally certain on various grounds, that it originated on Canaanitish soil. It is, however, still an open question whether the inventors of it borrowed
(a) From the Egyptian system-not, as was formerly supposed, by direct adoption of hieroglyphic signs (an explanation of twelve or thirteen characters was revived by J. Halévy in Rev. Sémit. 1901, p. 356 ff., 1902, p. 33 Iff ., and in the Verhandlungen des xiii. . . . Orient.-Kongr. zu Hamb., Leiden, 1904, p. 199 ff.; but cf. Lidzbarski, Ephemeris, i. 261 ff.), or of hieratic characters derived from them (so E. de Rougé), but by the adoption of the acrophonic principle (see e) by which e.g. the hand, in Egyptian tot, represents the letter $t$, the lion= laboi, the letter $l$. This view still seems the most probable. It is now accepted by Lidzbarski ('Der Ursprung d. nord- u. südsemit. Schrift' in Ephemeris, i (1900), 109 ff., cf. pp. 134 and 261 ff.), though in his Nordsem. Epigr. (1898) p. 173 ff. he was still undecided.
(b) From the Babylonian (cuneiform) system. Wuttke's and W. Deecke's derivation of the old-Semitic alphabet from new-Assyrian cuneiform is impossible for chronological reasons. More recently Peters and Hommel have sought to derive it from the old-Babylonian, and Ball from the archaic Assyrian cuneiform. A vigorous discussion has been aroused by the theory of Frdr. Delitzsch (in Die Entstehung des ält. Schriftsystems od. der Urspr. der. Keilschriftzeichen dargel., Lpz. 1897; and with the same title 'Ein Nachwort', Lpz. 1898, preceded by a very clear outline of the theory) that the old-Semitic alphabet arose in Canaan under the influence both of the Egyptian system (whence the acrophonic principle) and of the old-Babylonian, whence the principle of the graphic representation of objects and ideas by means of simple, and mostly rectilinear, signs. He holds that the choice of the objects was probably (in about fifteen cases) intluenced by the Babylonian system. The correspondence of names had all the more effect since, according to Zimmern (ZDMG. 1896, p. 667 ff .), out of twelve names which are certainly identical, eight appear in the same order in the Babylonian arrangement of signs. But it must first be shown that the present names of the
Cod. Amiatinus) in $\psi \psi$ III, II2, II9, but with many variations from the customary forms, which rest on the traditional Jewish pronunciation. The forms Deleth (and delth), Zai, Sen (LXX also $\chi \sigma \epsilon \nu$, cf. Hebr. . noticed, amongst others, for Daleth, Zain, Sin. Cf. the tables in Nöldeke, Beiträge zur sem. Sprachwiss., p. 126 f. In his opinion (and so Lidzbarski, Ephemeris, i. 134) the form and meaning of the names point to Phoenicia as the original home of the alphabet, since alf, bêt, dalt, wāw, tāw, pei =pê, pi, mouth, and the vowel of $\dot{\rho} \omega=r o ̄ s$, head, are all Hebraeo-Phoenician.
${ }^{1}$ In the excavations at Jericho in A.pril, 1907, E. Sellin found a jar-handle with the Canaanite characters $\mathbf{N}$, which he dates (probably too early) about ${ }^{1} 500$ в. .

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p. 225 ff.), Happel (Der Ps. Nah, Würzb. 1900) to discover further traces, has nut been successful. [Cf. Gray in Expositor, 1898, p. 207 ff.; Driver, in the Century Bible, Nahum, p.26.]-Bickell, Ztschr f. Kath. Theol., 1882, p. 319 ff., had already deduced from the versions the alphabetical character of Ecclus $51^{13-30}$, with the omission of the 1 -verse and with $פ^{1}$ at the end. His conjectures have been brilliantly confirmed by the discovery of the Hebrew original, although the order from 2 to $\}$ is partly disturbed or obscured. If $\mid$ before $\rangle$ is deleted, ten letters are in their right positions, and seven can be restored to their places with certainty. Cf. N. Schlögl, ZDMG. 53, 669 ff. ; C. Taylor in the appendix to Schechter and Taylor, The Wisdom of Ben Sira, Cambr. 1899, p. Ixxviff., and in the Journ. of Philol., $\operatorname{xxx}$ (1906), p. 95 ff. ; JQR. 1905 , p. 238 ff. ; Löhr, $Z A W$. 1905, p. 183 ff. ; I. Lévy, $R E J .1907$, p. 62 ff.

The sequence of the three softest labial, palatal, and dental sounds $\beth, \mathcal{A}, 7$, and of the three liquids $\zeta, D, 3$, indicates an attempt at classification. At the same time other considerations also appear to have had influence. Thus it is certainly not accidental, that two letters, representing a hand (Yid, Kaph), as also two (if Qôph = back of the head) which represent the head, and in general several forms denoting objects naturally connected (Mèm and Nûn, - 'Ayin and Pê), stand next to one another.
$i$ The order, names, and numerical values of the letters have passed over from the Phoenicians to the Greeks, in whose alphabet the letters A to $r$ are borrowed from the Old Semitic. So also the Old Italic alphabets as well as the Roman, and consequently all alphabets derived either from this or from the Greek, are directly or indirectly dependent on the Phoenician.
3. a. In default of special arithmetical figures, the consonants were used also as numerical signs; cf. G. Gundermann, Die Zahlzeichen, Giessen, 1899, p. 6 f., and Lidzbarski, Ephemeris, i. 106 ff . The earliest traces of this usage are, however, tirst found on the Maccabean coins (see above, § $2 d$, end). These numerical letters were afterwards commonly employed, e.g. for marking the numbers of chapters and rerses in the editions of the Bible. The units are denoted by $\aleph-\cup$, the tens by ${ }^{-}-\searrow$, $100-400$ by $p-\Omega$, the numbers from $500-900$ by $\Omega(=400)$, with the addition of the remaining hundreds, e.g. ת 500. In compound numbers the greater precedes (on the right), thus $\mathrm{K}^{\prime} 11$, קכא 121. But 15 is expressed by $10+6$, not $n$ (which is a form of the divine name, being the first two consonants of יחוה). ${ }^{2}$ For a similar reason iv is also mostly written for 16 , instead of 1 , which in compound proper names, like ליהוֹ, also represents the name of God, יהוה.

The thousands are sometimes denoted by the units with two dots placed above, e. g. $\mathbb{K} 1000$.
$l \quad b$. The reckoning of the years in Jewish writings (generally ${ }^{\text {biticr }}$

 are omitted. In the dates of the first thousand years after Christ, the Christian era is obtained by the addition of 240 , in the second thousand years by the addition of 1240 (i. e. if the date falls between Jan. I and the Jewish new year ; otherwise add 1239), the thousands of the Creation era being omitted.
$m$ 4. Abbreviations of words are not found in the text of the O.T., but they occur on coins, and their use is extremely frequent amongst the later Jews. ${ }^{3}$
${ }^{1}$ See note 3 on p. 29.
${ }^{2}$ On the rise of this custom ( ${ }^{2}$ having been originally used and afterwards iה), cf. Nestle in $Z A W$. 1884, p. 250, where a trace of this method of writing occurring as early as Origen is noted.
${ }^{3}$ Cf. Jo. Buxtorf, De abbreviaturis Hebr., Basel, 1613, \&c.; Pietro Perreau.

A point, or later an oblique stroke, serves as the siga of abridgement in old
 וגוֹ for et complens, i.e. and so on. Also in the middle of what is apparently a word, such strokes indicate that it is an abbreviation or a cox memorialis (cf. e.g. § $15 d$ תאN). Two such strokes are employed, from § $41 d$ onward, to mark the different classes of weak verbs. - Note also ${ }_{\tau}{ }_{\tau}$ or ${ }_{\tau}$ (also יהת (הוֹה for for
5. Peculiarities in the tradition of the 0 . T. text, which are already $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ mentioned in the Talmud, are-(I) The 15 puncta extraordinaria, about which the tradition (from Siphri on $\mathrm{Nu} 9^{10}$ onwards) differs considerably, even as to their number ; on particular consonants, Gn $16^{5}, 18^{9}, 19^{33.35}$, Nu $9^{10}$; or on whole words, Gn $33^{4}, 37^{12}$, Nu $3^{39}, 21^{30}, 29^{15}$, Dt $29^{28}, 2$ S $19^{20}$, Is $44^{9}, \mathrm{Ez}_{4} 1^{20}$, $4^{622}, \psi{ }^{27} 7^{13}$, -all no doubt critical marks ; cf. Strack, Prolegomena Critica, p. 88 ff.; L. Blau, Masoretische Untersuchungen, Strassburg, 1891, p. 6 ff., and Einleitung in die hl. Schrift, Budapest, 1894 ; Königsberger, Jüd. Lit.-Blatt, 1891, nos. 29-31, and Aus Masorah u. Talmudkritik, Berlin, 1892, p. 6 ff. ; Mayer-Lambert, REJ. 30 (1895), no. 59 ; and especially Ginsburg, Introd., p. 318 ff.; also on the ten points found in the Pentateuch, see Butin (Baltimore, I 906), who considers that they are as old as the Christian era and probably mark a letter, \&c., to be deleted. (2) The literae majusculae (e.g. $\mathcal{I} \operatorname{Gn} 1^{1}, 1 \mathrm{Lv} \mathrm{II}^{42}$ as the middle consonant of the Pentateuch, ${ }^{9} \mathrm{Nu} \mathrm{I}_{4}{ }^{17}$ ), and minusculue (e.g. ה Gn 24). (3) The literae suspensae (Ginsburg, Introd., p. 334 ff.) J Ju $18^{30}$ (which points to the reading משְֶׁ
 Nu $\gamma^{2}$ (הפקודים). (5) Mêm clausum in לםרבה Is $9^{6}$, and Mêm apertum in Neh 2 ${ }^{13}$. (6) Nûn inversum before Nu 1c ${ }^{35}$, and after ver. 36 , as also before $\psi 1 \circ 7^{23-28}$ and ${ }^{40}$; according to Ginsburg, Introd., p. $34^{1}$ ff., a sort of bracket to indicate that the verses are out of place; cf. Krauss, $Z A W$. 1902, p. 57 ff., who regards the inverted Nûns as an imitation of the Greek obelus.

## § 6. Pronunciation and Division of Consonants.

P. Haupt, 'Die Semit. Sprachlaute u. ihre Umschrift,' in Beiträge zur Assyriologie u. vergleich. semit. Sprachwissenschaft, by Delitzsch and Haupt, i, Lpz. 1889, 249 ff. ; E. Sievers, Metrische Studien, i, Lpz. 1901, p. 14 ff.

1. An accurate knowledge of the original phonetic value of each $l l$ consonant is of the greatest importance, since very many grammatical peculiarities and changes ( $\$ 18 \mathrm{ff}$.) only become intelligible from the nature and pronunciation of the sounds. This knowledge is obtained partly from the pronunciation of the kindred dialects, especially the still living Arabic, partly by observing the affinity and interchange

[^18]of sounds on Hebrew itself (§ 19), and partly from the tradition of the Jews. ${ }^{1}$

The pronunciation of Hebrew by the modern German Jews, which partly resembles the Syriac and is generally called 'Polish', differs considerably from that of the Spanish and Portuguese Jews, which approaches nearer to the Arabic. The pronunciation of Hebrew by Christians follows the latter (after the example of Reuchlin), in almost all cases.
The oldest tradition is presented in the transcription of Hebrew names in Assyrian cuneiform; a later, but yet in its way very important system is seen in the manner in which the LXX transcribe Hebrew names with Greek letters. ${ }^{2}$ As, however, corresponding signs for several sounds ( $\left.\cup, \mathcal{Y}, \Psi, P, ש\right)$ are wanting in the Greek alphabet, only an approximate representation was possible in these cases. The same applies to the Latin transcription of Hebrew words by Jerome, according to the Jewish pronunciation of his time. ${ }^{3}$

On the pronunciation of the modern Jews in North Africa, see Bargès in the Journ. Asiat., Nov. 1848 ; on tbat of the South Arabian Jews, J. Dérenbourg, Manuel du lecteur, \&c. (from a Yemen MS. of the year 1390), Paris, 1871 (extrait 6 du Journ. Asiat. 1870).
c 2. With regard to the pronunciation of the several gutturals and sibilants, and of $\Delta$ and $p$, it may be remarked :-
I. Among the gutturals, the glottal stop $\boldsymbol{N}$ is the lightest, corresponding to the spiritus lenis of the Greeks. It may stand either at the beginning or end
 lost to our ear, like the $h$ in hour and in the French habit, homme. After a vowel $\kappa$ generally (and at the end of a word, always) coalesces with it, e.g.

$i$ before a vowel corresponds exactly to our $h$ (spiritus asper); after a vowel it is either a guttural (so always at the end of a syllable which is not final, e.g. נֶהְ nähpakh; at the end of a word the consonantal $\boldsymbol{i}$ has a point - Mappîq-in it, see §14), or it stands inaudible at the end of a word, generally as a mere orthographic indication of a preceding vowel, e.g. $g a \overline{l a}$; cf. $\S \S 7 b$ and $75 a$.
$e \quad \sum$ is related to $N$, but is a much stronger guttural. Its strongest sound is
 weaker sound of the same kind, which the LXX reproduce by a spiritus (lenis
 in the former case a sort of guttural $r$, in the latter a sound peculiar to themselves formed in the back of the throat. It is as incorrect to omit the $\bar{y}$

[^19] pronounce it exactly like $g$ or like a nasal $n g$. The stronger sound might be approximately transcribed by $g h$ or ' $g$; but since in Hebrew the softer sound was the more common, it is sufficient to represent it by the sign', as 'arba', עַ 'ad.
$\Pi$ is the strongest guttural sound, a deep guttural ch, as heard generally $f$ in Swiss German, somewhat as in the German Achat, Macht, Sache, Docht, Zucht (not as in Licht, Knecht), and similar to the Spanish j. Like עit was, however, pronounced in many words feebly, in others strongly.

As regards 7 , its pronunciation as a palatal (with a vibrating uvula) seems to have been the prevailing one. Hence in some respects it is also classed $\boldsymbol{g}$ with the gutturals ( $\$ 22 q, r$ ). On the lingual 7 , cf. o.
2. The Hebrew language is unusually rich in sibilants. These have, at any $/ \ell$ rate in some cases, arisen from dentals which are retained as such in Aramaic and Arabic (see in the Lexicon the letters $i, Y$ and שi).
$\dot{\psi}$ and $\dot{\psi}$ were originally represented (as is. still the case in the unpointed $i$ texts) by only one form $\mathbb{E}$; but that the use of this one form to express two different sounds (at least in Hebrew) was due only to the poverty of the alphabet, is clear from the fact that they are differentiated in Arabic and Ethiopic (cf. Nöldeke in Ztschr.f. wissensch. Theol., 1873, p. 121 ; Brockelmann, Grundriss, i. I33). In the Masoretic punctuation they were distinguished by means of the diacritical point as $\mathcal{U}^{\dot{U}}(\mathrm{sh})$ and $\dot{\mathcal{E}}(\mathrm{s}) .^{1}$
The original difference between the sounds $\dot{\theta}$ and $D^{2}$ sometimes marks $k$
 be prudent, to be wise. Syriac always represents both sounds by $D$, and in


$i($ transcribed $\zeta$ by the LXX) is a soft whizzing $s$, the French and English z, $l$ altogether different from the German $z(t s)$.
3. $\Delta, P$, and probably $\Sigma$ are pronounced with a strong articulation and $m$ with a compression of the larynx. The first two are thus essentially different from $\Omega$ and $\beth$, which correspond to our $t$ and $k$ and also are often aspirated (see below, $n$ ). $\Psi$ is distinguished from every other $s$ by its peculiar articulation, and in no way corresponds to the German $z$ or $t s$; we transcribe it by $s$; cf. G. Hüsing, ‘Zum Lautwerte des Y,' in OLZ. x. 467 ff.
3. Six consonants, the weak and middle hard Palatals, Dentals, $n$ and Labials

> (בְּגַרַכְּפַת) ב ג ד כ פ ת
have a twofold pronunciation, (I) a harder sound, as mutes, like

[^20]$k, p, t$ ，or initial $b, g$（hard），$d$ ；and（2）a softer sound as spirantes．${ }^{1}$ The harder sound is the original．It is retained at the beginning of syllables，when there is no vowel immediately preceding to influence the pronunciation，and is denoted by a point，Dageš lene（ $\begin{aligned} & \text { 13），placed }\end{aligned}$ in the consonants，viz．$\exists b, \exists g, \exists d, \exists k, \exists p, \curvearrowleft t$ ．The weaker pro－ nunciation appears as soon as a vowel sound immediately precedes． It is occasionally denoted，esp．in MSS．，by Rāphè（§ 14 e），but in printed texts usually by the mere absence of the Dagess．In the case of $\beth, \beth, \Omega, \Omega$ ，the two sounds are clearly distinguishable even to our ear as $b$ and $v, k$ and German（weak）$c h, p$ and $p h, t$ and $t h$（in thin）．The Greeks too express this twofold pronunciation by special characters ： $\ni \kappa, \sqsupset \chi ; \boxplus \pi, \sqsupseteq \phi ; ת \tau, \pi \theta$ ．In the same way $\mathfrak{a}$ should be pronounced like the North German $g$ in Tage，Wagen，and 7 like th in the，as distinguished from ：and 7 ．

For more precise information on the cases in which the one or the other pronunciation takes place，see § 21．The modern Jews pronounce the
 The customary transcription（used also in this Grammar）of the spirants $\mathcal{I}, J, \Pi$ by $b h, k h$ ，th is only an unsatisfactory makeshift，since it may lead （esp．in the case of $b h$ and $k h$ ）to an erroneous conception of the sounds as real aspirates，$b-h, k-h$ ．
o 4．According to their special character the consonants are divided into－

| （a）Gutturals | ת ¢ п\％； |
| :---: | :---: |
| （b）Palatals | アゴ； |
| （c）Dentals | ก $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ ； |
| （d）Labials | コ 2 ； |
| （e）Sibilants | צ Dívip |
| $(f)$ Sonants | י，¢7， |

In the case of 7 its hardest pronunciation as a palatal（see above， $g$ ，end）is to be distinguished from its more unusual sound as a lingual， pronounced in the front of the mouth．

On the twofold pronunciation of $r$ in Tiberias，cf．Delitzsch，Physiol．und Musik，Lpz．1868，p． 10 ff．；Baer and Strack，Dikduke ha－t＇amim，Lpz．18j9， p．5，note $a$ ，and $\S 7$ of the Hebrew text，as well as p． 82.
p In accordance with E．Sievers，Metrische Studien，i．14，the following scheme of the Hebrew phonetic system is substituted for the table formerly given in this grammar ：－
i．Throat sounds（Gutturals）：ח ע ה א．

[^21]ii. Mouth-sounds:


Rem. r. The meaning of the letters at the top is, $\mathrm{w} .=$ weak, $\mathrm{m} .=$ middle $q$ hard; e. =emphatic. Consonants which are produced by the same organ of speech are called homorganic (e.g. 2 and $J$ as palatals), consonants whose sound is of the same nature homogeneous (e.g. I and as semi-vowels). On their homorganic character and homogeneity depends the possibility of interchange, whether within Hebrew itself or with the kindred dialects. In such cases the soft sound generally interchanges with the soft, the hard with the hard, \&c. (e.g. $\mathcal{T}=\mathrm{T}, \Pi=\boldsymbol{\mathcal { V }}, \boldsymbol{\Delta}=\boldsymbol{y}$ ). Further transitions are not, however, excluded, as e.g. the interchange of $\Omega$ and $p(\Omega=J=p)$. Here it is of importance to observe whether the change takes place in an initial, medial, or final letter; since e.g. the change in a letter when medial does not always prove the possibility of the change when initial. That in certain cases the character of the consonantal sound also influences the preceding or following vowel will be noticed in the accidence as the instances occur.

Rem. 2. Very probably in course of time certain nicer distinctions of $r$ pronunciation became more and more neglected and finally were lost. Thus e.g. the stronger ${ }^{\dagger}{ }^{\prime} g$, which was known to the LXX (see above, e), became in many cases altogether lost to the later Jews; by the Samaritans and Galileans $ע$ and $\Pi$ were pronounced merely as $\kappa$, and so in Ethiopic, $\searrow$ like $\kappa, \Pi$ like $h$, 6 like .

Rem. 3. The consonants which it is usual to describe especially as weak, $s$ are those which readily coalesce with a preceding vowel to form a long vowel, viz. $\mathbb{K}, \mathfrak{I}$, ( as to $\mathbb{A}$, cf. $\S 23 \mathrm{k}$ ), or those which are most frequently affected by the changes described in $\S 19 b-l$, as again $K, 1,9$, and $J$, and in certain cases $ה$ and $\zeta$; finally the gutturals and $\urcorner$ for the reason given in $\S 22 b$ and $q$.

## § 7. The Vowels in General, Vowel Letters and Vowel Signs.

1. The original vowels in Hebrew, as in the other Semitic tongues, $a$ are $a, i, u$. $\quad E$ and $o$ always arise from an obscuring or contraction of these three pure sounds, viz. $\check{e}$ by modification from $\breve{\imath}$ or $\breve{a}$; short $\check{o}$ from $\breve{u}$; $\hat{e}$ by contraction from ai (properly ay); and $\hat{o}$ sometimes by modification (obscuring) from $a$, sometimes by contraction from $a u$ (properly $a w$ ). ${ }^{1}$

In Arabic writing there are vowel signs only for $a, i, u$; the combined sounds $a y$ and aw are therefore retained uncontracted and pronounced as


[^22]only in later Arabic that they became in pronunciation $\hat{e}$ and $\hat{0}$, at least after weaker or softer consonants; cf. Arab. bain, bên, Díl Arab. yaum, yôm. The same contraction appears also in other languages, e.g. in Greek and Latin ( $\theta a \hat{v} \mu a$, Ionic $\theta \hat{\omega} \mu a$; plaustrum = plostrum), in the French pronunciation of $a i$ and $a u$, and likewise in the German popular dialects (Oge for Auge, \&c.). Similarly, the obscuring of the vowels plays a part in various languages (cf. e.g. the $a$ in modern Persian, Swedish, English, \&c.). ${ }^{1}$
2. The partial expression of the vowels by certain consonants ( $\boldsymbol{i}, 1, \cdot ; \times$ ), which sufficed during the lifetime of the language, and for a still longer period afterwards (cf. § $1 k$ ), must in the main have passed through the following stages ${ }^{2}$ :-
(a) The need of a written indication of the vowel first made itself felt in cases where, after the rejection of a consonant, or of an entire syllable, a long vowel formed the final sound of the word. The first step in such a case was to retain the original final consonant, at least as a vowel letter, i. e. merely as an indication of a final vowel. In point of fact we find even in the Old Testament, as already in the Mêséa inscription, a in employed in this way (see below) as an indication of a final $o$. From this it was only a step to the employment of the same consonant to indicate also other vowels when final (thus, e.g. in the inflection of the verbs $n^{\prime \prime} \zeta$, the vowels $\left.\bar{a},{ }^{3} \bar{e}, \bar{e}\right)$. After the employment of $ו$ as a vowel letter for $\hat{o}$ and $\hat{\imath}$, and of for $\hat{e}$ and $\hat{\imath}$, had been established (see below, e) these consonants were also em-ployed-although not consistently-for the same vowels at the end of a word.

C According to $\S 9 \mathrm{I} b$ and $a$, the suffix of the 3 rd sing. masc. in the noun (as in the verb) was originally pronounced $\$ 1$. But in the places where this in with a preceding $a$ is contracted into $\hat{o}$ (after the rejection of the $ה$ ), we find the $i n$ still frequently retained as a vowel letter, e.g.
 ; הִלְחִחמֹה ,לֹה , on the other hand already in the Siloam inscription

 (l. 12 f.) and
$d$ As an example of the original consonant being retained, we might also include the ' of the constr. state plur. masc. if its $\hat{e}$ (according to $\S 89 d$ ) is

[^23]
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$g$ (c) In the present state of Old Testament vocalization as it appears in the Masoretic text, the striving after a certain uniformity cannot be mistaken, in spite of the inconsistencies which have crept in. Thus the final long vowel is, with very few exceptions (cf. § 9 d, and the very doubtful cases in $\S 8 k$ ), indicated by a vowel letterand almost always by the same letter in certain nominal and verbal endiugs. In many cases the use of $\boldsymbol{t}$ to mark an $\hat{o}$ or $\hat{u}$, arising from contraction, and of $\backslash$ for $\hat{e}$ or $\hat{\imath}$, is by far the more common, while we seldom find an originally consonantal $\kappa$ rejected, and the simple phonetic principle taking the place of the historical arthography. On the other hand the number of exceptions is very great. In many cases (as e.g. in the plural endings D - and ni) the vowel letters are habitually emploged to express long vowels which do not arise through contraction, and we even find short vowels indicated. The conclusion is, that if there ever was a period of Hebrew writing when the application of fixed laws to all cases was inteuded, either these laws were not consistently carried out in the further transmission of the text, or errors and confusion afterwards crept into it. Moreover much remained uncertain even in texts which were plentifully provided with vowel letters. For, although in most cases the context was a guide to the correct reading, yet there were also cases where, of the many possible ways of pronouncing a word, more than one appeared admissible. ${ }^{1}$
$h$ 3. When the language had died out, the ambiguity of such a writing must have been found continually more troublesome ; and as there was thus a danger that the correct pronunciation might be finally lost, the vowel signs or vowel points were invented in order to fix it. By means of these points everything hitherto left uncertain was most accurately settled. It is trve that there is no historical account of the date of this vocalization of the O.T. text, yet we may at least infer, from a comparison of other historical facts, that it was gradually developed by Jewish grammarians in the sisth and seventh centuries A.D. under the influence of different Schools, traces of which have been preserved to the present time in various differences of tradition. ${ }^{2}$ They mainly followed, though with independent regard to

[^24]the peculiar nature of the Hebrew, the example and pattern of the older Syrian punctuation. ${ }^{1}$

See Gesenius, Gesch. d. hebr. Spr., p. 182 ff.; Hupfeld, in Theol. Studien u. Kritiken, 1830, pt. iii, who shows that neither Jerome nor the Talmud mentions vowel signs; Berliner, Beiträge zur hebr. Gramm. im Talm. u. Midrasch, p. 26 ff. ; and B. Pick, in Hebraica, i. 3, p. 153 ff. ; Abr. Geiger, 'Zur Nakdanim-[Punctuators-]Literatur,' in Jüd. Zischr. für Wissensch. u. Leben, x. Breslau, 1872, p. 10 ff. ; H. Strack, Prolegomena critica in Vet. Test. Hebr., Lips. 1873; ' Beitrag zur Gesch. des hebr. Bibeltextes,' in Theol. Stud. u. Krit., 1875, p. 736 ff., as also in the Ztschr. f. die ges. luth. Theol. u. K., 1875, p. 619 ff ; ; 'Massorah,' in the Protest. Real.-Enc. ${ }^{3}$, xii. 393 ff. (a good outline); A. Merx, in the Verhandlungen des Orientalistenkongresses zu Berlin, i. Berlin, 188 J, p. 164 ff. and p. 188 ff .; H. Graetz, 'Die Anfänge der Vokalzeichen im Hebr.,' in Monatsschr. f. Gesch. u. Wissensch. d. Judenth., 1881, pp. 348 ff. and 395 ff.; Hersmann, Zur Gesch. des Streites über die Entstehung der hebr. Punktation, Ruhrort, 1885; Harris, 'The Rise . . . of the Massorah,' JQR. i. 1889, p. 128 ff. and p. 223 ff. ; Mayer-Lambert, REJ. xxvi. 1893, p. 274 ff. ; J. Bachrach, Das Alter d. bibl. Vocalisation u. Accentuation, 2 pts. Warsaw, 1897 , and esp. Ginsburg, Introd. (see § 3 c), p. 287 ff.; Budde, 'Zur Gesch. d. Tiberiens. Vokalisation,' in Orient. Studien zu Ehren Th. Nöldekes, i. 1906, $6_{51} \mathrm{ff}$. ; Bacher, 'Diakrit. Zeichen in vormasoret. Zeit,' in ZAW. 1907, p. 285 ; C. Levias, art. 'Vocalization,' in the Jewish Encycl.On the hypothesis of the origin of punctuation in the Jewish schools for children, cf. J. Dérenbourg in the Rev. Crit., xiii. 1879, no. 25.
4. To complete the historical vocalization of the consonantal text $i$ a phonetic system was devised, so exact as to show all vowel-changes occasioned by lengthening of words, by the tone, by gutturals, \&c., which in other languages are seldom indicated in writing. The pronunciation followed is in the main that of the Palestinian Jews of about the sixth century A.D., as observed in the solemn reading of the sacred writings in synagogue and school, but based on a much older tradition. That the real pronunciation of early Hebrew is consistently preserved by this tradition, has recently been seriously questioned on good grounds, especially in view of the transcription of proper names in the LXX. Nevertheless in many cases, internal reasons, as well as the analogy of the kindred languages, testify in a high degree to the faithfulness of the tradition. At the same recension of the text, or soon after, the various other sigus for reading ( $\$ \S 11-14,16$ ) were added, and the accents (§ I5).

## §8. The Vowel Signs in particular.

P. Haupt, 'The names of the Hebrew vowels,' JAOS. xxii, and in the Johns Hopkins Semitic Papers, Newhaven, 1901, p. 7 ff.; C. Levias in the Hebr. Union Coll. Annual, Cincinnati, 1904, p. 138 ff.

[^25]
## Preliminary Remark.

The next two sections (\$§ 8 and 9) have been severely criticized (Philippi, $T h L Z .1897$, no. 2) for assigning a definite quantity to each of the several vowels, whereas in reality $\bar{z}, \ldots$, - are merely signs for $\ddot{a}, e, 0$ : 'whether these are long or short is not shown by the signs themselves but must be inferred from the rules for the pause which marks the breaks in continuous narrative, or from other circumstances.' But in the twenty-fourth and subsequent German editions of this Grammar, in the last note on § $8 a$ [English ed. p. 38, note 4], it was stated : 'it must be mentioned that the Masoretes are not concerned with any distinction between long and short vowels, or in general with any question of quantity. Their efforts are directed to fixing the received pronunciation as faithfully as possible, by means of writing. For a long time only שְׁבעָה שְלִבְים seven kings were reckoned (vox memor. in
 The division of the vowels in respect of quantity is a later attempt at a scientific conception of the phonetic system, which was not invented but only represented by the Masoretes (Qimchi, Mikhlol, ed. Rittenb. 136 a, distinguishes the five long as mothers from their five daughters).'

I have therefore long shared the opinion that 'the vowel-system represented by the ordinary punctuation (of Tiberias) was primarily intended to mark only differences of quality' (Sievers, Metrische Studien, i. 17). There is, however, of course a further question how far these 'later' grammarians were mistaken in assigning a particular quantity to the vorvels represented by particular signs. In Philippi's opinion they were mistaken (excluding of course $\hat{i}, \hat{e}, o \hat{o}$ when written plene) in a very great number of cases, since not only does $\qquad$ stand, according to circumstances, for $\bar{a}$ or $\stackrel{\boxed{a}}{a}$, and $\qquad$ for $\bar{a}$ or $\breve{a}$,
 qā̆a :

I readily admit, with regard to Qames and $S^{e}$ gol, that the account formerly given in $\S 8 \mathrm{f}$. was open to misconstruction. With regard to Sere and Holem, however, I can only follow Philippi so long as his view does not conflict with the (to me inviolable) law of a long vowel in an open syllable before the tone and (except Pathah) in a final syllable with the tone. To me $7 \underset{\sim}{7}=k \bar{a} b e ́ d$,
 cited by Sievers (p. 18, note I) that 'in old German e.g. original $\check{\imath}$ and $\check{u}$ often pass into ě and ŏ dialectically, while remaining in a closed syllable.

1. The full vowels (in contrast to the half-vowels or vowel trills, § Io $a-f$ ), classified according to the three principal vowel sounds (§ $7 a$ ), are as follows :-

## First Class. A-sound.

1. $T^{1} Q \bar{a} m e ̆ s$ denotes either $\bar{a}, a$, more strictly $\bar{a}$ ( the obscure
 (heads), or $\stackrel{\sharp}{a}$ (in future transcribed as $\check{o}$ ), called Qames
 exclusively as a modification of $\breve{u}$; cf. $c$ and $§ 9 u$.
2.     - Páthăḥ, ă, nミِ băth (daughter).
[^26]Also 3. $\mp$ Sel $^{e} g \hat{o l}$, an open $e, ~ \grave{e}(\bar{d}$ or $\check{a})$, as a modification of $\breve{a},{ }^{1}$ either in an untoned closed syllable, as in the first syllable of (your hand) from yădkhèm-or in a tone-syllable as in $\begin{gathered}\text { groces } \\ \text { peh } \\ \text {; }\end{gathered}$ cf. $\pi \dot{\alpha} \sigma \chi a$, and on the really monosyllabic character of such formations, see $\S 28 e$. But $S^{e} g o ̂ l$ in an open tone-syllable with a following ', as in ${ }^{\prime}$, to contraction from ay.

Second Olass. I- and E-sounds.
 2. - either $\hat{\imath}$ (see below, $i$ ), as $\begin{aligned} & \text { צִּ צִּ sadd } \hat{\imath} q \hat{\imath} m \text {, only ortho- }\end{aligned}$
 $s ̌{ }^{\text {ch }} d q \hat{o}$ (his righteousness).

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| $E$ | Sere can only be $\breve{e}$, in my opinion, in few cases, such those mentioned in $\$ 29 \mathrm{f}$. |
|  | those mentioned in $\mathrm{S}^{2} 9 \mathrm{~J}$. |
|  |  |

Third Class. $\quad U$ - and 0 -sounds.

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

retained $\bar{a}, \vec{a}$ in this grammar, as being typographically simpler and not liable to any misunderstanding. For Qames hatuph, in the previous German edition expressed by $\stackrel{y}{a}$, we have, after careful consideration, returned to $\check{o}$
 not intend to draw a sharp distinction between them. We must not, however, regard the Jewish grammarians as making a merely idle distinction between Qümes rāhāb, or broad Qames, and qāmes hatuph, or light Qames. It is quite impossible that in the living language an $\bar{a}$ lengthened from $\breve{a}$, as in däbār, should have been indistinguishable from e.g. the last vowel in liverw or the first in $\boldsymbol{p}_{1} \boldsymbol{p}^{+}$-The notation $\hat{a}, \hat{e}$, $\hat{0}$ expresses here the vowels essentially long, either naturally or by contraction; the notation $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{a}$ those lengthened only by the tone, and therefore changeable; $\stackrel{a}{a}, \dot{\varepsilon}, \check{o}$ the short vowels. As regards the others, the distinction into $i$ and $\bar{i}, \hat{u}$ and $\check{u}$ is sufficient ; see § 9.-The mark'stands in the following pages over the tonesyllable, whenever this is not the last, as is usual, but the penultimate syllable of the word, e.g.
${ }^{1}$ These Segôls, modified from ă, are very frequent in the language. The
d The names of the vowels are mostly taken from the form and action of the

 (also חר.․) narrow opening; ; in closing, according to others fullness, i.e. of

 the mouth. Segôl (Didi bunch of grapes) takes its name from its form. So (three points) is another name for Qibbûs.
e Moreover the names were :mostly so formed (but only later), that the sound of each vowel is heard in the first syllable (
 Sägôl, Qomeṣ-haṭ̂̂f, Qübbûṣ.
2. As the above examples show, the vowel sign stands regularly under the consonant, after which it is to be pronounced, $\urcorner r \bar{a}, ~ 工 r a ̆$, ? rē, ? rŭ, \&c. The Puthah called furtivum (§ $22 f$ ) alone forms an exception to this rule, being pronounced before the consonant, $\underline{V}_{\text {, }} r \hat{u}^{a} h$ (wind, spirit). The Hōlĕm (without wāw) stands on the left above the consonant; $\dot{\gamma} r \bar{o}(b u t \zeta=l \bar{o})$. If $\kappa$, as a vowel letter, follows a consonant which is to be pronounced with $\bar{o}$, the point is placed over its right arm, thus

No dot is used for the Holem when $\bar{o}$ (of course without wāw) is pro-

 sin, the dot is placed over its right arm, e.g. V' feet), הַבּשׁׁׂאים hannốs'im (those who carry).

In the sign $\mathcal{G}$, the 1 may also be a consonant. The $\mathcal{Y}$ is then either to be read $\bar{o} w$ (necessarily so when a consonant otherwise without a vowel precedes, e. g. לֶ̂ lôwè, lending) or wō, when a vowel already precedes the 1, e.g. עָ 'äwôn (iniquity) for ןעָ עָ. In more exact printing, a distinction is at least made between ; (wo) and i (i. e. either $\hat{o}$ or, when another vowel follows the $\left.w \bar{a} w, \hat{o} w^{3}\right)$.

Babylonian punctuation (see $\S 8 g$, note 1) has only one sign for it and tonebearing Pathah; see also Gaster, 'Die Unterschiedslosigkeit zwischen Pathach u. Segol,' in $Z A W$. 1894, p. 60 ff.
${ }^{1}$ On the erroneous use of the term melo pum, only in Germany, for šureq (hence also pronounced melu pum to indicate $\hat{u}$ ), see E. Nestle, ZDMG. 1904, p. 597 ff. ; Bacher, ibid., p. 799 ff., Melopum ; Simonsen, ibid., p. 807 ff.
${ }^{2}$ The usual spelling ${ }^{2}$ phan and takes the words certainly rightly as Hebrew substantives; according to De Lagarde (Gött. gel. Anz. 1886, p. 873, and so previously Luzzatto), קָּק Dageš, \&c., and consequently to be transliterated Qimēs and Pâthah.
${ }^{3}$ Since 1846 we have become acquainted with asystem of vocalization different in many respects from the common method. The vowel signs, all except ${ }^{\prime}$, are there placed abore the consonants, and differ almost throughout in form,
3. The vowels of the first class are, with the exception of ${ }^{-}$in $h$ the middle and $\Pi_{\Gamma}, \kappa_{\Gamma_{\Gamma}}, \Pi_{-}$at the end of the word ( $\$ 9 a-d, f$ ), represented only by vowel signs, but the long vowels of the I- and U-class largely by vowel letters. The vowel sound to which the letter
and some even as regards the sound which they denote: $\underset{=}{e}=\hat{a}, \vec{a}, \underline{\nu}=$ tonebearing $\check{a}$ and $\grave{e}, \cdots=\hat{e}, \bar{e},-=\hat{\imath}, \dot{i}, \ddot{=}=\hat{0}, \bar{o}, \ldots$ or $i=\hat{u}$. In an unsharpened syllable $-=$ toneless $a$ and $\grave{e}$, and also Heṭeph Pathah ; $\ddot{=}=$ toneless $\check{e}$ and

 The accents differ less and stand in some cases under the line of the consonants. Besides this complicated system of the Codex Babylonicus (see below) and other MSS., there is a simpler one, used in Targums. It is still uncertain whether the latter is the foundation of the former (as Merx, Chrest. Targ. xi, and Bacher, ZDMG. 1895, p. 15 ff.), or is a later development of it among the Jews of South Arabia (as Praetorius, ZDMG. 1899, p. 181 ff.). For the older literature on this Babylonian punctuation (נִקּוֹר בַּבְלִ), as it is called, see A. Harkavy and H. L. Strack, Katalog der hebr. Bibelhandschr. der Kaiserl. öffentl. Bibliothek zu St. Petersb., St. Putersb. and Lpz., 1875 , parts i and ii, p. 223 ff. A more thorough study of the system was made possible by H. Strack's facsimile edition of the Prophetarum posteriorum codex Babylonicus Petropolitanus (St. Petersb., 1876, la. fol.) of the year 916, which Firkowitsch discovered in 1839, in the synagogue at Tschufutkale in the Crimea. The MS. has been shown by Ginsburg (Recueil des travaux rédigés en mémoire . . . de Chwolson, Berlin, 1899, p. 149, and Introd., pp. 216 ff., 475 f.) to contain a recension of the Biblical text partly Babylonian and partly Palestinian ; cf. also Barnstein, The Targum of Onkelos to Genesis, London, 1896, p. 6 f. Strack edited a fragment of it in Hosea et Joel prophetae ad fidem cod. Babylon. Petrop., St. Petersb. 1875. Cf. also the publication by A. Merx, quoted above, $\S 7 \mathrm{~h}$, and his Chrestomathia Targumica, Berlin, 1888 ; G. Margoliouth, in the PSBA. xv. 4, and M. Gaster, ibid.; P. Kahle, Der masoret. Text des A. T. nach d. Überlief. der babyl. Juden, Lpz. 1902, with the valuable review by Rahlfs in GGA. 1903, no. 5 ; Nestle, ZDMG. 1905, p. 719. (Babylonian $\psi=y$. According to the opinion formerly prevailing, this Babylonian punctuation exhibits the system which was developed in the Eastern schools, corresponding to and contemporaneous with the Western or Tiberian system, although a higher degree of originality, or approximation to the original of both systems of punctuation, was generally conceded to the latter. Recently, however, Wickes, Accents of the Twenty-one Books, Oxford, 1887, p. 142 ff, has endeavoured to show, from the accents, that the ' Babylonian' punctuation may certainly be an Oriental, but is by no means the Oriental system. It is rather to be regarded, according to him, as a later and not altogether successful attempt to modify, and thus to simplify, the system common to all the Schools in the East and West. Strack, Wiss. Jahresb. der ZDMG. 1879, p. 124, established the probability that the vowels of the superlinear punctuation arose under Arab influence from the vowel letters (so previously Pinsker and Graetz), while the Tiberian system shows Syrian influence.

A third, widely different system (Palestinian), probably the basis of the other two, is described by A. Neubauer, JQR, vii. 1895, p. 361 ff., and Friedländer, ibid., p. 564 ff., and PSBA. 1896, p. 86 ff. ; C. Levias, Journ. of Sem. Lang. and Lit., xv. p. 157 ff.; and esp. P. Kahle, Beitr. zu der Gesch. der hebr. Punktation,' in $Z A W$. 1901 , p. 273 ff. and in Der masoret. Text des A.T. (see above), chiefly dealing with the Berlin MS. Or. qu. 680, which contains a number of variants on the biblical text, and frequently agrees with the transcriptions of the LXX and Jerome.
points is determined more precisely by the vowel sign standing before, above, or within it. Thas-

1 with Šurĕq and $H$ Yolĕm ( $\ddagger$ and 9 ). ${ }^{1}$
In Arabic the long $a$ also is regularly expressed by a vowel letter, viz. 'Alěph $\left(\mathcal{K}_{\Gamma}\right)$, so that in that language three vowel letters correspond to the three vowel classes. In Hebrew $\mathcal{K}$ is rarely used as a vowel letter; see § $9 b$ and $\S 23 \mathrm{~g}$.
4. The omission of the vowel letters when writing $\hat{\imath}, \hat{\imath}, \hat{e}, \hat{o}$ is called scriptio defectiva in contrast to scriptio plena. לip, קים are written

Cf. Bardowitz, Studien zur Gesch. der Orthogr. im Althebr., 1894 ; Lidzbarski, Ephem., i. 182, 275; Marmorstein, 'Midrasch der vollen u. defekt. Schreibung,’ in $Z 4 W$. 1907, p. 33 ff.
$k \quad$ So far as the choice of the full or defective mode of writing is concerned, there are certainly some cases in which only the one or the other is admissible, Thus the full form is necessary at the end of the word, for $\hat{u}, \hat{o}, \bar{o}, \hat{\imath}, \hat{e}, \bar{e}$, as well as for $\grave{e}$ in $n \underset{i}{\text { in }} \& \mathrm{cc}$. ( $(9 f)$, also generally



 defective writing is common when the letter, which would have to be employed as a vowel letter, immediately precedes as a strong consonant,

$l$ That much is here arbitrary (see $\S 7 \mathrm{~g}$ ), follows from the fact that sometimes
 הַקִמוֹתִי Jer $23^{4}$; cf. § 25 b. Only it may be observed,
(a) That the scriptio plena in two successive syllables was generally


(b) That in the later Books of the O.T. (and regularly in post-biblical Hebrew) the full form, in the earlier the defective, is more usual.
5. In the cognate dialects, when a vowel precedes a vowel-letter
 a diphthong ( $a u, a i)^{2}$ is formed if the heterogeneous vowel be $a$. This is also to be regarded as the Old Hebrew pronunciation, since it

[^27]
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 however, it can only stand when this has the tone, עוֹלָם ם yhereas in an open syllable it is especially frequent before the tone, e.g. דָָָּּ,
 most commonly in what is called the construct state of nouns, cf. $\hat{\S} 89 a$ ) the original short $\breve{a}$ (Pathal) is retained in a closed syllable, while in
 ( $\left.\mathfrak{b}^{a} k h a ̈ m\right)$; retention, in the secondary tone-syllable, of $\bar{a}$ lengthened from $\breve{a}$, see § $93 x x$.
d In some terminations of the verb (TTin the 2 nd siug. masc. perf., $\boldsymbol{j}$ in the 2 nd pl. fem. of the imperat., as well as in the grd and $2 n d$
 the final $\bar{a}$ can stand even without a vowel letter. A $n$ is, however, in these cases (except with $\frac{\pi}{\text { ) }}$ ) frequently added as a vowel letter.
On - for $\begin{gathered}\text { ö see below, } f \text {. }\end{gathered}$
e 2. Pathah, or short $\breve{a}$, stands in Hebrew almost exclusively in a closed syllable with or without the tone (p) where it now appears to stand in an open syllable the syllable was originally closed, and a helping vowel ( $\breve{a}, \stackrel{\imath}{c}$ ) has been inserted after the second radical merely to make the pronunciation easier, e.g. (ground-form nall), $n$ 을 (Arab. bait), see $\S 28 d$, and with regard to two cases of a different kind, $\S 26 \mathrm{~g}, \mathrm{~h}$. Otherwise $\check{a}$ in an open syllable has almost without exception passed into $\bar{a}(-)$, see above, $c$.

On the very frequent attenuation of $\vec{a}$ to $i$, cf. below, $h$. On the rare, and only apparent union of Pathah with $N\left(\aleph_{-}\right)$, see $\S 23 d$, end. On $\breve{a}$ as a helping-vowel, § $22 f$ (Pathah furtivum), and $\S 28 e$.
3. Segôl $(\check{e}, \stackrel{e}{e}[\bar{d}])$.by origin belongs sometimes to the second, but most frequently to the first vowel class ( $\$ 270, p, u$ ). It belongs to the first class when it is a modification of $a$ (as the Germ. Bad, pl. Büder; Eng.man, pl. men), either in a toneless syllable, e.g. शֶָּ (for yadkhèm), or with
 Segô is often retained even in the strongest tone-syllable, at the end of a sentence or of an important clause (in pause), as ( mälülah, sádăqq). As a rule, however, in sach cases the Pathah which underlies the Segol is lengthened into Qames, e.g. apparently lengthened from ${ }^{\text {e }} e_{w a}$, but in reality traceable to an original $\check{a}$, stands in pausal forms, as (yăhy), \&c. On the cases where a '(originally consonantal) follows this Segôl, see § $75 f$, and § $9 \mathrm{I} k$.

## II. Second Class. I- and E-sounds.

4. The long $\hat{\imath}$ is frequently even in the consonantal writing indicated $g$ by ' (a fully written Hireq --) ; but a naturally long $\hat{\imath}$ can be also

 may be best known from the origin of the form ; often also from the nature of the syllable (§ 26), or as in $\mathfrak{i n}$ ?: from the Metheg attached to it (§ $16 f$ ).
5. The short Hireq (always ${ }^{1}$ written defectively) is especially frequent $l$
 psalm); cf. however a helping Segôl, for wayyiphn. It has arisen very frequently by attenuation from $\breve{a}$, as in $s \breve{d} d q),{ }^{2}$ or else it is the original $\breve{\imath}$, which in the tone-syllable had
 is sometimes a simple helping vowel, as in ת $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$, $\S 28$ e.
The earlier grammarians call every Hireq written fully, Hireq magnum; every one written defectively, Hireq parvum,-a misleading distinction, so far as quantity is concerned.
 Is $3^{8}$; at the end of a word also $n$ _) is as a rule contracted from - $a y$ (ai), § 7 a, e.g. הֵיכָל (palace), Arab. and Syriac haikal.
6. The Sere without Yôdh mostly represents the tone-long $\bar{e}$, which, $k$ like the tone-long $\bar{a}$ (see $c$ ), is very rarely retained except in and before the tone-syllable, and is always lengthened from an original $\check{\imath}$. It stands in an open syllable with or before the tone, e.g. form sǐphr) book, שיָָּׁ (Arab. sinăt) sleep, or with Metheg (see § i6 $d, f$ )
 On the other hand in a closed syllable it is almost always with the tone, as

Exceptions: (a) $\bar{e}$ is sometimes retained in a toneless closed syllable, in $l$ monosyllabic words before Maqqeph, e.g. ${ }^{-} \underset{\sim}{\text { y }} \mathrm{Nu} 35^{18}$, as well as in the examples of $n \bar{a} s o ̂ g ' \bar{a} h \stackrel{\partial}{r}$ mentioned in $\S 29 f$ (on the quantity cf. $\S 8 b 3$ end); (b) In a toneless open final syllable, Șere likewise occurs in examples of the

8. The Segôl of the $\mathrm{I}(\mathrm{E})$-class is most frequently an $\check{e}$ modified from $m$ original $\check{\imath}$, either replacing a tone-long $\bar{e}$ which has lost the tone, e.g.

[^28]
 Se gôl appears as a simple helping-vowel in cases such as for siphr, ִּ for yigl (§ $28 e$ ).

## III. Third Class. U- and 0 -sounds.

9. For the U-sound there is-
(1) the long $\hat{\imath}$, either (a) written fully, $\mathfrak{i}$ Kureq, e.g. (bapis (boundary),

(2) the short $\breve{u}$, mostly represented by Qibbus, in a toneless closed syllable and especially common in a sharpened syllable, in e.g. שֻׁלְ (table), סֻכּה (booth).
 יָּלּ
 only follows, that this $\check{u}$ was pronounced somewhat indistinctly. The LXX also express the sharp Hireq by $\epsilon$, e.g. ${ }^{\text {. }}$. $=$ ' $\mathbf{E} \mu \mu \eta \eta^{\prime} \rho$. The pronunciation of the Qibbus like the German $\ddot{u}$, which was formerly common, is incorrect, although the occasional pronunciation of the $U$-sounds as $\ddot{u}$ in the time of the punctators is attested, at least as regards Palestine ${ }^{1}$; cf. the Turkish bülbül for the Persian bulbul, and the pronunciation of the Arabic dunyä in Syria as dünyā.
10. The $O$-sound bears the same relation to $U$ as the $E$ does to $I$ in the second class. It has four varieties:-
(I) The $\hat{o}$ which is contracted from $a w$ ( $=a u$ ), § $7 a$, and accordingly is mostly written fully; i (Holem plenum), e.g. טivi (awhip), Arab. saut, עַלָּ (iniquity) from שְׁרֹ (thine ox) from Arab. taur.
(2) The long $\hat{o}$ which arose in Hebrew at an early period, by a general process of obscuring, out of an original $\hat{a}^{2}{ }^{2}$ while the latter has been retained in Arabic and Aramaic. It is usually written fully in the tone-syllable, defectively in the toneless, e.g. קup Arab. qatzl. Aram. qatēl,


 times the form in $a$ also occurs side by side with that in $\hat{o}$ as $\prod_{\tau}$ שִׁ and שִׁרְיֹ (coat of mail; see however § 29 u). Cf. also § 68 b.
$r$ (3) The tone-long $\bar{o}$ which is lengthened from an original $\check{u}$, or from an $\check{o}$ arising from $\breve{u}$, by the tone, or in general according to the

[^29]laws for the formation of syllables. It occurs not only in the tonesyllable, but also in an open syllable before the tone, e.g. קרְשׁ (groundform qưdš) sanctuary; (with Metheg) in the secondary tone-syllable; אָהָלִים, But the original $\check{o}(\breve{u})$ is retained an a toneless closed syllab.e, whereas in a toneless open syllable it is weakened to $\check{S}^{e} u \cdot \alpha$. Cf. לذ all, but
 weakened to $\breve{S}^{e} w a$ : yiqielu, Arab. yaqtülu. This tone-long $\bar{o}$ is only as an exception written fully.
(4) - Qames-hatuph represents ŏ (properly $\check{a}$, cf. § $8 a$, note 2 ) modified $s$ from $\check{u}$ and is therefore classed here. It stands in the same relation to Holem as the Segôl of the second class to Sere, ${ }^{-}$.⿹ָָ kobl, , On the distinction between this and Qames, see below, $u$.
11. The following table gives a summary of the gradation of the $t$ three vowel-classes according to the quantity of the vowels :-

| First Class : A. | Second Class : I and E. | Third Class: U and 0. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \tau^{\top} \text { original } \hat{a} \text { (Arabic } \\ & \kappa_{\top} \text { ). } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \ldots \hat{e}, \text { from original } a y \\ & \text { _(ai). } \\ & \text { or } \ldots \text { long } \hat{\imath} . \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \{\hat{o}, \text { from original } a w \\ & \text { (au). } \\ & \text { ior-obscured from } \hat{a} . \\ & \text { or or } \hat{u} . \end{aligned}$ |
| $T_{T}$ tone-long $\vec{a}$ (from original $\breve{a}$ ) chiefly in the tone-syllable but also just before it. | _.. tone-long $\bar{e}$ (from $\check{i}$ ) generally in the tonesyllable but also just before it. | - tone-long $\bar{o}$ (from original $\breve{u}$ ) in the tonesyllable, otherwise in an open syllable. |
| - (as. a modification of $\check{a}$ ) sometimes a tone-long è, sometimes ${ }^{2}$. $\qquad$ short $\check{a}$. <br> [ $-i$ attenuated from ă; see $h$.] Utmost weakening to $={ }^{a},{ }_{\because=-}^{e},{ }^{e}$. | $\because$ <br> _ short i. <br> Utmost weakening to $\because{ }^{a}, \stackrel{e}{\ell}, \text { or }$ | $\mathcal{T}^{\check{o}}$, modified from $\check{u}$. <br> - short $\check{u}$, especially in a sharpened syllable. <br> Utmost weakening to |

Rem. On the distinction between Qames and Qames-hatuph. ${ }^{1}$
Acrording to $\$ 8 a$, long $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{a}$ (Qames) and short $\check{\circ}$ or $\stackrel{y}{\check{a}}$ (Pames-hatuph) are in manuccripts and printed texts generally expressed by the same sign ( $\left(_{r}\right.$ ), e.g.


[^30]origin of the words in question (which is of course the surest guide), may depend meanwhile on the following principal rules:-

1. The sign $\tau^{1}$ is ŏ in a toneless closed syllable, since such a syllable can have only a short vowel (§ 26 o). The above case occurs-
 (wisdom), אָבְּ 'o $o k h-l a \hat{a}$ (food). With Metheg -i is $\bar{a}(\bar{a})$ and according to the usual view stands in an open. syllable with a following $\check{S}^{e} w a$ mobile, e.g. אָּכְּ 'â-khelá (she ate); but cf. § 16 i.
(b) When a closed syllable is formed by Dages forte, e.g. חָ hönnēn $\hat{\imath}$ (have mercy upou me); but battîno.
(c) When the syllable in question loses the tone on account of a following Maqqēph (§ $16 a$ ), e. g.

In $\psi 35^{10}$ and $\operatorname{Pr} 19^{7}$ Maqqēph with ${ }^{\text {On }}$ is replaced by a conjunctive accent (Merekha) ; so by Darga, Ju I $9^{5}$ with

 (and he stood up).-In the cases where $a$ or $\bar{a}$ in the final syllable has become toneless through Maqqēph (§ $16 a$ ) and yet remains, e.g. Est $4^{8}$, בְּזֹב־הַדָּת and printed texts.
 read as $\bar{a}$.
$V$ 2. The cases in which $T_{T}$ appears to stand in an open syllable and yet is to be read as ŏ require special consideration. This is the case, (a) when Hateph-Qames follows, e.g.
 cases mentioned in $\S 48 i$, n., and $\S 6 \mathrm{I} f, \mathrm{n}$. ; other examples are $\mathrm{Ob} \mathrm{II}_{\mathrm{I}}, \mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{i}_{1}{ }^{16}$ );
 $24^{11}$, and ${ }^{2}$ hatuph, e.g.

 accompanying the $T$ as indicating a Qāmess rahabh (broad Qameṣ) and
 neither the origin of these forms, nor the analogous formations in Hebrew and in the cognate languages, nor the transcription of proper names in the

[^31]LXX, allows us to regard this view as correct. It is just possible that Qames is here used loosely for $\bar{a}$, as the equivalent of $\bar{o}$, on the analogy of $\overline{\text { Bin }}$ \& ., $\S 93 q$. As a matter of fact, however, we ought no doubt to divide and read
 be a sign of the lengthening into $\bar{a}$ in ${ }^{1}$ $b \bar{a} \cdot{ }^{\circ} n \hat{\imath}$ (in the navy), since here the $\bar{a}$ of the article appears under the $\mathcal{I}$.

## § 10. The Half Vowels and the Syllable Divider (Šewâ).

1. Besides the full vowels, Hebrew has also a series of vowel $a$ sounds which may be called half vowels (Sievers, Murmelvokale). The punctuation makes use of these to represent extremely slight sounds which are to be regarded as remains of fuller and more distinct vowels from an earlier period of the language. They generally take the place of vowels originally short standing in open syllables. Such short vowels, though preserved in the kindred languages, are not tolerated by the present system of pointing in Hebrew, but either undergo a lengthening or are weakened to Šewâ. Under some circumstances, however, the original short vowel may reappear.
To these belongs first of all the sign - - , which indicates an ex- $b$ tremely short, slight, and (as regards pronunciation) indeterminate vowel sound, something like an obscure half $\check{e}(\underline{e})$. It is called ${ }^{\zeta}{ }^{e} w a d,{ }^{1}$ which may be either simple $\breve{S}^{\zeta} w a\left({ }^{\prime}{ }^{e} w a\right.$ simplex $)$ as distinguished from the compound (see $f$ ), or vocal $\breve{S}^{e} w a$ ( $\dot{S}^{e} w a$ mobile) as distinguished from $\breve{S}^{e}$ wa quiescens, which is silent and stands as a mere syllable divider (see $i$ ) under the consonant which closes the syllable.

The vocal $\zeta^{e} w a$ stands under a consonant which is closely united, as $c$ a kind of grace-note, with the following syllable, either (a) at the
 or (b) in the middle of the word, as

In former editions of this Grammar $\check{S}{ }^{e}{ }_{2 v \hat{a}}$ was distinguished as medium $d$ when it followed a short vowel and therefore stood in a supposed 'loosely closed' or 'wavering' syllable, as in 'صַלְּנְּלִל , According to Sievers, Metrische Studien, i. 22, this distinction must now be abandoned. These syllables are really closed, and the original vowel is not merely shortened, but entirely elided. The fact that a following $\mathrm{B}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{gadk}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{phath}$ letter ( $\S 6 n$ ) remains spirant instead of taking Dageš lene, is explained by Sievers on the 'supposition that the change from hard to spirant is older than the elision
${ }^{1}$ On see Bacher, ZDMG. 1895, p. 18, note 3, who compares Šewayya, the name of the Syriac accentual sign of similar form : ( $=$ Hebr. Zaqeph ). The form N to a supposed connexion with Aram. have denoted only Še êa quiescens, like the Arabic sukūn (rest). The derivation $^{\text {q }}$
 impossible.
of the vowel, and that the prelistoric malakai became malakhai before being shortened to malkhé. In cases like כִּסְטוֹ (from dropping of the Dages forte shows that the original vowel is completely lost.
$e$ The sound $\check{e}$ has been adopted as the normal transcription of simple $\dot{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$ mobile, although it is certain that it often became assimilated in sound to other vowels. The LXX express it by $\epsilon$, or even by $\eta$, הַלִלֶּ יָּה,
 assimilating its indeterminate sound to the following principal vowel,
放 by Jewish grammarians of the middle ages. ${ }^{2}$
How the $\tilde{S}^{e}$ icia sound has arisen through the vanishing of a full vowel is seen, e.g. in בִּרָָ In that language the full short vowel regularly corresponds to the Hebrew $\check{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$ mobile.
2. Connected with the simple $S^{e} w a$ môbile is the compound ${ }^{\text {Se }} w a$ or $\vec{H} a t e \bar{e} p h$ (correptum), i.e. a $S^{e} w a$ the pronunciation of which is more accurately fixed by the addition of a short vowel. There are three $S^{\ell} w d$-sounds determined in this way, corresponding to the three vowel classes (§7a):

$\left(-{ }_{\%}\right) H a t e \bar{p} h-S^{e} g o ̂ l$, e.g.

These $H A t e^{e} p h s$, or at least the first two, stand especially under the four guttural letters (§ $22 l$ ), instead of a simple ${ }^{\zeta}{ }^{e} w a$ mobile, since these letters by their nature require a more definite vowel than the indeterminate simple ${ }^{\text {S }}$ e $w a$ mobile. Accordingly a guttural at the beginning of a syllable, where the ${ }^{\zeta} e w a$ is necessarily vocal, can never have a mere ${ }^{S} e w a$ simplex.

On - the shorter Hatef as compared with $\bar{\pi}$ cf. § 27 v.
$g$ Rem. A. Only - and $\varlimsup_{T}$ occur under letters which are not gutturals. Hateph-Pathah is found instead of simple $S^{\circ}{ }^{e} w \hat{a}$ (especially ${ }^{5}{ }^{e} w a \hat{a}$ mobile), chiefly (a) under strengthened consonants, since this strengthening (commonly called doubling) causes a more distinct pronunciation of the Sewa mobile,
 however, appears to be unknown to good early MSS. and is therefore rejected by Ginsburg, Introd., p. 466; cf. Foote, Johns Hopkins Oniv. Circulars, June 1903,

[^32]
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following guttural as well as of the preceding U -sound. (Elsewhere indeed after $\mathfrak{i}$ in similar cases HYa!eph-Pathall is preferred, see above, $b$; but with
 admitted to have an influence on the ${ }^{\prime} e_{w a}$ immediately following.) In ( וְטָהר ( IS $28^{8} Q^{e} r e ̂$, the original form is $\square$ po, where again the $\bar{o}$ represents an or. It is only through the influence of a following guttural that we can explain


 examples which have been adduced, the influence of an emphatic sound

$i$ 3. The sign of the simple $S^{\nu} e v a=$ serves also as a mere syllable divider. In this case it is disregarded in pronunciation and is called $S^{e} w a$ quiescens. In the middle of a word it stands under every consonant which closes a syllable; at the end of words on the other hand it is omitted except in final 7 (to distinguish it better from final $)_{\text {), }}$, e.g. מֶלֶ king, and in the less frequent case, where a word ends with a mute after another vowelless consonant as in
 took captive,
K. Howerer, in the examples where a mute closes the syllable, the final ${ }^{5} e{ }_{e} \hat{a}$ comes somewhat nearer to a vocal ${ }^{S}{ }^{e} w a \hat{a}$, especially as in almost all the cases a weakening of a final vowel has taken place, viz.
 $\underset{\sim}{\wedge}$


 mute of itself attracis a slight vowel sound.
$l$ Rem. The proper distinction between simple Še $^{\dagger}$ wâ mobile and quiescens depends on a correct understanding of the formation of syllables ( $\$ 26$ ). The beginner may observe for the present, that (I) Še $w \hat{a}$ is always mobile (a) at the beginning of a word (except in שׁשׁת Dagess forte, e.g. (except at the end of the word, see above, i). (2) $\check{S}^{e}{ }_{w v \hat{a}}$ is quiescens (a) at the end of a word, also in the $\overline{7} ;(b)$ before another $\xi^{e} w \hat{a}$.

## § 11. Other Signs which affect the Reading.

Very closely connected with the vowel points are the reading-signs, which were probably introduced at the same time. Besides the diạcritical point over $\dot{\psi}$ and $ש$, a point is placed within a consonant
 § 75 m .
to show that it has a stronger sound. On the other hand a horizontal stroke (Rāphè) over a consonant is a sign that it has not the stronger sound. According to the different purposes for which it is used the point is either (1) Dage§ forte, a sign of strengthening (§ 12 ); or (2) Dages lene, a sign of the harder pronunciation of certain consonants ( $\begin{aligned} & \text { 13 }\end{aligned}$ ); or (3) Mappiq, a sign to bring out the full consonantal value of letters which otherwise serve as vowel letters ( $\$ 7 b$ ), especially in the case of $\boldsymbol{i}$ at the end of the word ( $(14 a)$. The Rāphe, which excludes the insertion of any of these points, has almost entirely gone out of use in our printed texts ( $\$ 14 e$ ).
§ 12. Dages in general, ${ }^{1}$ and Dageš forte in particular.
Cf. Graetz, ' Die mannigfache Anwendung u. Bedeut. des Dagesch,' in Monatsschr. für Gesch. u. Wiss. d. Judent., 1887, pp. 425 ff. and 473 ff.

1. DageS, a point standing in the middle of a consonant, ${ }^{2}$ denotes, $a$ according to $\S \mathrm{I}_{1},(a)$ the strengthening ${ }^{3}$ of a consonant (Dageš forte), e.g. . Pittel (§ 20 ); or (b) the harder pronunciation of the letters (Dages lene). For a variety of the latter, now rarely used in our printed texts, see § 13 c .
The root 7 in Syriac means to pierce through, to bore through (with sharp $b$ iron) ; hence the name Dages is commonly explained, solely with reference to its form, iv puncture, point. But the names of all similar signs are derived rather from their grammatical significance. Accordingly may in the Masora have the sense : acuere (iiteram), i. e. to sharpen a letter, as well as to harden it, i.e. to pronounce it as hard and without aspiration. דָּגָּ acuens (iteram) would then be a sign of sharpening and hardening (like Mappiq מַפִּיק proferens, as signum protationis), for which purposes a prick of the pen, or

2. In grammar Dages forte, the sign of strengthening, is the more $\boldsymbol{c}$ important. It may be compared to the sicilicus of the Latins (Lucuilus for Lucullus) or to the stroke over $\bar{m}$ and $\bar{n}$. In the unpointed text it is omitted, like the vowels and other reading signs.
For the different kinds of Dageš forte, see § 20.
[^33]
## § 13. Dageš lone.

Ginsburg, Introd., p. 114 ff. : Dagesh and Raphe.

1. Dageš lone, the sign of hardening, is in ordinary printed texts
 should be pronounced with their original hard sound (without aspira-


2. The cases in which a Doges lone is to be inserted are stated in § 21. It occurs almost exclusively at the beginning of words and syllables. In the middle of the word it can easily be distinguished from Dageš forte, since the latter always has a vowel before it, whereas
 must be forte, but in יִגְּ yigdal it is lene.
C A variety of the Dagey dene is used in many manuscripts, as well as in Beer's editions, though others (including Ginsburg in the first two cases, Introd., pp. 121, 130, 603, 662) reject it together with the Haters discussed in § 10 g .
 expressly to the beginning of a new syllable: (a) when the same consonant precedes in close connexion, e. g. the coalescing of the two Lamed is avoided; (b) in cases like ${ }^{9}$ $m a h-s i\left(n o t m a ̆ h h^{n}\right.$-sit) ; (c) according to some (including Beer; not in ed. Want.)
 also in Ginsburg's text, except in On $3^{8^{\circ}}$ ); see also $\S 20 e$ and $g$. -Delitzsch appropriately gives the name of Doges orthophonicum to this variety of Dagos (Bibl. Kommentar, 1874, on $\psi 94^{12}$ ) ; cf. moreover Delitzsch, Luth. Ztschr., 1863, p. 413 ; also his Complutensische Varianten au dem Alttest. Texte, Lpz. 1878, p. 12 a
d 3. When Dageš forte is placed in a $B^{e} g a d k^{e} p h a t h$, the strengthening


## § 14. Mappîq and Rāphè.

$a$ 1. Mappîq, like Dages, also a point within the consonant, serves in the letters $\boldsymbol{\prime}$ ו as a sign that they are to be regarded as full consonants and not as vowel letters. In most editions of the text it is only used in the consonantal $n$ at the end of words (since $ה$ can never be a vowel letter in the middle of a word), ecg. ${ }^{\text {a }}$. $g \bar{a} b h a h$ (to be high), ארָָ 'arṣāh (her land) which has a consonantal ending (shortened from -hah), different from has a vowel ending.
$b$ Rem. r. Without doubt such a $H e$ was distinctly aspirated like the Arabic $H \tilde{i}$ at the end of a syllable. There are, however, cases in which this in as lost its consonantal character (the Mappiq of course disappearing too), so that it remains only as a vowel letter; cf. § 91 e on the 3 rd fem. sing.
C The name means proferens, ice. a sign which brings out the sound of the letter distinctly, as a consonant. The same sign was selected for this
and for Dage5, since both are intended to indicate a hard, i. e. a strong, sound. Hence Räphè (see e) is the opposite of both.
i. In MSS. Mappiq is also found with $\mathfrak{N}, \mathfrak{l}, \mathfrak{y}$, to mark them expressly as $d$
 For the various statements of the Masora (where these points are treated as Dageš), see Ginsburg, The Massorah, letter ^, § 5 (also Introd., pp. 557, 609, 637, 770 ), and 'The Dageshed Alephs in the Karlsruhe MS.' (where these points are extremely frequent), in the Verhandlungen des Berliner Orientalisten-Kongresses, Berlin, i. 188 r, p. 136 ff . The great differonces in the statements found in the Masora point to different schools, one of which appears to have intended that every audible $\mathcal{K}$ should be pointed. In the printed editions the point occurs only four times with $\mathcal{N}$ ( $\dot{\mathcal{K}}$ or $\mathbb{N}$ ), Gn $43^{26}$, Lv $23^{17}$, Ezr $\delta^{18}$ and Jb $33^{21}$ ( F ר ; where the point can be taken only as an orthophonetic sign, not with König as Dage§ forte). Cf. Delitzsch, Hiob, 2nd ed., p. 439 ff.
2. Rāphè (רֶֶ i.e. weak, soft), a horizontal stroke over the letter, $e$ is the opposite of looth kinds of Dages and Mappîq, but especially of Dages lene. In exact manuscripts every בגדכפת letter has either
 (except Ginsburg's ist ed.) Räphè is used only when the abseuce of a Dageš or Mappîq requires to be expressly pointed out.
§15. The Accents.
On the ordinary accents (see below, e), cf. W. Heidenheim, בִשְׁpa [The Laws of the Accents], Rodelheim, 1808 (a compilation from older Jewish writers on the accents, with a commentary); W. Wickes (see also below),促 exhaustive investigation in English; J. M. Japhet, Die Accente der hl. Schrift (exclusive of the books $\dot{\mathrm{j}} \dot{\mathrm{K}}$ ), ed. by Heinemann, Frankf. a. M. 1896; Prätorius, Die Herkunft der hebr. Accente, Berlin, 1901, and (in answer to Gregory's criticism in the TLZ. 1901, no. 22) Die Uebernahme der früh-mittelgriech. Neumen durch die Juden, Berlin, 1902 ; P. Kahle, 'Zur Gesch. der hebr. Accente,' ZDMG. 55 (1901), 167 ff. (I, on the earliest Jewish lists of accents; 2, on the mutual relation of the various systems of accentuation; on p. 179 ff . he deals with the accents of the 3 rd system, see above, $\S 8 g$, note); Margolis, art. 'Accents,' in the Jewish Encycl. i (1901), 149 ff. ; J. Adams, Sermons in Accents, London, 1g06.—On the accents of the Books ת ת $^{\prime \prime}$ (see below, h), S. Baer, [Accentual Laws of the Books תורת אמת appendix to Delitzsch's Psalmencommentar, vol. ii, Lpz. 1860, and in the 5 th ed., 1894 (an epitome is given in Baer-Delitzsch's Liber Psalmorum hebr., Lpz. 1861, 1874, 1880) ; cf. also Delitzsch's most instructive 'Accentuologischer Commentar' on Psalms I-3, in his Psalmencommentar of 1874, as well as the numerous contributions to the accentual criticism of the text, \&c., in the editions of Baer and Delitzsch, and in the commentaries of the latter; W. Wickes, טעמי אמ"ת [Accents of the Poet. Books], Oxford, 188ı; Mitchell, in the Journal of Bibl. Lit., 1891, p. 144 ff. ; Baer and Strack, Dikduke ha-téamim, p. 17 ff.

1. As Prätorius (see above) has convincingly shown, the majority of $b$ the Hebrew accents, especially, according to Kahle (see above), the 'Conjunctivi', were adopted by the Jews from the neums and punctua-tion-marks found in Greek gospel-books, and, like these, their primary purpose was to regulate minutely the pablic reading of the sacred
text. The complete transformation and amplification of the system (in three different forms, see $\S 8 g$, note), which soon caused the Jews to forget its real origin, is clearly connected with the gradual change from the speaking voice in public reading to chanting or singing. The accents then served as a kind of musical notes. ${ }^{1}$ Their value as such has, however, with the exception of a few traces, become lost in transmission. On the other hand, according to their original design they have also a twofold use which is still of the greatest importance for grammar (and syntax), viz. their value (a) as marking the tone, (b) as marks of punctuation to indicate the logical (syntactical) relation of single words to their immediate surroundings, and thus to the whole sentence. ${ }^{2}$
c 2. As a mark of the tone the accent stands almost invariably (but see below, $e$ ) with the syllable which has the principal tone in the word. This is usually the ultima, less frequently the penultima. Amongst the Jewish grammarians a word which has the tone on the ultima is
 which has the tone on the penultima is Mil'êl (Aram. מִלְ, accented above), e.g.' ֶֶּ mèlēkl. Besides this, in many cases a secondary tone is indicated in the word by Mèthĕg (cf. §.16). Examples such as ר的 the Jewish grammarians as even proparoxytone. ${ }^{4}$
d 3. As marks of interpunctuation the accents are subdivided into those which separate (Distinctivi or Domini) and those which connect (Conjunctivi or Servi). Further a twofold system of accentuation is to be noted: (a) the common system found in twenty-one of the Books (the $\mathrm{J}^{\prime \prime}$ i.e. twenty-one), and (b) that used in the first three Books of the Hagiographa, viz. Psalms, Proverbs, and Job, for which the vox memor. is אֲמֶת, from the initial consonants of the names, תְּהִלִּים Psalms, מִשְׁי Proverbs, בִי' Job, or more correctly, according to their
 accents (sing. טַטַ) of these three Books. The latter system is not only richer and more complicated in itself, but also musically more significant than the ordinary accentuation.
[^34]
## I. The Common Accents.

Preliminary remark. The accents which are marked as prepositive stand to $\boldsymbol{e}$ the right over or under the initial consonant of the word; those marked as postpositive, to the left over or under the last consonant. Consequently in both cases the tone-syllable must be ascertained independently of the accent (but cf. below, $l$ ).
A. Disjunctive Accents (Distinctivi or Domini). ${ }^{1}$
I. ( - ) ọלּ Sillûq (end) always with the tone-syllable of the last word before Sôph pāsûq (:), the verse-divider, e.g.: הָאָּ
2. (-) אַחת divider within the verse.
 ordinate division, counting backwards from 'Athnâh (e.g. Gn $\mathbf{1}^{7.28}$ ).
3b. (1-) (i.e. chain), as disjunctive, or Great Salseleth, distinguished by the following stroke ${ }^{2}$ from the conjunctive in the poetic accentuation, is used for
${ }^{1}$ All the disjunctives occur in Is $39^{2}$.-The earlier Jowish accentuologists already distinguish between מְלִָים Reges and מְטְרִחִים Servi. The division of the disjunctive accents into Imperatores, Reges, Duces, Comites, which became common amongst Christian grammarians, originated in the Scrutinium S. S. ex accentibus of Sam. Bohlius, Rostock, 1636, and, as the source of manifold confusion, had better be given up. The order of the accents in respect to their disjunctive power is shown in general by the above classification, following Wickes. In respect to the height of tone (in chanting) i, 2, $5,4,8$, which were low and long sustained notes, are to be distinguished from the high notes ( $7,3^{\mathrm{a}}, 6,13,9$, and the highest ( $3^{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{II}, 12,10$ ) ; cf. Wickes,
 restricted to the disjunctives, see Kahle, l. c., p. 169.
${ }^{2}$ This stroke is commonly confused with Paseq, which has the same form. But Pâsēq ( $=$ restraining, dividing, also incorrectly called $\mathbf{P a}^{\text {sinqiq }}$ ) is neither an independent accent, nor a constituent part of other accents, but is used as a mark for various purposes; see the Masoretic lists at the end of Baer's editions, and Wickes, Accents of the Twenty-one Books, p. 120 ff., where Paseeq is divided into distinctivum, emphaticum, homonymicum, and euphonicum. The conjecture of Olshausen (Lehrb., p. 86 f.), that Pâsēq served also to point out marginal glosses subsequently interpolated into the text, has been further developed by E. von Ortenberg, ' Die Bedeutung des Paseq für Quellenscheidung in den BB. d. A. T.,' in Progr. des Domgymn. zu Verden, 1887, and in the article, 'Paseq u. Legarmeh,' in ZAW. 1887, p. 301 ff. (but see Wickes, ibid. 1888, p. 149 ff. ; also E. König, in the Ztschr. f. kirchl. Wiss. u. kirchl. Leben, 1889, parts 5 and 6 ; Maas, in Hé̈raica, v. 121 ff., viii. 89 ff.). Prätorius, ZDMG. 1899, p 683 ff ., pointed out that Paseq (which is pre-masoretic and quite distinct from $L^{e}$ garmēh) besides being a divider (used especially for the sake of greater clearness) also served as a sign of abbreviation. For further treatment of Paseq see H. Grimme, ' Pasekstudien,' in the Bibl. Ztschr., i. 337 ff ,, ii. 28 ff ., and Psalmenprobleme, \&c., Freiburg (Switzerland), 1902, p. 173, where it is argued that Paseq indicates variants in a difficult sentence; J. Kennedy, The Note-line in the Heb. Scriptures, Edinb. 1903, with an index of all the occurrences of Paseq, p. 117 ff . According to Kennedy the ' note-line', of which he distinguishes sixteen different kinds, is intended to draw attention to some peculiarity in the text; it existed long before the Masoretes, and was no longer understood by them. See, however, the reviews of E. König, theol.

Segôttā (seven times altogether) when this would stand at the head of the sentence ; cf. Gn $1{ }^{16}, \& c$.

4b. ( ${ }^{-}$) character. As a disjunctive, Little Zâqēph is by nature stronger than Great Zâqēph; but if they stand together, the one which comes first is always the stronger.
 before Sillûq and 'Athnâh, but very often the principal disjunctive of the whole verse instead of 'Athnâh; always so when the verse consists of only two or three words (e.g. Is $2^{19}$ ), but also in longer verses ( $\mathrm{Gn} 3^{21}$ ).

7. (~) $\sim$ Zarqā, postpositive.

8 b. (-) pākh. Yethibl is used in place of Paštã when the latter would stand on a monosyllable or on a foretoned word, not preceded by a conjunctive accent.
9. (-) Tebhîr.

10 $a$. ( - ) ) Ṭères, and
ıob. (") ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ) Gerā̃̌áyim $^{2}$ or Double Gèreš, used for Gèreš, when the tone rests on the ultima, and 'Azlā does not precede.
ıI $a .(\stackrel{\vee}{\sim})$ 군 Pâzēr, and
 (cow-horns), only used 16 times, for special emphasis.

13. (|-_) לְגְרֶמֶה Legarmēh, i.e. Mûnah (see below) with a following stroke.

[^35]
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10. ( ${ }^{-}$) Pâzēr (see above, I, if a).
 stroke.
11b. (|-) 'Azlā legarmēh, i.e. 'Azlā with a following stroke.
$i$
B. Conjonctivi.
12. (-) Mêrekhā (see above, I. r6a).
13. (-I) Mûnaḥ (see above, I. 14).

 distinguished from No. 9).
16. ( $-{ }_{r}$ ) Galgal or Yèraḥ (see above, I. 20).
17. (-) Mehuppākh or Mahpākh (see above, I. I5).
18. (-) 'Azlā (see above, I. 18).
19. (-) Šalšèleth $q^{e}$ tannā (Little Šalšeleth).

The last three are distinguished from the disjunctives of the same name by the absence of the stroke.
[20. ( $\sim$ ) Ṣinnôrlth, see above under No. 7.]

## Remares on the Accents.

## I. As Signs of the Tone.

h. I. As in Greek and English (cf. ci $\boldsymbol{i}^{i}$ and $\epsilon \bar{\tau} \mu$, cómpact and compáct) so also in Hebrew, words which are written with the same consonants are occasionally distinguished by the position of the tone, e.g.

$l$ 2. As a rule the accent stands on the tone-syllable, and properly on its initial consonant. In the case of prepositives and postpositives alone (see above, e) the tone-syllable must be ascertained independently of the accent. In many MSS. as well as in Baer's editions of the text, the postpositive sign in foretoned words stands also over the tone-syllable after the analogy of Paştā (see above, I. 8 a, note); e.g.


## II. As Signs of Punctuation.

3. In respect to this use of the accents, every verse is regarded as a period which closes with Sillûq, or in the figurative language of the grammarians, as a province (ditio) which is governed by the great distinctive at the end. According as the verse is long or short, i. e. the province great or small, there are several subordinate Domini of different grades, as governors of greater and smaller divisions. When possible, the subdivisions themselves are also split up into parts according to the law of dichotomy (see Wickes, The Accents of the Twenty-one Books, p. 29 ff ). -When two or more equivalent accents (Zâqēph, $\mathbf{R}^{\text {eb }}$ hia ${ }^{\circ}$ ) occur consecutively, the accent which precedes marks a greater division than the one which follows; cf. e.g. the Zâqēph, Gn $1^{20 a}$.
$\boldsymbol{n}$ 4. In general a conjunctive (Serous) unites only such words as are closely connected in sense, e.g. a noun with a following genilive or a noun with an
adjective. For the closest connexion between two or more words Maqqēph is added (§ $16 a$ ).
4. The consecution of the several accents (especially the correspondence of $O$ disjunctives with their proper conjunctives) conforms in the most minute details to strict rules, for a further investigation of which we must refer to the above-mentioned works. Here, to avoid misunderstanding, we shall only notice further the rule that in the accentuation of the books $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{Z}}^{\mathrm{Z}} \mathrm{N}$, the
 conjunctives, unless at least two toneless syllables precede the principal disjunctive. For this purpose $\mathrm{S}^{e}$ wâ mobile after Qames, Sere, or Holem (with Metheg) is to be regarded as forming a syllable. After 'Ôlè wyôrēd the 'Athnâh does not necessarily act as pausal (cf. Delitzsch on $\psi 45^{6}$ ). The condition of our ordinary texts is corrupt, and the system of accents can only be studied in correct editions [see Wickes' two treatises].
5. A double accentuation occurs in Gn $35^{22}$, from the later accentuation, intended for public reading, aims at uniting vv. 22 and 23 into one, so as to pass rapidly over the unpleasant statement in $\mathbf{V}$. 22); and in the Decalogue, Ex $20^{2 \mathrm{ff}}$; Dt $5^{6 \mathrm{ff} . \quad \text { Here also the later (mainly }}$ superlinear) accentuation which closes the first verse with עבדים (instead of (פ) is adopted simply for the purposes of public reading, in order to reduce the original twelve verses (with sublinear accentuation) to ten, the number of the Commandments. Thus עֲ עֲ the verse) in the lower accentuation, but in the upper, which unites vv. 2-6 (the actual words of God) into a single period, only $\mathrm{R}^{\circ} \mathrm{bhi}{ }^{4}$. Again ${ }^{1} \mathrm{D}$, regarded as closing v. 3 , is pointed ${ }^{\prime}$ (pausal Qames with Silluq), but in the upper accentuation it is ${ }^{\circ} \underset{\sim}{j}$ with Pathah because not in pause. (Originally
 representing $\nabla \nabla .2$ and 3 as the first commandment.) Further the upper accentuation unites vv. 8-II into one period, while in vo. 12-15 the lower accentuation combines commandments 5-8 into one verse. Cf. Geiger, Urschrift u. Übersetzungen der Bibel, p. 373 ; Japhet, op. cit., p. 158, and esp. K. J. Grimm, Johns Hopkins Eniv. Circ. xix (May, 1900), no. 145.

## § 16. Of Maqqēph and Mèthĕg.

These are both closely connected with the accents.

1. Maqqēph (Dַקַּ i.e. binder) is a small horizontal stroke between the upper part of two words which so connects them that in respect of tone and pointing they are regarded as one, and therefore have only one accent. Two, three, or even four words may be connected
 אֶת־בָּל-אִּשֶר־לֹ all that he had, Gn $25^{5}$.

 always found with a following Maqqēph, provided they have not become independent forms by being combined with prefixes, e.g. מעעִם, מעַ, in which case Maqqēph as a rule does not follow. Occasionally Maqqēph is replaced by a conjunctive accent (see above, $\S 9 u, \mathrm{I} c$ ), as, according to the Masora,
 in the case of $7 \mathbb{N}$, the objective particle. Longer words are, however, con-


 and lean on the following word.
2. Metheg (מֶּ i.e. a bridle), a small perpendicular stroke under the consonant to the left of the vowel, indicates most frequently the secondary stress or counter-tone, as opposed to the principal tone marked by the accents. It serves, however, in other cases to point out that the vowel should not be hastily passed over in pronunciation, but should be allowed its full sound. Hence other names of Mèthĕg are $M a^{\prime} a_{r} \hat{\imath} \hbar h$, i.e. lengthener, and $G a^{\prime} y \bar{a}$, i.e. raising of the voice, which is Great Ga'y $\bar{a}$ with long vowels, otherwise Little $G a^{\circ} y \bar{a} .^{1}$

It is divided into: 1 . The light Mêthĕg. This is subdivided again into (a) the ordinary Methĕg of the counter-tone, as a rule in the second (open)
 in the third when the second is closed, e.g. הָאַרְדָּלָׁים (also in such cases as
 (open) syllable before the tone. This Mèthĕg may be repeated in the fourth syllable before the tone, when it already stands in the second, e. g. שׁב עֹת Finally it is always added to the vowel of an open ultima, which is joined. by Maqqēph to a word beginning with a toneless syllable and so without



$\boldsymbol{e}$ The ordinary light Mèthĕg is omitted with a movable $\rightarrow$ copulative, consequently we do not find בin \&c., according to $b, \delta$, cf. $\$ 10 \mathrm{~g} . \mathrm{b}$ ).
(b) The firm or indispensable Mèthĕg. (a) With all long vowels (except in certain cases, $\ddagger$ copulative, see above), which are followed by a ${ }^{e}{ }^{e}$ wa mobile preceding the tone-syllable; e.g. ריר: long vowel in a closed syllable immediately before Maqqēph, e.g. .

 through retraction of the tone, in order to prevent its being pronounced as
 posite $\check{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$, e.g. strengthened, e.g. יִּקְּרֶּ the retarding of the vowel by Mèthegg) ; so in the cases discussed in $\S 28 c$, where a short vowel has taken the place of a Hateph, as preformative syllable of all forms of to be, and


[^36]§ 63 q. ( ( ) With the Qames of the plural forms of
 nunciation bŏttim, önnā.-Every kind of light Methěg may in certain circumstances be changed into a conjunctive accent, e. g. 2 . 2 Ch $34^{11}$, \&c.
2. The grave Mèthĕg ( $G a^{\prime} y \bar{a}$ in the more limited sense) is especially employed $\boldsymbol{g}$ in the following cases in order more distinctly to emphasize a short vowel or an initial $S^{e} w a:(a)$ with the Pathah of the article or of the prefixes ב, כ, ל, when followed by Še wâ under a consonant without Dages, e.g. הֲصְסְלָה,
 the exception of with Pasṭ $\bar{\alpha}$ ), nor before the tone-syllable of a word, and neither before nor after the common Mètheg; likewise not in words which are connected by a conjunctive accent. with the following word; (b) with the interrogative in with Pathah (except when it precedes !, Dageצ forte or the tone-syllable of the word),
 syllable, Baer places the Mèthég to the right of the Pathah, e. g. הָבְרָכָה Gn $27^{93}$ (but ed. Mant. and Ginsb. 'הַ) ; (c) with the Pathah or $\mathrm{S}^{\ominus}$ gol of the article
 Ga'y $\bar{a}\left({ }_{(1}\right)$ is especially important in the accentuation of the $\square^{\prime \prime} N N^{\prime \prime}$, for purposes of musical recitation; it stands chiefly in words whose principal tone is

3. The euphonic Ga'yā, to ensure the distinct pronunciation of those con- $h$ sonants which in consequence of the loss of the tone, or because they close a
 avoid a hiatus) $28^{2}$, or in such cases as
Methĕg (especially in the cases mentione' in in $, b, a$ ) is a guide to correct $i$ pronunciation, since it distinguishes $\bar{a}$ from $\check{o}$ (except in the case noted in $\S 9 v, b$ ) and $\hat{\imath}$ from $\imath$; e.g. (food), since the $\varlimsup_{T}$ stands here in a toneless closed syllable, and must

 however, do not consider the syllables lengthened by Methĕg as open. They regard the $\check{S}^{\oplus}$ wâ as quiescent in cases like ${ }_{T}$, and belonging to the preceding vowel ; cf. Baer, Thorat 'Emeth, p. 9, and in Merx's Archiv, i. p. 60, Rem. I, and especially Dikduke ha-t ${ }^{e}$ amim, p. r3.

## § 17. Of the $Q^{e} r e \hat{e}$ and $K^{e} t h \hat{\imath} b h . ~ M a s o r a ~ m a r g i n a l i s ~ a n d ~$ finalis.



1. The margin of Biblical MSS. and editions exhibits variants $a$ of an early date ( $\$ 3 c$ ), called ${ }^{\prime}$ ? ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ to be read, since, according to
 case, according to Qimhi, the tone is always to be placed on the former. For the above mode of writing and position of the tone cf. Is $38^{3}$, Jon $1^{14}, 4^{2}$, $\psi 116^{4}$.
${ }_{2}$ On the necessity of the punctuation
the opinion of the Jewish critics, they are to be preferred to the , בְּחִי, i.e. what is written in the text, and are actually to be read instead of it.
On this account the vowels of the marginal reading (the $Q^{e} r \hat{e}$ ) are placed under the consonants of the text, and in order to understand both readings properly, the vowels in the text must be applied to the marginal reading, while for the reading of the text (the $K^{t}$ thith $)$ its own vowels are to be used. Thus in Jer $42^{6}$ 药 occurs in the text, in the
 in the text, in the margin text always refers to the marginal reading.
. Words or consonants which are to be passed over in reading, and are therefore left unpointed, are called שְּחִיב וְלָ ? non legendum), e.g. את Jer $3^{816}$, not contained in the text, but required by the Masora (as indicated by the insertion of their vowels), are called prap e.g. $2 \mathrm{~S} 8^{3}$, Jer $3{ }^{18}$. See further Strack, Prolegomena Critica, p. 85; Dikduke ha-t $t^{e}$ amim, $\S \S 62,64$; Blau, Masorelische Untersuchungen, p. 49 ff.
c 3. In the case of some very common words, which are aluays to be read otherwise than according to the $K^{e}$ th $\hat{b} h$, it has not been considered necessary to place the $Q^{e} r \hat{e}$ in the margin, but its vowels are simply attached to the word in the text. This $Q^{e}$ ê perpetuum occurs in the Pentateuch in (חִN (
 (but the Sam. text always has נערה, (נהיא). The ordinary explanation of this supposel archaism, on the analogy of Greek $\delta$ тais and $\dot{\eta} \pi a i s$, our child, is inadequate, since there is no trace elsewhere of this epicene use ; נערה for rather a survival of a system of orthography in

 and Baer and Delitzsch, Genesis, p. 84, and below, note to § $47 b$;

 note) ; on
d 4. The masoretic apparatus accompanying the biblical text is divided into (a) Masora marginalis, consisting of (a) Masora (marginalis) magna on the upper and lower margins of MSS. ; ( $\beta$ ) Masora (marginalis) parva between and on the right and left of the columns;

[^37](b) Masora finalis at the end of the several books, counting Samuel, Kings, Minor Prophets, Ezra-Nehemiah, Chronicles, each as one book. On all three varieties see especially Ginsburg, Introd., p. 423 ff., and the appendices containing (p. 983 ff .) the masoretic treatise from the St. Petersburg MS. of A.D. 1009 , and (p. 1000 ff .) specimens of the Masora parva and magna on two chapters.
In nearly all printed editions only the Masora finalis is found, indicating the number of verses, the middle point of the book, \&c., and a scanty selection from the Masora para. The following alphabetical list of technical expressions (some of them Aramaic) and abbreviations, may suffice with the help of the lexicon to elucidate the subject. Further details will be found in the appendix to Teile's edition of the Hebrew 0. T., p. 1222 ff.
 formula בִּלֹא אס" without 'Athna? or Soph-pasuq i. e. although no 'Athnah or Soph-pasuq is written.
 used instead of Pathah ( $\$ 29$ i)., ב' as a numeral = two, as in
 pl. (בְּתַר (Aram.) after.

וֹיוּרָא (Aram.) small.
לוֹin profane, not sacred, e.g. אֲוּ Gn $19^{2}$ because not referring to God. except. (חָon written defectively, also wanting as ' $\bar{\prime}$ ' aleph is omitted.

ר1m superfluous.



 strangely formed Nûns before $\psi 107^{23}$ f. ( $\$_{5} n$ ). מְְִרָ that which is read, the name for all the O. T. scriptures. משְ part.
quiescent, i.e. not sounded. נָחָה fencealed, i.e. only retained



7w column of a page.
 a space within a verse, e.g. Gn $35^{22}$; cf. H. Grätz, Monatschrift für Gesch. u. Wiss. des Judentums, 1878, p. 481 ff., and H. Strack, ibid. 1879, p. 26 ff.
 with Qames. .
רַבָּתִי, רַבּּתָה (Aram, all fem. sing.) large.
 3). (Aram.) two.

## CHAPTER II

## PECULIARITIES AND CHANGES OF LETTERS: THE SYLLABLE AND THE TONE

## § 18.

The changes which take place in the forms of the various parts of speech, depend partly on the peculiar nature of certain classes of letters and the manner in which they affect the formation of syllables, partly on certain laws of the language in regard to syllables and the tone.

## § 19. Changes of Consonants.

a The changes which take place among consonants, owing to the formation of words, inflexion, eaphony, or to influences connected with the progress of the language, are commutation, assimilation, rejection, addition, transposition, softening.

1. Commutation ${ }^{1}$ may take place between consonants which are

 and oָ to close, מָּר and to escape. In process of time, and partly under the influence of Aramaic, the harder and rougher sounds especially were changed into the softer, e.g.署 into reject, and the sibilants into the corresponding mutes:
 regarded as a return to an earlier stage of the pronunciation.

The interchange of consonants, however, belongs rather to the lexicographical treatment of stems ${ }^{2}$ than to grammatical inflexion. To the latter belong the interchange ( $a$ ) of $\Omega$ and $\Delta$ in Hithpa'el ( $£ 54 b$ ); (b) of 1 and $\urcorner$ in verbs primae Yôd (§ 69 ),
2. Assimilation usually takes place when one consonant which closes a syllable passes over into another beginning the next syllable, and forms with it a strengthened letter, as illustris for inlustris, affero for adfero, $\sigma v \lambda \lambda a \mu \beta a ́ v \omega$ for $\sigma v \nu \lambda a \mu \beta a ́ v \omega$. In Hebrew this occurs,

[^38]
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 the $\mathbb{N}$ is orthographically retained, e.g.



 omitted after the article, see § 35 d .

Finally, the elision of 9 and , in verbs $n^{\prime \prime} \zeta(\$ 75 h$ ) is an instance of syncope.-On the syncope of $n$ between two vowels, see $\S 23 k$.
$l$ (c) At the end of a word (apocope), e.g. .ism pr. name of a city (cf.
 retained, \&c. On the apocope of 1 and ' in verbs $\left.0^{\prime \prime \prime}\right\}$, see $\S 24 \mathrm{~g}$, and § $75 a$.

Bolder changes (especially by violent apocope), took place in earlier periods of the language, notably the weakening of the feminine ending $\Omega_{\text {_ }}$ ath to $\Pi_{-} \bar{a}$, see $\S 44 a$, and $\S 80 f$.

$$
m
$$

4. To avoid harshness in pronunciation a helping sound, Aleph prosthetic ${ }^{2}$ with its vowel, is prefixed to some words, e.g. עֲ
 occurs probably in
$n$ 5. Transposition ${ }^{3}$ occurs only seldom in the grammar, e.g. הִשְׁngna for
 mostly confined to sibilants and sonants.
○ 6. Softening occurs e.g. in $k u b h k a b h$ (cf. Syriac raurab = rabrab); ט phylacteries for taph$t \bar{a} p h \hat{t} t h$; according to the common opinion, also in $\psi^{\prime} \times \leftrightarrow$ man from 'inš, cf. however § 96 .

## § 20. The Strengthening (Sharpening) of Consonants.

1. The strengthening of a consonant, indicated by Dageš forte, is necessary and essential (Dageš necessarium)
(a) when the same consonant would be written twice in succession

[^39] שivern
(b) in cases of assimilation ( $\$ 19 b-f$ ), e.g. F ? P for yintēn.

In both these cases the Dages is called compensativum.
(c) When it is characteristic of a grammatical form, e.g. לֵמֵר he has learned, לִִּ he has taught (Dagcš characteristicum). In a wider sense this includes the cases in which a consonant is sharpened by Dages forte, to preserve a preceding short vowel (which in an open syllable would have to be lengthened by $\S 26 e$ ), e.g. . cf. $\S 93 e e$ and $k k, \S 93 p p$.

This coalescing of two consonants as indicated above does not take place $b$ when the first has a vowel or ${ }^{\xi}{ }^{\boldsymbol{e}}$ wâ mobile. In the latter case, according to the correct Masora, a compound $\breve{S}^{e}$ wâ should be used, preceded by Mêthc̆q, e.g. ,
 would have Dagě lene. Also when the former of the two consonants has been already strengthened by Dages furte, it can only have a rocal S $S^{e} w \hat{a}$, and any further contraction is therefore impossible. This applies also to cases


 root would be as strange as it is in Jer $5^{6}$.
2. A consonant is sometimes strengthened merely for the sake of $c$ euphony (Dages euphonicum), and the strengthening is then not so essential. This occurs ${ }^{1}$ -
(a) when two words are closely united in pronunciation by Dagcs forte conjunctivum: (1) in the first letter of a monosyllable or of a word having the tone (or occasionally the counter-tone) on the first syllable, ${ }^{2}$ when closely connected with the preceding word, if that word ends in a tone-bearing Qames ( $\mathrm{N}_{-}$) with $\stackrel{S}{S}^{c}$ wa mobile preceding,
 grammarians.

The term monosyllable here and in $f$ (by § $28 e$ ) includes Segholates like


[^40]Some limit the use of the $D^{e} h \hat{i} q$ to the closest connexion of a monosyllable with a following $B^{e}$ gadk ${ }^{e}$ phath. However, it also applies to cases like לכה־בָּא
 GGn $43^{\text {is. }}$. In all these examples the tone, were it not for the Maqqeph, would be on the ultima of the first word.
d Rem. 1. When ity this has Maqqëph after it, a Dagey forte conj. always follows, even if the next word is neither a monosyllable nor has the tone on the

 accent, $\S 9 u$, ic , and § $16 b$ ), the $S^{\bullet}$ ghôl coincides with the secondary tonesyllable. On the origin of Dag.f. conj. after "מַּ (for what?, see § 37 b , c.
e 2. Such cases as On ver. 16, do not belong here. In these the Dages can only be intended for Dag. lene, see § 21 d .
(2) In the first letter of a monosyllable, or of a word with the tone on the first syllable after a closely connected milêl ending in $\pi_{-}$or
 (Aram. $=\mathrm{Heb}$. The attraction of the following tone-syllable by Dages forte conj. is here also due to the exigencies of rhythm, e.g.隹 $\psi 118^{25}$ (so ed. Mant., bat Ginsburg and Kittel
 also be due to a subsequent retraction of the tone ( $\left.n \bar{a} \delta \hat{o} g^{\prime} a h o ̂ o r, ~ § ~ 29 e\right), ~$
 a Dageš in this case, except in 7 , always, and

 from the ultima on to the syllable which otherwise would have Metheg), are likewise regarded as milêll. On the other hand, e.g.
 When words are closely united by Maqqēph the same rules apply as above, except that in the first word Metheg, in the secondary tone, takes
 Finally, the Dages is used when the attracted word does not begin

 second word does not begin with a $B^{e} g a d k^{\theta} p h a t h$ letter (hence e.g.

$g$ Rem. Suoh cases as ed. Mant., \&c.) IS $1^{19}$ are therefore anomalous; also, because beginning with
a Begadképhath, $^{\text {Con }}$ $\psi 77^{18}$; בֶּן Jb $5^{27}$. - It is doubtful whether we should include here those cases in which Dage§ forte occurs after a word ending in a toneless $\hat{u}$, such as
 ib 'Ju $18^{19}$, Est $6^{13}$ (where P. Haupt regards the Dages as due to the enclitic
 explained the Dages in these examples not as conjunctive, but orthophonic (see above, § 13 c , and Delitzsch, Psalmen, $4^{\text {th }}$ ed. on $\psi 94^{12} a$ ), we especially had in view those cases in which the consonant with Dager has a Še wad. The extension of the use of Dage§ to consonants with a strong vowel, seems,
 required by some Masoretes but not consistently inserted. On the other hand, the DageY forte in ' after a preceding $\hat{i}\left(\psi 18^{5.18}\right)$, and even after $\hat{u}$ ( $\psi 94^{12}$ ), is due to an attempt to preserve its consonantal power ; see Konig, Lehrgeb., p. 54 b.
(b) When a consonaut with $S^{e} w a$ is strengthened by Dages forte $h$ dirimens to make the $\breve{S}^{\ell} w a$ more audible. In almost all cases the strengthening or sharpening can be easily explained from the character of the particular consonant, which is almost always a sonant, sibilant,
 (where, however, (with $\square$ ); Is $57^{6}$ (with ) ; Ju $20^{43},{ }^{1}$ I S $I^{6}$ (with ר); Gn $49^{10.17}$ (and

 (iv) ; Is $5^{28}, \psi 37^{15}, \mathrm{Jer}_{5}{ }^{1^{56}}, \mathrm{Neh} 4^{7}$ (ש). Also, with 5 Ho $3^{2}$; with ב Is $9^{3}$, Jer $4^{7}$; with $\Pi_{1} S_{10}{ }^{11}$. In many instances of this kind the influence of the following consonant is also observable.
(c) When a vowel is to be made specially emphatic, generally in $i$ the principal pause, by a Dages forte affectuosum in the following



(d) When the sonants $h, n, j$ are strengthened by Dages forte firma- $k$ tivum in the pronouns הארֵ,翟 whereby? how much? ( to the preceding tone-vowel.
3. Omission of the strengthening, or at least the loss of the Dage.s $l$ forte occurs,
(a) almost always at the end of a word, since here a strengthened

[^41]consonant cannot easily be sonnded. ${ }^{1}$ In such cases the preceding vowel is frequently lengthened ( $\$ 27$ d), e. g. רבב multitude, from; पy people, with a distinctive accent or after the article, yָ, from yp; but e.g. It garden, na daughter, with the final consonant
 thou (fem.) hast given Ez $16^{33}$, see § 10 k .
$m i$ (b) Very frequently in certain consonants with $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{wa}$ mobile, since the absence of a strong vowel causes the strengthening to be less noticeable. This occurs principally in the case of and ' (on ? and ? after the article, see $\S 35 b$; on ? after $-\mathbb{N}, \S 37^{b)}$; and in the sonants $D,{ }^{2} 2$ and $b$; also in the sibilants, especially when a guttural follows (but note Is $62^{9}$, מְאֵקְ, as ed. Mant. and Ginsb. correctly read, while Baer has 'מְ with compensatory lengthening, and others
 חִשְׁnּם ;


Of the $B^{e}$ gadk $k^{e}$ phath letters, ב occurs without Dages in in M Ju $8^{2}$;
 supposing that it is the Participle Niphal of Is $22^{10}$. Examples, עיְיָּ (so always the preformative ! in the

 cated by the Rāphè stroke ( $\S$ I4) over the consonant. However, in these cases, we must assume at least a virtual strengthening of the consonant (Dageš forte implicitum, see $\S 22 c$, end).
(c) In the Gutturals, see § 22 b.
$n$ Rem. I. Contrary to rule the strengthening is omitted (especially in the later Books), owing to the lengthening of the preceding short vowel, generally hireq (cf. mile for mille), e.g. יח: however, it is perhaps more correct to suppose, with Konig, a formation on the analogy of verbs Is $5^{11}$ for תiper.
$O$ 2. Very doubtful are the instances in which compensation for the strengthening is supposed to be made by the insertion of a following 9 . Thus for

[^42]


## § 21. The Aspiration of the Tenues. ${ }^{1}$

The harder sound of the six $B^{e} g a d k^{e} p h a t h$ letters, indicated by $a$ Dages lene, is to be regarded, according to the general analogy of languages, as their older and original pronunciation, from which the softer sound was weakened ( $\$ 6 n$ and $\S 1_{3}$ ). The original hard sound is maintained when the letter is initial, and after a consonant, but when it immediately follows a vowel or $\breve{S}^{\zeta} w \bar{a}$ mobile it is softened and aspirated by their influence, e.g. ל לֹ $l^{e k h o ̄}$ \%. Hence the $B^{e}$ gadk $k^{e}$ phath take Dages lene
(1) at the beginning of words: (a) without exception when the $b$ preceding word ends with a vowelless consonant, e.g. עֲ 'al-kèn (therefore), , e.g. $\mathrm{Q}_{\mathrm{Z}} \mathrm{Gn}_{\mathrm{I}^{1}}$, or at the beginning of a sentence, or even of a minor division of a sentence after a distinctive accent (§ $15 d$ ), although the preceding word may end with a vowel. The distinctive accent in such a case prevents the vowel from influencing the following
 Gn $I^{7}$ ).

Rem. I. The vowel letters $\boldsymbol{i}, \mathfrak{p}, \mathrm{N}$, as such, naturally do not close a $C$ syllable. In close connexion they are therefore followed by the aspirated $B^{e}$ gadke phath, e.g.
 $\psi 68^{18}$ ), and by $n$ with Mappiq; hence e.g. there is Dages lene in always after reading אֲרַּנָ.
2. In a number of cases Dages lene is inserted, although a vowel precedes in $d$ close connexion. This almost always occurs with the prefixes $\rightrightarrows$ and $\mathfrak{\exists}$ in the combinations same or a kindred aspirate) and $\boldsymbol{Z}$ (see Baer, L. Psalmorum, 1880, p. 92, ${ }^{2}$ on
 according to David Qimḥi do not take Dages̆, nor בְב , בְב , and according to the Dikduke ha-teamim, p. 30. Sometimes the $B^{e}$ gadh ${ }^{e}$ phath letters, even with a full vowel, take Dages' before a spirant (and even before $\Pi$ in $n \in{ }^{2}$ ${ }_{1} \mathrm{~K}_{12^{32}}$ ) ; cf. the instances mentioned above, $\S 20 e$ (mostly tenues before K ). In all these cases the object is to prevent too great an accumulation of aspirates. The LXX, on the other hand, almost always represent the $\boldsymbol{J}$ and

[^43]
 are doubly anomalous.
$e$ (2) In the middle of words after $\breve{S}_{e v a}$ quiescens, i.e. at the beginning of a syllable immediately after a vowelless consonaut, ${ }^{1}$ e.g. א. e. g.
$f$ on
Whether $S^{e} w \hat{a}$ be vocal and consequently causes the aspiration of a following tenuis, depends upon the origin of the particular form. It is almost always vocal
(a) When it has arisen from the weakening of a strong vowel, e.g. רִרְה
 but טַלְ:ִּ from the ground-form malk.
(b) With the $\beth$ of the pronominal suffixes of the 2nd pers. 7-, $\mathfrak{i}$
 an aspirated $\Omega$ after the vowel, cf. \&c.; Pathah being here simply a helping vowel has no influence on the tenuis ; cf. § $28 e$.

## § 22. Peculiarities of the Gutturals.

a The four gutturals $\pi, \pi, y, \kappa$, in consequence of their peculiar pronunciation, have special characteristics, but $\kappa$, as the weakest of these sounds, and sometimes also $y$ (which elsewhere as one of the harder gutturals is the opposite of $\aleph$ ), differ in several respects from the stronger $ה$ and $\pi$.
$b$ 1. They do not admit of Dages forte, since, in consequence of a gradual weakening of the pronunciation (see below, note 2 ), the strengthening of the gutturals was hardly audible to the Masoretes. But a distinction must be drawn between (a) the complete omission of the strengthening, and (b) the mere echo of it, commonly called half doubling, but better, virtual strengthening.
c In the former case, the short vowel before the guttural would stand in an open syllable, and must accordingly be lengthened or modified. ${ }^{2}$

[^44]
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 rapidly uttered $\breve{a}$ is no longer heard.
$\boldsymbol{g} \quad I^{a}{ }_{c h}$ for $i c h, \& c$., in some Swiss dialects of German, is analogous; a furtive Pathah is here involuntarily intruded before the deep guttural sound. In Arabic the same may be heard in such words as mesiah, although it is not expressed in writing. The LXX (and Jerome, cf. $Z A W$. iv. 79) write $\epsilon$, some-

$h$ Rem. I. The guttural may also have an influence upon the following vowel,
 The only exceptions are רֶחֶם , לֶחֵם , בּהֶּ , אֹהֶּ
$i$ 2. Where in the present form of the language an $\check{i}$, whether original or attenuated from Pathah, would stand before or after a guttural in the first syllable of a word, a $S^{e} g h o b l$ as being between $\breve{a}$ and $i$ is frequently used

$k$ On the other hand, the slighter and sharper Hireq is retained even under gutturals when the following consonant is sharpened by Dages forte, e.g.


$l$ 3. Instead of simple $S^{e} w a$ mobile, the gutturals take without

$m$ 4. When a guttural with quiescent $\zeta^{e} w d$ happens to close a syllable in the middle of a word, the strongly closed syllable (with quiescent $\Sigma^{\prime} e w a$ ) may remain; necessarily so with $\Pi, \nu$, and $\pi$ at the end of the
 under $i$ ), even with $\kappa$.

But in the syllable before the tone and further back, the closed syllable is generally opened artificially by a Hateph (as being suited to the guttural) taking the place of the quiescent $S^{\ell} w a$, and in particular that Hateph which repeats the sound of the preceding
 But when, owing to a flexional change, the strong vowel following the Hateph is weakened into $\zeta^{e} w a$ mobile, then instead of the Hateph
 לפּׁ). The original forms, according to $\$ 28 c$, were yaime $d h \hat{u}$, ne $e^{e} r^{e} m \hat{u}$,


$\boldsymbol{n}$ Rem. I. On the use of simple or compound Šepâ $^{\rho}$ in guttural verbs, see further §§ 62-65.
2. Respecting the choice between the three Hatephs, it may be remarked:
 No kill, to say; when farther from the tone syllable, however, the $\%$ even under $N$ changes into the lighter $\#$, e.g. for
of Maqqēph). Cf. § 27 w. The 1 st pers. sing. imperf. Pi'el regularly has - . Likewise $-\quad$ is naturally found under $N$ in cases where the Hateph arises from a weakening of an original $\breve{a}$ (e.g. אֲרִ lion, ground-form 'ary), and
 § $93 q, z$ ).
(b) In the middle of a word after a long vowel, a Hateph-Pathah takes the $p$
 vowel precedes, the choice of the Haieph is generally regulated by it, e.g.


5. The 7 , which in sound approximates to the gutturals ( $§ 6 \mathrm{~g}$ ), $q$ shares with the gutturals proper their first, and to a certain extent their second, peculiarity, viz.
(a) The exclusion of the strengthening, instead of which the preceding vowel is almost always lengthened, e.g. הִּר he has blessed for birrakh,
(b) The preference for $\breve{a}$ as a preceding vowel, e. g. וַירְ and he saw $r$
 he caused to turn back.


 of דחיק ( $\$ 20 \mathrm{c}), \operatorname{Pr} 15^{1}, 20^{22}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 26^{10^{\circ}}$; and on account of

 Arabic this strengthening has been retained throughout, and the LXX write e.g. इá $\dot{\beta} \rho a$ for

## § 23. The Feebleness of the Gutturals $\times$ and $\rightarrow$.

1. The $\mathcal{N}$, a light and scarcely audible guttural breathing, as a rule $a$ entirely loses its slight consonantal power whenever it stands without a vowel at the end of a syllable. It then remains (like the German $h$ in roh, gell, nahte) merely as a sign of the preceding long vowel, e.g. הוֹצִיא, מָלא, מָצָא (but when a syllable is added with an introductory

 (cf., however, § $74 a$ ), מָּלָא
 above, $\S 22 e$ ), the $x$ only retains an orthographic significance.
2. On the other hand, $K$ is in general retained as a strong con- $b$
 protected by a Hateph after a short syllable, e.g. לאשֶ, and finally,
when it stands in a closed syllable with quiescent $\breve{S}^{e} w d$ after a pre-
 Even in such cases the consonantal power of $\kappa$ may be entirely lost, viz.
c (a) when it would stand with a long vowel in the middle of a word after. Šewa mobile. The long vowel is then occasionally thrown back into the place of the $S^{`} e a$, and the $א$ is only retained orthographically, as an indication of the etymology, e.g. רָׁטשׁׁ heads



 I K $\mathrm{I}_{4}{ }^{16}, \mathrm{Mi} \mathrm{I}^{5}$, \&c., for תixטְ. Sometimes a still more violent suppression of the $\mathbb{N}$ occurs at the beginning of a syllable, which then causes a further change in the preceding syllable, e.g. טְלָאכָ work for


d (b) When it originally closed a syllable. In these cases $N$ is generally (by § 22 m ) pronounced with a Hateph, $\mp$ or $\mp$. The preceding short vowel is, however, sometimes lengthened and retains

 but the contraction does not take place in vowel is retained, although the consonantal power of $N$ is entirely lost,
 cf. Dt $24^{10}, \mathrm{IK} \mathrm{II}^{39}, \mathrm{Is} \mathrm{in}^{13}$.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ Instead of this $\mathbb{N}$ which has lost its consonantal value, one of the vowel letters I and" is often written according to the nature of the sound, the former with $\hat{o}$ and the latter with $\hat{e}$ and $\hat{i}$, e.g. . end of the word $ה$ also is written for $\mathcal{K}$, he fils for below, t).
$f$ 3. When $\mathbb{N}$ is only preserved orthographically or as an indication of the etymology (quiescent), it is sometimes entirely dropped (cf.

 שת Mn $25^{24}$ for

 $K^{e} t h \imath \hat{b} h$ for
[^45]
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$l$ Rem. In connexion with $\bar{o}$ and $\bar{e}$, a $ה$ which only marks the vowel ending is occasionally changed into 1 or ' ( any vowel into $\mathbb{N}$ in the later or Aramaic orthography, but especially with $\bar{a}$, e.g. שֶׁנָ evident that final it as a vowel letter has only an orthographical importance.

## § 24. Changes of the Wealc Letters 1 and :

Philippi, Die Aussprache der semit. Konsonanten 1 und ' (mentioned above, $\$ 5 \mathrm{l}$, note I), a thorough investigation of their phonetic value as consonantal, i.e. non-syllabic, vowel-sounds, not palatal or labial fricatives ; cf. also E. Sievers, Metrische Studien, i. I5.
a I and' are, as consonants, so weak, and approach so nearly to the corresponding vowels $u$ and $i$, that under certain conditions they very readily merge into them. This fact is especially important in the formation of those weak stems, in which al or "occurs as one of the three radical consonants ( $\S 69 \mathrm{ff}$., § $85, \S 93$ ).

1. The cases in which 1 and ' lose their consonantal power, i. e. merge into a vowel, belong almost exclusively to the middle and end of words; at the beginning they remain as consonants. ${ }^{1}$

The instances may be classified under two heads:
(a) When either 1 or ' with quiescent $S^{Y} w a$ stands at the end of a syllable immediately after a homogeneous vowel ( $u$ or $i$ ). It then merges in the homogeneous vowel, or more accurately it assumes its vowel-character ( 1 as $u$, ' as $i$ ), and is then contracted with the preceding vowel into one vowel, necessarily long, but is mostly retained orthographically as a (quiescent) vowel letter. Thus for huwšab; ץp". for yiyqas; so also at the end of the word, e. g. עִבְרִ

 ceding vowel be heterogeneous, 1 and' are retained as full consonants
该 reation, contracted into $\hat{\delta}$ and $\hat{e}$ (see below, $f$ ), and at the end of a word they are sometimes rejected (see below, $g$ ).

Complete syncope of 1 before $\hat{\imath}$ occurs in for §§ $\left.84^{a} c, e, 93 y\right]$.

[^46] pronounced with $\check{\imath}$ (see § $28 a$ ), and also almost always after $p$ (see § 102 b), coalesces with the $\mathfrak{z}$ to $\hat{\imath}$, e.g. בּירּ
 hands of.
(b) When $I$ and , without a vowel would stand at the end of the $d$ word after quiescent $\zeta^{\zeta} w a$, they are either wholly rejected and only orthographically replaced by $n$ (e.g. הֶּכֶּ from bikhy, as well as the
 letters. In the latter case, becomes a homogeneous Hireq, and also attracts to itself the tone, whilst the preceding vowel becomes $S^{\zeta} u \cdot a$ (e.g. from piry, properly pary); 1 is changed sometimes into a toneless $u$ (e.g.
Rem. In Syriac, where the weak letters more readily become vowel sounds, $\mathcal{C}$ a simple $i$ may stand even at the beginning of words instead of ? or ?. The LXX also, in accordance with this, write 'Iovóa for יִּהדָּ, 'I IIence may be explained the Syriac usage in Hebrew of drawing back the vowel $i$ to the preceding consonant, which properly had a simple vocal Sewâ,

葠 $\mathrm{Jb} 29^{21}$ (in some editions) for
 to avoid confusion. In fact the Babylonian punctuation always has $\bar{\imath}$ for $\ddot{a}$ in the ist pers.
2. With regard to the choice of the long vowel, in which 1 and,$f$ quiesce after such vocalization and contraction, the following rules may be laid down :
(a) With a short homogeneous vowel 1 and 'are contracted into the corresponding long vowel ( $\hat{\imath}$ or $\hat{\imath}$ ), see above, $b$.
(b) With short $\breve{a}$ they form the diphthongs $\hat{o}$ and $\hat{e}$ according to § 7 a, e.g. מיטיטיב

Rem. The rejection of the half vowels $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ and (see above, b) occurs especially $g$ at the end of words after a heterogeneous vowel ( $\check{a}$ ), if according to the nature of the form the contraction appears impossible. So especially in

[^47]verbs $\boldsymbol{N}^{\prime \prime}$, e.g. originally stands in an open syllable, and consequently must be lengthened to $\bar{a}$. The
 On the origin of
 see § $93 x$.

## § 25. Unchangeable Vowels.

a What vowels in Hebrew are unchangeable, i.e. are not liable to attenuation (to ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\text {ewâ }}$ ), modification, lengthening, or shortening, can be known with certainty only from the nature of the grammatical forms, and in some cases by comparison with Arabic (cf. § i $m$ ). This holds good especially of the essentially long vowels, i. e. those long by nature or contraction, as distinguished from those which are only lengthened rhythmically, i.e. on account of the special laws which in Hebrew regulate the tone and the formation of syllables. The latter, when a change takes place in the position of the tone or in the division of syllables, readily become short again, or are reduced to a mere vocal Šewa.
$b$ 1. The essentially long and consequently, as a rule (but cf. $\S 26 p$, $\S 27 n, o$ ), unchangeable vowels of the second and third class, $\hat{\imath}, \hat{e}, \hat{u}, \hat{o}$, can often be recognized by means of the vowel letters which accom-
 boundary, קוק voice. The defective writing ( $\$ 8 i$ ) is indeed common
 is merely an orthographic licence and has no influence on the quantity of the vowel; the $u$ in
Asan exception, a merely tone-long vowel of both these classes is sometimes written fully, e. g. לívp? for hip?:
c 2. The essentially or naturally long $a$ (Qames impure), ${ }^{2}$ unless it has become $\hat{o}$ (cf. § $9 q$ ), has as a rule in Hebrew no representative among the consonants, while in Arabic it is regularly indicated by $\kappa$; on the few instances of this kind in Hebrew, cf. § $9 b, \S 23 g$. The naturally long $a$ and the merely tone-long $\bar{a}$ therefore can only be distinguished by an accurate knowledge of the forms.

[^48]
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especially common in an open syllable before the tone (pretonic vowel), e.g. . .

Short vorvels in open syllables occur :
(a) In apparently dissyllabic words formed by means of a helping vowel
 layt, yirb ; cf. also

 the tone-bearing Pathah produces a sharpening of the following sonant, and thus virtually stands in a closed syllable. even when the Nun is not expressly
 counter-tone after the $N$ has become quiescent.
$/ /$ (c) Sometimes before the toneless $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{T}}$ local ( $\$ 90 \mathrm{c}$ ), e. g. מְרְצָּרָה towards the wilderness; only, however, in the constr. state ( $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K} \mathrm{I} 9^{15}$ ), since the toneless suffix $\sim^{\sim}$ does not affect the character of the form (especially when rapidly pronounced in close connexion); otherwise it is מִרְָּּרָה.

In all these cases the short vowel is also supported by the tone, either the principal tone of the word, or (as in $h$ ) by the secondary tone in the constr. st., or by the counter-tone with Metheg, as in the arsis on the short vowel in classical prosody.
 he will bind, in in deed. In all these cases the syllable was at first really closed, and it was only when the guttural took a Hateph that it became in

 initial syllable which has a Hateph, since the former then takes the vowel
in the other Semitic languages, except of course in the case of naturally long vowels. The above examples are pronounced in Arabic likkă, qŭtălă, 'ĭnăb. Although it is certain therefore that in Hebrew also, at an earlier period, short vowels were pronounced in open syllables, it may still be doubted whether the present pronunciation is due merely to an artificial practice followed in the solemn recitation of the O.T. text. On this hypothesis we should have still to explain, e.g. the undoubtedly very old lengthening of $\mathfrak{i}$ and $\check{u}$ in an open syllable into $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{o}$.
${ }^{1}$ That these pretonic vowels are really long is shown by Brockelmann, ZA. xiv. 343 f., from the transcription of Hebrew proper names in the Nestorian (Syriac) punctuation, and e.g. from the Arabic 'Ibrahim= אַבְרָהם. He regards their lengthening in the syllable before the tone as a means adopted by the Masoretes to preserve the pronunciation of the traditional vowels. This explanation of the pretonic vowels as due to a precaution against their disappearing, is certainly right ; as to whether the precaution can be ascribed to the Masoretes, see the previous note. For the pretonic vowel the Arabic regularly has a short vowel (lăhŭm, yăqûm, \&c.), the Aramaic simply a vocal
 forward the pretonic vowel almost always becomes $\breve{S}^{2} u \hat{a}$, see $\S 27$. It would, however, be incorrect to assume from this that the pretonic vowel has taken the place of $\breve{S}^{6} w \hat{a}$ only on account of the following tone-syllable. It always arises from an original short vowel, since such a vowel is mostly lengthened in an open syllable before the tone, but when the tone is moved forward it becomes $\tilde{S}^{e} w a$.

## § 26 k-p] Syllable-formation, its Influence on Vowels 87

contained in the Ha!eph (see $\S 102 \mathrm{~d}$ and $\S 104 \mathrm{~d}$ ). To the same category belong also the cases where these prepositions with Hireq stand before a consonant with simple $\mathrm{S}^{\circ}$ wà mobile, e.g.
(e) In forms like deed). These again are cases of the subsequent opening of closed syllables
 end, and § 28 c .
 head, since they all have $\breve{a}$ in a virtually sharpened syllable; nor does the tone-bearing $S^{e}$ ghôl in suffixes (e.g. . with Qames ( $\$ 22 c$ ). On ${ }^{2}$,
4. The independent syllables with a firm vowel which have been $m$ described above, are frequently preceded by a single consonant with vocal Šewâ, simple or compound. Such a consonant with vocal Šewâ never has the value of an independent syllable, but rather attaches itself so closely to the following syllable that it forms practically one
 medhu. This concerns especially the prefixes ! , ְ, ? ? , ?. See § 102.

The $\check{S}^{e}$ wat mobile is no doubt in all such cases weakened from an original $n$.
 it cannot be inferred that the Masoretes regarded it as forming a kind of open syllable, for this would be even more directly opposed to their fundamental law (viz. that a long vowel should stand in an open syllable), than are tho exceptions cited above, $f-k$. Even the use of Metheg with $S^{\ominus}$ wà in special cases (see $\S 16 f$ ) is no proof of such a view on the part of the Masoretes.
5. Closed syllables ending with one consonant, when without the $\boldsymbol{O}$ tone, necessarily have short vowels, whether at the beginning or at the



A tone-bearing closed syllable may have either a long or short vowel, $\boldsymbol{p}$ but if the latter, it must as a rule be either Pathah or Seghôl. ${ }^{2}$ The tone-bearing closed penultima admits, of the long vowels, only the tonelong $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{o}$, not the longest $\hat{\imath}, \hat{e}, \hat{o}, \hat{u}$; of the short vowels, only $\breve{a}, \check{e}$, not $\check{i}, \breve{u}, \check{o}$ (but on $\check{\imath}$ and $\breve{u}$, see $\S 29 \mathrm{~g}$ ). Thus Hiph.) but קוֹמוּ (2nd pl. masc. Imperat. Qal) but

[^49]6. A special kind of closed syllables are the sharpened, i. e. those which end in the same (strengthened) consonant with which the fol-
 tone, they have, like the rest, short vowels; but, if bearing the tone,


On the omission of the strengthening of a consonant at the end of a word, see § 20 l .
$r$ 7. Syllables ending with two consonants occur only at the end of words, and have most naturally short vowels, mbubp, times Sere, as Usually the harshness of pronunciation is avoided by the use of a heelping vowel ( $\$ 28$ e).

## § 27. The Change of the Vowelf, especially as regards Quantity.

a The changes in sound through which the Hebrew language passed, before it assumed the form in which we know it from the Masoretic text of the O.T. (see $\S 2 k$ ), have especially affected its vowel system. A precise knowledge of these vowel changes, which is indispensable for the understanding of most of the present forms of the language, is derived partly from the phenomena which the language itself presents in the laws of derivation and inflexion, partly from the comparison of the kindred dialects, principally the Arabic. By these two methods, we arrive at the following facts as regards Hebrew :
$b \quad$ r. That in an open syllable the language has frequently retained only a half-vowel ( $\breve{S}^{e} w a$ mobile), where there originally stood a full short vowel, e.g. עֲ, עָגָה (ground-form ‘ăgălăt) a waggon, צְרָקָה (ground-

c. 2. That vowels originally short have in the tone-syllable, as also in the open syllable preceding it, been generally changed into the corresponding tone-long vowels, $\breve{a}$ into $\bar{a}$, $\check{c}$ into $\bar{e}, \breve{u}$ into $\bar{o}$ (see § 9, $a-e, k, r)$. If, however, the tone be shifted or weakened, these tonelong vowels mostly revert to their original shortness, or, occasionally, are still further shortened, or reduced to mere $S^{\zeta} w a$ mobile, or, finally, are entirely lost through a change in the division of syllables; e.g. מָ (Arab. mătăr) rain, when in close dependence on a following genitive
 dual construct (with attenuation of the original $\check{a}$ of the first syllable
 yäqtŭlû). For instances of complete loss, as in

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division of syllables, be weakened to $S^{〔} w a$ mobile, or even be entirely lost, so that its place is taken by the mere syllable-divider ( $\Psi_{e} u \cdot a$ quiescens). Examples of the first case are, $\mathrm{D} \%$ name, pl. niver, but
 righteousness, constr. st. צָּק ; an example of the second case is, ${ }^{1}$ bessing, constr. st. . .
 consecutive syllables, depends upon the character of the form in question. In general the rule is that only those vowels which stand in an open syllable can become $\breve{S}^{e} w d$.
Thus the change into $\breve{S}_{e} u a$ takes place in-
l. . (a) The $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{e}$ of the first syllable, especially in the inflexion
 לִבְבִי my heart; but also in the verb, , and so always, when the originally short vowel of the prefixes of the Imperfect comes to stand in an open syllable which is not pretonic. On the other hand, an $\bar{a}$ lengthened from $\breve{a}$ before the tone is retained in the Perfect consecutive of Qal even in the secondary tone, e. g. बịְ
$l$ (b) The short, or merely tone-long, vowels $a, e, o$ of the ultima,

 The helping vowels are eitler entirely omitted, e.g. form malk), מַּ my king; or, under the iufluence of a guttural, are
 unmoved, the vowel also is retained, notwithstanding the lengthening of the word, e.g. g .
$m$ Where the tone moves forward two places, the former of the two vowels of a dissyllabic word may be shortened, and the second

 $\bar{r}$, see further, $s, t$.
$n$ Rem. $\dot{1} \cdot$ An $\hat{o}$ arising from $a w=a u$, or by an obscuring of $\hat{a}$ (see $\S \rho b$ ), sometimes becomes $\hat{u}$, when the tone is moved forward, e.g. DipJ̦, ñicipp?

 , בְּחֵקִי, cf. also the examples in $\S 90$ ), is to be regarded as an orthographic licence, although sometimes in such cases $\hat{u}$ may really have been intended ly the $K^{e}$ thibh.
0 Of the vowels of the $U$-class, $\hat{u}$ and tone-long $\bar{o}$ stand in a tone-bearing
closed final syllable, and ó in a toneless syllable, e.g. he will arise, יָּ jussive, let him arise, lin and he arose. The only instance of $\check{u}$ in an ultima which has lost the tone is vowels of the $I$-class, $\hat{e}, \hat{i}$, and $\bar{e}$ stand in a tone-bearing closed final syllable, and $\notin$ in a toneless syllable, e.g. יָ we will raise, raised. The only instance of $i$ in an ultima which has lost the tone is Ju $9^{63}$ (see § $67 p$ ).
2. In the place of a Pathah we not infrequently find (according to § $9 f$ ) $\boldsymbol{p}$ a $S^{e} g h o ̂ l(\breve{e}, \grave{e})$ as a modification of $a$ :
 where LXX ' $A B ル=$ אַבִּ, which is certainly the better reading, cf. Ulmer,
 also surrounding consonants (see $\S 6 q$ ) has no doubt had an influence.
(b) Regularly before a guttural with Qames or Hateph Qames, $q$ where the strengthening has been dropped, provided that a lengthening of the Pathah into Qames be not necessary, e.g. אָּ his brothers, for 'ahāw; שֶּׁ coal; "הֶּ
 Before $\underset{T}{ }$ and $\underset{\sim}{V} S^{e} g h \hat{i l}$ generally stands only in the second syllable before the tone, e.g. הֵהדרִים the mountains; the guilt; immediately lefore the tone Pathah is lengthened into a (pretonic) Qames, e.g.
 $א$ and 7 (cf. § $22 c, q$ ), the lengthening of the Pathah into Qames


 a form of the interrogative § 37 e, f. Fiually, consequence of the loss of the strengthening, for Ezekiel for
(c) As a modification of the original Pathali in the first class of the segholate $\boldsymbol{r} \cdot$ forms ( $\$ 93 \mathrm{~g}$ ), when a helping vowel ( $\$ 28 e$ ) is inserted after the second consonant. Thus the ground-form kalb (dog), after receiving a helping $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$, is modified into כֶּלֶ" (also in modern Arabic pronounced kelb), ${ }^{1}$ yarll (month), with a helping Pathah, Ti. The same phenomenon appears also in the formation of verbs, in cases like in (jussive of the Hiph'ill of a helping Seghôl, for yagl.
3. The attenuation of $\check{a}$ to $\mathfrak{i}$ is very common in a toneless closed syllable. $f$
(a) In a firmly closed syllable, מִּ his measure, for מַדּ (in a sharpened
 Fz $3^{8}{ }^{29}$, and $\S 44 \mathrm{~d}$. Especially is this the case in a large number of s'gholates
from the ground-form gatl, when combined with singular suffixes, e.g. צִדְקִ my righteousness, for sadqi.

## $t$

(b) In a loosely-closed syllable, i.e. one followed by an aspirated Begadkephath, as
 a garment. In most cases of this kind the attenuation is easily intelligible from the nature of the surrounding consonants. It is evident from a comparison of the dialects, that the attenuation was consistently carried out in a very large number of noun and verb-forms in Hebrew, as will be shown in the proper places. ${ }^{1}$
$u$ 4. Seghol arises, in addition to the cases mentioned in $o$ and $p$, also from the weakening of $\bar{a}$ of the final syllable in the isolated cases ( $\boldsymbol{N}_{\square}$ for $\boldsymbol{H}_{\boldsymbol{r}}$ ) in I S $28^{15}\left(?\right.$ see $\S 4^{8} d$ ), $\psi 20^{4}(?)$, Is $59^{\mathrm{K}}, \operatorname{Pr} 24^{14}($ see $\S 48 l$ ); for examples of Locative forms in $\pi_{\%}$ see $\S 90 i$ end.
$\boldsymbol{v}$
5. Among the Hateph-sounds - is shorter and lighter than $\ldots$, and consequently the vowel group $=\frac{T}{F}$ is shorter than $\bar{\pi}$; e.g. but (Edamite), shortened at the beginning because the tone is thrown


zo
6. To the chapter on vowel changes belongs lastly the dissimilation of vowels, i. e. the change of one vowel into another entirely heterogeneous, in order to prevent two similar, or closely related vowels, from following one another in the same word. ${ }^{2}$ Hence א


 same way, see now Prătorius, ZDMG. 1905, p. 341 f.

## § 28. The Rise of New Vowels and Syllables.

$a$ 1. According to $\oint 26 m$ a half-syllable, i. e. a consonant with Šewâ $^{2}$ mobile (always weakened from a short vowel), can only occur in close dependence on a full syllable. If another half-syllable with simple
 is almost always Hireq. In most cases it is probably an attenuation of an original $a$, and never a mere helping vowel. In some instances analogy may have led to the choice of the $\ell$. Thus, according to

 in


[^50]
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## 94 Pcculiarities and Changes of Letters [\$\$28f,29a-d

$S^{e} g h o ̂ l$, but with medial or final gutturals a Pathah, ${ }^{1}$ and after , a Hireq, e. g.

 helping vowels are, however, to be regarded as exactly like furtive Pathah ( $\S 22 f, g$ ); they do not alter the monosyllabic character of
 holiness,
5. On the rise of a full vowel in place of a simple $\zeta^{e} w a$, under the influence of the pause, see § 29 m ; on initial $\S$ for $\stackrel{N}{\text {, }}$, see $\S 23 \mathrm{~h}$.

## § 29. The Tone, its Changes and the Pause.

1. The principal tone rests, according to the Masoretic accentuation (cf. § if c), as a rule on the final syllable, e.g.促解- in the last five examples on the formative additions to the stem. Less frequently it rests on the penultima, as in
 if the ultima is open (e.g. can as a rule only be without the tone if the penultima is open, e.g.

$b$ A kind of counter-tone or secondary stress, as opposed to the principal tone, is marked by Metheg ( $\$ 16 c$ ). Words which are closely united by Maqqeph with the following word (§ $16 a$ ) can at the most have only a secondary tone.
c 2. The original tone of a word, however, frequently shifts its place in consequence either of changes in the word itself, or of its close connexion with other words. If the word is increased at the end, the tone is moved forward (descendit) one or two places according to the length of the addition, e.g. .


d 3. On the other hand, the original tone is shifted from the ultima to the penultima (ascendit):

[^51](a) In many forms of the Imperfect, under the influence of a pre-

 Niph'al, and $\S 6_{5} \mathrm{~g}$, end, on the impf. Piel; on these forms in Pause, when the 1 consec. does not take effect, see below, $p$.
(b) For rhythmical reasons (as often in other languages), when $\boldsymbol{C}$ a monosyllable, or a word with the tone on the first syllable, follows a word with the tone on the ultima, in order to avoid the concurrence of two tone-syllables. ${ }^{1}$ This rhythmical retraction of the tone, however ( (ָָin receding, as it is called by the Jewish grammarians), is only admissible according to $a$, above, provided that the penultima, which now receives the tone, is an open syllable (with a long vowel; but see $g$ ), whilst the ultima, which loses the tone, must be either an open syllable with a long vowel, e. g. 104 ${ }^{14}$, Dn $\mathrm{II}^{13}$, or a closed syllable with a short vowel, e.g. $\mathrm{Gn} 3^{19}, \mathrm{Jb}^{3}, 2^{288}{ }^{28}$ The grave suffixes as they never lose the tone. Moreover a fair number of instances occur in which the above conditions are fulfilled, but the tone is not retracted,
 (Lyck, 1862), p. $4^{\text {b }}$, line 13 ff.

Although Sere can remain in a closed ultima which has lost the tone, it $f$ is perhaps rot to be regarded in this case (see $\S 8 b$ ) as a long vowel. At any rate it then always has, in correct editions, a retarding Metheg, no doubt in order to prevent its being pronounced as $S^{e}$ ghôl, e.g. לְבָעֵך קָּיָ $\mathrm{Nu} 24^{22}$; cf. $\mathrm{Nu}{ }_{1}{ }^{23}$, Ju $20^{2}$, Is $66^{3}$, Jer ${ }_{2}{ }^{29}$, Ez $22^{25}, \psi 37^{7}$, and even with a following furtive Pathah $\operatorname{Pr}{ }^{19}, \mathrm{II}^{26}, \& c$., although there is no question here of two successive tone-syllables. In other cases the shortening into $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$ does take place, e.g. for when a half-syllable with a $\check{S}^{e}$ wâ mobile precedes the original tone-


[^52]


$\boldsymbol{g}$ According to the above, it must be regarded as anomalous when the Masora throws back the tone of a closed ultima upon a virtually sha pened svllable
 Ho $9^{2}$; לִצֶּ to bear the töne only when the ultima is open. Still more anomalous is the placing of the tone on a really sharpened syllable, when the ultima is closed, as in of the secondary tone. We should read either $\quad$ ה, or, with Frensdorff, Massora Magna, p. 167, Ginsb., Kittel, after Bomb., OTNer abnormal forms

(c) In pause, see $i-v$.

The meeting of two tone-syllables (see $e, f$ ) is avoided also by connecting the words with Maqqeph, in which case the first word entirely loses the tone, e.g. .
$i$ 4. Very important changes of the tone and of the vowels are effected by the pause. By this term is meant the strong stress laid on the tone-syllable in the last word of a sentence (verse) or clause. It is marked by a great distinctive accent, Silluq, 'Athnah, and in the accentuation of the books $\mathrm{D}^{\prime \prime}$ ת, 'Ôlè wêyôrēd (§ $\mathrm{I}_{5} h$ ). Apart from these principal pauses (the great pause), there are often pausal changes (the lesser pause) with the lesser distinctives, especially Segolta, Zaqeph $q a t o n, R^{e} b h \hat{a}^{a}$, and even with Past!a, Tiphha, Gereš, and $\left(\operatorname{Pr} 30^{4}\right)$ Pazer. ${ }^{1}$ The changes are as follows:
$k \quad(a)$ When the tone-syllable naturally has a short vowel, it as a rule
 An $\breve{a}$ which has been modified to S Seghôl usually becomes $\bar{a}$ in pause, e.g.

[^53]
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ค Mant., \&c.
(d) Conversely all forms of imperfects consecutive, whose final syllable, when not in paise, loses the tone and is pronounced with a short vowel, take, when in pause, the tone on the ultima with a tone-long vowel, e. g. n.
$q$ Of other effects of the pause we have still to mention, (1) the transition of



的 Is $42^{22}$, and without the pause $L$ תa $3^{48}$ ). So also
 instead of Ṣere, cf. $\S 5^{2} n, 60 d$, and especially $\S 75 n$, on $\operatorname{Pr}_{4}^{4}$ and $7^{3}$.
$r$ (2) The transition from $d x$ to $\grave{e}$ in the ultima; so always in the formula (for
$S$ (3) The pausal Qames (according to $\S 54 k$, lengthened from original $\breve{a}$ ) in



$t$ (4) The restoration of a final Yodh which has been dropped from the stem,
 latter also without the pause Is $56^{9.12}$; cf. Jb $12^{6}$, and the same occurrence even in the word before the pause Dt $3^{237}$, Is $21^{12}$.
$u$ (5) The transition from $\hat{o}$ or $\bar{o}$ to $\bar{a}$ in pause : as $\mathrm{m}_{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{I} s{ }^{11}$, if it be a locative




$v$ (6) When a Pathah both precedes and follows a virtually strengthened guttural, the second becomes $\bar{a}$ in pause, and the first Seghôl, according to
 an original Pathah after a guttural has been attenuated to $i$ out of pause, and then lengthened to $\bar{e}$ 'with the tone (cf. $\S 54 k$ ), e.g. Dt $3^{296}$; cf. Nu $8^{7}, 23^{19}, \mathrm{Ez}_{5}{ }^{13}, \psi_{1}{ }^{1} 35^{14}$.-On pausal Sere, for S Shôl, in infin., imperat., and imperf. of verbs $\mathrm{N}^{\prime \prime}$, see § 75 hh .
$w$ [Other instances of the full vowel in lesser pause, where the voice would naturally rest on the word, are Gn $15^{14}$ יעבֹו, Is $8^{15}, 40^{24}, \mathrm{Ho}_{4} 4^{12}, 8^{7}$, Dn $9^{15}$, and very often in such cases.]

## SECOND PART

## ETYMOLOGY, OR THE PARTS OF SPEECH

## § 30. Stems and Roots ${ }^{1}$ : Biliteral, Triliteral, and Quadriliteral.

1. Stems in Hebrew, as in the other Semitic languages, have this $\left.{ }^{( }\right)$ peculiarity, that by far the majority of them consist of three consonants. On these the meaning essentially depends, while the various modifications of the idea are expressed rather by changes in the vowels, e.g. עמק (עָמק or עָמק ; the 3rd pers. sing. perf. does not occur)
 may be either a verb or a noun, and the language commonly exhihits
 a wise man. For practical purposes, however, it has long been the custom to regard as the stem the $3^{r d}$ pers. sing. Perf. Qal (see § 43), siuce it is one of the simplest forms of the verb, without any formative additions. Not only are the other forms of the verb referred to this stem, but also the noun-forms, and the large number of particles


Sometimes the language, as we have it, exhibits only the verbal $b$ stem without any corresponding noun-form, e.g. סָק to bray; and on the other hand, the noun sometimes exists without the corresponding verb, e. g. אֶֶ stone, south. Since, however, the nominal or verbal stems, which are not now found in Hebrew, generally occur in one or more of the other Semitic dialects, it may be assumed, as a rule, that Hebrew, when a living language, also possessed them. Thus, in Arabic, the verbal stem 'ăb̆̆nă (to become compact, lard) corresponds to
Rem. I. The Jewish grammarians call the stem (i.e. the 3 rd pers. sing. $\boldsymbol{C}$ Perf. QaI) שivív root. Hence it became customary among Christian grammarians to call the stem radix, and its three consonants litterae radicales, in contradistinction to the litterae serviles or formative letters. On the correct use of the term root, see $g$.

[^54]d 2. Others regard the three stem-consonants as a root, in the sense that, considered as vowelless and unpronounceable, it represents the common foundation of the verbal and nominal stems developed from it, just as in the vegetable world, from which the figure is borrowed, stems grow from the hidden root, e.g.

> Root : מלך, the indeterminate idea of ruling.

For the historical investigation of the language, however, this hypothesis of unpronounceable roots, with indeterminate meaning, is fruitless. Moreover, the term root, as it is generally understood by philologists, cannot be applied to the Semitic triliteral stem (see $f$ ). ${ }^{1}$
C 3. The 3rd sing. Perf. Qal, which, according to the above, is usually regarded, both lexicographically and grammatically, as the ground-form, is generally in Hebrew a dissyllable, e.g. קָּT. The monosyllabic forms have only arisen by contraction (according to the traditional explanation) from stems which had a weak letter ( ( or') for their middle consonant, e.g. ${ }^{\prime}$ p from qăwăm; or from stems whose second and third consonants are identical, e.g. צַ and צָר (but see below, $\S \S 67,72$ ). The dissyllabic forms have themselves no doubt arisen, through a loss of the final vowel, from trisyllables, e.g. קטקר from qătăl̆ă, as it is in literary Arabic.
2. The law of the triliteral stem is so strictly observed in the formation of verbs and nouns in Hebrew (and in the Semitic languages generally), that the language has sometimes adopted artificial methods to preserve at least an appearance of triliteralism in monosyllabic stems, e.g. such nouns, as אָ father, mother, אָּ brother, which were formerly all regarded as original monosyllabic forms (nomina primitiva), may, in some cases at least, have arisen from mutilation of a triliteral stem. $g$ On the other hand, a large number of triliteral stems really point to a biliteral base, which may be properly called a root (radix primaria, bilitteralis), since it forms the starting-point for several triliteral modifications of the same fundamental idea. Though in themselves unpronounceable, these roots are usually pronounced with $\breve{a}$ between the two consonants, and are represented in writing by the
 of a stem to the underlying root may generally be accomplished with certainty when the stem exhibits one weak consonant with two strong ones, or when the second and third consonants are identical. Thus
 striking, breaking, and the root common to them all is evidently the two strong consonants 7 דך (dakh). Very frequently, however, the development of the root into a stem is effected by the addition of

[^55]
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sometimes coincide with roots of a similar meaning in the Indo-Germanic family of languages ( $\S \mathrm{I} h$ ). Of other roots there is definite evidence that Semitic linguistic consciousness regarded them as onomatopoetic, whilst the Indo-Germanic instinct fails to recognize in them any imitation of sound.
$l$ regarded as the older from which a number of later stems probably arose
 , עלכך and and the almost consistent change of initial 1 to ${ }^{9}$. In other instances, however, the harder stems have only been adopted at a later period from Aramaic, e.g. תעתה טעה, Finally in many cases the harder and softer stems may have been in use together from the first, thus often distinguishing, by a kind of sound-painting, the intensive action from the less intensive; see above py to cut, it to shear, \&c.
$m$ (d) When two consonants are united to form a root they are usually either
 . Within (triliteral) stems the first and second consonants are never identical. The apparent exceptions are either due to reduplication
 cf. e.g. בבּה in the Lexicon. The first and third consonants are very seldom identical except in what are called concave stems (with middle 1 or ${ }^{1}$ ),
 § 55 f . The second and third consonants on the other hand are very frequently identical, see § $67 .{ }^{1}$
(e) The softening mentioned under $l$ is sometimes so great that strong consonants, especially in the middle of the stem, actually pass into vowels:

0 ( $f$ ) Some of the cases in which triliteral stems cannot with certainty be traced back to a biliteral root, may be due to a combination of two rootsa simple method of forming expressions to correspond to more complex ideas.

1) 3. Stems of four, or even (in the case of nouns) of five consonants ${ }^{2}$ are secondary formations. They arise from an extension of the triliteral stem : ( $a$ ) by addition of a fourth stem-consonant; (b) in some cases perhaps by composition and contraction of two triliteral stems, by which means even quinquiliterals are produced. Stems which have arisen from reduplication of the biliteral root, or from the mere repetition of one or two of the three original stem-consonants, e.g. כִּלִבּל from כול or סחר on שחרחחר , כיל , are usually not regarded as quadriliterals or quinqueliterals, but as conjugational forms (§55); so also
 from לָּרַ, correspond to the Aramaic conjugation Šaphéel,
$q$
Rem. on (a). The letters $r$ and $l$, especially, are inserted between the first



[^56] corresponding to the Hebrew $P i^{\prime \prime} \bar{l}$ ). In Latin there is a similar expansion of fid, scid, tud, jug into findo, scindo, tundo, jungo. At the end of words the commonest expansion is by means of $\zeta$ and $\}$, e.g. פַּרֶמל , garden-land

 of death, ${ }^{1}$ were long regarded as compounds, though the explanation of them all was uncertain. Many words of this class, which earlier scholars attempted to explain from Hebrev sources, have since proved to be loan-words (§ I i), and consequently need no longer be taken into account.
4. A special class of formations, distinct from the fully developed $s$ stems of three or four consonants, are (a) the Interjections (§ io5), which, as being direct imitations of natural sounds, are independent of the ordinary formative laws; (b) the Pronouns. Whether these are to be regarded as the mutilated remains of early developed stems, or as relics of a period of language when the formation of stems followed different laws, must remain undecided. At all events, the many peculiarities of their formation ${ }^{2}$ require special treatment ( $\S 3^{2} \mathrm{ff}$ ). On the other hand, most of the particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions) seem to have arisen in Hebrew from fully developed stems, although in many instances, in consequence of extreme shortening, the $u^{\prime}$ Iderlying stem is no longer recognizable (see § 99 ff .).

## § 31. Grammatical Structure.

P. L’örwald, 'Die Formenbildungsgesetze des Hebr.' (Hilfsbuch für Lehrer des Helr.), Berlin, 1897 , is recommended for occasional reference.

1. The formation of the parts of speech from the stems (derivation), $a$ and their inflexion, are effected in two ways: (a) internally by changes in the stem itself, particularly in its vowels: (b) externally by the addition of formative syllables before or after it. The expression of grammatical relations (e.g. the comparative degree and some caserelations in Hebrew) periphrastically by means of separate words belongs, not to etymology, but to syntax.

The external method (b) of formation, by affixing formative syllables, $b$ which occurs e.g. in Egyptian, appears on the whole to be the more ancient. Yet other families of language, and particularly the Semitic, at a very early period had recourse also to the internal method, and during their youthful vigour widely developed their power of forming derivatives. But the continuous decay of this power in the later periods of language made syntactical circumlocution more and more necessary. The same process may be seen also e.g. in Greek (including modern Greek), and in Latin with its Romance offshoots.

[^57]c 2. Both methods of formation exist together in Hebrew. The internal mode of formation by means of vowel changes is tolerably

 and even these formative additions again are subject to internal
 as in almost all languages, chiefly in the formation of the persons of the verb, where the meaning of the affixed syllables is for the most part still perfectly clear (see $\S \S 44,47$ ). It is also employed to distinguish gender and number in the verb and noun. Of case-endings, on the contrary, only scanty traces remain in Hebrew (see § 90).

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Phoenician, Moabite, and Assyrian, but in no other of the kindred dialects ; ${ }^{1}$ from the latter the suffixes are derived (§33). The o most probably results from an obscuring of an original $\hat{a}$ (cf. Aram. אֲנָא, Arab. 'ana). The pausal form '
 Merkha (which, however, has been altered from Dehì), and twice in Mal $1^{6}$. In all these cases there is manifestly a disagreement between the vocalization already established and the special laws regulating the system of accentuation.
2. The formation of the plural, in this and the other persons, exhibits a certain analogy with that of the noun, while at the same time (like the pronouns of other languages) it is characterized by many differences and peculiarities. The short form אנו (אנוֹ) from which the suffix is derived occurs only in Jer $4^{2}{ }^{6} K^{e}$ thîbh. The form $\mathrm{Nu} 3^{2^{32}}, \mathrm{La} 3^{42}$; In the Mišna אנו (אָּנָ (
e 3. The pronoun of the ist person only is, as a rule in languages, of the common gender, because the person who is present and speaking needs no further indication of gender, as does the 2nd person, who is addressed (in Greek, Latin, English, \&c., this distinction is also lacking), and still more the 3 rd person who is absent.

## II. Second Person.

 from 'antā. \&c. The kindred languages have retained the $n$ before the $\Omega$, e.g. Arab. 'àntā, fem. 'ánti, thou; pl. 'ántum, fem. 'antúnna, ye. In Syriac אַ,
 אַנְת: is usual for both genders.

אַּ (without

l. The feminine form was originally as in Syriac, Arabic, and Ethiopic.
 $4^{30}, \mathrm{Ez}_{3} 6^{13}$ ) and appears also in the corresponding personal ending of verbs
 cf. also $\hat{\imath}$ as the ending of the 2nd fem. sing. of the imperative and imperfect. The final $i$ was, however, gradually dropped in pronunciation, just as in Syriac (see above, $f$ ) it was eventually only written, not pronounced. The ' therefore finally disappeared (cf. $\S 10 k$ ), and hence the Masoretes, even in
 the $Q^{e} r e \hat{e} \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{R}}$ (see §17). The same final -_ appears in the rare (Aramaic) forms of the suffix
$i$ 5. The plurals $\underset{\text { - }}{\boldsymbol{\sim}}$ (with the second vowel assimilated to the fem. form)
 assumed ground-forms 'antumū, fem. 'antinnā, Arab. 'ântüm (Aram. אַתוּ,



[^58] even used as feminine.

## III. Third Person.

6. (a) In היא (hîu and hî) the $N$ (corresponding to the 'Elif of pro' $F_{i}$ longation in Arabic, cf. $\S 23 i$ ) might be regarded only as an-orthographic... addition closing the final long vowel, as in always written in the case of the separate pronouns, ${ }^{1}$ and only as a toneless
 Syriac) they are written $1 \pi^{-1}$ and $\bar{d}$ büt pronounced húuă and hiyă, and in Vulgar Arabic even húwwa and hiyya. This Arabic pronunciation alone would not indeed be decisive, since the vowel complement might have arisen from the more consonantal pronunciation of the $\boldsymbol{\prime}$ and '; but the Ethiopic we'et $\hat{u}$
 אin) show that the was original and indicated an original vocalic termination of the two words. According to Philippi (ZDMG. xxviii. 172 and xxix. 37 I ff.) N
(b) The form also stands in the consonantal text ( $K^{e}$ thibh) of the $l$ Pentateuch ${ }^{2}$ (with the exception of eleven places) for the fem. הִיא. In all such cases the Masora, by the punctuation $\boldsymbol{N}$ (Qerê perpetuum, see § 17). The old explanation regarded this phenomenon as an archaism which was incorrectly removed by the Masoretes. This assumption is, however, clearly untenable, if we consider (i) that no other Semitic language is without the quite indispensable distinction of gender in the separate pronoun of the 3 rd pers.; (2) that this distinction does occur eleven times in the Pentateuch, and that in Gn $20^{5}, 38^{25}$, Nu $5^{13.14}$ Nin and Nare found close to one another ; (3) that outside the Pentateuch the distinction is found in the oldest documents, so that the cannot be regarded as having been subsequently adopted from the Aramaic ; (4) that those parts of the book of Joshua which certainly formed a constituent part of the original sources of the Pentateuch, know nothing of this epicene use of Nin. Consequently there only remains the hypothesis, that the writing of for היא rests on an orthographical peculiarity which in some recension of the Pentateuch-text was almost consistently followed, but was afterwards very properly rejected by the Masoretes. The orthography was, however, peculiar to the Pentateuch-text alone, since it is unnecessary to follow the Masora in
 $5^{8}, 1$ Ch 29 ${ }^{\text {i6. }}$. The Samaritan recension of the Pentateuch has the correct form in the $K^{e}$, hibh throughout. Levy's explanation of this strange practice of the Masoretes is evidently right, viz. that originally $\boldsymbol{N}$ was written for both forms (see $k$, note), and was almost everywhere, irrespective of gender, expanded into Ni. On the whole question see Driver, Leviticus (in Haupt's Bible), p. 25 f. In the text Driver always reads N.
 ful origin, but הֵמִּה , הֵה have probably been assimilated to whinch goes


[^59]('enûn), Arab. hümúu (archaic form of hum), and Ethiop. hômû, an $\hat{o}$ or $\hat{u}$ is appended, which in Hebrew seems to reappear in the poetical suffixes in_, in
$n$ In some passages הin stands for the feminine ( $\mathrm{Zc} 5^{10}, \mathrm{Ct} 6^{8}, \mathrm{Ru} 1^{22}$; cf. the use of the suffix of the 3 rd masc. for the 3 rd fem., $\S 1350$ and $\& 145 t$ ). For the quite anomalous עֲרָּ
$O$ 8. The pronouns of the 3 rd person may refer to things as well as persons. On their meaning as demonstratives see $\S 136$.

## § 33. Pronominal Suffixes.

Brockelmann, Semit. Sprachwiss., p. 100 f.; Grundriss, i. 306 ff. J. Barth, ' Beiträge zur Suffixlehre des Nordsemit.,' in the Amer. Journ. of Sem. Lang., 1901, p. 193 ff.
a 1. The independent principal forms of the personal pronoun (the separate pronoun), given in the preceding section, express only the nominative. ${ }^{1}$ The accusative and genitive are expressed by forms, usually shorter, joined to the end of verbs, nouns, and particles (pronominal suffixes or simply suffixes); e.g. 7 (toneless) and $\boldsymbol{i}$ (from anh $\hat{u}$ )

 lux eius.
The same method is employed in all the other Semitic languages, as well as in the Egyptian, Persian, Finnish, Tartar, and others; in Greek, Latin, and German we find only slight traces of the kind, e. g. German, er gab's for
 and Terence for ecce eum, ecce eos.
2. The case which these suffixes represent is-
(a) When joined to verbs, the accusative (cf., however, § II $7 x$ ),

c (b) When affixed to substantives, the genitive (like $\pi a \tau \eta^{\prime} \rho \mu o v$, pater eius). They then serve as possessive pronouns, e.g. אָדִ ('ābh-î) my father, íD his horse, which may be either equus eius or equus suus.
d (c) When joined to particles, either the genitive or accusative, according as the particles originally expressed the idea of a noun or a verb, e.g. causa); but הְִִִִ behold me, ecce me.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ (d) Where, according to the Indo-Germanic case-system, the dative or ablative of the pronoun is required, the suffixes in Hebrew are joined to prepositions expressing those cases (? sign of the dative,



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d 2. The secondary form ir occurs only in poetic style, and mostly for the relative, like our that for who [see Lexicon, s.v.]. Like (§ ֻive (§ $3^{6}$ ), it serves for all numbers and genders.

 $f^{\text {this is the man. }}$
2. Rarer secondary forms, with strengthened demonstrative force, are הַמֶּנֶה Gn $24^{68}, 37^{19}$;
 ${ }^{2019}$ LXX; see Commentaries and Kittel].
g 3. The personal pronouns of the 3 rd person also often have a demonstrative sense, see § 136.

## § 35. The Article.

J. Barth, 'Der heb. u. der aram. Artikel,'in Sprachwiss. Untersuch. zum Semit., Lpz. 1907, p. 47 ff.
$a$

1. The article, which is by nature a kind of demonstrative pronoun, never appears in Hebrew as an independent word, but always in closest connexion with the word which is defined by it. It usually takes the form $\cdot \underset{-}{ }$, with $\breve{a}$ and a strengthening of the next consonant,


$b$ Rem. With regard to the Dages in ? after the article, the rule is, that it is

 forte also stands after the article in the prefix in certain nouns and in the participles Pi'el and Pu'al (see $\$ 5^{2 c}$ ) before $\pi$, ע and 7 , except when the guttural (or 7 ) has under it a short vowel in a sharpened syllable; thus

 Jos $6^{22}$. Before letters other than gutturals this $\underset{\text { Premains without Dageé, }}{ }$ according to $\S 20 \mathrm{~m}$.
c 2. When the article stands before a gattural, which (according to § $22 b$ ) cannot properly be strengthened, the following cases arise, according to the character of the guttural (cf. § $27 q$ ).
(1) In the case of the weakest guttural, $\mathbb{K}$, and also with 7 ( $\$ 22 c$ and $q$ ), the strengthening is altogether omitted. Consequently, the Pathah of the article (since it stands in an open syllable) is always



 Baer on the passage); האחקְים (as in Nu $11^{4}, \mathrm{Ju}_{9} 9^{41},{ }_{2} \mathrm{~S}_{2} 3^{39}$, with the $א$


(2) In the case of the other gutturals either the virtual strengthen- $e$ ing takes place ( $\$ 22 c$ ) -especially with the stronger sounds $\pi$ and $n$, less often with $y$-or the strengthening is wholly omitted. In the former case, the Pathah of the article remains, because the syllable is still regarded as closed; in the second case, the Pathah is either modified to $S^{e} g h o h l$ or fully lengthened to Qames. That is to say :-
A. When the guttural has any other vowel than $\bar{a}(-)$ or $\check{o}(-\bar{r}), f$ then
(r) before the stronger sounds $\pi$ and $\pi$ the article regularly remains
 Before $\dot{\pi}, \bar{a}$ occurs only in ${ }^{n}$ הָ Gn $6^{19}$ [not elsewhere], רָחַחִיטִים Is $3^{22}$,

(2) before $y$ the Pathah is generally lengthened to Qames, e.g. ${ }^{2}$.





B. When the guttural has $\bar{a}(-\bar{r})$ then
(I) immediately before a tone-bearing $\underset{T}{ }$ or $\underset{\sim}{~ t h e ~ a r t i c l e ~ i s ~ a l w a y s ~}$ Tָ, otherwise it is pause) the eye, דָּרָהרה towards the mountain; but (according to § 22 c)

(2) before $\Pi$ The article is invariably $\underset{\sim}{7}$ without regard to the tone; $\boldsymbol{i}$ e.g. הֶהָ the wise man, הֶָּ the festival.


 ロ品 the sheaves Ru $2^{15}$.

The gender and number of the noun have no influence on the form of the article.
Rem. r. The original form of the Hebrew (and the Phoenician) article $\boldsymbol{i} l$ is generally considered to have been $\boldsymbol{K}_{\text {, }}$, the $\zeta$ of which (owing to the proclitic nature of the article) has been invariably assimilated to the following consonant, as in חe? from yilqah, §19 d. This view was supported by the form of the Arabic article K (pronounced hal by some modern Beduin), the $b$ of which is also assimilated at least before all letters like $s$ and $t$ and before $l, n$,


But Barth (Amer. Journ. of Sem. Lang., 1896, p. 7 ff.), following Hupfeld and Stade, has shown that the Hebrew article is to be connected rather with the original Semitic demonstrative $h \bar{a},{ }^{1}$ cf. Arab. häda, Aram. hādēn, \&c. The sharpening of the following consonant is to be explained exactly like the sharpening after ! consecutive ( $849 f$; cf. also cases like § $102 k$, from the close connexion of the $h a$ with the following word, and the sharpening necessarily involved the shortening of the vowel. ${ }^{2}$
The Arabic article is supposed to occur in the Old Testament in

 correct. On the other hand, in the proper name ${ }^{\text {™ }}$ Gn ${ }_{10}{ }^{26}$ the first syllable is probably
 monly explained as = Arab. al-qaum, the militia, is also quite uncertain.
 elided, and its vowel is thrown back to the prefix, in the place of the $S^{\rho}$ wa (§ $19 k$, and § $23 k$ ), e.g. בַּ
 read כָּעָָ instead of the impossible almost exclusively in the later Books: Ez $4^{0^{25}}$, $47^{22}$, Ec $8^{1}$, Dn $8^{16}$, Neh $9^{19}$, $12^{33}, 2$ Ch $10^{7}, 25^{10}, 29^{27}$; cf., however, $1 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 3^{21}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{21}{ }^{20}$. Elsewhere, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K} 7^{12}$, the Masora requires the elision in the $Q^{e} r e ̂$. A distinction in meaning
 of all (Gn $25^{31}, \& c$.). After the copula ! (and) elision of the it does not take place, e. g. ilay.

 Tin ; cf. also read אָרוֹ), with the article always gincin.

## § 36. The Relative Pronoun.

The relative pronoun (cf. § 138 ) is usually the indeclinable (who, which, \&c.), originally a demonstrative pronoun; see further §§ 138 and ${ }^{155}$. In the later books, especially Eccles. and the late Psalms, also Lam. (4 times), Jon. ( $\mathbf{r}^{7}$ ), Chron. (twice), Ezra (once),—and always in the Canticle (cf. also $\mathrm{Ju} 7^{12}, 8^{26}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 6^{11}$ ), ${ }^{*}$ שֶׁ is

 according to some (e. g. Qimhi) also in Ec $2^{22} .{ }^{3} \quad$ [See Lexicon, s. v.]

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## THE VERB

## § 38. General View.

a Verbal stems are either original or derived. They are usually divided into-
(a) Verbal stems proper (primitive verbs), which exhibit the stem without any addition, e,g. קָ he has reigned.
$b$
(b) Verbal derivatives, i.e. secondary verbal stems, derived from the
 קָּטָׁ to be holy. These are usually called conjugations (§ 39).
$c$ (c) Denominatives, ${ }^{1}$ i.e. verbs derived from nouns (like the Latin causari, praedari, and Eng. to skin, to stone), or even from particles (see $d$, end) either in a primitive or derivative form, e.g. אָּה , Qal and Pīē, to pitch a tent, from

d This does not exclude the possibility that, for nouns, from which denominative verbs are derived, the corresponding (original) verbal stem may still be found either in Hebrew or in the dialects. The meaning, however, is sufficient to show that the denominatives have come from the noun, not from the verbal stem, e.g. לְבֵנָה a brick (verbal stem to be white), denomin.

 summer (from קַ summer, stem קיץ pe to be hot).

On 'Semitic verbs derived from particles' see P. Haupt in the Amer. Journ. of Sem. Lang., xxii (1906), 257 ff.
§ 39. Ground-form and Derived Stems. Brockelmann, Sem. Sprachwiss., p. 119 ff.; Grundriss, p. 504 ff.
$a$ 1. The 3 rd sing. masc. of the Perfect in the form of the pure stem (i.e. in Qal, see e) is generally regarded, lexicographically and grammatically, as the ground-form of the verb ( $\$ 30 a$ ), e.g. killed, כָּבָּר he was heavy, 论 he was little. ${ }^{2}$ From this form the other

[^61]persons of the Perfect are derived, and the Participle also is connected with it. קpe por like the Imperative and Infinitive construct in sound, may also be regarded as an alternative ground-form, with which the Imperfect (see § 47) is connected.
In verbs $¥>y$ (i.e. with 1 for their second radical) the stem-form, given both $b$ in Lexicon and Grammar, is not the $3^{\text {rd }}$ sing. masc. Perfect (consisting of two consonants), but the form with medial 1, which appears in the Imperative and Infinitive; e. g. בּׁׂ to return (3rd pers. perf.

2. From the pure stem, or Qal, the derivative stems are formed $c$ according to an unvarying analogy, in which the idea of the stem assumes the most varied shades of meaning, according to the changes in its form (intensive, frequentative, privative, causative, reflexive, reciprocal; some of them with corresponding passive forms), e.g.

 as new or derivative verbs, e. g. Germ. fallen (to fall), fällen (to fell); trinken (to drink), tränken (to drench); Lat. Zactere (to suck, Germ. saugen), lactare (to suckle, Germ. säugen); iacěre (to throw), iacēre (to lie down) ; $\gamma^{\prime} v o \mu a l, \gamma \in v v^{\prime} \omega$. In Hebrew, however, these formations are incomparably more regular and systematic than (e.g.) in Greek, Latin, or English; and, since the time of Reuchlin, they have usually been called conjugations of the primitive form (among the Jewish grammarians $\boldsymbol{3}$ ביְיָנים, i.e. formations, or more correctly species), and are always treated together in the grammar and lexicon. ${ }^{1}$
3. The changes in the primitive form consist either in internal $d$ modification by means of vowel-change and strengthening of the middle consonant (pep, pep ; pep ; cf. to lie, to lay; to fall, to fell), or
 or finally in the introduction of formative additions (נְְְ (נ), which may


In Aramaic the formation of the conjugations is effected more by formative additions than by vowel-change. The vocalic distinctions have mostly become obsolete, so that, e. g. the reflexives with the prefix usurped the place of the passives. On the other hand, Arabio has preserved great wealth in both methods of formation, while Hebrew in this, as in other respects, holds the middle place (§ I $m$ ).
4. Grammarians differ as to the number and arrangement of these $\mathcal{C}$ conjugations. The common practice, however, of calling them by the

[^62]old grammatical terms, prevents any misunderstanding. The simple form is called Qal (לP light, because it has no formative additions) ; the others (בְּבְים heavy, being weighted, as it were, with the strengthening of consonants or with formative additions) take their names from the paradigm of her he has done, ${ }^{1}$ which was used in the earliest Jewish grammatical works. Several of these have passives which are distinguished from their actives by more obscure vowels. The common conjugations (including Gal and the passives) are the seven following, but very few verbs exhibit them all:

Active.

1. Wal
hop to kill.
נְְִטַ to kill oneself (rarely passive).
2. Niph'al
3. Riel
4. Hiphîl
5. Hithpa ${ }^{\circ}$ el

To to kill many, to massacre.
החקְטִיל to cause to kill.
הִחְקֵּ to kill oneself.

## Passive.

(Cf. § $5^{2 e}$ e.)
4. Pu'al

## pop.

6. Hoph'al לחקּ.

$g$ There are besides several less frequent conjugations, some of which, however, are more common in the kindred languages, and even in Hebrew (in the weak verb) regularly take the place of the usual conjugations (\$55).

In Arabic there is a greater variety of conjugations, and their arrangement is more appropriate. According to the Arabic method, the Hebrew conjugations would stand thus: 1. Qal; 2. Pi 'ell and Pupal; 3. Pot' $\bar{e} l$ and $P \hat{o}^{\circ} a l$ (see § 55 b) ; 4. Hiph'il and Hoph'al ; 5. Hithpa'el and Hothpa'al ; 6. Hithpốel (see § 55 b) ; 7. Niphial; 8. Hithpa'ēl (see § 54 l) ; 9. Pi'l̄ll (see § 55 d). A more satisfactory division would be into three classes: (1) The intensive $P i{ }^{*} \bar{l} l$ with the derived and analogous forms Pupal and Hithpa'él. (2) The causative Hiph'il with its passive Hoph'al, and the analogous forms (S'aph'el and Tiph'el). (3) The reflexivemor passive Niph'al.

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## § 41. Variations from the Ordinary Form of the Strong Verb.

a The same laws which are normally exhibited in stems with strong (unchangeable) consonants, hold good for all other verbs. Deviations from the model of the strong verb are only modifications due to the special character or weakness of certain consonants, viz. : -
(a) When one of the stem-consonants (or radicals) is a guttural. In this case, however, the variations only occur in the vocalization (according to § 22), not in the consonants. The guttural verbs ( $\$ \S$ 62-65) are, therefore, only a variety of the strong verb.
$b$ (b) When a stem-consonant (radical) disappears by assimilation ( $\S 19 b-f$ ), or when the stem originally consisted of only two con-

$c$ (c) When one of the stem-consonants (radicals) is a weak letter. In this case, through aphaeresis, elision, \&c., of the weak consonant, various important deviations from the regular form occur. Cf. § 68 ff . for these verbs, such as $\underset{\sim}{\text { TV }}$
d Taking the old paradigm of the Jewish grammarians, to call the first radical of any stem $日$, the second $y$, and the third ל. Hence the expressions, verb $\mathcal{N}^{\prime \prime}$ for a verb whose first
 a verb whose second radical is repeated to form a third.

## I. The Strong Verb.

§ 42.
As the formation of the strong verb is the model also for the weak verb, a statement of the general formative laws should precede the treatment of special cases.

Paradigm B, together with the Table of the personal preformatives and afformatives given in $\S 40 \mathrm{c}$, offers a complete survey of the normal forms. A full explanation of them is given in the following sections ( $\delta \S 43-5.5$ ), where each point is elucidated on its first occurrence; thus e.g. the inflexion of the Perfect, the Imperfect and its modifications, will be found under Qal, \&c.

## A. The Pure Stem, or Qal.

## § 43. Its Form and Meaning.

$a$ The common form of the 3 rd sing. masc. of the Perfect Qal is ${ }^{\text {r }} \mathrm{p}$, with $\breve{a}$ (Pathah) in the second syllable, especially in transitive verbs (but see § 44 c ). There is also a form with $\bar{e}$ (Sere, originally $\grave{\imath}$ ), and another with $\bar{o}$ (Holem, originally $\check{u}$ ) in the second syllable, both of which, however, have almost always an intransitive ${ }^{1}$ meaning,

[^64]and serve to express states and qualities, e.g. כָּבָּ to be heavy, קָּ to be small.

In Paradigm B a verb middle a, a verb middle $\bar{\varepsilon}$, and a verb middle $\bar{o}$ are accordingly given side by side. The second example $\overline{\text { Tָּ }}$ ָ is chosen as showing, at the same time, when the Dages lene is to be inserted or omitted.
Rem. 1. The vowel of the second syllable is the principal vorvel, and hence $b$ on it depends the distinction between the transitive and intransitive meaning. The Qames of the first syllable is lengthened from an original $\breve{a}$ (cf. Arabic qătălă), but it can be retained in Hebrew only immediately before the tone, or at the most (with an open ultima) in the counter-tone with Metheg;
 plur. masc. In the Aramaic dialects the vowel of the first syllable is always
 qưtilăă, qătŭlă ; in Hebrew (after the rejection of the final vowel) i being in the tone-syllable has been regularly lengthened to $\bar{e}$, and $\breve{u}$ to $\bar{o}$.




## § 44. Flexion of the Perfect of Qal. ${ }^{1}$

1. The formation of the persons of the Perfect is effected by the ca addition of certain forms of the personal pronoun, and marks of the 3 rd fem. sing. and 3rd pl. (as afformatives) to the end of the verbal-stem, which contains the idea of a predicate, and may be regarded, in meaning if not in form, as a Participle or verbal adjective. For the $3^{\text {rd }}$ pers. sing. masc. Perfect, the pronominal or subject idea inherent
 killed_(as it were, killing thou, or a killer thou), a killer wast thou=
 ending of the ist pers. plur. (子-) is also certainly connected with
 ist pers. sing. (חִ) is to be referred, by an interchange of $\boldsymbol{\square}$ and $\Omega$
 In the third person $\Pi_{-}$(originally $n_{-}$, cf. below, $f$ ) is the mark of the feminine, as in a great number of nouns ( $\$ 80 c$ ), and $\exists$ is the termination of the plural ; cf., for the latter, the termination of the 3 rd and 2 nd pers. plur. Imperf. $u_{n a}$ in Arabic and $\hat{u}$ (often also $i^{7}$ )

[^65]in Hebrew, also una (in the construct state $\hat{u}$ ) as the plural termination of masc. nouns in literary Arabic.
2. The characteristic Puthah of the second syllable becomes $\check{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$ before an afformative beginning with a vowel, where it would otherwise
 Before an afformative beginning with a consonant the Pathah remains,
 תָּ קָּ \&c.) or before it. In the latter case, however, the Qames of the first syllable, being no longer a pretonic vowel, becomes vocal $\breve{S}^{e} w a$; as
 Metheg of the counter-tone in the Perf. consecutive, cf. $\$ 49 \boldsymbol{i}$.
C Rem. I. Verbs middle e in Hebrew (as in Ethiopic, but not in Arabic or Aramaic) generally change the $E$-sound in theirinflexion into Pathah (frequently so even in the 3 rd sing. masc. Perf.). This tendency to assimilate to the more common verbs middle a may also be explained from the laws of vocalization of the tone-bearing closed penultima, which does not readily admit of Sere, and never of Hireq, of which the STere is a lengthening (cf. $\S 26 p$ ). On the other hand, Sere is retained in an open syllable; regularly so in the weak stems $\kappa^{\prime \prime \prime}$ ( $\$ 74 g$ ), before suffixes ( $\$ 59$ i), and in the pausal forms of the strong stem in an open tone-syllable, e.g. דָּרָקָ it cleaveth, Jb 29 ${ }^{10}$ (not

 to $\S 29 q$.
2. In some weak stems middle a, the Pathah under the second radical sometimes, in a closed toneless syllable, becomes - , and, in one example, $\#$.


 I have asked him, I S $1^{20}\left(\mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{1}^{6}\right)$, and three times Qimhi already suggests the explanation, that the $\underset{i}{i(e)}$ and (see the Lexicon). The possibility of this explanation cannot be denied (especially in the case of $\operatorname{vin}_{\underset{\tau}{\prime}}$, see $\S 69 s$ ); the $i$ in these forms might, however, equally well have arisen from an attenuation of $\breve{a}(\$ 27 s)$, such as must in any case be assumed in the other instances. Moreover, it is worthy of notice that in all the above cases the $\mathfrak{i}$ is favoured by the character of the following consonant (a sibilant or dental), and in most of them also by the tendency towards assimilation of the vowels (cf. § $54 k$ and $\S 64 f$ ).
 diAst tremble; יָּלֹל in pause for syllable the original short vowel appears in the form of a Qames hatuph;
 able, Ex $\mathrm{J} 8^{23}$; in a toneless open syllable it becomes vocal $\check{S} e w a \hat{a}$, e.g̣. -יָּ
4. Rarer forms ${ }^{1}$ are: Sing. 3rd fem. in $\Omega_{-}$(as in Arabic, Ethiopic, and

[^66]
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plur. by the termination $\Pi_{-}$, as in Biblical Aramaic. Noldeke (ZDMG. 38 [1884], p. 411) referred doubtfully to the textual readings in Dt 217, Jos 15 ${ }^{4}$, ${ }^{1812.14 .19}$, Jer $\mathbf{2}^{15}, 2^{26}$, where the Masora uniformly inserts the termination $\hat{u}$, and to Gn $4^{810}$ in the Samaritan Pentateuch, Gn $49^{22}$, IS $4^{15}, \psi$ 1 $^{95}$, Neh I $3^{10}$. In his Beiträge zur sem. Sprachwiss., p. I9, however, he observes that the construction of a fem. plural with the 3 rd sing. fem. is not unexampled, and also that $\Pi$ is often found as a mistake for 9 . On the other hand Mayer Lambert (U'ne série de Qeré ketib, Paris, 189r, p. 6 ff.) explains all these $\mathrm{K}^{\ominus}$ thîbh, as well as $\psi 73^{2}$, Jer $50^{6}$ (?), and (against Noldeke) a K $22^{49}$ (where in is undoubtedly
 marginal reading), also Jer $48^{41}, 5^{56}, \mathbf{E z ~} 26^{2}, \psi 68^{14}$, as remains of the 3 rd fem. plur. in $\boldsymbol{H}_{-}$. The form was abandoned as being indistinguishable from the (later) form of the 3rd fem. sing., but tended to be retained in the perfect of verbs $\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime \prime} \zeta$, as $K^{e}$ thibh six times in the above examples.

 afformatives they are Milrac ( $\xi_{15} \mathrm{c}$ ). The place of the tone may, however, be shifted: ( $a$ ) by the pause ( $\$ 29 i-v$ ), whenever a vowel which has become vocal $\mathrm{S}^{e}$ wâ under the second stem-consonant is restored by the pause; as ( certain cases after wāw consecutive of the Perfect (see $\S 49 h$ ).
0 6. Contraction of a final $n$ with the $\cap$ of the afformative occurs $\theta . g$. in

 afformative $\mathfrak{i l}$ occurs in 2 Ch 29 ${ }^{19}$; with the afformative where with Baer and Ginsburg ת ת ת is to be read, according to others (cf. in Polel תֶרַּגֶּ ed., Opitius and Hahn; with נָה in the Imperat. Hiph. Gn $4^{23}$, Is $\mathbf{3 2}^{9}$.

## § 45. The Infinitive.

F. Prätorius, 'Ueber den sog. Inf. absol. des Hebr.,' in ZDMG. 1902, p. 546 ff.
a 1. The Infinitive is represented in Hebrew by two forms, a shorter and a longer; both are, however, strictly speaking, independent nouns (verbal substantives). The shorter form, the Infinitive construct (in Qal לiep, ${ }^{1}$ sometimes incorrectly לip), is used in very various ways, sometimes in connexion with pronominal suffixes, or governing a substantive in the genitive, or with an accusative of the object (§ 115 ), sometimes in connexion with prepositions (ל? ל? to kill, § II4f), and sometimes in dependence upon substantives as genitive, or upon verbs as accusative of the object. On the other hand, the use of the longer form, the Infinitive absolute (in Qal bivp, sometimes also bip $p_{T}$, obscured from original qăt $a l$ ), is restricted to those cases in which it emphasizes
the abstract verbal idea, without regard to the subject or object of the action. It stands most frequently as an adverbial accusative with a finite verb of the same stem (§ II $3 h-s)$. ${ }^{1}$

The flexibility and versatility of the Infin. constr. and the rigidity $l$ and inflexibility of the Infin. absol. are reflected in their vocalization. The latter has unchangeable vowels, while the $\bar{o}$ of the Iufin. constr. may be lost. For לupp, according to $\S 84^{a}, e$, goes back to the groundform qưṭŭl.

## Other forms of the Infin. constr. Qal of the strong verb are-

 which have $\check{a}$ in the second syllable of the Imperf.: hence sometimes also with those, whose second or third radical is a guttural (frequently besides the ordinary form). All the examples (except $\mathcal{J}$ closest connexion with the following word, or with suffixes (see § 61 c ). In
 Infinitive= $=$ לְטְּבְּ ; probably
 feminine forms ${ }^{2}$ of times found along with forms having no feminine ending in use), e.g.







(c) In the Aramaic manner (מְִטְל but cf. also Arab. maqtal) there occur as $\boldsymbol{e}$
 ${ }^{1011}$ ); מִּ to take, $2 \mathrm{Ch} 19^{7}$, \&c. ; N Ez $17^{9}$ ); also with a feminine ending forms (almost all very late) Ryssel, De Elohistae Pentateuchici sermone, p. 50, and Strack on ${ }^{1}{ }_{4}{ }^{24}$.

2. A kind of Gerund is formed by the Infin. constr. with the prepo- $f$


[^67] seems to be indicated by the firmly closed syllable, cf.




 Ezrio ${ }^{16}$ read

## § 46. The Imperative.

1. The ground-forms of the Imperative, לiv? (properly $q^{e} t \stackrel{u}{u} l$, which is for an original qưtưu), and לְְ (see below, c), the same in pronunciation as the forms of the Infin. constr. (§ 45), are also the basis for the formation of the Imperfect (§47).' They represent the second person, and have both fem. and plur. forms. The third person is supplied by the Imperfect in the Jussive (§ rog b); and even the second person must always be expressed by the Jussive, if it be used with a
 Imperative, but it occurs in the reflexives, as Niphial and Hithpa'el. ${ }^{2}$
2. The Afformatives of the $2 n d \operatorname{sing}$. fem. and the $2 n d$ plur. nasc. and fem. are identical in every case with those of the Imperfect ( $\$ 47 \mathrm{c}$ ). In the same way, the Imperative of the $2 n d$ sing. masc., in common with the Imperfect, admits of the lengthening by the $\mathrm{T}_{-}$paragogicum ( $\$ 48 i$ ), as, on the other hand, there are certain shortened forms of this person analogous to the Jussive ( $\$ 48.5$ ).
C Rem. 1. Instead of the form לipp (sometimes also plene, e.g. Mineri Ec $1 a^{13}$; before Maqqeph - קְטָ with Qames hatuph), those verbs which have an $a$ in the final syllable of the Imperf. (i.e. especially verbs middle e make their


3. The first syllable of the sing. fem. and plur. masc. are usually to be

 same phonetic combination $\stackrel{1}{2} \mathfrak{ש}$

 (cf. I K $13^{7}$ ), see § r 0 h . This ŏ arises (see above, a) from a singular groundform qưtưll, not from a retraction of the original $\check{u}$ of the second syllable. We must abandon the view that the forms with $i$ in the first syllable (cf. also
[^68]
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stem-form was not always sufficient to express at the same time differences both of gender and number, the distinction had to be further indicated, in several cases, by special afformatives. Cf. the table, § 40 c .
$b$ 2. The derivation and meaning, both of the preformatives and the afformatives, can still, in most cases, be recognized.

In the first pers. wew
 a special ending was necessary. As regards the vocalization, the Arabic points to the ground-forms 'ăqtưl and năqṭull: the $\check{ }$ 冗o the ist plur. is, therefore, as in the other preformatives, attenuated from $a$. The Seghôl of the ist sing. is probably to be explained by the preference of the $\mathbb{K}$ for this sound (cf. § 220 , but also § $51 p$ ); according to Qimhi, it arises from an endeavour to avoid the similarity of sound between אִקְטל (which is the Babylonian punctuation) and לupu?, which, according to this view, was likewise pronounced iqtoll. ${ }^{1}$
c The preformative $n$ of the second persons (לuphe, ground-form tăqtül, \&c.) is, withoat doubt, connected with the $\pi$ of and the afformative - - of the 2 nd fem. sing. . original feminine form (see § $3^{2} h$ ). The afformative ${ }^{7}$ of the 2 nd masc. plur. חִּקְטְ (in its more complete form, $\beta$, see $m$ ) is the sign of the plural, as in the 3 rd pers., and also in the Perfect. $(\$ 44 a)$. In the Imperfect, however, it is restricted in both persons to the masculine, ${ }^{2}$ while the afformative fem. is probably connected with when eae and (fem.).
d The preformatives of the third persons ( $\cdot$ in the masc. bipe:, ground-

 With $\Omega$ might most obviously be compared the original feminine

[^69]ending $n_{-}$of nouns, and of the 3rd fem. sing. perfect. For the afformatives ${ }^{9}$ ( ${ }^{( }$) and ${ }^{\prime}$, see $c$.
3. The characteristic vowel of the second syllable becomes $S^{\text {e }}$ ed $e$ before tone-bearing afformatives which begin with a vowel, but is retained (as being in the tone-syllable) before the toneless afformative


Rem. I. The $\bar{o}$ of the second syllable (as in the inf. constr. and imperat.), $f$ being lengthened from an original $\check{u}$ in the tone-syllable, is only tone-long ( $\S_{9} r$ ). Hence it follows that: (a) it is incorrectly, although somewhat frequently, written plene; (b) before Maqqeph the short vowel appears as
 Jos $\mathbf{1 8}^{20}$ ); (c) it becomes $\breve{S}^{6}$ wâ before the tone-bearing afformatives -_ and 7


Quite anomalous are the three examples which, instead of a shortening to $\boldsymbol{g}$ $S^{C}{ }^{\text {en }} w \hat{a}$, exhibit a long $\hat{u}$ : $\bar{\square}$ pause, but according to Qimḷi(ed. Rittenb. p. $18^{\text {b }}$ ), ed. Mant.,Ginsb., Kittel against
 Ru $2^{8}$; תִּשְׁמּ
 effect of the pause; in $\operatorname{Pr} 1_{4}{ }^{3}$ חִּשׁׁn is to be read, with August Müller.
2. The $\bar{o}$ of the second syllable is to be found almost exclusively with transi- $/ \ell$
 $\breve{a}$ (Pathah) ${ }^{1}$ in the impf., e.g.
 to become great (but cf.
 has the form

Sometimes both forms occur together; those with $\bar{o}$ having a transitive, $\boldsymbol{i}$
 $0 . f$, i. e. is short ; More rarely both forms are used without any distinction, e.g. he bites, יִּחְַּּ meaning $=$ he bends, in $\mathrm{Jb}_{4} 0^{17}$ ). On the $a$ of the impf. of verbs middle and third guttural, cf. § $64 b ; \S 65 b$. In some verbs first guttural ( $\$ 63 n$ ),
 instead of $\breve{a}$ or $\bar{o}$ a movable Șere (criginally $\grave{i}$ ) is found in the second syllable. A trace of these $i$-imperfects ${ }^{2}$ in the ordinary strong verb is probably to be found in $2 \mathrm{~K} 7^{8}$, since three forms of the imperfect after their characteristic vowel impf. 0 , impf. $a$, impf. $e$.
3. For the 3 rd sing. fem.


[^70]לטprn is found in Is $57^{8}$, Jer $3^{5}$, Ez $22^{4}, 23^{33}$, in every case after the regular form; but of. also $\mathrm{Ez} 26^{14}$. In Is $17^{10}$, where the 2 nd fem. precedes and

 thrice (as if to distinguish it from the 2nd pers.) the form preformative ' (as always in Western Aram., Arab, Eth., and Assyr.), in
 to be incorrectly used even for the fem. of the 3rd pers. or for the masc. of the and pers. sing. as be read), and $\mathrm{Ob}^{13}$, for and sing. masc., according to Olshausen a corruption of

 form as a plural. This small number of examples hardly justifies our fuding in the above-mentioned passages the remains of an emphatic form of the Impf, analogous to the Arab. Modus energicus 1 , with the termination önnŭ.
For נָ we frequently find, especially in the Pentateuch and mostly
 Ez $3^{20},{ }^{16^{65}}$; in Arab. always nü. According to Elias Levita ( $2 \mathrm{~S}_{13}{ }^{18}$ ) is the only example of this kind in the strong verb. The form
 they were high, Ez $16^{600}$, is irregular, with ${ }^{\circ}$ inserted after the manner of
 by the following form.
4. Instead of the plural forms in 9 there are, especially in the older books, over 300 forms ${ }^{1}$ with the fuller ending $\uparrow$ (with Nûn paragogicum), always bearing the tone; cf. $\S 29 m$ and $\S 44 l$; on its retention before suffixes, see $\S 60 e$; also defectively 1 usually expresses marked emphasis, and consequently occurs most commonly at the end of senteuces (in the principal pause), in which case also the (pausal) vowel of the second syllable is generally retained. Thus there arise full-sounding forms such as $\mathfrak{i n}$
 with Zaqeph qaṭon, Athnah, and Silluq; Jos $24^{15}$, with Segolta; Is $13^{8}$ and $17^{13}$ with Zaqeph qaton, $17^{12}$ with Athnah and Silluq, $41^{5}$ after




Some of these examples may be partly due to euphonic reasons, e.g. certainly Ex $17^{2}, \operatorname{Nu} 16^{29}, 32^{20}$, IS $9^{13}$, I K $9^{6}$, and often, to avoid a hiatus before $\mathcal{N}$ or $ע$. It was, however, the pause especially which exerted an influence on the restoration of this older and fuller termination (cf. $\S 159 \mathrm{c}$, note), as is mani-


[^71]
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#### Abstract

jussive, yăqtŭl; (c) a double 'energetic' mood of the impf., yăqtŭlănnă and yăqtülăn, in pause yăqtŭlā, the last form thus corresponding to the Hebrew cohortative.


c 3. The characteristic of the cohortative form is an $\bar{a}$ ( $\boldsymbol{n}_{\boldsymbol{T}}$ ) affixed
 almost all conjugations and classes of the strong and weak verb (except of course in the passives), and this final $\Pi_{-}$has the tone wherever the afformatives ${ }^{9}$ and - would have it. As before these endings, so also before the $\boldsymbol{i}_{-}$cohortative, the movable vowel of the
 I will observe, in Piel בְנִּתְקָה let us break asunder, $\psi 2^{3}$; on Is $18^{4} Q^{e} r \hat{e}$ (cf. also $27^{4}, \operatorname{Ezr} 8^{25}$, \&c.), see § $10 h$; with the $K^{e} t h \hat{\imath} b h$ of these passages, compare the analogous cases the other hand, an unchangeable vowel in the final syllable is retained as tone-vowel before the $\mathrm{n}_{-}$, as (e.g.) in Hiph. אַּבְּיָּ $I$ will praise. In pause (as before $\hat{\imath}$ and $\hat{\imath}$ ), the vowel which became $\hat{S}^{\ell} w \hat{d}$ is restored as tone-vowel; thus for the cohortative תֶּשְׂרְרָ the pausal form is解 $\psi 59^{10}$; cf. Gn $18^{21}$, Is $4 \mathrm{I}^{26}$.
$d$ The change of $n_{\Gamma}$ into the obtuse $\Pi_{-}$seems to occur in I S $28^{15}$, unless, with Nestle, we are to assume a conflate reading, וָאקרָ m and and with the 3 rd pers. $\psi{ }^{20}{ }^{4}$, in a syllable sharpened by a following Dage§ forte conjunct. ; cf. similar cases of the change of $\pi_{T_{\top}}$ into the obtuse $ה_{\square}$ in $l$ and in $\S \S 73 d, 80 i, 90 i$. In $\psi 20^{4}$, however, intended. An $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\boldsymbol{T}}$ cohort. is also found with the 3rd pers. in Is $5^{19}$ (twice); Ez $23^{20}$, and again in verse 16 according to the $Q^{e} r e ̂$, but in both these cases without any effect on the meaning. Probably another instance occurs in Jb $11{ }^{17}$, although there ${ }^{\text {תָעֲפָּ }}$ might also, with Qimhi, be regarded as 2nd
 and König as a scribal error, due to a confusion with MאוM in verse 14), read
 meant, but the Masora has evidently intended an imperfect with the ending ath, instead of $\boldsymbol{H}_{\Gamma_{\tau}}$, before the suffix, on the analogy of the 3rd sing. fem.

$e$ The cohortative expresses the direction of the will to an action and thas denotes especially self-encouragement (in the ist plur. an exhortation to others at the same time), a resolution or a wish, as an optative, \&c., see § 108.
$f$ 4. The general characteristic of the jussive form of the imperfect is rapidity of pronunciation, combined with a tendency to retract

[^72]
## §48-i] Shortening and Lengthening of Imperfect 13I

the tone from the final syllable, in order by that means to express the urgency of the command in the very first syllable. This tendency has, in certain forms, even caused a material shortening of the termination of the word, so that the expression of the command appears to be concentrated on a single syllable. In other cases, however, the jussive is simply marked by a shortening of the vowel of the second syllable, without its losing the tone, and very frequently (see above, $b$ ) the nature of the form does not admit of any alteration. It is not impossible, however, that even in such cases the jussive in the living language was distinguished from the indicative by a change in the place of the tone.

In the strong verb the jussive differs in form from the indicative $g$
 wherever the imperfect indicative has $\hat{\imath}$ in the second syllable, e.g.

 conjugations of verbs $\boldsymbol{N}^{\prime \prime}$, so that the rejection (apocope) of the ending $\pi_{-}$in Qal and Hiph. gives rise to monosyllabic forms, with or without a helping vowel under the second radical, e.g. Qal ind. יִקְ,
 indic. forms of the jussive coincide with those of the indicative, except that the jussive excludes the fuller ending 1 . Neither do the forms of the 2nd sing. fem., as the jussive, nor any forms, whether singular or plural, to which suffixes


The meaning of the jussive is similar to that of the cohortative, $l$ except that in the jussive the command or wish is limited almost exclusively to the 2nd or 3 rd pers. On special uses of the jussive, e. g. in hypothetical sentences (even in the ist pers.), see § 109 h .
5. The imperative, in accordance with its other points of comexion $i$ with the imperfect in form and meaning, admits of a similar lengthening (by $त_{-}$, Arab. imper. energicus, with the ending -ănnă or $-a ̆ n$, in pause $-\bar{a}$ ) and shortening. Thus in Qal of the strong verb, the lengthened form of Jer $49^{\text {11 }}$; שׁׁשְבָה , שְׁבַב

[^73]Dn $9^{19}$; in Niphal
 but impf. אֲסֶפְּה
 note) finds in these forms a trace of old imperfects in $i$, cf. $\S 6_{3} n$.

 ${ }_{2} \mathrm{Ch} 25^{17}$. The form pup in pause becomes porme the form pup

 the other hand רְרָהָ aramaizing forms of the 2nd plur. fem.; also for חִרְדו v. ir read

$k$ The shortened imperative is found only in verbs $\pi^{\prime \prime} h$, e.g. in Piél署 from with $n_{-}-$is not always so perceptible as in the cohortative forms of the imperfect, but the longer form is frequently emphatic, e.g. םip rise up,

 by the Masora as imperat., not as infin., דַָָּה) is evidently due to the influence of the $\boldsymbol{i}$ which follows it in close connexion (so Strack, on the analogy of $\mathrm{Jb} 31^{2}$ ); for other examples of this change of $a$ to Seghol, see above, under $d$, $^{2}$,
 (רָבָּה (ר) is intended for not rather for the common form of the

 the later, that the ending $n_{n_{T}}$, with imperatives of verbs $\left.\pi^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$, is not found elsewhere, and also that here no guttural follows (as in $\operatorname{Pr} \mathbf{2 4}^{14}$ ).

## §49. The Perfect and Imperfect with Wāw Consecutive.

a 1. The use of the two tense-forms, as is shown more fully in the Syntax (§§ ro6, 107, cf. above, § 47, note on $a$ ), is by no means restricted to the expression of the past or future. One of the most striking peculiarities in the Hebrew consecution of tenses ${ }^{1}$ is the phenomenon that, in representing a series of past events, only the first

[^74]
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 § $71, \S 72 t$ and $a a, \S 73 e) .{ }^{1}$
$c$ In the first pers. sing. alone the retraction of the tone and even the reducing of the long vowel in the final syllable ( $\alpha$ to $\bar{o}, \hat{\imath}$ to $\bar{e}$, and then to $\delta$ and $\check{e}$ ) are not usual, ${ }^{2}$ at least according to the Masoretic punctuation, and the apocope in verbs $\mathrm{I}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ לoccurs more rarely; e.g. always (or
 (but generally written as , § $75 t$. On the other hand, the form with final $\pi_{-}$- is often used in the 1 st pers. both sing. and plur., especially in the later books, e.g.
 and often, probably a sort of compensation for the lost J); $\mathrm{Ju}^{10}$, $12^{3}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{22^{24},}^{24} 3^{6}, 7^{5}, 90^{10}, 119^{65}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathbf{1}^{15 \mathrm{Ff}}, \mathrm{I}{ }^{20}, \mathrm{Ez}_{7}{ }^{28}, 8^{25}, 9^{3}$, Neh $2^{13}, 5^{7.8 .13}, 6^{11}, \mathbf{1}^{3^{7-11.91} \&}$ \&,$~ \& c$. -Sometimes, as in $\psi 3^{6}$, with a certain emphasis of expression, and probably often, as in $\mathrm{Ju}_{10} 0^{12}$, before $K$, for euphonic reasons. In Is $8^{2}$ וָאָּ originally intended; in $\psi 73^{16 / 10}$ ויוּ


This $\cdot 1$ is in meaning a strengthened wāw copulative, and resembles in pro• nunciation the form which is retained in Arabic as the ordinary copula ( $w \breve{a}$ ). ${ }^{3}$ The close connexion of this wă with the following consonant, caused the latter in Hebrew to take Dageš, especially as $a$ could not have been retained in an
 and the particle $\underset{\sim}{\underset{\sim}{9}, ~ a r e ~ c l o s e l y ~ c o n n e c t e d ~ w i t h ~}$ $g$ The retraction of the tone also occurs in such combinations, as in尓 § $102 l$ ). -Tle identity of many consecutive forms with jussives of the same conjugation must not mislead us into supposing an intimate relation between the moods. In the consecutive forms the shortening of the vowel (and the retraction of the tone) seems rather to be occasioned solely by the strengthening of the preformative syllable, while in the jussives the shortening (and retraction) belongs to the character of the form.
$h$ 3. The counterpart of $w \bar{a} w$ consecutive of the imperfect is $w \bar{a} w$ consecutive of the perfect, by means of which perfects are placed as

[^75]the sequels in the future to preceding actions or events regarded as incomplete at the time of speaking, and therefore in the imperfect, imperative, or even participle. This $w \bar{a} w$ is in form an ordinary $w \bar{a} w$ copulative, and therefore shares its various vocalization (!, $\mathfrak{1}, \frac{1}{1}$, as $2 \mathrm{~K}_{7}{ }^{4}$, and !); e. g. ${ }_{\text {I }}^{\text {! }}$ ! after an imperfect, \&c., and so it happens $=$ and it will happen. It has, however, the effect, in certain verbal forms, of shifting the tone from the penultima, generally on to the ultima, e.g. IT co-ordinated with another perfect consecutive, which again is the consecutive to an imperative. See further on this usage in § II2.

As innumerable examples show, the Qames of the first syllable is retained $i$ in the strong perf. consec. Qal, as formerly before the tone, so now in the secondary tone, and therefore necessarily takes Metheg. On the other hand, the $\bar{o}$ of the second syllable in verbs middle o upon losing the tone necessarily


The shifting forward of the tone after the $20 \bar{a} w$ consecutive of the perfect is, $k$ however, not consistently carried out. It is omitted-(a) always in the ist pers.pl., e.g.
 always in the ist sing. of $\aleph^{\prime \prime \prime}$ (Jer $29^{14}$ ), and in $\boldsymbol{n}^{\prime \prime}$ if the vowel of the 2nd syllable is i, Ex ${ }^{17} 7^{6}, 26^{4.6 .7 .10} f$ f., Ju 626, \&c., except in Qal (only Lv 24 ${ }^{5}$, before $\mathcal{N}$ ) and the 2nd sing. masc. of Hiph'il-forms before $\mathcal{N}, \mathrm{Nu} 20^{8}, \mathrm{Dt} 20^{13}$, IS I $5^{3}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{13}{ }^{17}$; similarly in Pi'el before $\mathcal{K}$, Ex ${ }^{2} 5^{24}$, Jer $27^{4}$. On the other hand the tone is generally moved forward if the second syllable has $\hat{e}$ (in
 and frequently, always before the counter-tone, Jo $4^{21}, \psi 19^{14} .{ }^{1}$ With $\bar{a}$ in the penultima the form is I S $10^{2}$ with little $\mathrm{T}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{l}_{\hat{1}} \times \bar{a}$, a postpositive accent.

But before a following $\mathcal{K}$ the ultima mostly bears the tone on phonetic $l$



 see $\S 67 k$ and ee.
(d) The tone always keeps its place when such a perfect stands in pause, 17
 pause, as Dt ${ }^{28}, \mathrm{Ez}^{36}$, i S $29^{8}$ (where see Driver), with Zaqeph qaton; and frequently also immediately before a tone-syllable (according to $\S 29 e$ ), as in
 $24^{19}$, K $8^{46}$.

[^76]§50. The Participle.
$a$ 1. Qal has both an active participle, called Pôél from its form (פֻpel), and a passive, $\dot{P}_{a} \bar{a}^{\prime} u l=1$

$P \tilde{a}^{-} \hat{u} l$ is generally regarded as a survival of a passive of Qal, which still exists throughout in A rabic, but has been lost in Hebrew (see, however, §52e), just as in Aramaic the passives of Pi'ell and Hiph'il are lost, except in the participles. But instances of the form qut! $\bar{l}$ a are better regarded as remnants of the passive participle Qal (see $\S 5^{2} \mathrm{~s}$ ), so that $\begin{gathered}\text { must be considered as }\end{gathered}$ an original verbal noun ; cf. Barth, Nominalbildung, p. 173 ff.
$b$ 2. In the intransitive verbs mid. $e$ and mid. $o$, the form of the participle active of Qal coincides in form with the 3 rd sing. of the perfect, e. g. from the perf. רנָ. fearing; cf. the formation of the participle in Niphal, § $5 \mathbf{1}$ a . On the other hand, the participle of verbs mid. a
 The $\hat{o}$ of these forms has arisen through an obscuring of the $\hat{d}$, and is therefore unchangeable, cf. $\S 9 q$. The form Qames in both syllables), which woold correspond to the forms and $\overline{i d}$, is only in use as a noun, cf. $\S 84^{a} f$. The formation of the participle in Pièl, Hiph'ill, and Hithpa'el follows a different method.
c 3. Participles form their feminine (p pip or prên ) and their plural like other noums ( $\S 80 e, \S 84^{a} r, s, \S 94$ ).
d Rem. I. From the above it follows, that the $\bar{a}$ of the form
 the other hand is obscured from an unchangeable $\hat{a} .{ }^{1}$ In Arabic the verbal adjective of the form qătil corresponds to the form qātell, and the part. qâtil to $q \hat{0}!\bar{e} l$. In both cases, therefore, the $\bar{e}$ of the second syllable is lengthened from $i$,

e ת ת ת $\& 16^{5}$, instead of the form qôtēl, is an anomaly; it is possible, how-
 even the imperfect Hiphil of ${ }^{\text {n }}$. . The form ${ }^{\text {™ }}$ in Is $29^{14}, 38^{5}$ appears to
 intends the 3 rd sing. imperf. Hiph., for which the better form would be
 be considered.- אֹבַּ (constr. state of $\underset{\sim}{\mathcal{K}})$, with $\dot{a}$ in the second syllable,

2. A form like the pass. ptcp. $P a^{c} \hat{u} l$, but not to be confused with it, is sometimes found from intransitive verbs, to denote an inherent quality, e.g.
 strong; ; שֶׁכָּ drunken, Is $51^{21}$; and even from transitive verbs,


[^77]
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(d) In consequence of a looseness of thought at an early period of the language, Niphial comes finally in many cases to represent the passive ${ }^{1}$ of Qal, e. g. . to be buried. In cases where $Q a l$ is intransitive in meaning, or is not used, Niph'al appears also as the passive of $P i^{\prime} \bar{l}$ and $H i p h i l l$ e.g. to be in honour, Piél to honour, Niph. to be honoured (as well as Pual I Piet to conceal, Hiph. to destroy, Niph. passive of either. In such cases Niphal may again coincide in meaning with Qai ( Qal and Niph. to be ill) and even take an accusative.
$g$ Examples of denominatives are, but probably

$h$ The older grammarians were decidedly wrong in representing Niph'al simply as the passive of $Q a l$; for Niph'al has (as the frequent use of its imperat. shows), in no respect the character of the other passives, and in Arabic a special conjugation (ingatidel) corresponds to it with a passive of its own. Moreover, the forms mentioned in $\& 52 e$ point to a differently formed passive of Qal.The form but with Konig and Cheyne as a forma mixta, in the sense that the punctuators
 Pual [cf. also Wright, Compar. Gramm., p. 224]. Although the passive use of Niph'al was introduced at an early period, and became tolerably common, it is nevertheless quite secondary to the reflexive use.
$i$ Rem. I. The infn. absol. לippry is connected in form with the perfect, to which it bears the same relation as לivp to לטָ in Qal, the $o$ in the second




 infrequently used also for the infin. absol., eq.g. Ex $22^{3}$, Nu $15^{31}, \mathrm{Dt} 4^{28,1}, \mathrm{~K}$ 209. On the other hand, abnormal 1 בִּחִּunּ $48^{3}$ (commonly explained as being intended to correspond in sound with the subsequent $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{q}} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ the readings

[^78]

 ever, extremely doubtful whether the infin. Qal of the $K^{e} t h i ̂ b l i$ is not rather intended in all these examples; it certainly is so in La $2^{11}$, cf. $\psi 61^{3}$.
2. Instead of the Șere in the ultima of the imperfect, Pathah often occurs $71 /$ in pause, e.g. p) ; Jon $1^{5}$ (with D) ; see § $29 q$. In the 2nd and 3 rd plur. fem. Pathah pre-
 and hence, with loss of the doubling, for תחתָּגָּנָּ With Nûn paragogicum (see § 47 m ) in the 2nd and 3 rd plur. masc. are found,


3. When the imperfect, the infinitive (in $\bar{e}$ ), or the imperative is followed $\boldsymbol{n}$ in close connexion by a monosyllable, or by a word with the tone on the first syllable, the tone is, as a rule (but cf. the ultima to the penultima, while the ultima, which thus loses the tone, takes $S^{e}$ ghôl instead of Sere; e.g. imperative, $13^{9}$.-So always $24^{6}, \&$ c., cf. 1 S $19^{2}$; and even with Pathah in the ultima, (but cf. $8^{23}$ ) the tone is not thrown back, in spite of a tone-syllable following, the retraction has become usual in certain forms, even when the next word
京 הִָּּׁ Ex $23^{21}, \mathrm{Jb} 36^{21}$, and (before Metheg of the counter-tone) Dt $24^{8}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 6^{9}$. On the avoidance of pausal-forms in the imperative (Am $2^{12}$ with Silluq, Zc $2^{11}$ with Athnah), and imperfect ( $\operatorname{Pr} 24^{4}, \& c$.), see $\S 290$, and note; on the other hand, always

In the imperative, occurs in Is $43^{9}$, and in ${ }^{\circ}$ Joel $4^{11}$ in pause examples either the reading or the explanation is doubtful. The 2 nd sing.


4. For the rst sing. of the imperfect, the form in as frequent as in $\boldsymbol{\sim}$
 $\mathrm{Nu} 23^{15}, \mathrm{Ez} 2 \mathrm{c}^{36}$, and so always in the cohortative, e.g. איָּ P I will avenge
 Babylonian punctuation admits only $i$ under the preformative of the ist person.

## § 52. Pī̄̄l and Pu'al.

1. The characteristic of this conjugation consists in the strengthening $a$ of the middle radical. From the simple stem qutal (cf. § $43 b$ ) the form
the perfect of the active (Pi"el). The Pathah of the first syllable is, however, with one exception (see $m$ ), always attenuated to $\check{\imath}$ in the perfect. In the second syllable, $a$ a has been retained in the majority of cases, so that the conjugation should more correctly be called Pial; but very frequently ${ }^{1}$ this $\breve{a}$ also is attenuated to $\breve{a}$, which is then regularly lengthened to $\bar{e}$, under the influence of the tone. Cf. in Aram. P® but in Biblical Aramaic almost always קַּל. On the three cases in which $\breve{a}$ before a final 7 or $D$ has passed into $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$, see below, $l$. Hence, for the $3^{r d}$ sing. masc. perfect, there arise forms like אִבַּ

 In the infinitives (absol. לקp, obscured from qattal; constr. (קוּ), imperfect (יְ: $\breve{a}$ of the first syllable reappears throughout. The vocal $\breve{S}^{\ell} w d$ of the preformatives is weakened from a short vowel; cf. the Arabic imperfect yŭqătť̆l, participle mŭqŭttŭl.
$b$ The passive ( $P$ uial) is distinguished by the obscure vowel $\breve{u}$, or very rarely $b$, in the first syllable, and $\breve{a}$ (in pause $\bar{a}$ ) always in the secoud. In Arabic, also, the passives are formed throughout with $i$ in the first syllable. The inflexion of both these conjugations is analogous to that of Qal.
C Rem. I. The preformative $D$, which in the remaining conjugations also is the prefix of the participle, is probably connected with the interrogative or indefinite (cf. §37) pronoun מִ quis? quicunque (fem. i. e. neuter, מָּ); cf. § 85 e.
d 2. The Dages forte, which according to the above is characteristic of the whole of $P i^{\prime} e l$ and $P u$ ial, is often omitted (independently of verbs middle gultural, $\S 64 d)$ when the middle radical has $S^{e} w a \hat{a}$ under it (cf. $\S 20 m$ ), e.g. Ez $17^{17}$; שְִּׁחָה 2 Ch $15^{15}$ (but in the imperatire always
 the litera dagessanda is sometimes in such cases (according to § io $h$ ) expressly emphasized by its taking the form of a Hateph, as in owing to the influence of the preceding $u$, cf. ${ }^{1616}$. In the imperfect and participle the ${ }^{5}$ e $w \hat{a}$ under the preformatives (HatephPathah under $\mathcal{N}$ in the ist sing. imperfect) serves at the same time as a characteristic of both conjugations (Gn $\mathbf{2 6}^{14 \mathrm{f}}$.).
$\boldsymbol{e}$ 3. According to the convincing suggestion of B8ttcher ${ }^{2}$ (Ausführliches Lehrbuch, § 904 ff . and $\S 1022$ ), many supposed perfects of Puial are in reality
[^79]
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Yyִּן to gather the clouds together (from עיָּן), we to divide in three parts, or to do a thing for the third time (from שִֶֶּּר to speak, from $a$ word. Or again, the denominative may express taking away, injuring, \&c., the object denoted by the noun (privative Pïel, cf. our to skin, to behead, to bone), e.g. שֶׁר, from o
 the rear of an army, to attack it; to ravish the heart; ; ?

 boughs, Is $10^{33}$ (from ${ }^{\text {Oqu }}$ a bough). Some words are clearly denominatives, although the noun from which they are derived is no longer found, e.g. סOM to stone, to pelt with stones (also used in this sense in Qal), and to remove stones (from a field), to clear away stones; cf. our to stone, used also in the sense of taking out the stones from fruit.

The meaning of the passive (Pu'al) follows naturally from the above, e. g.
$i$ In Piet the literal, concrete meaning of the verb has sometimes been retained, when Qal has acquired a figurative sense, e.g. ${\underset{T}{2}}_{2}^{2}$, Pi'el to uncover, Qal to rereal, also to emigrate, i. $\theta$. to make the land bare.
$k$ Also with an intransitive sense Pi'el occurs as an intensive form, but only in poetic language, e.g. חת in Pi'ēl to be broken in pieces, Jer $5^{156}$;
 in Is $48^{8}, 60^{11}$ instead of the Pi'el of פתח the Niph'al is certainly to be read, with Cheyne.
$l$ Rem. i. The (more frequent) form of the perfect with Pathah in the second syllable appears especially before Maqqeph (Ec $9^{15}, 12^{9}$ ) and in the middle of sentences in continuous discourse, but at the end of the sentence (in pause) the form with Ṣere is more common. Cf. Is $49^{21}$ with ל
 appears in this pausal form. The 3 rd $\operatorname{sing}$.fem. in pause is always of the form



 the pausal form of
in Pathah in the first syllable (as in Aramaic and Arabic) occurs only once, Gn $41^{51}$, name מַגְֶֶּּ
u. 2. In the imperfect (and jussive Ju 16 ${ }^{25}$ ), infinitive, and imperative Pi'el (as also in Hithpa'ēl) the Sere in the final syllable, when followed by Maqqeph, is
 sanctify unto me, Ex $13^{2}$. Pausal-forms with Seghol instead of Sere, as ירֶח:
 owe their origin to some particular school of Masoretes, and are wrongly accepted by Baer; cf. the analogous cases in $\S 75 n$ and $h h$. If the final syllable of the imperfect Pi'el has Pathah (before a guttural or 7 ), it remains
even in pause; cf. $\S 29 s$ and 65 e . In the ist sing. imperfect the $e$-sound occurs in two words for Hateph-Pathah, under th $\mathfrak{N}$

 $\psi 58^{2}$ (but Gn $3^{20}$ תחרְבּרְ), cf. 2 K $6^{19}$, Dt $12^{3}$; so before Silluq $\psi 5^{9}$, Jb $21^{11}$
 are also found, e.g. Is $3^{19}$, $13^{18}$, in both cases before a sibilant and in pause. Also $2 \operatorname{lin}^{2} 45^{10}$ occurs as the 2nd sing. imperative (probably an intentional imitation of the sound of the preceding עלַ, and (for qarrabh) Ez $37^{17}$.
3. The infinite absolute of Pi'el has sometimes the special form biep given in 0 the paradigm, e.g. ${ }^{\text {² }}$ - castigando, $\psi 118^{18}$; cf. Ex $21^{19}$, 1 K $19^{10}$ (from a verb
 infinitive construct (קֵַ) is used instead. The latter has also, in exceptional
 perhaps also (if not a substantive) per $44^{21}$; and for the sake of assonance
 Dt $3^{255}$ and $\overline{3}$ Jer $5^{19}$ are better regarded as substantires, while Nu $3^{1}$, Dt $4^{15}$ (in each case after places it is considered by König (after Qimhi) to be infinitive construct, is really perfect of Piéel.

The infinitive construct $P i^{\prime} \epsilon$, with the fem. ending (cf. $\S 45 d$ ), occurs in $p$
 On the verbal nouns after the form of the Aram. inf. Pail (
 with ed. Mant. and Ginsburg.
4. In Pu'al ob is sometimes found instead of $\breve{u}$ in the initial syllable, e.g. $q$




5. As infinitive absolute of $P u^{i} a l$ we find Qn $_{4} 4^{15}$. -No instance of the inf. $r$

6. A few examples occur of the participle $P u^{\prime} a l$ without the preformative (p), $S$ e.g. participles are distinguished from the perfect (as in Niph'al) by the $\bar{a}$ of the final syllable. For other examples, see Is $30^{24}$, Ec $9^{12}$ (where ${ }^{12}$
 as Milêl can only be the perfect. The rejection of the pay me favoured by an initial $D$, as in Is $188^{2.7}$ (but also

 Brockelmann, Grundriss, p. 264 f.) and $\operatorname{DNZp} 1^{14}$ (and Is $8^{1.3}$ ?). Notice, however, Barth's suggestion (Nominalbildung, p. 273) that, as the active of forms like passives of Qal (see e), and in Jer $13^{10}, 23^{32}$, perfect participles of Piéel.—On


## § 53. Hiphîl and Hophial.

a 1. The characteristic of the active (Hiph $\hat{\imath} l$ ) is a prefixed 즈 (on its origin see §55i) in the perfect ? (with the $\breve{a}$ attenuated to $\breve{z}$, as in Piéel); which forms a closed syllable with the first consonant of the stem. The second syllable of the perfect had also originally an $\breve{a}$; cf. the Arabic conj. iv. 'aqtălă, and in Hebrew the return of the
 this $\breve{a}$ to $\breve{\imath}$, it ought by rule to have been lengthened to $\bar{e}$ in the tonesyllable, as in Aramaic אیקְטֵ, beside הַקְטְ in Biblical Aramaic. Instead of this, however, it is always replaced in the strong verb by $\hat{\imath},{ }^{1}-\ldots$, but sometimes written defectively - ; cf. $\S 9 g$. Similarly in the infinitive construct הַקְשִׁיל and The corresponding Arabic forms (juqtill and muqtill) point to an original $\check{\imath}$ in the second syllable of these forms. In Hebrew the regular lengthening of this $\check{\imath}$ to $\bar{e}$ appears in the strong verb at least in the jussive and in the imperfect consecutive (see $n$ ), as also in the imperative
 return of the original $\breve{a}$ in the second syllable of the Imperat., Jussive, $\& \mathrm{c}$, under the influence of a guttural, cf. § $65 f$.
$b$ In the passive (Hophial) the preformative is pronounced with an obscure vowel, whilst the second syllable has $\breve{a}$ (in pause $\bar{a}$ ), as its

 infinitive absolute has the form הדקְּ.

Thus the characteristics of both conjugations are the $\boldsymbol{i}$ preformative in the perfect, imperative, and infinitive; in the imperfect and participle Hiph'il, Pathah under the preformatives, in the Hoph'al ŏ or $\check{u}$.
c 2. The meaning of Hiphie il is primarily, and even more frequently than in Piēl (§ $5^{2} \mathrm{~g}$ ), causative of Qal, e.g. bring forth, to lead forth, to draw forth; ; קָּ to be holy, Hiph. to sanctify. Under the causative is also included (as in $P_{i}{ }^{-}-\bar{l}$ ) the declarative sense,
 nounce guilty); cf. עקש, in Hiph ${ }^{\text {eill, }} \mathrm{Jb} 9^{20}$, to represent as perverse. If Qal has already a transitive meaning, $H i p h i ̂ l$ then takes two accusatives
 the same sense, e.g. אָָָר periit, Piēel and Hiphíl, perdidit; as a rule,

[^80]
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Of a different kind are the denominatives from: (scarcely to prick up the ears, but) to act with the ears, to hear; cf. לששׁ to move the tongue, to slander, and the German äugeln (to make eyes), füsseln, näseln, schwänzeln; שׂבר to sell corn; השערִיב
3. The meaning of Hoplial is (a) primarily that of a passive of
 equivalent to a passive of Qal, as (but see below, $u$ ).
$i$ Rem. I. The $\hat{i}$ of the $3^{\text {rd }}$ sing. masc. perf. Hiphíl remains, without exception, in the 3 rd fem. (in the tone-syllable). That it was, however, only lengthened from a short vowel, and consequently is changeable, is proved by the forms of the imperative and imperfect where $\bar{e}$ (or, under the influence of gutturals, $\breve{a}$ ) takes its place. In an open syllable the $i$ is retained almost throughout; only in very isolated instances has it been weakened to $\breve{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$ (see $n$ and 0 ).
2. The infinitive absolute commonly has Șere without Yodh, e.g. הַ Ju $17^{9}$;
 $23^{32}, 44^{25}$, Jb $34^{35}$, Ec 10 $^{10}$. With $K$ instead of $\boldsymbol{N}$ (probably a mere scribal error, not an Aramaism) we find form with Şere stands for the infinitive construct, are, e.g. Dt $3^{2}{ }^{8}$ (Sam.
 $\mathfrak{b V}$ Dt $2^{2612}$ (which looks like an infinitive Hiphîl with elision of the $n$, for occurs with the meaning to tithe; for בַּעִשׁ Neh $10^{39}$ perhaps the inf. Qal
 is doubtful whether the present punctuation does not arise from a conflation of two different readings, the Qal and the Pi'el.
 sometimes occurs, e.g. 7 The to destroy, Dt $7^{24}, 28^{48}$; cf. LV $14^{46}$, Jos $1 I^{14}$, Jer $50^{34}: 5^{13}$ and הַקְצְוֹת
 so explained by König (i. 276) where הִשְׁאיר appears after prepositions ${ }^{1}$; [cf. Driver on Dt $3^{3}, 4^{15}, 7^{24}, 28^{55}$ ].

With $\breve{a}$ in the second syllable there occurs הְַַַּרְכֵט Ez 2129 (cf. the
 in $E z 24^{26}$ (as a construct form) for the infinitive Hiphit (cf. the infinitive Hithpaiel, Dn ${ }^{11}{ }^{29}$ ). On the elision of the $\boldsymbol{N}$ after prefixes, see $q$.
3. In the imperative the $\hat{\imath}$ is retained throughout in the open syllable, according to $i$, and consequently also before suffixes (see $\S 61 \mathrm{~g}$ ) and
 Baer, not


 anomalously a few times: $\psi 94^{1}$, Is $43^{8}$, Jer $17^{18}$ (cf. § $69 v$ and $\S 7^{2} y$ ); elsewhere the Masora has preferred the punctuation הַקְטֵי, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K} 8^{6}$; cf. $\psi 142^{5}$. -In La $5^{1}$ הַהִּיטָּ is required by the Q Qerê for הביט.
${ }^{1}$ As to the doubtfulness, on general grounds, of this form of the Inf. Hiph., see Robertson Smith in the Journ. of Philol., xvi. p. 72 f.
4. In the imperfect Hiph'il the shorter form with Șere prevails for the jussive $\boldsymbol{n}$
 Ob ${ }^{12}$; יַכַּרֵת
 according to $\S 109 \mathrm{~h}$, and $\underset{\forall \neq 1,}{ } \mathrm{Jb} 39^{26}$ before the principal pause. Similarly, after 1 consec., e.g. almost always retained in the ist sing., e.g. וַאֹשִׁp Am $2^{9}$ (but generally
 in ist plur. only in $\mathrm{Neh} 4^{3}$; in the 3 rd sing. $\psi 105^{28}$. With $\breve{a}$ in the principal pause

 $\mathfrak{i}$ remains in the forms secutive, e.g. וַרַרִּיקוּ Ju 1822. The only exceptions, where the $\hat{\imath}$ is weakened
 אואוֹצָרה Neh $13^{13}$, if it is Hiphil of probably is to be read, as
 same weakening occurs aiso in the imperfect in 3 rd and $2 n d$ masc. sing. before suffixes, I $\mathrm{S}_{1}{ }^{25}$, $\operatorname{IK} \mathrm{K}^{33}, \psi 65^{10}$, and in $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{20}$, unless the form be
 that in these isolated examples we have a trace of the ground-form, yaqtil, or an Aranaism. More probably they are due partly to a misunderstanding of the defective writing, which is found, by a purely orthographic licence, in numerous other cases (even in 3 rd sing. as formae mixtae, to combine the forms of Qal and Fiphil. Instead of the firmly closed syllable, the Masora requires in Gn $1^{11}$ תָּ Ga'ya (see § 16 h).
5. In the participle, maqtil ; yet the Sere may also possibly be explained by the retraction of the tone. The Masora appears to require the weakening of the vowel to Šexa
 also in מַחֲלְמִים Jer $29^{8}$, dittography may well have taken place, the participle Qal is probably to be read in both places; the reading of the text is perhaps again intended to combine Qal and Hixh'il, see above, n), and in the Qere מחצרים I Ch $15^{24}$ \&c.


 cf. Gn $41^{28},{ }_{2} \mathrm{~K}_{1} 7^{11}, \mathrm{Jer} 29^{1}, \mathrm{Mi} 6^{3}, \mathrm{Jb}_{16} 6^{7}$; with the original $\dot{\tilde{a}}$ in the first syllable $\operatorname{Na} 3^{5}$.-In In

${ }^{1}$ Most probably, however, only an indication of the change of the perfect into the imperfect, as also previously, by a change of punctuation, ואו וֹר !! ! ) are made future instead of past. Jewish exegesis applied these Edomoracles to the Roman (i.e. Christian) empire. So G. Moore in Theol. Literaturzeitung, 1887, col. 292.

Is $19^{6}$ (see above, $g$ ) is a mere error of the scribe, who had the Aramaic form in mind and corrected it by prefixing $i n$.
$q$ 7. In the imperfect and participle the characteristic in is regularly elided after the preformatives, thus מַקְטִיל ; יְקִיל ; but it is retained in the infinitive
 He will save for עֲ Neh $11^{17}, \psi 28^{7}, 45^{18}$ (cf. the proper name
范
 Nu $5^{22}$;






$\boldsymbol{r}$ 8. With regard to the tone it is to be observed that the afformatives ; and $\boldsymbol{N}_{\bar{T}}$ in Hiph'il have not the tone, even in the perfect with wavo consecutive (except in Ex $26^{33}$ before $\boldsymbol{T}, \operatorname{Lv} 15^{29}$ before $א$, to avoid a hiatus); but the

$\boldsymbol{S}$ 9. The passive (Hoph‘al) has $\check{u}$ instead of Qames hatuph in the first syllable (הֻpu), in the strong verb less frequently in the perfect and infinitive, but generally in the participle, through the influence of the initial $D$ (but cf.
 part.
 verbs $i^{\prime \prime}$ פ always have $\breve{u}$ (in a sharpened syllable) :
$t$ 10. The infinitive absolute has in Hoph'al (as in Hiph'il) Ṣere in the last syllable,
 occur in the strong verb.
II. With regard to the imperative Hoph'al, see above, $\S 46 a$, note.

11 12. According to Brttcher (Ausführliches Lehrbuch, § 906) and Barth (see above, § $5^{2}$ e) a number of supposed imperfects Hoph'al are, in fact, imperfects of the passive of Qal. As in the case of the perfects passive of Qal (see above, $\S 52 e)$ the question is again of verbs of which neither the corresponding causative (i. e. here the Hiph'ill), nor the other tense of the same conjugation (i. e. here the perfect Hoph'al) is found ; so with ${ }^{\prime}$ imperfect Qal in Arabic) and ${ }^{\prime \prime}$, from



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 like a prophet, to rave. The meaning of Hithpa'el sometimes coincides with that of Qal, both forms being in use together, e. g. אָּל to mourn, in Qal only in poetic style, in Hithpa'el in prose. On the accusative after Hithpa'el (regarded as a transitive verb), see § $117 w$.
(b) It expresses reciprocal action, like Niphial, § 5 I d, e. g. to look upon one another, Gn $42^{1}$; cf. $\psi 41^{8}$;-but
(c) It more often indicates an action less directly affecting the subject, and describes it as performed with regard to or for oneself, in one's own special interest (cf. Niplial, § $5_{1}$ e). Hithpa'el in such cases readily takes an accusative, e.g. הִחְקָּ Ex $32^{3}$ and
 (vincula); החקְטֵ Jos $9^{12}$, to take (something) as one's provision; without
 intercedere (see Delitzsch on Is $\mathrm{I}^{15}$ ) ; Job $13^{2 i}$; on Is I4 $4^{2}$, see § 57 , note.
g praised; ; bring oneself into oblivion) has altogether disappeared. Cf. Niph'al, § $51 f$.
// The passive form Hothpa'al is found only in the few following examples:
放 being treated as if it were the affiormative of the fem. plur.) ${ }_{i t}{ }^{i}$ is made fut, $\mathrm{Is} 34^{6}$. On
1 Denominatives with a reflexive meaning are to embrace Judaism,
 provision for a journey (see $\delta 7^{2 \mathrm{~m}}$ ).
li Rem. I. As in Pi'ell, so in Hithpa'ēl, the perfect very frequently (in stems ending in $\mathcal{J}, P, D, 9$ ) has retained the original Pathal in the final syllable (while in the ordinary form it is attenuated, as in $P_{i}{ }^{i} e \bar{l}$, to $\check{\imath}$ and then length. ened to $\bar{e}$ ), e. g. הִתאַפַּף Dt $4^{21}$, \&c.; cf. $2 \mathrm{Ch}_{13} 3^{7}, 15^{8}$; with ! consecutive Is $\delta^{21}$; so also in the imperfect and imperative, e.g. $\operatorname{Ec} 7^{16}$; cf. Dt $9^{8.18}$, i S $3^{20}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{10^{12}}$, 1 K $11^{9}$, Is $55^{2}, 5^{8^{14},} 64^{11}, \psi 55^{2}$;
 final syllable of the stem before $\mathbb{U}$ (cf. $\S 44 \mathrm{~d}$ ), and in the last passage before 3. In the perfect, imporfect (with the exception of Ec $7^{16}$ ), and imperative of Hithpa'ēl (as well as of Hithpö'ell, Hithpa'彳ēl, Hithpalpēl, §55) the original ă always

 the fuller ending $j^{\dagger}$ in the plural of the imperfect (cf. § 47 m ) in $\psi{ }^{12}{ }^{9}$, Jb

9 $9^{6}, 1^{10}$. -Like the Pi'ell Zc $6^{7}$; cf. Am $8^{13}$, and so in Hilhpo ${ }^{\circ}$ ēl, Jer $49^{3}$, Am $9^{13}$; with E only in La $4^{1}$. -
 the Biph'il inf. הַשְׁpy in Ez ${ }^{24} 4^{26}$ ).
2. As instances of the reflexive התקטֵּ (connected with $P_{i}{ }^{\prime \prime} c l$ ) a few reflexive $l$ forms of the verb ${ }^{\text {DTP }}$ (to examine) are also probably to be reckoned. Instead of a Pathah in a sharpened syllable after the first radical, these take Qames in
 sponding passive form According to others, these forms are rather reflexives of Qal, in the sense of to present oneself for review, to be reviewed, like the Aramaic 'Ithpe'ēl (Westgrn Aramaic אִתְקְטֵל, Syr. אֲחקְקְטֵל) and the Ethiopic taqatela, Arab. 'iqtatala, the last with the $t$ always placed after the first radical (cf. above, $b$ ) ; but they are more correctly explained, with König, as Hithpa'el forms, the doubling of the $p$ being abnormally omitted.-Such a reflexive of Qal, with the $\Omega$ transposed,
 in the inscription of the Moabite king MêYá, with the meaning of the O.T.

 in the infinitive with suffix, בְּהְלוּחוֹמוֹה בִי in his fighting against me.

## § 55. Less Common Conjugations.

Of the less common conjugations ( $\$ 39 \mathrm{~g}$ ) some may be classed with $a$ Pièl, others with Hiphitl. To the former belong those which arise from the lengthening of the vowel or the repetition of one or even two radicals, in fact, from an internal modification or development of the stem; to the latter belong those which are formed by prefixing a consonant, like the $\boldsymbol{i}$ of Hiph'il. Amongst the conjugations analogous to $P_{i}{ }^{〔} \bar{e} l$ are included the passive forms distinguished by their vowels, as well as the reflexives with the prefix הִ, on the analogy of Hithpa'ēl.

The following conjugations are related to $P \stackrel{i}{ } e l$, as regards their $b$ iuflexion and partly in their meaning:
 to the Arabic conj. mi. qâtălă, pass. qûtūlă, and conj. vi. reflexive tăqâtălă;
 that in Hebrew the $\hat{o}$ of the first syllable is in all the forms obscured from $\hat{a}$, while the passive form is distinguished simply by the $a$-sound in the second syllable. In the strong verb these conjugations are rather rare. Examples:
 (denominative from the tonguc) slandering (as if intent on injuring with the tongue) $\psi 101^{5} K^{e} t h$. (The Qeée requires מְלָ



 participle and
c Po'll proper (as distinguished from the corresponding conjugations of verbs
 Piell expresses an aim or endeavour to perform the action, especially with hostile intent, and is hence called, by Ewald, the stem expressing aim (Zielstamm ), endeavour (Suche-stamm) or attack (Angriff-stamm); cf. the examples
 $\delta 52 s$; $55 f$ : seeking to cast an evil eye).
With לupip is connected the formation of quadriliterals by the insertion of a consonant between the first and second radicals ( $\$ 30 p, 856$ ).


 Ix. 'iqdaluiu and xi.' 'iqtaluă, the former used of permanent, the latter of accidental
 passive 3 SDx to be withered, all of them found only in the perfect and with


 $\eta^{\prime} \%$, where they take the place of Piel and Hithpa'el ( $\delta 72 \mathrm{~m}$ ). Cf. also $\S 75 \mathrm{kk}$.
e 3. Pearal: : wop with repetition of the last two radicals, used of move-
 (of the heart) $\psi 3^{811, \text {, from }}$ 雚 to go about; passive to be in a ferment, to be heated, to be reed, Jb $16^{16}$, La $1^{200}$, $2^{11}$. Probably this is also the explanation

 open syllable, and subsequent obscuring of $\bar{a}$ to $\delta$. On the other hand, for the meaningless אָחביוּ חָּוֹ Ho ${ }^{18}$ (which could only be referred to this con-

 been perpetuated by the punctuation, which did not venture to alter the $K^{c}$ thibh. On the employment of P Pala al in the formation of nouns, ef. $\& 84^{b} n$. Closely related to this form is-
4. Pitpel (pass. Pitpal), with a strengthening of the two essential radicals in

 Ginsb. after Qimhí; others $\mathcal{N}$ owing to the influence of 7 , קַ, from ${ }^{7}$ קu $24^{17}$ (ef. however, in the
 nedige in, ace. to others make to grow. Probatly to this form also belongs


[^81]
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(a) On the analogy of Pi'ēl : כִּרְ, imperfect in in in in in doth ravage it, $\psi 8 \mathrm{c}^{14}$ from פָּסָם, cf. Passive

 with Pathah not attenuated. It is more correctly, however, regarded, with Delitzsch, as the infinitive absolute of a Pilel formation, from שרׁ to spread out, with euphonic change of the first $\dot{ש}$ to $\dot{\mathcal{U}}$, and the second to $\dot{\mathcal{F}}$. Moreover, the reading text of Job ; cf. the Rem. on p. 48 of his edition.



## C. Strong Verb with Pronominat Sufrixes. ${ }^{1}$

## § 57.

The accusative of the personal pronoun, depending on an active verb, ${ }^{2}$ may be expressed (i) by a separate worl, אֵ the accusative
 he has killed him; or (2) by a mere suffix, קְקָּ he has killed lim. The latter is the usual method (§33), and we are here concerned with it alone. ${ }^{3}$ Neither of these methods, however, is employed when the accusative of the pronoun is reflexive. In that case a reflexive verb is used, viz. Niph'al or Hithpa^ē ( $\$ 551$ and 54 ),
 sanctified him. ${ }^{4}$

Two points must be specially considered here : the form of the suffix itself ( $\$ 58$ ), and the form which the verb takes when suffixes are added to it ( $\$ \S 59-6 \mathrm{r}$ ).

[^82]
## § 58. The Pronominal Suffixes of the Verb.

Cf. the statistics collected by H. Petri, Das Verbum mit Sufixen im Hebr., part ii, in the נביאים ראשנים, Leipzig, 1890. W. Diehl, Las Pronomen pers. suff. . . . des Hebr., Giessen, 1895. J. Barth, 'Beiträge zur Suffixlehre des Nordsem.,' AJSL. xvii (1901), p. 205 f. Brockelmann, Semit. Sprachwiss., i. 159 f. ; Grundriss, p. 638 ff.

1. The pronominal suffixes appended to the verb express the $a$ accusative of the personal pronoun. They are the following :-
A.

To a form ending in a Vowel.
Sing. 1. com. " 2. m. 7f. 7—
 f. $\stackrel{\sim}{\top}-$

Plar. 1. com. 1 -

| m. چֶם |
| :---: |
| 3.m. . ${ }^{1}$ poet. $\qquad$ |

B.

To a form in the perf. ending in a Consonant.

$$
\text { y (in pause } \mathrm{y} \text { " }
$$

$$
\nabla_{-} \text {(in pause } \nabla_{\ddot{=}}^{<} \text {, also } 7_{-} \text {) thee. }
$$

$$
7 \ldots \quad 7, \text { rarely } 7-
$$

$$
\pi \div, i(i)
$$


2. That these suffixes are connected with the corresponding forms $b$ of the personal pronoun (§ $3^{2}$ ) is for the most part self-evident, and only a few of them require elucidation.
 syllable precedes) never have the tone, which always rests on the preceding syllable; on the other hand,

In the 3 rd pers. masc, 3 , by contraction of $a$ and $u$ after the $d$ rejection of the weak $ה$, frequently gives rise to $\hat{o}(\$ 23 k$ ), ordinarily written $i$, much less frequently $i \boldsymbol{( s e e} \S 7 \mathrm{c}$ ). In the feminine, the

 was simply pronounced $\overbrace{F_{F}}$, with the rejection of the final vowel,

[^83]and with Mappiq, since the $\boldsymbol{i}$ is consonantal; but the weakening to $r_{--}$is also found, see below, $g$.
$\boldsymbol{e}$
3. The rariety of the suffix-forms is occasioned chiefly by the fact that they are modified differently according to the form and tense of the verb to which they are attached. For almost every suffix three forms may be distinguished :
 U-, (
 also get per pronounced quetaltîu; cf. § 8 m .
(b) A second and third with what are called connecting vowels ${ }^{1}$ ( $ִ$ exceptions, see $\S 59 g$ and $\S 60 e$ ). This connecting rowel is $a$ with
 form of the 3 rd masc. perf. with the 2nd fem. suffix, cf. below, $g$ ); and $e$ (less frequently $a$ ) with the forms of the imperfect and imperative, e.g.
 not take noun-suffixes (cf. § $6 \mathrm{r} a$ and $h$ ). The form $\mathfrak{i}$ also belongs. to the suffixes of the perfect, since it has arisen from $\mathrm{in}_{\frac{\mathrm{T}}{}}^{\frac{c}{T}}$ (cf., however, $\S 60 d$ ). Witlı 7 ,


 $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$ with the tone $7 \div$ (also $7 \div$, see $g$ ). On the appending of suffixes to the final $\xi^{1}$ of the imperfect ( $\S 47 \mathrm{~m}$ ), see $\S 60 \mathrm{e}$.
 $1 \mathrm{~K} 18^{44}$, \&c., in pause also Instead of the form $7 \ldots$, which is usual even in the perfect (e.g. Ju $4^{20}$, Ez $27^{26}$ ) , $7{ }_{\bar{T}}$ occurs as fem. Is $60^{9}$ (as masc. Dt $6{ }^{17}, 28^{45}$, Is $30^{19}, 55^{5}$ always in pause) ; with Munah Is $54^{6}$, Jer $23^{37}$. -In the 3 rd masc. it Ex $3^{25}$, Nu $23^{8}$; in the 3 rd fem. $\boldsymbol{n}_{\bar{T}}$ without Mappiq (cf. §91e) Ex ${ }^{3}$, Jer $44^{19}$; Am ${ }^{11}{ }^{11}$, with

[^84]
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1st pers. 2nd pers. $\overline{7} \div$ ( $\mathrm{Ter} 22^{24}$ in pause $7 \frac{7}{-}$ - $)$ and, only orthographically different,

$$
\text { (Is } 10^{24}, \operatorname{Pr} 2^{11} \text { in pause). }
$$

$3^{2 r d}$ pers.
[Ist pers. plur.
In the other persons Nûn energetic does not occur.
$k$ Rem. The uncontracted forms with Nûn are rare, and occur only in poetic or elevated style (Ex $\mathrm{I}^{2}$, Dt $32^{10}$ [bis], Jer $5^{22}, 22^{24}$ ); they are never found in the 3 rd fem. sing. and ist plur. On the other hand, the contracted forms are tolerably frequent, even in prose. An example of $18<4$ as ist plur. occurs perhaps in Jb $31^{15}$ [but read $1 \mathrm{~J}_{\ldots}$ and cf. § $7^{2} \mathrm{cc}$ ], hardly in Ho $12^{5}$; cf.
 In Ez $4^{12}$ the Masora requires ${ }^{12}$, without Dages̆ in the Nùn.
$l$ That the forms with Nun energicum are intended to give greater emphasis to the verbal form is seen from their special frequency in pause. Apart from the verb, however, Nûn energicum occurs also in the union of suffixes with certain particles ( $\$ 1000$ ).

This Nûn is frequent in Western Aramaic. In Arabic the corresponding forms are the two energetic moods (see $\S 48 \mathrm{~b}$ ) ending in an and anna, which are used in connexion with suffixes (e.g. yaqtulan-ka or yaqtulanna-ka) as well as without them.

## § 59. The Perfect with Pronominal Suffixes.

1. The endings (afformatives) of the perfect occasionally vary somewhat from the ordinary form, when connected with pronominal suffixes; viz.:-
(a) In the $3^{r d}$ sing.fem. the original feminine ending $\Pi_{-}$or $\Pi_{-}$is used for $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$.
(b) In the 2 nd sing. masc. besides $\underset{T}{ }$ we find $\Pi$, to which the connecting vowel is directly attached, but the only clear instances of this are with
(c) In the $2 n d$ sing. fem. $\because$, the original form of $\Re$, appears; cf.
 ist pers. only by the context.
 Zc $7^{\text {jo }}$. The fem. same form as the masculine.
1 We exhibit first the forms of the perfect Hiphitl, as used in connexion with suffixes, since here no further changes take place in the stem itself, except as regards the tone (see c).
[^85]Singular.
3. m. ל"ppit
3. f.




Plural.
3. c. הִקְטִילוּ
2. $m$. הִקְטַלְחּ

1. c. הִקְטְלְנו

The beginner should first practise connecting the suffixes with these Hiph'il forms and then go on to unite them to the Perfect qal (see d).
2. The addition of the suffix generally causes the tone to be thrown $c$ forward towards the end of the word, since it would otherwise fall, in some cases, on the ante-penultima; with the heavy suffixes (see e) the tone is even transferred to the suffix itself. Considerations of tone, especially in the Perfect Qal, occasion certain vowel changes: (a) the Qames of the first syllable, no longer standing before the tone, always becomes vocal $S^{e} w a ;(b)$ the original Pathah of the second syllable, which in the $3^{r d}$ sing. fem. and $3^{r d} d p l u r$. had become $\breve{S}^{\ell} w a \hat{a}$, reappears before the suffix, and, in an open syllable before the tone, is lengthened to Qames; similarly original $\check{\imath}$ (as in the $3^{r d} d \operatorname{sing}$. masc.


The forms of the perfect of Qal consequently appear as follows:- $d$

## Singular.

3. m. S


4. f.
5. c.

Plural.
3. c. B
2. m.

1. c. 22?

The connexion of these forms with all the suffixes is shown in Paradigm C. It will be seen there also, how the Sere in the Perfect Pīel changes sometimes into $S^{\ell} g h o ̂ l$, and sometimes into vocal $S^{\ell} w a$.

Rem. r. The suffixes of the 2nd and 3 rd pers. plur. פָan and since they $\mathcal{C}$ end in a consonant and also always have the tone, are distinguished as heavy suffixes (suffixa gravia) from the rest, which are called light suffixes. Compare the connexion of these (and of the corresponding feminine forms $\mathfrak{i}$ ? and with the noun, § 91. With a perfect 19 alone occurs, $\psi 118^{26}$. The form לop which is usually given as the connective form of the 3rd sing. masc. before כ
2. In the 3 rd sing. masc. $7 \overbrace{i}{\underset{T}{T}}_{T} p_{\text {? }}$ (especially in verbs $\pi^{\prime \prime}$; in the strong verb f only in Jer $20^{15}$ in $\left.P i^{\circ} e l\right)$ is mostly contracted to $\zeta_{i} \sum_{T} P$, according to $\S 23 k ;$
 ' $\frac{T}{T}$ occurs several times with the 3 rd sing. masc. perf. Qal of verbs $\pi^{\prime \prime \prime}$, not

 עָ is is also found). With a sharpened I :
3. The 3 rd sing.fem. קְטָּ ( ending ath always takes the tone, ${ }^{1}$ and consequently is joined to those suffixes
 vowel, contrary to the general rule, $\S 58 f$; (b) before the other suffixes the connecting vowel is indeed employed, but the tone is drawn back to the penultima, so that they are pronounced with shortened vowels, viz. $7 \square$, $\square_{\ldots}$ _ Gn $3^{122}$; ,



 cf. $\S 58$ i), from the form IS $18^{28}$; elsewhere it takes in pause the form ${ }^{2}$ Is $59^{16}$ ); so
 the authority of Qimhi, without Mappiq in the $M$, which is consequently always a mere vowel-letter.
 have, therefore, no connecting vowel, e.g. וֹ, in thou hast cast us off, thou hast broken us down, $\psi 60^{3}$; but with the suff. of the ist sing. the form

 Merekha.—In the $2 n d$ sing.fem. $\mathrm{Ju}{ }_{11}{ }^{95}, \mathrm{Jer}^{1} 5^{10}, \mathrm{Ct} 4^{9}$. Occasionally the suffix is appended to the ordinary
 and, quite abnormally, with Ṣere
 an imperfect.
$i$ 5. In verbs middle $\bar{e}$, the $\bar{e}$ remains even before suffixes (see above, c), e.g.

 of $\bar{o}$ in a syllable which has lost the tone ( $\$ 44 e$ ).

## § 60. Imperfect with Pronominal Suffixes.

a In those forms of the imperfect Qal, which have no afformatives, the vowel $\bar{o}$ of the second syllable mostly becomes - ( (simple ${ }^{\zeta}$ ewa mobile), sometimes -7 ; thus in the principal pause, $\mathrm{Nu} 35^{20}, \mathrm{Is}_{2} 7^{3}, 62^{2}$, Jer $3 \mathrm{I}^{33}$, $\mathrm{Ez} 35^{6}, \mathrm{Ho}_{10}{ }^{10}$; before the principal pause, $\psi{ }^{11} 9^{33}$; before a secondary pause, $\mathrm{Ez}_{1} 7^{23}$; even before a conjunctive accent, Jos $23^{5}$. Before $7_{-}$;,

[^86]
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retained in the tone-syllable; an analogous case in Hiphil is $\begin{aligned} & \eta \\ & \prod\end{aligned}$
 Is $1^{15}, 52^{12}$; so in Po lēl, Is $25^{1}, \psi 30^{2}, 37^{\circ 4}, 145^{1}$, and probably also in Qal I S $15^{6}$; cf. $\S 68 \mathrm{~h}$.

 Dt $32^{7}$. Forms like Cf. $\S 53 n$.
h 6. Instead of the suffix of the 3 rd plur. fem. ( $)$ ), the suffix of the 3 rd plur. masc. ( $\square$ ) is affixed to the afformative $?$, to avoid a confusion with the personal ending $\mathfrak{H}$; cf. $33^{13}$, Ex $2^{17}$ (where also בִּנִיֵֶּ

§ 61. Infinitive, Imperative and Participle with Pronominal Suffixes.
$a$ 1. The infinitive construct of an active verb may be construed with an accusative, and therefore can also take a verbal suffix, i. e. the accusative of the personal pronoun. The only undoubted instances of the kind, however, in the O.T. are infinitives with the verbal suffix of the ist pers. sing., e.g. לְרָרְשִִִּׁ to inquire of me, Jer $37^{7}$. As a rule the infinitive (as a noun) takes noun-suffixes (in the genitive, which may be either subjective or objective, cf. § infc), e. g. עָבְ my passiny by; מָלָ lis reigning, see § II5 $a$ and $e$. The infinitive Qal, then, usually has the form qootl, retaining the original short vowel under the first radical (on the probable ground-form qưṭŭl, see § $46 a$ ). The resulting syllable as a rule allows a following Begadkephath to be spirant, e. g. בּדָּתְבוֹin his writing, Jer $45^{1}$; cf., however,


 second syllable; see $d$. With the form poperally, compare the
 $\oint 84^{a} a ; \S 93 q$.
b Rem. I. The infin. of verbs which have $\bar{o}$ in the last syllable of the imperfect of Qal, sometimes takes the form qitl before suffixes, e.g. מִכְרָם ; שְ Am $2^{6}$ (but שָכִרָה Ex $21^{8}$ ), Lv $26^{26}, \mathrm{Ez} 3018$ \&c. According to Barth (see above, $\S 47 i$ with the note) these forms with $i$ in the first syllable point to former $i$-imperfects.
C Infinitives of the form $\operatorname{pos}(\$ 45$ c) in verbs middle or third guttural (but
 take the form gafl, as

Mun to $i$, especially in verhs third guttural ; as (Ex $14^{11}$ ) are sometimes found with the infinitive instead of (but $Q^{\bullet} r e ̂$ רָרִפְ), cf. the analogous examples in § $46 e$.
2. With the suffixes $7=$ and $\underset{\sim}{\square}$, contrary to the analogy of the corre- $d$
 שעַמָּךְ imperfect, see $\S 60$. But the analogy of the nouns is followed in such forms as קִצְרְֶם your harvesting, Lv $199^{9}, 23^{22}$ (with retention of the original $\breve{u}$ ), and (read mŏ̌ŏsekhèm) your despising, Is $30^{12}$; cf. Dt $20^{2}$; on on
 masc. with J energicum (on the analogy of suffixes with the imperfect, $\S 58 \mathrm{i}$ ),


Examples of the infinitive Niph'al with suffixes are, הִקָברִי Ex $14{ }^{18}$;
 $\mathrm{D} t 7^{23}$. In the infinitive of $P_{i} \bar{e}^{-} l$ (as also in the imperfect, see $\S 60 f$ ) the e before the suff. $7=$-, שַ

 the correction $D$ has crept into the text alongside of the corrigendum $\Psi$.
 due probably (see § $46 d$ ) to the retention of the original short vowel of the first syllable (ground-form qŭṭul). In the imperative also ǒ is not followed by Dages lene, e.g. כָּחְֲ: kŏthbliēm (not koothbēm), \&c. ${ }^{1}$ As in the imperfect ( $(60 d$ ) and infinitive (see above, $c$ ), so also in the imperative, suffixes are found united to the stem by an $a$-sound; e.g. כָּתָבָּ Is $30^{8}$; cf. $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 2^{28 .}$.—The forms exbibited in Paradigm C, undergo no change. Instead of masc. form (קִִלְּ) is used, as in the imperfect.

In verbs which form the imperative with a, like שִׁen (to which class $\boldsymbol{g}$ belong especially verbs middle and third guttural, §§ 64 and 65), this $a$ retains its place when pronominal suffixes are added, but, since it then stands in an open syllable, is, as a matter of course. lengthened to Qames (just as in imperfects Qal in a, § 60 c ), e. g. .

 explained, with Margolis, $A J S L$. xix, p. 45 ff., from an original as the form used in conjunction with suffixes is not the 2nd sing. masc.

[^87]הַקְبִיל (with it on account of the open syllable, of. $\S 60 \mathrm{~g}$ ), eng. g. present it, Mall $\mathrm{r}^{8}$.
3. Like the infinitives, the participles can also be united with either verbal or noun-suffixes; see § ri ff. In both cases the vowel of the participles is shortened or becomes $\breve{S}^{e} w d$ before the suffix, as in the
 but before $S^{〔}$ eva mobile $\& c$. ,
 guttural,

 for

Also unusual (see above, $d$ ) with participles are the suffixes of the and sing.


## § 62. Verbs with Gutturals.

## Brockelmann, Grundriss, p. 584 ff.

Verbs which have a guttural for one of the three radicals differ in their inflexion from the ordinary strong verb, according to the general rules in § 22. These differences do not affect the consonantal part of the stem, and it is, therefore, more correct to regard the guttural verbs as a subdivision of the strong verb. At the most, only the entire omission of the strengthening in some of the verbs middle guttural (as well as in the imperfect Niphial of verbs first guttural) can be regarded as a real weakness ( $\S \xi_{3} h, 64 e$ ). On the other hand, some original elements have been preserved in guttural stems, which have degenerated in the ordinary strong verb; e.g. the $\breve{a}$ of the initial syllable in the imperfect Qal, as in in en, which elsewhere is attenuated to $\breve{u}$, Sט??̣? - -In guttural verbs $\propto$ and $n$ are only taken into consideration when they are actual consonants, and not vowelletters like the $א$ in some verbs $\kappa^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{D}$ ( $\S 68$ ), in a few $\kappa^{\prime \prime y}(\$ 73 g$ ), and in most $\times \prime 5(\$ 74)$. In all these cases, however, the $\kappa$ was at least originally a full consonant, while the $n$ in verbs $n$ n $n$ was never anything but a vowel letter, cf. $\S 75$. The really consonantal $n$ at the end of the word is marked by Mappiq.-Verbs containing a 7 also, according to $\S 22 q, r$, share some of the peculiarities of the guttural verbs. For more convenient treatment, the cases will be distinguished, according as. the guttural is the first, second, or third radical. (Cf. the Paradigms D, E, F, in which only those conjugations are omitted which are wholly regular.)

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with original $\breve{\imath}$ in the first and $\breve{a}$ in the second syllable, $\S 67 n$, and also to the imperfects of verbs $\boldsymbol{i}^{\prime \prime}$
 $2 \mathrm{~K}_{4}{ }^{\cdot 7}$, \&c.: sometimes



Rem. With regard to the above examples the following points may also he noted : (1) The forms with a firmly closed syllable (called the hard combination) frequently occur in the same verb with forms containing a loosely closed syllable (the soft combination). (2) In the ist sing. imperfect Qal the preformative $\mathbb{N}$ invariably takes $S^{e} g h o \hat{l}$, whether in a firmly or loosely closed

 is always אֲׁק explained by the next remark. (3) The shifting of the tone towards the end frequently causes the Pathah of the preformative to change into $S^{e} g h o \hat{l}$, and

 Gn $11^{8}$; and thus generally a change of the stronger Hateph-Seghol group $(\overline{\# \#})$ into the lighter Hateph-Pathah group takes place whenever the tone is moved one place toward the end (cf. $\S 27 \mathrm{v}$ ).
g. 3. When in forms like becomes a vocal $S^{\ell} w d$ in consequence of the addition of an afformative $\left({ }^{7},-, \lambda_{\mp}\right)$ or suffix, the compound $S^{Y} w d$ of the guttural is changed
 as an equivalent for $\left.y a^{e}-m e^{e}-d h \hat{u}\right)$; נֶעֶ these forms the hard combination frequently occurs, e.g.
 they are'strong. Cf. $m$ and, in general, § $22 m, \S 28 c$.
$h$ 4. In the infinitive, imperative, and imperfect Niphial, where the first radical should by rule be strengthened (יָּקטל , יָּקָטִל), the strengthening is always omitted, and the vowel of the preformative lengthened
 (according to Dillmann, to prevent the pronunciation the LXX and Samaritan follow) read

## Remaris.

## I. On Qal.

$i$ I. In verbs $\boldsymbol{i}$ the infinitive construct and imperative take Hateph-Seghôl in


[^88] infinitive with a prefix

 Ez $25^{8}, \psi{ }^{10} 2^{5}, \operatorname{Pr} 25^{7}$ ( following word. With a firmly closed syllable after $\}$ cf.



Uu $9^{9.11 .13}$ is altogether anomaluus, and only a few authorities give $k$
 Olshausen, and others, the Masora intended a perfect Hoph'al with syncope of the preformative after the interrogative $=\underset{\sim}{1} \boldsymbol{A}$ Olshausen) with the omission of the interrogative. But since the Hiph'il and Hoph'al of חָרֶ nowhere occur, it is difficult to believe that such was the
 Qames under the $\Pi$, falling between the tone and counter-tone, was naturally less emphasized than in it was weakened, not to simple $S^{e} w a$, but to $\Gamma_{F:}$, in order to represent the sound of the Qames (likewise pronouncod as $\mathfrak{a}$ ) at least in a shortened form. 'The $S^{e}$ ghôl of the interrogative is explained, in any case, from § $100 n$ (cf.
 tive after $\underset{\sim}{7}$, instead of the usual $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{Jb} 3^{17}$ affords sufficient evidence.
Also in the other forms of the imperative the guttural not infrequently $l$ influences the vowel, causing a change of $\check{\imath}$ (on this $\check{\imath}$ cf. $\S 48 i$ ) into $S^{e}$ ghol, e.g.
 this irregular Dages cf. $\S 4^{6} d$ ), especially when the second radical is also a guttural, e.g. אחהב $\operatorname{Am} 5^{15}, \psi 31^{24}$; cf. Zc $8{ }^{19}$; ה" - Jo $1^{8}$.—Pathak occurs in

 Hateph-Qames. For other examples of this kind, see § $10 h$ and $\S 46 e$.
2. The pronunciation (mentioned above, No. 2) of the imperfects in $\check{a}$ with $\Pi$
 regularly gives way to the soft combination in verbs which are at the same
 Lx $3^{20}$ ). Even in the strong verb ${ }^{2}$ ) is found along with

 $4)^{25}$, \& C.——AM $\operatorname{Pr}^{22}$ is to be explained from the endeavour to avoid too great an accumulation of short sounds by the insertion of a long vowel, but it is a question whether we should not simply read nincin with Haupt in his Bible, Procerbs, p. 34, 1. 44 ff.; cf. the analogous instances under p, and
such nouns as Qimhi, and others, rather Pu'al) cf. $\S 60$ b.
 with Barth (ZDMG. 1889, p. 179) as $i$-imperfects (see above, $\S 477^{i}$ ), -the latter for the purpose of distinction from the causative ${ }_{10}$
 and ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime \prime}$

 (ירַּף:

 preventing the closing of the syllable. It is much simpler, however, to take it as a forma mixta, oombining the readings ירִ?: (impf. Qal) and Pi'el).
II. On Hiph'ill and Hoph'al.

0
3. The above-mentioned $(f, 3)$ change of $\mp$ to $\mp$ occurs in the perfect Hiph'il, especially when wium consecutive precedes, and the tone is in


 $\qquad$ in the imperatice Hiph'il, Jer $49^{8.30}$; and in the infinitive Jer $31^{122}$. The preformative of עתר in Hiph'ill always takes $a$ in a closed syllable : Ex $8^{4}$ הַעְתִּ verse 25 and Jb $22^{27}$.
p 4. In the perfect Hiph'il $\ldots$ is sometimes changed into $\ldots$, and in
 $6^{28}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 2 c^{94}, \mathrm{Na} 2^{8}$, always before $ע$, and hence evidently with the intention of strengthening the countertone-syllable ( a further case of this kind (ifin ) see § 64 c . Something similar occurs in the formation of segholate nouns of the form qơtl; cf. $\S 93 q$, and (on (Nְ) § $84^{a}$ q. - In the imperfect consecutive


## III.

5. In the verbs to be, and

 wāw consecutive, Ju $8^{19}$ ). Initial $\boldsymbol{i}$ always has Hateph-Seghöl instead of vocal


 and $\Pi$ retain the simple $\widehat{S}^{\circ}$ wâ ( $\S 28 b$ ) and the prefix takes $\check{i}$, as elsewhere before strong consonants with $\breve{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$; hence in the perfect Qal $\underset{\sim}{E} \overbrace{\bullet}^{\prime}$



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but $\kappa$ and $ע$ always have $\bar{e}$ in 3 rd sing.-On the infinitive with suffixes, cf. § 6i b.
d 3. In Pīel, Puial, and Hitlipa'ēl, the Dageš forte being inadmissible in the middle radical, the preceding vowel, especially before $n, \pi$, and $\nu$, nevertheless, generally remains short, and the guttural is consequently to be regarded as, at least, virtually strengthened, cf. § 22 c ;



 and in the perfect Hithpa'ēl imperative

$e$ The complete omission of the strengthening, and a consequent lengthening of the preceding vowel, occurs invariably only with 7 ( 7 (ָּ pause
 and ששאה; on the other hand, $א$ is virtually strengthened in the perfects, ניאֵי (once in the imperfect, Jer ${ }^{29}{ }^{23}$ ) to commit adultery, נאיץ to despise (in the participle, $\mathrm{Nu} 14^{23}, \mathrm{Is} 60^{14}$, Jer $23^{17}$; according to Baer, but not ed. Mant., or Ginsb., even in the imperfect $\psi 74^{10}$ ),
 the infinitive Mappîq in the Puial ? $\mathrm{Zb} 33^{21}$, cf. § 14 d.
.f Rem. 1. In the verb $\mathrm{CN}_{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{j}$ to ask, to beg, some forms of the perfect Qal appear to be based upon a secondary form middle e, which is Sere when the vowel of


 original $\breve{a}, \S 69 \mathrm{~s}$, and especially $\S 44 d$. In the first three examples, if explained on that analogy, the $i$ attenuated from $\check{a}$ would have been lengthened to $\bar{e}$ (before the tone); in the next three $i$ would have been modified to $e$. Also in the Hiphil-form $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{G}}^{\mathrm{G}} \mathrm{S} \mathrm{I}^{28}$ the $\mathbb{N}$ is merely attenuated from $\mathbb{N}$.
$\boldsymbol{\mathcal { C }}$ 2. In $P i^{\prime} \bar{c} l$ and Hithpaél the lengthening of the vowel before the guttural causes the tone to be thrown back upon the penultima, and consequently the Șere of the ultima to be shortened to $S^{e}$ ghol. Thus (a) before monosyllables, according to $\S 29 \mathrm{e}$, e.g. . a guttural which is virtually strengthened, Gn $39^{14}, \mathrm{Jb}^{18}$ (sce§ 29 g ). (b) after


${ }^{1}$ ַּ as a noun.
3. The following are a few rarer anomalies; in the imperfect Qal Pח్צי Gn $21^{6} / \ell$ (elsewhere
 according to Gn $34^{19}$ Noun would be expected), and similarly ${ }^{9}$
 imperative Hiph'il הַחַחַּ Jb $13^{21}$ and influenced by the closing conso. ant, and by the preference for Pathah in
 הַנְחַת Jo $4^{11}$.

 reads in all these cases, on good authority, $K^{e}$ thibh ונאשא Ez $9^{8}$ (for which the $Q^{e} r e ̂$ requires the equally unintelligible

 (also :יתָארֵ: in the same verse) an imperfect Pốel appears to be intended by
 $\psi 101^{5} \mathrm{~g}^{e} r e \hat{e}$; on the other hand Qimhi, with whom Delitzsch agrees, explains the form as Piél, with an irregular for $\underset{\tau}{\square}$, as in the reading Ru $2^{2.7}$; cf. § $10 h$.
5. A few examples in which $N$, as middle radical, entirely loses its consonantal value and quiesces in a vowel, will be found in $\S 73 \mathrm{~g}$.

## § 85. Verbs Third Guttural, e.g.

1. According to $\S 22 d$, when the last syllable has a vowel incom- $\boldsymbol{a}$ patible with the guttural (i.e. not an $a$-sound), two possibilities present themselves, viz. either the regular vowel remains, and the guttural then takes furtive Pathah, or Pathah (in pause Qames) takes its place. More particularly it is to be remarked that -
(a) The unchangeable vowels $-\ldots, \mathfrak{f}, \mathfrak{(}(\$ 2 b)$ are always retained, even under such circumstances; hence inf. abs. Qal חֲ חibe part. pass.
 $\bar{o}$ in the inf. constr. in close connexion with a substantive, Is $5^{8^{9}}$, and
 Lv $18^{23}$, \&c.
(b) The imperfect and imperative Qal almost always have $\check{a}$ in the $b$ second syllable, sometimes, no doubt, due simply to the influence of the guttural (for a tone-long $\bar{o}$, originally $\breve{u}$ ), but sometimes as being
 see $\S 60 \mathrm{c}$.
[^89]Exceptions, in the imperfect אסלוח Jer $5^{7}$, Keth. ( imperative טְבֹ Gn $43^{10}$., On such cases as
C (c) Where Sere would be the regular vowel of the final syllable, both forms (with $\bar{\epsilon}^{a l}$ and $\breve{a}$ ) are sometimes in use; the choice of one or the other is decided by the special circumstances of the tone, i.e.:-
Rem. I. In the absolute state of the participle Qal, Pi'el and Hithpa'el, the forms
 used exclusively; except in verbs $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime}$ where we find, in close connexion,
 all with the tone on the last syllable.-The part. Pu'al is מרבַּע Ez $45^{2}$ according to the best authorities (Kittel מרָּע).
$\boldsymbol{e}$ 2. Similarly, in the imperf. and inf. Niphal, and in the perf. inf. and imperf. Pi'e$l$ the (probably more original) form with $\breve{a}$ commonly occurs in the body of the sentence, and the fuller form with $\bar{e}^{a}$ in pause (and even with the lesser distinctives, e.g. with $D^{e} h i \psi 6^{4}$ in the imperative Pi'ēl; with Tiphha I K $11^{32}$ in the infinitive Pi'̄l ; Jer ${ }_{4}{ }^{\text {si }}$ imperfect Hithpa'ēl; Jer ${ }^{6} 6^{6}$ imperfect Niph'al), cf. e.g. .י. Mu $27^{4}$, with the inf. abs. Niph'al הּשָּ
 $\mathrm{Hb} 1^{18}, \mathrm{Nu}_{4}{ }^{20}$ with V



 cf. § $52 n$. An example of $\check{a}$ in the imperative $P i^{i} \bar{e} l$ under the influence of a final 7 is ${ }^{-10}$ כַּ $\mathrm{Jb}_{1} 4^{9}$ (cf. $\psi 9^{22^{14}}, \operatorname{Pr} 1^{11}$ ), Barth (see above, $\S 63 n$ ) finds an $i$-imperfect of Qal. since the intransitive meaning is only found in Qal.
3. In the 2nd sing. masc. of the imperative, and in the forms of the jussive and imperfect consecutive of Hiph'ill which end in gutturals, a alone occurs, e.g. הַצְלַח prosper thou, , יַבְטַח let him make to trust,
 authorities,
 infnitice construct also occurs in close connexion (Jb $6^{26}$ ); on as infinitive construct ( $\mathrm{S}_{2} 5^{26.53}$ ), cf. $\S 53 \mathrm{k}$.
$\boldsymbol{g}$ 2. When the guttural with quiescent $\Sigma^{e} e^{q} d$ stands at the end of a syllable, the ordinary strong form remains when not connected

 also in 1 K $14^{3}$,
$h$ Rem. The soft combination with compound $\breve{S}^{e}$ w $\hat{x}$ occurs only in the ist plur. perfcct with suffixes, since in these forms the tone is thrown one place farther forward, e.g. suffixes 7 and


On the weak verbs א" $\boldsymbol{K}$, see especially $\$ 74$.

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2. When, through the addition of a preformative, $N u n$ stands at the end of a syllable, it is readily assimilated to the second radical

 of an imperfect with original $i$ in the second syllable, cf. $h)^{2}$; also in the perfect Niph'al Hophial (which in these verbs always has Qibbus, in a sharpened syllable, cf. § $9 n$ ) שִּ

The other forms are all quite regular, e.g. the perfect, infinitive absolute and participle Qal, all Pi"̈l, Pu'al, \&c.

In Paradigm H, only those conjugations are given which differ from the regular form.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ The characteristic of these verbs in all forms with a preformative is Dageš following it in the second radical. Such forms, however, are also found in certain verbs the imperative שiּu, also $\boldsymbol{\sim}$
 (imperfect Niph'al of $\bar{\square}$ ), and in similar forms of verbs $\boldsymbol{i}^{\prime \prime}$ ( (§ $7^{2}$ ), the full writing of the $\hat{o}$ indicates, as a rule, that they are not to be regarded as imperfects Qal of נָקָ, \&c.-Also but stands for אטסט (with a sharpening of the as compensation for the loss

 נשֹׂ
$f$ Rem. I. The instances are comparatively few in which the forms retain their Nûn before a firm consonant, e.g. יָּנְטָֹר Jer $3^{5}$ (elsewhere
 $\operatorname{Pr} 0^{28}$ ) ; similarly in Is $29^{1}, 5^{83}, \psi 61^{8}, 68^{3}$ (where, however, ${ }^{140^{2.5}}, \operatorname{Pr} 2^{11}, \mathrm{Jb} 40^{21}$, the retention of the $N \hat{n}$ is always connected with the pause. In Niph'al this never occurs (except in the irregular inf. cf. § $5 \mathrm{I} k$ ), in Hiph'il and Hoph'al very seldom ; e.g. הֲנְ Ju $20^{31}$; for לַנְּ the Nûn is regularly retained in all verbs, of which the second radical is a guttural, e.g. יִיְחַל he will possess, although there are rare cases like תחֵי. (also (יִנְחַח) he will descend, Jer $21^{13}$ (even accented as Mil'ēl), plur. 忛答 Jb $2 I^{13}$ (cf. $\S 20 i$; the Masora, however, probably regards he has grieved.



[^90]


 $\$ 53$ u) imperfect $\Pi$ ? form $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Ez} \mathrm{I}_{7} 7^{5}$ is a mistake; for the equally meaningless $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Ho} 11^{3}$ read -•וָאֶּקָּם
 verb פע with imperfect in $\bar{e}$ (
 frequently) תחּנְ (but in $\psi 8^{2}$ the very strange reading simply meant by the Masora to suggest נתָָּּ \&c. Moreover, this very common verb has the peculiarity that its final Nun,
 frequently,


In the infinitive construct Qal the ground-form tint is not lengthened to tèneth $i$ (as $\because \in \mathfrak{Z}$ ened to $\Omega \AA$, with the omission of Dage§ forte in the final consonant, see $\S 20 l$; but with suffixes e. g. Ex $5^{21}$, and even when closely connected by other means, e. g. Gn $15^{7}$. However, the strong formation of the infinitive construct also occurs in Nu

 for תתן.
 $\S 19 c$ and § 440 . On the entirely anomalous aphaeresis of the Nûn with a strong vowel in湢, cf. $\S 53$ u.

## §67. Verbs עע"ע, e.g. סָבָּ to surround.

Brockelmann, Semit. Sprachwiss., p. 155 ff. ; Grundriss, p. 632 ff.

1. A large number of Semitic stems have verbal forms with only $a$ two radicals, as well as forms in which the stem has been made triliteral by a repetition of the second radical, hence called verbs $y^{\prime \prime}$. Forms with two radicals were formerly explained as being due to contraction from original forms with three radicals. It is more correct

[^91]to regard them as representing the original stem (with two radicals), and the forms with the second radical repeated as subsequently developed from the monosyllabic stern. ${ }^{1}$ The appearance of a general contraction of triliteral stems is due to the fact that in biliteral forms the second radical regularly receives Dages forte before afformatives, except in the cases noted in $\S 22 b$ and $q$. This points, however, not to an actual doubling, but merely to a strengthening of the consonant, giving more body to the monosyllabic stem, and making it approximate more to the character of triliteral forms.

The development of biliteral to triliteral stems (ע"ע) generally takes place in the 3 rd sing. masc. and fem. and 3rd plur. perfect Qal of transitive verbs, or at any rate of verbs expressing an activity, e.g.
 with an evident distinction between transitive and intransitive forms, as צָּר to make strait, to be in a strait; see further details, including the exceptions, in $a a$. The development of the stem takes place ( $a$ ) necessarily whenever the strengthening of the 2 nd radical is required
 ever the and radical is followed or preceded by an essentially long

$b$ 2. The biliteral stern always (except in Hiplîll and the imperfect Niphial, see below) takes the vowel which would have been required between the second and third radical of the ordinary strong form, or which stood in the ground-form, since that vowel is characteristic of the form ( $\$ 43$ b), e.g. $q a ̆ t a ̆ l a ̆ t$, ,
c 3. The insertion of Dage ${ }_{s}^{\ell}$ forte (mentioned under a), for the purpose of strengthening the second radical, never takes place (see § $20 l$ )
 it appears again on the addition of afformatives or suffixes, e. g.

d 4. When the afformative begins with a consonant ( $\Omega, \Omega$ ), and hence the strongly pronounced second radical would properly come at the end of a closed syllable, a separating vowel is inserted between the stem-syllable and the afformative. In the perfect this vowel is $\mathfrak{i}$,
 (for $s a b b-t \bar{a}, s a b b-n u$, tas $\bar{o} b b-n \bar{a}$ ). The artificial opening of the syllable

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$h$ 6. The original vowel is retained, see $f,(a)$ in the preformative of
 § 72); (b) in the perfect Niphial בהוּ, with irregular lengthening (no doubt on the analogy of verbs (פּ) for hōsăb from hǔ̌-sab, imperfect from yǔ-sab, \&c.
$i$ On the other hand, an already attenuated vowel (i) underlies the intransitive imperfects Qal with $\breve{a}$ in the second syllable (probably for the sake of dissimilating the two vowels), e.g. יִּ for y̌̌-mär (see $p$ ); and in the preformative of Hiph $\hat{\imath} l$ Non from $h \check{\imath}$-sēb (ground-
 bunp), on the analogy of the perfect. In the second syllable of the Perf. the underlying vowel is $\breve{\imath}$, attenuated from an original $\breve{a}$, which in the strong verb is abnormally lengthened to $\hat{\imath}(\S 53 a)$. The $\bar{e}$ lengthened from $\check{\imath}$ is, of course, only tone-long, and hence when without the tone and before Dageš forte we have e.g. retention of the original $\check{a}$ in the second syllable, cf. $v$.
$k$ 7. The tone, as a general rule, tends to keep to the stem-syllable, and does not (as in the strong verb) pass to the afformatives $n_{\bar{T}}$,



 find习习

 moved forward to these vowels (or to the final syllable, cf. ee), e.g.
 which always bear the tone. This shifting of the tone naturally causes the shortening of the merely tone-long vowels $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{o}$ to $\breve{\imath}$ and
 which the vowel of the preformative becomes $\check{S}^{e} w d$, see above, $f$.
$l$ 8. In several verbs $y^{\prime \prime} y$, instead of Piēl, Puial and Hithpa'ēl, the less frequent conjugation Pốel, with its passive and reflexive, occurs (most probably on the analogy of the corresponding forms of verbs cf. § 72 m ), generally with the same meaning, ${ }^{1}$ e.g. . ל ע to ill-treat,


[^93]and 7 In $24^{19}{ }^{\text {f. } .}$ ); in a few verbs also Pilpèl ( $(55 f$ ) is found, e.g.
 with suffix
 biliteral form any more than Piēl, Puial, and Hithpa'ēl; cf. עִוְִ̣'ם (Is $19^{14}$ ) and $\psi$ I $8^{27}$,

## Remaris.

## I. On Qal.

I. In the perfect, isolated examples are found with $\bar{o}$ in the first syllable, $m$ which it is customary to refer to triliteral stems with middle o (like יָּ, יָּ,

 rather to be classed among the passives of Qal mentioned in $\S 52 e$.
2. Imperfects $Q a l$ with $\bar{o}$ in the second syllable keep the original $a$ in the $\Pi$ preformative, but lengthen it to $\bar{a}$, as being in an open syllable, hence ${ }_{j} \Pi_{T}$,
 imperfects with $\breve{a}$ have, in the preformative, an $\bar{e}$, lengthened from $\check{i}$. See the examples below, under $p, \S 63 c$ and $e, \$ 72 h$, and specially Barth in ZDMG. 1894, p. 5 f.

The Hōlum of the infinitive, imperative, and imperfect ( $\dot{\text { D }}$, יָסב) is only tonelong, and therefore, as a rule, is written defectively (with a few exceptions, chiefly in the later orthography, e.g. רiצ bind up, Is S $S^{16}$; Li: $\psi 37^{5}$; EiT.
 becomes in the final syllable $\check{o}$, in a sharpened syllable $\breve{u}$, or not infrequently even $\check{o}$ (see above, $k$ ). Examples of $\begin{gathered}\text { are } \\ \text { : ( }\end{gathered}$ ( ) in a toneless final syllable, i. e.
 Ju $11^{18}$ (once even with $\check{u}$ in a toneless final syllable, ${ }^{\prime}$ Ex ${ }^{1629}$ ); on the
 afformative or suffix, e.g. imperative $2 n d$ sing. fem. .的 Jer $5^{26}$;
 to the preformative.

On the 2nd plur-fem. imperat. analogous forms in $\S 4^{8}$ i. -Quite abnormal is the infinitive abso? (as follows, probably only a case of dittography for $\boldsymbol{i}$ ר , cf.
 with $\boldsymbol{A}$ paragogic. We should expect
 the addition of the paragogic $\boldsymbol{i}_{\bar{T}}$ causing no change in the form of the word
 be read qäballí, 'äralli, then in both cases the Qames must be explained, with

Stade，as the equivalent of $\bar{o}$（

3．Examples with Pathall in the infinitive，imperative，and imperfect are
 Gn $6^{3}$（so ed．Mant．，but there is also good authority for
 $\psi 119^{22}$ ；and the imperfects $\square \prod_{-}^{\prime!}$ it is hot，Dt $19^{6}$ ，\＆c．（on the $\bar{e}$ of the preforma－

 elsewhere in the impf．consec．with the tone on the penultima，e．g．
 mally written fully for אָּ ，unless is to be read，as in in some MSS．，on the analogy of the 3 rd sing． Hb $2^{8}$ varies between The following forms are to be explained with Barth＇（ZDMG．xliii．p．178） as imperfects Qal with original $i$ in the second syllable，there being no
隹 Ex $4 c^{21}, \psi 91^{4}$ ，\＆c．；perhaps also
 not Hiphél（for 1 ），as formerly explained below，under $w$ ．Finally the very peculiar form
1 Imperfects，with an original $u$ in the second syllable，are also found with this $\check{u}$ lengthened to $\hat{u}$（instead of $\bar{o}$ ），e．g．

 according to Baer，וְתָרוּ $)$ ； above）．${ }^{3}$
 Ec $9^{1}$ ；בִּחֻקוֹ $\operatorname{Pr} 8^{27}$（cf．בְּחוּקוֹ $\operatorname{Pr} 8^{29}$ ）for Gn $27^{21}$ ．（The forms treated here as infinitives from על ע＂ע stems，are rather to be referred to stems，with Barth，Wurzeluntersuchungen，Lpz．1902，p．2I．）On other similar cases，see below，under ee．For examples of the aramaizing imperfect，see above，$g$ ．
$S$ 4．In the participle，the aramaïzing form שְ occurs in



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Seghôl is found under the preformative in ${ }^{4}$ occurs kefore $\Pi$ (with a virtual sharpening of the $\Pi$ ) in such forms as
 before חִּהְלִּ
a 7 . In the imperfect consecutive of verbs whose second radical is a guttural, $\breve{a}$ is retained ( $\$ 22 d$ ) in the second syllable instead of é, e.g. .

y 8. Aramaîzing forms (but cf. Rem. : $\S 67 \mathrm{~g}$ ) in Hiplíl and Hophial are,
 7

 $5 c^{45}$; cf. brought low, Jb $24^{21}$;
 Mּפְ



## IV. In General.

z 9. Verbs ע ע ע ( $\$ 7^{2}$ ). The form of verbs $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ y is generally the shorter (cf. e.g. ${ }^{\circ}$.
 coincide, e.g. in the imperfect Qal and Hiph'il with $w \bar{\alpha} w$ consecutive, in Hoph'al and in the less common conjugations (see above, l).
al 10. The developed forms (with three radicals), as mentioned in a, are especially frequent in the 3 rd sing. masc. and fem., and the 3 rd plur. perf. Qal (i.e. in forms without an afformative or with an afformative beginning with a vowel) of transitive verbs, or verbs, at any rate, expressing action, e.g. (סָבְבוֹ, סָבַב

 as well as $\mathfrak{i l}$ Dt $3^{7}$; biliteral forms in 2nd sing. masc. are Dt $25^{12}, \operatorname{Pr} 30^{32}$; in ist sing., Jos $5^{9}$. Apart from Qal the only example of a developed form is
On the other hand, the biliteral forms are the more common in the $3^{\text {rd }}$ sing. and plur. of perfects which are intransitice, and express a state; cf.





 inére), almost all have, as Mayer Lambert observes, at least an active, not a stative meaning. Triliteral forms of the infinitive after $\}$ are ${ }^{2}$ ?


form


 assimilation of the $N \hat{u} n$, was.unavoidable. On the other hand,
 in the $K^{e}(h i b h)$; the strengthening of the second radical has been afterwards


 Mi $6^{13}$; participle $\operatorname{Dַשׁׁמִים~Ez~} 3^{15}$. That the developed (triliteral) forms possess a certain emphasis is seen from their frequent use in pause, as in

II. The above-mentioned (see g) neglect of the strengthening in aramaizing $d d$ forms, such as i? and the like, occurs elsewhere tolerably often; in the perfect Qal






 מלָ not to circumcise), cf. Is $19^{9}$, Jer $8^{14}$; imperfect participle נַחָּ perfects Niph'al from (נוּ (


No less irregular is the suppression of the vorwel of the stem-syllable in Liv $26^{15}$.-On the perfect
12. Cases in which the tone is thrown forward on the afformatives (see $\mathcal{C C}$

 $\psi 92^{11}$ (but the text is certainly corrupt ; see the Lexicon), in $6^{6}$, perhaps also Jb $19^{17}$, ! infinitive in oth; see Delitzsch on Jb 19 ${ }^{17}$ ); in the 2nd sing. וְקָצֹאָ (before א) Dt $25^{13}$; in the 3 rd plural,
 ${ }^{2} 5^{5}, \mathrm{La}_{4}{ }^{7}$;

 Zp $3^{14}, \mathrm{Zc} 2^{14}$; רָּ $\operatorname{Is} 44^{23}, 49^{13}$, Jer $3{ }^{17}$ (but feasts), Na $2^{21}$, Jer $7^{29}$; עוּהּ (yyyy short vowels $\breve{u}(\breve{c})$ and $\bar{i}$ before Dagey forte, in place of the tone-long $\bar{o}$ and $\bar{e}$, sce above, $k$; on the change of the vowel of the preformative into $\breve{S}^{e} u \cdot \dot{a}$, when it no longer stands before the tone, sce $g$.

The Wearest Verbs (Verba Quiescentia). §68. Verls $\kappa^{\prime \prime}$ घ e.g.

Brockelmann, Semit. Sprachuiss., p. 140 ff. ; Grundriss, p. 589 ff.

a So far as x retains its full consonantal value as a guttural, these verbs share all the peculiarities of verbs primae gutturalis, mentioned in § 63. They are, however, to be treated as weak verbs, when the $N$ loses its value as a consonant, and coalesces with the preceding vowel (originally short) to form one long syllable. This takes place only in the following very common verbs and forms, as if through phonetic decay:-
$b$ 1. In the imperfect Qal, five verbs (viz. אָּד to perish, to be



 obscuring of $a(\S 9 q$ ), and the $a$ from $\stackrel{\aleph}{ }-$, the weak consonant $\kappa$ coalescing with $\breve{a}$ to $a$; cf. § $23 a$.
c In the second syllable $\bar{o}$ (for original $\breve{u}$ ) never appears, but either $\bar{e}^{2}$ or $\breve{a}$; and in pause almost always $\bar{e}$, even before the tone-bearing
 In the 3rd sing. masc. and ist sing. of Nָׁ, however, $\breve{a}$ is always retained in pause,

 accents in the body of the sentence, $\breve{a}$ (as being a lighter vowel) is used, e. g. change of $\bar{e}$ and $\breve{a}$ in § 65 c. The $3^{\text {rd fem. plur. impf. always has the }}$ form $\mathrm{Zc}_{1} 1^{9}$.
d When the tone moves back, the final syllable of the imperfects of אָבָּ, with a conjunctive accent, also always takes Puthah, e. g. . from the final syllable only occurs in the form with $w \bar{a} w$ consecutive

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the ist pers. $\mathrm{Mi}_{4}{ }^{6}$ and $7 \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{K}$ I $\mathrm{S}_{15} 5^{6}$, which is apparently (from the Metheg with the $i$ ), intended for an imperfect Hiph'il: instead of it, however, read, with the Mantua edition, (with $i$, according to $\S 60 f$ ). But
 due to a mistake, since all three forms must be derived from the stem


 to other readings (on the analogy of the cases mentioned in $\S 75 p$ ) איֵ? N.

Paradigm I shows the weak forms of the imperfect Qal, and merely indicates the other conjugations, which are regular.
$i$ Rem. r. In the derived conjugations only isolated weak forms occur :
 in verse 17 is


 appears to require the $P^{\prime \prime} \bar{\prime} l$, וָ וָאוֹצָרה
 infin. Hiph. from פּפ) ; Participle gireth ear, Pr $17^{4}$ (clearly by false analogy of verbs same form used for the perfect in Is $21^{14}, \mathrm{cf} . \S 76 \mathrm{~d}$ )


位, as $\psi 18^{40}$;
§ 69. Verbs , First C'lass, or Verbs originally 1 .


Brockelmann, Semit. Sprachwiss., p. 141 f. ; Grundriss, p. 596 ff.
a Verbs which at present begin with Yôdh when without preformatives are divided into two classes according to their origin and consequent inflexion: (a) Verbs which (as still in Arabic and Ethiopic) originally began with $W a \bar{w} w$, e.g. g . ${ }_{\mathrm{T}}^{\mathrm{T}}$ to give birth to, Arab. and Eth. wälddă. In consequence of a phonetic change which prevails also with few exceptions in the noun, this $W \bar{a} w$ in Hebrew and Aramaic always becomes a Yôdh, at least when it is the initial consonant; but after preformatives it either reappears, or is again changed into

Yídh, or, lastly, is altogether elided; (b) Verbs which (as in Arabic) originally began with Yôdh (called Verba cum Iod originario, see § 70). A few verbs again (some with original Yôdh, and some with original $W \bar{a} w)$ form a special class, which in certain forms assimilates the $W \bar{a} w$ or $Y \hat{c} d h$ to the following consonant on the analogy of the $N \hat{u} n$ in verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ (see § 71 I).
 noticed that-

1. In the imperfect, imperative and infinitive construct Qal there is a twofold inflexion, according as the $W \bar{a} w$ is wholly rejected or ouly changed into Yôdh. The complete rejection (or elision) takes place regularly in eight verbs (see $h$ ) in the following manner:
A. Imperfect יָרעע, wixur with an unchangeable ${ }^{1}$ Sere in the first syllable and original $\check{z}$ in the second, which in the tone-syllable



The tone-long $\bar{e}$ of the second syllable is of course liable to be shortened or to become $S^{\zeta} e w d$, e.g. $\breve{a}$ becomes $\breve{S}{ }_{e}^{e} w a$ in such cases as

B. Imperative with aphaeresis of the Wāw and with tone-long $\bar{e}$, from $\breve{\imath}$, as in the imperfect.
C. Infinitive from original šibh, by addition of the feminine ending ( $n$ ) lengthened to a segholate form ; as in verbs $j^{\prime \prime}$ (cf. $\S 66$ b) this lengthening affords a certain compensation for loss of the initial consonant.
Rem. Since the infinitives (see below, $m$ ) point to a ground- $\boldsymbol{C}$ form diat, lidat, we must, with Philippi (ZDMG. xxxii. 42) and Barth (ibid. xli. 606), assign to
 that the $i$ of the stem-syllable is changed into $a$ whenever the syllable becomes doubly closed by the addition of the vowelless feminine ending.

[^96]d In more than half the number of verbs 1 "פ the original $W \bar{a} w$ in the above-mentioned forms gives place to Yôdh, which, unless it suffers aphaeresis (see $f$ ), appears :-
 consonant, but
in the imperfect שill", properly yiyrư̆, merges with the preceding $\check{\imath}$ into $\hat{\text { it }}$.
In the second syllable inperfects of this form regularly have $\breve{a}$.
$e$ (a) That the latter forms are derived from verbs with an original Wãw (not Yódh) is shown partly by the inflexion of these verbs in Niph'al, Hiph'il, and Hoph'al (where the original Wão reappears throughout), and partly by the Arabic, in which verbs likewise exhibit a twofold formation; cf. wălădă, imperf. yălĭdu, with elision of the Wā $w$, and wăăilăa, yaugalu, with retention of the $W a \bar{a} w$.
(b) Sometimes both forms, the weaker and the stronger, occur in the same verb; cf. $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{S}} 2 \mathrm{~K} 4^{41}$ and


 precious, 1 S $18^{30}$ and for 3 ,
 cf. § 19 i.-But 7 근 Ju $5^{13}$ (twice) is not intended by the Masora either as perfect (for $7 \underset{\sim}{7}$, which really should be restored) or as imperative of $7 \underset{\sim}{\text {, }}$, but as an apocopated imperfect Pi'el from
$h$ (d) The eight verbs, ${ }^{1}$ of which the initial consonant in the abovementioned forms always suffers elision or aphaeresis, are to bring forth,

 עי
 to fear.
$i$ 2. The original $W \bar{a} w$ is retained as a firm consonant: (a) in the infinitive, imperative, and imperfect Niphial, being protected by the


 beginning of a word is now found only in a few nouns, e.g. וָ off spring from $\}_{-}$to bear. At the end of a syllable $W \bar{a} w$ with the homogeneous

[^97]
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0 2. The imperative Qal frequently has the lengthening by $\boldsymbol{N}_{\bar{\top}}$, e.g. sit thou, רָרָה descend thou. From to give, Arab. wăhăbă, only the imperatice is used in Hebrew; it has the form הַב give, lengthened generally with the meaning age, go to, hence in Gn $11^{3.4}$ even addressed to several persons
 analogy of the plural (once in Jb $6^{22}$ הָאר before the tone-syllable; but cf. Dt $3^{2}{ }^{3}$ ), whilst, on the analogy of other imperatives Qal of verbs would be expected.-On $\operatorname{T\nu } \operatorname{Pr} 24^{14}$, cf. $\S 4^{8} l$.
$p$
3. The imperfect with 1 elided takes $\breve{a}$ in the second syllable, besides the cases mentioned above (under $f$ ), also in 7 . Jer $13{ }^{17}$ (cf. La $3^{48}$ ) and in
 The $\breve{a}$ in the second syllable, when followed by the afformative \&c.), is in accordance with the law mentioned above (under c), by which $\breve{a}$ takes the place of $\breve{\imath}$ in a doubly closed syllable. Forms with $\bar{e}$ in the second syllable shorten the $\bar{e}$ to $S^{e}$ ghôl, when the tone is drawn back (before

 $J u 9^{39}$, in both cases with nasog 'ahor, $\S 29$ e. The pausal is either of the form IM, Ru $4^{1}$ or 7 ²d $\psi{ }^{1810}$; the ist pers. sing., whether in or out of
 note above, on $b$ and the analogous cases in $\S 70$ d)
${ }^{6} 7$ The imperfect of the form © is frequently (especially before afformatives) written defectively, in which case the $\hat{\imath}$ can always be recognized as a long
 :

r. From יָּל to prevail, to be able, the imperfect Qal is which can only have arisen through a depression of the vowel from (ground-form yaukhal = yawkhal), to distinguish it, according to Qimhi, from אֹאַל, just as, according to $\S 47 b$, יֶּ from waru'a, yaujalu (yốalu) from wagila, as also the vulgar Arabic (among towns-people) yûsal, \&c., from wasula. Others regard ל른 as an imperfect Hoph'al (he is enabled = he can), always used instead of the imperfect Qal; cf., however,
 König because the and fem. had been sufficiently indicated previously.Further יוֹרֶ or is to be regarded with M. Lambert (REJ. xxxvii, no. 73) as impf. Qal (not Hiph'il) of $\mathrm{Nu} 21^{30}$ is critically very doubtful). This is shown especially by the passages in which the impf. . is immediately preceded by the imperat. Qal ( $2 \mathrm{~K}_{13} 3^{17}$ ) or infin. Qal $\left(\psi 64^{5}\right)$, or is followed by the participle Qal ( $2 \mathrm{Ch} 35^{23}$; but in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{11^{24}}$ by the participle Hiph'il).
$s$ 4. The attenuation of $\check{a}$ to $\check{\imath}$ in the perfect (in a toneless, closed syllable) which is discussed in $\S 44 d$ (cf. $\S 64 f$ ) occurs in verls $1^{\prime \prime D}$ in a few forms of
 cases the attenuation might be explained from the tendency to assimilate the vowels, especially if the initial ? was pronounced, as in Syriac, like $i$ ( $\$ 47 \mathrm{~b}$ ). In the case of probably to be assumed, since in Arabic also the verb is wărĭ $a \breve{a}$. The forms
 return of this $i$.
5. As an exception, the imperfect Niph'al sometimes has a 'instead of the $t$ 1, e.g. ל lin lin and he stayed, Gn $8^{12}$ (unless the Pi'el or be read), cf. Ex $19^{13}$; IS $13^{8} K^{e}$ thibh.-The first person always has the form
 with depression of $\hat{o}$ to $\hat{u}$, cf. $\S 27 n$ ) is found in $\mathrm{Zp} 3^{18}$; cf. La $1^{4}$. While in these cases some doubt may be felt as to the correctness of the Masoretic pointing, much more is this so in the perfect נוֹלִדְ
6. In the imperfect Pi'ēl elision of the first radical (') sometimes takes place $u$ after wāw consec. (as in the case of $\kappa, \S 68 \mathrm{k}$ ), e.g. grieved, La $3^{33}$,
 Jo $4^{3}, \mathrm{Ob}^{11}, \mathrm{Na} 3^{10}$, a perfect $Q a l$ of $7{ }_{7}$ יָ is required by the context; but as this, being a transitive perfect, ought to have the form $17{ }_{1 /}^{1 /}$ according to



 the second syllable ; ; Is $43^{8}$; שִּ
 see $\S 53 \mathrm{~m}$. When closed by a guttural the second syllable generally has $\breve{a}$, as
 $\S 65 f)$. On the other hand, $i$ always appears when the syllable is open, thus
 NȚin, see $\S 70 b$ ) is irregular.-The jussive and the imperject consecutive Hiph'il when the tone is drawn back take Seghol in the second syllable, as in Qal,


 pause after wāw consecutive, Gn $47^{11}$, Jos $24^{3}, 2$ S $8^{4}$, \&c.). With a final guttural יוֹרַבַח Ru $2^{14}$ : on



 $\S 71$ at the end.
8. The verb הָ to go, also belongs in some respects to the פע class, since it $x$ forms (as if from
 with suff. לְכְּ (Seghôl under the influence of the following palatal, as in
 interjection referring even to a feminine, Gn $19^{32}$, or a plural, Gn $31^{14}$ ) and 7 ?
 imperative is to be read for הֵיִיִיִי, which probably arose merely through
 the imperfect consecutive always : Lv $26^{13}, \mathrm{Am} 2^{10}$, \&c. Rarely, and almost exclusively late or in poetry, the regular inflexions of are also found : imperf.
 Ec $6^{8.9}$; imperative plur. הִלִל Jer $5^{150}$. On the other hand, the perfect Qal is

 The usual explanation of the above forms is nevertheless based on a supposed obsolete forms of הלך with Praetorius (ZAW. ii. 310 ff.) as originating with the Hiphil, of which the ground-form hahlikh became hâlikh, and this again, on the analogy of the imperfect Qal of verbs $\mathrm{N}^{\prime \prime}$, hôlikh. This hölkh being referred to a supposed haulikh (properly hawlikh) gave rise to new formations after the manner of verbs $9^{\prime \prime}$.
§ 70. Verbs פ. פ. Second Class, or Verbs properly e. g. יָּ to be good. Paradigm L. Brockelmann, Scmit. Sprachwiss., p. 143 ff. ; Grundriss, p. 603 ff.

Verbs properly ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ פ differ from verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ in the following points:
a 1. In Qal the initial Yôdh never suffers aphaeresis or elision ; hence the infinitive has the form "יְבי,', the imperfect


 Is $43^{10}$ ).
 (rarely written הֵיטִב, הֵטִיב, \&c.) ; imperfect Instances of the uncontracted form are $\mathfrak{Z c}$ § $67 p$ ), an example of an $i$-imperfect of Qal, since the Hiphitl is otherwise always causative;
 $Q^{e} r \hat{e} \hat{)}$, cf. Gn $8^{17} Q^{e} r \hat{e}$; מַיְמִיִִים I Ch $12^{2}$, to be explained as a


${ }^{1}$ Cf. above, $m$, note 2 .
 : Gn $8^{7}$, is the only example of an infinitive construct Qal of these verbs. No example of the imperative Qal is found : consequently the forms ${ }^{\circ}$ טַ, \&c. (in Paradigm L of the earlier editions of this Grammar), are only inferred from the imperfect.

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consecutive has the form Fis! $\mathrm{Gn} 28^{18}, 35^{14}$, \&c., cf. $\S 69 f$, where also other forms of from 'צָ, to form, are, however, used in the same sense. Cf. also
 (cf. § $69 n$ ) and $\operatorname{pisp}$ Is $8^{16}$. This assimilation is found always with sibilants (most frequently with $\Psi$ ) except in the case of 惊! I K $3^{15}$

 § $69 t$.

## 

Brockelmann, Semit. Sprachwiss., p. 144 ff. ; Grundriss, p. 605 ff.
$a$ 1. According to § $67 a$ a large number of monosyllabic stems were brought into agreement with the triliteral form by a strengthening; or repetition, of the second radical, i.e. of the consonantal element in the stem. In another large class of stems the same object has been attained by strengthening the vocalic element. The ground-form used for these verbs is not, as in other cases ( $\$ 39 a$ ), the 3 rd sing. masc. perfect, but always the infinitive construct form ( $\$ 39 b$ ), the $\hat{\imath}$ of which is characteristic also of the imperative and of the imperfect indicative Qal. These stems are consequently termed verbs ${ }^{1 / 2}$ or more correctly (see below) (1"1.1

[^98]2. As in the case of verbs $ע$, עע monosyllabic stem of verbs $\begin{aligned} & \text { ע } \\ & b\end{aligned}$ generally takes the vowel which would have been required in the second syllable of the ordinary strong form, or which belonged to the ground-form, since this is essentially characteristic of the verbal form ( $\S 43 b ; \S 67 b$ ). However, it is to be remarked: (a) that the vowel, short in itself, becomes of necessity long in an open syllable as well as in a tone-bearing closed ultima (except in Hophial, see d), e.g. $3^{\text {rd }}$ sing. masc. perf. ${ }^{\square}$, fem. . MTpen, \&c. ${ }^{1}$; (b) that in the forms as we now have them the lengthening of the original short vowel sometimes takes place irregularly. Cf. $f$.

Intransitive verbs middle $e$ in the perfect $Q a l$ have the form he $\boldsymbol{C}$ is dead; verbs middle o have the form רiא he shone, wi. he was ashamed,
3. In the imperfect Qal, perfect Niplial, and throughout Hipliil and $d$ Hophial the short vowel of the preformatives in an open syllable before the tone is changed into the corresponding tone-long vowel. In Qal and Niphial the original $\breve{a}$ is the basis of the form and not the $\breve{\imath}$
 for yăqüm; םiput for năqôm; on the other hand, in the perfect Hiplîll הֵקִים for hŭqîm; participle (on the Ṣere cf. z) ; perfect Hophial ה for hüqam.
A vowel thus lengthened before the tone is naturally changeable and $e$ becomes rocal Šewâ when the tone is moved forward, e.g. יְְיחֶּ he will kill

 המיִיר in the same verse) should, with König, be emended to incorrect repetition of the interrogative necessarily led to the pointing of the form as perfect instead of imperfect.-But in Hoph'al the $\hat{u}$ is retained throughout as an unchangeable vowel, when it has been introduced by an abnormal lengthening for the tone-long $\bar{o}$ (as in the Hoph'al of verbs 4 ע" ע).

[^99]$f$
4. The cases of unusual vowel lengthening mentioned in $b$ are: imperfect Qal ${ }^{\text {PI }}$ (also in Arabic yăqumu), but jussive with normal


 be retained in a closed penultima; infinitice construct $\begin{aligned} & \text { PI }\end{aligned}$. In Hiph îl

 $\hat{\imath}$ to the Hiphill of the strong verb, cf. $\S 53 a$.
$g$ The following forms require special consideration: the participle $Q x l \square$ is to be traced to the ground-form with $a$ unobscured, Arab. $q d t \check{l} l, \S 9 q$, and $\S 50 b$. On this analogy the form would be $q d$ rin, ${ }^{1}$ which after absorption of the $\check{\imath}$ became $\mathrm{ap}_{\uparrow}$, owing to the predominating character of the $a$. The unchangeableness of the $a$ (plur. . יקָּ, \&c.) favours this explanation.

1. In the imperfect Qal, besides the forms with original $\check{u}$ (now $\hat{u}$ ) there are also forms with original $\breve{a}$. This $\breve{a}$ was lengthened to $\bar{a}$, and then
 perfect and
 consent, and perhaps in 0 IS $4^{\circ}$, \&c., as in the cases noticed in $\S 63 e$ and especially $\S 67 n$, the $\bar{e}$ of the preformative is lengthened from $\check{\imath}$ (which is attenuated from original $\check{a}$ ) and thus $y \check{\imath}$ - $b a \check{s}$ became
 Dip? from yiqqām, originally ( $\S_{5}{ }_{1} m$ ) yinqăm, arises in the same way from the obscuring of $\bar{a}$ lengthened from $\breve{a}$.
; 5. In the perfect Niphial and Hiphîl a $;$ is inserted before the afformatives beginning with a consonant in the ist and and persons, and ${ }^{\prime}$ - regularly (but see Rem.) in the imperfect Qal, sometimes also

 separating vowels serve as an artificial opening of the preceding syllable, in order to preserve the long vowel; in the perfect Hiphinl, however, before the $\mathfrak{i}$, instead of the $\hat{\imath}$ an $\bar{e}$ is somewhat often found ${ }^{2}$ (as a normal lengtheuing of the original $\breve{\imath}$ ), especially after $w \bar{a} w$ con-
[^100]
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employed in the sense of $P i^{i} \bar{e} l$ and as a substitute for it, e.g. po po

 (cf. יִחְערָ $\mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{r}_{1} 7^{8}$ in pause) from עוּר ; reciprocal to be ashamed before one another, Gn $2^{25}$. The conjugation Pilpēl ( $(55 f$ ), on the



## Remaris.

## I. On Qal.

$n$
I. Of verbs middle $e$ and $o$, in which, as in the strong verb, the perfect and participle have the same form ( $\$ 50.2$ ), the following are the only examples: מֵת he is dead, fem. וֹמָחַת (even in pause, Gn 19 $9^{19}$ ); plur.

 For İ Is $27^{11}$ read Jָּ, or, with LXX, עַ.
0 Isolated anomalies in the perfect are: :
 IS $25^{8}$ (for M which is what would be expected; as Yôdh precedes, it is perhaps simply a scribal error.
 the participles לָאט doing despite unto (unless שׂשׁׁט
 Ben-Naphtali for ${ }^{\text {F }}$. On the analogy of participles of verbs middle o (like


 verbal adjectives of the form quatùl ( $\S 50 f$ ), not passive participles. For

2. Imperfects in $\hat{x}$ almost always have the corresponding imperative and in. finitive construct in $\hat{u}$, as יקָּים , imperative and infinitive (also defectively written

 Is $7^{2}$ (elsewhere נעוּ Jos $2^{16}$; םiר $\operatorname{Ez~} 10^{17}$ (verse 16 ㅁㄱㄱ).
$\boldsymbol{r}$ Where the imperfect (always intransitive in meaning) has of the imperative
 , at all and not rather a substantive) is formed on the analogy of verbs $y$,
${ }^{1}$ In I K $14{ }^{12}$ (כְּבֹאָה before a genitive), the text is evidently corrupt : read with Klostermann after the LXX בּבּאָּ
since the imperfect of pappears as in $\psi 95^{10}$. On the other hand ijup : (as if from שip, on the analogy of אiביָ, \&c.) occurs as imperfect of (פָ has no corresponding perfect, and is perhaps intentionally differentiated
 after לא לא might be taken as a case of a jussive after לל , with irregular scriptio plena (as in Ju $16^{30}$ ), in Dt $7^{16}, 13^{9}, 19^{13.21}, 25^{12}, E z 5^{11}, 7^{4.9}, 8^{18}, 9^{10}$. But perhaps in all these cases
 $\psi \mathrm{F}^{13}$ are to be explained as in $\S 109 \mathrm{k}$.-The infinitive absolute always has $\hat{0}$, e.g. קוֹם Jer $44^{29}$.
3. In the imperative with afformatives (קוּמוּ, (קוּמי) the tone is on the stem $S$

 likewise for rhythmical reasons). So also the lengthened form, as שׁׂוֹבָ
 lengthened imperative usually has the form הiphe \& $\&$ c., 1 in order to avoid a hiatus, e.g. Ju $4^{18}, 482^{8}$; hence also before


4. In the jussive, besides the form (see above, $f$ ), bip also occurs $t$ (as subjunctive, Ec 12 $^{4}$; díd $\psi 80^{19}$ may also, with Delitzsch, be regarded as a voluntative), incorrectly written plene, and $\square{ }^{\top}$ (Gn $27^{31}$; cf. Ju 618, $\operatorname{Pr} 9^{4.16}$ ), which, however, is only orthographically different from ${ }^{1}$ (cf. Jer $4^{66}$ ). In the imperfect consecutive ( be a guttural or 7 in the last syllable, $\grave{a}$ often takes the place of $\check{o}$, e.g.
 (distinguished only by the sense from Hiph'il

 $1 \mathrm{~S}_{14} 4^{28.31},{ }_{2} \mathrm{~S}_{21} 1^{15}$, but probably in all these cases

 (ם쥬N), see § 49 e.

Examples of the full plural ending $i$ with the tone (see above, $l$ ) are $u$


## II. On Niph'al.



 although no instances of these forms are found; but of the 2nd pluy: the

[^101]
 of $\breve{a}$ ) of the preformative may be traced the perfect yivi Zc $2^{17}$ (analogous to





## III. On Hiphicil, Hoph'al, and Pi'īel.

6. Examples of the perfect without a separating vowel (see above, k)
 § 20 a) ; הֵכַּ


 in the secondary tone; elsewhere in the second syllable before the tone it becomes $\mp\left(\mathrm{ICh} \mathrm{I}^{18}\right.$, \&c.) or more frequently $\mp$, and in the syllable
 a suffix in the 3 rd sing. masc. (except Gn $40^{19}$ ) and fem., and in the 3 rd plur., the vowel of the initial syllable is Hateph-Segholl, in the other persons always
 $22^{2}, 27^{2}, 30^{1}, \mathrm{Ez} 34^{4}$, and above, $i$. The 3 rd fem. perf. Hiph. הָסָּתָה 1 K $21^{28}$ is

$\boldsymbol{x} \quad$ As in verbs $y^{\prime \prime y}$ with $\Pi$ for their first radical ( $\S 67 w$ ), all the forms of Ex $19^{23}$ (where against the rule given under $i$ we find of $\hat{\imath}$, Dt $\delta^{19}$, Neh $9^{34}$, Jer $42^{19}$, and $\operatorname{Is} 41^{25}, 45^{13}$, take Pathah in these conjugations instead of - . The irregular ${ }^{2}$. Zc ic ${ }^{6}$ has evidently arisen from a combination of two different readings, viz. וָהשׁבתּתים (from


 Silluq, cf. § $29 q$; but in Ez $21^{95}$ for

 $1 \mathrm{~S} 2 \mathrm{c}^{40}$; cf. $2 \mathrm{~K} 8^{66}$ ) is intended, or it was originally

 infinitive Haplicl in biblical Aramaic, Dn $5^{20}$. As infinitive absolute in $\mathrm{Ez}^{7^{14}}$ (perh. also Jos $4^{3}$, Jer $\mathrm{Ic}^{23}$ ). -The participles have $\bar{c}$, on the analogy of the perfect, as the vowel of the preformative, like verbs $y^{\prime \prime ע}$ ( $\S 7 i$ ). On מֵבִי 2 S $5^{2}$, \&c. (in K $K^{e} t h i ̂ b h$ ), see § 74 k.
al On the shortened forms of the imperfect (יָּקיָּ
 With a guttural or 7 the last syllable generally has Pathat (as in Qal), e.g. רַ

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Klostermann after the LXX. In Dn $8^{11}$ the Kethioh ${ }^{\text {is }}$ is intended for a perfect Hiph'll There is also a distinction in meaning between ${ }^{3}$ ?;
 verse 2 Kethion 1 in stuboorn, obstinate: in the latter sense from the form ; ;- only Ex $17^{3}$. Other examples are Niphial לim the was circumcisea, Gn $17^{204}$;



Perhaps the same explanation applies to some forms of verbs first guttural with Dages forte implicitum, which others derive differently or would emend, e. g. וֹאֲחֹ for is as far as the form is concerned, would be correct apocopated imperfects from
 meaning.
10. Verbs with a consonantal $W \bar{a} w$ for their second radical, are inflected throughout like the strong form, provided the first or third radical is not
 חר,


 drink, \&c.

\section*{§ 73. Verbs middle $i$ (vulgo ${ }^{\wedge}$ "ע), e.g. ${ }^{\prime}$ בִּ to discern. Paradigm $N$.} $\boldsymbol{\square}$ 'ayin- $\hat{\imath}$ verbs, from the characteristic vowel of the impf., imper., and infin. constr. This distinction is justified in so far as it refers to a difference in the pronunciation of the imperfect and its kindred forms, the imperative and infin. constr.-the | verbs having $\ell$ lengthened from |
| :--- |
| ver | original $\check{u}$ and ${ }^{\prime} ״ ע$ having $\hat{\imath}$ lengthened from original $\check{\imath}$. In other respects verbs ${ }^{\prime} y$ yimply belong to the class of really monosyllabic stems, which, by a strengthening of their vocalic element, have been assimilated to the triliteral form ${ }^{1}$ ( ${ }^{67} a$ ). In the perfect Qal the monosyllabic stem, as


 ( $\S 48 \mathrm{~g}$ ), imperfect consecutive

[^102]used to be treated as having a double set of forms, a regular series,

 'The above perfects (? middle $\bar{e}$ (properly $\check{\imath}$ ), the $\check{\imath}$ of which has been lengthened to $\hat{\imath}$ (like the $\check{u}$ lengthened to $\mathfrak{u}$ in the imperfect $Q a l$ of $Q: P)$. It is more probable, however, that they are really shortened forms of Hiph'il. This is supported by the fact that, especially in the case of $i \cdot 3$, the shortened forms are few and probably all late, while the corresponding unshortened forms with the same meaning are very numerous, e.g.
 abs.
 Elsewhere Hiphril-forms are in use along with actual Qal-forms with the same meaning, thus: מֵרִיב (also placing (but only in $\mathrm{Jb} 4^{\text {º }}$, which, with the critically untenable ${ }^{2}$ הָשְ $\mathrm{Ez} 2 \mathrm{I}^{21}$, is the only

 also in perfect we find a few apparent imperfects Hophial, which are really (according to $\S 53 u$ ) imperfects passive of Qal, e.g. 1 Is $66^{8}$ from חִּ to turn round, ירּשָ from to sing,
2. The above-mentioned Hiph $\hat{\imath} l$-forms might equally well be derived $b$
 distinctly seen in the Niphial נָבוֹ (ground-form nabān), Pôlel 简, and

 and ${ }^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{y}$ is evident also from the fact that from some stems both forms occur side by side in Qal, thus from $\begin{gathered}\text { to turn round, imperative also }\end{gathered}$

 at any rate, the more common, e.g. $\zeta$ : to exult ( $\$$ : only $\operatorname{Pr} 23^{24} K^{e} t h i ̂ b h$ ); from לh לh (perhaps denominative from to spend the night, six times as infinitive construct, $; \stackrel{i}{i} \leqslant$ only in $\mathrm{Gn}_{2} 4^{23}$; but the imperative
 רִיב to strive, to judge, 雚 to rejoice; cf. also perfect (middle

[^103]Yôdh in Arabic) to comprehend, to measure, Is $40^{12}$; Y'Y (as in Arabic and Syriac) to rush upon, and the denominative perfect $\gamma{ }_{\Gamma}$ (from $\gamma^{\mu} \mathrm{P}$ (R) to pass the summer, Is $\mathbf{1 8 6}$. On the other hand, וְרִיגוּם and they shall fish them, Jer $1^{16}{ }^{16}$, generally explained as perfect Qal, denominative from

c Corresponding to verbs properly $1 / y$, mentioned in $\S 7^{2} g g$, there are
 to become, to be,
 with the weakening of the toneless $\bar{a}$ to $\check{e}$ (as in the fem. participle cf. the analogous examples in $\S 48 \mathrm{l}$ and $\S 80 \mathrm{i}$. - 2nd sing. masc. .
 apparent reason; ist plur. Wu $\mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{Ig}^{18}$ for lan-n $\hat{\mathrm{u}}$. The lengthened imperatice has the tone on the ultima before gutturals, ריבֹה יהוֹה $\psi 45^{1}$; see further,


 due to incorrect scriptio plena; for the last the Qerê requires


 So with wàw conseculive




 Pere, even according to the reading of the Oriental schools (see p. 38, note 2 ): the $K^{e t h i ̂ b h ~ h a s ~}$

 Sainaritan יוסך. Against the explanation of as a Hophaliform from习iD, Barth (Jubelschrifl . . . Hildesheimer, Berlin, 1890, p. 151) rightly urges that the only example of a Hiph'il of of the doubtful probably an $\bar{i}$-imperfect of $q a l$.-The explanation of Dev", \&cc., as a passive of Qal arising from yiysam, \&c. = yuysam (so Barth, ibid., note I ), is certainly also unconvincing, so that the correctness of the traditional reading is open to question.
4. In verbs $\begin{aligned} & \text { ע" } \\ & \text { the } \\ & K\end{aligned}$ always retains its consonantal value ; these stems are, therefore, to be regarded as verbs middle Guttural (\$64). An exception is really been correctly transmitted, it should rather be referred to $\gamma \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{y}$, and regarded as incorrectly written for formerly treated here as $\mathrm{N} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { y }}$, see now $\$ 75 x$.

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$f$
3. When $\mathbb{N}$ begins a syllable (consequently before afformatives which consist of or begin with a vowel, as well as before suffixes) it is necessarily a firm consonant, and the form then follows the
 .

## Remaris.

$\boldsymbol{S}$

1. Verbs middle e, like $\underset{\sim}{\text { PT }}$ to be full, retain the Șere also in the other
 use ; for :יְראחק ת קרא she names, on the analogy of the $n$ "-forms noticed in $\$ 75 \%$, occurs in Is $7^{14}$ (from in Dt $3{ }^{39}$, Jer $44^{23}$, in both places before N , and hence, probably, to avoid a hiatus (on the other hand, إחָטָא Ex $5^{16}$, could only be the 2nd sing. masc.; the text which is evidently corrupt should probably be emended to

 to early MSS.
2. The infin. Qal occurs sometimes on the analogy of verbs ל"מוּ see $\S 75 n n$ ) in the feminine form ; so always מלֹא to foll (as distinguished

 $\operatorname{Pr}{ }^{13}$; before suffixes, Ez $33^{12}$, and likewise in Niph. Zc i $3^{4}$; also in Pièl



 (נַפְּשִׁ) is to be explained on rhythmical grounds; cf. the analogous cases in § $7^{2}$ s. -The and fem. plur. imperative in Ru $1^{9}$ has, according to Qimbl, the
 and Ginsburg, on good authority, read





 graphically ( $\$ 23$ c) after the retraction of its vowel; see the analogous cases in $\$ 7500 .-$ On the plur. masc. ptcp. Niph. ef. $\$ 9300$.
$k$ 4. Frequently an $\mathbb{K}$ which is quiescent is omitted in writing ( $\$ 23 f)$ : (a) in the middle of the word, e.g. מָּנָ
 same form occurs with Yodh pleonastic after the manner of verbs $\mathrm{n}^{\prime \prime}$ in $E z{ }_{2} 3^{49}$, according to the common reading; cf. $\S 76 \mathrm{~b}$ and Jer $5^{20}$ ) ; in Piél אncel (after elision of the א, cf. $\S 7500$ ) Gn $31^{99}$; and also in Niph'al -

 יָאִ
 perhaps only a scribal error).
3. In the jussive, imperfect consecutive, and imperative Hiphit a number of cases $l$ occur with $i$ in the final syllable; cf. N - Is $36^{14}$ (in the parallel passages
 $1 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{162}, 21^{22}$ ); הָדִיא Jer Is $43^{18}$; (in both cases before ע). If the tradition be correct (which at least in the defectively written forms appears very doubtful) the retention of the $\hat{\imath}$ is to be attributed to the open syllable; while in the closed syllable of the 3rd sing. masc. and fem., and the 2nd sing. masc. after 1 consecutive, the $\hat{\imath}$ is always reduced to $\bar{e}$. In the examples befor $\sum$ considerations of euphony may also have had some influence (cf. $\S 75 \mathrm{hh}$ ). -In
 in the $K^{e}$ thîbh ויבוא, and in the $Q^{e} r e ̂$ יָיבָ


## §75. Verbs ל", e.g.

Brockelmann, Semit. Sprachwiss., p. 149 ff. ; Grundriss, p. 618 ff.-G. R. Berry, 'Original Waw in ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime}$ ל verbs' in AJSL. xx. 256 f.

These verbs, like the verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime} 9$ ( $\$ \S 69,70$ ), belong to two different $a$ classes, viz. those originally ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ל and those originally " $3,{ }^{1}$ which in Arabic, and even more in Ethiopic, are still clearly distinguished. In Hebrew, instead of the original 1 or, at the end of the word, a i always appears (except in the ptcp. pass. Qal) as a purely orthographic indication of a final vowel ( $\$ 23 k$ ); hence both classes are
 By far the greater number of these verbs are, however, treated as originally 4 ; ל only isolated forms occur of verbs ו"
השְׂT to be at rest may be recognized as originally 1 "ל, in the forms in which $b$


 aflicted, are to be seen two verbs originally distinct, which have been assimilated in Hebrew (see the Lexicon, s. v. עינָה).

[^104]Of quite a different class are those verbs of which the third radical is a consonantal $\boldsymbol{i}$ (distinguished by Mappiq). These are inflected throughout like verbs tertiae gutturalis. Cf. $\S \sigma_{j}$ note on the heading.
c The grammatical structure of verbs $\boldsymbol{T}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ (see Paradigm $P$ ) is based on the following laws:-

1. In all forms in which the original $Y \hat{o} d h$ or $W \bar{a} w$ would stand at the end of the word, it is dropped (cf. $\S 24 g$ ) and $i$ takes its place as an orthographic indication of the preceding long vowel. Such an indication would have been indispensable, on practical grounds, in the still unvocalized consonantal text. But even after the addition of the vowel signs, the orthographic rule remained, with insignificant
 indicated by a vowel letter. In verbs $\pi^{\prime \prime} \zeta$ the $n$ which is here employed as a vowel letter is preceded by the same vowel in the same part of the verb throughout all the conjugations. Thus the endings are-

$\pi_{\mp}$ in all imperfects and participles,, ,
$\pi_{\ldots}$ in all imperatives,
 and generally also $P i \bar{e} l$, see $a a$ and $f f$.

The participle passive Qal alone forms an exception, the original - (or 1 , see $v$ ) reappearing at the end, ${ }^{4}$; and so also some derived nouns ( $§ 84^{a}, c, \epsilon, \& c$.).

The infinitive construct always has the ending $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i}$ (with $\Omega$ feminine);

d These forms may be explained as follows:-in the perfect Qal atands,

 § $54 k$ ), and Hiph'il on the form הקטֵל, on the analogy of the $\begin{gathered}\text { a } \\ \text { in the second }\end{gathered}$ syllable of the Arabic'áqtălă ( $\$ 53$ a). Perhaps, however, the final $\vec{a}$ of these conjugations simply follows the analogy of the other conjugations.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ The explanation of the final tone-bearing $\boldsymbol{H}_{\text {_ }}$ of the imperfect is still a matter of dispute. As to the various treatments of it, see Barth, Nominalbildung, i. p. xxx ff, with § 136, Rem., and ZDMG. xliv. 695 f., against Philippi's objections in the Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie, 1890, p. $35^{6}$ f. ; also ZDMG. lvi. 244, where Barth appeals to the rule that, in the period before the differentiation of the North Semitic dialects, final iy becomes _-. (constr. $i_{\ldots}$ ), not i ; M. Lambert, Journ. Asiat. 1893, p. 285 ; Prätorius, ZDMG. 1v. 365. The most probable explanation now seems to be, first, that the uniform pronunciation of all imperfects and participles with $S^{e}$ ghol in the lastsyllable merely follows the analogy of the impf. Qal, and secondly, that the Seghol of the impf. Qal does perhaps ultimately represent a contraction of the original termination "__ (=ai), although elsewhere (e.g. in the imperative of $\boldsymbol{n}^{\prime \prime}$ ) ai is usually contracted to ê.

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$k$ 5. Finally, a strongly-marked peculiarity of verbs 7 " rejection of the ending $\Pi_{\bar{F}}$ in forming the jussive and the imperfect consecutive. This shortening c curs in all the conjugations, and sometimes also involves further changes in the vocalization (see o, $y$, $b b, g g$ ). Similarly, in some conjugations a shortened imperative (cf. $\S 48 k$ ) is formed by apocope of the final $\mathrm{H}_{\text {-. (see } c c, g g \text { ). }}$
$l$ 6. The ordinary form of the imperfect with the ending $i_{-}$serves in verbs $\mathrm{n}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ to express the cohortative also ( $\$ 48 \mathrm{c}$ ); cf. $\mathrm{Gn} \mathrm{I}^{26}, 2^{18}$,




## Remaris.

## I. On Qal.

$m$ 1. The older form of the fem. of the 3 rd sing. perf. 1 , under $i$ (cf. $\S 74 \mathrm{~g}$ ), is preserved in $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ עָ likewise in Hiphîl (before !
 most other verbs ; וֹת


 (according to Delitzsch for the sake of the assonance with (נָ ${ }^{\top}$ ); and in

$n$ 2. The infin. absol. frequently has $i$ (probably a survival of the older ortho-



 substantive, oaths) and עָּ
 Gn $4^{8^{11} ;}$; Pְ Pr $166^{16}$;

 strange, but החיה as infin. Ez $21^{15}$ is quite inexplicable.-The forms idi and in Is $59^{13}$ are perhaps to be regarded with Barth, Nominalbildung, §5I $a$, as infinitives absolute of the passive of $Q a l$ (see above, $\S 53 u$ ), not of $P o^{\prime} \bar{e} l$. -The 2nd sing. masc. imperative $\underset{\because}{\boldsymbol{Y}} \boldsymbol{1}$, occurs in the principal pause in $\operatorname{Pr} 4^{4}$ and $7^{2}$; but

[^105]probably these forms are simply to be attributed to a Masoretic school, which in general marked the difference between certain forms by the use of $\bar{e}$ for $\bar{e}$, and conversely $\bar{e}$ for $\bar{e}$; cf. the analogous examples in $\S 52 n$, and especially § 75 hh , also Kautzsch, Grammatik des Bibl.-Aram., § 17 , 2, Rem. 1.-On the
 $\S 74 h$ ), see Baer's note on the passage.
3. The shortening of the imperfect (see above, $k$, and the note on $h h$ ) occasions 0 in Qal the following changes:
(a) As a rule the first radical takes a helping $S^{e} g h o l l$, or, if the second radical is a guttural, a helping Pathah (according to § $28 e$ ). Thus íd for and he despised, Gn $25^{94}$; Gn $7^{29}$.
(b) The $\check{\imath}$ of the preformative is then sometimes lengthened to $\bar{e}$, e.g. he sees. This, however, mostly happens only after the preformative $\Omega$, whilst
 (but וֹיָּרֵ) ; with middle guttural position of the tone in $\mathrm{Nc} 9^{\mathrm{B}}$, וְרֵא Mi $7^{10}$ (so Baer and Ginsb. ; ed. Mant.


(c) The helping vowel is elsewhere not used under the circumstances men- $q$ tioned in § $28 d$; with $\mathfrak{i}$ lengthened into $\bar{e}$ (see $p$ ) occurs parallel with !le lin and he saw (but 3rd fem. always the latter with the original Pathah on account of the following 7 , and identical with the 3 rd sing. masc. of the imperf. consec. Hip $h^{\wedge} l$ l, $2 \mathrm{~K} 1^{4}$.
(d) Examples of verbs primae gutturalis (§63), and at the same time $\boldsymbol{N}^{\prime \prime \prime}$, $r$ are (always identical with the corresponding forms in Hiph'il), $\gamma \underline{\mu}{ }^{〔}$ ! and he divided, from חצה. On some similar forms of חע $^{1}$ see $\S 76 d$. -In the following cases the initial (hard) guttural does not affect the form : and he was wroth, M



 with the original $\breve{a}$ modified to $S^{e}$ ghôl with the tone (cf. also nouns like
 however, in Dt $3^{218}$, since no verb שָָׁׂ exists, we must read either שing, or

 Ec $1 I^{3}$, but no doubt $\mathcal{N}$ is the right reading.
The full forms (without apocope of the $\Pi_{\ldots}$, cf. $\$ 49 \mathrm{c}$ ) not infrequently $t$ occur after wā $w$ consecutive, especially in the ist pers. and in the later books, e.g. Pentateuch (

3rd pers.
 Gn 24 $4^{48}$. So also occasionally for the jussive, cf. Gn $1^{9}, 41^{14}$, Jer $28^{6}$.-For the well attested, but meaningless ${ }^{\mathrm{Jn}} \mathrm{Jn}^{21}$ (doubtless caused by the following

$u$ 4. The original' sometimes appears even before afformatives beginning with a vowel (cf. above, $h$ and $l$ ), especially in and before the pause, and before the full plural ending $\ddagger$ _ , or where for any reason an emphasis rests on the

 cf. $\psi 77^{4}$; יִרְ
 as perf. Qal from these full forms, though they may stand out of pause, do not begin sentences;高 probably points to from requires an intransitive verb. Cf. further, $v, x, d d, g g$.
$v$ 5. The parliciple active (cf. Vollers, 'Das Qâtil-Partizipium,' ZA. 1903, p. 312 ff ., and on the participles of $\mathrm{n}^{\prime \prime}$ ל, ibid., p. 316 ff .), besides feminine forms like עأלָה Ju $20^{81}$, \& c., רֹאָ Pr 2012, has also a feminine which retains the
 $\operatorname{Pr}{ }^{121}$ ) ; צוִִֹּ


 -In the participle passive the 3 rd radical still sometimes appears as $1(\$ 24 b)$,

 2 K 23"; עשוחת (read "asûwôth) i S $25^{18} K^{e} t h i b h$,

6. The defective writing is rare in such forms as תָּ cf. 1 K $9^{3}$; וַתִרְלִּ
 of the 3rd sing. fem.). Both cases are probably to be explained according to $\S 20 i$.

## II. On Niph'al.

7. Here the forms with '__ in the rist and 2nd pers. sing. of the perfect

 , retained in pause 77 In, probably arising from the ordinary strong form nihru, but the harshness of $\Pi$ immediately followed by 7 is avoided by pronouncing the $\Pi$ with Hateph-
 be transposed for euphonic reasons; but probably we should simply read


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 as a supposed imperative, see above, $u$.
12. Examples of apocopated imperatives in Pi'el and Hithpa'ēl are: $1 \underline{Y}$, also ַַפֵּה for for
 cf. $\S 4^{8} \mathrm{l}$. - $\operatorname{In} \psi \mathrm{I} 37^{7}$ 郎rase it , is found twice instead of rhythmical reasons (cf., however,
13. Examples of forms in which the Yôdh is retained are the imperfects
 Pual

## IV. On Hiph'il and Hophial.

ee 14. The 3 rd sing.perfcct Hiph'il sometimes has $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$ in the first syllable instead


 $\S 53 p$. The forms with $\hat{e}$ in the second syllable (also written defectively, as וְהִֵּּ T Jer $21^{6}$ ) are found throughout in the Ist sing. (except $\operatorname{Pr} 5^{13}$ ), rarely in the ind sing. masc., and never in the ist plur. In the other persons they are about equally common with $\hat{\imath}$, except in the and plur., where $\hat{\imath}$ predominates. Before suffixes the forms with i predominate throughout; cf., however, ê in Ex $4^{12}, \mathrm{Mi} 6^{9}, \operatorname{Pr} 4^{11}$. On the tone of the perf. consec. Hiph. of ${ }^{1 \prime \prime}$, see $\S 49 k$. In Hoph'al only "_ occurs in the 2nd syllable.
 we find the absolute הַרְּבָּ had come to be used invariably (but König calls attention to its use as infinitive construct in $\mathrm{Ez} 212^{20}$ ) as an adverb, in the sense of much; in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{14}{ }^{11}$ the Qerê requires הַרַבַּ Cf. Gn $41^{49}, 22^{17}$, Dt $28^{63}$; the pointing הַרבּה Jer $4^{2}$ probably arises from regarding this form as a noun.-On הַמְּרוֹת Jb $17^{2}$ (with Dageš f. dirimens) see § 20 h .-In $2 \mathrm{~K} 3^{24}$ הַכּ (before $\mathbb{N}$ ) is probably infinitive absolute, used in order to avoid the hiatus, cf. §ir $3 x$, and on a similar case in Qal, see above, $n$. On the infinitives with elision of the $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, cf. $\S 53 q$.
gg 16. The shortened imperfect Hiph'il either takes no helping vowel, as $\underset{\sim}{\text { Pap }}$ let him enlarge, Gn $9^{27}$; יַר he shall subdue, Is $41^{2}$; ; 인군 and he showed, 2 K $11^{4}$ (see § $28 d$ ): or else has a helping vowel, as (for

 the similar forms in Qal only by the sense.-The apocopated imperative Hiph'il always (except in verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$, e.g. הַ, הַ, § 76 c) has a helping vowel, Seghôl



 Baethgen שְׁעִה look away.-The imperfect Hiph'il with Yôdh retained occurs only


## V. In General.

17. In Aramaic the imperfect and participle of all the conjugations terminate $7 / L$
 frequently $\mathbb{N}_{-}$or ${ }^{\prime}$, , may be due to imitation of these forms. On the infinitive construct Pi'el $\bar{l}$ חַַּ, see above, a ; imperative Qal Nb $37^{6}$ (in the sense


 Baer and Ginsburg, after cod. Hillel, \&c.) I will te, Jer $3^{1{ }^{1}}$; תִרֵָּ Dn $1^{13}$. Cf. also in Niph'al

 Baer pause and represent at the same time a jussive or voluntative ( $\mathrm{Jos}^{7} 7^{9}$ ), suggests the view that the Şere is used merely to increase the emphasis of the pausal form, and at the same time to make a distinction in sound between the jussive or voluntative and the ordinary imperfect. ${ }^{1}$ Elsewhere (Gn 2629, Lv $5^{9}$, Jer $40^{16}$, $\mathrm{Dn}_{1}{ }^{13}$; according to Baer also $\mathrm{Mi} 7^{10}, \mathrm{Zc} 9^{5}$ ) the pronunciation with $\hat{e}$ is probably intended to soften the hiatus caused by a following $\mathcal{N}$ or $y$; cf. the analogous cases above, § 74 l .

The ending .-. appears to stand for $\boldsymbol{H}_{\ldots}$ in the imperfect Qal in in in in in in and there hath she played the harlot, Jer $3^{6}$; perhaps, however, the 2nd sing. fem. is intended, or it may have been introduced into the text of Jeremiah from



 (הִמִין ( Baer made to melt, Jos $14^{8}$, is a purely Aramaic form.
i文. In two verbs the rare conjugation Pa'lēl or its reflexive ( $\$ 55 \mathrm{~d}$ ) occurs: $\mathrm{k} k$
隹
 masc.

 a scribal error for
19. Before suffixes in all forms ending in $\pi$, a connecting vowel is employed $l l$ instead of the $\boldsymbol{N}$ and the connecting vowel which precedes it ( $\$ 58 f$ ), e.g. 'נָּ
 § $59 h$; עֲ עֲ עֲ like.


Only very seldom does the imperat. or impf. end in "__ before suffixes, e.g. mm

[^106]Dt $3^{26}$; Is $38^{i 6}$. Even in these examples a return to the original ending ay might be assumed; but perhaps they are merely due to a less carrect plene writing. In the 3rd sing. perf. fem. the older form $\prod_{\underline{T}}$ (see $i$ ) is always used before a suffix, e. g.

## VI. The Relation between Verbs $\pi^{\prime \prime \prime}$ and $\times \prime$ "

$n n$ 20. The close relation existing between verbs ל Hebrew by the fact that the verbs of one class often borrow forms from the other, especially in the later writers and the poets.
00 21. Thus there are forms of verbs $\aleph^{\prime \prime \prime}$
 refrained, $\psi{ }^{11} 9^{101}$; participle
 I K $9^{11}$, Am $4^{2}$ (where, however, the perfect Niph. is perhaps intended), $\psi 89^{11}$, 143 ${ }^{9}$; רִפְ I heal, 2 K $2^{21}$; cf. Jer $5^{19}$; imperfect



 from $\aleph$

pp (b) Forms in ה, but keeping their N"ל vowels, e. g. imperfect Qal אֶרָּ
 evidently be a perfect; read with Ewald the infinitive absolute y as in
 he will fill, $\mathrm{Jb} 8^{21}$. (c) Forms entirely of a ל ל ל ל


 back, Gn $23^{6}$; תּרֶּ plur. צֹצֶּיָ Is $29^{7}$; participle passive


 $2 \mathrm{~K} 19^{25}$, Jablonski and others require as $Q^{e} r e$ the form לְ the $K^{e} t h i \hat{b} h$ would have to be read of the vowel.

## $r r$

22. On the other hand, there are forms of verbs $\left.\boldsymbol{N}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$, which wholly or in part follow the analogy of verbs $\aleph^{\prime \prime \prime}$, e. g. in their consonants Is $21^{12}$; בָּרָא 2 S $12^{17}$ (textus receptus



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quiescent, is made audible again by the helping $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$ (unless perhaps there is a confusion with the imperfect consecutive Hiph'il of (יאל).



 imperfect יִירָא participle | Ni, |
| :---: |
| 1. |




 perhaps, however, it should be read with the LXX ! ְִٕיָָם and their race (also in the very corrupt passage $\psi 74^{8}$ ִִיָָ is probably a substantive, and not the
 (as infinitive absolute $2 \mathrm{Ch} \boldsymbol{\gamma}^{3}$ ); imperfect

$\boldsymbol{g}$ ( $f$ ) Verbs עnd בּבּא Jer $27^{18}$, which is apparently the perfect, read $\mathfrak{F}$.ב.



 impossible forms Dt $33^{16}$ and Jb $22^{21}$ cf. $\S 4^{8}$ d. -In the perfect Hiphil $\begin{aligned} & \text { ה.. } \\ & \ldots\end{aligned}$, חָ tended in $\mathrm{Nu}_{1} 4^{31}$, where the Masora requires Jer $\mathbf{2 5}^{13}, \mathrm{Ct} 3^{4}$. Before suffixes the $\bar{e}$ of the first syllable in the 3 rd sing. always



 from קיא ; but prop spue yc, Jer $25^{27}$ (perhaps only a mistake for

 see § $74 k$.
$i$ (g) The form ${ }_{-}^{M}$ to live, in the perfect $Q a l$, besides the ordinary development to ${ }_{\text {חָָּ }}^{1}$ (fem. the 3 rd pers. perfect, in pause $\prod_{\Gamma}$, and with $w \bar{a} w$ consecutive ${\underset{-1}{\top}}^{1}$ Gn $3^{22}$, and fre-

 Ex $1^{16}$ in pause for the pausal lengthening of $\breve{a}$ to $\bar{a}$.

## §77. Relation of the Weak Verbs to one another.

The close relation which exists between some classes of the weak $a$
 appears not only in their similarity or identity of inflexion, or their mutual interchange of certain forms, but especially from the fact that frequently the same root (radix bilittera, see $\S 30 g$ ) recars in various weak stems of similar meaning. The meaning accordingly is inherent in the two constant root-consonants, while the third consonant, which is weak (and the particular class of weak verbs with it), does not establish any difference in the meaning. Thus from the root 7 there occur with the same meaning from the root נר there are נָ to flee.
In this manner the following classes are related in form and $b$ meaning:
I. Verbs $\begin{aligned} & 1 " y \text { and } y \text { in which the first and third consonants are the same } \\ & y\end{aligned}$ in both, as being essential to the meaning ; e.g. מוּך and to become poor ;

 snares. Moreover, stems belonging to the classes mentioned in I (especially
 בוֹ Verbs ${ }^{1 / 2}$ are less frequently connected with these classes, e.g. אָרץ and שiּ
3. Verbs $x^{\prime \prime}$ ל and (in which the first two consonants form the real $d$ body of the stem) are sometimes related to each other, and sometimes to the above classes. To each other, in and דָּנָ (cf. $\S 75 n n$ ); to verbs of the other classes, in to thrust, \&c.
4. Verbs ע"ע and , on which ef. Grimm, Journal of Bibl. Lit., 1903, p. 196; $e$
 and bend down,

 shine; cf. also לְ לָהִטים secret arts, Ex $7^{11}$ with לָט

## § 78. Verba Defectiva.

It often happens, when two kindred weak verbs are in use with $a$ the same meaning, that both are defective, i. e. do not occur in all the forms. Since, however, those tenses and forms which are not in use in the one verb are generally supplied by the other, they mutually complete one another, and thus form together, as it were, an entire
 tuli, latum, ferre, \&c., but with this difference, that in Hebrew the roots of these verbs are almost always closely related.
$b$ The most common verbs of this kind are-



 (but cf.

יָ (from $\gamma^{1} \mathrm{p}$ ).
(



Iַ (possibly) Niph'al פצִב

שֶׁשָׁ which is not used in Hebrew.

c Rem. I. To the same category belong also, to a certain extent, those cases where the tenses or moods not in use in one conjugation, are supplied by forms having the same meaning in other conjugations of the same verb. Thus:

ๆD్ to add. The infinitive (but cf. § $69 h$, note) and imperfect, unused in Qal,
 § 109 d , cf. also § $\mathrm{r} 0 \mathrm{~g} i$ ).

To to stumble. Perfect from Qal, imperfect from Niph'al.
$\mathcal{V}^{\mathcal{E}} \mathrm{j}^{\top}$ to approach, unused in perf. Qal, instead of which Niph'al is used;

 infinitive always in Hiph'îl.
 Qal and imperfect Niph'al are not in use.
2. The early grammarians often speak of mixed forms (formae mixtae), i. e. forms which unite the supposed character and meaning of two different tenses, genders, or conjugations. Most of the examples adduced are at once set aside by accurate grammatical analysis; some others appear to have arisen from misapprehension and inaccuracy, especially from erroneous views of unusual plene forms. Others, again, are either merely wrong readings or represent an intentional conflation of two different readings.

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state, § 89), and the representation of case-relations belongs therefore almost exclusively to the syntax ( $\$ \mathrm{Ir} 7 \mathrm{ff}$.). The comparative and superlative of adjectives also can be expressed only by a syntactical combination (§ 133). On the other hand, several changes in the forms of nouns are occasioned by the additions of the plural, dual, and feminine terminations, as well as of the pronominal suffixes, and also by the close connexion of two nouns, by means of the construct state. ${ }^{1}$

## § 80. The Indication of Gender in Nouns.

Brockelmann; Grundriss, p. 404 ff.; 'Ueber die Femininendung at, ah, $\bar{a}$ ' in Semit. Sprachwiss., p. 106 f.; Grundriss, pp. 105, 405 ff.; 'Die Femininendung $T$ im Semit.' (Sitzung d. orient.-sprachwiss. Sektion d. schlesischen Gesellschaft, Feb. 26, 1903) ; against him J. Barth, ZDMG. 1903, p. 628 ff.; Brockelmann's reply, ibid., p. 795 ff. ; and Barth again, ibid., p. 798 ff.

1. The Hebrew, like all Semitic languages, recognizes only two genders in the noun, a masculine and a feminine. Inanimate objects and abstract ideas, which other languages sometimes indicate by the neuter, are regarded in Hebrew either as mascoline or feminine, more often the latter (see the Syntax, § $122 q$ ).
2. The masculine, as being the more common and important gender, has no special indication.

Feminine nouns are also without an indication of gender when the meaning of the word naturally denotes a feminine, as wnother, a she-ass, 芹 a she-goat, the feminine had originally the ending $n_{-}$, as in the 3 rd sing. perfect of verbs ( $\$ 44 a$ ). This $n$._, however, is regularly retained in Hebrew only in close connexion with a following genitive or suffix (cf. § $89 e$ and $\S 910$ ), except where the form has arisen through the addition of a simple $\Pi^{2}$ (see below, $d$ ). Otherwise, the feminine ending of the independent form (the absolute state, § $89 a$ ) is-
c (a) Most commonly a tone-bearing $n_{T_{T}}$, e.g. DiA equus, equa.
 cf. § 86 h . As in the 3 rd sing. fem. perfect ( to have arisen by the rejection of the final $\pi$, and the lengthening of the $\breve{a}$ in the open syllable, whereupon the $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ was added as an orthographic indication of the final long vowel: cf. the exactly similar origin of such forms as

[^107]noticed that in Arabic (see $m$ and note) the pausal form of at is $a l$, of which a trace may be preserved in the Hebrew $\Pi_{T_{\top}}$.
 Jewess. The same ending $n$ is very frequently added to stems ending in a consonant; but only (except before suffixes) by means of a helping vowel, which, as a rule, is $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$, but after gutturals Pathah, e. g. לט̣̂,
 given in § 69 c , cf. also $\S 84^{a} s$; מוֹרַעַת. The forms which arise in this way follow in every respect the analogy of the segholate forms ( $\S 94 f$ ). The forms which have been developed by means of a helping vowel are retained even in the connective form


 fem. Piél with suffix) arises from the form מְבְעַ into מבּעֶעֶת.

Rem. 1. The fem. form in $\Pi_{\sim}$ is in general less frequent, and occurs $e$ almost exclusively when the form in $\boldsymbol{H}_{\tau}$ is also in use. It is only in the participles and infinitives that it is the commoner, e.g.


 wrong; more frequently in proper names, especially of places among the Canaanites or Phoenicians (in whose language $\Pi_{\text {_ }}$ was the usual fem. ending,
 Kiriath, cf. g. Cf., moreover, (נגִינת $)$;
 the Aramaic (Syriac rabbath) in which the original $t$ of the fem. is often retained to form adverbs, see Wright, Comparative Grammar, p. 135.]
(b) $\Omega_{T_{T}}$, which likewise occurs in some names of places, e.g.

 viz. וְמְָׂ Ex 15 ${ }^{2}$, Is $12^{2}, \psi 118^{14}$ (really for however, can scarcely have 'taken place in the Aramaic manner', as suggested by Duhm on Is $12^{2}$, nor is it due merely to the following Yôdh, but is intended

 probably also עֶוְרָה help, $\psi 60^{13}, 108^{13}$ for

[^108]survivals from a period when even final vowels were not supported by a vowel-letter. Cf. also
 (unless the $\cap$ is radical) in prose $\bigcap_{\substack{ \\ }}$ pelican (which reading is also preferable, in Is $34^{11}$, to the form Nקָ


$h$ (c) ${\underset{\sim}{T}}^{\sim}$, the Aramaic orthography for $\underset{T}{\underset{T}{T}}$, chiefly in the later writers;
 Ez $19^{2}$ (unless (participle Qal from שָּu) Jer $50^{11}$; מָרָ bitter, Ru $1^{20}$. On the other hand, according to the western Masora, קרָדָ baldness is to be read in Ez 27 ${ }^{\mathbf{3 1}}$; see Baer on the passage.
 (unless it is again a forma mixta combining the active ptcp. masc. הַּוֹרֶה and the passive ptcp. fem. (הַקָּרָה ; cf. for § 48 d .
$k$ (e) $\boldsymbol{n}_{\substack{\text { _ }}}$ without the tone, e.g. an oren heated, Ho $7^{4}$; cf. Ez. $4{ }^{19}{ }^{19}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{1} 5^{29}$, 16 ${ }^{18}$. In all these examples the usual tone-bearing $i_{T_{T}}$ is perhaps intended, but the Punctuators, who considered the feminine ending inappropriate, produced a kind of locative form (see § 90 c) by the retraction of the tone. [In $2 \mathrm{~K}_{16}{ }^{18}$, Is $24^{19}$, Ez $21^{31}$ (note in each case the following $\operatorname{i}$ ), and in $\mathrm{Jb} 42^{29}, \mathrm{Ho}_{7}{ }^{4}$, the text is probably in error.]
$l(f)$.__, as an old feminine termination, preserved also in Syriac (ai; see examples in Nöldeke's Syrische Gram, §83), in Arabic and (contracted to ê) in Ethiopic, very probably occurs in the proper name שָׁר Sarai, cf. Nöldeke,
 from an original 'esray; so Wright, Comparative Grammar, p. 138; Konig, Lehrgebäude, ii. 427.
$m$ 3. It is wholly incorrect to regard the vowel-ending $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\tau^{\top}}{ }^{2}$ as the original termination of the feminine, and the consonantal ending $\Omega_{-}$as derived from it. The Ethiopic still has the $\Omega$ throughout, so too the Assyrian (at, it); in Phoenician also the feminines end for the most part in $\Pi$, which is pronounced at in the words found in Greek and Latin authors ; less frequently in $\mathcal{N}$ (see Gesenius, Monumm. Phoen., pp. 439, $44^{\circ}$; Schröder, Phön. Sprache, p. 169 ff.). The ancient Arabic has the obtuse ending (ah) almost exclusively in pause; in modern Arabic the relation between the two endings is very much as in Hebrew.
${ }^{1}$ In I S $2 c^{27}$ also, where the Masora (see Baer on Jos $5^{11}$ ) for some unknown reason requires ממחרָ , read with ed. Mant., Jablonski, Opitius, and Ginsburg, ממחרת.
${ }^{2}$ In this ending the it can only be considered consonantal in the sense that the $\Pi$ was originally aspirated, and afterwards 'the mute $\Omega$ was dropped before $h$, just as the old Persian mithra became in modern Persian mihr'; so Socin, who also points to the Arabic pausal form in ah, and observes that among some of the modern Beduin an $h$ is still heard as a fem. ending, cf. Socin, Diwan aus Centralarabien, iii. 98, ed. by H. Stumme, Lpz. 1901. In Hebrew this consonantal termination was entirely abandoned, at any rate in later times.

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## § 83. Verbal Nouns in General.

1. In Hebrew, as in Greek and Latin, the verbal nouns are connected in form and meaning primarily with certain forms of the verb, especially the participles and infinitives, which are themselves, even in their ordinary form, frequently used precisely like
 certain forms of the infinitive and participle, which are seldom or never found as such in the strong verb, though in use in the weak verb and in the kindred dialects, came to be commonly used for the verbal noun; e.g. the participial form pop , the infinitives of the

 intensive forms of the participle.
$b$ 2. As regards their meaning, it follows from the nature of the case that nouns which have the form of the infinitive regularly denote the action or state, with other closely related ideas, and are therefore mostly abstract; while the participial nouns, on the contrary, denote for the most part the subject of the action or state, and are therefore concrete. Moreover, it is to be noticed, that a particular meaning is attached to many of the special forms of derivative nouns, although it does not appear equally in them all.

C Rem. It need not appear strange, when we consider the analogy of other languages, that a noun which in form is properly abstract afterwards acquired a concrete sense, and vice versa. So in English, we say his acquaintance, for the persons with whom he is acquainted; the Godhead for God himself; in Hebrew מוֹרַע acquaintance and an acquaintance.
d The inner connexion in thought between Semitic noun-forms and the corresponding verbal forms is investigated in the works of De Lagarde and Barth (see the titles at the head of § 79) on very different lines, but with many points of agreement. De Lagarde starts from the fact that language consists of sentences. A sentence which consists of only one word is called a verb, and anything which serves as a complement to it is a noun. The oldest form of the sentence is the imperative. Closely related to it are three kinds of sentences of the nature of verbal forms, differing according as the property of the particular object of sense is to be represented as invariable (form qatula), or as liable to change (form qatila), or, finally, as a circumstance which takes place before our eyes (form qatala). Like the imperative, these three forms of sentences have also been transformed into nouns, by means of certain phonetic changes, - especially by the omission of the final vowels and the addition of different terminations to the last consonant of the stem. But just as the forms of the verbal sentence undergo numerous modifications (in the tenses, moods, and conjugations), so also do the nouns, sometimes by assimilation of the unessential to the characteristic vowel (qutul, qitil), sometimes by the lengthening of the characteristic vowel (qatûl, qatil, qatâl), or else through the displacement of the accent and the consequent reduction of the noun to a monosyllabic form (qatl, qutl, qitl), or, finally, by their being formed from the derived stems (or conjugations), e.g. qattal, qattal; qu:it, qittal, \&c. Further modifications arise from the use of the various imperfect
and infinitive forms, and also from the employment of the profix $m$. Lastly, denominalia are formed from deverbalia by appending certain suffixes.

De Lagarde does not, however, claim to be able to show in the case of each particular noun the sense it conveyed in primitive times; the origin of a number of nouns can now no longer be detected. In those, however, which are clearly derived from verbs, the original meaning is chiefly determined by the characteristic vowel.

Barth's system is based on the thesis that 'all Semitic nouns, adjectives, and participles are derived from either the perfect or the imperfect stem'. Thus, e.g. לivp is the infinitive of the perfect stem, קטְ the infinitive of the imperfect stem, second vowel is always alone characteristic and essential, the first vowel unessential, and therefore variable. Further modifications of the simple form are effected by strengthening (sharpening) the second or third consonant, by lengthening the characteristic vowel (instead of which, however, the feminine termination may also be used), or by 'metaplasm', i. e. by the use of noun-forms derived from one of the two intransitive stems for the other, e. g. qutl for qitl, and vice versa.

In nouns of the perfect stem, the vowels $i$ and $u$ indicate intransitive formations, the vowel $a$ a transitive sense. In nouns of the imperfect stem on the contrary, $u$ and $i$, being characteristic vowels, indicate a transitive and $a$ an intransitive sense : for yaqtŭlŭ is imperfect of the transitive perfect qatala, and yaqtălŭ imperfect of the intransitive perfects qatila and qatula, \&c. This explains how nouns, apparently identical in form, may yet in sense belong to different classes: a qutl-form from a $u$-imperfect has a transitive meaning, but the same form from a $u$-perfect has an intransitive meaning. This double system of perfect and imperfect forms runs through the whole scheme of noun-formation, not only the forms connected with the conjugations, but also the forms with prefixes and suffixes.

Against the whole theory it has been urged that it postulates for the development of the language a much too abstract mechanism, and further, that the meanings of words as we find them may in many cases be due to a modification of the original sense. But though many of the details (e.g. the alleged unessential character of the vowel of the first syllable) remain doubtful, yet the agreement between the characteristic vowel of certain noun formations and that of the perfect or imperfect stem, is supported by such a number of incontestable instances, that there can be no doubt as to a systematic, intimate connexion between the two. At the same time it must be admitted that De Lagarde has put forward many important and suggestive points, and both scholars agree in laying stress on one characteristic vowel as indicative of the meaning.

## § 84 ${ }^{a}$. Nouns derived from the Simple Stem.

Preliminary remark.-From the statement made above, $\S 83 d$, it follows that $a$ an external similarity between forms is no proof of their similar origin, and, vice versa, external difference does not exclude the possibility of their being closely related both in origin and meaning.

## I. Nouns with One Vowel, originally Short.

R. Růzička, 'Beiträge zur Erklärung der nomina segolata,' in Sitz.-ber. cl. böhmischen Ges. d. Wiss., Prag, 1904.

1. Nouns with one of the three short vowels after the first radical : present ground-form quatl, qitll, qưtl.
The supposition of monosyllabic ground-forms appeared to be required by the character of forms now existing in Hebrew, as well as in Arabic, \&c. But there are strong reasons for believing that at least a large proportion of these forms go back to original dissyllabic bases with a short vowel in each syllable. When formative additions were made, the vowel of the 2nd syllable
was dropped, i.e. before case-endings in Assyrian and early Arabic, and before pronominal suffixes in Hebrew. From the forms thus produced, the bases qatl, qitl, qutl have been assumed, although they never appear in Hebrew except in the singular and then in connexion with suffixes.

In support of this view of a large number of original dissyllabic bases, we must not, however, appeal to the Seghôl or Pathah under the 2nd consonant
 survivals or modifications of an original full vowel in the and syllable, but are mere helping-vowels ( $\S 28 e$ ) to make the monosyllabic forms pronounceable, ${ }^{1}$ and consequently disappear when no longer needed. Under certain
 such original toneless full vowels in the 2nd syllable of existing Segholates are-
I. Forms like Arab. málik, for which rarely malk, corresponding to the Hebrew ground-form ; cf. De Lagarde, Uebersicht, p. 72 ff.
2. In Hebrew 7 , which latter can only come from ground-forms gădĭr, yărik, kăbǔd, kčtť̀p.
3. The forms treated under $e$, which are in many ways related to the Segholates proper, in so far as they are to be referred to original dissyllabic bases.
4. The plurals of Hebrew Segholates, since, with very rare exceptions, they take Qames under the 2nd radical before the termination $\square_{-}$, , fem. תí-,
 $\S 26 e$ ) can only be due to a lengthening of an original short vowel in the and syllable, and hence it would seem as though the vowel were always $\breve{a}$. This is impossible from what has been said, especially under I and 2. Hence the explanation of the consistent occurrence of Qames in the plurals of all Segholates can only be that the regularly formed plurals (i.e. from singulars with original $\breve{a}$ in the 2nd syllable) became the models for all the others, and ultimately even for some really monosyllabic forms.?
(a) From the strong stem the above three ground-forms are further developed to Paradigm I, $a-c) ;$; without a helping vowel ( $\S 28 d$ ) peruth. If the second

[^109]
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e 2. Nouns with one of the three short vowels under the second radical (present ground-form $\left.q^{e} \not ̣ a ̆ l, q^{e} \nmid \tilde{u} l, q^{e} t ̣ u ̆ l\right)$, e. g. and so always with middle $\mathbb{K}$, בְּ ב a well, these forms, like the segholates mentioned in No. I (see above, a), are, probably, for the most part to be referred to original dissylabic forms, but the tone has been shifted from its original place (the penultima) on to the ultima.
 the Hebrew principal form ; bi'ir (according to Philippi with assimilation of the vowel of the second syllable to that of the first) as ground-form of 3 is attested by the Arabic bi'r; for inferred, just as a ground-form qưtưl underlies the infinitives of the form bip. ${ }^{1}$

## II. Nouns with an original Short Vowel in both Syllables.

3. The ground-form qăṭăl, fem. qăṭălăt, developed in Hebrew to pup (§93, Paradigm II, $a, b$ ) and
 stantives, as a satiety; in the fem. frequently abstract, as ${ }^{2}$ righteousness; with an initial

 rejected, and the $\check{a}$ of the second syllable lengthened to $\grave{e}$. Thus $\begin{gathered}\text { שָׁר } \\ \text { field, after }\end{gathered}$ rejection of the' and addition of $ה$ as a vowel-letter, becomes (cf. § 93 ,
 לו the strong form aflicted occurs.
 $c^{-e}$ ) and $\bar{T}$ P, is frequently used as participle of verbs middle $e(\$ 50 b$ ), and hence mostly with an intransitive meaning ; cf. ip ị old, an old man ; ָָּ
 (the branches of it, Jer $1 I^{16}$, \&






住. These forms are not to be confounded with those in No. III, from

[^110]






III. Nouns with an original Short Vowel in the First and a Long Vowel in the Second Syllable.
7. The ground-form qătâl in Hebrew always develops to the form bivp, the $k$ $\hat{a}$ becoming an obscure $\hat{o}$. The fact that this form is also written bip must not lead to the confusion of these forms with those mentioned in No. 5 , from the ground-form qŭtŭl. ${ }^{1}$ Moreover the qatọl-class includes forms of various origin, and therefore of various meaning, as (a) intransitive adjectives like
 לinta, \&c., before the tone it is lengthened to $\bar{a}$; (b) the infinitives absolute of the form לivp ( $\$ 45$ a) as representing the abstract idea of the verb, and abstract substantives like כָּ שָּ honour, peace (Arab. sălâm) ; (c) substantives and adjectives in an active sense, as ${ }^{\top}$ ™ assayer (of metals),
 retention of the $\bar{a}$ in the third syllable from the end is no doubt to be explained, with Brockelmann, from Aramaic influence, the punctuator having in mind the Aramaic nomen agentis qutôl.
8. The ground-form qăṭ̂l develops to pָep (cf. §93, Paradigm IV, $a$ and b). $l$ Here also forms of various origin and meaning are to be distinguished: (a) adjectives used substantivally with a passive meaning to denote duration in a state, as a pron an anointed one. These proper qưtitil-forms are parallel to the purely passive qatûl-forms (see $m$ ), but others are due to a strengthening of original qatil-forms. These are either (b) intransitive in
 active, as פָּנָּ (according to Do Lagarde, infinitives) are (d) forms like ©
 meaning, cf. $\S 84^{b} f$.
9. The ground-form qătûl develops to $\mathcal{\text { Gu}}$. As in the qatâl and qatîl-forms $m$ (see $k$ and $l$ ), so here forms of various kinds are to be distinguished : (a) qatûl-forms proper, with passive meaning, especially all the passive participles of Qal ; fem. e.g. בְּתּוֹלָ virgin (properly secluded). On the other hand, by strengthening an original qa!ŭl-form we get (b) certain stative adjectives ( $\$ 50 f$ ), as holding; (c) active substantives, as $\boldsymbol{v}^{\top} \cdot{ }^{\top} \boldsymbol{p}_{\top}$ a fowler. Further, some of the forms mentioned in $\S 84^{b} g$ belong to this class; see above, the remark on $l$.
10. The ground-form qut $\hat{a} l$ or $q \check{u}!a \hat{a}{ }^{2}$ in Hebrew changes the $\check{\imath}$ to vocal $S^{e} w a \hat{a}, n$

[^111]
 last three probably loan－words from the Aramaic）；of the other form，aibn a dream，



 ground－form qitill，cf．Arab．hinzir）．



Rem．When the forms $q^{e} t \hat{u} l$ and $q^{\rho} t \hat{l} l$ begin with $\mathbb{N}$ ，they almost invariably take in the singular a Sere under the $\mathcal{N}$ instead of the ordinary Hateph－seghôl；
 a bond， $S^{e} g h o ̂ l$ in verbal forms $\S 52 n, \S 63 p, \S 76$ ．d．

## IV．Nouns with a Long Vocal in the First Syllable and originally a Short Vowel in the Second Syllable．

$r$ 13．The ground－form qâtăl，in Hebrew，always changes the $\hat{a}$ into an obscure
 （Arab．hâtăm）a seal（according to Barth a loan－word of Egyptian origin），fem．
 ＂氏ジ；see the analogous cases in $\S 85 b$ ）．On the participles Qal of verbs （ $\$ 93$ ，Paradigm III，c），cf．$\S 75 \mathrm{e}$ ；on the feminines of the participles Qal， which are formed with the termination $\Pi$ ，see bolow，$s$ ．

Rem．Of a different kind（probably from a ground－form qautal）are such forms as $\boldsymbol{j}$（or wax，\＆c．
 （ל）Besides participles active masc．Qal this class includes also feminines of
 qâtilt．The substantives of this form，ouch as priest（Arab．kâhin），were also originally participles Qal．The fem．of the substantives has e（lengthened from i）retained before the tone，e．g．

 original $\imath$ having become $S^{e} w \hat{a}$ ；however，the form with Sere occurs also in the latter，Is $29^{6,8}, 34^{9}, \psi 68^{26}, 118^{16}$（all in principal pause；in subordinate puuse $2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{I} 3^{20}$ ， $\mathrm{Is} 33^{14}$ ；with a conjunctive accent， $\mathrm{Ct}^{\left.1{ }^{6}\right)}$ ．
 ע ע ע y pipe，commonly and to be so read，with Baer，also in $\psi$ 150＂， not עֲ

## V．Nouns with a Long Vowel in each Syllable．

$u$ 16．לivip，e．g．Tilur？smoke．The few forms of this kind are probably derived from the ground－form qîtâl（qi̛ṭâl $\}$ ），i．e．the original $\hat{a}$ has become an obscure $\hat{0}$ ．

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r); cf. drunkard. On the other hand, 7 . . born probably arises from yullôd, an old participie passive of Qal, the $\breve{u}$ being dissimilated in the sharpened syllable before $\hat{o}$ : so Barth, ibid., p. 4 I f.
f 25. The ground-form qưtṭil, קטָּיל, almost exclusively of persons, who possess



That some of these are only by-forms of the qual $\hat{l}$-class (see above, remark on a), appears from the constr. st. פֶרִיץ ravenous, Is $35^{9}$ (but always), and according to Barth (ibid., 35 a) also from the constr. st.
 be intentionally differentiated from אִַּּר, a poetic term for the bull.

In the same way אַפִּיר prisoner, סָרִים eunuch (constr. st. always plur.
 with suffix סָריָׁיָ weared, may be regarded as by-forms of the $q a ̆ t l i-c l a s s w^{+t h}$ passive meaning, see § $84^{a} l$.
 (with virtual strengthening of the $\Pi$ ), $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\mathfrak{i}} \prod_{T}$ diligent (for karrûs), probably, again, to a large extent by-forms of the qătûl-class, § $84^{a} \mathrm{~m}$. The same applies to substantives like $\operatorname{kn}$ a $a$ step (in pillar; fem.
/l 27. The ground-form quattôl ; besides the infinitives absolute Pi'ēl of the


 strong; frequently in the plural in an abstract sense, as מִלִִִים reproach, flling (the induction of a priest), נִחִמִים bereavement, aismissal, שִׁלִּחִים obsercance.

## VII. Nouns with the Third Consonant repeated.

 of the second Nûn, in order to keep the preceding vowel short) ; רַעָ green, plur.
30. The ground-form quatlul, in Hebrew bhep?; of this form are e.g. the infinitives $P i^{\prime} l \bar{e} l$ (prop. Pa'l $\left.\bar{\epsilon} l\right)$, cf. $\S 55 d$.
$1 n$ 31. The ground-form qătlŭl ; so the plur. the Nûn, as in No. 29).

33. The ground-form qưṭăl, in
 glittering tapestry, Jer $43^{10} Q^{e} r e ̂$; with attenuation of the $\check{a}$ to $i$ all that maketh black, Jb ${ }_{5}^{5}$ (but the better reading is

VIII. Nouns with the Second and Third Consonants repcated.




 be read in Jer $46^{20}$ for
 of the initial syllable is read instead of



## IX. Nouns in which the Whole (Biliteral) Stem is repeated.

Naturally this class includes only isolated forms of the stems 0

40.

 צִלְצִל probably a whirring locust.
 ל,

 gŭlgŭlt), from גל


## § 85. Nouns with Preformatives and Afformatives.

These include nouns which are directly derived from verbal forms $a$ having preformatives (Hiphîl, Hoph'al, Hithpa'ēl, Niplial, fc.), as well as those which are formed with other preformatives ( $(\sim \cdot, D, D, \eta$ ), and finally those which are formed with afformatives. The quadriliterals and quinqueliterals also are taken in connexion with these furmations, inasmuch as they arise almost always by the addition or insertion of one or two consonants to the triliteral stem.

## X. Nouns with Preformatives.

45. Nouns with $\mathcal{N}$ prefixed. Cf. the substantives with $\mathbb{N}$ prosthetic ( $\S 19 \mathrm{~m}$ ), $b$

 these examples the $\mathcal{N}$ is a 'euphonic 'prefix (Barth, ibid., § I50 b); in other
 in compar. and superl. degrees]. The fem. אֲוָֹּ fragrant part ${ }^{1}$ (of the meal-

[^112]offering) is a nomen verbale of Hiph'il, answering to the Aramaic infinitive of the causal stem (' $A p h^{\prime} \bar{e} l$ ), hence with suff.
46. Nouns with in prefixed. Besides the ordinary infinitives of Hiphil
 formed with the prefix derived from Hiph'il (cf. § $7^{2 z}$ ), viz. הַהָּרָה a swinging (from (from palace, from haikăl, unless it is borrowed from the Assyrian ; see the Lexicon.

 Of a different character are the many proper names which have simply adopted the imperfect form, as ${ }^{4}$
e 48. Nouns with $D$ prefixed. This preformative Mêm, which is no doubt
 large number of nouns, and serves to express the most varied modifications of the idea of the stem: (I) $D$ subjective, when preformative of the participles Pi'el, Hiph'il, Hithpa'ēl, and other active conjugations. (2) D oljective, when preformative of the participles $P u^{\prime} a l, H_{o p h}{ }^{\prime} a l$, and other passive conjugations, as well as of numerous nouns. (3) D instrumental, as in D local, as in מִךְָּ a drive for cattle, \&c.

As regards the formation of these nouns, it is to be remarked that the preformative $D$ was originally in most cases followed by a short $\breve{a}$. This $\check{a}$, however, in a closed syllable is frequently attenuated to $\mathfrak{\imath}$; in an open syllable before the tone it is lengthened to $\vec{a}$ (so also the $i$, attenuated from $\vec{a}$, is lengthened to $\bar{e}$ ), and in ${ }^{[ }$ able $\hat{a}$. But in an open syllable which does not stand before the tone, the a necessarily becomes Še wâ.
$\boldsymbol{g}$ The following forms are especially to be noticed : (a) ground-form măqtăl, in
 (for

 the shortening of the $\breve{a}$ under the preformative, developed to a segholate), fem. of this class is מipa place, the $\breve{a}$ lengthened to $\bar{a}$ and obscured to $\hat{o}$ (Arabic
 in
(b) G̈round-form miq!ăl (the usual form of the infin. Qal in Aramaic), Hebr.



 open syllable being lengthened to $\varepsilon$; but cf. also Is $33^{4}$ as constr. state from ${ }^{\text {j }}$ with sharpening of the first radical ; cf. $\S 67 \mathrm{~g}$ ); from verbs .מִקְנָה .

[^113]
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$r$ With a long vowel in the second syllable: (d) tiqqâl, as ain the ocean, the deep (for tihâm; in Assyrian the fem. tiâmtu, constr. st. tiâmat, is the usual word for sea), unless it is to be derived with Delitzsch, Prolegomena, p. 113, from the stem תהם; (e) tăqtill (in Arabic the usual form of the infinitive of conjugation




 Hiphíl stem), חתּשׁin a longing, \&c. ; very frequently also as an abstract plural,
 הת תַּחהּמוֹת consolation; from a verb

## XI. Nouns with Afformatives.

בַּרַוֶל iron, פַּרְ garden-land (Seghol in both cases is probably a modification of the original $a \check{a}$ in the tone-syllable), לעִ ZDMG. 1903, p. 530 ff , al is an affix of endearment in the proper names מיכַל,

$t$ 53. Nouns with $\square$ affixed. With an original ăm as afformative, אוּלָ vestibule (although the $\bar{a}$ in the sing. remains unchangeable), plur. אֲאַּ but in כִּנְּם a swarm of gnats, the $Q$ is radical. With original afformative um,

 mentioned in $\S 100 \mathrm{~g}$, and many proper names, as (patronymic גְּרְ probably $\begin{aligned} & \text { פְ } \\ & \text { is } \\ & \text { is to be read. }\end{aligned}$
u 54. Nouns with $\boldsymbol{j}$ affixed. The $\boldsymbol{j}$ is added by means of a simple helping vowel in שְּנַעַׁ made by means of a tone-bearing $\check{a}$, which in Hebrew is modified to Seghôl (as ane) or lengthened to $\bar{a}$ (but cf. also בְרִן sion, obscure $\hat{o}$ we may probably explain such forms as
 a coat of mail; from a verb שִׁרְיוֹן $D$ preformative and of afformative) ${ }^{1}$; very frequently from the simple stem with an unorganic sharpening of the second radical, e.g שִּלָּיוֹן memorial,

 un, as

 (which in 'pp is obscured to ôn). See Nচldeke, Mand. Gr., p. 169, Rem. 3 ; similarly, according to Hoffimann, 'Einige phöniz. Inschriften,' p. 15 (Abh.


Rem. A large number of proper names now ending in $\mathrm{T}_{\text {- _ or }}^{i}$ — used to $V$ be classed as nouns originally formed with the affix $\dagger i$ _. The subsequent rejection of the final Nûn seemed to be confirmed by the form מגבּוֹ, once
 Nestruction), also by the fact that for $\Sigma o \lambda \omega \mu \dot{\mu} \nu$ or $\Sigma a \lambda \omega \mu \dot{\omega} \nu$, and especially that in patronymics and tribal names ( $\$ 86 h$ ) a Nuin appears before the termination $\hat{\imath}$, as
 Commentary on Job, ist ed., p. 599), explained the Nûn in מגְּן as a secondary
 \&c.), and Barth (Nominallildung, §224b) has since shown the unsoundness of the prevailing view on other grounds: the rejection of the Nûn would be much more likely to occur in the numerous appellatives in on than in proper




## XII. Quadriliterals and Quinqueliterals.



 from insertion of a 7 , which is common in Aramaic. Cf., moreover, חרְמֶשׁ



## § 86. Denominative Nouns.

1. Such are all nouns formed immediately from another noun, a whether the latter be primitive or derived from a verb, e.g. קוְְמוֹן eastern, immediately from קֶקָּ the east (verbal stem be in front).
2. Most of the forms which nouns of this class assume have already $b$ been given in $\S \S 84$ and 85 , since the denominatives, as secondary (although in some cases very old) forms, invariably follow the analogy of the verbal derivatives. As, for instance, the verbals with a prefixed $D\left(\S_{5} e\right.$ to $m$ ) express the place, \&c., of an action, so the denominatives with $D$ local represent the place where a thing is found or its neighbourhood (see e).
The most common forms of denominatives are-
I. Those like the participle Qal ( $\$ 84^{a}$ s), e. g. שׁׂ

3. Those like the form qăt!
[^114]Both these forms ( $c$ and $d$ ) indicate customary occupations, inhering in the subject, like Greek nouns in $\tau \eta s, \tau \epsilon v^{\prime}, ~ e . ~ g . ~ \pi o \lambda i \tau \eta s, ~ \gamma \rho a \mu \mu a \tau \epsilon u ́ s$.
e 3. Nouns with $D$ prefixed, denoting the place where a thing is (cf. $\S 85 e$ ),



4. Nouns with the termination $i_{\top}$ or $\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}$ expressing adjectival ideas:


 With ä dö́uble termination (ôn or an with $\hat{\imath}$ )

$\boldsymbol{g} \quad \mathfrak{i}$ appears to be used as a diminutive ending (cf. the Syriac $\mathfrak{j}$ ) in little man (in the eye), apple of the eye, from שix ${ }^{1}$; on the other hand adder, which was formerly regarded as a diminutive, is properly an adjectival form from שְַָּׁ to rub (hence, as it were, a rubbing creature); in the same way יִשׁרוּ not a diminutive (pious little people, and the like); finally, שi not lunula, but an artificial moon (used as an ornament), and צַוְׂלִִים not little neck, but necklace (from צַּ neck). Cf. Delitzsch on $\mathrm{Ct} 4{ }^{9}$ :

## $h$

5. Peculiar to denominatives is the termination " $\qquad$ , which converts a substantive into an adjective, and is added especially to numerals and names of persons and countries, in order to form ordinals, patronymics, and tribal




 When the original substantive is a compound, it is resolved again into two words, e. g. בִּנְיָמִין Benjamite, from (cf. on the use of the article in such cases, § 127 d).
$i$ Instead of - - we find in a few cases (a) the ending '_ (as in Aram.), e. g. פִּילִ (crafty, or, according to others, churlish) if it stands for צִבִילִ and is not rather from a stem כלא or mite cloth, İs $19^{9}$ in pause; ; perhaps


${ }^{1}$ Cf. Barth, § 212 ; König, ii. 1, 413. Diminutives in Semitic languages are, however, most commonly formed by inserting a $y$ after the second radical,

 been regarded as an example of the same form, to which others have added טשׁבִיִים Is $3^{18}$ (as though a foreign dialectical form for צumais, little sun), and , W. Wright, Arab. Gramm. ${ }^{2}$ i. § 269, De Lagarde, Nominalbildung, pp. 85-87, König. ii. 1, p. 143 f. The existence of the form in Hebrew is disputed by Barth, § $19^{2}$ d.]
${ }^{1}$ On ! - as an old fem. ending, see above, § $80 l$.

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d The ending $i m$ is also common in Phoenician, e.g. צדנם Sidonii; Assyrian has âni (acc. to P. Haupt originally ami, cf. $\S 88 d$ ); Aramaic has in; Arabic una (nominative) and ina (in the oblique cases, but in vulgar Arabic in is also used for the nominative); Ethiopic ân. Cf. also the verbal ending in in the 3 rd plur. perf. ( $\$ 44 l$ ) and in the 3 rd and 2 nd plur. impf. $\left(\$ 47 \mathrm{~m}\right.$ ). ${ }^{1}$
$e \quad$ Less frequent, or only apparent terminations of the plur. masc. are-
(a) $\mu_{-}$, as in Aramaic, ${ }^{2}$ found almost exclusively in the later books of the O.T. (apart from the poetical use in some of the older and even the oldest

 מִִִין carpets, Ju $5^{10}$, in the North-Palestinian song of Deborah, which also has
 words (from the really Aram. מִלָּה), Jb $4^{2}$, and twelve other places in Job
 La $I^{4}, i^{4}$ תַּ $4^{3}$. -The following forms are doubtful:
(b) " (with the D rejected, as, according to some, in the dual ${ }^{9}$ Ez I ${ }^{18}$, cf. § 88 c), e.g. מִּ be so written) ${ }^{3}$; עַפִִּ peoples, $\psi$ 144 ${ }^{2}$, and, probably, also La $3^{14}$ (in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{22^{44}}$ it may be taken as עַשִּ my people ; cf. in the parallel passage $\psi$ I $8^{44}$ עָ ; also in Ct $8^{2}$ the $\hat{i}$ of רִפִֹׂי is better regarded as a suffix); see also $2 \mathrm{~S} 23^{8}$ as compared with I Ch II ${ }^{11}$, and on the whole question Gesenius, Lehrgebäude, p. $5^{24} \mathrm{ff}$. More doubtful still is-
$\boldsymbol{g}$ (c) -_ (like the coustr. state in Syriac), which is supposed to appear in e. g. שָׁרָ princes, Ju $5^{15}$ (perhaps my princes is intended : read either the constr.
 Jer $22^{14}$ (according to others dual, see $\S 88 c$, or a loan word, cf. ZA. iii. 93) read
 must be intended by the Masora either as a singular with the formative syllable __ = bareness or, more probably, as a constr. st. with the original
 the Lord (prop. my lord, from the plur. majestatis, אֲרִנים iord), the ay was originally a suffix, § $135 q$.
 (supposed by some to be a plur. like our stairs) ; but cf. on the former, $\S 85 \mathrm{t}$.
$i$ 2. The plural termination of the feminine gender is generally indicated by the termination $\pi i$ (often written defectively $\pi^{\circ}$ _, e.g. תחּהִּלּה

[^115]

 an Egyptian woman, plur. $n$;



It is only from a mistake or disregard of these feminine endings $n$ __ and $/ i$ ת- that some words ending with them form their plural by the addition

 amulets (if connected with Assyr. kâsu, to bind), \&c.

The termination -oth stands primarily for - alh (which is the form it has in $l$ Arab., Eth., in the constr. st. of Western Aramaic, in Eastern Syriac, and also in Assyrian ; on the change of $\hat{a}$ into an obscure $\hat{0}$, see $\S 9 q$ ). On the other hand, it is doubtful whether this $\hat{a} t h$ is to be regarded as a lengthened and stronger form of the singular fem. ending ăth (cf. $\S 80 b$ ).

How the changeable vowels of a noun are shortened or become $S^{\ell} w a \hat{a}$ in consequence of the addition of the plural endings is explained in §§ $92-5$.
3. Words which in the singular are used both as masculine and $m$ feminine ( $\$ 122 d$ ), often have in the plaral parallel forms with the masculine and feminine terminations, e.g. עָז cloud, plur. עָבָּ and תizit and each form may be treated either as masculine or feminine, according to the usage of the particular word.-But even those words, of which the gender is invariable, sometimes have both plural forms, e.g. g . masc. a generation, plur. plur. both pluril forms remains the same as in the singular, e.g. אֵר masc.

Sometimes usage makes a distinction between the two plural forms of the $n$
 in the constr. st. Dt $3^{2^{7}}, \dot{\psi} 9^{0^{16}}$ ) and תijuT (also only in the constr. st. and before suffixes) are rarer poetic forms.

A difference of meaning appears in several names of members of the body, 0 the dual (see §88) denoting the living members themselves, while the plur. in $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ i expresses something like them, but without life ( $\$ 122 u$ ), e. g. . hands, תידָ handles (Lat. manubria); artificial feet (of the ark),

 plur.
4. A considerable number of masculines form their plural in $\boldsymbol{\pi i}, \boldsymbol{p}$ while many feminines have a plural in $\square^{\prime}$-. The gender of the singular, however, is as a rule retained in the plural.

Undoubted instances of masculines with (masculine) plural in ni_ are :

 skin-bottle, נֵ lamp, עוֹר vkin, trump voice,


 and the following names of animals

范, and without the fem. termination in the singular פְּלִּ plur.
$r$ 5. A strict distinction in gender between the two plural endings is found, in fact, only in adjectives and participles, e.g. טוֹבִים boni,
 same stem, where there is an express distinction of sex, as $\underset{\sim}{\text { ghe }}$ flii,

$S$ Rem. r. In some ferw words there is added to the plural ending $\operatorname{mi}$ a second (masculine) plural termination (in the form of the constr. st. -. , cf.
 (also

 the plural appears also in the connexion of suffixes with the plural ending תí (§ 91 m ).
$t$ 2. Some nouns are only used in the singular (e.g. men) ; a number of other nouns only in the plural, e.g. משים men (the old sing. מתתו is only preserved in proper names, see $\S 900$; in Eth. the sing. is met, man ) ; some of these have, moreover, a singular meaning (§ $124 a$ ), as פָּ Tace. In such cases, however, the same form can also express plurality, e.g. sing. הַ, a later formation from it, occurs only ten times, except in Job forty-one and in Daniel four times).

## §88. Of the Dual.

Cf. the literature on the Semitic dual in Grünert, Die Begriffs-Präponderanz und die Ducle a potiori im Altarab. (Wien, 1886), p. 21 ; Rrockelmann, Grundriss, p. 455 ff .
a 1. The dual is a further indication of number, which originated in early times. In Hebrew, however, it is almost exclusively used to denote those objects which naturally occur in pairs (see e). The dual termination is never found in adjectives, verbs, or pronouns. In the noun it is indicated in both genders by the termination $0: \leq$

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the Aramaic
 na'rima), מעצְיָּ Egypt, Phoenician מצרם; also the words denoting time,
 cuening, if the regular expression
 Lv $23^{5} \dot{a} \nu \dot{\alpha} \mu \dot{\epsilon} \sigma o \nu \tau \hat{\omega} \nu \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho \iota \nu \hat{\omega} \nu$. The Arabs also say el 'ǐ̌à'an, the two evenings, cf. Kuhn's Literaturblatt, iii. 48.
 taken to be a double window) Jer $2^{2^{14}}$, see above, $\S 87 \mathrm{~g}$.
d 2. Only apparently dual-forms (but really plural) are the words ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ water and p. ${ }^{57}$, line 18 ff .), they are to be derived from the old plural forms (found in Assyrian) mâmi, šamâmi, whence the Hebr. שמשים , מים arose by inversion of the $i$, mâmi, mâmi, maim. It is simpler, however, to suppose that the primitive singulars may and Yamay, when they took the plural of extension ( $\$ 124 \mathrm{~b}$ ), kept the tone on the $a y$, thus causing the $i m$ (which otherwise always has the tone, $\S 87 a$ ) to be shortened to im. Cf. the analogous formations, Arab. tarḍaina, 2nd fem. sing. imperf. of a verb "\%, for tarday +ina, corresponding to taqtulina in the strong verb ; also bibl.-Aram. בַּנִֹֹ the abs. st. plur. of the ptcp. Qal of בְּנָ (ל), which otherwise always ends in in with the tone, e.g. in the

$e$ 2. The use of the dual in Hebrew is confined, except in the numerals 2, 12, 200, \&c. (see § 97), practically to those objects which are by nature or art always found in pairs, especially to the double members of the body (but not necessarily so, cf. וֹרְעִ and

 of scales, Lat. bilanx, \&c.; or things which are at least thought of as forming a pair, e.g.
 two cubits. ${ }^{1}$ defined by a numeral, where it is thought of in a double arrangement, e.g.


 a certain emphasis the numeral two is used with the dual, as in Ju 16 ${ }^{28}$, Am $3^{12}$.--See some other remarks on the use of the dual in $\S 870$ and $s$.
$\boldsymbol{\mathcal { E }}$ It is not impossible that Hebrew at an earlier period made a more extensive and freer use of the dual, and that the restrictions and limitations of its use, mentioned above, belong to a relatively later phase of development. The

[^116]Arabic literary language forms the dual in the noun, pronoun, and verb, almost as extensively as the Sanskrit or Greek; but in modern Arabic it has almost entirely disappeared in the verb, pronoun, and adjective. 'The Syriac has preserved it only in a few stereotyped forms, with which such duals as the Latin duo, ambo, octo may be compared. In the same way, the dual of the Sanskrit is lost in the moderr. Indian languages, and its full use in Old Slavonic has been restricted later, e.g. in Bohemian, just as in Hebrew, to pairs, such as hands, feet, eyes, ears. On the Germanic dual, see Grimm's Gramm., 2nd ed., i. p. 8ı4.

## § 89. The Genitive and the Construct State.

Philippi, Wesen und U'rsprung des Stat. Constr. im Hebr. . .., Weimar, 1871, p. 98 ff : on which cf. Noldeke in the Gött. Gel. Anzeigen, 1871, p. 23.Brockelmann, Grundriss, p. 459 ff.

1. The Hebrew language no longer makes a living use of case- $a$ endings, ${ }^{1}$ but either has no external indication of case (this is so for the nominative, generally also for the accusative) or expresses the relation by means of prepositions ( $\$ 119$ ), while the genitive is mostly indicated by a close connexion (or interdependence) of the Nomen regens and the Nomen rectum. That is to say, the noun which as genitive serves to define more particularly an immediately preceding Nomen regens, remains entirely unchanged in its form. The close combination, however, of the governing with the governed noun causes the tone first of all to be forced on to the latter, ${ }^{2}$ and the consequently weakened tone of the former word then usually involves further changes in it. These changes to some extent affect the consonants, but more especially the vocalization, since vowels which had been lengthened by their position in or before the tone-syllable necessarily become shortened, or are reduced to $\check{S}^{e} w a$ (cf. § $\left.9 a, c, k ; \S 27 e-m\right)$; e.g. us in inverted order, God's-word, housefop, landlord); Tish han
 people. Thus in Hebrew only the noun which stands before a genitive suffers a change, and in grammatical language is said to be dependent, or in the construct state, while a noun which has not a genitive after it is said to be in the absolute state. It is sufficiently evident from the above that the construct state is not strictly to be regarded as a syntactical and logical phenomenon, but rather as simply phonetic and rlytlimical, depending on the circumstances of the tone.

[^117]$b$ Very frequently such interdependent words are also united by Maqqeph ( $\S 16$ a) ; this, however, is not necessary, but depends on the accentuation in the particular case. On the wider uses of the constr. st. see the Syntax, § I 30.
c
2. The vowel changes which are occasioned in many nouns by the construct state are more fully described in §§ 92-5. But besides these, the terminations of the noun in the construct state sometimes assume a special form. Thus:
(a) In the construct state, plural and dual, the termination is $\quad \ldots$,
 הֶַֹּלֶּ the eyes of the king.
d Rem. The '_.. of the dual has evidently arisen from "_(cf. (i) , but the origin of the termination "... in the constr. st. plur. is disputed. The Syriac
 \&c., $\S 9 \mathrm{I} h$ ) would point to a contraction of an original ___, as in the dual. But whether this ay was only transferred from the dual to the plural (so Olshausen, and Nöldeke, Beitr. zur sem. Sprachwiss., Strassb. 1904, p. 48 ff.), or is to be regarded as the abstract, collective termination, as in (see $f$ ) and ירַוֹח (so Philippi, ThLZ. 1890, col. 419 ; Barth, ZDMG. 1904, p. $43^{\text {I ff.), must be }}$ left undecided.
e (b) The original $n$ - is regularly retained as the feminine termination in the construct state sing. of those nouns which in the absolute
 the feminine endings $\pi_{\%}, \pi_{-}{ }_{<}$, and also the plural $\boldsymbol{n i}_{-}$, remain unchanged in the construct state.

 is due to contraction of the original -_, with in added as a vowel letter, we may compare ' Nיַּ

On the terminations $\mathfrak{i}$ and ${ }^{4}$ - in the constr. st. see $\S 90$.
§90. Real and Supposed Remains of Early Case-endings.
 Construct State.
K. U. Nylander, Om Kasusändelserna i Hebräiskan, Upsala, 1882 ; J. Barth, 'Die Casusreste im Hebr.,' ZDMG. liii. 593 ff.
a 1. As the Assyrian and old Arabic distinguish three cases by special endings, so also in the Hebrew noun there are three endings which, in the main, correspond to those of the Arabic. It is, however, a question whether they are all to be regarded as real remnants of former case-endings, or are in some instances to be explained other-

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Rem. The above examples are mostly rendered definite by the article, or by a following genitive of definition, or are proper names. But cases like
 power.
(b) In a somewhat weakened sense, indicating the place where


 the altar. On the other hand, be regarded as ordinary accusatives of direction, to Babylon, into the habitation; also expressions like north, Jos $15^{5}$ (at the beginning of the verse, towarl the east ), cf. $18^{15.20}$, Ex $26^{18}$, Jer $23^{8}$.
$e \quad(c)$ The original force of the ending $\pi_{\Gamma}$ is also disregarded when it is added to a substantive with a preposition prefixed (cf. also עַר־אָּנה how long f), and this not only after לער (which are

 Ez $8{ }^{14}$, cf. Ju $20^{16}$; but also after 2 , and even after $;$ p, e.g. . south, Jos $15^{21}$, cf. $\mathrm{Ju} 14^{2}, \mathrm{IS} 23^{151.19}, 31^{13}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 20^{15}$, Jer $52^{10}$; from Babylon, Jer $27^{16}$; cf. ${ }^{13}$, Jos $\mathrm{I}^{36}$, $\mathrm{I}^{10}$, Ju $2 \mathrm{I}^{19}$, $\mathrm{Is}_{\mathrm{s}} .5^{6}$.

Rem. Old locative forms (or original accusatives) are, according to the Masora, still to be found in
 construed as masculine. The nominative of this supposed old accusative ${ }^{1}$ appeared to be preserved in the form $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$, ל (even used for the absol. st. in pause Is $21^{11}$ ). Most probably, however, Thith is to be referred, with Noldeke and others, to a reduplicated form לילָ


 the place-name however, the toneless $\pi_{T_{T}}$ can be regarded only as a meaningless appendage,


 error (dittography). In Ju $14{ }^{18}$ instead of the quite unsuitable poetic word (towards the sun??) read as in $15^{1}$ הַחַרְסָה

[^118]


 Jb ro ${ }^{22}$; הַמְְָּׂׂתָה Jer $1 I^{15}$ is corrupt, see the LXX and Commentaries. These cases are not to be taken as double feminine endings, since the loss of the tone on the final syllable could then hardly be explained, but they are further instances of an old accusative of direction or intention. In examples
 become meaningless and is used merely for the sake of poetical emphasis. ${ }^{1}$

This termination $ה_{T}$ usually has reference to place (hence called $/ L$ $i_{\text {T }}$ locale ${ }^{2}$ ); sometimes, however, its use is extended to time, as in מִיָמִים יִָּימָּ fanum!=absit! is peculiar.
 Dt $4^{41}$; עִּתָּת exercises no influence whaterer upon the vowels of the word ; in the constr. st. מִרְַּׂרָה Jos $18{ }^{12}$, $1 \mathrm{~K} 19{ }^{15}$, and in the proper names
 I K $4^{12}$, an $\breve{a}$ is retained even in an open tone-syllable (cf., however, הֶרָה Gn $14^{10}$, כַּרְמֶלָה I S $25^{6}$ from joined to the already developed form of the absol. st., except that the helping-

 to be read in the absolute in $\mathrm{Ez} \dot{4} 7^{19}, 4^{8^{28}}$ ) and ${ }^{2}$. (Baer, incorrectly, the case of feminines ending in $\boldsymbol{N}_{\Gamma}$ the $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\Gamma_{\top}}$ local is added to the original feminine ending $\Omega_{\ldots}(\S 80 b)$, the $\breve{c}$ of which (since it then stands in an open tone-syllable) is lengthened to $\bar{a}$, e.g. חִרְ
 and
3. Of the three other terminations 9 may still be regarded as a $k$ survival of the old nominative ending. It occurs only in the middle

[^119]



 constr. st. cf. $6^{1}$. On the other hand the terminations ${ }^{-}-$and $\mathfrak{i}$ are most probably to be regarded (with Barth, l.c., p. 597) as having originated on Hebrew soil in order to emphasize the constr. st., on the analogy of the constr. st. of terms expressing relationship.

In view of the analogies in other languages (see b) there is nothing impossible in the view formerly taken here that the litterae compaginis -and $i$ are obsolete (and hence no longer understood) case-endings, $i$ being the old genitive and $\hat{o}$ for the nominative sign $u$. Barth objects that the $\hat{\imath}$ and $\hat{o}$ almost invariably have the tone, whereas the accusative $\boldsymbol{H}_{-}$is toneless, and that they are long, where the Arab. $\imath$ and $\check{\imath}$ are short. Both these objections, however, lose their force if we consider the special laws of the tone and syllable in Hebrew. The language does not admit a final $\check{\imath}$ or $\breve{u}$, and the necessarily lengthened vowel might easily attract the tone to itself. On the other hand a strong argument for Barth's theory is the fact that these litterae compaginis are almost exclusively used to emphasize the close connexion of one noun with another, hence especially in the constr. st. Consequently it seems in the highest degree probable that all these uses are based upon forms in which the constr. st. is expressly emphasized by a special termination, i. e.
 brother, $\prod_{T}$ father-in-law (cf. §96). The instances given under $l$ and $m$ followed this analogy.

Like $\hat{i}, \dot{i}$ is also used only to emphasize the constr. st. (see o), and must therefore have a similar origin, but its exact explanation is difficult. According to Barth, this i corresponds to a primitive Semitic $\hat{a}$ (cf. $\S 9 q$ ) and is traceable to ' $a b \hat{a}$, ' $a h \hat{a}$, the accusatives of terms of relationship in the constr. st., which have $\hat{a}$ only before a genitive. Against this explanation it may be objected that there is no trace of the supposed Hebrew accusatives אֲ, אֲוֹ, inn, and only of the analogous ig. It is also remarkable that so archaic a form should have been preserved (except in $\mathfrak{j}$ ) only in two words and those in quite late passages. However we have no better explanation to offer in place of Barth's.

Finally we cannot deny the possibility, in some cases, of Barth's explanation of the $\exists$ in compound proper names like בּתוּאֵ, \&c. (see above), as duc to the analogy of terms of relationship with nominative in 7. But this in no way militates against the view expressed above, that in some very old names, like בְּתְּנוּאֵ, \&c., the original common nominative sign has simply been preserved.

[^120]
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 שׁׁכַנְּתי
 precedes it.

The following are simply textual errors: $2 \mathrm{~K}_{4} 4^{29}$ ההלכח $K^{e}$ th., due to the

 thrice, in Lv $26^{42}$, cf. § $128 d$.
$o$ (b) Of the ending ${ }^{11}$ (always with the tone): in prose only in the
 ( $=$ = תָּ Zp $2^{14}$; otherwise only in צִּפְ


## § 91. The Noun with Pronominal Suffixes.

W. Diehl, Das Pronomen pers. suffixum 2 u. 3 pers. plur. des Hebr., Giessen, 1895 ; A. Ungnad, 'Das Nomen mit Suffixen im Semit.'' Vienna Oriental Journal, xx, p. 167 ff.
a With regard to the connexion of the noun with pronominal suffixes, which then stand in a genitive relation (§ $33 c$ ) and are, therefore, necessarily appended to the construct state of the noun, we shall first consider, as in the verb ( $\$ 57 \mathrm{ff}$.), the forms of the suffixes themselves, and then the various changes in the form of the noun to which they are attached. The nouns are also tabulated in the Paradigms of the flexion of the noun in $\oint 92 \mathrm{ff}$. Cf. also Paradigm $A$ in the Appendix. We are here primarily concerned with the different forms of the suffixes when added to the singular, plural, and dual.
$b$ 1. The Suffixes of the singular are-
With nouns ending in a-

Vowel.
Sing. 1. c. ${ }^{\prime}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 \cdot\left\{\begin{array}{l}
m \cdot \\
f . \\
f
\end{array}\right] \\
& 3 \cdot\left\{\begin{array}{l}
m \cdot \\
f . \\
f . \\
\hline
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Consonant.

|  | $m y$. |
| :---: | :---: |
| ワ- (pause $ワ \div$ ) |  |
| 7. |  |
|  | his. |
|  | her. |



Consonant.

| נ近 |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| - | your. |
| - |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \dot{0_{\bar{T}}} \\ & \text { (poet. } \end{aligned}$ | eor |
| $i^{-}$ | ear |

Rem. I. There is less variety of forms in these than in the verbal suffixes; $c$ the particular forms are used as follows:-
(a) Those without a connecting vowel (on the derivation of these 'connecting vowels' from original stem-vowels, see note on $\S 58 f$ ) are generally joined to nouns of a peculiar form (see §96), the constr. st. of which ends in
 sometimes also to segholate forms ending in $\imath$ from $\mathrm{N}^{\prime \prime}$ ל stems (see § $93 x, y$ ),
 פֶּ
 $\mathcal{K}^{-e t . i .}$ perhaps intends the singular, לְנִינְהֶם, \&e., but the Masora requires the plural with defective $\hat{e}$.
(b) The forms with connecting vowels ( $\$ 58 f$ ) are joined to nouns ending $d$ in a consonant. The connecting vowel is regularly $a$ in the 3 rd sing. fem. $\mathrm{B}_{-}$
 the $\hat{o}$ is contracted from $a[h] \hat{u}$, and in the pausal form of the $2 n d$ masc. $\eta \leq$


The firms with $\bar{e}$ in the abore-mentioned persons are common only with



 see the instances in § 93 ss .

Apart from these $\boldsymbol{n}^{\prime \prime}$ \} forms the connecting vowel $\bar{e}$ in the 3 rd pers. occurs
 [ +12 times]; $\mathrm{Na}_{1}{ }^{13}$; in Ju $19^{24}$ read hand $7 \ldots$ in the $2 n d$ sing. fem. and $19<$ in the 1 st plur. are by far the more common forms, while $\nabla_{\top}$, , are of rare occurrence; see e. -Instead of ₹ ( (with $\tilde{S}^{e} u \hat{a}$ mobile), if the last consonant of the noun is a guttural, the forms


 in principal pause.
2. Rare or incorrect forms are-

Sing. ist pers. בִּ by in inemen verse 6).



2nd' pers. $m$. in pause خנְ
 ${ }_{11}{ }^{19},{ }_{1} 35^{9}$ (corresponding to the Aramaic suffix of the 2nd fem. sing.; on the
 Ez 23 ${ }^{28}, 2_{5}{ }^{4}$.

 $K^{e}$ th., for which קֶצוֹ
 Ez $48^{\prime 8}$ [altogether fourteen times in the Pentateuch, and some forty times in other books : see Driver, Samuel, p. xxxp, and on $2 \mathrm{~S}_{2^{9},}^{21^{1}}$ ].
 analogous cases in $\S 58 g$ ) occurs repeatedly before $b^{6} g h a d h k^{e} p h a t h$ and other soft consonants, Ex $9^{18}$ (before ?, if the text is right), Lv $13^{4}$ (before b),

 (before ), $\psi 4^{88^{14}}$ (before 9 ), $\operatorname{Ez} 47^{10}$, Jb $3{ }^{122}$ twice (before ת), Is $21^{2}$, Jer $20^{17}$
 and ${ }^{56}$; Is $23^{17}, \operatorname{Pr} 22^{22}$, also with Zaqeph, Is $45^{6}$, Jer $6^{6}$ (probably), $44^{19}$; on ה appears (but this is very doubtful) to regard the $\Pi_{\bar{T}}$ with feminines as a shortening of
 are for the most part uncertain, e.g. in Is $28^{4}$ the reading is simply to be emended to בִּכּוּרָה, and in Zc $4^{2}$ to also, after prepositions, § 103 g .]

Plur. ist pers. to be read) ; cf. $\mathrm{Ru}^{\boldsymbol{\top}}{ }^{2}\left[\operatorname{Is~} 47^{10}\right.$, cf. §6I $\left.c, h\right]$, and so always


2nd pers. fem.
3rd pers. masc. it $\frac{<}{\top} \psi 17^{10}$ (on it in in the same verse, and in $\psi 58^{7}$ see $l$ ) ; DT- $2 \mathrm{~S}_{2} 3^{\mathrm{B}}$, according to Sievers probably to call attention to the reading כלהם. Fem. Gn $30^{41}$; $\operatorname{Pr} 3{ }^{129}, \mathrm{Jb} 39^{2}$ ); finally in as suffix to a noun, only in Is $3^{17}$.

For examples of singulars with plural suffixes see $l$.
$\boldsymbol{g}$ 2. In the plural masc. and in the dual the suffixes are to be regarded primarily as affixed to the original ending of the construct state (" $=$, cf. $\S 89 \mathrm{~d}$ ). This ending, however, has been preserved unchanged only in the $2 n d$ fem. In most cases it is contracted to ${ }^{\prime}-\ldots$, as in the constr. st. without suffixes (so throughout the plur. and in the poetical suffix ${ }^{4} \times$ of the $3 r d \operatorname{sing}$. masc.) ; in the $2 n d$ masc. and $3 r d$ fem. sing. it is ${ }^{\prime}-(c f . k$ ). On the I st pers. and $3 r d$ masc. sing. see $i$. -Thus there arise the following

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defective writing is especially frequent in the 3 rd masc. sing. $l_{\Gamma}$, which in
 On יַחְּוֹ,
$l$ 2. Unusual forms (but for the most part probably only scribal errors) areSing. 2nd pers. fem $7^{7}$-.. (after nappy! Ec ${ }^{10}{ }^{17}$, which has become stereotyped as an interjection, and is therefore unchangeable; cf. Delitzsch on the passage); ;
 ending in $\pi i$, the $\pi i$ being therefore treated as a plural ending; similarly, the plural suffix is sometimes found with the feminine ending ni ( $\mathrm{Nu} \mathrm{r}_{4}{ }^{33}$, Is $54^{4}, \mathrm{Jer} 3^{8}, \mathrm{Ez}_{1} 6^{15},{ }_{2} 3^{7}$, as well as in $16^{20} Q^{e} r \hat{e}$, and $\mathrm{Zp} 3^{20}$, with the ending $\hat{i}$ th ( $\operatorname{Lv} 5^{24}$, reading inשְׂn), and even with the ordinary feminine ending ath; Is $47^{13}, \operatorname{Ez} 35^{11}, \psi 9^{15}$, Ezr $9^{15}$.-Wholly abnormal is $\mathrm{Na} 2^{14}$, evidently a case of dittography of the following $\bar{i}$ : read



Plur. The strange 2nd pers. masc. תֻּפוֹצוֹתִּכֶם (with î, so Qimhi ; cf. Norzi)
 Ez ${ }^{2}{ }^{20 .}$

3. The termination in_ (also with the dual, e.g. $\psi 55^{7}, 59^{19}$ ), like is and ins $\frac{s}{\top}$, occurs with the noun (as with the verb, $\S 58 \mathrm{~g}$ ) almost exclusively in the later poets [viz. with a substantive in the singular, $\psi{ }^{21}{ }^{11}, 17^{10.10}, 58^{7}$, $59^{13}, 89^{18}$; with a dual or plural, Dt $32^{27.32 .37 .38}, 33^{29}, \psi 2^{3.3}, 11^{7}, 35^{16}, 49^{12}, 58^{7}$, $59^{14}, 73^{5.7}, 83^{12.12}, 14^{4.10}$, Jb $27^{23}$; after prepositions, see § $103 f, 0$, notes], and cannot, therefore, by itself be taken as an indication of archaic language. On the other hand there can be no doubt that these are revivals of really old forms. That they are consciously and artificially used is shown by the evidently intentional accumulation of them, e.g. in Ex $15^{5.7 .9}, \psi 2^{3.5}$, and $140^{4.10}$, and also by the fact observed by Diehl (see the heading of this section) that in Ex $I_{5}$ they occur only as verbal suffixes, in Dt $3^{2}$ only as noun suffixes.
3. It is clear and beyond doubt that the Yodl in these suffixes with the plural noun belongs, in reality, to the ending of the construct state of the masculine plural. Yet the consciousness of this fact became so completely lost as to admit of the striking peculiarity (or rather inaccuracy) of appending those suffix-forms which include
的, \&c.), so that in reality the result is a double indication of the plural. ${ }^{1}$
$n$ Such is the rule : the singular suffix, however (see b), also occurs with the ending (probably through the influence of Aramaic), e.g. (unless it be sing. for עֵרוּתִ, as, according to Qimhi in his Lexicon, 2 , 2 K


[^121]（nom $\psi 119^{98}$ ，Dn $9^{5}$ is merely written defectively，like （not Ginsb．）in $\operatorname{Pr} 1^{9}$ ，\＆c．In the 3 rd plur．the use of the singular suffix is even the rule in the earlier Books（see the instances in Diehl，1．c．，p．8），
 Jer，Ezr，Neh，and Ch［in I K，Jer，Ezr，however， so always passages like $2 \dot{S}{ }_{22^{46}}$ compared with $\psi{ }^{1846}$ ，Is $2^{4}$ with $\mathrm{Mi} 4^{3}$ ，it appears that in many cases the longer form in ${ }_{\because}^{\prime}$＿＿can only subsequently have taken the place of $\square_{T}$ ．

4．The following Paradigm of a masouline and feminine noun $O$ with suffixes is based upon a monosyllabic noun with one unchangeable vowel．With regard to the ending $\Omega_{-}$in the constr．st．of the fem． it should be further remarked that the short $\breve{a}$ of this ending is only retained before the grave suffixes כֶ and $ֶ$ ；；before all the others （the light suffixes）it is lengthened to $\bar{a}$ ．

Singular．

Masculine．
Diva horse．
Sing．I．com．
2．$\left\{\begin{array}{l}m . \\ f .\end{array}\right.$

Plur．r．com．Dour horse．


Plural．
Masculine． סוּסטים horses．



Plur．I．com．סוּסֵינוּ our horses．



Feminine．

on my mare．
Dinn thy mare．
Dיוּסָחת thy mare．
in pequa eius（sua）． T Dincina eius（sua）． Our mare． ס oinour mare．
 ם pqua eorum（sua）． ｜ Feminine． תidid mares．品 my mares． Tininin thy mares．隹 thy mares．隹 equae eius（suae）． Oquae eius（suae）． our mares． Dinn your mares． Dour mares．
Din equae eorum（suae）．


## § 92. Vowel Ohanges in the Noun.

1. Vowel changes in the noun may be caused (a) by dependence on a following genitive, (b) by conuexion with pronominal suffixes, (c) by the plural and dual terminations, whether in the form of the absolute state or of the construct (before a following genitive of a noun or suffix).
2. In all these cases, the tone of the noun is moved forward either one or two syllables, while the tone of the construct state may even be thrown upon the following word. In this way the following changes may arise:-
(a) When the tone is moved forward only one place, as is the case when the plural and dual endings $\square$-, $\boldsymbol{-}$ ind and $\square!-$ are affixed, as well as with all monosyllabic or paroxytone suffixes, then in dissyllabic nouns the originally short vowel of the first syllable (which was lengthened as being in an open syllable before the tone.) becomes $S^{\zeta}$ ewa, since it no longer stands before the tone. On the other hand, the originally short, but tone-lengthened vowel, of the second syllable is retained as being now the pretonic vowel ; e.g. $\underset{T}{7}$ word (groundform däbăr), plur.
 unchangeable vowel in the second syllable: : over. overeer, plur.
 plur.

c But in participles of the form לp, with tone-lengthened e (originally $\grave{y}$ ) in the second syllable, the $\bar{e}$ regularly becomes $\breve{S}^{e} w a$ mobile before
 Likewise in words of the form

d (b) When the tone of the construct state, plural or dual, is carried over to the following word, or, in consequence of the addition of the grave suffixes to the constr. st. plur. or dual, is moved forward two places within the word itself, in such cases the originally short vowel of the second syllable becomes $\breve{S}^{e} w a$, while the vowel of the first syllable reverts to its original shortness, e.g. רָּרָ of the people, instances the $\check{\imath}$ of the first syllable is attenuated from an original $\check{a}$ ).
[^122]
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## § 93. Paradigms of Masculine Nouns. ${ }^{1}$

a Masculine nouns fiom the simple stem may, as regards their form and the vowel changes connected with it, be divided into four classes. A synopsis of them is given on pp. 264, 265, and they are further explained below. Two general remarks may be premised
(a) That all feminines without a distinctive termination (§ $122 h$ )
 king, except that in the plural they usually take the termination ni_; thus חֲרָבוֹב, constr. חַרְבוֹת (and so always before suffixes, see § 95).,
$b$ (b) That in the plural of the first three classes a changeable vowel is always retained even before the light suffixes as a lengthened pretonic vowel, whenever it also stands before the plural ending $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}-$. All suffixes, except called light. Cf. § 92 e.

Explanations of the Paradigns (see pp. 264, 265).
c 1. Paradigm I comprises the large class of segholate nouns (§ $84^{a}$ $a-e$ ). In the first three examples, from a strong stem, the groundforms, mălk, š̌phr, qǔď̆ have been developed by the adoption of a

 helping Seghôl, have a helping Pathah, on account of the middle ( $d, f$ ) or final guttural (e). In all these cases the constr. st. sing. coincides exactly with the absolute. The singular suffixes are added to the ground-form ; but in $c$ and $f$ an $\check{o}$ takes the place of the original $\breve{u}$, and in $d$ and $f$ the guttural requires a repetition of the $\breve{a}$ and $\check{o}$ in the
 passes into a simple helping vowel ( $\breve{a}, \stackrel{o}{o}$ ), according to $§ 28 c$; hence , ַַשְרָּ, \&c.
d In the plural an $a$-sound almost always appears before the tonebearing affix $a^{--}$(on the analogy of forms with original $a$ in the

[^123]second syllable ; cf. § $84^{a} a$ ), in the form of a pretonic Qames, whilst the short vowel of the first syllable becomes vocal $\breve{S}^{e} w a$. The original $a$ of the 2 nd syllable is elided in the construct state, so that the short vowel under the first radical then stands in a closed syllable. The omission of Dageš in a following Begadkephath (מַמלְבְבֵּ , not \&c.) is due to the loss of a vowel between $b$ and $د$. On the other hand, the pretonic Qames of the absolute state is retained before the light plural suffixes, whilst the grave suffixes are added to the form of the construct state.-The ending of the absolute state of the dual is added, as a rule, to the ground-form (so in $a-d$ and $h$, but cf. $k$ ). The construct state of the dual is generally the same as that of the plural, except, of course, in cases like $m$.

Paradigms $g$ and $h$ exhibit forms with middle $u$ and $i\left(\$ 84^{a} c, \gamma e\right.$ and $\delta$ ); the ground forms maut and zait are always contracted to môth, $z e ̂ t h$, except in the absol. sing., where $u$ and $i$ are changed into the corresponding consonants 1 and $\cdot$.

Paradigm $i$ exhibits one of the numerous forms in which the contraction of a middle $u$ or $i$ has already taken place in the absol. sing. (ground-form $\begin{aligned} & \text { aut }) \text { ). }\end{aligned}$

Paradigm $k$ is a formation from a stem $\pi^{\prime \prime \prime}\left(\$ 84^{a} c, \epsilon\right)$.
Paradigms $l, m, n$ are forms from stems $\nu \prime \nu, y$, and hence (see § $67 a) f$ originally biliteral, yam, 'im, huq, with the regular lengthening to $\square_{\tau}^{\prime}$, אֵ, , Pi. Before formative additions a sharpening, as in the
 םיִּ, \&c. (see § $84^{a} c, \beta$ ).

## Remaris.

I. A. On I. $a$ and $d$ (ground-form qatl). In pause the full lengthening to $\vec{a} \mathcal{E}$ generally takes place, thus in in ineyard, and so always (except $\psi 4^{811}$ ), in (cf. also in the LXX the forms 'AB'́入, 'Iaф'́日 for
 together with
 help, \&c.-With two Seghôls, although with a middle guttural, we find



B. The constr. st. ïs almost always the same as the absolute. Sometimes, $/ l$ however, under the influence of a final guttural or 7 , Pathah appears in the second syllable as the principal vowel (see below, s), e.g. إרִע ;

Paradigms of

| Sing．absolute | ¢ֶּלֶדּ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { פַעַרֶ } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | （king） | （book） | （sanctury） | （a youth） | （perpetuity） | （work） |
| construct | ֶֶלְלּ | ֵֵֶפֶר | ¢ | ֵַַר |  |  |
| with light su | מַלִִּּ | ִִִִִיר | קִדְִִׁי |  | ִיצְחי |  |
|  | מַלִּ3 | סִיְרֶּ | P\％ | 10 | ציצִדֶך | 7 |
| ，with grave suff． | 侣 | ִיְְִרֶם |  |  | بִיְחֵּם |  |
| Plur．absolute | מַלְלִים | ְסְִדִים | ［ | נִֶירים | נְצִחִים | 隹 |
| ，construct | מַלְֵי | ִיִִרי |  | 䍖 | ִיצִיֶיֵ | 翟 |
| ，with light suff． |  | סְקְִּי |  | 10\％ | צְצָּ |  |
| ，，with grave suff． |  | סִִִיִיכם |  |  | ניצִחִיֶם |  |
| 1）ual absolute |  |  |  | 翟 |  |  |
|  | （feet） | （two heaps） roper nam | e.] (loins) | （sandals） |  |  |
| construct | ב1ִ？ |  | מִחֵֵּ | 29x |  |  |


| Sing．absolute | II． |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{gathered} a . \\ \text { דָּרָ } \\ \text { (word) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} b . \\ \begin{array}{c} \text { חָָָ } \\ \text { (wise) } \end{array} . \end{gathered}$ | c． <br> p <br> （an old man） | d． כָּתף （shoulder） | $\begin{gathered} e . \\ \text { e. } \\ \text { (court) } \end{gathered}$ | $f$ <br> שָּדֶּ <br> （field） |
| ＂construct | דְּבַר | חִכֵם | ip！ | הּתֶּ | חִצַר | עְּדֵּ |
| ＂，with light suff． | דִדִד？ | חִדָּדִי |  | ְּתִִֵי | חחִצִרי | שָּדִיִ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＂，with grave suff． | דִדברִרְּ | חִכֶַַּּם |  |  |  |  |
| Plur．absolute | דִדָרִים | חִכִָּים | וְקִִִים |  | חֲצִרִים | פַּנִים |
| ＂construct | ִִּבִרֵי | חַכְּיִי |  |  | חַצְרֵי | \％exy |
| ＂，with light suff． | ִִּבָרַי |  | וְקֵנִי |  |  | －罗 |
| ，，with grave suff． |  | חַכְֵֵּיֵֶם | ְיקְגֵיבֶם |  | חַצְרִיֶם | שֶּנִיבֶם |
| Dual absolute |  |  | יִרֵַּיִ |  |  |  |
|  | （wings） | （loins） | （thighs） |  |  | （face） |
| ，construct | כַּנְִֵי |  |  |  |  |  |

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 $i$ C. The $i_{\top}$ locale is, according to $\S 90 i$, regularly added to the already



$k \stackrel{\square}{\mathrm{D}}$. The suffixes of the singular are likewise added to the ground-form, but forms with middle guttural take Hateph-Pathah instead of the $\breve{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$ quiescens;
 however, before suffixes in the sing., as well as in the constr. st. plur. and dual, the $\check{a}$ of the first syllable is attenuated to $\check{\imath}, 1$ thus so in many others. In some cases of this kind besides the form with $\breve{a}$ there most probably existed another with original $i$ in the first syllable; thus certainly with $\S 3^{6}$, the absolute st. in such cases takes $\grave{e}$, the constr. $\bar{e}$; cf.
 to this theory ${ }^{2}$. although the accentuation requires an absol. st.)-A weakening of the firmly closed syllable occurs in cases evidently owing to the influence of the palatal in the middle of the

 שַׁצָמוֹת

 (bowels) mercy. On the numerals עֲ twénty, \&c., cf. § $97 f$, note 2. Moreover $a$ is not inserted before plural suffixes with the tone on the penultima in یַשְׁרֶ, \&c., properly thy happiness! (a word which is only used in the constr. st. pl. and at an early period became stereotyped as a kind of interjection).
$m$ F. In the constr. st. plural a firmly closed syllable is sometimes found,

 the other hand, according to the best authorities not in ${ }^{\prime}$ IDM Is $55^{3}$, \&c.,
 guttural בַּעְלִיהֶּ Est $1^{17.20 .}$. The attenuation of $\breve{a}$ to $\check{\imath}$ also occurs sometimes in this form (see above, k), e.g. 'וְבְ, \& \& . . Is., even $57^{4}$ beside Ho $1^{2}$, \&c.

 with a firmly closed syllable), with suffixes Ju $7^{6}$ ), forms with pretonic Qames are also found (in consequence of the

[^124]tendency to assimilate the dual to the plural in form : so König, Lehrgeb.,

 way.
2. On Paradigms $b$ and e. With a final $N$ rejected (but retained ortho- $O$ graphically) we find
 plur.

 $\operatorname{Pr}{ }^{2}{ }^{255}$, cf. § $20 h$; שi sycamores, without Qames before the termination ם-_ (see above, l), is probablỳ from the sing. שִׁקְָׂ found in the Mišna.
3. On Paradigms $c$ and $f$.

 Mi $7^{1}$.

Before suffixes the original $\check{c}$ sometimes reappears in the sing., e.g. גוּדל 1
 the $\check{u}$ repeated in the form of a Hateph-Qames, cf. § $10 h$ ) Is $9^{3}$, \&c.; 的
 even without a middle guttural ; similarly ${ }^{4}$
 ' syllable'; König, Lehrgeb., ii. 69), and the form is to be derived, with König, from jup, not qütün, as Brockelmann quotes him, in Grundriss, p. 103. The
 above two readings, but _is merely intended to mark the vowel expressly as ob. In the forms the lengthening of the original $\check{u}$ to $\bar{o}$ has been retained even before the suffix; cf. $\S 63 p$ and $\S 74 h$ ( $\operatorname{Gin}$ ( $3^{22^{20}}$ ). - In the same was $\bar{o}$ remains before



In the absol. st. plur. the original $\check{u}$ generally becomes $\check{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$ before the Qames, $r$
 st. י
 so even without an initial guttural, תíl


 Ginsburg. On these forms cf. especially $\S 9 \mathrm{v}$. From (of. §
 'on account of its weak articulation' (König, Lehrgeb., ii. 45). It seems that by these different ways of writing a distinction was intended between the
plural of the former sense (in constr.st Jb 619) and תimisis in the latter (e.g. Jb $\mathrm{I}^{37}$ according to the reading of Ben Naphtali and Qimhi); cf. also $n$ 仿
 a sing. ${ }^{1}$ the examples, given in $l$ and $o$, of plurals without a pretonic pames; cf. pistachio nuts, probably from a sing. According to Barth, ZDMM. xlii,

In the constr. st. plur. the only example with original $u$ is ' '

$\int 4$. Besides the forms treated hitherto we have to consider also a series of formations, which have their characteristic vowel under the second radical, as is ordinarily the case in Aramaic (on the origin of these forms see further,
 גְבְר ; שְעָט man (as constr. st., see above, $h$ ), $\psi 18^{26}$ (elsewhere always infinitives like שְׁכַב (§ 45 c ; on



 myrtles, משְַׁטִּים few.
 , שְׁאֵת ; put plur. cf. $\S 7^{6} b$.



u 5. Paradigms $g-i$ comprise the segholate forms with middle 1 or !: (a) of the form qưṭl with $W a \bar{a} w$ as a strong consonant, in which cases the original $\check{a}$ is
 ךָּ constr. st. contraction always accurs, תib, \&c. (from original maut), and like-
 to Qimhi) and with suff. עַוִלֹ. The contraction remains also in all cases in the plural (but see below, w).
$\boldsymbol{V}$ (b) Of the form qătl with consonantal Yôdh (Paradigm $h$ ). With final $\mathcal{N}$,
 plur. $2 \mathrm{~K}^{16}$ and Ez $6^{6} K^{e} t h$. according to Baer Mis, i. e. doubtless nix:


[^125]
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 \&c., see above, $x$ ); the $K^{e} t h$. evidently intends
 Masora, ָּרְלָ with Munah for Metheg. This unusual Metheg is to be treated as following the analogy of the cases mentioned in $\S 9 v$.
ACl 7. On Paradigms $l-n$ : segholate forms from stems $ע$ ע $y$ (see § $84^{a} c, \beta$ ).
(a) In the qatl-form the $\breve{a}$ of the contracted formation is sometimes lengthened in the absol. st., sing. as in יָּ (so also in the constr. st., except in the combina-

 tions generally have Qames in pause, as well as after the article (e.g. הָעָ Adjectives under the influence of a guttural either have forms like
 (in the plural $\underset{\sim}{\square}$ חַ also a substantive, life), and יחֵ. ${ }^{1}$ and beside הָהָרָה. The stem is expanded to a triliteral form in הָרָר (unless it is simply derived from a by-form ${ }^{\top} \overbrace{7}$ הָ on the analogy of qătăl-forms) Jer $17^{3}$



 e.g. פִּתִּת , from Before $\Pi \check{l}$ is retained in a virtually sharpened syllable, e.g.


(c) Qựll-forms :

 a triliteral form, Ju $5^{15}$ and Is $10^{1}$, generally explained as a secondary form of to a qitl-form = Arabic hiqq.
CC The forms with assimilated middle Nun likewise follow the analogy of

 for 'inb.
2. Paradigm II comprises all formations with original short vowels, whether in the first or second syllable; cf. $§ 84^{a} f-i$, and the general laws of formation, $\S 92 b-g$.

[^126]Rem. I. On Paradigms $a$ and $b$ : ground-form qăṭăl. The lengthening of the second $\breve{a}$ to $\bar{a}$ is maintained in the constr. st. sing. only in ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}$-forms, e.g. צבדא




 a confusion with the qattâl-form $\underset{\sim}{*}$ horseman.
A. Sometimes a sharpening of the third radical takes place, in order to ee keep the preceding vowel short, e.g. פְּלַגּוֹת brooks (see § $20 a$ ). -The attenuation of the $\breve{a}$ of the first syllable to $\breve{\imath}$ does not take place in the constr. st. plur. as a rule after an initial guttural, as nַַמִ,
 to König, owing to the influence of the nasal) in the non-guttural forms
 from river, shows an abnormal omission of the lengthening of the $\check{a}$ before a tone-bearing termination, but cf. $\S 88 \mathrm{c}$.

C. The few nouns of the ground-form qut $\mathfrak{c} \check{l}$ follow the same analogy, such as $g g$
 שׁׁעַ




2. On Paradigms c-e: ground-form qătill, developed to qātēl; with a final hll guttural, e.g. probably on the analogy of the forms discussed in $\S 69 c$, becomes $\breve{a}$, e.g. iVi,

 mourning. Paradigm $d$ represents forms which in the constr. st. instead of
 ( $\mathrm{Ez}+4^{9}$ ), constr. st. of In Is II ${ }^{14}$ בּכָת M Nöldeke, Gött. Gel. Anzeigen, 1871, No. 23 [p. 896] for בָּ אָּ with one shoulder, i.e. shoulder to shoulder); [cf. Driver, Tenses, § 190, Obs.].

In the plur. constr. the $\bar{e}$ lengthened from $i$ is frequently retained in verbal $i i$


 ארָ. With $\check{y}$ alius (with a virtual sharpening of the ח).-From עמ עֲ


Kindred in character are the formations from the ground-form quatull. This $k k$
 but before formative additions the short $\check{u}$ returns, protected by the sharpening of the following consonant (see ee above), as


 § 75 h , the general rule is that before the terminations of the plur. and dual and before suffixes beginning with a vowel, the third radical is usually elided
 also found in poetry (cf. also the singulars with suffixes, like משׁׁnּruna, in ss);

 so Barth, ZDMG. xlii, p. 351 ). The qưtăl-form (see § $84^{a} i$ ) ) 2 S $15^{97}$, $16^{16}$, I K $4^{5}$ is remarkable as a constr. st. (the reading רֵلN. of Opitius and others is opposed to the express statement of the Masora). To the category of these

mm In a few formations of this kind the vowel of the second syllable appears to have been already lost in the absol. st. sing. ; so according to the ordinary


 these nouns are to be regarded as primitive (§81), and as original monosyllabic formations.
nn 3. Paradigm III comprises forms with an unchangeable vowel in the first syllable, whilst the vowel of the second syllable has been lengthened from an original short vowel, and is therefore changeable. The special cases are to be distinguished in which the original short vowel is lengthened both in and before the tone, but in an open syllable becomes $S^{e} w a$ (Paradigm $a$, but cf. also examples like wheels, for wix porches), secondly, the cases in which the vowel becomes $S^{e} u, d$ even before the tone (Paradigm b), and finally, those in which the termination of $\mathrm{H}^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{h}$ formations is entirely lost (Paradigm $c$ ).
00 Rem. I. On the model of עָ עi (which, moreover, is obscured from 'âlăm), the following forms also are inflected : מִקְטָּל ( $\$ 85 h$ ), in some cases with virtual sharpening of the third radical (see $\$ 20 a$ ), as Jb $\left.8^{14}, \& c . ; \aleph^{\prime \prime \prime}\right\}$ nouns of this form maintain the Qameṣ in the constr. st. plur.,
 Niph. ( $\$ 85 n$ ) of verbs $\left.\mathcal{K}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right\rangle$ (which likewise belong to this class), are found


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 the sight of him, Jb 41 ${ }^{1}$ (with the " here retained orthographically), Ez $4^{\circ}{ }^{31}$, \&c., are still to be explained as singulars. - On a few other examples which may perhaps be thus explained, see § $124 k$. Before the plural ending the original termination ay reappears in ${ }^{\text {P }}$ Is $25^{6}$ (part. Pu. from

$t t$ 4. Paradigm IV comprises the forms with a changeable vowel ( $a, b$ ), or a vowel which has already become $\breve{S}^{\ell} w d$ (c), in the first syllable, and an unchangeable vowel in the second. With Paradigm $c$ (which, however, for the most part consists merely of forms based on analogy, without biblical parallels) are also connected all the forms which have unchangeable vowels in both syllables, and therefore (like ${ }^{2}$ ) cannot undergo any vowel changes.
 (with ô, not changeable ō for $\check{u}$ ); in substantives like aiber , this $\hat{o}$ is demonstrably obscured from $\hat{a}$ (Arab. sălâm); ibid. $l, m$, וְכָּרוֹן



VV 2. עִָׁי (ground-form 'ăniy, stem revin represents forms in which a final Yodh has been resolved into $\hat{\imath}$; before formative additions the original Yodh under the protection of a Dageš forte again becomes audible as a firm consonant, whilst the (originally short) vowel of the first syllable becomes $S^{e} u \vec{a}$; cf. § $84^{a} l$,


 by fairly good authority; however, these $q^{e} t \hat{a} l$-forms in Hebrew are probably all loan-words from the Aramaic). The only plural form found in the O.T. is עֲבָדיהם their deeds, Ec $9^{1}$. In a narrower sense the forms enumerated in § $84^{a} n-p$ belong to this class; in a wider sense all those which have unchangeable vowels throughout, thus $\S 84^{a} u, \S 84^{b} e$ (לָpp, cf., however, the anomalous forms mentioned there), ibid. $f-i, m$ (No. 34 f.), $n$ (No. 39), $p$ (No. 44), also partly § $85 b-w$ (especially $l$ and $r$ ).
$x \boldsymbol{x}$ In opposition to the anomalous shortening of the form קַטָ (see above), cases are also found where pretonic vowels are retained even in the antepenultima (with the secondary tone); cf. above, $i i$ and $p p$, also of the form
 st. sing. according to the rule, changes the $\bar{a}$ into $S^{e} w \hat{a}$ (פִ), are not to be confounded with forms like עָ עָ tyrant, which is for consequently has an unchangeable Qameṣ.) Of the form (pָua (qạtul) in this




## § 94. Formation of Feminine Nouns.

1. The feminine ending $\Pi_{\tau_{\top}}$, when appended to the masculine $a$ forms treated in § 93, effects in almost all cases the same changes as are produced in the masculine forms by the addition of a light suffix, since in both cases the tone is moved one place farther forward (see $\S 92 b$ ). The following scheme is based on the same division into four classes, with their subdivisions, as in § 93 ; a few special forms will be treated in § 95 in connexion with the paradigms of feminine nouns.

Paradigm I: segholate forms, with the feminine ending always $b$



 founded with the unchangeable forms with a prefixed $D$, derived


 (i) צֵּ understanding, סבּיָּ

 Adjectives derived from $ע$ ystems also belong in flexion to this class,
 statute ( P ).


 (masc. עיָ, properly part. Qal from (עוּר) female witness. From the ground-form qătǔl,

Paradigm III: unchangeable vowel in the first, changeable in the $d$ second syllable, (a) $\S 84^{a} s$, and the retention of the $\bar{e}$ in the part. Pi $\bar{e} \bar{e}$, $\operatorname{Ex~} 22^{17}, 23^{26}$; in the Hithpaéel $1 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{I}^{45}$.), but also with the change of the $\bar{e}$ (originally $\check{\imath}$ ) into $\breve{S}^{\zeta}$ wa, , ${ }^{\text {, }}$, dwelling, $\mathrm{Na} 3^{8}$. However, in these participial forms the feminine is mostly indicated by $\Pi_{-}$(see below, $h$ );
 of the final Yôdh, icheramorous, $\operatorname{Pr} 7^{11}$, and the examples in § $75 v$. On the $a$ of the participles of verbs $\overline{\prime \prime}$, which also belong to this

$e$ Paradigm IV: originally changeable vowel in the first syllable,


2. A simple $\Omega$ is added as feminine ending in forms like בְּנִית

 \&c. (hardly to lengthening of the $\check{\imath}$ in the ground-form môṣi), whilst
 of the forms treated in § $93 t$. Apart from the $n$ " $\zeta$ formations, we find the simple $\Omega$ in the participle 1 שְָׁׁרַ $\mathrm{K}_{1}{ }^{15}$, contracted from
 ! ! as in the same connexion in Gn $17^{19}$, Is $7^{14}$ ), cf. $\S 80 d$ and the

$\mathcal{g}$ The forms which arise by appending the $\pi$ feminine to masculine nouns with a changeable vowel in a closed final syllable are, as a rule, developed exactly in the same way as masculine segholate forms.





 the original $\check{\imath}$ of
I/ Formations with a changeable $\bar{\sigma}$ in the second syllable belonging to
 perhaps also wo miting (unless it be obscured from
 seal; (b) יוֹאֶקֶת (properly sucking) sprout (in pause, e. g. \&c.), and so most feminines of participles hep. On this transition
 in

 see § 95, Paradigm IV, c.

On the endings $n$ i and $n-$-, see $\S 86 k, l$, § 95 at the end.

## § 95. Paradigms of Feminine Nouns.

a In accordance with the general formative laws, stated in § $92 b-k$, the following cases have chiefly to be cousidered in the flexion of

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| Sing. absolute | II. |  |  | III. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | - | b. |  |  |  |
|  | צִדְקָה |  | \% |  | 界 |
|  | (rightoousness) | (outcry) | (year) | (sprout) | (skull) |
| , construct | צִדְתֶת | ! | שׁׁנֵת |  | ת |
| , with light suff. |  |  |  |  |  |
| , with grave suff. | צִדְקַחְדֶם |  | שִׁנַתְּםֶם |  |  |
| Plur.absolute | צירֶקוֹת |  | ${ }^{1}$ שֶׁנוֹ |  |  |
| , construct | צִדְקוֹת |  |  |  | nibumb |
| " with suff. | צִדְקוֹתַּתית |  |  |  |  |
| Dual absolute | [ $]$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | (fetters of brass) |  | (lips) |  |  |
| ,, construct |  |  |  |  |  |

## Remaris.

d I. Paradigm I : feminines of segholate forms. (a) The locative of this class has the form :גְּבְצָּזָּ, towards Gibeah (masc. In some cases, especially with an initial guttural, there is no means of deciding whether the form in
 under b). A dual of this form occurs in שִׁבְעָ in in seven times (cf. Analogous to masculine forms like masculines of the form (פְ (see above, § 94 b 94 ), sometimes like ally the final $\pi$ is retained before the plural ending, as if it belonged to the
 are derived directly from the masculine forms

 Example of a feminine segholate form from a stem ע"ע (ground-form quatl, like (Aramaic orthography for
$\boldsymbol{e}$ (e) To the list of segholate forms with $\cap$ fem. belong also the infinitives of





 תצֵת excrement, Ez ${ }_{4}{ }^{12}$, the Șere has remained firm.


From a stem ${ }^{7 \prime}$ ל (הָהָ, ef., however, Barth, ZDMG. 1887, p. 6o7, who assumes a stem (ידל) the masculine $\begin{gathered}\text { Ta appears to have been formed after the }\end{gathered}$




 retaining the feminine $\Pi$ as an apparent radical) can only be an abnormal formation from the singular $n$,
2. Paradigm II : ground-form qătăăăt, \&c., cf. § $94 c$, Paradigm II, $a$ and $b$. $\boldsymbol{g}$ Analogous to the masculine forms like prop, plur. קְטָּ \&c.-The constr. forms, like צִדְקַ (sidheqăth), are distinguished by the vocal $S^{e} w a \hat{a}$ (§ io d) from the segholate forms, like כִּבְשַ (kibh-săth). Consequently the constr. st. בִּרְכַּת Gn 284, \&c. (from בִּרָכָּ blessing), and 1 I $144^{15}$, \&c. (from חֲרָּדָ a trembling), are abnormal.-Under the influence of a guttural (see Paradigm $b$ ) the original $\check{a}$ is retained in the first syllable in the constr. st.



 levir) before suffixes is pointed as in
 and this no doubt for an original 'ămint, § $69 c$ ) before suffixes

From the masc. form
 בּה $\operatorname{Zn}$ Lv 19 ${ }^{19}$. More frequently, however, the $\bar{e}$ of the second syllable is retained before the termination ath of the constr. st.; thus from עְ once
 (with Hireq compaginis, see § 90 l ), מוּר


 feminine of
 the analogy of חֲרְדַּת בִּרְכַּת (see g).

In the forms with simple $\Pi$ feminine the ground-form qăṭilt is developed $k$ ( $\$ 69$ c) to $q^{e} t \underline{t a l t,}$, and this again regularly to

 (from



 syllable. Cf., on the other hand, the forms from ${ }^{\text {s }}$ stems mentioned above,

 Gn $21^{15}$, constr. st.
 original $\breve{u}$ by sharpening the following consonant (cf. $\S 93 \mathrm{kk}$ ); on the other hand, by appending the fem. $\pi$, segholate forms arise like גְחשׁׁת, before suff.

 with the ending $\hat{a} t h$, due to the rejection of the final $W \bar{a} \omega$ or Yôdh and contraction of the preceding $\breve{a}$ with the $\breve{a}$ of the termination $\breve{a}$ th ; thus

 $K^{e}$ th. ; on $\Pi^{\top} \underset{\uparrow}{2}$. and this is contracted from 'âyăth ='ăwăyăth; plur. תíní, with the double feminine ending; cf. above, $f$, and $\S 87 \mathrm{k}$. -The retention of the $\bar{a}$ in the first syllable in $\underset{\sim}{\text { אֲ }}$, \&c., Gn $24^{41}$, \&c., is abnormal.
 two walls, Is $22^{11}, \& c .$, taken directly from the plur. תinin, for
 forms resembling participles Qal of verbs $\mathfrak{q} \boldsymbol{\exists}$, , such as hence with unchangeable $\hat{a}$ ), must be reckoned also which has for its constr. st. plur. the pleonastic form defectively which is to be read $b \bar{a} m^{o} t h \hat{e}$ ( $n o t b o m^{\circ} t h e ̂$ ), with an anomalous shortening of

$p$ In a wider sense the feminines of the form class, in so far as they shorten the $\hat{a}$ of the second syllable before the termina-
 signet; also fem. of the forms per and ( $\$ 84^{b} c$ and $d$ ), as 'iwwălt), and of all the forms which have a changeable vowel in the second syllable, and are formed with the prefix $D(\$ 85 g-k)$, e.g. מַטְ kingdom,




1 Sometimes the plural of these forms is to be traced to a secondary form,
 formed on the analogy of the other plur. fem. of participles Qal, is to be




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The Noun
[§96

## Remaris.

 the connective forms discussed in $\S 90 k$, which serve as the model for the Hireq compaginis. However, אַ also occurs in compound proper names, e.g.


 stands for אֵחָ in pause for ${ }^{4}$. The sharpening of the $\Pi$ merely serves to keep the preceding Pathah short, as in
 constr. and otherwise in close connexion, אַ, Gn $48^{22}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{17} 7^{22}$, Is $2 \mathbf{j}^{12}$,


|  | בּתִּים | בדּנִים | בָּנוֹת | צימִים |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| אַמְהוֹת | בָּתִיֶ | ִבִּנִ | בֶּנוֹת | ִיֵֵי |
|  |  | דָּנִ | בּנְַַּּ | " |
|  |  | בֶָּׁ |  |  |
|  | דּתִּ |  | בִּנֹתִּ | ¢יpָּ |
| אַמַּתָּיָּ |  |  |  | יָּ |
|  |  | בַּלִ | בּנֹתֶיָּ |  |
|  | 骨 | בֵָּּינְ | בִּלֹתִיצוּ | ¢ |
|  |  |  |  | יִיֵיֵֶם |
|  | בּדֵּתִיהם | בִּנִיהֶם |  | ִיֵֵיחֶם |
|  | דָּתִּיֶּ | בִּנִיֶֶן |  |  |

 Ez $18{ }^{10}$; fem. אַ 끄 masc. (by aphaeresis, § 19 h), Ez $33^{30}$, as in Aramaic ; plur. אַחָ but also iidem.

תinn sister, from 'ăhăwăt or' 'ăhăyăt, with elision of the lor ', and with the $\hat{a}$,



[^129]| 284 | The | Noun |  |  | § 96 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing.absolute $\quad \begin{gathered}{\left[\begin{array}{r}\text { [ }\end{array}\right]} \\ \text { (water) }\end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { yִיר } \\ \text { (city) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{7} \\ \text { (mouth) } \end{gathered}$ | า <br> (head) | $\begin{gathered} \text { (name) } \\ \text { (ne } \end{gathered}$ | [ <br> (heaven) |
| , construct | עִיר | ִ9 | רֹ** | زיֵֶם - |  |
| ,, with suff. of I sing. | עִירירי | ִִּ |  | שׁׁמִי |  |
| , 2 masc. | עִירֶך | \%ִּיך |  |  |  |
| ,, 2 fem. |  |  | ראטֵֵך |  |  |
| " 3 masc. | ִִירוֹ | צִּיה , | ¢ | ¢ |  |
| , 3 fem. | ִיִירָּ |  | ר | Mnup |  |
| , 1 Pl. |  | ¢冖ִּני |  | ¢ |  |
| , 2 masc. |  | פִּיֶֶם |  |  |  |
| , 3 masc. | بִירם | פִּיהֶם |  | ¢ |  |
| " 3 fem. |  | פִּ |  |  |  |
| Plur.absolute | עָרִים | פִּיֹת | רָאשׁׁים | שׁׁימוֹת | ¢ |
| , construct מימי , יֵי | צָריר |  | רָאֵֹיֵי | שׁׁnin | שֶׁn |
| , wowith suff. of 1 ו sing. | עָּ |  |  |  |  |
| , 2 masc. |  |  |  |  |  |
| \%, 2 fem. | עָרִיִּ |  |  |  |  |
| " 3 masc. | עָרָּוֹר |  | רָאשׁׁי |  | שָׁטָי |
| ", 3 fem. |  |  | רָ |  |  |
| , 1 ¢ Pl. |  |  | רָאֹאִיֵּ |  |  |
| , 2 masc. | עֶרֵיכֶם |  |  |  |  |
| " 3 masc. | ֶָּיהֶם |  | רָאשׁיֶהּם | שֶׁuninu |  |
| ,, 3 fem. |  |  |  |  |  |

to occur. In Ez $16{ }^{62}$ אn wn occurs (for
 has been erroneousily assimilated to the singular occurring in vv. $48,49,56$ ), and Mo Ho Ho ${ }^{3}$ (for which, however, read been entirely lost.
Man, according to the common opinion either incorrectly lengthened for $\mathcal{U}$ (from 'iss , with assimilation of the Nûn of the ground-form 'ins, which again has been attenuated from 'any from the stem אָּשָׁ), or softened directly from 'in\}. It is, however, probable that a separate stem (w' to be strong?) is to be assumed for the singular ${ }^{1}$; consequently the stem שָׁje to be sociable,

[^130]
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$\pi$ בַ daughter (from bant, and this again, according to the law stated in § 69 c ,
 comp.







עִיר city. The plur. עִרִים is scarcely syncopated from as it is pointed in Ju ıo (no doubt erroneously, in imitation of the preceding لָׁיִים ass colts), but from a kindred sing. עָ , which still occurs in proper names.

ה mouth, constr. st. (for original According to Gesenius and König (ii. 103), pi"ay) from פָּיָּ famm, fumm, bibl. Aram. xli, p. 634, assumes two forms of development from the same stem (פמו), viz.

 , פִּים , but the text is altogether corrupt. The plur. for the edges of a sword, occurs in $\operatorname{Pr} 5^{4}$; reduplicated In $_{1} 4^{15}, \psi 149^{6}$.
 רֹאֹשָׁי only in Is $15^{2}$.
a head of small cattle (sheep or goat), constr. st.
 according to De Lagarde, Uebersicht, 81 f., from a stem ( ושׁ (

ロ:ִָּ heaven ( $\$ 88 \mathrm{~d}$ ).

## § 97. Numerals. (a) Cardinal Numbers.

Brockelmann, Sem. Sprachwiss., p. i16 ff. ; Grundriss, i. 484 ff.

1. The formation of the cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 (on 1 and 2 see below) has this peculiarity, that numerals connected with a mascu-

[^131]line substantive take the feminine form, and those with a feminine substantive take the masculine form. The common explanation of this strange phenomenon used to be that the primary form of the numeral was an abstract noun in the feminine (cf. § $122 p$ ). This was originally attached in the constr. st. to the word qualified, then came to be also used in apposition to it, and finally was placed after it like an adjective. The consequence of the appositional, and finally adjectival, construction was, that for numerals connected with feminine nouns a special shorter form came to be used, whilst the original forms, with the abstract feminine ending, were used in connexion with masculine nouns, after as well as before them.

On this view the historical process would have been that originally the abstract numerals (like Latin trias, decas, Greek $\pi \in \nu \tau a ́ s, \delta \epsilon \kappa \alpha ́ s, \& c$.$) were placed$
 filiorum, עֲ עֲשֶּרֶת גָשִׁים decas mulierum. A trace of this earlier usage was seen in the examples mentioned under $c$, like
 second appositional construction it was only a step to the treatment of the abstract numeral as an adjective, filii tres. Similarly the subsequently shortened forms of the abstract numeral, which were used in connexion with feminines, might stand either in the constr. st. before, or in apposition before
 sc. filiae, or בִּנוֹת שָׁלֹ filiae, trias, or adjectivally filiae tres.

A different and much more intelligible explanation of the striking disagreement between the gender of the numeral and that of the word numbered has recently been given by Reckendorf, Die syntaktischen Verhültnisse des Arabischen, pt. ii, Leiden, 1898, p. 265 ff. He also considers that the earliest forms were abstract numerals which were placed in the constr. st. before the noun numbered, the latter depending on them in the genitive. The original form, however, of the abstract numerals from 3 to 9 is not the feminine, but the masculine, used for both genders, as it still is in the tens, $20,30, \& c$. The feminine abstract numeral was first distinguished by a special form in the numbers from 13 to 19 (see further, below) when connected with masculines, and this distinction was afterwards extended to the numbers from 3 to 10 . This explanation does not 'affect the view stated above that the appositional and adjectival use of the abstract numerals was only adopted later in addition to their use in the genitive construction.

The differentiation of the numerals (originally of common gender) into masculine and feminine forms in the second decade, was occasioned, according to Reckendorf, by the use of the abstract feminine

So long as it was felt that שְׁלֹש עֲשְׁרֵה simply meant the three of the decade，the gender of the noun numbered made no differemce．When，however，the consciousness of this meaning became weakened and the combination of units and tens came to be felt as a copulative rather than a genitive relation， it seemed suitable to connect only feminine nouns with the feminine form עֶשׂׂרֵ．New forms were therefore invented，both of the units and the tens， for use with masculine nouns．The former，however，no longer had the form of the constr．but of the absolute state，clearly showing that the con－
 On the other hand，after the extension of these new formations to the first decade，the new feminine forms readily came to be used also in the genitive construction（and therefore in the constr．st．）on the analogy of the earlier masculine forms．

Of the first two numerals，אֶחָ one，with its fem．（see § 96 ），may be recoguized，from its form and use，as an adjective，although even so it admits of such combinations as unus e montibus．The numeral two，as would be expected，appears as an abstract in the dual，but，like the other numerals，can also stand in apposition to the noun numbered．In form it always agrees with the gender of its noun．Accordingly，the numerals from i to 10 are as follows：

| I． | With the Masculine． |  | With the Feminine． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Absol． | Constr． | Absol． | Constr． |
|  | אחדר | אַחַר | אֵחַת | אֵתחת |
| 2. | שִׁexִים | שִׁנֵּ | $1{ }^{1}$ | ¢ֶׁתֶּ |
| 3. |  |  | שָׁלֹ |  |
| 4. | אַרְהָָּה | אַרִֵַּ | K＜רֵּ | אַרַ习习习 |
| 5. |  |  | חָּטֹ | חִֵֵּ |
| 6 |  | שׁׁׁׁׁׁת | שֶׁׁׁ | שֶׁׁ |
| 7. | שִׁבִעִה | שִׁexyn |  |  |
| 8. |  |  | שׁׁnex |  |
| 9. | תִּשְֶּׁ | תִּשִׁen | 䫆 |  |
| 10. | עַשְׁרָּ |  |  | צֶּשֶּר |

${ }^{1}$ Shortened from

 from assimilation of the Nûn，for in that case the word could only be （cf．Arab．tintüni）．This form does occur in the Codex Babylonicus of A．d．916， but it is only a later correction for $\boldsymbol{U}$ ，while in the Berlin MS．or．qu． 680 described by Kahle（Lpz．1902）there is no trace of the Dages．It is rather to be read Ytáyim，Yté（with Dageł lene），cf． Palestinian pronunciation（Philippi，ZDMG．xlix，p．206），and Arab．＇itnătāni （with a kind of prosthetic $\mathcal{N}$ ；cf．$\S 19 \mathrm{~m}$ ），as a further feminine form of

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 an early and correct tradition. The second explanation is sapported by the large number of examples of שנים (34). It and (60) and would be strange if the Masora required the alteration of the far
 a matter of fact even in regard to the latter forms the tradition often
 cannot therefore assume a $Q^{e} r \hat{e}$ perpetuum.
e Accordingly the numbers from in upwards are-

Masculine.
II.



Feminine.

\&c., on the analogy of the last. These numerals regularly have only the above form. In regard to their syntax, cf. § $134 f$.
Very rarely the units appear in the masc. in the constr. st., as fifteen, Ju $8^{10},{ }_{2}$ S $19^{18}$;

3. The tens from 30 to 90 are expressed by the plural forms of the units (so that the plural here always stands for ten times the unit),

 These numerals are all of common gender, and do not admit of the construct state.-In compound numerals, like 22, 23, 44, \&c., the units

[^132]may precede (two and twenty, as in Arabic and Euglish), e.g. Nu $3^{39}$, 264. Very frequently, however, the reverse order is found (twenty and two, as in Syriac, cf. French and English twenty-two), e.g. ${ }_{1} \mathrm{Ch} \mathbf{I}^{28}, 18^{5} .{ }^{1}$ In all cases the units and tens are connected by the copula, ordinarily !, but ! before numerals with the tone on the penultima, ! before - $\ddagger$, before $S^{\ell} w d$; see $\S 104 d, e, g$.

The remaining numerals are the substantives-







 תוֹּ ? (properly multitude, cf. $\mu v \rho(a ́ s)$.
 א $\mathrm{Neh} 7^{71}$ ).
40000 א אַרְבַּע רִּ Neh $7{ }^{66}$.
 אַלְפּ רְדָבָה thousands of myriads, Gn $24^{60}$.

Rem. I. The dual form which occurs in some of the units has the meaning $h$
 Is $30^{26}, \psi 12^{7}, 79^{12}$ (cf. $\S 134 r$ ). The dual thousands of duplication) is not meant to be taken in the sense of two myriads or twice the number of myriads, but in a multiplicative sense. ${ }^{3}$-Besides the plural which denotes the tens, there are also the plurals תiniwy decades (not decem) Ex $18^{21.25}$.
2. The suffixes to numerals are, as with other nouns, properly genitives, $i$ although they are translated in English as nominatives, e.g.



[^133]§ 98. Numerals. (b) Ordinal Numbers.
$a$ The ordinal numbers from 2 to 10 are formed from the corresponding cardinals by adding the termination '-(§86h), before which another '- also is generally inserted between the second and




 pressed by fivik (cf. § 27 w), from שixi head, beginning, with the termination $\dagger \mathrm{i}(\S 86 f)$. On the use of $\begin{gathered}\text { Nָ } \\ \text { as an ordinal in numbering }\end{gathered}$ the days of the month, cf. § $134 p$; in such cases as $G n 1^{5}, 2^{11}$, the meaning of first is derived solely from the context.
$b$ The feminine forms have the termination $n$--, more rarely (and only in the case of 3 and 10) ${ }_{3}$-. They are employed also to express
 Side by side with these, in the same sense, there are also forms like ind
 and are denominatives from the cardinal numbers. Cf. finally


On the expression of the other relations of number, for which the Hebrew has no special forms, see the Syntax, § I34 $q$ and $r$.

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such particles cannot stand by themselves, but are united, as prefixes, with the following word (§ 102), very much like the preformatives of the imperfect ( $\$ 47 a-d$ ).
$d$
The view that this shortening of whole words to single letters has actually taken place in the gradual course of linguistic development is rendered highly probable by the fact that similar abbreviations in later Hebrew and in Aramaic, i.e. as the development of the original Semitic speech progresses, become more and more striking and frequent. Thus the Biblical Aramaic ? becomes at a later period 7 ; in modern Arabic, e.g. hallaq (now) is from halwaqt ; lês (why?) from li-ayyi-šaiin, \&c. Cf. also the analogous cases mentioned above from the Western languages. Nevertheless, the use of the simplest particles is found already in the earliest periods of the Hebrew language, or, at any rate, in the earliest documents which have come down to us.
3. Less frequently particles are formed by composition; as

 above, above.

More frequent is the combination of two words into one without contraction,
 demonstrative pronouns, as See the lexicon under ${ }^{\aleph}$.

## § 100. Adverbs.

On demonstrative adverbs cf. Brockelmann, Grundriss; i. 323 ; on interrogative adverbs, ibid., i. 328 ; on adverbs in general, i. 492 ff.
$a$ 1. The negative $k$ not, and a few particles of place and time, as宇 there, are of obscure origin.
$b$ 2. Forms of other parts of speech, which are used adverbially without further change, are-
(a) Substantives with prepositions, e.g. בִּמְאֹ (with might) very; לִבַר לְ alone (prop. in separation, Fr. à part), with suffix 1 alone;
 מִלְעִמּת (originally in connexion with) near to, corresponding to, like, \&c., cf. § i6ı $b$.
c (b) Substantives in the accusative (the adverbial case of the Semites,
 no more, הַיוֹם (the day) to-day (cf. § 126 ), , (union) together. Several of these continued to be used, though rarely,


[^134]circum, around; others have quite ceased to be so used, e.g. long ago [Aram.: only in Ec.]; עוֹד (repetition, duration) again or further.
(c) Adjectives, especially in the feminine (corresponding to the $d$ Indo-Germanic neuter), e.g. primum, formerly (more frequently

 i. e. in the Jewish language.
(d) Verbs in the infinitive absolute, especially in Hiph'ill, which $e$ are likewise to be regarded as accusatives (§ ir $3 h$ ), e. g. הַרְהֵּ (prop. a multiplying) much [frequent], לְחַרְהֵה: [rare and late] in multitude; (mane faciendo) early; הַשְׁבּם (vespere faciendo) in the evering.
(e) Pronouns and numerals, e.g. तֶ (prop. there $=$ at this place) here, $f$ שֶודֶן
 hundred times; שיִֵֵית for the second time.
3. Some adverbs are formed by the addition of formative syllables $g$ (most frequently $\square_{\bar{T}}$ ) to substantives or adjectives, e.g. אָמְ
 ם ריקיק in vain, frustra, but also empty (from empty, emptiness,

 (from a twinkling, the $\hat{o}$ being probably obscured from an original a). ${ }^{2}$-Moreover, cf. In both these cases, the formative syllable an has been first attached to the stem, and then the feminine ending $\hat{t} t h$, which is elsewhere used to form adveros, has been added to it.
The termination $\square_{\bar{T}}$ occurs also in the formation of substantives, e.g. $/ /$ אוּלָ porch, and hence the above adverbs may equally well be regarded as nouns used adverbially, so that $\square_{--}, \square_{-}$, would correspond to $\eta_{\top}$, i ( $\$ 85$, Nos. 53, 54), cf. ' this $a m$ is an obsolete accusative ending, to be compared with the indeterminate accusative sing. in $a n$ in Arabic.

[^135]$i$ 4. A number of forms standing in very close relation to the demonstrative pronoun may be regarded as primitive adverbs, since they arise directly from a combination of demonstrative sounds. Some of these have subsequently suffered great mutilation, the extent of which, however, can now very rarely be ascertained with certainty. Such are e.g. Nָ then, here (according to Barth, Sprachwiss. Abhandlungen, p. 16, formed from the two demonstrative elements hin
 these adverbs, see the Lexicon), and especially the interrogative at
 This $H \bar{e}$ interrogativum is perhaps shortened from הی, which is still used in Arabic, and, according to the view of a certain school of Masoretes, occurs also in Hebrew in Dt $3^{2}{ }^{6}$. ${ }^{1}$
$k$ The $\boldsymbol{i}$ interrogative takes-(1) Hateph-Palhah generally before non-gutturals (even before 7), with a firm vowel, e.g. הְשָׁmast thou set? see the interrogative clause, § 150 c (
$l$ (2) Before a consonant with $\check{S}^{e} w a ̂$, usually Pathah $h$ without a following Dageš
 passages), Pathach with a following Dageš forte, e.g. הַבְּרֶרֶ num in via, Ez 200,

$m$ (3) Before gutturals, not pointed with either Qames or Hateph-Qames, it takes

 In הָאִישׁ Nu 16 $6^{22}$, the Masora intends the article ; read and cf. Dt $20^{19}$; in Ec $3^{\text {™ }}$ read considerations.
$n$ (4) The $\boldsymbol{i}$ takes $S^{e}$ ghol before gutturals pointed with Qames or (as in $\mathrm{Ju}^{9}{ }^{\text {gr. }}$ )
 (cf. the analogous instances in $\S 22 c, \S 35 k, \S 63 k$ ). The place of this interrogative particle is always at the beginning of the clause [but see Jb $34^{31}$, Neh $13^{27}$, Jer $22^{15}$, where one or more words are prefixed for emphasis].
O 5. Some adverbs occur also in connexion with suffixes, thus צִשְׁך thou art there, 3 rd sing. masc. ${ }^{2}$ (but see note below), and plur.




[^136]
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i. e. the command of ${ }^{*}$ ) according to; 3 (in the concern of) on account of; ; ?

$$
c
$$

2. Substantives used adverbially very frequently become preposi-
 without, בְּעוֹר (in the duration of) during; בְּרְ , בְּרִי (according to the requirement of) for, according to.

## § 102. Prefixed Prepositions.

$a$ 1. Of the words mentioned in § ror, prom, out of, frequently occurs as a prefix ( $\$ 99 c$ ), with its $N u n$ assimilated to the following consonant (by means of Dageצ forte), e.g. بִּעַר out of a forest.
$b$ Rem. The separate polalway with a following Maqqeph) is usual (but not necessary, cf. Ju $20^{14}$ with verse $15, E z 43^{6}$, \&c.) only before the article, e.g.

 $\psi 104^{7}\left(2 \mathrm{~K}_{2} 3^{36}\right.$ before 7 ; also before $p$ in $\left.\psi 18^{49}\right)$, and elsewhere in the later books (as in Aramaic) ${ }^{1}$; there is besides a poetic by-form Is $3^{111}$. Its form is most commonly however, be omitted in letters which have sewâ (cf. $\S 20 \mathrm{~m}$ ). With a follow-
 (according

 $\S 28 b$ and $\S 63 q$. The closed syllable here is inconsistent with the required virtual sharpening of the $ה$; probably מִהיוֹת is merely due to the analogy of
 according to $\S 22 \mathrm{~s}$.
2. There are also three other particles, the most commonly used prepositions and the particle of comparison, which have been reduced by abbreviation ( $(99 c)$ to a single prefixed consonant with $S^{\zeta}$ e $w \hat{a}$ (but see below, and § 103 e ), viz.:
$\exists$ [poet. in $\mathfrak{F}$ ] in, at, with.
[poet. in ['] towards, (belonging) to, for, Lat. ad.
? stantive with the meaning of matter, kind, instar).
With regard to the pointing it is to be observed that-
(a) The Šewâ mobile, with which the above prefixes are usually pronounced, has resulted from the weakening of a short vowel (an original $\ddot{a}$, according


[^137]in the form of an $\check{\imath}$, attenuated from $\breve{a}$ : before a Hateph the prefix takes the
 (sometimes with the syllable subsequently closed, cf. $\S 28 b$, and the infinitives with $\zeta \S 6_{3} i$ ): before weak consonants it follows the rule given in $\S 24 c$, e.g.


 , לאמֹר, to say, for see § 23 d .
(b) When the prefixes precede the article, the $i$ is almost always dropped, $e$ and they take its vowel. See further in $\S 35 \mathrm{n}$.
(c) Immediately before the tone-syllable, i.e. before monosyllables and dis- $f$ syllables with the tone on the penultima (in the fore-tone), they take Qames $f$ (undoubtedly a lengthening of an original $\breve{a}$, cf. $\S 26 e, \S 28 a$ ), but only in the following cases:


 connected with another word (especially its subject, §II5e), and consequently, as being in a sort of constr. state, loses the principal tone, e.g. לִצ Ex 191,
 Ex $5^{21}$ the $\bar{a}$ is protected by the secondary tone; before infinitives of verbs

(bb) before many pronominal forms, e.g. בּדֶT (so also in $1 S 21^{10}$; not

 see § $103 e$;
(cc) $\zeta_{p}$ before monosyllables or fore-toned nouns in such combinations as $h$ mouth to mouth, $2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{Io}^{21}$, פֶּה לָפֶה完 for a trouble, Is $\mathbf{I}^{14}$, but always before the principal pause. The instructive example in $\mathrm{Dt}_{1} 7^{8}$ also shows that the punctuation $\zeta_{T}$ is only possible with at least the lesser pause after it; in Is $28^{10.13}$ the ${ }_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}$ is twice repeated, even before the small and smallest disjunctives;
(dd) in certain standing expressions, which have become stereotyped almost $i$

 $\mathrm{Lv} 19^{28}, \mathrm{Nu} 5^{2}, 9^{10}$.

 בַּמֶּ $1 \mathrm{~K} 22^{16}$, in close connexion, and at a greater distance from the pause. The $S^{e}$ ghol in these forms arises from a modification of the original $\ddot{u}$, while the $D$ is sharpened in order to maintain the original $\check{a}$ of the prefixes.

 lengthence to $\bar{a}$ ) for what? why? Before the gutturals $K, \pi, y, y$, לָׁ is used

 not gutturals,




 but is audible after (for Dt $10^{17}, \psi 13^{63}$, the article, not $ה$ interrog., is intended; the only example
 Hence the rule, משֶׁׁ מiֹצִיא Moses brought out (i.e. D, ש, in make the $\mathcal{N}$ audible), וֹכָלָב פַכְנִים and Caleb brought in (i.e. 1, כ, ל, ב allow it to quiesce).'-As regards the other plural forms of



## § 103. Prepositions with Pronominal Suffixes and in the Plural Form.

$a$ 1. As all prepositions were originally nouns (§ 101) in the accusative, they may be united with the noun-suffixes (\$91 b-l), e.g. אֲצֻ (prop. at my side) by me, אִּ (in my proximity) with me, חַחּ instead of them, like the Latin mea causa, for my sake.
b Rem. I. The preposition (usually -Nֵ) near, with, is distinguished from תヘ̣ (see below, and §II7a, note 4), the sign of the definite accusative ( $\S_{117 a}$ ), in its connexion with suffixes, by a difference of pointing, the


 ining from him, I K $2^{7}$; ; from $\hat{a}$ ) before the light suffixes, but before grave suffixes is pointed with $S^{e}$ ghol. This $S^{\ominus}$ ghôl is to be explained, with Praetorius, ZDMG.lv. 369 f., as the modification of an $\breve{a}$ which again was shortened from original $\hat{a}$ (in 'áth $\hat{\imath}$,' $\hat{a} h h \hat{o}$, \&c.) in a closed syllable ('ăth-hem, \&c.). The same shortening and modification
 \&c. When not in close connexion, the toneless $\underset{\sim}{N}$ becomes tone-long $\pi \underset{\sim}{n}$, e.g.

Sing.
1.



Plur.
;
אֶתֶּם you.



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 occurs in $2 \mathrm{~K}_{4^{2}}$, Ct $2^{13}$, cf. § $\left.9 \mathrm{I} e\right]$ ), $\left\{\mathfrak{m}, \& \mathrm{c}\right.$.; except that for the $3^{\mathrm{rd}}$
 Ex $30^{4}, 3^{61}, \mathrm{Hb} \mathbf{1}^{16}$; and for the feminine, besides
 Masora, לis found fifteen times for is conversely in is $\mathbf{S}^{16}, 20^{2}$ ib for $\mathfrak{i}$ ), e.g. Ex $21^{8}$, I $\mathrm{S}^{3}$, Is $9^{2}, \psi 100^{3}$ (and, as has been conjectured, also $\mathrm{Jb}_{4} \mathrm{I}^{4}$ ); cf. Delitzsch on $\downarrow{ }_{100^{3}}$. - In Nu $3^{24}{ }^{42}, \mathrm{Zc} 5^{11}$,
 a following tone-syllable; cf. $\S 23 k$, and the analogous cases of the loss of Mappí in $\S 5^{8} g$, § $9 \mathrm{I} e$ ).
(b) כְּ with Pronominal Suffixes.

Sing.


Plur.




[^138]Sing.
 also [ 6 times] from me.


 , pench prop. according to what $I$, for as $I$ ) is, in poetry, appended to the three simple prefixes appear as independent words, equivalent in meaning to $\underset{\substack{\text {, }}}{\substack{\text {, } \\ \text {, }}}$, Poetry is here distinguished from prose by the use of longer forms; in the case of $\mathfrak{i}$, on the other land, it prefers the shorter, which resemble the Syriac and Arabic.
The form
 in Ez 18 14. $^{14} \cdot$ Cf. Frensdorff, Massora Magna, p. 234 ff.-For requires gives
 by a reduplication of מן, from an original מנמני, just as מִן from him, from ,מנמנ-הו, while whentical in form with מנמ-נו from from from fram her, goes back to מנמנה. Far simpler, however, is Mayer Lambert's explanation
 forms of the suffixes are to be explained on the analogy of § 1000 .-The bracketed form מִּ others, writes Hupfeld, and others (following Simonis) as a substantive ( $p=$ portion)...The

 best authorities, instead of the ordinary reading מיֵה) only in Ez 1647.62.

[^139]$n$ 3. Several prepositions, especially those which express relations of space and time, are (like the German wegen) properly plural nouns (for the reason, see § $124 a$ ), and are, therefore, joined with the pronominal suffixes in the form of the plural construct state, just like other plural nouns ( $\$$ 9I $g$ ). On the other band, the apparent connexion of



o Without suffixes these prepositions are-
אַחֵר, more frequently (prop. hinder parts) behind, after.
-אֶ, ${ }^{2}$ poet. [ 4 times in Job] also sֻל (region, direction), towards, to, according to.
(interval) between; the suffixes indicating the singular are added to the singular is, however, marked with a point as critically doubtful ; בֵּינָי, which occurs three times, is only the Masoretic $Q^{e} r \hat{e}$ for $i$ e.g. in $\mathrm{Gn} 3^{{ }^{36}}$ ). On the other hand, the suffixes indicating a plural are attached to the plural forms

סָבִיב (circuit) around, as a preposition, always has the plural form,
 the fem. סְבִיבוֹת (surroundings). In $\mathrm{Ez} 43{ }^{17}$ סָדבִיב אוֹתָּ
 must be due to some textual error].



 to ascend), poet.

ת

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(in the not yet) earlier, before, for which מִֶֶּׂ is also used. On the combination of two particles to express complex ideas (e.g. אַּחּיִּ added to this, that $=$ much more), see the Syntax, § 163 f.
$b$ (c) Prepositions, which with the addition of the conjunction


 quence of the fact that, for the reason that, because. Sometimes, however, the conjunction in such cases is omitted, and the preposition


So, at any rate, according to our linguistic principles. It would, however, be more correct to say, that instead of the intermediary succeeding sentence is regarded as one substantival idea, under the immediate government of the preposition. In the same way, all prepositions governing the gerund in English may be paraphrased by conjunctions with the finite verb, see §§ 114 and II5, passim.
2. Besides those already mentioned, there are certain other small words now used as conjunctions, of which the derivation or original meaning is altogether obscure, thus iא or, if (also or before the second member of a double question), $\mathfrak{N}$ also, ! and, and others.
d Rem. The pointing of the ! (originally !, as still before Hateph Pathah and-with a following Dage forte-in wāw consecutive of the imperfect; cf.
 but as being a weak consonant, the wāw copulative has some further peculiarities:
(a) Usually it takes simple Še $w \underset{a}{a}$ (!).
(b) Before words which begin with a guttural having a compound $\breve{S}^{e} w a \hat{a}$, it takes the vowel with which the $\check{S}^{e} w \hat{a}$ is compounded (according to $\S 28 \mathrm{~b}$ ),

 see § 102 m ; on such cases as $1 \mathbf{~ J b ~} 4^{2}$, cf. § 28 b.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ (c) Before words with simple $\dot{S}^{e} w a$ under the first consonant (except in the cases under $f$ ), the $W \bar{a} w$ becomes the vowel $\hat{u}$ (cf. $\S 26 a$ ), e.g. . so also (except in the case under $g$ ) before the cognate labials $\beth, D, \square$, hence
 (e.g. ${ }^{\text {M }}$ Gn $2^{12}$ ), cf. $\S 10 \mathrm{~g}$.
$f$ (d) With a following ! the ! coalesces to form '! according to § 24 b, as and let him be. On the peculiar punctuation of the wāw copulative before forms
 cf. $\S 63 q$.
$\boldsymbol{g}$ (e) Immediately before the tone-syllable it frequently takes Qames, like
 (but cf. also וֹקָ 2 K $22^{90}$ ), e.g. $21^{12}$ (on the other hand, in verse 20

 also (with Tiphha) Gn $33^{13}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 15^{12}$. The very frequent connexion of nouns
 rhythm, for even in such cases the Wäw must immediately precede the tonesyllable, which must be marked by a disjunctive accent, e. g. Mn $8^{22}$ (see also the previous examples); Gn $13^{14}$ (thrice); Ex $25^{3}$
范 thus and thus; Est the end of the verse,
 closely connected with the following predicate. Also with three words Is $24^{17}$. On the other hand, the rapid pronunciation ! occurs before a conjunctive accent (and, when farther removed from the principal pause, even with the smaller disjunctives, in spite of a following tone-syllable), e.g. צֻאֹ
 the $\prod_{T}$ is intended to ensure the slow and solemn recitation of the promise,
 For the same rhythmical reason ! (not ! ) is used regularly with certain monosyllables which, by their nature, lean more closely upon the following
 gadol, $2 \mathrm{~K} 5^{17}$ ), and others.

## § 105. Interjections.

1. Among the interjections some (as in all langaages) are simply $a$ natural sounds, or, as it were, vocal gestures, called forth involuntarily by certain impressions or sensations, e.g. (Ez
 (Gn $50^{17}$ (נָּ Jn $I^{14}, \psi$ II $^{4}$; also


2. Others, however, originally expressed independent ideas, and $b$ become interjections only by rapid pronunciation and by usage, e.g.
 הָהב (prop. give, imperative of


 and the plural, which proves that they have become quite stereotyped as interjections.
'ヨִּ (see the Lexicon) I beseech, hear me! a demand, warning, or entreaty, and always placed after the expression to which it belongs. ${ }^{2}$
${ }^{1}$ נָ serves to express the most various shades of expression, which are discussed in the various parts of the syntax. It is used especially ( $a$ ) after the imperative, either in commands or entreaty, see § 110 d ; (b) with the imperfect, either in the cohortative ( $\$ 108 b$ ) or jussive ( $\$ 109 b$ ) ; (c) once with

 єimote, if, in a deprecatory sense, expressive of politeness or modesty. In Nu in $2^{13} \mathrm{~N}$ stands after a noun; but we ought certainly to read In polite language this particle is used constantly in all these ways, Gn $18^{8.4}$, $19^{7.8 .19}$, and $5^{017}$.
${ }^{2}$ Against the usual view which regards ${ }_{\mathrm{N}}$ as a hortatory particle ( $=$ up ! come! analogous to the original imperatives לָכה and the Ethiopic $n a ̆ \hat{a} \hat{a}$, properly hither, also come!), P. Haupt, in the Johns Hopkins University Circulars, xiii, no. II4, p. Io9, justly observes that we should then expect the particle to be prefixed to the imperative, \&c. He proposes to describe ${ }_{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{J}$ as an emphatic particle. Haupt's suggested identification of this ${ }_{\mathrm{T}}$ with the Assyrian, Arabic, and Ethiopic particle $m \bar{a}$ (which is also an enclitic of emphasis), and ultimately with the interrogative $m \bar{a}$, we shall not discuss here.

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or longer duration, were terminated in the past, and hence are finally concluded, viz.:
(a) Corresponding to the perfect proper in Latin and the English perfect definite, in assertions, negations, confirmations, interrogations, \&c., e.g. Gn $18^{15}$ then Sarah denied, saying, I laughed not (ib
 who told thee . . . ? Cf. $3^{13.14 .17 .22}$. Also pointing to some undefined time in the past, e.g. Is $66^{8}$ ת prewho hath (ever yet) heard such a thing?

C Rem. In opposition to this express use of the perfect to emphasize the completion of an event, the imperfect is not infrequently used to emphasize that which is still future, e.g. Jos $1^{5}$ as I was ( (Nָ:
d (b) As a simple tempus historicum (corresponding to the Greek aorist) in narrating past events, e. g. Gn $4^{4}$ and Abel, he also brought (הֵבִיא), \&c.; Gn $7^{19}$ the waters did prevail (in
 actions, IS $18^{30}$.
e Rem. As the above examples indicate, the perfect of narration occurs especially at the head of an entire narrative (Jb $1^{1}$; cf. Dn $2^{1}$ ) or an independent sentence (e.g. Gn $7^{11.13}$ ), but in co-ordinate sentences, as a rule, only when the verb is separated from the copulative) by one or more words (cf. above Gn $4^{4}$ and $7^{19}$ ). In other cases, the narrative is continued in the imperfect consecutive, according to §III $\alpha$. The direct connexion of the narrative perfect with 1 copulative (not to be confounded with the perfect consecutive proper, § II 2) agrees rather with Aramaic syntax (cf. Kautzsch, Gramm. des Biblisch-Aram., § 7 I , I b). On the examples (which are in many respects doubtful) in the earlier texts, see § in $2 p p-u u$.
(c) To represent actions, \&c., which were already completed in the past, at the time when other actions or conditions took place (pluperfect), ${ }^{1}$ e.g. i S $28^{3}$ now Samuel was (long since) dead ${ }^{2} \ldots$ and Saul had put away (הֵיר) those that had familiar spirits. . . out of the land. Both these statements, being as it were in parentheses, merely assign a reason for the narrative beginning at verse 6. Cf. $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{S}} 9^{15}, 25^{21}$, $2 \mathrm{~S} 18^{18} .-\mathrm{Gn} 20^{18}$ ( for the Lord had fast closed up, \&c.); $2^{30}, 3 \mathrm{I}^{19.34}$, Dt $2^{10}$; and in a negative statement, Gn $2^{5}$ for the Lord God had not (up to that time) caused it to rain, \&c. This is especially frequent, from the nature of the case, in relative, causal, and temporal clauses, when the main clause contains a tense referring to the past, e.g. Gn $2^{2}$ and he rested. . . from all his work which he had made (עָָּה); Gn $7^{9}$,

[^141] went near, \&c.; so also in clauses which express the completion or incompleteness of one action, \&c., on the occurrence of another, as in Gn $24^{15}, 27^{30}, \& c$.; cf. § $164 b$, with the note, and $c$.
2. To represent actions, events, or states, which, although completed $g$ in the past, nevertheless extend their influence into the present (in English generally rendered by the present):
(a) Expressing facts which were accomplished long before, or conditions and attributes which were acquired long before, but of which the effects still remain in the present (present perfect), e.g. $\psi 1^{11}$
 M I have spread forth my hands (and still keep them spread forth). This applies particularly to a large number of perfects (almost exclusively of intransitive ${ }^{1}$ verbs, denoting affections or states of the mind) which in English can be rendered only by the present, or, in the case mentioned above under $f$, by the imperfect. ${ }^{2}$ Thas, I know (prop. I have perceived, have experienced) $\mathrm{Jb}_{9}{ }^{2}, 10^{13}$, לא יָּעְ $I$ know not $\mathrm{Gn} 4^{9}$, \&c.; on the other hand, e.g. in $\mathrm{Gn} 28^{18}$, $\mathrm{Nu} 22^{34}$,



 שָׁju I hate $\psi 3^{17} \mathbf{1}^{7}$;
 righteous $\mathrm{Jb} 34^{5}$; ${ }^{\text {- }} I$ have decided to requite $1 \mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{T}} 5^{2}$.—We may further include a number of verbs which express bodily characteristics





Rem. To the same category probably belong also the perfects after עַר־מַתַ $h$ Ex $10^{3}$ how long hast thou already been refusing (and refusest still . . . ? which really amounts to how long woilt thou refuse?), $\psi 80^{5}, \operatorname{Pr}{ }^{122}$ (co-ordinate with the imperf.), and after עַ עַ Ex $16^{68}, \mathrm{Hb}^{28} \mathbf{1}^{2}$.
(b) In direct narration to express actions which, although really $i$ only in process of accomplishment, are nevertheless meant to be repre-

[^142]sented as already accomplished in the conception of the speaker, e.g.
 Jer $22^{5}$; different context in ver. $\mathrm{r}_{5}$, I have counselled); ; ָָּphen (prop. I say) $I$ decide ( $I$ consider as hereby settled) $2 \mathrm{~S} 19^{30} ; I$ declare $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{22}, 33^{20}$.
$k$ (c) To express facts which have formerly taken place, and are still of constant recurrence, and hence are matters of common experience (the Greek gnomic aorist), e.g. $\psi 9^{11}$ for thou, Lord, hast not forsaken
 (
$l$ Rem. In almost all the cases discussed in No. 2 (included under the English present) the imperfect can be used instead of the perfect, wherever the action or state in question is regarded, not as already completed, but as still continuing or just taking place (see § 107 a ). Thus,
 frequently happens that the imperfect corresponds to such perfects in poetic or prophetic parallelism, e. g. Is $5^{12}, \psi 2^{1 f}, \operatorname{Pr} 1^{22}, \mathrm{Jb} 3^{17}$.
$m$ 3. To express future actions, when the speaker intends by an express assurance to represent them as finished, or as equivalent to accomplished facts:
(a) In contracts or other express stipulations (again corresponding to the English present, and therefore closely related to the instances noted under $i$ ), e.g. Gn $23^{11}$ the field I give ( $4^{82}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{1}{ }^{21}, 24^{23}, \mathrm{Jer}_{4} 0^{4}$; in a threat, $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{S}^{216}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 5^{6}$ (unless, with Wellhausen, יְיִירִך is to be read).-Especially in promises made by God, Gn $\mathrm{I}^{29}, \mathrm{I} 5^{18}, \mathrm{I}^{20}, \mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{I}^{2}$.
$n$ (b) To express facts which are undoubtedly imminent, and, therefore, in the imagination of the speaker, already accomplished (perfectum

 $\operatorname{Pr} 4^{2}$. Even in interrogative sentences, $\mathrm{Gn} 18^{12}, \mathrm{Nu}_{1} 7^{28}, 23^{10}, \mathrm{Ju} 9^{9.12}$, $\mathrm{Zc} 4^{10}(?), \operatorname{Pr} 22^{20} .{ }^{2}$ This use of the perfect occurs most frequently in prophetic language (perfectum propheticum). The prophet so trans-

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Knudtzon (see above, Rem. on § 106 a), comparing the Ass.-Bab. usage, would prefer the term present rather than imperfect, on the ground that the tense expresses what is either actually or mentally present. In any case, the essential difference between the perfect and imperfect consists, he argues, in this, that the perfect simply indicates what is actually complete, while the imperfect places the action, \&c., in a more direct relation to the judgement or feeling of the speaker.

## More precisely the imperfect serves-

1. In the sphere of past time:
(a) To express actions, \&c., which continued throughout a longer



 $\left.139^{13}, \mathrm{Jb} 3^{11}, 4^{12.15 t}, 10^{10}\right\}, 15^{7!}$-very frequently alternating with a perfect (especially with a frequentative perfect; cf. $\mathrm{Nu} 9^{15-23}$ and § II2e), or when the narration is continued by means of an imperfect consecutive. ${ }^{2}$

C Rem. I. The imperfect is frequently used in this way after the particles
 Moses, \&c.; Nu $21^{17}, \mathrm{Dt} 4^{41}$, Jos $10^{12}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{K} 3^{16}, 8^{1}, \psi \mathbf{1 2 6}^{2}, \mathrm{Jb} 38^{21}$. (The perfect is used after $\mathbb{N}_{T}$ when stress is to be laid on the fact that the action has really taken place, and not upon its gradual accomplishment or duration in the past, e. g. Gn $4^{26}$,
 I $S 3^{3.7}$, always in the sense of our pluperfect. (In Gn $24^{15}$ instead of the perf. ,כִּלּל , the imperf. should be read, as in verse 45 ; so also in IS $3^{7}$ [
 Ex $1^{12^{34}}$, Jos $3^{1}$ ), e.g. Jer $1^{5}$ חקּ $4^{150}, \operatorname{Ru} 3^{14}$ (perhaps also in $\psi 90^{2}$ an imperf. was intended instead of $\mathfrak{i l}$ cf. Wellhausen on $2 \mathrm{~S}_{3^{2}}$; but note also $\operatorname{Pr} \delta^{25}$, in a similar context, before the mountains were settled, הָטְבָּעוֹ, the predicate being separated from

${ }^{1}$ Cf. the Mêša' inscription, 1. 5, בי יאנף כמש בארצה for Chemosh was angry with his land. As Driver, Tenses, 3rd ed., § 27,1 a, remarks, this vivid realization of the accomplishment of the action is especially frequent in poetic and prophetic style.
${ }^{2}$ According to the Masora such imperfects occur in Is $10^{13}$ bis (where, however, إָאָ might also mean $I$ am wont to remove, \&c.), Is $4^{83}, 57^{17}, \psi{ }^{18} 8^{98 a}$, also (according to $\S 49$ c) in $2 \mathrm{~S}^{10}$ and $\mathrm{Ez} \mathrm{I}^{16}$. In some other cases ! is no doubt a dogmatic emendation for $!$ (imperf. consec.) in order to represent historical statements as promises; cf. Is $42^{6}, 43^{28}$ [contrasted with $42^{25}$ ], $5^{2}{ }^{2 b i s}, 63^{8}{ }^{\text {fr. }}$ and the note on $\S 53 p$.
${ }^{3}$ After ${ }_{\mathrm{T}}$ then (to announce future events) the imperf. is naturally used in the sense of a future, Gn $24^{41}, E x 2^{48}, \mathrm{Mi} 3^{4}, \mathrm{Zp} 3^{9}, \psi 5^{121}$.
hand, with the perf., e.g. Jos $2^{22}$. As after $\mathbb{N}$, so also after עַ the imperf. may be used, according to the context, in the gefise of our future, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K}^{2}{ }^{9}$, Is $65^{24}$, Jb $10^{21}$; after ${ }^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}$ e.g. Is $22^{14}$. The mperf. is used in the sense of our present after in Ex $9^{30}, 10^{7}$.
2. Driver (Tenses ${ }^{3}$, p. 35 f.) rightly lays stress upon the inherent distinction $d$ between the participle as expressing mere duration, and the imperfect as expressing progressive duration (in the present, past, or future). Thus the words
 a continuous, uninterrupted stream, but יִּ describes how the parting of its waters is always taking place afresh. In the same way Is $6^{4}$ new clouds of smoke. Also those actions, \&c., which might be regarded in themselves as single or even momentary, are, as it were, broken up by the imperfect into their component parts, and so pictured as gradually completing themselves. Hence represents the Egyptians, in a vivid, poetic description, as being swallowed up one after another, and יָּנְ
(b) To express actions, \&c., which were repeated in the past, either $e$ at fixed intervals or occasionally (the modus rei repetitae), e.g. Jb i ${ }^{5}$
 festivities) ; $4^{3!}, 22^{6 f}, 23^{11}, 29^{7.9 .12 t!}$, Gn $6^{4}, 29^{2}, 33^{08}, 42^{31.39}(I$ used to bear the loss of it), Ex $\mathrm{I}^{12}, 19^{19}, 33^{7 \text { It. }}$ ( $\mathrm{n}^{2}$. used to take every time),
 $27^{9}, 2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{in}^{22}, \mathbf{1 2}^{3}, 13^{18}, \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{K}} 5^{25}$ (of tribute repeated year by year), $10^{5}$, $13^{33}, 14^{28}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{4}{ }^{3}, 8^{29}, 13^{20}, 25^{14}$, Jer $36^{63}, \psi 42^{5}, 44^{3}, 78^{15,40}, 103^{7}$, Est $2^{14}$; even in a negative dependent clause, I K $18{ }^{10}$.
2. In the sphere of present time, again
(a) To express actions, events, or states, which are continued for a shorter or longer time, ${ }^{1}$ e. g. Gn $37^{15}$ what seekest thou?

 saith the Lord, Is $\mathbf{I}^{11,18}, \& c .$, cf. $40^{1}$. So especially to express facts known by experience, which occur at all times, and consequently hold good at any moment, e.g. Pr $15^{50}$ a wise son maketh a glad father; hence especially frequent in Job and Proverbs. In an interrogative sentence, e.g. Jb $4^{17}$ is mortal man just before God $\}$ In a negative sentence, $\mathrm{Jb} 4^{18}$, \&c.
(b) To express actions, \&c., which may be repeated at any time, $\mathcal{E}$ including therefore the present, or are customarily repeated on a given occasion (cf. above, e), e. g. Dt $\mathrm{I}^{14}$ as bees do (are accustomed to

[^144] $\psi \mathbf{1}^{3}$. So again (see $f$ ) especially to express facts known by experience which may at any time come into effect again, e.g. Ex $23^{8}$ a gift blindeth ( $7 \times \underline{y}$ Of the same kind also is the imperfect in such relative clauses (see § I 55), as Gn $49^{27}$ Benjamin is is וְאב יְטרף a wolf that ravineth (properly, is accustomed to ravin). Finally, compare also the formulae is (wont to be) said (to introduce proverbial expressions) Gn $10^{9}$, $22^{14}, \& c$. ; לא-יָּשֶׁה הן it is not (wont to be) so done (and hence may not, shall not be, see $u$ ), Gn $29^{26}, 20^{9}, 34^{7}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 13^{12}$.
$h$ (c) To express actions, \&c., which although, strictly speaking, they are already finished, are regarded as still lasting on into the present time, or continuing to operate in it, e.g. Gn $32^{30}$ wherefore is it that
 such cases, naturally, the perfect is also admissible, and is sometimes

 camest thou? The imperfect represents the coming as still in its last stage, whereas the perfect represents it as an accomplished fact.
3. In the sphere of future time. To express actions, \&c., which are to be represented as about to take place, and as continuing a shorter or longer time in the future, or as being repeated; thus:
(a) From the standpoint of the speaker's present time, e.g. Ex $4^{1}$


$k$ (b) In dependent clauses to represent actions, \&c., which from some point of time in the past are to be represented as future, e. g. Gn $43^{7}$ could we in any wise know that he would say ( 7 רַאי') ? $2^{19}, 43^{25}$,

 children which slould be born (qui nascituri essent; the imperfect here with the collateral idea of the occurrence being repeated in the future).
$l$ (c) To represent a futurum exactum; cf. Is $4^{4}, 6^{11}$ (co-ordinated with a perfect used in the same sense, see $\S 1060$ ) ; so also sometimes after the temporal particles עֲ, $\psi \times 132^{3}$, and $\mathrm{Nu} 20^{17}$, \&c.
m
4. Finally to the sphere of future time belong also those cases in which the (modal) imperfect serves to express actions, events, or states, the occurrence of which is to be represented as willed (or not

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$q$ (3) In dependent clauses after final conjunctions (§ 165 ) , as $\mathrm{Gn} \mathrm{II}^{7}$ (


 duced by 角 in § rog g .-In Lv $9^{6}$ such an imperfect (or jussive? see the examples in § $109 f$ ) is added to the expression of the command by an asyndeton, and in La $1^{19}$ to the rincipal clause simply by !:
 also $\mathrm{La} 3^{26}$, it is good and let him hope, i. e. that he should hope); so after an interrogative clause, Ex $2^{7}$. Finally also in a relative clause,

$r$ (b) To express actions, \&c., which are to be represented as possibly taking place or not taking place (sometimes corresponding to the potential of the classical languages, as also to our periphrases with can, may, should ${ }^{\dagger}$ ). More particularly such imperfects are used-
$\boldsymbol{s}$ (1) In a permissive sense, e. g. Gn $2^{16}$ of every tree of the garden
 $\mathrm{Lv} 21^{3}, 2^{2}, \mathrm{Jb} 21^{3}$. In the ist pers. $\psi 5^{8}, 22^{18}$ ( may, or can, tell); in a negative sentence, e.g. $\psi 5^{5}$.
$t$ (i) In interrogative sentences, e. g. $\operatorname{Pr} 20^{9}$ quis dixerit?
 in them 9 Is $33^{14}, 45^{1}, 24^{3}$, Ec $5^{5}$. So especially in a question expressing surprise after $7 \mathbb{N}$, e.g. $\mathrm{Gn}_{3} 39^{9}$ how then can $I \ldots 4^{48}$, Is $9^{11}, \psi \mathbf{1} 37^{4}$, and even with regard to some point of time in the past, looking forward from which an event might have been expected to
 Cf. $2 \mathrm{~S} 3^{33}$ (nimp was Abner to die as a fool, i.e. was he destined to die ...?), and so probably also $\mathrm{Gn} 34^{\text {si }}$ (slould he deal ... ?). Very closely connected with this is the use of the imperfect-
$u$ (3) In a consecutive clause depending on an interrogative clause,




[^145]Rem. In passages like IS $11^{5}, \psi 8^{5}, 114^{5}$, the context shows that the $V$ imperfect corresponds rather to our present. In such sentences the perfect also is naturally used in referring to completed actions, e.g. Gn $\mathbf{2 0}^{10}$, Ju 18 $8^{23}$, $2 \mathrm{~S} \boldsymbol{7}^{18}$, Is $22^{1}$.
(4) In negative sentences to express actions, \&c., which cannot or w should not happen, e.g. Gn $32^{13}$ nich numbered for multitude; $20^{9}$ deeds ( be done (cf. above, $g$ ); $\psi 5^{5}$.
(5) In conditional clauses (the modus conditionalis corresponding $x$ to the Latin present or imperfect conjunctive) both in the protasis
 yea, though I walk (or had to walk) ... I fear (or I would fear) no evil; Jb $9^{20}$ though I be righteous, mine own mouth shall condenn me. After a perfect in the protasis, e.g. Jb $23^{10}$. Very frequently also in an apodosis, the protasis to which must be supplied from the context, e. g. $\mathrm{Jb} 5^{8}$ but as for me, $I$ would seek unto God (were I in thy place); $3^{13.18}, 14^{14 \mathrm{f}}, \psi 55^{13}, \mathrm{Ru} \mathrm{I}^{12}$. However, some of the imperfects in these examples are probably intended as jussive forms. Cf. § ro9 $h$.

## § 108. Use of the Cohortative.

The cohortative, i. e. according to $\oint 48$, the ist pers. ${ }^{1}$ sing. or $a$ plur. of the imperfect lengthened by the ending $\boldsymbol{i}_{T_{T}},{ }^{2}$ represents in general an endeavour directed expressly towards a definite object. While the corresponding forms of the indicative rather express the mere announcement that an action will be undertaken, the cohortative lays stress on the determination underlying the action, and the personal interest in it.

Its uses may be divided into-

1. The cohortative standing alone, or co-ordinated with another $b$ cohortative, and frequently strengthened by the addition of the particle
(a) To express self-encouragement, e.g. Ex $3^{3}$ 'גָסָרָה־נָּא וֹא $I$ will turn aside now, and see . . . ! So especially as the result of inward deliberation (in soliloquies), e.g. Gn $18^{21}, 3^{2^{21}}$ (rarely so used after - Ss, Gn $21^{16}$ let me not look...! Jer $18^{18}$ ), and also as a more or less emphatic statement of a fixed determination, e.g. Is $5^{1} I$ will sing ${ }^{3}$ $\ldots!5^{6}, 31^{8}$. Cf. also $\mathrm{Gn}_{4} 6^{30}$ now let me die ( $I$ am willing to die),

[^146]since $I$ have seen thy face; and $\psi 3 \mathbf{1}^{8}$. In the ist pers. plur. the cohortative includes a summons to others to help in doing something,

$c$ (b) To express a wish, or a request for permission, that one should
 pass through (let me pass through)! Nu $20^{17}$ נַעְ:ְּרָה־ may we be allowed to pass through! Jer $40^{15}$ let me go, I pray thee! \&c.; $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 6^{9}$;


d 2. The cohortative in dependence on other moods, as well as in conditional sentences: (a) In dependence (with wāw copulative; $\psi 9^{15}$
 intended consequence, e.g. Gn $27^{4}$ bring it to me, וְאוֹת eat, prop. then will I eat; Gn $19^{5}, 23^{4}, 24^{56}, 27^{25}, 29^{21}, 33^{054}, 42^{34}, 49^{1}$, Dt $3^{2^{1}}$, Ho $6^{1}, \psi 2^{8}, 39^{14}, \mathrm{Jb} 10^{20} Q^{e} r \hat{e}$; Is $5^{19}$ and let the counsel of the Holy One of Israel draw nigh and come, וְיָרָָה that we may know $(i t)!$ Gn. $26^{28}$, I S $_{27} 7^{5}$. Also after negative sentences, Gn $18^{30.33}$, $\mathrm{Ju} 6^{39}$, and after interrogative sentences, $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K}_{22^{7}}$, Is $40^{25}, 41^{26}, \mathrm{Am} 8^{5}$. $e$ (b) In conditional sentences (with or without C ) to express a contingent intention, e.g. Jb $16^{6}$ אִם-אִרְבְּרָה should $I$ determine to speak, my grief is not assuaged, without אִ Jb i9 ${ }^{18}, 33^{0^{26}}$ (where, however, וָא is probably intended); $\psi 73^{16}$ (unless 'וָה should be read), $139^{8!}$. After the 3 rd person,
 $I$ determined to pursue, then . . ., but cf. $\psi 18^{38}$.
(c) Likewise in the apodosis of conditional sentences, e. g. Jb $3^{1{ }^{17}}{ }^{\text {r. }}$ if my step hath turned out of the way . . . , צָּרְ then let me sow; cf. ${ }^{16^{4 t} \cdot I}$ also could speak as ye do, if ....! So even when the condition must be supplied from the context, e.g. $\psi 40^{6}$ else would $I$ declare and speak of them; $5 \mathbf{I}^{18}$ else would $I$ (gladly) give it, i.e. if
 In the 1 st plur. Jer $20^{10}$. To the same category belong the cohortatives

 people, \&c.; Ju $9^{29}$; without $W a \bar{w}$ Is $27^{4}, \psi 55^{7}, \mathrm{Jb}_{2} 3^{4}$ (cf. also verse 7 ).

Rem. I. The question, whether a resolution formed under compulsion (a necessity) is also expressed by the cohortative (so, according to the prevailing opinion, in Is $3^{810}$ T... ; Jer $3^{25}, 4^{19.21}, 6{ }^{10}, \psi 55^{3.18}(?) ; 57^{5}$, where, however, with Hupfeld, שׁׂבָה should be read; $77^{7}, 88^{16}$, and in the ist plur. Is $59^{10}$ ), is to be answered in the sense that in these examples the cohortative form is used after its meaning has become entirely lost, merely for the sake of its fuller sound, instead of the ordinary imperfect. This view is strongly

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 be not (אֵל-n) wise in thine own eyes! Jb $5^{31}$ ne ne confidat. In
 $\psi{ }^{2} 7^{9}, 69^{18}$.
d Rem. r. The few examples of with the jussive could at most have arisen from the attempt to moderate subsequently by means of the jussive (voluntative) form what was at first intended to be a strict command ( $\mathcal{K}$ ) with imperf. indic.); probably, however, they are either cases in which the defective writing has been misunderstood (as in $1 \mathrm{~K} 2^{96}, \mathrm{Ez}_{4}{ }^{814}$ ), or (as in $\mathrm{Gn} 24^{8}$ ) instances of the purely rhythmical jussive form treated below,
 it is to be referred to $h$ ) and $\operatorname{Dt} \mathrm{I}^{3}$. The same form, however, appears also to stand three times for the cohortative (see below), and in Nu $22^{19}$ for the ordinary imperfect (buit see below, $i$ ). Thus it is doubtful whether an imaginary by-form of the ordinary imperf. is not intended by the Masora in all these cases, and whether consequently qupi, \&c., should not be restored.On which ${ }^{\text {תָה }}$ ת should probably be read in every case.-The jussive appears in


 Ez ${ }^{16}$.
$e \quad$ 2. $\boldsymbol{K}_{\text {א }}$ with the jussive (or imperf., cf. $\S$ ro7 $p$ ) is used sometimes to express the conviction that something cannot or should not happen ; cf. Is $2^{9}$ (where, however, the text is very doubtful) and thou canst not possibly forgive them [R.V. therefore forgive them not]; $\psi 34^{6}, 41^{3}, 50^{3}, 121^{3}$ (אֵ); ; $\operatorname{Pr} \mathbf{3}^{25}$,

2. The jussive depending on other moods, or in conditional sentences: (a) Depending ${ }^{1}$ (with $W \bar{a} w$ ) on an imperative or cohortative to express an intention or an assurance of a contingent occurrence, e.g. Gn $24^{51}$ take her and go, and let her be (יוּחָהי prop. and she will be)....;
 $\psi{ }^{14} 4^{5}, \operatorname{Pr} 20^{22}, \mathrm{Jbr}_{4}{ }^{6}$. Also after interrogative sentences, which include a demand, Est $7^{2}$ (say) what is thy desire ..., וְ וחָעָ and it shall (i. e. in order that it may) be granted! I K $22^{20}$, Is $19^{12}$, Jb $38^{8^{345} \text {. Depending on }}$ a cohortative, e.g. Gn $19^{20}$ אִּ וּתְחי נַפְשִׁ that my soul may live; even after a simple imperf. (cf. below, g), I K $\mathrm{I}_{3}{ }^{33}$ whosoever would, he consecrated him . . . ${ }^{\text {Tl }}$ ! that he might be a priest (read ${ }^{\text {( }}$ ) of the high places, but probably the LXX reading

[^147]Rem. In 2 Ch $35^{21}$ a negative final clause with - וֹאַ is dependent on an $\boldsymbol{g}$ imperative, forbear from (meddling with) God . . . that he destroy thee not. As a rule, however, negative final clauses are attached to the principal sentence by means of Gn $4^{2}{ }^{2}$, I K $14^{2}, 18^{44}$; after a jussive, Ex $30^{20}$, Neh $6^{9}$; after a perfect consec., Ex 2885.43, $30^{12}, \mathrm{Nu} 18^{5}$; after $\mathrm{K}^{6}$ bith an imperfect, LV $10^{6}, \mathrm{Nu} 18^{3}, \mathrm{Dt} 17^{17}$ neither shall he multiply wives unto himself (וְלֹא יָסרּר לִבָבוֹ) that his heart turn not away; $1 \mathrm{~S} 20^{14}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 21^{17}$, Jer $11^{21}$; after $-\underline{\sim}$ with jussive, Lv $10^{9}, 11^{48}, 16^{2}$,

 it move not ; after a participle, $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{7}$.
(b) Frequently in conditional sentences (as in Arabic), either in the $h$ protasis or in the apodosis, cf. $\psi 45^{12}$ 亿ִּת

 apodosis, $\mathrm{Ex} 7^{9}$ then will it (not, then shall it) become a serpent; $\operatorname{Pr} 9^{9}$ after an imperat. in the protasis; $\mathrm{Jb} 10^{16}, 13^{5}, 22^{28}$. In a negative
 the Lord do not help thee, \&c.) is to be explained as a jussive in a negative protasis.

Rem. Undoubtedly this use of the jussive (in conditional sentences) is based $\boldsymbol{i}$ on its original voluntative meaning; let something be so and so, then this or that must happen as a consequence. Certain other examples of the jussive, however, show that in the consciousness of the language the voluntative has in such cases become weakened almost to a potcntial mood, and hence the jussive serves to express facts which may happen contingently, or may be expected, e.g. Nu $22^{19}$ ( מַה־-5 ${ }^{-1}$, but cf. above, d); Jb $9^{39}$ there is no daysman betwixt us, that might lay (תִּשָׁ? Nu $23^{19}$ I! after interrogative sentences, Jer $9^{11}$ who is the wise man, Ho $1_{4}{ }^{10}$.

Moreover, in not a few cases, the jussive is used, without any collateral $k$ sense, for the ordinary imperfect form. and this occurs not alone in forms, which may arise from a misunderstanding of the defective writing, as $\mathrm{Dt}{ }^{2821.96}$,


 such as ${ }^{[ }$
 Ru $3^{4}$. This use of the jussive can hardly be due merely to poetic licence, but is rather to be explained on rhythmical grounds. In all the above-rited examples, in fact, the jussive stands at the beginning of the sentence (and hence removed as far as possible from the principal tone), in others it is immediately before the principal pause ( $\operatorname{Is} 4^{26}, 50^{2}, 468^{15}, \operatorname{Pr} 23^{25}, \mathrm{Jb} 24^{14}, 29^{3}$, $40^{19}$ ), or actually in pause (Dt $32^{18}, \mathrm{Jb}_{2} 3^{9.11}$, La $3^{50}$ ), and is then a simply rhythmical shortening due to the strong influence of the tone. Moreover, since the jussive in numerous cases is not distinguished in form from the imperfect ( $\$ 48 \mathrm{~g}$ ), it is frequently doubtful which of the two the writer intended. This especially applies to those cases, in which a subjunctive is to be expressed by one or other of the forms (cf. § $107 k$ and $m-x$ ).

## § 110. The Imperative.

Mayer Lambert, 'Sur la syntaxe de l'impératif en hébreu,' in REJ. 1897, p. 106 ff .

1. The imperative, ${ }^{1}$ which, according to $§ 46$, is restricted to the 2nd pers. sing. and plur., and to positive commands, \&c., may stand either alone, or in simple co-ordination (as in $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K} \mathrm{I} 8^{44}$, Is $56^{1}, 65^{18}$ ) with other imperatives :
(a) To express real commands, e.g. Gn $12^{1}$ get thee out of thy country; or (like the jussive) mere admonitions (Ho $10^{12}$ ) and requests, $2 \mathrm{~K} 5^{22}$, Is $5^{3}$; on the addition of ${ }_{\mathrm{N}}^{\mathrm{N}}$ see below, Rem. I. The imperative is used in the sense of an ironical challenge (often including a threat) in $1 \mathrm{~K}_{2}{ }^{22}$ ask for him the kingdom also; $2^{25}$, $\mathrm{Ju} 10^{14}$, $\mathrm{Is} 47^{12}$ (with $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ), $\mathrm{Jer} 7^{21}, \mathrm{Ez} 20^{39}, \mathrm{Am} 4^{4}, \mathrm{Jb} 38^{3 \text { f. }}, 40^{\text {10ff. }}, \mathrm{La} 4^{21}$. The imperative has a concessive sense in $\mathrm{Na} 3^{15}$ (though thou make thyself many, \&c.), and in the cases discussed under $f$, e.g. Is $8^{9 \rho}, 29^{9}$.
$b$ (b) To express permission, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~S} 18^{23}$ after previous dissuasion, (then) run (as far as $\left[\right.$ am concerned)! Is $2 I^{12}, 45^{11}$.
c
(c) To express a distinct assurance (like our expression, thou shalt have $i t)^{2}$ or promise, e.g. Is $65^{18}$ but be ye glad, \&c. (i. e. ye will have continually occasion to be glad); and Is $37^{30}, \psi 110^{2}$; in a threat, Jer $2^{19}$. So especially in commands, the fulfilment of which is altogether out of the power of the person addressed, e.g. Is $54^{14}$ be far from anxiety (meaning, thou needst not fear any more); Gn $\mathrm{I}^{28}$, \&c. (for other examples, such as $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K} 22^{12}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 5^{13}$, see below, $f$ ). Most clearly in the case of the imperative Niphial with a passive meaning, e.g. Gn $42^{16}$ וְאַתֶּם הֵאֲס: and ye shall be bound; Dt $3^{20}$, Is $49^{9}$ (Is $45^{22,}$, see below, $f$ ).
$a$ Rem. I. The particle $\mathbb{N}_{\top}$ age! (§ 105 ) is frequently added to the imperative, as to the jussive, sometimes to soften down a command, or to make a request in a more courteous form (see above, a), Gn I $2^{13}, 24^{2}$, sometimes to strengthen an exhortation uttered as a rebuke or threat (Nu 16 ${ }^{26}, 20^{10}$ ) or in ridicule (Is $47^{12}$ ).
e 2. The imperative after the desiderative particle it Gn $23^{13}$ (at the end of verses 5 and 14 also read is for ib and join it to the following imperative) is due to an anacoluthon. Instead of the imperfect which would be expected here after $\ddagger$, the more forcible imperative is used in a new sentence.
2. The imperative in logical dependence upon a preceding imperative, jussive (or cohortative), or an interrogative sentence, serves to
[^148]
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the four forms of the $2 n d$ fem. plur. imperative in Is $3^{211}$, erroneously explained here in former editions, see now $\S 48 i$ ). In Na $3^{15}$ the interchange of masc. and fem. serves to erpress totality (the nation in all its aspects). Cf., moreover, § $145 p$ on other noticeable attempts to substitute the corresponding masculine forms for the feminine.

## § 111. The Imperfect with Wäw Consecutive.

a 1. The imperfect with wäw consecutive ( $\$ 49 a-g$ ) serves to expresis actions, events, or states, which are to be regarded as the temporal or logical sequel of actions, events, or states mentioned immediately ${ }^{1}$ before. The imperfect consecutive is used in this way most frequently as the narrative tense, corresponding to the Greek aorist or the Latin historic perfect. As a rule the narrative is introduced by a perfect, and then continued by means of imperfects with wāw consecutive (on this interchange of tenses cf. § $49 a$, and especially $§$ II. $2 a$ ), e.g.
 unto the woman; $4^{1}, 6^{9 \mathrm{ff}}, 10^{9 f}, \mathrm{I} 5^{19}, 1 \mathrm{I}^{12 \mathrm{ff} .27 \mathrm{ff}}, 14^{5 f}, 15^{1 \mathrm{f}}, \mathrm{I} 6^{1 \mathrm{ff}}, 2 \mathrm{I}^{1 \mathrm{ff}}$, $24^{1 \text { f. }}, 25^{19 \text { f. }}, 36^{2 \text { ff. }}, 37^{2}$.
$b$ Rem. 1. To this class belong some of the numerous imperfects consec. after various expressions of time, whenever such expressions are equivalent in meaning to a perfect ${ }^{2}$ (viz. ${ }^{\text {הָיָה }}$ it came to pass), e.g. Is $6^{1}$ in the year that king
 on the use of late books or passages that we find the simple perfect in a clause following an expression of time, as $1 \mathrm{~S} 17^{65}$ (cf. Driver on the passage), a $\mathrm{Ch} 12^{7}, 15^{8}$, \&c., Dn $10^{11}, 15^{19}$; the Perfect after ! and the subject, 2 Ch $7^{1}$.
C 2. The continuation of the narrative by means of the imperfect consec. may result in a series of any number of such imperfects, e.g. there are forty-nine in Gn. I. As soon, however, as the connecting $W \bar{a} w$ becomes separated from the verb to which it belongs, by the insertion of any word, the perfect necessarily takes the place of the imperfect, e.g. Gn $1^{5}$ and Gud called (Nרָ the light Day, and the darkness he called ( frequently.
$d$
3. Of two co-ordinate imperfects consecutive the former (as equivalent to a temporal clause) is most frequently subordinate in sense to the latter, e.g. Gn $28^{8 \mathrm{f} \text {. }}$. . . . . .
 consecutive is seldom used in an explanatory sense, e.g. Ex $2^{10}$ (7 said); cf. IS $7^{12}$. Other examples of the imperfect consecutive, which apparently represent a progress in the narrative, in reality only refer to the same time, or explain what precedes, see Gn $2^{25}$ (


[^149]§ıir e-h] The Imperfect reith Wäw Consecutive
4. The imperfect consecutive sometimes has such a merely external con- $\boldsymbol{e}$ nexion with an immediately preceding perfect, that in reality it represents an antithesis to it, e.g. Gn $3^{21}$ and (yet) my life is preserved; $2 \mathrm{~S} 3^{8}$ and yet thou chargest me; Jb $10^{8}, 3^{2}$; similarly in dependence on noun-clauses, $\operatorname{Pr} 30^{25}$ f.
2. The introduction of independent narratives, or of a new section $f$ of the narrative, by means of an imperfect consecutive, likewise aims at a connexion, though again loose and external, with that which has been narrated previously. Such a connexion is especially often
 which there then follows either (most commonly) an imperfect consecutive ( $\mathrm{Gn}_{4}{ }^{3.8}, 8^{6}, \mathrm{II}^{2}, \mathrm{Ex} 12^{29}, \mathrm{I} 3^{17}, \& \mathrm{c}$.), or $W \bar{a} w$ with the perfect (separated from it), Gn $7^{10}, \mathbf{I} 5^{12}, 22^{1}, 27^{30}$, or even a perfect without $W a ̄ w\left(\mathrm{Gn} 8^{13}, 14^{1 \mathrm{l}}, 40^{1}, \mathrm{Ex} 12^{41}, 16^{22}, \mathrm{Nu} 10^{11}, \mathrm{Dt} \mathrm{I}^{3}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{S} 18^{30}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 8^{21}\right.$, $\& c$. ), or finally a noun-clause introduced by $W a \bar{a} w, \mathrm{Gn}_{4} \mathrm{I}^{1}$.

Rem. I. This loose connexion by means of ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ is especially common, $\boldsymbol{g}$ when the narrative or a new section of it begins with any expression of time, see above, $b$; cf., in addition to the above-mentioned examples (e.g. Gn $22^{1}$ and it came to pass after these things, that God did prove Abraham), the similar cases in Gn 19 ${ }^{94}, 2$ I $^{22}$, IS I $^{11}$, Ru ${ }^{11}$. Elsewhere the statement of time is expressed by $\underset{\vdots}{\rightrightarrows}$ or with an infinitive (Gn $12^{14}, 19^{17.29} 39^{13}, 15^{18 \%}$, Ju $16^{25}$ ) or by an independent sentence with the perfect (equivalent to a pluperfect, cf. $\S$ IO6 $f$ ), e.g. Gn $15^{17}, 24^{15}, 27^{30}$, or by a temporal clause introduced by ${ }^{\top}$ when, Gn $26^{8}, 27^{1}, \mathrm{Ju} 16^{16}$, שָּ
 and it came to pass, as they were (just) burying a man (prop. they burying), that $\ldots ; \mathrm{Gn}_{42^{35},}^{2} \mathrm{~K}_{2^{11}}$ (the apodosis in both these cases being introduced
 a noun standing absolutely follows וַיִִיְ (as the equivalent of a complete sentence ; see below, $h$ ), and then an imperfect consecutive follows.
2. Closely related to the cases noticed in $g$ are those in which the imperfect $/ 4$ consecutive, even without a preceding ind introduces the apodosis either(a) to whole sentences, or (b) to what are equivalent to whole sentences, especially to nouns standing absolutely. As in certain cases of the porfect consecutive (see § II $2 x$ ), so the imperfect consccutive has here acquired a sort of independent force. Cf. for (a) IS $\operatorname{I} 5^{23}$ because thou hast rejected the word of the Lord, ${ }^{\text {and }}$ precedes in the form of an infinitive with preposition), Ex $9^{21}$; for (b) Gn $\mathbf{2 2}^{24}$

 $44^{25}{ }^{2}$ - $\operatorname{In} 1 \mathrm{~K}_{15}{ }^{13}$, $2 \mathrm{~K}_{16} 6^{14}$ the preceding noun, used absolutely, is even regarded as the object of the following imperfect consecutive, and is therefore introduced by ${ }^{-\pi}$.
${ }^{1}$ Exhaustive statistics of the use of in its many and various connexions are given by König in ZAW. 1899, p. 260 ff .
${ }^{2}$ Cf. the Mèša inscription, 1. 5 (Omri) the king of Israel, ועענו he oppressed Moab, \&c.-The peculiar imperfect consecutive in Gn $30^{276}$ (in the earlier editions explained as equivalent to an object-clause) arises rather from a pregnant brevity of expression : I have observed and have come to the conclusion, tho Lord hath blessed me, \&c.-In Gn $27^{34}$ read, with LXX,
$i$ 3. The imperfect consecutive serves, in the cases treated under $a-h$, to represent either expressly, or at least to a great extent, a chronological succession of actions or events; elsewhere it expresses those actions, \&c., which represent the logical consequence of what preceded, or a result arising from it by an inherent necessity. Thus the imperfect consecutive is used-
$k$ (a) As a final summing up of the preceding narrative, e.g. Gn $2^{1}$,
 of Abraham, \& c.; IS $\mathbf{7}^{50}, 3^{16}$.
$l$ (b) To express a logical or necessary consequence of that which immediately precedes, e.g. Gn $39^{2}, \mathrm{Jb}_{2}{ }^{3}$ and he still holdeth fast his
 movedst me against him; $\psi 65^{9}$ so that they are afraid...; even
 mother should have been . . . Another instance of the kind perlaps (if the text be correct) is Jer $38^{9}$ A
$m$ Rem. Such consecutive clauses frequently occur after interrogative sentences, e. g. Is $5^{12}$ who art thou (i.e. art thou so helpless), (must needs be) afraid? $\psi \mathrm{I}_{44^{9}}$ (cf. $\psi 8^{5}$, where in a very similar context ${ }^{\text {פִ }}$ that
 sent thee away.
4. As regards the range of time it is to be carefully noticed-
$n$ (a) That the imperfect consecutive may represent all varieties in the relations of tense and mood, which, according to § 107 a, follow from the idea of the imperfect;
0 (b) That the more precise determination of the range of time to which an imperfect consecutive relates must be inferred in each case from the character of the preceding tense (or tense-equivalent), to which it is attached, in a more or less close relation, as temporal or logical sequence. Thus the imperfect consecutive serves-
$p$ (1) To represent actions, events, or states, which are past (or were repeated in past time), when it is united with tenses, or their equivalents, which refer to an actual past.
$q$ Cf. the examples given above, under $a$ and $f$, of the imperfect consecutive as an historic tense. The imperfect consecutive also frequently occurs as the continuation of a perfect (preterite) in a subordinate clause; e.g. Gn $\mathbf{2 7}^{11}$,
 continuation of a preterite, contained, according to the sense, in the preceding in : denoting the past in a conditional sentence. An imperfect consecutive occurs in dependence on a perfect which has the sense of a pluperfect ( $\$ 106 \mathrm{f}$ ), e. g. in Gn $26^{18}, 28^{81}, 31^{19.54}$ (now Rachel had taken the teraphim, וַתְשִׁם and had

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$13^{15.17 \text { f. }}, 22^{\text {iff }}$, Jo $2^{23}, \mathrm{Mi} 2^{13}, \mathrm{Ez} 33^{4.6}, \psi 7^{13}, 64^{8 f .} ;-(\gamma)$ a future participle, Jer $4^{16} .{ }^{1}$
$x$ Rem. An imperfect consecutive in dependence on a perfect or imperfect, which represents an action occurring only conditionally, is likewise used
 had answered me, yet . . .; $\psi 139^{11}$ if if I should say (previously, in verse 8 f., hypothetical imperfects are used). -In Is $48^{818 \mathrm{f}}$ an imperfect consecutive occurs in dependence on a sentence expressing a wish introduced by utinam (יִיִּ and it, or so that it were, equivalent to then should it be). Cf. also the examples mentioned above, under $l$ (Jer ${ }^{20}{ }^{17}$ ) and $m$ (Gn $3{ }^{17}$ ), where the imperfect consecutive expresses facts occurring contingently.

## § 112. The Perfect with Wäw Consecutive.

G. R. Berry, 'Waw consecutive with the perfect in Hebrew,' in Bibl. Lit., xxii. (1903), pp. 60-69.
$a$ 1. The perfect, like the imperfect (§ III), is used with wāw consecutive (cf. §49 a; on the external differentiation of the perfect consecutive by a change in the position of the tone, see $\oint 49 h$ ) to express actions, events, or states, which are to be attached to what precedes, in a more or less close relation, as its temporal or logical consequence. And as, according to § III $a$, the narrative which begins with a perfect, or its equivalent, is continued in the imperfect consecutive, so, vice versa, the perfect consecutive forms the regular continuation to a preceding imperfect, or its equivalent.
$b$ Rem. I. This alternation of perfect and imperfect or their equivalents is a striking peculiarity of the consecutio temporum in Hebrew. It not only affords a certain compensation for the lack of forms for tenses and moods, but also gives to Hebrew style the charm of an expressive variety, an action conceived as being still in progress (imperfect, \&c.), reaching afterwards in the perfect a calm and settled conclusion, in order to be again exhibited in movement in the imperfect, and vice versa. ${ }^{2}$ The strict regularity of this
${ }^{1}$ Also in Jer $51^{29}$ the imperfects consecutive are attached to the threat virtually contained in the preceding imperatives. On the other hand Ho $8{ }^{10}$ would be very remarkable as expressing a future ; the text is, however, certainly corrupt, and hence the Cod. Babyl. and the Erfurt MS. 3 endeavour
 appears to announce an action irrevocably determined upon, and therefore represented as already accomplished; cf. the prophetic perfects in verse 17 ff .
${ }^{2}$ It is difficult to give a proper explanation of this phenomenon (according to § $49 a$, note, to be found only in the Canaanitish group of languages), when we have given up the theory of a special wāw conversivum in the unscientitic sense mentioned in $\S 49 \mathrm{~b}$, note, at the end, and if we accept the fact that the perfect and imperfect consecutive cannot possibly be used in a way which contradicts their fundamental character as described in $\$ \S 106$ and 107. In other words, even the perfect consecutive originally represents a finally completed action, \&c., just as the imperfect consecutive represents an action which
alternation belongs indeed rather to the higher style, and even then it depends upon the view and intention of the speaker, whether he wishes the action, \&c., to be regarded as the logical consequence of what has preceded, or as simply co-ordinate with it, and so in the same tense.
2. A succession of any number of other perfects consecutive may be co-or- $C$ dinated with a perfect consecutive (cf.e.g. Ez I $^{19}, \mathrm{Am}_{5}{ }^{19}$, Ru $3^{3}$, four perfects in each case, Is $8^{7}$ five, Ex $6^{6 f}$. eight). It is true, however, of the perfect (as conversely of the imperfect, §iIIc), that as soon as the $W \bar{a} w$ is separated by any intervening word from the verb to which it belongs, an imperfect necessarily takes the place of the perfect, e.g. Gn $12^{12}$ when the Egyptians shall see thee, they


2. The perfect consecutive, like the imperfect consecative, always $d$ belongs to the period of time expressed by the preceding tense, or its equivalent, with which it is connected as the temporal or logical consequence. The particular cases may be classed under three heads : (a) the perfect consecutive in immediate dependence (see e), (b) in loose connexion (see $x$ ) with the preceding, and (c) the perfect consecutive at the beginning of the apodosis to other sentences, or their equivalents (see $f$ ).
3. The perfect consecutive in immediate dependence on the pre- $\boldsymbol{e}$ ceding tense, or its equivalent, serves
(a) As a frequentative tense to express past actions, \&c., i.e. actions repeatedly brought to a conclusion in the past, and follows tenses, or their equivalents, representing actions which have continued or been repeated in the past:
 a mist (again and again) from the earth, were, and ever watered afresh), \&c. This frequentative use of the perfect consecutive is equally evident after frequentative imperfects,
 became so once for all); $29^{2 f .}$ (four perfects consecutive referring to actions repeated daily); $\operatorname{Ex} 33^{7-11}$ חיP . he used to take at each new encampment the tent, !! camp; notice, amongst the numerous frequent. perff. consec., the



[^150]she used to make . . . וְהַעְלְחָה and brought it to him from year to year;
 again). So also in dependent sentences, $\mathrm{Gn} 6^{4}$ (

( $\beta$ ) After an imperfect consecutive, e. g. Ex $39^{3}$ (Samaritan וקצוצ), IS $5^{7}$ (? see § 112 rr ), $7^{16}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 15^{2.5}, 16^{13}$ and he threw stones at him,

$\boldsymbol{g}$ Rem. The frequentative perfect consecutive is sometimes joined even with imperfects consecutive which simply express one single action or occurrence
 $2 \mathrm{~K}{ }^{12}{ }^{10}$. For other examples of a loosely connected frequentative perfect consecutive, see below, $d d$.
$h(\gamma)$ After a perfect, $G n 37^{3}$ (i) iל i, i.e. as often as ha needed a new garment) ${ }^{2}$; Gn $3^{11^{7}}, \mathrm{Nu} 11^{8}$, $1 \mathrm{~S} 16^{14}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{3}{ }^{4}, \psi 22^{6} ;{ }^{3}$ in interrogative sentences, $\mathbf{1}$ S $26^{9}$ who has ever, \&c.; $\psi 80^{13}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{I}^{1.4,}, \mathrm{Ru}_{4^{7}}$.
 brother, !ְשְׁnd (on each occasion) did cast off all pity (then an imperfect consecutive); after an infinitive absolute, $\operatorname{Jos} 6^{13}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{1}{ }^{19}$, Jer $2_{3}{ }^{14}$.
$k$ ( $\epsilon$ ) After a participle, Is $6^{3}$ (וְקָ $)$ ), \&c., frequentative, as a continuation of
$l$ (乡) After other equivalents of tenses, e. g. Gn $47^{22}$ the priests had a portion from Pharaoh, וְאָכְלרו and did eat (year by year), \&c.; i K $4^{7}$.
$m$ (b) To express present actions, \&c., as the temporal or logical consequence of actions or events which continue or are repeated in the present, especially such as have, according to experience, been at all times frequently repeated, and may be repeated at any time:
(a) After a simple imperfect, e.g. Gn $2^{24}$ therefore a man leaves
 frequently elsewhere, clearly with the secondary idea of purpose, i.e. in order to cleave; Is $5^{11}$ (if in in to be taken as a continuation

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 say ..., , !ٕend she (then) shall say, \&c. This use of the perfect consecutive is especially frequent after a participle introduced by Ting, e.g. Gn $6^{174}$; with a different subject 1 K $0^{36}$, Am $6^{14}$; after a complete noun-clause introduced by (cf. § I 40), Ex $3^{13}$ behold, I come (i.e. if I shall come) . . . ..., 1 ,
$u$ ( $($ ) After an infinitive absolute, whether the infinitive absolute serves to strengthen the finite verb (see $\left.\S \begin{array}{ll}113 \\ t\end{array}\right)$, e. $g$. Is $3 I^{5}$, or is used as an emphatic substitute for a cohortative or imperfect ( § $^{2} 3 d d$ and $e$ ), e.g. Lv $2^{6}, \mathrm{Dt} \mathbf{1}^{16}$, Is $5^{5}, \mathrm{Ez} 23^{46 \text { ! }}$
$v$ ( $\eta$ ) After an infinitive construct governed by a preposition (for this change from the infinitive construction to the finite verb, cf.
 (prop. until my coming) and show thee, \&c.; Gn $18^{25}, 27^{45}, \mathrm{Ja} 6^{18}$, $\mathrm{Ez} 39^{27}$; cf. I K $2^{37,42}$.

Rem. To the same class belong I $\mathrm{S} 1 \mathrm{I}^{24}$, where the idea of time precedes,
until it be evening and until I be avenged, \&c., and Is $5^{8}$, where the idea of place
precedes, in both cases governed by ${ }^{7} 7$.
$x$ 4. The very frequent use of the perfect consecutive in direct dependence upon other tenses (see above, $d-v$ ) explains how it finally obtained a kind of independent force-especially for the purpose of announcing future events-and might depend loosely on sentences to which it stood only in a wider sense in the relation of a temporal or logical consequence. Thus the perfect consecutive is used -
(a) To announce future events, \&c., in loose connexion with a
 consecutive, equivalent to but then shall arise, \&c. ; frequently so after חת with a following substantive ( $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{S}^{9}$ ), or a participial clause (cf. the analogous instances above, under $t$ ), e.g. I $S 2^{31}$ behold, the days come, often in Jeremiah; after an expression of time, Ex $17^{4}$, Is $10^{25}, 29^{17}$, Jer $5{ }^{133}$, Ho $^{4}$. Further, when joined to a statement concerning present or past facts, especially when these contain the reason for the action, \&c., expressed in the perfect consecutive; cf. Is $6^{7} l o$, this hath touched thy lips, 뀬 therefore thine iniquity shall be taken away, \&c. (not copulative and it is taken away, since it is parallel with a simple imperfect), Gn $20^{11}, 26^{22}, \mathrm{Ju} 13^{3}$ (here in an adversative sense); Ho $8^{14}$. In loose connexion with a noun-clause, a long succession of
 be an announcement yea, ye shall take up; but cf. below, $r$.

Rem. i. Very frequently the announcement of a future event is attached $y$ by means of ${ }^{1}$ ! ${ }^{1}$ and it shall come to pass (cf. the analogous continuation in the past by means of times after a long parenthesis) follows in one or more (co-ordinate) perfects consecutive, Gn $9^{14}, 12^{12}$ ( I K $18^{12}$, Is $14^{9}{ }^{\text {f. }}$, Am $8^{9}$; or in the imperfect, Gn $4^{14}$, Is $2^{2}, 3^{24}, 4^{3}, 7^{18.21 ~ f}$. (cf. $29^{8}$ ) ; or in the jussive, Lv $14^{9}$. It very rarely happens that the verb which is thus loosely added, agrees in gender and number with the following


2. The jussive form ' in IS $10^{5}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{5}{ }^{24}\left(\mathrm{ICh}_{14}{ }^{15}\right)$, $\mathrm{IK} \mathrm{K}_{4}{ }^{5}$, Ru $3^{4}$, although in the first three places a jussive is wholly inadmissible in the context, and even in Ru $3^{4}$ (where an admonition follows) ${ }^{\text {! }}$ ! would be expected (see below, $b b$ ). In I K I $4^{5}$ the form is a textual error, and the pointing should simply le passages (ויהת (always before an infinitive with a preposition) stands at the beginning of the sentence at an unusually long distance from the principal tone, and hence is certainly to be explained according to $\S 109 k$, except that in $1 S{ }_{10}{ }^{5}$, \&c., the simply rhythmical jussive form takes the place, not of the full imperfect form, but (exceptionally) of the perfect consecutive.
(b) To introduce a command or wish: Dt $10^{19}$ love ye therefore the $a \alpha$ stranger; I S $6^{5}, 24^{16}$, $1 \mathrm{~K}^{6}$ (in Gn $40^{14}$ the precative perfect consecutive, as elsewhere the cohortative, jussive, and imperative, is strengthened by means of participial and other noun-clauses (see above, $x$ ), Gn $45^{12 f}$, $1 \mathrm{~K} 2^{2 t}$, $\mathrm{Ru} 3^{35}, 3^{9}$.-In Gn $17^{11}$ the perfect consecutive ( be circumcised, \&c.) is used to explain a preceding command.
Rem. As in the cases mentioned above under $y$, the connexion may be $b l$ made by means of Gn $4^{635}, 47^{24}, \mathrm{Ju}_{4}{ }^{20}$. Cf. also $\mathrm{Gn}_{24} 4^{24}$, where the real wish, at least as regards the sense, is contained in the next sentence.
(c) To introduce a question, whether in loose connexion with $c c$ another interrogative sentence (see above, $p$ ), e.g. Gn $29^{15}$ art thou my brother (equivalent to, Surely thou art),
 will ye then make them rest ?); $\mathrm{Nu} 16^{10}$, $\mathbf{1} \mathrm{S}^{2} 5^{11}$, and (if it is Milera) $\psi 50^{21}$ (
(d) To introduce actions frequently repeated (hence analogous to $d d$ the numerous examples of a frequentative perfect consecutive, above,




[^152]parallel with a simple imperfect); $9^{25}$, Jer $25^{4}$, Ho $12^{11}$, Dn $8^{4}$.-In $\mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{r}^{4}{ }^{4}$ a series of frequentative perfects consecative is interrupted by an imperfect consecutive, while a simple imperfect (as the modus rei repetitae) forms the conclusion. In Jer $6^{17}$ a similar perfect is expressly marked, by placing the tone on the final syllable (according to § $49 h$ ), as parallel with the real perfects consecutive.
ee Rem. The loose connexion of tempora frequentativa by וְדָּ (cf. the Rem. on $y$ and $b b$ ) is also very common in this sense; thus with a following perfect consecutive, Gn $30^{41 \text { f. (but in verse } 4^{a} \text {, where the verb is separated from }}$

 (followed by five perfects consecutive); $2 \mathrm{~S}_{15}{ }^{5}$; with a following imperfect
 would be expected, is continued by means of the imperfect consecutive, and in IS I3 ${ }^{22}$ by
5. Further, the perfect consecutive is very frequently employed with a certain emphasis to introduce the apodosis after sentences (or their equivalents) which contain a condition, a reason, or a statement of time. Such an apodosis, as in the cases already treated, may represent either future events, or commands and wishes, or even events which have been often repeated in the past. Thus-
(a) The perfect consecutive occurs in the apodosis to conditional

 kill us, (well then) we shall but die; here the perfect consecutive is used obviously with greater emphasis than the imperfect (יִחיֶה) which immediately precedes; $\mathrm{Gn} 18^{26}, 24^{8.41}, 32^{9}, \mathrm{Nu} 3^{0^{15}}, \mathrm{Ju} 4^{20}$,

gg ( $\beta$ ) After with the perfect (in the sense of a futurum exactum), $\mathrm{Nu} 5^{27,}{ }_{2} \mathrm{~K} 5^{20}, 7^{4 a}$, Is $4^{4 \mathrm{r}}$; as precative apodosis after perf. preteritum, $\mathrm{Gn} 33^{10}$; as a frequentative perfect consecutive, to represent past events in the apodosis after a א with a perfect, $\mathrm{Gn}_{3} 8^{9}$, $\mathrm{Nu} 2 \mathrm{I}^{9}, \mathrm{Ju} 6^{3}, \mathrm{Jb} 7^{4}$; after D s with imperfect, $\mathrm{Gn} 3 \mathrm{I}^{8}$.
hh ( $\gamma$ ) After $\mathfrak{\square}$ (in case, suppose that) with the imperfect, Gn $12^{12}$, $\mathrm{Ex} 18^{16}, \mathrm{Ju} 13^{17}$, $\mathrm{Is} 58^{7}, \mathrm{Ez} 14^{13} .^{2}$ Frequentative with reference to the past, after

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\&c. (so $\mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{I}_{9^{30},}, \mathrm{~S}_{20^{12}}$ ), with a frequentative perfect consecutive. The perfect consecutive is very frequently used to announce future actions or events after simple expressions of time of any kind; thus $\mathrm{Gn} 3^{5}, \mathrm{Ex}_{3}{ }^{2{ }^{34}}$ (after a 푸 with the infinitive), cf. also such examples as
 consecutive after the infinitive with a preposition; so $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 5^{5}$, see
 $29^{17}, 37^{26}$; even after single disconnected words, e.g. Ex $16^{6}$ 部 , וֶיבעִחם, at even (when it becomes evening) then ye shall know; cf. verse $7, \operatorname{Lv} 7^{16}, \mathrm{I}_{1} \mathrm{~K}^{31}, \operatorname{Pr} 24^{27}$.
6. Finally there still remains a number of passages which cannot be classed with any of those hitherto mentioned. Of these, some are due to the influence of Aramaic modes of expression, while in others the text is evidently corrupt. ${ }^{1}$ In a few instances we can do no more than merely call attention to the incorrectness of the expression. (We are not of course concerned here with the cases-usually occurring in dependent clauses-in which a 2 nd pers. perf. with Wāw copulative is simply co-ordinate with what precedes, as in Gn $28^{6}$, and probably $\mathrm{Nu} 2 \mathrm{I}^{15}, \mathrm{Dt} 33^{2}$.)
(a) The influence of the Aramaic construction of the perfect with $\}$ as the narrative tense, instead of the Hebrew imperfect consecutive (ef. Kautzsch, Gramm. des Bibl.-Aram., $\S_{1}$ b), is certainly to be traced in Qoheleth, and sporadically in other very late books, ${ }^{2}$ perhaps also in a few passages in the books of Kings, which are open to the suspicion of being due to later inter-
 parallel passage, $2 \mathrm{Ch} 25^{24}$, the word is wanting) ; $2 \mathrm{~K} 23^{4}$, ונְ, \& c . ; verse 10

(b) The text is certainly corrupt in Is $40^{6}$ (read with the LXX and Vulgate

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 redundant; in IS $3^{13}$ read, with Klostermann, the $2 n d$ sing. masc. instead of
 where it is an imperative.

Of other questionable instances, (a) the following, at any rate, may also be rr explained as frequentatives, $\operatorname{Gn} 21^{25}, 49^{23}, \operatorname{Ex} 36^{98}, 38^{28}, 39^{3}$, IS $5^{7}, 17^{20}, 24^{11}$ (but even so !ואמרוֹ would be expected); $2 \mathrm{~K}_{2} 3^{12}$, Is $28^{26}$ (parallel with an imperfect) ; Am $5^{26}$ (unless it is rather, yea, ye shall take up; see above, $x$ ); $\psi \mathbf{2 6}^{\mathbf{3}}$, $\mathrm{Ez} \mathrm{g}^{36}$.
( $B$ ) A longer or constant continuance in a past state is perhaps represented $S S$ by the perfect with ! (as a variety of the frequentative perfect with ?), in Gn $15^{6}, 34^{5}, \mathrm{Nu} 21^{20}, \mathrm{Jos} 9^{12}, 22^{36}$, Is $22^{14}$, Jer $3^{9}$. But the unusual perfects consec. in Jos $15^{9-11,16^{2-8}}$ (ultimately parallel with an imperf. as in $17^{9}, 18^{20}$ ), $18^{12-21,}$ 19 $9^{11-14.22 .26-29.34}$, are without doubt rightly explained by Bennett (SBOT., Joshua, p. 23) as originally containing the directions either of God to Joshua or of Joshua to the people; cf. the evident trace of this in $15^{4 b}$. A redactor transformed the directions into a description but left the perfects consec., which are to be explained as in aa. In the same way ${ }^{\text {E }}$ Ex $3^{629}$ is most simply explained as repeated from $26^{25}$.
( $\gamma$ ) The following are due to errors in the text, or to incorrect modes of $t t$

 lated to the four other perfects) ; $13^{3}, 20^{21} ; 2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{I}^{7}$ (where, with Stade,
 be taken as a frequentative, but not וכרת, \&c.; evidently the perfects are co-ordinated only in form with הוּא הֵחיר); 1836, $21^{15}, 24^{14}$, Jer $37^{15}$ (where , וְהִּנְ, but not and read 1 (1ָאכְלָ after an imperfect consecutive); Jb $166^{12}$.



## B. The Infinitive and Participle.

## § 113. The Infinitive Absolute.

Cf. the dissertation of J. Kahan, and, especially, the thorough investigation by E. Sellin, both entitled, Ueber die verbal-nominale Doppelnatur der hebräischen Participien und Infinitive, \&c., Lpz. 1889 ; F. Prätorius, 'Ueber die sogen.Infin. absol. des Hebr.' in ZDMG. 1902, pp. 546 ff .

1. The infinitive absolute is employed according to $\oint 45$ to emphasize $a$ the idea of the verb in the abstract, i.e. it speaks of an action (or state) without any regard to the agent or to the circumstances of time and mood under which it takes place. As the name of an action the infinitive absolute, like other nouns in the stricter sense,

[^155]may form part of certain combinations (as a subject, predicate, or object, or even as a genitive, ${ }^{1}$ see below); but such a use of the infinitive absolute (instead of the infinitive construct with or without a preposition) is, on the whole, rare, and, moreover, open to question on critical grounds. On the other band, the infinitive absolute frequently exhibits its character as an expression of the verbal idea by taking an object, either in the accusative or even with a preposition.
(a) As subject, $\operatorname{Pr}{ }_{2} 5^{27}$ אוֹב honey ; Jer $10^{5}, \mathrm{Jb} 6^{25}$, Ec $4^{17}$; epexegetically, after a demonstrative pronoun, Is $58^{5!}$. $\mathrm{Zc} 14^{12}$.
C (b) As predicate, Is $3^{2^{17}}$ and the effect of righteousness (is) (prop. to find rest) and confidence.
 according to the sense also Jer $9^{23}{ }^{23} 3^{14}$, as well as Is $5^{5}$ ( הָסר and and depend on the idea of the wish contained in (עֻשׂ ; Is $22^{13}$, where a long series of infinitives absolute is governed by 1 ? governed by the infinitive absolute which governs it, ${ }^{2}$ also Is $4^{2^{2 t}}$, where the statement of place precedes the infinitive absolute.-In Jer $9^{4}, \mathrm{Jb}_{13}{ }^{3}$ the infinitive absolute as the object of the verb is placed before it for the sake of emphasis (with the verb negatived by K in Is $57^{20}$, Jer $49^{23}$ ), so also in La $3^{45}$ where it is the remoter object and co-ordinated with a substantive.
 perhaps also $4^{4}$, is never used in immediabe connexion with prepositions ${ }^{9}$ (which as being originally substantives govern the genitive), but always the infinitive construct; but if a second infinitive is co-ordinated be ! with such an infinitive construct, it has the form of the infinitive absolute (since it is released from
满

 slaying oxen and killing sheep; cf. $\mathrm{Ex} 20^{8}, 23^{30}, \mathrm{Dt} 5^{12}$, $\mathrm{Is} 37^{19}, \mathrm{Ez} 23^{30}$, and of the examples in $a-d, \mathrm{Dt} 28^{66} ;$ Is $5^{5}, 5^{8{ }^{8}}$., $\operatorname{Pr} 25^{27}$, \&c.; followed by a preposition,
 (i).
$g$ If the object be a personal pronoun, then, since the infinitive absolute can never be united with a suffix (see the note on a), it is affixed by means of


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$l$ 3. The infinitive absolate occurs most frequently in immediate connexion with the finite verb of the same stem, in order in various ways to define more accurately or to strengthen the idea of the verb. ${ }^{1}$
$m$ These infinitives absolute joined immediately to the finite verb belong in a sense to the schema etymologicum treated in $\S 1 I_{7} p$, i. $\theta$. they are objects of the finite verb in question, except that the infinitive absolute (as a nomen abstractum) lays stress rather on the actual occurrence or the energy of the action (see the examples below), while the noun proper emphasizes the result or extent of the action ; cf. e.g. Ex 2222 22 if it actualiy happens that he cries to $m e$, with $\mathbf{G n} 27^{34}$ (as it were, he cried, so that a great cry was heard).

We must further distinguish -
$n \quad(a)$ The infinitive absolute used before the verb to strengthen the verbal idea, i.e. to emphasize in this way either the certainty (especially in the case of threats) or the forcibleness and completeness of an occurrence. In English, such an infinitive is mostly expressed by a corresponding adverb, but sometimes merely by putting greater stress on the verb; e.g. Gn $2^{17}$ מוֹת $22^{17}, 28^{22}$, I S $9^{6}$ (cometh surely to pass); $24^{21}, \mathrm{Am} 5^{5}, 7^{17}, \mathrm{Hb} 2^{3}, \mathrm{Zc} 1 \mathrm{I}^{17}$; with the infinitive strengthened by $\overline{7}$ Gn $44^{28}$ (but $27^{30}$ and Jacob


 especially typical instances are Am $y^{8} I$ will destroy it from off the face
 destroy, \&c.; Jer $30^{11}$ and will in no wise leave thee unpunished; cf. further Gn $20^{18}$, 1 K $3^{26}$, Jo $1^{7}$, Jb $13^{5}$.
0 The infinitive absolute is used before the verb with less emphasis:
(1) Frequently at the beginning of the statement; cf. Driver on I $S 20^{6}$. However, in these cases a special emphasis on the following verb is sometimes intended; cf. above, $n$, on $G n 43^{3}$, i $S 20^{6}$; also Gn $3^{16}, 26^{28}, 32^{17}, \mathrm{IS} 14^{28}, 20^{3}$. Elsewhere the infinitive absolute is evidently used only as possessing a certain fullness of sound (hence for rhythmical reasons, like some uses of the separate pronoun, $\S 135^{a}$ ),

(2) Very frequently in conditional sentences after $\mathbb{Q}$, \&c. The infinitive absolute in this case emphasizes the importance of the con-

[^157]dition on which some consequence depends, e.g. Ex $15^{26}$ if thou wilt diligently hearken, \&c., Ex 19 ${ }^{5}, 2 \mathbf{1}^{5}, 22^{3.115 .16 .22}$ (see above, $m$ ); 23 ${ }^{22}$,


The infinitive absolute is used to give emphasis to an antithesis, e.g. $p$
 receive it as a gift); $\mathrm{Ju}^{5} 5^{18}$ no; but we will bind thee fast . . . but surely we will not kill thee; cf. further $\mathrm{Gn}_{3} \mathrm{I}^{30}$ (thou art indeed gone=) though thou wouldst needs be gone (Vulg. esto), because thou sore longedst, \&c.; $\psi 118^{13.18}$, 12 $6^{6}$ (the second infinitive absolute as a supplement to the first-see below, $r$-comes after the verb). -Hence
 (so that verse 16 is in antithesis to verse 17) ; or concessive, is $2^{30}$ I said indeed. . ., $14^{43}$.

The infinitive absolute is used to strengthen a question, and $q$ especially in impassioned or indignant questions, e. g. Gn $37^{8}$ הְמָלךְ药 shalt thou indeed reign over us? Gn $37^{10}, 43^{7}$, Ju $1 \mathrm{I}^{20}$, I S $2^{27}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 19^{43}$, Jer $3^{1}, \mathrm{I}^{12}, \mathrm{Ez} 28^{9}, \mathrm{Am} 3^{5}, \mathrm{Zc} 7^{5}$; but cf. also Gn $24^{5}$ must I needs bring again?
(b) The infinitive absolute after the verb, sometimes (as in $n$ ) to $r$ intensify ${ }^{1}$ the idea of the verb (especially after imperatives and participles, since the infinitive absolute can never precede either, e.g. $\mathrm{Nu} 1{ }^{15}, \mathrm{Jb} 13^{17}, 2 \mathrm{I}^{2}, 37^{2}$ עַ after participles, e. g. Is $22^{17}$, also elsewhere, e.g. Nu ${ }^{2} 3^{11}, 24^{10}$ thou hast altogether blessed them; Jos $24^{10}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{5}{ }^{11}$, Dn $11^{10}$, and with the
 sometimes to express the long continuance of an action; here again after an imperative, Is $6^{9}$ שִׁמשעוּ שָׁע hear ye continually; after a perfect, Jer $6^{29}$; after a participle, Jer $23^{17}$; after an imperfect consecutive, Gn $19^{9}, \mathrm{Nu} 11^{32}$.

To this class belong especially those cases in which a second infini- $s$ tive absolute is co-ordinated with the first; the latter then expresses either an accompanying or antithetical action or the aim to which the principal action is directed; e.g. I S $6^{12}$ הָּלְבוּ הָלרֶּ וְגָ lowing as they went (lowing continually; so after a participle, Jos $6^{13 b} Q^{e} r \hat{e}$ ); Gn $8^{7}$ it went forth to and fro $^{2}$; Is $19^{22}$ smiting and (i. e. but also) healing again; Jo $2^{26}$ (see above, $m$ ).

Rem. r. Instead of a second infinitive absolute (see above) there is some- $t$ times found a perfect consecutive (Jos. $6{ }^{13 a}$ and $2 \mathrm{~S}_{13} 3^{19}$ [but Stade's in in

[^158]is preferable], in both places as perfect frequentative; Is $31^{8}$ referring to the
 innperfect consecutive ( $\mathrm{S} 19^{23}, 2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{I}^{\left({ }^{3 \pi}\right)}$ ) or participle ( $2 \mathrm{~S} 16^{5}$ ); cf. also $u$.
2. The idea of long continuance is veity frequently expressed by the verb to go, along with its infinitive absolute, or even by the latter alone, and this occurs not only when it can be taken in its literal sense (to go, to walk, as in the examples given above, Jos $6^{9.13}$, I E $6^{12}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 3^{16},{ }^{1} 3^{19}$; cf. also, Is $3^{16}$, where both infinitives stand before the verb, and $\psi$ 126 $^{6}$, where הָ precedes), but also in cases where ${ }_{T}{ }^{\boldsymbol{T}}$ in the sense of to go on, to continue, merely performs the function of an adverb. The action itself is added in a second infinitive absolute, or sometimes (see above, $t$ ) in a participle or verbal adjective. Examples, Gn $8^{3}$ 而 tinually; Gn $88^{5}, 12^{9}, \mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{I}_{4}{ }^{9}, 2 \mathrm{~K}^{211}$; with a participle following, Jer $4^{16}$ (unless we read $\mathfrak{i l}$, as in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{T}}{ }^{16}$ ); with an adjective following, Gen $26^{13}, \mathrm{Ju}_{4}{ }^{24}$,


On the other hand, in $1 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 7^{41}$ the participle $\begin{aligned} & \text { n } \\ & \text { is used instead of the }\end{aligned}$ infinitive absolute. Of a different kind are the instances in which the participle is used as predicate along with the co-ordinate adjective
 $\mathrm{Pr} 4^{18}, \mathrm{Ec}^{16}$ ).
$\tau$ 3. The regular place of the negative is between the intensifying infinitive
 delivered at all, Ju $5^{13}$, Jer $\mathrm{I}^{12}, 3^{0^{11}}$; cf. Mi $\mathrm{I}^{10}$ (Nַ). Exceptions are Gn $3^{4}$ (where the negation of the threat pronounced in $2^{17}$ is expressed in the same form of words) ; Am $9^{8}, \psi 49^{8}$.
4. With a finite verb of one of the derived conjugations, not only the infinitive absolute of the same conjugation may be connected (Gn ${ }_{28} 8^{22} \mathrm{Pi}^{\prime} \bar{e} \mathrm{l}$; 17 $7^{13}$, Ex $22^{3}$, Ez $14^{3}$ Niph'al; Gn $40^{15}$ Pu'al; Ho $4^{18}$ Hiphíl ; Ez $16^{4}$ Hoph'al), but also (especially with Niph'al, rarely with Pi'él and Hiph'îl; see Driver on $2 S 20^{18}$ ) that of Qal as the simplest and most general representative of the verbal idea, $2 \mathrm{~S} 20^{18}$ (with $\mathrm{Pi}{ }^{\mathrm{e} e l}$; but in $\mathrm{Gn} 37^{33}, 44^{28}$ 亿
 Niph'al) ; Is $24^{19}$ (with Hithpo'èl ; רَעָ in the same verse must also, according to the Masora, certainly be the infinitive absolute Qal ; see $\S 670$ ), and so always מוֹת יוּמַת he shall surely be put to death. Elsewhere the infinitive absolute of a conjugation with kindred meaning is found, Lv $19^{20}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 3^{29} \mathrm{H}_{\text {oph }}$ al for Niph'al (but most probably we should read, with Driver, the infin. Niph. in
 read); Ez $16^{4}$ (Hoph'al for Pu'al). ${ }^{3}$ Finally, the infinitive absolute may

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absolute is most frequently used in this way, corresponding to the infinitive of command in Greek, \&c. ${ }^{1}$ :-
bb (a) For an emphatic imperative, ${ }^{2}$ e. g. רֹשׂׂ (thou shalt, ye shall), observe Dt $5^{12}$; ָָּרוֹ (thou shalt) remember, Ex $13^{3}, 20^{8}$ (the full form
 $2 \mathrm{~K} 5^{10}$, Is $3^{8^{5}}$, Jer $2^{2}$, followed by a perfect consecutive; Jos $\mathbf{I}^{13}$, $2 \mathrm{~K} 3^{16}$, Is $7^{4}, \mathrm{I}_{4}{ }^{31}$ (parallel with an imperative; in $\mathrm{Na} 2^{2}$ three imperatives follow). But הַהֵּיט $\psi \mathbf{1 4 2}^{5}$ may be only an incorrect spelling of הַ הַּ imperative. ${ }^{3}$
cc ( $\beta$ ) For the jussive, Lv $6^{7}, \mathrm{Nu} 6^{5}, 2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{II}^{15}, \mathrm{Ez}_{2} 3^{46}$; cf. also $\operatorname{Pr} \mathrm{I}^{12}{ }^{12}$ (let it rather meet).
$d d \quad(\gamma)$ For the cohortative, Is $22^{13 b}$ אָּוֹל וְשָ (the exclamation of the

ce ( $\delta$ ) For the imperfect in emphatic promises, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K} 4^{43}$ ye shall eat and leave thereof; ${ }_{19} 9^{29}$ (Is $37^{30}$ ), $2 \mathrm{Ch} 3 \mathbf{1}^{10}$; also in indignant questions, $\mathrm{Jb} 40^{2}$ shall he that cavilleth contend with the Almighty? ${ }^{5}$ (on the addition of the subject cf. the Rem. below); Jer $3^{1}$ and thinkest thou to return again to me? Jer $7^{9 \text { fr. }}$ (six infinitives, continued by means of the perfect consecutive; cf. § 1120 ).
ff ( $\epsilon$ ) For any historical tense (like the Latin historic infinitive) in lively narration (or enumeration) and description, even of what is still taking place in present time, e.g. Hos $4^{2}$ swearing and breaking faith; and killing, and stealing, and committing adultery (in these they are busied); $10^{4}$ (after a perfect); Is $21^{5}, 59^{4}, \mathrm{Jer} 8^{15}, 14^{19}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{I5}{ }^{35}$; cf. further $\operatorname{Jer} 32^{33}, \operatorname{Ec}_{4}{ }^{2}$ - $-\operatorname{In~} \operatorname{Ez} 23^{30}, \operatorname{Pr} 12^{7}, 15^{22}$, and $25^{4}$, the infinitive absolute is best rendered by the passive.

[^160]Rem. The subject is sometimes added to the infinitive absolute when it $g g$ takes the place of the finite verb, e. g. Lv 67 , Nu $15^{35}, \operatorname{Dt} 1_{5}{ }^{2}, \psi 17^{5}, \operatorname{Pr} 17^{12}$, Jb $4^{0^{2}}, \mathrm{Ec} 4^{2}$, Est $9^{1}$. So, probably, also in $\mathrm{Gn}_{1} 7^{10}$, Ex ${ }^{22^{48}}$, although here
 verb; cf. Est $3^{13}$. In IS $25^{26.93}$ the subject follows an infinitive absolute which is co-ordinated with an infinitive construct, see above, $e$.

## § 114. The Infinitive Construct.

1. The infinitive construct, like the infinitive absolute, may also $a$ represent a nomen verbale ( $\$ 45$ a), but of a much more flexible character than the infinitive absolute (cf. § $113 a)$. Its close relation with nouus properly so called is especially seen in the readiness with which the infinitive construct may be used for any case whatever; thus,
(a) As the nominative of the subject, e.g. Gn $2^{18}$ לא-טוֹב הֶיוֹת , הָאָָּ לְבָּ, literally, not good is the being of man in his separation;
 same statement); $\psi 3^{2^{9}}$ prop. there is not a coming near unto thee, but the text is probably corrupt. With a feminine predicate, iS $18^{23}$, Jer $2^{17}$.
(b) As genitive, e.g. Ec $3^{4}$ שיחת סְפוֹר וְبֶת רְקוֹד a time of mourning b and a time of dancing; $\mathrm{Gn} 2^{17}, 29^{7}$, Neh $\mathbf{1 2}^{46}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 24^{14}$. This equally includes, according to § ror $a$, all those cases in which the infinitive construct depends on a preposition (see below, $d$ ) [and Driver, Tenses, § 206].
 not the going out or the coming in ( $I$ know not how to go out and come in); Gn $21^{6}, 3 \mathrm{I}^{28}, \mathrm{Nu} 20^{21}$, Is $\mathbf{1}^{14}, 37^{28}$ (even with n ), Jer $6{ }^{15}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{I}^{222}$ (cf. for the use of the infinitive absolute as object, § $113 f$ ); as accusative with a verb expressing fullness, Is $\mathrm{II}^{9}$.
2. The construction of the infinitive with prepositions (as in Greek, $d$ $\dot{\epsilon} v \tau \varphi \hat{\varphi}$ eival, $\delta \iota a ̀$ tò cival, \&c.) may usually be resolved in English into the finite verb with a conjunction, e.g. Nu $35^{19}$ in בְּפְּעְ in lis meeting

 Gn $27^{1}$ and his eyes were dim מֵרְאֹת from seeing, i. e. so that he could not see.

This use of the infinitive construct is especially frequent in con- $\boldsymbol{C}$ nexion with $\underset{ְ}{\rightrightarrows}$ or $\underset{ְ}{ }$ to express time-determinations (in English resolved into a temporal clause, as above the combination of the infinitive with ive or
examples, §1in $g$ ), e.g. iS $2^{27}$,
 when he saw (prop. in the seeing) the ring . . ., and when he heard (prop. in his hearing), \&c.
But by far the most frequent is the connexion of the infinitive construct with ?.1 Starting from the fundamental meaning of ?, i. e. direction towards something, infinitives with $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$ serve to express the most varied ideas of purpose or aim, and very commonly also (with a weakening or a complete disregard of the original meaning of the ?) to introduce the object of an action, or finally even (like the infinitive absolute used adverbially, $\S I_{3} h$, and the Latin gerund in -ndo) to state motives or attendant circumstances. See the instances in the Remarks.
$g$ Rem. r. The original meaning of the $\}$ is most plainly seen in those infinitives with ? which expressly state a purpose (hence as the equivalent of a final clause), e. g. Gn $11^{5}$ and the Lord came doun, ? ? ? see the city; also with a change of subject, e. $\mathrm{g} .2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{I}^{10}$ and thou hast taken the wife of Criah the Hitite
 placed, with its complement, before the governing verb, e.g. Gn $42^{9}$, $47^{4}$,

2. Just as clearly the idea of aiming at a definite purpose or turning towards an object may be seen in the combination of the verb
 the act of, he was about to (as it were, he set himself), he was ready, to do something, or (b) he or it was appointed or compelled, \&c., to do the action in question. In the latter case corresponds to the Latin faciendum erat, cf. also the English I am to go. In both cases הָּד (as elsewhere when copula) is often omitted.

 (here with the secondary idea of a continuous action); with the omission of



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72 3. A further class comprises the very numerous cases, in which the infinitive with ? is used as the object ${ }^{1}$ of a governing verb, hence, again, for the direction which an action takes. The verbs (or conjugations) which occur most frequently in this combination with ? and an infinitive are : החחל (with an infinitive without ?, e.g. Dt $2^{25.31}$, Jos $3^{7}$ ), , (prop. to add) to continue, very frequently, even in prose, with an infinitive without S, as Gn $4^{12}, 8^{10.12}, 37^{5}, \mathrm{IS} 3^{8}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{27}$, \&c. ; $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{T}}$ to cease from, to desist;

 (with an infinitive without $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$ ? Is $28^{12}, 30^{9}, \mathrm{Jb} 39^{9}$ ) ; to refuse ( to be unwilling) ; בִּ.ִּשׁ to seek; to be able (with an infinitive without
 person in the sense of to give up to some one, to cause, or permit him to do some-
 understand how to do something (in Jb $3^{8}$ to learn ; קָּ To wait, expect (with a change of subject, e.g. Is $5^{2}$ and he waited for it to bring forth grapes).
$n$ We must further mention here a number of verbs in Hiphill (partly denominatives), which express an action in some definite direction (cf. §53f),
 make (it) deep, חִחִיק to make (it) far, distant, make (it) good (with an infinitive without ? $\psi 33^{3}$, but I S $16^{17}$, in the same combination, with ?);
 late, with an infinitive without ? ) ; חִרְּ wonderful (even with a passive infinitive $2 \mathrm{Ch} 26^{15}$ ), ${ }^{2}$ \&c.

[^162]4. Finally, the infinitive with ? is very frequently used in a much looser $O$ connexion to state motives, attendant circumstances, or otherwise to define more exactly. In English, such infinitive constructions (like the Latin gerund in -do; cf. $f$ ) must frequently be turned by that or a gerund; e.g. IS $12^{17}$ in asking you a king; $14^{39}$, $19^{5}, 20^{96}$, Gn $3^{22}, 18^{19}, 34^{7.15}$, Ex $23^{2}$,
 $104^{14!}, 11^{6}, \operatorname{Pr}^{28}, 8^{94}, 18^{8}, N e h 13^{18}$. Sometimes the infinitive with b is used in this way simply by itself, e.g. 1 Ch $12^{8}$ as the roes upon the mountains
 $\operatorname{Pr} 2^{2}, 26^{2}$ and so very frequently the infinitive ${ }^{2}$ dicendo which has become stereotyped as an adverb to introduce direct narration (in the sense of thus, as follows). ${ }^{1}$
5. In a number of instances-especially in the later books-the infin. $p$ constr. with ? appears to be attached by $W a \bar{w} w$ (like the infinitive absolute, § II3z), as the continuation of a previous finite verb. In most examples of this kind it is, however, evident that the infinitive with $\}$ virtually depends on an idea of intention, effort, or being in the act of, which, according to the sense, is contained in what has preceded, whilst the copula, as sometimes also elsewhere, is used in an emphatic sense (and that too); thus e.g. Ex $3^{22^{29}}$ (if the text be right) fill your hand to-day (sc. with an offering) for the Lord.: . and that to bring a blessing upon you, i. e. that ye may be blessed; cf. I S $25^{31}$ (otherwise in verses 26 and 33 where the infinitive absolute is used, see
 might be regarded as an explanatory addition to the command contained in verse $9 b$ ( $=$ this prohibition of wine before the sorvice shall ye observe, and that in order to put a difference, \&c.); but probably the text has been disturbed by a redactor.-In $2 \operatorname{Ch} 30^{9}$ וְלָאשׁוֹ depends on the idea of receiving a favour which lies in 1 . to explain and in order to appoint them unto him for captains of thousands (sc. he will take them). In Is $44^{28}$ translate and he (Cyrus) shall perform all my pleasure, and that in saying of Jerusalem, \&c.
3. The period of time to which an action or occurrence represented $q$ by the infinitive coustruct belongs, must sometimes be inferred from the context, or from the character of the principal tenses; cf. e.g. Gn $2^{4}$ these are the generations of the heaven and of the earth, they were created (prop. in their being created); Ju עַר־ִּּׁ וג' until

[^163]I come unto thee，and bring forth，\＆c．Cf．IS $\mathrm{I}^{19}$（＝when she should have been given）； $2 \mathrm{~K} 2^{1}$ ， $\mathrm{Ho} 7^{1}$ ．
$\boldsymbol{r}$ Rem．I．The constructions of the infinitive with a preposition，described above under $d$ ，are almost always continued in the further course of the narrative by means of the finite verb，i．e．by an independent sentence，not by a co－ordinate infinitive．Such a tinite verb we regard as governed by a con－ junction，which corresponds to the preposition standing before the infinitive． Thus the infinitival construction（frequently even with a change of subject）



 and did cast off continually all pity（a frequentative perfect；for examples of the perfect consecutive proper see Gn $27^{45}$ ，Ju $6^{18}$ ，iS $10^{8}, 2 \mathrm{~K}$ 1 $8^{32}$［Is $36^{17}$ ］，
 Is $30^{26}$（after in the day，a temporal phrase which has here become equivalent to a preposition）；Is $5^{24}$（after $\underset{⿻ コ 一}{ }$ ）， $10^{2}, 13^{9}, 14^{25}, 45^{1}, 49^{5}, ~ I S 2^{8}$ ， $\operatorname{Pr} 2^{8}, 5^{2}, 8^{21}$（always after ？）${ }^{1}$ ；by an imperfect consecutive，e．g．Gn $39^{18}$ and

 Ez $34^{8}$（after ${ }^{2}{ }^{\text {Sn }}$ ）．
$S$ 2．The negation of an infinitive construct，on account of the predominance of the noun－element in its character，is effected not by the verbal negative （except in the compound $\underset{\sim}{\text { B }}$ ，which has come to be used as a preposition，

 eat of it；in a final seuse， $4^{15}$ lest any finding him should smite him；only in
 negatives，not the infinitive，but the predicate which is understood．

## § 115．Construction of the Infinitive Construct with

 Subject and Object．$a$ 1．Like the infinitive absolute（see § II $3 a$ ），the character of the infinitive construct as a verbal noun is shown by its power of taking the case proper to its verb，and hence in transitive verbs ${ }^{2}$ the accu－


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was so fully established, that it could be used not only in such strange cases,
 \{ \}o be an adversary to him, but ultimately even in the rest sing., as in
 a husband's brother unto me; i Ch 4 (that it may not grieve me!]
d 3. The power of governing like a verb is also retained in those verbal nouns which, although originally secondary forms of the infinitive, have fully acquired the value of nouns, e.g. Is i1 ${ }^{9}$.


 $\S 45 e)$, Nu $1^{2}$, $\mathrm{Is}_{13} 3^{19}, \operatorname{Am} 4^{11}, \mathrm{Ez}_{1} 7^{9}$. The accusative of the object likewise remains after infinitives (or their secondary forms) which have the article, e. g. Gn $2^{9}$, Jer $22^{16}$, or a suffix, e.g. Gn $5^{4}$, \&c., $28^{4.6}, 29^{19}$ f., $30^{15}, 3^{8^{5}, 2} 23^{11}$, Is $29^{13}$.
e 2. The subject of the action represented by the infinitive is mostly placed immediately ${ }^{1}$ after it, either in the genitive or nominative. The subject is in the genitive ( $\$ 33 c$ ) whenever it has the form of a noun-suffix, and also when the infinitive has the termination of the constr. st. fem. sing. (see $f$ ) ; probably also in many other cases, where the infinitive in form and meaning is used more like a substantive, and accordingly governs like a noun. On the other hand, the subject of the infinitive is certainly to be regarded as a nominative, when it is separated from the infinitive by any insertion, and according to certain indications (see $g$ ) very probably in many other instances.

Rem. I. Examples of genitives of the subject after infinitives in the
 cf. $7^{8}$, Gn $19^{16}$, $1 \mathrm{~K} 10^{9}$, Is $\mathrm{I}_{3}{ }^{19}$, $47^{9}$, $\mathrm{Ho} 3^{1}$, $\mathrm{Am}_{4}{ }^{11}$. The subject of the infinitive is probably also to be regarded as genitive in such cases as Ex $17^{1}$
 of the people), and in cases like Gn $16{ }^{16}$ ( $33^{38}$, 1 K $6^{1}, \psi 133^{1}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 7^{3}$, \&c.
$\boldsymbol{g}$ 2. Examples in which the subject is separated from the infinitive by an insertion, and hence must certainly be regarded as a nominative, are Jb $34^{22}$
 the hiding themselves there the workers of iniquity) ; cf. Gn $34^{15}$, Nu $35^{6}$, Dt $19^{3}, \mathrm{Ju} 9^{2}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 24^{19}, \psi 76^{10}$, and below, i. The subject is likewise to be regarded as a nominative, whenever the Lamedh is prefixed to the infinitive by


[^165]since, if the infinitive were used as a nomen regens, we should rather expect לִשׂinacording to $\S 102 f$. That the subject of the infinitive is regarded elsewhere also as nominative is again (see above, b) probable, since in such


 regens. Or was the retention of the Qames (assuming the thorough correctness of the Masoretic punctuation) rendered possible even before a following genitive, because that vowel was characteristic of the form? It is at all events certain that owing to the lack of case-endings, ${ }^{1}$ a distinction between the genitival and nominatival constructions could not have been consciously made in the case of most infinitives, e.g. in unchangeable forms like לקוּ, \& \& \&
3. When both a subject and an object are connected with the $h$ infinitive, the rule is, that the subject should immediately follow the infinitive, and then the object. The latter, in such a case, is necessarily in the accusative, but the subject (as in $e$ ) may be either in the genitive or in the nominative. The noun-suffixes again are, of course, to be regarded as genitives, e.g. Gn $39^{18}$ as I lifted $u p m y$ voice (cf. $\mathrm{IK} \mathrm{I} 3^{21}$, and the examples, $\mathrm{Gn}_{5}{ }^{4}$, \&c., enumerated above, under $d$ ), and so also substantives which follow a connective form, $\operatorname{Dt~} \mathrm{I}^{27}, \& c . ;$ see above, $d$ and $f$.

On the other hand, the subject appears necessarily to be in the $i$
 should shake them that lift it up (for the plur. מרימיו cf. § $124 k$ ), not
 cf. $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1}{ }^{13}$, Jb $33^{17}$. And so probably also in other cases, as Gn $5^{1}$, $13^{10}$, Jos $14^{7}$, 1 K I $3^{4}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{2} 3^{10}$, $\mathrm{Is}_{3} 2^{7}$. The subject is separated from the infinitive by an insertion (and consequently must necessarily be in the nominative; see $g$ above), e.g. in Jer $2 \mathrm{I}^{1}$.

Rem. Less frequently the object is placed immediately after the infinitive, $k$ and then the nominative of the subject, as a subsequent complement, e.g.
 $\psi 56^{1}, \operatorname{Pr}{ }^{2} 5^{8}$. In Nu ${ }^{2} 4^{23}$ the subject follows an infinitive which has a nounsuffix in place of the object.

## § 116. The Participles.

Cf. Sellin (see above at the head of § in 3), p. 6 ff., and Kahan, p. 11 ff .

1. Like the two infinitives, the participles also occupy a middle $a$ place between the noun and the verb. In form they are simple nouns,

[^166]and most nearly related to the adjective; consequently they cannot in themselves be employed to represent definite relations of tense or mood. On the other hand, their verbal character is shown by their not representing, like the adjectives, a fixed and permanent quality (or state), but one which is in some way connected with an action or activity. The participle active indicates a person or thing conceived as being in the continual uninterrupted exercise of an activity. The participle passive, on the other hand, indicates the person or thing in a state which has been brought about by external actions.
$b$ Rem. That the language was fully conscious of the difference between a state implying action (or effected by external action) and mere passivity, is seen from the fact, that participles proper cannot be formed from the purely stative Qal, but only verbal adjectives of the form $q \bar{a} t \bar{e} \bar{l}$ ( or qātōl (גָּ גָּ in form with the intransitive Qal (as a verb middle e), nevertheless forms
 In cases where the participle proper and the verbal adjective both occur, they are by no means synonymous. When the Assyrians are called in Is $28^{11}$ men of stammering lips, a character is ascribed to them which is
 Jer ${ }^{20}{ }^{7}$, describes those about the prophet as continually engaged in casting

C On the difference between the participle as expressing simple duration and the imperfect as expressing progressive duration, cf. what has been stated above in $\S 107 \mathrm{~d}$. Nevertheless the participle is sometimes used-especially in the later books, cf. e.g. Neh 6 ${ }^{17}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 17^{11}$-where we should expect the action to be divided up into its several parts, and consequently should expect the finite verb. But the substitution of the participle for the tempus historicum, which becomes customary in Aramaic (cf. Kautzsch, Gramm. des Bibl.-Aram., $\S 76.2, d$ and $e$ ), is nevertheless quite foreign to Hebrew.
2. The period of time indicated by (a) a participle active, either as an attribute or predicate, must be inferred from the particular context. Thus may mean either moriens ( $\mathrm{Zc} 1 \mathrm{I}^{9}$ ), or mortuus (so commonly; with the article regularly=the dead man), or
 jalling, but also fallen, $\mathrm{Ju}^{25}, \mathrm{I}_{5}{ }^{35}$, and ready to fall (threatening ruin, Is $\left.30^{13}, \mathrm{Am} 9^{11}\right)$. For other examples of perfect participles
 were come again from the captivity); $\operatorname{Gn} 35^{3},{\operatorname{Ex~} 11^{5}, \mathrm{Zc}_{12}{ }^{1}, \psi \mathbf{1 3 7}^{7} \text {, }}^{2}$ $\operatorname{Pr} 8^{9}, \mathrm{Jb}_{12}{ }^{4}$ (in), and see $m$ below. For future participles see
 the futurum instans (esp. after
$\boldsymbol{e}$ (b) Of the passive participles, that of Qal (e.g. always corresponds to a Latin or Greek perfect participle passive, those of the other conjugations, especially Niphal, sometimes to

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Gold ; $\mathrm{Hb}{ }^{25}$; with an infinitive, $\psi \mathrm{I}^{2} 7^{2}$; with a noun-suffix (which, according to $\S 33 \mathrm{c}$, also represents a genitive), e.g. Gn $4^{14}$

 in the preceding clause) ; $27^{29}$, IS $2^{30}$, Is $63^{13}, \psi 18^{19}$. In Jer $33^{22}$ read
h Rem. To the class of objective genitives belong also specifications of place after the participles $\mathbb{K}$ in the sense of ingredi, egredi, can be directly connected with an accusative;
 $\mathrm{Gn} 9^{10}, 34^{24}, 4^{626}$, \&c.-In poetic language the participle in the construct state may be connected not only with a genitive of the object, but also with any other specifications (especially of space) which otherwise can only be made to depend on the verb in question by means of a preposition; cf. Is $33^{88}$, and
 that lie in the grave ; Dt $32^{24}\left(\mathrm{Mi}^{177}\right)$; $\mathrm{IK}{ }^{27}, 2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{II}^{5.7 .9}$ those that came in (or went out) on the sabbath, $\operatorname{Pr}^{2^{7}, ~ I ~} \mathrm{Ch}^{218}, \& \mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{n}}$; instead of the construction with ${ }^{-}$p, e. g. Is $59^{20}$ (those who turn from transgression), Mi $2^{8}$ (cf. § $72 p$ ).
$i$ These genitives of nearer definition appear also in the form of a noun-

 unto her ; the construction is especially bold in Is $29^{7}$ ªll that fight against her and her stronghold (for ${ }^{\prime}$ () with a participle Po'al, משה they that are mad against me (?), but read perhaps
 as regards its leaf, it remains doubtful whether ji in in the absolute state,
 construct state, and analogous to $\operatorname{Pr} \mathbf{1 4}^{2}$ (see $k$ ).
$k$ 4. The passive participles also may either be in the absolute state, and take the determining word in the accusative, ${ }^{2}$ or may be connected

[^167]with it in the construct state, e.g. Ju $18^{11}$, i $\mathrm{S}_{2}{ }^{13}$, $\mathrm{Ez} 9^{2}$ Tבוּשׁ
 rent as regards his coat $2 \mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{I}}{ }^{32}$; with the participle following $\mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{I}^{7}$ );
 rent in respect of clothes, equivalent to with their clothes rent (cf. Jer $41^{5}$ ); Nu $24^{4}, \mathrm{Dt}_{2} 5^{10}$, Is $3^{3}, 33^{24}$, Jo $\mathbf{1}^{8}, \psi 3^{2^{1}}$ (


Rem. The passive participle occurs in the construct state before a genitive $l$
 before a genitive denoting the author, e.g. Gn ${ }_{2} 4^{31}$ יהוֹה (but $\psi 115^{15}$, hence also with noun-suffixes (which are accordingly genitive) Pr pron $9^{18}$ ? her invited ones, i.e. those invited by her ; of. $7^{27}, 437^{24}$.
5. The use of the participle as predicate is very frequent in noun- $m$ clauses (which, according to $\S 140 e$, describe established facts and states), in which the period of time intended by the description must again (see above, d) be inferred from the context. Thus:
(a) As present, in speaking of truths which hold good at all times, e. g. Ec $1^{4} n$ one generation goeth, and another generation cometh; and the earth abideth (لעֹ occurrences which are just happening, $\mathrm{Gn} 3^{5}, 16^{8}(I \mathrm{am}$ fleing $) ; 3^{22^{12}}, \mathrm{Ex} 9^{17}$, IS $16^{15}, 23^{1}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 7^{9}$, Is $1^{7}$; when the subject is introduced by the emphatic demonstrative thou art with child, \&e.; ${ }^{27^{42}}$; frequently also in circumstantial clauses (connected by $W a ̄ w)$, cf. $\$ 141$ e, e.g. Gn $15^{2}$, \&c.
(b) To represent past actions or states, sometimes in independent noun- $O$
 ings, \&c.; I K $1^{5}$; in negative statements, e.g. Gn $39^{23 a}$; sometimes in relative clauses, e.g. Gn $39^{23 b}$, Dt $3^{2}$ (cf. also the frequent combination of the participle with the article as the equivalent of a relative clause, e.g. Gn $3^{210}$ קוֹאוֹמו which saidst ; $12^{7}, 16^{13}, 35^{1.3}, 33^{655}, 4^{8^{16},} 2 \mathrm{~S}_{15}{ }^{31}$, \&c.) ; sometimes again (see $n$ ) in circumstantial clauses, especially those representing actions or states which occurred simultaneously with other past actions, \& \& . , e.g. Gn $19{ }^{1}$ and the two angels came to Sodom إלוֹ and (i.e. while) Lot sat, \&c.; ; 181.8.16.22, $25^{26,} \mathrm{Ju}_{13}{ }^{9}$,
 a following adjective or participle to express an action constantly or occasionally recurring, cf. § 113 u .)
(c) To announce future actions or events, e.g. I $\mathrm{K} \mathbf{2}^{2}, \mathbf{2} \mathrm{~K} 4^{16}$ at this season $\boldsymbol{p}$ when the time cometh round, specification of time, $\mathrm{Gn}^{4}{ }^{4}, 15^{14}, 17^{19}, 19^{19}, \mathrm{Hag}_{2^{6}}$ (but in Is $23^{15}$, where, after l le should rather expect a perfect consecutive, it is better to explain
struction cf. below, $\S 117 \mathrm{cc}$, \&c., and $\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{g}} 12 \mathrm{Ic}$, d. So also Neh $4^{12}$ is to be understood, and the builders were girded every one with his sword on his side, and building.
 $\S 44 \dot{f}$ ); or in relative clauses, $\mathrm{Gn}_{4} 1^{25}$, Is $5^{5}$ what I am doing, i.e am in the act of doing; in a deliberative question, Gn $37^{30}$; but especially often when the subject is introduced by הִֵּּ (especially also if the subject be attached as
 imminent, or at least near at hand (and sure to happen), when it is called futurum instans, e.g. Gn $6^{17}, 15^{3}, 20^{3}, 24^{13 \mathrm{f}}, 4^{212}, 50^{5}, \mathrm{Ex} 3^{13}, 8^{25}, 9^{3}, 34^{10}$, Jos $2^{18}$, Ju $7^{17}, 9^{33}$, IS $3^{11}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 7^{2}$, Is $3^{1}, 7^{14}, 17^{1}$, Jer $30^{10}, \mathrm{Zc} 2^{13}, 3^{8}$; with a participle passive, 2 S $20^{21}$ : cf. also § 112t.
$q$ Rem. i. As the above examples show, a noun-clause with a participle as predicate may have for its subject either a substantive or a personal pronoun; in both cases the participle, especially if there be a certain emphasis upon it, may precede the subject. Also in noun-clauses introduced by רִּה the subject may be either as substantive, or (e.g. Gn $37^{7}$ ) a separate personal pronoun, or a sutfix attached to .הֵנ. In the same way, the subject may also be introduced by (non est) with a suffix, e.g. Ju $6^{36}$ שִם if thou wilt save; Gn $43^{5}$ יָדוֹ הַנְּטוּיָה the stretched out hand is his, הַ הַנְטוּיָּ is not, like in $9^{11.16, ~ \& c ., ~ t h e ~ p r e d i c a t e ~}$ (in which case the participle could not take the article), but the subject; cf. Gn $2^{11}, 45^{12}$, Is $66^{9}, \mathrm{Ez} 20^{29}, \mathrm{Zc} 7^{6}$ (cf. § $126 k$ ), where the participle with the article likewise refers to the present, also Nu $7^{2}$, $\mathrm{Dt} 3^{21,} 4^{3}$, \&c., i $\mathrm{S} 4^{16}$, where it refers to the past. In $1 \mathrm{~K}_{12}{ }^{8}$ and $21^{11}$ even in relative clauses after
$r$ 2. To give express emphasis to an action continuing in the past, the perfect היָה in the corresponding person is sometimes added to the participle, and
 is used to emphasize an action continuing in the future, e.g. Jb $I^{14}$ הַבָּקָ
 $2 \mathrm{~S} 3^{6}$; the same occurs with a passive participle, e.g. Jos $5^{5}, \mathrm{Zc} 3^{3}$; יָּ with a participle is found e.g. in Is $2^{2}$; the jussive in Gn $1^{6}, \psi 109^{12} ; 1$ and ויה with a participle in $\mathrm{Ju} 16^{21}$, Neh $1^{4}$.
3. The personal pronoun which would be expected as the subject of a participial clause is frequently omitted, or at least (as elsewhere in noun-clauses, cf. Is $26^{3}, \psi 16^{8}, \mathrm{Jb} 9^{32}$ ) the pronoun of the 3 rd pers. Niה, e.g. Gn $24^{30}, 37^{15}, 38^{24}$, $4^{1}$, 1 S $1^{11}, 15^{12}$, Is $29^{8}$ (the participle always after הֵ̣̣); cf., moreover, Gn $3^{27}$, Dt $33^{3}$, $1 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 7^{25}, 20^{1}$, Is $33^{5}, 40^{19}, \psi 22^{29}, 33^{5}, 55^{20}, \mathrm{Jb}_{12^{17.19} \mathrm{ff},} 25^{2}, 26^{7}$.— K is omitted in Lv $18^{28}$; הִּ in in is $32^{22}$, Ez. $8^{12}$, Neh $9^{3}$; in a relative clause, Gn $39^{22}$, Is $24^{2}$.-The personal pronoun of the 2nd pers. masc. (NAM) is omitted in $\mathrm{Hb}_{2}{ }^{10}$; the 2nd fem. (fN) in Gn ${ }^{20}{ }^{16}$ (where, however, for the participle וֹלָכַחַת the 2 nd fem. perf. is to be read); the pronoun of the ist sing. in $\mathrm{Hb}^{15}{ }^{5}$ (?), $\mathrm{Zc} 9^{12}$, Mal $2^{16}$; the 2nd plur. ( $6^{3}, \mathrm{Ez}_{13}{ }^{7}$ (?). But these passages are all more or less doubtful.
$t$ Of a different kind are the cases in which some undefined subject is to be supplied with the participle; e.g. Is $2 I^{11}$ אֵלי קרִ there is one calling unto me ( $=$ one calleth ; $\S_{144}$ d); cf. Is $30^{24}, 33^{4}$. -So with participles in the plur., e.g. Ex $5^{16}$ ( Ez ${ }^{1} 3^{7}$ (?), $36^{13}, .37^{11}$ (equivalent to sunt qui dicant).

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continued by means of a perfect, Is $14^{17}$ שָׁn the world as a wilderness, and overthrew the cities thereof ${ }^{1} ; 43^{7}, \mathrm{Ez} 22^{3}, \psi 13^{613} \mathrm{ff}$, Pr ${ }^{17}$; by a perfect without $W a \bar{a} w, \mathrm{Gn}_{49}{ }^{11}$; by a simple imperfect (as the modus rei repetitae in the present), Is: ${ }^{23}, 46^{6}, \operatorname{Pr} 7^{8}, \mathrm{Jb} 12^{17.19 \mathrm{ff}}, 24^{21}$; by an imperfect without $W a \bar{a} w$, e. g. IS $2^{8}$, $\operatorname{Is} 5^{8}, \operatorname{Pr} 2^{14}, 19^{26}$; by an imperfect con-


## C. The Government of the Verb.

## § 117. The Direct Subordination of the Noun to the Verb

 as Accusative of the Object. The Double Accusative.L. Kaila, Zur Syntax des in verbaler Abhängigkeit stehenden Nomens im alttest. Hebr., Helsingfors; 1906.
a 1. The simplest way in which a noun is subordinated to a verbal form is by the addition of an accusative of the object to a transitive verb. ${ }^{2}$ In the absence of case-endings, ${ }^{3}$ this accusative can now be recognized only from the context, or by the particle אֵת (אֵ, before suffixes also $\boldsymbol{n k}$, תiא $)^{4}$ prefixed to it. The use of this nota accusativi

[^169]is, however, somewhat rare in poetry, and even in prose it is not invariably necessary but is restricted to those cases in which the accusative of the object is more closely determined by being a proper name, or by having the article, or by a following determinate genitive (hence also by the suffixes), or in some other way (see below, c), e.g.
 the heaven and the earth (but $2^{4}$ אֶת־חַית


Rem. I. The rare occurrence of the nota accusativi in poetic style (e.g. it $b$ never occurs in Ex $15^{2-18}$, Dt ${ }^{22}$, Ju '5' 1 S 2 , \& c., though it is frequent in the late Psalms) may be explained from the fact that in this as in other respects (cf. § $2 q$ ) poetry represents a somewhat more archaic stage of the language than prose. The need of some external means of indicating the accusative could only have been felt after the case-endings had become wholly extinct. Even then the $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ אould probably have been used at first to indicate only an object placed before the verb (when it followed, it was already sufficiently characterized by its position as depending on the verb), or proper names. ${ }^{1}$ Finally, however, the nota accusativi became so customary everywhere in prose, that even the pronominal object was expressed rather by K א with suffixes than by verbal suffixes, even when none of the reasons mentioned under $e$ can be assigned for it; cf. Giesebrecht in $Z A W$. 188I, p. 258 ff., and the statistics of H. Petri, cited above at the head of $\S 58$. Such examples as
 $7^{5}$ in the Jahvist, are especially instructive.
2. Ay accusatives determined in other ways, we have in the first place to $\boldsymbol{C}$ consider the collectives introduced by entirety, without a following article or determinate genitive, inasmuch as the meaning of includes a determinative sense, cf. e.g. Gn $1^{21 \cdot 30}, 8^{211}, \mathrm{Dt}^{24}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 5^{3}{ }^{9}$. אֶת is used absolutely in $\mathrm{Gn} 9^{3}$, cf. $39^{23}$; similarly, pr is determinate of itself, since it always denotes
 also the relative quod, $\mathrm{Gn}^{24}$, \&c. Cf. also such examples as Jos $2^{20}$, IS $24^{19}$, where is equivalent to the circumstance, that, \&c.-Elsewhere אחת stands before nouns which are determinate in sense, although the article is omitted, which according to $\S 126 h$ is very frequently the case in poetic or otherwise elevated style ; thus Lv $26^{5}$, Jos $24^{14.15, ~ I s ~}{ }^{17}{ }^{7}$ (to distinguish the object from the subject); $5^{5}{ }^{4}$ (with the first of two accusatives, also for the sake of clearness); Ez $13^{20}$,

 aicóv, sometimes also ipsius, ipsum, and the Germ. dessellen, \&c.) that it merely serves to introduce a determinate object; prop. aítòv tòv oivavóv
 oípavov. Cf., further, P. Haupt on Pr ${ }^{184}{ }^{24}$ in his Rainbow Bible, and also in the Notes on Esther, p. 191.
${ }^{1}$ Thus, in Dt 33 , את occurs only in verse 9 (twice, with an object preceding the verb), in $\mathrm{Gn}_{49}$ in the blessing of Jacob only in verse 15 with a co-ordinate second object (consequently farther removed from the verb). Of the thirteen instances of $\boldsymbol{N}^{\text {in }}$ in the Mêsa inscription, seven stand directly and four indirectly before proper names.
(unless, with Beer and others, we read inc for ${ }^{-1}$ a quotation of an ancient maxim.
$d^{\text {On }}$ On the other hand occurs very seldom in prose before a noun actually or apparently undetermined. In I S $24^{6}$ 解 means of the following relative clause; in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{4}^{11}$ refers to Ishbosheth (as if it were him, who was an innocent man); in I K $6^{16}$ עֶשְׂרִים אַָּּה refers to the particular twenty cubits. In Ex $21^{28}$ (otherwise in verse 29) perhaps the -אֵ is used in order to avoid the combination (as in Nu $21^{9}$ to avoid the cacophony tives are at any rate defined by the context.-In Nu את־־אחר מֵהֶם 1615 probably means even a single one (and then ipsofacto a definite one) of them, as also in IS $9^{3}$ אֶת may refer to some definite one of the men-servants. In Gn $21^{90}$ we should read seven lambs have been already mentioned; in Ex ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ translate with Meyer,
 the Samaritan; in Lv $2014^{\circ}$ N is probably a scribal error due to

 where it refers to the women already mentioned; in $2 \mathrm{~S} 18^{18}$ read הַפָּצֶבְת, or omit both in $2 \mathrm{~K} 23^{20}$ probably
 the passage.
e 3. The pronominal object must be represented by $\pi \mathbb{N}$ with a suffix (instead of a verbal suffix), when (a) it precedes the verb, e.g. Nu $22^{39}$ אֹתְכָה הָרַגְּתִּ
 $57^{11}$, Jer $4^{17.22}, 7^{19}$; (b) when a suffix is already attached to the verb, and as


 an infinitive absolute, see above § II 3 a note; ( $d$ ) after an infinitive construct, when it is immediately followed by the subject, e.g. Gn $4{ }^{39}$, or when the combination of a suffix with the infinitive might lead to a misunder-
 לִבְלִּתִּ הַּוֹתוֹ might also mean lest he should smite.
$f$ supplied fromominal object is very frequently omitted, when it can be easily supplied from the context; so especially the neuter accusative referring to something previously mentioned (the English it) after verba sentiendi (שׁׁp) and


 of the plural object. is remarkable, because it leaves an opportunity for
 however, we should read
$\boldsymbol{g}$ 5. In common formulae the substantival object is also sometimes omitted

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following examples, in which -את in the later Hebrew manner (almost in the sense of the Latin quod attinet ad) introduces a noun with more or less emphasis, Nu $3^{46}, 5^{10}, 35^{6}, \mathrm{Ju}{ }^{2044.46}, \mathrm{Ez}$ 1 $^{21}, 20^{16}, 35^{10}, 44^{3}$, Neh $9^{19.94}$, Dn $9^{13}$, 2 Ch $3^{17}{ }^{17}$. -In Ez $47^{17-19}$ (cf. also $43^{7}$ ) it is simplest to emend ת according to verse 20. However, even the LXX, who have tav̂ta only in verse 18 , can hardly have known any other reading than $\Omega \mathbb{N}$; consequently in all these passages $\pi$ must be regarded as virtually dependent on some
 thou shalt have as a border, \&c.
$n$ 8. Another solecism of the later period is finally the introduction of the object by the preposition ? (prop. in relation to, in the direction of), as sometimes in Ethiopic ${ }^{1}$ and very commonly in Aramaic. ${ }^{2}$ Less remarkable is this looser connexion of the object with a participle, as with אִֵּּ , אדָ $\mathrm{Nu} 10^{25}$, זקָ $\psi 145^{14}$ (but cf. $146^{68}$ ), צָרָ $\mathrm{Nu} 25^{18}$, הִשְּ before the participle Is $1{ }_{1}{ }^{9}$.-To introduce an object preceding the finite verb

 before with an accusative) ; הִגְלָ I Ch $5^{26}$; דֶּ
 : with accusative), $136^{19 \mathrm{f}}$; ; ָָּ



 2 Ch $10^{6}$ (but verse 9 and $1 \mathrm{~K} 12^{9}$ with an accusative); $;$

O 9. Sometimes the verb, on which an accusative of the object really depends, is contained only in sense in the verb which apparently governs, e.g. Is $14^{17}$ his prisoners he let not loose nor sent them back to their home. On this constructio praegnans in general, see § $119 . f f$.
$\boldsymbol{p}$ 2. With the proper accusatives of the object may also be classed what is called the internal or absolute object (also named schema etymologicum or figura etymologica), i.e. the addition of an object in the form

[^171] a fear (i.e. they were in great fear), $\operatorname{Pr} \mathrm{I}_{5}^{27}$; also with the object

 me, I pray thee, give thee counsel; $\boldsymbol{1} \mathrm{K} \mathbf{1}^{12}$.

Rem. (a) Strictly speaking the only cases of this kind are those in which the verbal idea is supplemented by means of an indeterminate substantive (see the examples above). Such a substantive, except in the case of the addition of the internal object to denominative verbs (see below), is, like the infinitive absolute, never altoget her without force, but rather serves like it to strengthen the verbal idea. This strengthening is implied in the indeterminateness of the internal object, analogous to such exclamations as, this was a man! ${ }^{3}$ Hence it is intelligible that some intensifying attribute is very frequently (as in Greek usually) added to the internal object, e.g. Gn $27^{34}$ ַַיִצְעַק צְעָקָה גְדָּלָ קוֹרָה עַר־מֹאֹר he cried (with) an exceeding great and bitter cry; cf. the Greek
 tutiorem vitam vivere, \&c.

Examples of an internal object after the verb, and without further addition,
 with an intensifying attribute, Gn $27^{33}, \mathrm{Ex}_{32^{31}}, \mathrm{Ju}_{15} 5^{8},{ }_{2} \mathrm{~S}_{1} 3^{36}$, I $\mathrm{K}_{1}{ }^{40}$ (cf.
 proper the internal object occurs with an attribute in Gn I ${ }^{17}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 3^{15}$; cf. also Is $14^{6}$, Jon $4^{1}$.-An internal object without an attribute before the verb :
 (cf. also Gn $30^{8}$, Jer $22^{19}, 30^{14}, \psi \mathbf{1 3} 9^{22}$ ). Instead of the substantive which would naturally be expected, another of kindred meaning is used in Zc $8^{2}$.
(b) Only in a wider sense can the schema etymologicum be made to include $r^{\cdot}$ cases in which the denominative verb is used in connexion with the noun from which it is derived, e. g. Gn $1^{11}, 9^{14}, 11^{3}, 37^{7}, \operatorname{EzI}_{18}{ }^{2}, \psi 144^{6}$, probably also Mi $2^{4}$, or where this substantive, made determinate in some way, follows its verb, e.g. Gn $30^{37}, \mathrm{Nu} 25^{11}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{4}{ }^{13}, \mathrm{I}^{14}, \mathrm{Is} 45^{17}$, La $3^{58}$, 4 and, determinate at least in sense, Jer ${ }^{22^{16}}$; or precedes it, as in $2 \mathrm{~K} 2^{16}$, Is $8^{12}, 62^{6}, \mathrm{Zc} 3^{7}$; cf. also Ex $3^{9}$. In both cases the substantive is used, without any special emphasis, merely for clearness or as a more convenient way of connecting the verb with other members of the sentence.
3. Verbs which denote speaking (crying out, weeping), or any $S$ external act, frequently take a direct accusative of the organ or means by which the action is performed. In this case, however, the accusative must be more closely determined by an attributive adjective or a noun in the genitive. This fact shows the close relation between these accusatives and the internal objects treated under $p$, which also,
${ }^{1}$ On a kindred use of the infinitive absolute as an internal object, see above, § 113 w.
${ }^{2}$ Cf. $\beta o u \lambda a ̀ s ~ \beta o u \lambda \epsilon u ́ \epsilon \iota \nu$, Iliad x. 147.
${ }^{2}$ The Arab grammarians assign to the indeterminate cases generally an intensive sense in many instances; hence the commentators on the Qoran usually explain such cases by adding and what ....! see § $125 b$.
${ }^{4}$ Also in $\psi 13^{4}$ lest $I$ sleep the sleep of death, הַּשֶּ
 use of
according to $q$, mostly take an intensifying attribute. On the other hand, they must not be regarded as adverbial (instrumental) accusatives, nor are they to be classed with the second (neuter) subjects treated below in § 144 l.
$t$ Examples of the accusative following the verb are and $I$ cried a loud voice, i. $\theta$. with a loud voice, $\mathrm{Ez} \mathrm{II}^{13}, 2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{I}_{5} 5^{23}$ (after the proper object,

 hand, i. e. who dealeth with a slack hand; cf. the German eine schöne Stimme singen, to sing a fine voice, eine tüchtige Klinge schlagen, to smite a trusty sword, Schlittschuhe laufen, to run skates (i. e. to skate), and our to write a good hand,
 my mouth shall praise with joyful lips, $\psi 63^{6}$; cf. $\psi 12^{3}$, where a casus instrumenti with follows the accusative.
4. Many verbs originally intransitive (sometimes even in form; see $a$, note 2) may be used also as transitives, in consequence of a certain modification of their original meaning, which has gradually become established by usage; cf. e.g. ריב to strive, but also with an accusative causam alicuius agere (so even in $\mathrm{I}^{1} \mathbf{1}^{17}$, \&c.; elsewhere with $\}$ of the person for whom one strives); יָּל absolutely to be able, with an accusative to prevail over any one; ${ }^{\gamma} \underset{\sim}{\top}$ to be inclined and pleasure (usually with $\underset{\rightrightarrows}{7}$ ), with an accusative to wish for some one or something; joined with ${ }^{-}$ỵ cum, but quite early also with the accusative, equivalent to comprimere (feminam), \&c. So in $2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{I}^{14}$, \&c., unless in all or some of the passages the preposition $\cdots$ in ; in the earlier passages is the more usual.
$\boldsymbol{v}$ Rem. I. It is certainly difficult to decide whether some verbs, which were afterwards used absolutely or joined with prepositions, were not nevertheless originally transitive, and consequently it is only the supposed original meaning, usually assigned to them in English, which causes them to appear intransitive. ${ }^{1}$ In that case there is of course no syntactical peculiarity to be considered, and a list of such verbs would at the most be requisite only for practical purposes. Moreover, it is also possible that certain verbs were originadly in use at the same time both as transitive and intransitive, e. g. perhaps לָׁ to be clothed along with לָבָּשׂ to put on (a garment). Finally the analogy of certain transitives in constant use may have led to intransitives of kindred meaning being also united directly with the accusative, so that, in other words, whole classes of verbs came to be regarded in a particular aspect as transitives. See below, $y$.
 (iubere aliquem); קָּרַ to remember ; (also with ל) to wait for any one (to expect any one); ( נָאֵף ; to bring glad tidings to any one (see the Lexicon)
 to become surety for . . ., and many others.

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 to overflow with, probably in Is $10^{22}$; $\mathcal{Z}$ ) to bud with, $\operatorname{Pr} 10^{91}$; so perhaps also עָ bold, but still on the analogy of the above examples, is Is $5^{6}$, where it is said of a vineyard briers and thorns; cf. Pr 24 ${ }^{91}$, and still more boldly, Is $34^{13}$.
 bereared of (as though it were to lose), Gn $27^{45}$. - In Jos $22^{17}$ even (prop. was there too little for us of . . .?) as being equivalent to a verbum inopiae ( = had we too little of . . ? ? is construed with an accusative; cf. Neh $9^{32}$. (c) Several verbs of dwelling; the accusative in this case expresses either the
 Pr $8^{12}$, Is $33^{16}$ with ${ }^{i} \underset{\sim}{\sim}$; or even the person (the people) with whom any one


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5. Two accusatives (usually one of the person and one of the thing) are governed by-
(a) The causative conjugations ( Piéel, $^{\prime}$ Hiph $\hat{\imath} l$, sometimes also Pilpel, e.g. and hence also of verba induendi and exuendi, \&c. (cf. above $a$ and $u$,
 glory. Thus very frequently thing ; לִּמַּר docere aliquem aliquid, \&c.; cf. further, Gn $4 \mathrm{I}^{42}$ in בִנְרִי־שִׁט and he caused him to put on vestures of fine linen (he arrayed him in vestures, \&c.) ; cf. in the opposite sense, Gn $37^{23}$ (both accusatives after הִפְּשִׁיט introduced by with something, Gn $2 \mathbf{I}^{19}, 26^{15}, \operatorname{Ex} 28^{3}$; something, $\psi 18^{33}$; עִ to crown, $\psi 8^{6}$, \&c.; ח חֵּר to cause some one to lack something, $\psi 8^{6}$; הֶאֵּ to feed some one with something, Ex $16^{32}$;

$d d$ (b) Many verbs (even in Qal) which express an influence upon the object through some external means. The latter, in this case, is attached as a second object. They are especially-
ee (a) Verbs which express corering, clothing, overlaying,
 which express sowing ( ָָרע Jud $9^{45}$, Is $7^{10}, 3{ }^{\circ 23}$ ), planting (Is $5^{2}$ ), anointing ( $\psi 45^{8}$ ) with anything.
( $\beta$ ) Expressions of giving, thus ${ }^{0}$ Jos $15{ }^{19}$ where the accusative of the thing precedes; endowing, זָּ $\mathrm{G} \mathrm{Gn} 33^{20}$; and its opposite taking away, as $\operatorname{Pr} 22^{23} ;$ 羿 to bless some one with something, Gn $49^{25}, \mathrm{Dt} \mathbf{1}^{14}$; to give graciously, ${ }_{j} \tilde{T}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Gn} 33^{5}$; to sustain (i.e. to support, to maintain, to furnish) with anything,

## $\S_{117 g g-i i]}$ Direct Subordination of the Noun, etc.

 I S $24^{18}$; cf. also po to come to meet any one with something, $\psi 21^{4}$, , to repay some one with something (with two accusatives, $\psi 35^{12}, \operatorname{Pr} 13^{21}$ ), and for the accusative of the person cf. $\epsilon \hat{\jmath}, \kappa а \kappa \hat{\omega} s ~ \pi \rho a ́ \tau \tau \epsilon \iota \nu \tau \iota \nu \dot{\alpha}$. In a wider sense we may also include such phrases as they hunt every man his brother with a net, $\mathrm{Mi} 7^{2}$; to shoot at one with arrows, $\psi 64^{8}$ (though this is against the accents); $\operatorname{Pr} 13^{24}$ seeks him early (with) discipline, i. e. chastises him betimes, \&c.
( $\gamma$ ) Expressions of asking some one for something, desiring something from $\boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{g}$ some one ( cf. in the other conjugations הֵשִׁב דָּבָך prop. verbum reddere, with an accusa-

 a person something, Ex $34^{32}$, Dt $1^{18}, 32^{26}$, Jer $7^{29}$.
( $\delta$ ) Expressions which mean to make, to form, to build something out of some- hh thing; in such cases, besides the accusative of the object proper, another accusative is used for the material of which the thing is made, e.g. Gn $2^{7}$ and the Lord formed man of the dust of the ground; so with all the vessels thereof made he of brass (for another explanation of the accusative [into brass], linguistically possible but excluded by the context, see below, $i i$ with $k k$ ); cf. Ex $25^{18.28, ~} 261.14 f .29,27^{1}, 3{ }^{68}$, I K $7^{27}$; with a preceding
 , int of unhewn stones shalt thou build the altar of the Lord.
(c) Verbs which express making, preparing, forming into anything, ii along with the object proper, take a second accusative of the product,

 אֶת אָָּ, with two accusatives, to bake something into something, Ex $12^{39}$, Lv $24^{5}$; שְׁם (prop. to set up for sometbing, cf. Gn $27^{37}, 28^{18}, \psi 39^{9}$,
 $5 \mathbf{I}^{10}, \mathrm{Mi} \mathbf{1}^{7}, 4^{13}$; with two accusatives of the person (to appoint, promote any one to the position of a ...), Is $3^{7} ;$ נָ
 a rule, however, the description of the office, and also frequently of the product, is introduced by ? to, § II9t; also to make a thing so and so (Is $5^{6}, 26^{1}$; with a personal object, $\psi 21^{7},{ }^{1} 91^{9}$ ); make dark, Am 5 ${ }^{8}$. Of the same class also are instances like $\mathrm{Jb} 28^{2}$
 Pְרָעִים and rent it (the garment) into twelve pieces; cf. Is $37^{26}$, accusative of the product before the object proper, after לִּשְׁאֹת to lay waste.

[^172] be something, Ec $7^{25}$; רָאָ to see, find to be, $\mathrm{Gn} 7^{1}$; to be something, Is $53^{4}$, elsewhere always construed with ל or $¥$ ), cf. $h$.
kh Rem. At first sight some of the examples given above appear to be identical in character with those treated under $h h$; thus it is possible, e.g. in I $\mathrm{K} 18^{32}$, by a translation which equally suits the sense, he built from the stones an altar,
 material, and the construction would then be exactly the same as in Dt $27^{6}$. In reality, however, the fundamental idea is by no means the same. Not that in the living language an accusative of the material in the one case, and in the other an accusative of the product were consciously distinguished. As Driver (Tenses, § 195) rightly observes, the remoter accusative in both cases is, strictly speaking, in apposition to the nearer. This is especially evident in such examples as Ex $0^{25}$ thou shalt not build them (the stones of the altar) $\boldsymbol{n}^{1} \boldsymbol{T}$ accusatives, as being primarily affected (or aimed at) by the action, is to be made the more prominent; and on this point neither the position of the words (the nearer object, mostly determinate, as a rule follows immediately after the verb), nor even the context admits of much doubt. Thus in I K $18^{32}$ the treatment of the stones is the primary object in view, the erection of the altar for which they were intended is the secondary; in Dt $27^{6}$ the case is reversed:
(d) Finally, the second accusative sometimes more closely determines the nearer object by indicating the part or member specially affected by the action, ${ }^{1}$ e. g. $\psi 3^{8}$ for thou hast smitten all mine enemies (as to) the cheek bone, equivalent to upon the cheek bone; cf. Gn $37^{21}$ let us not smite him צֶּ
 specially concerned is, by a bold construction, even placed first, $\mathrm{Dt}_{3} 3^{11}$ (with מָחץ).

## § 118. The Looser Subordination of the Accusative to the Verb.

a 1. The various forms of the looser subordination of a noun to the verb are distinguished from the different kinds of the accusative of the object ( $\mathrm{III}^{\mathrm{I}}$ ) by their specifying not the persons or things directly affected by the action, but some more immediate circumstance under which an action or an event takes place. Of such circumstances the most common are those of place, time, measure, cause, and finally the manner of performing the action. These nearer definitions are, as a rule, placed after the verb; they may, however, also precede it.
6 Rem. That the cases thus loosely subordinated to the verb are to be regarded as accusatires is seen first from the fact that in certain instances the nota accusativi (תN) is prefixed ; secondly from the fact that in one form of

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 to the LXX, a verb of giving has dropped out before אֹר .
$h$ Examples of (c): $\operatorname{Gn} 7^{20}$ fifteen cubits upward did the waters prevail;
 Dt $1^{19}$ we went (through) all that great and terrible wilderness; cf. Jb 29 ${ }^{3}$. Of the same kind also are such cases as Ex $16^{16}$ (according to the number of your persons, for which elsewhere לְְסְפְּרּ is used); i S $6^{4}$ (with the accus. preceding); $6{ }^{18}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 21^{20}, \mathrm{Jb} 1^{5}$. - A statement of weight is put in the accusative in $2 \mathrm{~S} 14^{26}$.
i 3. The accusative is employed to determine more precisely the time (accus. temporis), (a) in answer to the question when? e.g. הַיוֹa the day, i.e. on the day (in question), at that time, but also on this day,
高 noctu, $\psi 91^{6}$; יוֹם אֶחָ
 in stating a date, $\mathrm{Gn}_{\mathrm{II}}{ }^{10}, 14^{4}$ in the thirteenth year.
 ָּ $15^{13}, 2 \mathrm{I}^{34}, 29^{18}$, Ex $20^{9}$ (for six days); 23 ${ }^{15}$, $3 \mathrm{I}^{17}$; עֲ for ever, I K $8^{13}$; also with the accusative made determinate, Ex $13^{7}$ אֵת שִׁבְעַת הַיָּ before ; cf. Ju $14{ }^{17}$, Dt $9{ }^{25}$.
$l$ 4. The accusative is sometimes used of abstract ideas to state the reason (accus. causae), e.g. Is $7^{25}$ thou shalt not come thither ירַאַת שָׁמִיר: for fear of briers.
$m$ 5. Finally the accusative is used very variously (as an accus. adverbialis in the narrower sense), in order to describe more precisely the manner in which an action or state takes place. In English such accusatives are mostly rendered by in, with, as, in the form or manner of . .., according to, in relction to, with regard to. For more convenient classification we may distinguish them as-
$n$ (a) Adjectives expressing state, placed after the verb to describe more accurately some bodily or other external condition, e. g. Is $20^{2}$ walking ערוֹם וָיחֵח

 in uprightness; cf. $\$ 117 r$, note) ; Jb $30^{28}$. After an accusative, e.g. Dt $15^{18}$; to specify some mental state, e.g. Gn $37^{35}$ (Nָָ). - Before the verb (and then with a certain emphasis), Am $2^{16}, \mathrm{Jb}_{12}{ }^{21}, \mathrm{Ec} 5^{14}$; $\mathrm{Lv} 20^{20}, \mathrm{Jb} 19{ }^{25}, 2 \boldsymbol{j}^{19}, 31^{26}$

[^174]Those examples are especially instructive in which the adjective expressing 0 a state, although referring to several, is nevertheless used in the singular, e.g. Jb $24^{10}$ ערוֹם הִּלִ naked, i.e. in the condition of one naked, they go about; cf. verse 7 and $12^{17}$. In Is $20^{4}$ the singular occurs after a plural object, and in Is $47^{5}$ the masc. after the 2nd sing. fem. imperative, which clearly proves that the term expressing the state is not conceived as being in apposition, but as an indeclinable adverb.
(b) Participles, again either after the verb, $\mathrm{Nu} 166^{27}, \mathrm{Jer} \mathbf{2}^{27}, 43^{2}, \psi 7^{3}, \mathrm{Jb} 24^{5}, \boldsymbol{P}$ Ct $2^{8}$, or before it, Gn $49^{11}$, Is $57^{19}, \operatorname{Ez} 3^{635}, \psi 56^{2}, 9^{2^{14}}, \operatorname{Pr} 2^{14}$; cf. also the substantival use of the participles Niph'al תíארָ and נִפְלָאin a wonderful manner, Jb $37^{5}$, Dn $8^{24}$.-Also participles in con-
 regarded as expressing a state and not as being in apposition, since in the latter case they would have to take the article. -In $2 \mathrm{Si}_{1}{ }^{20}$, I K $7^{7}$ and $\mathrm{Hb}^{210}$ the explicative $W \bar{a} w$ (equivalent to and that too) is also prefixed to the
 cf. the note on § $13 \mathrm{I} h$.
(c) Substantives ${ }^{1}$ in the most varied relations: thus, as describing an $q$ external state, e.g. Mi $2^{3}$ nein neither shall ye walk haughtily (as opposed to ${ }_{\text {® }}$ Is $60^{14}$ ) ; Lv $6{ }^{9}$ (accus. before the verb = as unleavened cakes), Dt $2^{9}, 4^{11}, \mathrm{Ju} 5^{2 i}$, Is $57^{2}, \operatorname{Pr} 7^{10}, \mathrm{Jb} 3{ }^{26}, \mathrm{La} 1^{9}$; as stating the position of a disease, 1 K $15^{23}$ he was diseased to the cases discussed in $\S 117 l l$ and $\S 121 d(d)$; as describing a spiritual, mental, or moral state, e. g. Nu $3^{2{ }^{14}}$, Jos $9^{2}$ (
 passage is to be explained as in $n$ ); Jer $31^{7}, \operatorname{Ho}_{1} 2^{15}, 14^{5}, \psi 5^{6}, 58^{2}, 75^{3}, \operatorname{Pr} 31^{19}$, Jb 169, La $1^{9} ; \operatorname{Lv} 1^{16}$, \&c., in the expression
 (in both places before the verb); as stating the age, e.g. i S $2^{39}$ (if the text be right) (they shall die as men, i.e. in the prime of life; cf. I S $2^{18}$




The description of the external or internal state may follow, in poetry, in $\gamma^{*}$



 as with a close seal. ${ }^{2}$
6. To the expressions describing a state bclong finally those nouns $s$


[^175]be regarded as originally a substantive ${ }^{1}$ in the sense of amount, kind (instar), standing in the accusative (so that $\underset{\sim}{3}$ is equivalent to as a kind of, after the manner of, according to), while the following noun represents a genitive governed by the $\underset{?}{3}$. From this, which is the proper meaning of the $\underset{\sim}{?}$, may be explained its power of representing a great many pregnant relations, which in English can only be rendered by the help of prepositions. ${ }^{2}$ Thus the comparison may refer to-
$t$ (a) The place, e.g. Is. $5^{17}$ כִּדָבְרָ after the manner of, i.e. as in their pasture; $23^{15}$ as (it is said) in the song of the harlot; 2821, $29^{7}$ פּ כas in a dream.
 equivalent to as in the day, Is $9^{3}$, Ho $2^{5}$; $9^{9},{ }_{12}{ }^{10}$, Am $9^{11}$; cf. moreover, Lv $2^{213}$, Ju $20^{39}$, Is $17^{6}, \mathrm{Jb} 5^{14}, 29^{2}$, and the expressions as day by day=as in the former days, i S $188^{10}$; בְּיוֹם בְּ
 Of a different character is the use of $\ddagger$ as a simple particle of time, e.g.
 end of a year; connexion of with the infinitive construct to express a definite time (in the sense of a pluperfect), Gn $12^{14}, 27^{34}$, Ex $9^{29}$, \&c.
$\boldsymbol{V}$ (c) The person, e.g. Gn $34^{91}$ should he deal with our sister as with a harlot?

 Jb $38^{814}$ (as in a garment); $3^{8^{30}}$ בְּאֶּ as to stone (the waters are solidified in freezing).
$\boldsymbol{x}$ Rem. According to the earlier grammarians, $\supseteq$ is sometimes used pleonastically, i. e. not to indicate a similarity (as in $\mathrm{L}+14^{35}$ as it were, i. e. something like), but simply to introduce the predicate (Kaph veritatis), e.g. Neh $7^{2}$ for he
 is of course out of the question. At the most a Kaph veritatis can only be admitted in the sense that the comparison is sometimes introduced by with a certain emphasis (equivalent to in every respect like); thus Neh $7^{2}$ means simply of the nature of a faithful man, i. e. as only a.faithful man
敢in such passages as $\psi 105^{12}$ yea, very few; but e.g. in Is $1^{9}$ only just, a very small . . .
${ }^{1}$ Schwabe ( $\underset{i}{ }$ nach seinem Wesen und Gebrauch im alttestam. Kanon gewürdigt, Halle, 1883) contests this explanation (which is defended especially by Fleischer and is certainly indisputable). He, with Gesenius and Ewald,

 view of $\mathfrak{T}$ as a substantive of course does not imply that the language as we have it is still in every case conscious of the substantival meaning. On in numerical statements, in the sense of about, nearly, see the Lexicon.
${ }^{2}$ It would be altogether unsuitable here also (see above, note 2 on r) to
 (כְּבַּתְחִּלְ

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above (so also in $\mathrm{Gn}^{27} 7^{39}, 49^{25}$, not from above). These adverbs of place, however, may become prepositions by the addition of ?, e.g. מִחוּץ outside as regards..., i. e. outside of something, in $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K}_{21}{ }^{19}$ even after a transitive verb

 separation; ; לבַד מןץ in separation from, i.e. apart from, besides. Only rarely in such a case is the ? omitted for the sake of brevity, e.g. Jb $26^{5}$ מִּקַחַת מַיִ beneath the waters; $\dot{N}$ eh $3^{28}$ (
2. Real combinations of prepositions (each retaining its full force) occur-
 and מֵעִם from with (see above) ; מִבּין or prom betwesn something (with motion in either direction, see e.g. Gn $49^{10}$ );
 from under (see footnote 2 on p. 377).

 down under. ${ }^{1}$-In $\mathrm{Jb} 5^{5}$ the two prepositions of motion are combined in a peculiarly pregnant construction, אֶל-صִצִּנִּם (he goes thither and takes it) out of the thorns, i.e. he taketh it even out of the thorns, but the text is hardly correct.
3. A general view of the union of certain verbs, or whole classes of verbs, with particular prepositions, especially in explanation of certain idioms and pregnant expressions. ${ }^{2}$
 towards something (either in the sense of $u p$ to $=7$, after verbs not only in answer to the question whither? but by a specially pregnant construction, in answer to the question where? e. g. Jer $41^{12}$ they

 position of the מִן stood for the usual -לְבַר מִן . In reality, however, the preposition which forms the adverb into a preposition is omitted here, as in



 (just like the Latin usque in usque a, usque ad, usque ex) to indicate expressly the starting-point, as an exact terminus a quo (of place or time).
 on the idea of coming into, contained in the preceding -
${ }^{2}$ A summary of all the relations and senses in which a preposition may be used, belongs not to the Grammar but to the Lexicon.
${ }^{3}$ Cf. Mitchell, 'The preposition el,' in the Journal of the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis, 1888, p. 143 ff., and especially A. Noordtzij, Het hebreuwsche voorzetsel $\boldsymbol{K}$, Leiden, 1896, a thorough examination of its uses, and especially of the relation between ${ }^{-1}$.

## § 119 h-k] Subordination of Nouns to the Verb, etc.


 tion of two differentideas, of motion to a place and being or acting in the place (very plainly seen in Dt $16^{6}$ but to the place which the Lord thy God shall choose... shalt thou bring thine offering and there shalt thou sacrifice, \&c.), is the same as the Greek use of cis, 's for $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \nu$, the Latin in potestatem, in amicitiam ditionemque esse, manere (Cic. Verr. 5, $3^{8}$; Div. 2, 14, \&c.) ; cf. also the common German expressions zu Hause, zu Leipzig sein, zu Bette liegen, \&c.
(b) $\because$. . $^{1}$. Underlying the very various uses of this preposition is either the $/ l$ idea of being or moving within some definite region, or some sphere of space or time (with the infinitive, a simultaneous action, \&c.), or olse the idea of fastening on something, close connexion with something (also in a metaphorical sense, following some kind of pattern, e.g. the advice or command of some one our image, after our likeness ; cf. $1^{27}, 5^{1.3}$, or finally the idea of relying or depending upon..., or even of merely striking or touching something.

Thus the use of $\mathfrak{Z}$ is explained-
 there is none upright among men ; in the sense of consisting of, in specifying the constituents of a collective idea, e.g. Gn $7^{21}$ and all flesh died...in (=consisting of fowl, \&c. $8^{17}, 9^{10}, \mathrm{Ho}_{4}{ }^{3}$. Also after ideas of appearing, manifesting oneself, representing, being, in the sense of as, in the capacity of (prop. in the sphere, after the manner of, see above), consisting of ..., tanquam, the essentiae of the earlier grammarians, corresponding to the Greek ${ }_{\epsilon} \nu$, the Latin ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ and
 Jb $23^{13} \boldsymbol{T} \prod_{T}$ בוהi but he is (manifests himself as) once, i.e. he remains always the same; Dt $26^{\circ}, 28^{62}$ בִּ number of seventy; Is $40^{10}, \psi 39^{7}$. - Cf. also such examples as Ex $18^{4}\left(\psi 35^{2}, 146^{5}\right)$ ירִּ as my help; Dt $26^{14}$ being unclean; Is $28^{16}$ in Sion (i.e. I make Sion a foundation) ; Ez $2^{11}$ as a sweet savour; $\operatorname{Pr} 3^{26}$, perhaps also Ex $3^{2}$ in (i.e. as) a flame of fire; Is $66^{15}$ with (i. e. like) fire; $\psi 31^{22}, 37^{20}\left(102^{4}\right)$. For the origin of all
 is not meant to refer to the Lord as belonging to the טמִים, but only to ascribe to him a similar character, i. e. the Lord is one who upholds my soul; so also $\psi 99^{6}$, II $8^{7}$, Ju $11^{95}$ [the plur. as in $\left.\S 124 g-i\right]{ }^{3}$ - Cf. Gesenius, Thes. Linguae Hebr., i. 174 f., and Delitzsch on $\psi 35^{2}$.
(2) To introduce the object after transitive verbs, which denote touching, $h$ striking, reaching to (thus to some extent a fastening on, see above) something, in English sometimes rendered by al, on, \&c., and in German generally by
 category belongs also the construction of verbs denoting authority ( [vin , the authority is regarded as a laying hold of the person ruled; so also, the introduction of the object by after certain verba dicendi, or when the mental action is to be represented as extending to some one or something: e.g.

[^176]
 with the secondary idea of participation, or of the pleasure with which one sees or hears anything, especially pleasure at the misfortunes of others, hence $\underset{\text { I }}{\text { רָאָ }}$ to see his desire on any one or anything; cf. however, Gn $21^{16}$ let me not look upon the death of the child; I S $6{ }^{19}$ because they had looked [irreverently] at the ark of the Lord.

Closely related to this is the use of $\underset{\sim}{7}$ :
$l$ (3) To introduce the person or thing, which is the object of a mental act,
 דִּנְ to speak of (about) some one or something, Dt $6^{7}, 1 \mathrm{~S} 19^{98}$., \&c.
in (4) The idea of an action as extending to something, with at the same time the secondary idea of participation in something, underlies finally the




 something, Jb $39^{17}$; בָּ
$n$ (5) With the idea of touching, striking against anything is naturally connected that of proximity and vicinity near, and further that of association with
 Sometimes $\underset{\vdots}{\rightrightarrows}$ combined with a verb of motion (to come with something), expresses the idea of bringing, e.g. Ju $15^{1}$ Samson visited his wife with a kid, i. e. he brought her a kid ; Dt $23^{5}, \psi 66^{13}$, I Ch ${ }^{1} 5^{19} \mathrm{ff}$, $16^{6}$.
$O$ (6) From the idea of connexion with something, being accompanied by something (see $n$ ), is developed, finally, the instrumental use of $\underset{\exists}{?}$, which represents the means or instrument (or even the personal agent), as something with which one has associated himself in order to perform an action;

 some one, i. e. to cause him to labour at it, Ex $1^{14}$, \&ic. On $\underset{\square}{\rightrightarrows}$ with the passive to introduce the means or the author, see § $12 \mathrm{I} f$.
p A variety of the instrumenti is $\underset{\sim}{\square}$ pretii (the price being considered as the
 this condition) ; $37^{28}$; also, in a wider sense, $\mathrm{Gn}_{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{i} 8^{28} \underset{\rightrightarrows}{\rightrightarrows}$ for the sake of; $\mathrm{IS} 3^{13}$. $q$ Rem. The use of $\underset{\vdots}{\square}$ instrumenti to introduce the object is peculiar in such expressions as $\psi 44^{20}$ and thou coveredst over us בּצְלָּ with the shadow of death;
 made an opening weith their mouth); cp. $\psi \mathbf{2 2}^{8}$, Ex $7^{20}$ he lifted up Lv $16^{4}$ רָגָ English expressions we find both to gnash the teeth, $\psi 35^{16}$, and to gnash with the teeth, $\mathrm{Jb} 16^{9}$; to wink the eye, $\operatorname{Pr} 10^{10}{ }^{10}$, and to wink with the eye, $\operatorname{Pr} 6^{13} ;$ shake the head, $\psi \mathbf{2 2}^{9}$, and to shake with the head, Jer $\mathbf{1 8}^{16}$, Jb $16^{4}$. -In all these instances
 as in Arabic and Aramaic (Dñ $5^{2}$ ). Cf. also èv $\pi$
 and the French boire dans une tasse.

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Is $3^{69}$; even before the verb, Jer $9^{2}$.-To the same class belongs also the Lamedh inscriptionis (untranslatable in English, and hardly more than a mere quotation-mark) which introduces the exact wording of an inscription or title; thus Is $8^{1}$ write upon it . . . (the words) (מַהר שָׁלָל וגוֹ (cf. verse 3, where the naturally is not used) ; Ez $37^{16}$.
$v$ (d) מִן, originally (according to § IoI a) separation, ${ }^{1}$ represents both the idea of distance, separation or remoteness from something, and that of motion axay from something, hence also descent, origin from a place, Am $\mathrm{I}^{1}$.
ze (I) From the idea of separation is naturally derived on the one hand the sense of (taken) from among..., e numero, e.g. Gn $3^{1}$ subtil as none other of the leasts, \&c.; cf. $3^{14}$, Dt $33^{24}$, I S $15^{33}$, Ju $5^{24}$ (so especially after the idea of choosing out of ${ }^{2}$ a larger class, i S $2^{28}$; cf. Ex $19^{5}$, \&c.), and on the other hand,
 the bow (i. e. without one needing to bend a bow against them) they were made prisoners ; cf. Jer $4^{455}$ מִכַַֹ without strength; Ho $6^{66}$, as the first half-verse shows, not more than burnt offerings (as R. V.), but and not burnt offerings; Mi $3^{6}, \psi \mathbf{5 2}^{\mathbf{5}}$, Jb $11^{15}, 19^{26}: 21^{9}$, also such examples as $\mathrm{Nu}^{1} 5^{24}$ far from the eyes, i. e. unobserved by the congregation; $\operatorname{Pr} 2^{3}$.
$\boldsymbol{x}$ Here also belongs the use of after the ideas of restraining, withholding from, refusing to any one, frequently in pregnant expressions, which we can render only by complete final or consecutive clauses, e.g. I S $15^{23}$ he hath

 Jer $17^{16}$, Jb $28^{11}$ he bindeth the streans מִבִּ that they trickle not; Gn $162,23^{6}$ מִקְּב that thou shouldst not bury thy dead; Is $24^{10}$.
$y$ The has a still more pregnant force in those examples in which the idea of precluding from anything is only indirectly contained in the preceding verb, e.g. Gn $27^{1}$ his eyes were dim ת see; Is $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{8}$ Ephraim shall be broken in pieces Dụ that it be not a people (just as in Is $23^{1}$, Jer $4^{82.42}, \psi 83^{5}$ ) ; Lv $26^{13}$, Is $5^{6}, 49^{15}, 54^{9}$, Ezr $2^{62}$ (for other pregnant

${ }^{1}$ Cf. O. Molin, Om prepositionen $\min i$ Bibellebreisken, Upsala, 1893 , and especially N. Zerweck, Die hebr. Praep. min, Leipzig, 1893, who, instead of the partitive meaning (formerly accepted by us also), more correctly takes 'separation' as the starting-point of its various uses.
${ }^{2}$ All the partitive uses of separation out of a larger class. Thus $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ is used in the sense of some, something,


 i. e. for one, of my days; $38^{82}$ מיָׁphe of thy days, i.e. ever in thy life (this explanation is confirmed by i $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{I}^{6}}{ }^{6}$; cf. also IS $\mathrm{I}_{4}{ }^{45}$, $25^{28}$ ). In this way also, the frequently misunderstond Hebrew (and Arabic) idiom is to be explained, by which $\underset{\sim}{i}$ before

 head.(often to be simply translated by namely), e. g. in Gn $\boldsymbol{7}^{22}$ of all that was, i. e. so far as it was, probably also Gn $6^{2}$ ( $=$ whomsoever they chose).
${ }^{3}$ On the use of $\boldsymbol{p}$ to express the comparative, which likewise depends on the idea of distance from..., cf. below, § $133 a$; on
(2) On the sense of motion away from anything depends the use of after $\approx$ such ideas as to take away from, to beware, to be afraid of, to flee, to escape, to hide
 expressions, e.g. Is $33^{15}$. On the idea of starting from anything depends finally the very frequent causative use of ph account of, in consequence of (cf. our that comes from. . .), prae, e. g. מרֹב for multitude, i K 8 .
 $(\dot{\epsilon} \pi i)^{2}$ and over ( $\dot{\varepsilon} \pi \epsilon \rho$, super).
(I) From the original meaning upon is explained the use of $-\boldsymbol{y}$ after ideas
 obligation, \&c., is laid upon the object. The construction is self-evident in the case of to lie, rest, lean, rely, press upon something; cf. also, for the last, such examples as Is $1^{14}, \mathrm{Jb} \boldsymbol{j}^{20}, 23^{2}$, and especially $2 \mathrm{~S} 18^{11}$ ! it have been, it would have been incumbent upon me, \&c.
(2) From the original meaning over is explained the use of $-b$ yfter ideas $b b$ of covering, protecting, guarding רִחַם עַלto have compassion upon...., idea of a compassionate or protective bending over something. Cf. also - נְל-חַם עַל $\mathrm{Ju} 9^{17}=$ to fight for some one, i. e. in his defence.
(3) Moreover ${ }^{-} \underline{\underline{V}}$ is used after verbs of standing and going, to express $C C$ a towering over some one or something, sometimes in phrases, in which the original local idea has altogether fallen into the background, and which are therefore to be rendered in English by means of other prepositions (by, with, before, near), e.g. Gn $41^{1}$, \&c., Pharaoh . . stood $\begin{aligned} & \text { עַ by } \\ & \text { עַ by } \\ & \text { by }\end{aligned}$ water level; cf. $\psi 1^{3}$ ), and so especially - עֲמַר in the pregnant sense to stancl serving before some one (prop. over one who sits or reclines at table) Zc $4^{14}$ (cf.

 of some one or something.
(4) From the original meaning above (not, as formerly explained, on to $d d$ something, at something) there arise finally all the various constructions with $\boldsymbol{-}$ yַ in the sense of towards, against. The original idea (which in many of these constructions has become wholly unrecognizable) starts from the view that the assailant endeavours to take up his position over the person attacked, so as to reach him from above, or to overpower him ; cf. especially קוּם עַל to rise up over, i.e. against some one, then with a transference of
distance of time from a fixed limit, in the sense of after, e.g. $\psi 73^{20}$ porproun
 Ho $6^{2}$, and very frequently $\begin{gathered}\text { phem } \\ \text { from the end of i. e. after the lapse of . . . , see the }\end{gathered}$ Lexicon; also for the use of to represent resting beside anything, like the Latin prope abesse ab...
${ }^{1}$ Cf. Budie, Die hebr. Präpos. 'Al (עַ), Halle, 1882.
2 Since the placing upon anything is an addition to it, עַ also implies in addition to something, cf. Gn $28^{9}\left(31^{60}\right) ; 30^{40}, 32^{12}$ (probably a proverbial saying $=$ mother and children) ; Dt $2_{2}{ }^{6}$. Also yy notwithstanding is no doubt properly in addition to, e. g. Jb $10^{7}$ although thou knowest, prop. in ac'dition to thy knowing. - From the original meaning upon is also derived that of on account of (prop. upon the ground of) and in agreement with, according to, since the pattern is regarded as the foundation upon which a thing stands or rests.

 (Mi $4^{11}$; cf. $\psi 2^{2}$ ), \&c. ; even after verbs which express a mental action, e.g. - עַ
4. Sometimes a preposition appears to be under the immediate government of a verb, which, by its meaning, excludes such a union. In reality the preposition is dependent on a verb (generally a verb of motion), which, for the sake of brevity, is not expressed, but in sense is contained in what is apparently the governing verb.
 hast answered and saved me from the horns of the wild oxen (in Is $38^{17}$, which Delitzsch translates by thou hast loved and delivered my soul from the pit, read




$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{g}$ Pregnant constructions with and he made full to walk i.e. walked fully after me; in I S r $3^{7}$ read with the LXX ${ }^{\prime}$, דּרֹ Is i $I^{10}$, \&c., to turn inquiringly to some one; -
 come trembling to meet, i S $21^{2}$ [also with $2 \times \mathbb{N}, \gamma^{\wedge}$,
 $\psi 55^{19}$ he hath redeemed and hath put my soul in peace, exactly like $\psi 118^{5}$; with ? $\psi 74^{7}$ they have profaned and cast. . . even to the ground; cf. $89^{40}$.
hh 5. In poetic parallelism the governing power of a preposition is sometimes extended to the corresponding substantive of the second member; ${ }^{1}$ e.g. Babylon, and his arm shall be Jb I $5^{3}$; ? Is $28^{6}, 42^{22}$ (but probably ? has fallen out after another ), Ez $39^{4}, \mathrm{Jb} 34^{10}$ (perhaps also Gn $45^{8}$; משֵׁ may, however, be taken here as a second accusative according to § II7 $7 i$ ic);

ii 6. Adverbs which have acquired a substantival value are sometimes

 therefore; עַר־בּוּ hitherto.

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$2 \mathrm{~S}_{21} \mathrm{I}^{4}$ - A perfect is possibly subordinated in La $1^{10}$; but the explanation of 3 as a relative clause is preferable. co-ordination of the complementary verbal idea in the finite verb (cf. above, $c$ ) frequently occurs, either-
(a) With the second verb co-ordinated in a form exactly corresponding to the first (but see below, e) by means of ! ( 1, , $)^{1}$. As a rule, here also (see above, $a$ ) the principal idea is introduced only by the
 definition of the manner of the action, e.g. Gn $26^{18}$ 无 returned and digged, i. e. he digged again ; $2 \mathrm{~K}^{11.13}$; in the peffect consecutive, Is $6^{13}$; with ${ }^{\text {q }}{ }^{\circ}$ Pin, e.g. Gn $25^{1}$ and Abraham added and took a wife, i. e. again took a wife; $\mathrm{Gn}_{3} 8^{5}$ and frequently; with in the jussive, $\mathrm{Jb} 6^{9}$; in the imperative (cf. § rıo $h$ ), Ju I ${ }^{6}$ ™ ! וְe content, I pray thee, and tarry all night (cf. the Englsh he was persuaded and remained, for to remain); $2 \mathrm{~S} 7^{29}$; with $\operatorname{Gn} 24^{18,20,}$ \&c.; with $\mathrm{Ct}_{2}{ }^{3}$.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ Rem. I. Instead of an exact agreement between co-ordinate verbal forms, other combinations sometimes occur, viz. imperfect and perfect consecutive (cf. $\S 112 d$ ), e.g. Dt $31^{12}$ that they Lord, i. e. to fear the Lord ; Is $\mathrm{I}^{19}, \mathrm{Ho} 2^{11}$, Est $8^{6}$, Dn $9^{25}{ }^{5 j}$; perfect and imperfect, $\mathrm{Jb} 23^{3}$ ( 0 that I knew how I might find him) ; perfect and imperfect consecutive,
 !! among them.
2. Special mention must be made of the instances in which the natural complement of the first verb is suppressed, or is added immediately after in the form of an historical statement, e.g. Gn $4^{255}$ then Joseph commanded and they filled ${ }^{3}$ (prop. that they should fill, and they filled... ; cf. the full form of expression in $\mathrm{Gn}_{5} 0^{2}$ ); a further command is then added by means of $\}$ and the infinitive; Ex $36^{6}$; another instance of the same kind is $\mathrm{Gn} 30^{27} \stackrel{\dot{I}}{\mathrm{I}}$ have divined and the Lord hath blessed me, \&c., i.e. that the Lord hath blessed me for thy sake.
$g$ (b) With the second verb (which, according to the above, represents the principal idea) attached without the copula ${ }^{4}$ in the same mood, \&c.


[^178] interjections, before verbs which express a movement or other action,


 בive (a periphrasis for again) in the perfect, $\mathrm{Zc} 8^{15}$; in the imperfect, Mi $7^{19}, \psi 7^{13}, 59^{7}, 7 \mathrm{r}^{20}$; in the jussive, Jb ro ${ }^{16}$; in the cohortative, Gn $30^{31}$; in the imperative, Jos $5^{2}$, IS $3^{5}$ lie down again; times to express the idea of willingly or gladly) in the perfect, $\mathrm{Dt}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{r}^{\circ}$, Ho $5^{10}$; in the imperative, Jb $6^{28}$; הTָה Ao do not multiply and talk, i.e. talk not so much arrogancy; in the
淠: : perfect, $\psi$ ro $6^{13}$; in the imperative, $\mathrm{Gn} 9^{22}$, Ju $9^{48}$, Est $6^{10}$. -Other



Rem. This co-ordination without the copula belongs (as being more $h$ vigorous and bolder) rather to poetic or otherwise elevated style (cf. e.g. Is $5^{2^{1}}$, Ho $1^{6}$, $9^{9}$ with $\mathrm{Gn}^{\left.25^{1}, ~ \& C .\right) .}$. Asyndeton, however, is not wanting even in prose ; besides the above examples (especially the imperaties of
 special reasons the verb representing the principal idea may even come first; thus Is $53^{11}$ ? ? ? he shall see, he shall be satisfed (sc. with the sight), for the satisfaction does not come until after the enjoyment of the sight; Jer $4^{5}$ anck prory, fll, i.e. cry with a full (loud) voice.

## § 121. Construction of Passive Verbs.

Blake, 'The internal passive in Semitic,' JAOS. xxii.

1. Verbs which in the active take one accusative (either of the $a$ proper object, or of the internal object, or of some other nearer definition; cf. § II7 $a, p, u$ ) may in the passive, according to our mode of expression, be construed personally, the object of the active
 Rachel died, and was buried, \&c. The passive, however, is also used impersonally (in the $3^{\text {rd }}$ sing. masc.), either absolutely, as Dt $\mathbf{I t}^{34}$, Is $16^{10}, \mathrm{Ez}_{1} 6^{34}$ (with a dative added, $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 7^{16}$, Is $53^{5}, \mathrm{La} 5^{5}$ ), or, more frequently, with the object of the active construction still subordinated
 told.(i. e. one told) to Rebekah the words of Esau; $2 \mathrm{~S} 2 \mathbf{1}^{11}$, x K $18^{13}$.

[^179] Enoch was born Iral (cf. Nu 2660, and after an infinitive, Gn ${ }_{21} 1^{6}$ ); Gn $17^{5}, 21^{8}$ (after an infinitive); $29^{27}$ (unless ${ }^{25}{ }^{28}$, Lv $6^{13}, \mathrm{Nu} 7^{10}$ (after an infinitive); $26^{65}$ (cf. verse 53); Dt $20^{8}$ (where, however, for Is $166^{10}$; with the object preceding, Ex $13^{7}, \operatorname{Lv} 2^{8}, 19^{20}$, Nu $16^{29}$, Dan $9^{24.1}$ Also after Pu'al, Jer $50^{20}$; before Pu'al, Is $14^{9}$ (
 the Masoretic text also Gn $4^{622}$, where, however, the Samaritan and LXX read יִיְָּ for this (or 7 'י") should certainly be read instead of inh in $2 S_{21} 1^{22}$,-After Hoph.,
 Hoph., Gn $40^{20}$, Ez $16^{4 t}$., $27^{7}$; before Hoph., Is $17^{1}, 21^{2}$, Ho $10^{6}$, $\mathrm{Zc} 13^{6}$; after the infinitive Hothpael, LVI ${ }_{1} 3^{65 \%}$.
c
2. Verbs which in the active take two accusatives (§ II $7 c c$ ) retain in the passive construction at least one accusative, namely that of the second or remoter object, whilst the nearer object now becomes the subject. Thus, corresponding to
 shown, i. e. which has been shown to thee; cf. Ex $26^{30}$ (but in Lr $13^{49}$ with an accusative of the person); $\mathrm{Jb} 7^{3}$. In $\psi 2^{26}$ מרְהָּק מַלְקָּחָ depends on an assumed transitive
 ye shall be devoured with the sword, but most probably an accusative of the object retained from the active construction. ${ }^{2}$
d Rem. I. Examples of the retention of the second accusative are-(a) with rerba induendi and exuendi ( $\$ 117 \mathrm{cc}$ ), $\psi 80^{111}$, covered with the shadow of it (the vine); $\operatorname{Pr} 19^{23 .}$. So also some of the examples in $\S 116 k$ of passive participles of these verbs, Ju $18{ }^{11}, \mathrm{I} S 2^{18}, 17^{5}, \mathrm{I} K 22^{10}$,
naturally cannot be determined whether the construction is really impersonal. The construction itself can only be explained by supposing that while using the passive form the speaker at the same time thinks of some author or authors of the action in question, just as on the theory of the Arab grammarians a concealed agent is included in every passive. This accounts for the possibility (cf. § 144 g ) of using the active without a specified subject as a periphrasis for the passive.
${ }^{1}$ In $2 \mathrm{~K} 18^{30}$ יִּ passage Is $36^{15}$.
${ }^{2}$ In the active, the sentence would be I will cause the sword to devour you; by the rule stated above, under $c$, this would become in the passive, the sword (nom.) shall be made to devour you (acc.). Instead of this, the remoter object is here made the subject, and the nearer object is retained in the accusative. Otherwise, the only possible explanation would be, according to the Arabic idiom, to cause one to devour the sword (remoter object), i.e. to give him over to it.


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latter a special feminine ending is generally used ( $\S 80 b$ and $\S 87 i$ ) both in the singular and plural (see, however, § $87 p$ ), its use being most consistent in adjectives and participles; cf. $\S 87 r$. The employment of these special endings is most natural when by means of them the feminine names of persons or animals are distinguished from the masculine of the same stem and the same formation, e.g.

 the feminine plays an important part in denoting the gender of whole classes of ideas (see below, p, \&c.), which the Hebrew regards as feminine. The language, however, is not obliged to use the feminine ending either for the purpose of distinguishing the sex of animate objects (see b), or as an indication of the (figurative) gender of inanimate things which are regarded as feminine (see $h$ ).
$b$ 2. The distinction of sex may be effected even without the feminine ending, (a) by the employment of words of different stems for the masculine and feminine ; (b) by the different construction (either as masculine or feminine) of the same word (communia). But the distinction may also, (c) in the case of names of animals, be entirely neglected, all examples of a species being included under oue particular gender, either masculine or feminine (epicoena).




$d$ Of $(b)$ : and camel. Plur. anstrued as masculine, Gn $24^{63}$; as feminine, Gn $3^{216}$; ${ }^{7}$ בָּT collect. oxen, Ex $21^{37}$, construed as masculine, but in Gn $33^{13}$, Jb $1^{14}$ as feminine. In Jer $2^{24}$ the construction of changes directly from the masculine (intended as epicene) to the feminine. Cf. the Greek $\dot{\delta}, \dot{\eta} \pi a i{ }^{*}{ }^{*} \dot{\delta}, \dot{\eta} \beta o u ̂$.
c Of (c): analogous to the epicene nouns of other languages, many species of animals which are strong and courageous, are regarded in Hebrew as always masculine, while the weak and timid are feminine; cf. $\delta \lambda \dot{v} \kappa o s, \dot{\eta} \quad \chi \in \lambda \iota \delta \dot{\omega} \nu$, and the German der Löree, der Adler, \&c., but die Katze, die Taube, \&c. Simi-





Rem. I. Masculine nouns which either have a separate feminine form or might easily form one, are but seldom used as epicene; such are, $7 \boldsymbol{7} \underset{\sim}{-}$ ass, 2 S $19^{27}$ for inore especially to the body of a woman; ; אָמֹן a master workman, in $\operatorname{Pr} 8^{30}$ refers to wisdom (חָכְטָה feminine, cf. Plin. 2, i natura omnium artifex; and our
use of friend, teacher, servant, neighbour, either as masculine or feminine; in German, Gemahl ${ }^{1}$ spouse, also for fem. Gemahlin, \&c.).
 opinion, was in early times used as epicene (see, however, above, § $2 n$ ). The use of the plural גְערים in $\mathrm{Jb} \mathbf{1}^{19}$ and $\mathrm{Ru}{ }^{21}$ in the sense of young people (of both genders) does not, however, prove this. In this and in similar
 the feminine. ${ }^{2}$
3. The following classes of ideas are usually regarded as feminine, ${ }^{3} h$ although the substantives which express them are mostly without the feminine ending: ${ }^{4}$
(a) Names of countries and towns, since they are regarded as the mothers ${ }^{5}$ and nurses of the inhabitants; e.g. אֲטֶּ Assyria, Idumaea, צֹ Tyre; cf. also such expressions as as daughter of Babylon, daughter of Zion, \&c. On the other hand appellatives which are originally masculine, remain so when used as place-uames, e. g. Am $5^{5}$,

Rem. The same proper nouns, which as names of countries are regarded $i$ as feminine, are frequently used also as names of the people, and may then, like national names in other languages, be construed as masculine (the national name almost always being used also as the personal name of the supposed ancestor of the people); thus
${ }^{1}$ So in early Arabic, ba'l (lord) and zauǵg (conjux) are used both for maritus and uxor ; 'arūs for bridegroom and bride; the later language, however, distinguishes the feminine from the masculine in all these cases generally by the ending $a$ (at). In early Arabic also the feminine ending is commonly omitted in such participles as hämil, bätin (gravida), and the like, which from the nature of the case can only be used of females. Thus also K , at least in
 father.
${ }^{2}$ The Arab grammarians call this use of the masculine plural and dual (e.g. el-abawani, the two fathers, i.e. parentes) taghlib or the making (the masculine) prevail (over the femininé).-Cf. M. Grünert, Die Begriffs-Präxonderanz und die Duale a potiori im Altarab., Vienna, 1886.
${ }^{3}$ The masculine gender is attributed 'by the Hebrews and the Semites generally to whatever is dangerous, savage, courageous, respected, great, strong, powerful...; the feminine to whatever is motherly, productive, sustaining, nourishing, gentle, weak, . . . subject, \&c.' (Albrecht, ZAW. 1896, p. 120 f.).
 a bow (stem Mill , time (see the Lexicon), are sometimes construed as masculine, this is owing probably in some cases to a misunderstanding of the formation of the word, the $\Omega$ of the feminine being regarded as a radical.
${ }^{5}$ Cf. a city and a mother (NO) in Israel, 2 S $20^{19}$. In the same way Nat (like
 figure is used in such expressions as sons of Zion, $\psi \mathbf{1} 49^{2}$; sons of Bubylon, Ez $23^{15}$, \&c., as also in speaking of the suburbs of a city as its daughters, e.g. Jos ${ }^{15}{ }^{45} \mathrm{fr}$, \&c.-The comparison of Jerusalem to a woman is especially frequent in allegorical descriptions, e. g. Ez 1 $_{623}{ }^{23}$ La $1^{1}$, \&c.

Is $7^{6}$, fem., Judaea; ŇM masc., Idumaei, Nu $20^{20}$; fem., Idumaea, Jor $49^{17}$. Nevertheless, it sometimes happens that by a very common transference of thought (just as we say Turkey concludes peace) these names are construed as feminine, even when they denote not the country but the inhabitants; so
 Jer $50^{10}$, Jb $1^{15}$. Hence the frequent personification of nations (as well as of countries and towns, see $h$, note 5) as female beings, e.g. Is $5^{0^{1}, 54^{1 \pi} \text {, }, ~ ; ~, ~}$ and the use of the expressions בַּת בָּבֶל Is $47^{1 \text { If. }}$, צִּ collective poetical personifications of the people.
$\boldsymbol{k}$ (b) Appellative nouns, which denote a circumscribed space, such as


$l$ In the majority of nouns denoting place the gender is variable, e.g.
 dominate with Ezekiel ; cf. Albrecht, 1. c., 1896, p. 55), איגּ (

 Sodom), $\mathrm{Jb} 20^{9}$, and $2 \mathrm{~S} 17^{12} \mathrm{~K}^{e} \mathrm{thibh}$, is construed as feminine. The mountains and hills commanding the surrounding country are almost without exception masculine (see Albrecht, l.c., p. 60 f.).
$m$ (c) The names of instruments, utensils, and (on the same analogy) members and parts of the body in man or beast, since these are all regarded as subservient and subordinate (consequently as feminine).
 other cases, as variable. ('Instruments for binding or holding, girdles and the like, as constraining and mastering, are masculine,' Albrecht, l.c., p. 89.)-Also fik ear (and in general, members occurring in pairs, Albrecht, 1. c., p. 33 f.),




0 (d) Certain names of natural forces or substances are feminine, being probably regarded as instruments, while in the names of the heavens, the heavenly bodies and natural phenomena, the masculine generally predominates (cf. Albrecht, l.c., p. 323 ff .) ; thus feminine


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$\mathcal{S}$ Abstract ideas include also-
(c) Collectives in the fem. form, ${ }^{1}$ generally fem. participles used substantivally, especially as the comprehensive designation of a number of persons, e.g. זֹרִחְה (fem. of travelling), prop. the travelling (company), i. e. travelling persons (a caravan) ; $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ia (fem. of
 inhabits) i.e. the population, Is $\mathrm{I}^{6}, \mathrm{Mi}_{1}{ }^{11{ }^{1} .}$; the enemy, Mi $7^{8.10}$ (cf. Mi $4^{61 .}$ the halting, cast off, driven awoay, i. e. those who halt, \&c.) ; דַּ (the abject) the poorest sort; of living beings which are not persons, cf. חַיָה (that which lives) in the sense of cattle, beasts; a (but in Jon $2^{2}$ as a nomen unitatis, cf. $t$, for $\underset{\sim}{2}$ a fish, which in verses 1 and II is used as the nomen unitatis). Cf., moreover, נִבָּ dead body, Is $26^{19}$, \&c. (construed as masculine), for $a$ heap of dead bodies.-On the collective poetic personification of a nation, by means of (equivalent to $m$ ) $m$ countrymen, see above, $i$.
$t$ (d) Conversely the feminine form of substantives is sometimes used (as in Arabic) as a nomen unitatis, i. e. to indicate a single example of a class which
 (Jon $\mathbf{1}^{3}{ }^{\text {fr.) }}$;
 a poem, frequently collective, $\underset{\sim}{\text { שירָה a }}$ a single song; so probably also a fig (the corresponding masculine tin is collective in Arabic) ; לְבָנָה ; a brick (Arab. libina, but libin collective), \&c.
$u$ (e) The feminine is also used for things without life (as being weaker or less important), which are named from their resemblance to organic things expressed by the corresponding masculine form ; cf. $7 \overbrace{\tau}$ side (of the body),
 greaces. On a similar distinction between the masculine for natural, and the feminine for artificial objects, see $\S 870$.
v) Rem. The juxtaposition of the masculine and feminine from the same stem
 i. e. every kind of support (unless we omit verse $1^{\mathrm{D}}$ as a gloss and take staff as $=$ staff-bearer, official; the list of officials begins in verse 2) ; cf. Is ${ }^{166}, \operatorname{Pr} 8^{13}$. For similar groupings in the case of persons, see Is $43^{6}, 49^{82}, 60^{4}$ (sons and daughters); $49^{23}, \mathrm{Ec}_{2}{ }^{8}$.

## § 123. The Representation of Plural Ideas by Means of Collectives, and by the Repetition of Words.

$a$ Besides the plural endings treated in § $87 a-i$, the language employs other means to express a plurality of living beings or things:
(a) Certain words employed exclusively in a collective sense, while the individual members of the class are denoted by special words (nomina unitatis, but not in the same sense as in § $122 t$ ).

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## § 123 b, c] The Representation of Plural Ideas, etc. 395

 five head of cattle), but $\overline{7} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ an ox; ;
 cattle (a sheep or a goat). Other more or less common collectives are: (prop. that which prowls or roams) wild beasts, טַף (perhaps prop. tripping) a number of little children; ; fresh green herb, i.e. young plants, vegetation in general; ; עֹ

(b) The collective use of substantives which at the same time serve $b$ as nomina unitatis; thus, אָדָם (never in plur.) means both man (homo) and men (homines); ; women (Ju 21 ${ }^{16}, 1 \mathrm{~S}_{21}{ }^{6}$ ); אַרְֶּּה a locust, but usually a swarm of

 a plant and plants, berbs; קער

 Gn $32^{6}$ ). - On the singular (especially of gentilic names) with the article (which may, however, be omitted in poetry, cf. e.g. $\psi 12^{2}$
 § $126 l$. On the special meaning of the plurals formed from certain collectives, see § $124 l$.
(c) The feminine ending; see § 122 s .
(d) The repetition of single words, and even of whole groups of $c$ words, especially to express entirety, or in a distribative sense. The following cases are more particularly to be noticed :

1. The repetition of one or more words to express the idea of ecery, all,

 morning (and similarly before a group of words, Lv $24^{8}$ ), for which the
 $\psi 73^{14}$, לִבְקָרים Jb $7^{18}$ parallel with לִרְגָעִים every moment. Somewhat different are the instances with בִ before the second word only, e.g. . . day by

 with the two words united by means of $20 \bar{a} w$ copulative,

[^182]Ezr 10 ${ }^{14}$, 1 Ch $26^{13}$ and often (cf. Cheyne, Bampton Lectures, 1889, p. 479, according to whom the use of the 1 copulative with the second word is especially common in Ch and Est, and therefore belongs to the later language; Driver, Introd. ${ }^{6}$, p. 538, No. 35) ; sometimes (but with the exception of $\psi 45^{18}$ only in very late passages) with a pleonastic ${ }^{-}$כָּ preceding, $\psi 145^{13}$, Est $2^{11}, 9^{28}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 1_{1}{ }^{12}$, \&c.
2. Repetition of words in an expressly distributive sense ${ }^{1}$ (which may to some extent be noticed in the examples under c) equivalent to one each, \&c.,
 Ex ${ }^{284}$ (three words repeated); also with the addition of ${ }^{34}$ apart, עִרֶר עִרֶר לְבַּרֹ the addition of a numeral (for the simple repetition of numerals for the same purpose, cf. § 1349 ), and with the words not only in groups of two ( LV $24^{8}, \mathrm{Nu} 13^{2}, 31^{4}$ ) or three ( $\mathrm{Nu} 7^{11}, 11^{21}$ ), but even of six (Ex $26^{3}$ ) or seven (Ex 25 ${ }^{33}, 26^{19.21 .25}$ ) ; in Ex $25^{35}$ five words even three times repeated. ${ }^{2}$
e 3. Repetition to express an exceptional or at least superfine quality; e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K} 25^{15}$ which were of gold, gold, of silver, silver, i. e. made of pure gold and pure
 given, given to him, i.e. given exclusively for his service, for his very own. Also with a certain hyperbole in such examples as $2 \mathrm{~K} 3^{16}$ תִּ but trenches; Gn $14{ }^{10}$ בֵּ intensify the expression to the highest degree in $\mathrm{Ju} 5^{22}$ by reason of the violent pransings of his strong ones, Ex $\mathrm{S}^{10}$ (countless heaps), and Jo $4^{14}$ (countless multitudts); cf. also מעעט טְעַט Ex $23^{30}$ by little and little, very gradually; cf. § 133 k .
$f$ 4. Repetition with the copula to express of more than one kind; thus Dt $25^{13}$ (Pr $20^{10}$ )



## § 124. The Various Uses of the Plural-form. ${ }^{3}$

a 1. The plural is by no means used in Hebrew solely to express a number of individuals or separate objects, but may also denote them collectively. This use of the plural expresses either (a) a combination of various external constituent parts (plurals of local extension), or (b) a more or less intensive focusing of the characteristics inherent in the idea of the stem (abstract plurals, usually rendered in English by forms in -hood, -ness, -ship). A variety of the plurals described under (b), in which the secondary idea of intensity or of an internal

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 (fierce) wrath; חִרָפֹ Dn $12^{2}$ (utter) contempt; ; (real) help, Is $26^{18}$, \&c. ;
 (complete) vengeance, Ju is ${ }^{36}$, \&c. ; מְקָוֹת



 (extreme) bitterness, Jb $13^{26}$; מִרְמוֹת (base) deceit, $\psi 3^{2819}$; צְרָקוֹת (true) righteousness, Is $33^{15}, \& c$. ; שׁׁמָחוֹת (the highest) $j o y, \psi 16^{11}$. On the other hand, חָדֶמוֹת wisdom ( $\operatorname{Pr} \mathbf{1}^{20}, \& \mathrm{c}$.) can hardly be a plural ( $=$ the essence of wisdom, or wisdom personified), but is a singular (see $\S 86 l$ ).

A further extension of this plural of amplification occurs according to P. Haupt's very probable suggestion (SBOT. Proverbs, p. 40, line 50, \&c.) in ם', the great river (of the Nile, generally 7 (י): Is $7^{18}$, $19^{6}$ (though with the predicate in the plural), Ez $3^{\circ 2}, \psi 7^{8^{44}}$, but in $\mathrm{Is} 37^{25}$, Ez $29^{9}$ the usual explanation, arms or channels of the Nile, can hardly be avoided; also in the ocean, which encircles the earth, $137^{1}$ of the greatriver, i.e. the Euphrates, but in Is $18^{1}$ מַלְבְים (acc. to P. Haupt=the great king) is very doubtful. In צעשׁrive Ez $19{ }^{1}$ the

$f$
The summing up of the several parts of an action is expressed in חֲנטִים embalming, מִלִּאים (prop. filling, sc. of the hand) ordination to the priesthood, engraving (of a seal,

 to and fro,
 it be a plural of number. ${ }^{1}$
$g$. Of (c): the pluralis excellentiae or maiestatis, as has been remarked above, is properly a variety of the abstract plural, since it sums up the several characteristics ${ }^{2}$ belonging to the idea, besides possessing the secondary sense of an intensification of the original idea. It is thus closely related to the plurals of amplification, treated under $e$, which are mostly found in poetry.

[^184]So eepecially אֲלהים Godhead, God (to be distinguished from the numerical plural gods, Ex $12^{12}, \& c$.). The supposition that אאלהים is to be regarded as merely a remnant of earlier polytheistic views (i. $\dot{\theta}$. as originally only a numerical plural) is at least highly improbable, and, moreover, would not explain the analogous plurals (see below). That the language has entirely rejected the idea of numerical plurality in אללהים (whenever it denotes one God), is proved especially by its being almost invariably joined with a
 have been used originally not only as a numerical but also as an abstract plural (corresponding to the Latin numen, and our Godhead), and, like other abstracts of the same kind, have been transferred to a concrete single god (even of the heathen).
To the same class (and probably formed on the analogy of אלדים) belong $h$

 probably used especially for obtaining oracles. Certainly in IS I $1^{13.16}$ only one image is intended ; in most other places a single image may be intended ${ }^{1}$; in $\mathrm{Zc} 10^{2}$ alone is it most naturally taken as a numerical plural. In Ec $5^{7}$ גְּדִּים supremus (of God) is doubtful ; according to others it is a numerical plural, superiores.
 a cruel lord, Is $19^{4}$;

 also בִּעָלִים (with suffixes) lord, master (of slaves, cattle, or inanimate things; but in the sense of maritus, always in the singular), e.g. בְּעָ $E x$ 21 ${ }^{29}$, Is $I^{3}, \& c^{3}$

On the other hand, we must regard as doubtful a number of participles in $k$ the plural, which, being used as attributes of God, resemble plurales ex-
 Is $22^{11}$; גְוֹטֶיהֶם stretching them out, Is $42^{6}$; for all these forms may also be
 regarded as another instance, unless it be a numerical plural, their oppressors ; moreover, מִרִימָּ him who lifteth it up, Is $10^{15}$ (but read probably מִרִימוֹ);

 may probably be more simply explained as indicating an indefinite in-
 (textus receptus) the singular should be read, with Baer.
${ }^{1}$ Even in Gn 31 ${ }^{34}$, notwithstanding the plural suffix in since the construction of these abstracts as numerical plurals is one of the peculiarities of the E-document of the Hexateuch ; cf. Gn ${ }^{2013}, 35^{7}$, and § 145 i.
${ }^{2}$ On
${ }^{3}$ Euting, Reise in Arabien, p. 61, mentions the interesting fact that the subjects of the Emir of Hâyel commonly speak of their ruler as yiyûkh, a plur. majestatis $x$ the great sheikh.
1, בּעְ plained as merely formed on analogy.
$l^{-}$Rem. r. (a) Coherent substances, \&c., are mostly regarded as single, and are, accordingly, almost always represented by nouns in the singular, cf.
 I... wine, עָּ some of these words expressing materials in order to denote separate portions taken from the whole in manufacture (plurals of the result) or parts otherwise detached from it; thus, בַּרִים linen garments; silver pieces, Gn $42^{25.35}$; (dual) fetters of brass; ligna (timber for building or sticks for burning) ; also in a wider sense, particles of alloy to be separated by
 of gold.
$m$ (b) To the class of plurals of the result belong also a few names of natural products, when represented in an artificial condition; thus, חטטים wheat in grain (threshed wheat), as distinguished from חִטָּ wheat (used collectively) in the ear ; cf. the same distinction between


 specially noticed. The singular is always used when the blood is regarded as an organic unity, hence also of menstrual blood, and the blood of sacrifices (collected in the basin and then sprinkled), and in $\mathrm{Nu} 23^{24}$ of the blood gushing from wounds. On the other hand, as a sort of plural of the result and at the same time of local extension, denotes blood which is shed, when it appears as blood-stains (Is ${ }^{15}$ ) or as blood-marks (so evidently in Is $9^{4}$ ). But since blood-stains or blood-marks, as a rule, suggest blood shed in murder (although דָּמים also denotes the blood which flows at childbirth or in circumcision), açar acquired (even in very early passages) simply the sense of a bloody deed, and especially of bloodguiltiness, Ex $2^{1{ }^{1 f}}$, \&c.
0 In some few cases the plural is used to denote an indefinite singular;

 in connexion with a contingency which may be repeated) ; cf. also Ec $4^{10}$ (if one of them fall). -So probably also Gn $8^{4}, 1$ S $17^{43}$, Dn $2^{1}$, Neh $3^{8,}, 6^{2}$; but not Gn 1999, since the same document ( $\mathrm{Gn}_{13} 3^{12}$ ) makes Lot dwell in the cities of the Jordan valley ; in Gn $2 I^{7}$ בָּנְ denotes the class with which the action is
 (formerly explained here as in one of the cities of Gilead) we should most pro-
 Mizpeh (in) Gilead.
2. When a substantive is followed by a genitive, and the compound idea thus formed is to be expressed in the plural, this is done-
(a) Most naturally by using the plural of the nomen regens, e.g. గַּ
 Benjamite; but also

${ }^{1}$ Cf. König, Lehrgebäude, ii. $43^{8}$ f., according to whom the plural of the principal word exercises an influence on the determining genitive.

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 Cf. on this point, § II7 q, note 3, and Delitzsch, Psalmen, ed. 4, p. 79.
2. Real proper nouns, as being the names of things (or persons) only once met with, are sufficiently determinate in themselves. Such
 article, ${ }^{1}$ nor can they be in the construct state. On the other hand, not only gentilic names (as denoting the various individuals belonging to the same class), but also all those proper names, of which the appellative sense is still sufficiently evident to the mind, or at least has been handed down from an earlier period of the language, frequently (often even as a rule) take the article (according to $\S$ I $26 e$ ), and may even be followed by a genitive.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ Examples. Like the above-mentioned proper names of individuals, countries, and cities, so also national names, which are identical in form


 when meaning the Philistines, is generally used without the article (but in
 names as the Hague, le Havre) are i. e. the Gibeah named after Saul to distinguish it from others; ;

 (according to Seybold, Mittheil. und Nachr. des DPV., 1896, p. II, probably the drinking-place [7ר, Arab. warada, meaning orig. to go down to drink]).

Rem. I. In a few instances original appellatives have completely assumed the character of real proper names, and are therefore used without the article ;
 generally in this document of the Pentateuch up to Ex 6, elsewhere sometines
 '

 (i. $\theta$. the tabernacle), always without the article.
$\boldsymbol{\mathcal { E }}$ To the class of nouns originally appellative, which the languago regards

[^185]as proper names, and which consequently never take the article, belong also תחבל Hadertain archaic words mostly used only by poets, such as world, but Is $63^{13}, \psi$ ro6 ${ }^{9}$ ת
2. When nouns which the usage of the language always treats as proper /l names occasionally appear to be connected with a following genitive, this is really owing to an ellipse whereby the noun which really governs the genitive, i. e. the appellative idea contained in the proper name, is suppressed. So evidently in the case of יהוֹה צבבאוֹ Yahweh (the God) of hosts; the fuller

 $80^{15.20}, 84^{9}$ is due to the mechanical substitution of affected in the 2nd and part of the 3 rd book of the Psalms. So also in geographical names such as אֲרַם נַּהַרַּים ;


 Ju $8^{32}$ cf. § 128 c; ; צִּ in iS il ${ }^{1}$ for צוֹפִים a Zaphite. Some of these examples (cf. also Am $6^{2}$ ) come very near to the actual construct state (cf. above, since e.g. the addition of the genitive serves to distinguish the place from four others called Aram (see the Lexicon), or from another Bethlehem. Aram, Bethlehem, \&c., are accordingly no longer names found only in one special sense, and therefore also are no longer proper names in the strictest sense.
3. Of the pronouns, the personal pronouns proper (the separate $i$ pronouns, § 32) are always determinate in themselves, since they can denote only definite individuals (the 3 rd person, also definite things). For the same reason the demonstrative pronouns (§ 34) are also determinate in themselves, when they stand alone (as equivalent to substantives), either as subject ( $\mathrm{Gn}_{5}{ }^{29}$ ) or as predicate (e.g. תֶּ

 finally when joined to a preposition ( $\Omega$ אir $\mathrm{Gn}_{2}{ }^{23}$; § 102 g ).

So also the personal pronouns are used as demonstratives ( $=i s, e a$, id, ille, \&c.) are always deter-


[^186]are made determinate by the article, when they are joined like adjectives (see § $126 u$ ) with a determinate substantive, e. g. הָאָּ in those days, and in that time, Jo 4 ${ }^{1}$. The demonstrative, however, even in this case, is frequently used without the article, as being sufficiently determinate in itself (cf. § $126 y$ ).

## § 126. Determination by Means of the Article.

$a$ 1. The article ( $-\mathbb{N}, ~ त ָ, ~ چ ֶ, ~ § 35$ ) was originally, as in other languages (clearly in the Romance ; cf. also ó, $\dot{\eta}, \tau_{o}^{\prime}$ in Homer), a demonstrative pronoun. The demonstrative force of the article, apart from its occasional use as a relative pronoun (see § $138 i$ ), appears now, however, only (a) in a few standing phrases, and (b) in a certain class of statements or exclamations.
 time, Gn $2^{28}$; הַהשָּ this year ( $=$ in this year) Is $37^{30}$, Jer $28^{16}$.
(b) includes those instances in which the article, mostly when prefixed to a participle, joins on a new statement concerning a preceding noun. Although such participles, \&c., are no doubt primarily regarded always as in apposition to a preceding substantive, the article nevertheless has in some of these examples almost the force of
 prop. the more to be desired than gold, i.e. they are more to be desired, or even they, that are more to be desired, ${ }^{1}$ \&c.; cf. Gn $49^{21}$, Is $40^{224}$ f., $44^{27!}$ !, $44^{66}, \mathrm{Am} 2^{77}, 5^{7}$, $\psi 33^{15}$, $49^{7}$ ( הַּשַּטְחִים in the parallel half of the verse continued by a finite verb) $; \psi$ ro4 ${ }^{3}, \mathrm{Jb} 616,28^{4}, 30^{9}, 41^{25}$ and frequently. When such a participle has another co-ordinate with it, the latter is used without the article, since according to the above it strictly speaking represents a second predicate, and
 rain, \&c., and sendeth (iְְשׁׂ), \&c.
c The article is sometimes used with similar emphasis before a substantive, which serves as the subject of a compound sentence ( $\$ 140 \mathrm{~d}$ ) ; e.g. Dt $3^{24}$ ו.e. as a fresh statement (not in apposition to the preceding dative), really equivalent to he is a rock, perfect in his work (i.e. whose work is perfect); cf. $\psi 1{ }^{811}$.
d 2. The article is, generally speaking, employed to determine a substantive wherever it is required by Greek and English; thus:
(a) When a person or thing already spoken of is mentioned again, and is consequently more definite to the mind of the hearer or reader; e.g. Gn $\mathbf{1}^{3}$ and God said, Let there be light: verse 4 and God saw the
 Ec $9^{15}$. (In $2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{I}_{2}{ }^{2}$ therefore must be read.)

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$i$ (i) On the other hand, the article is always omitted when a person or thing is to be represented as indefinite (or indefinable) or as yet unknown; consequently also before the predicate, since this is from its nature always a general term, under which the subject is included, e.g. $\mathrm{Gn}_{29} 9^{\circ}$ ל עוֹר הַיוֹם as as yet the day is great, i.e. it is yet high day; $33^{13}, 40^{18}, 4 \mathrm{I}^{26}$, Is $66^{3}$.
$k$ Rem. I. As exceptions to the above rule it is usual to regard those examples in which a determinate adjective or participle (equivalent to a relative clause) is used apparently as a predicate, e.g. Gn $2^{11}$ it is the compassing, i. e. that is it which compasseth ; $4^{26}, 45^{12}, \mathrm{Ex} 9^{27}, \mathrm{Dt} 3^{21}, 8^{18}, 1^{7}$, IS $4^{16}$, Is $14^{27}$, Mal $3^{2}$ (cf. in Greek, e.g. St. Mat. ${ }^{0}{ }^{20}$, where Winer, Gram. des neutest. Sprachidioms, $\S 58$, 2, Rem., explains oi $\lambda a \lambda o \hat{o} v \tau \epsilon s$ as a predicate with the article). In reality, however, these supposed predicates are rather subjects (acc. to § $116 q$ ), and the only peculiarity of these cases is that the subject is not included under a general idea, but is equated with the predicate.
2. Sometimes the article is used with only one of two parallel words, as

$l$ 3. The use of the article to determine the class is more extensive in Hebrew than in most other languages. In this case the article indicates universally known, closely circumscribed, and therefore well defined classes of persons or things. The special cases to be considered are-
$m$ (a) The employment of general names as collectives in the singular, to denote the sum total of individuals belonging to the class (which may, however, be done just as well by the plural) ; e.g. the righteous, the wicked man, Ec $3^{17}$; the woman, i.e. the female sex, $7^{26}$; ${ }^{2}$ init th. enemy, i. e. the enemies (?) $\psi 9^{7}$; הָארב the lier in woait, i.e. the liers in wavit; armed man, i.e.
 English) with names of animals, when something is asserted of them, which applies to the whole species, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~S} 17^{10}$ as the courage of Especially also with gentilic names, e.g. the Canaanite, Gn $13^{7}$ (cf. $15^{19 f}$.) ; so
 ко́ $\quad$ os, \& \& .
$n$ (b) Names of materials known everywhere, the elements and other words denoting classes, even though only a part and not the whole of them is considered, in which case in other languages, as e.g. in English, the article is usually omitted (ef., however, our to fall into the water, into the fire, \&e.), e.g.
 Jos $11^{9}$ and he burnt their chariots $\mathcal{U}$ means, the chain necessarily belonging to the official dress); Ex $2^{3}, 3^{4}\left(35^{32}\right)$,


[^188]\&c., and also Dt $33^{24}, 2 \mathrm{~S}^{21}$, Is $1^{6}, \psi^{2} 3^{5}$, \&c. Similarly the article is used


(c) The expression of abstract ideas of every kind, since they are likewise used to represent whole classes of attributes or states, physical or moral defects, \&c.; e.g. $\operatorname{Pr} 25^{5}$ (בָּ with blindness; $\mathrm{Am}_{4}{ }^{9}$, \&c.; but in dittography of the $\pi$, and the parallel
(d) Comparisons, since the object compared is treated not (as usually in 0 English) individually but as a general term, e.g. Is $1^{18}$ white כas wool; red like crimson; Is $34^{4}$ and the heavens shall be rolled together
 I S $26^{20}$, I K $14^{15}$, Is $10^{14}, 24^{20}, 27^{10}, 29^{8}, 53^{6}$, Na $3^{15}, \psi 33^{7}, 49^{15}$; cf. also such examples as $\mathrm{Gn} \mathrm{1}{ }^{288}, \mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{14}{ }^{6}$, where the object compared is determined by a determinate genitive which follows (according to § 127 a).

Examples of indeterminate comparisons are rare, and perhaps due only to $P$ the Masora,-so at least in the case of singulars, while in such plurals as those in Gn $42^{30}$, $1 \mathrm{~K} 10^{27}$, Jo $2^{4.7}$, the omission of the article may be explained by the ordinary rules. On the other hand, the article is regularly omitted when the object compared is already defined by means of an attribute (or relative clause, Jer $23^{9}, \psi{ }^{1} 7^{12}$ ), e.g. Is $16^{2}{ }^{2}$ as wandering
 Jer $2^{30}, \operatorname{Pr} 27^{8}, \mathrm{Jb} 29^{25}, 30^{14}$. - In comparisons with persons also the Masora seems to avoid the use of the article, as in כְּנְּוֹר Jb $16^{14}$ and seven other

4. Peculiar to Hebrew ${ }^{1}$ is the employment of the article to denote $q$ a single person or thing (primarily one which is as yet unknown, and therefore not capable of being defined) as being present to the mind under given circumstances. In such cases in English the indefinite article is mostly used.
 pursuing him at the time), and a bear (הַ) met him, \&c., cf. $3^{12}$, I K $20^{36}$ (John $1^{12}$ ) ; also Gn $8^{71}$. $14^{13}$ ( ${ }^{1}$, i.e. ene that had escaped, the particular one who came just then; so also Ez ${ }^{2} 4^{26}, 33^{21}$; cf. 2 S ${ }_{1} 5^{19}$ ); Gn $15{ }^{1.11}, 18^{7}$ the servant, who is regarded as being constantly at hand and awaiting his com-

 Dillmann, upon the place suitable for passing the night, or the right place, but it may possibly also refer to the sanctuary of Bethel afterwards so sacred and celebrated; Gn $\left.4^{23}, 4^{62}, 50^{26}, \operatorname{Ex}^{26}\right), 3^{2}, 4^{20}, 21^{20}\left(2 \mathrm{~S} 23^{21}\right)$, $\operatorname{Lv} 23^{42}, 24^{10}$



[^189] maiden, through whom the prophet's announcement shall be fulfilled; we should say a maiden [cf. Driver on I S $1^{4}, 6^{8}, 11^{13}$ ]; Jb $9^{91}$.
$\mathcal{S}$ So always to write in the book (or on the scroll, $\mathrm{Nu} 5^{23}$, Jer $3^{2{ }^{10}}$ ), i.e. not in the book already in use, but in the book which is to be devoted to that purpose, equivalent to in a book, on a scroll, Ex $17^{14}$, $1 \mathrm{~S} 10^{25}$, Jb $19{ }^{23}$. Especially instructive for this use of the article is the phrase simply refer back to the previous narrative in the sense of the same day, but is used exactly like our one day (properly meaning on the particular day when it happened, i. e. on a certain day), $1 \mathrm{~S} 1^{4}, 14^{1}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{4}{ }^{8}, 11^{18}, \mathrm{Jb} 1^{6.13}$. In $\mathrm{Gn} 39^{11}$

$t$ The article is sometimes used in this way before collectives in the singular, which are not meant to denote (like the examples given under $l$ ) a whole class, but only that part of it which applies to the given case; thus הive

$u$ 5. When a substantive is defined by the article, or by a suffix, or by a following genitive determinate in any way (see the examples below), the attribute belonging to it (whether adjective, participle, ordinal, or demonstrative pronoun) necessarily takes the article (see, however,
 strong hand. A genitive following the substantive may, according to
 הָּ this worthless man (prop. man of worthlessness; cf. also such examples as $2 \mathrm{Ch} 36^{18}$, where the article is prefixed only to a second
 עַבְרִי促 the least of my master's servants.

When several attributes (whether convected by $W \bar{a} w$ or not) follow a determinate substantive, each of them takes the article, e.g. Dt $10^{17}$
 also Ex $3^{3}, \mathrm{Dt}^{19}$, in both of which places a demonstrative with the article also follows the adjective. ${ }^{1}$
Rem. i. The article is, however, not infrequently used also-
w (a) With the attribute alone, when it is added to an originally indefinite substantive as a subsequent limitation; so always with ordinal numbers after

${ }^{1}$ The demonstrative used adjectivally is generally placed after the adjective proper; in such cases as

${ }^{2}$ Cf. Driver, Tenses, 3 rd ed., § 209 ; M. Lambert, REJ. 31, 2 亿9 f.-The omission of the article from the substantive is not to be regarded in this instance as an indication of late style, and consequently cannot be put forward as a proof of the late origin of the 'Priestly Code' (cf. Dillmann on Gn $1^{31}$, Holzinger, Einl. in d. Hexateuch, p. 465, and especially Driver in the Journal of Philulogy, xi. 229 f., against Giesebrecht in $Z A W$. 1881, p. 265 f.). On the other hand, the common omission of the article from the substantive
 Mishna ; cf. Segal, Nišnaic Hebrew, p. 19 ff.) is certainly a later idiom.

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 strange; Jos $15{ }^{19}$ has
$z$ Of the remaining examples Is $1 I^{9}$ explains itself; the direct connexion of the attribute with its substantive is broken by the insertion of לִי ל In Ez $34^{12}$, Hag. $1^{4}$ (as Wellhausen says, a good instance of a Hebrew adjective
 above) determined by a suffix, and consequently the attribute is less closely attached ; the same applies to $\mathrm{Gn} 37^{2}, 4^{29}, 43^{14}, \psi 1^{18}$, except that in these passages the omission of the article before $7, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{Y}$ may at the same time be due to considerations of euphony (as also in Jos $16^{1}$ before $y$, Nu $14^{37}$
 $2 \mathrm{~K} 25^{16}$ ( a numeral, is determinate in itself (see above, $x$ ); in Is $65^{2}$ the $火$ prevents the use of the article; finally, in $2 \mathrm{Ch} 26^{15}$ בּחִצִּ
 Ez $39^{27}$ omit ${ }^{2}$. Without any apparent reason the article is omitted in Dn $8^{13}$ and $I^{131}$.
ad 2. When, as in Mi $\boldsymbol{7}^{12}$ ( ${ }^{2}$ ( ${ }^{\text {P }}$ in that day?), the article is omitted from both substantive and demonstrative, and in Ezr $3^{12}$, the demonstrative even precedes (הַבַּיִת הֶַּה = וֶה הַבַּיֹת), this is obviously due in both cases to a radical corruption of the text (not only in the words quoted). In Jos $9^{12}$ לְחְמֵּ is either in apposition to the independent demonstrative ( = this our bread, \&c.), as in verse 13 נֹארוֹת is to , or they are complete sentences, this is



## § 127. The Noun determined by a following Determinate

 Genitive.
## Brockelmann, Grundriss, i. 475 .

a When a genitive, determined in any way, follows a nomen regens, it also determines the nomen regens, which, according to $\S 89 a$, is always in the construct state. Moreover, every pronominal suffix attached to a substantive is, according to $\oint 33 c$, to be considered as a genitive determinate by nature. An independent genitive may be determinate-
(a) By its character as a proper name (according to § 125 a), e.g. The word of the Lord.
(b) By having the article, e.g. אִישׁ הַּשְלָחָה (prop. the man of the


[^190]$\mathrm{Nu} 3{ }^{19}{ }^{19}$, the soldiers; ; קָּנַּ
 which hath been taught, Is $29^{13} ;$;
 my father's house.
(d) By construction with another genitive determined in some way,
 Is $1{ }^{12}$ four, and in $21^{17}$ even five, members of a series are determined by a concluding determinate genitive.

Rem. 1. The above explains also the various meanings of $b$ (prop. a $b$ substantive in the sense of aggregate, whole), according as it is followed by a determinate or indeterminate genitive. In the former case has the meaning of the entirety, i.e. all, the whole (like the French tous les hommes, toute la ville), e. g. all men; ${ }^{1}$ Ex ${ }_{18}{ }^{22}$, Nu ${ }_{15}{ }^{13}$, Jer $4^{29}$, and cases like Nu $4^{29.47}, 21^{8}$ where 方 is followed by a singular participle with the article. On the other hand, before an indeterminate genitive $b^{3}$ is used in the more indefinite (individualizing) sense of of all kinds, any (cf. tout homme, à tout prix), or distributively each, every, e.g.

It is, however, to be observed-
(a) That the article may in this case also (see $\S 126 h$ ) be omitted in poetic style, although the substantive is to be regarded as determinate, e.g. all (the) tables, Is $28^{88}$.
(b) That the meaning every is frequent even before singulars used collectively; afterwards the idea of quisque passes naturally into that of totality, e.g. כָּלֹח each living thing, i. e. every (not every kind of) living thing; all men or all living creatures (with the article only in Gn $7^{15}$ before a relative clause, and in Is $40^{6}$ ); sometimes also $\underset{\sim}{\text { an }}$ all trees, finally-
(c) That before the names of members of the human body, ${ }^{-}$כָּ (as being determinate in itself) denotes the entirety, e.g. Is $1^{5}$ the whole head, the whole heart (the sense required by the context, not every head, \&c., which the expression in itself might also mean); $9^{11}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{2} 3^{3}, \mathrm{Ez}_{2} 9^{7}$ all (i.e. the whole of) their shoulders . . . all (the whole of) their loins; $36^{5} \cdot$-On Sith $^{5}$ with a suffix when it follows a noun in apposition (e.g. Is $9^{8}$ הָּנָ
 as well as when it follows absolutely in the genitive (=all men, every one, e.g. Gin $\left.1^{162}\right)^{2}$ see the Lexicon, pp. $4^{81}{ }^{\mathrm{b}}, 482^{\mathrm{b}}$.
2. Gentilic names (or patronymicss), derived from compound proper names $d$ (consisting of a nomen regens and genitive), are determined by inserting the article before the second part of the compound (since it contains the original

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 Qer̂ Ju 611, \&c., cf. I K $1^{634}$.
e 3. In a few instances the nomen regens appears to be used indefinitely notwithstanding a following determinate genitive ; it is not so, however, in Gn $16{ }^{7}$, where the reference is to a well-known fountain; $21^{28}$, where in the original context there must have been some reason for the seven ewe lambs of the flock; $2 \mathrm{~S}_{12} 2^{30}$ the spoil found in the city; but it often is so before a proper name,

 Dt $2^{219}$ a virgin of Israel; $\mathrm{IS} 4^{12}$ a man of Benjamin; $\operatorname{Pr} \mathbf{2 5}^{1}, \mathrm{Ct} \mathbf{2}^{1}, 3^{9}$; similarly before appellatives with the article (or before a genitive determined by



 the sense of 'the pilgrimage-songs' (according to § $124 r$ ), and was subsequently
 the sanctuary, is a dogmatic correction of the difficulty that several holy-places are here authorized, instead of the one central sanctuary. In Gn $20^{13}$ also

4. The deviations mentioned under $e$, from a fundamental rule of syntax, are in some cases open to suspicion on textual grounds, but much more doubtful are the instances in which the article is found before a noun already determined in some other way, as-
(a) Before a noun which appears to be determined by a following independent determinate genitive. The least questionable are the instances in which the genitive is a proper name, since these may be elliptical forms of expression like the apparent construction of proper names with a genitive, noticed in § 125 h, e.g. Nu $21{ }^{14}$ הַנְּ Arnon; $2 \mathrm{~K} 23^{17}$ תַּ the suppression of the real nomen regens, מִוְבַּ without the article; by the pointing the Masora evidently intends to allow the choice either of


 Is $3^{6{ }^{10}}$ (probably a scribal error due to verse 13; it does not occur in the parallel passage, $2 \mathrm{~K} 18^{31}$ ), cf. Jos $13^{5}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 25^{11}$, Jer $38^{6}, \mathrm{Ez} 47^{15}$; in the vocative, Jer $48^{32}$, La $2^{13}$. On the other hand, שֶׁרָה אִּ Gn $24^{67}$ is no doubt
${ }^{1}$ According to Philippi (St. Constr., p. 38) בית־זאל is rather a case of 'sub-

 fact, $\mathrm{Ez} 47^{15}$ may without difficulty be explained in this way ; so Ex $39^{27}$ as an accusative of the material.

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## § 128. The Indication of the Genitive Relation by means of the Construct State.

Cf. especially Philippi's work cited at the head of $\S 89$.
$a$ 1. The genitive relation is regularly expressed (see § 89) by the close connexion of the nomen regens (in the construct state) with the nomen rectum (in the genitive). Since only one nomen regens can be immediately connected with a nomen rectum, it follows that the same genitive cannot depend on two or more co-ordinate nouns, but a second (sometimes even a third, \&c.) regens must be added with a suffix
 and his daughters (not $n$ וּנְּנְ also prefers to avoid a series of several co-ordinate ${ }^{2}$ genitives depending upon one and the same nomen regens (such as occur in

 ויאלֵהֵי הָאָרָּ regens is five times repeated). A lengthened series of genitives may, however, be formed by a nomen rectum serving at the same time as regens to a genitive depending on it (cf. § $127 a[d]$ ); e.g. Gn $47^{9}$
 $\mathrm{Jb} 12^{24}$, where there are three genitives, Is $10^{12}$ fotar, and $2 \mathrm{I}^{17}$ five (unless the last three are in apposition). As a rule, indeed, such an inconvenient accumulation of genitives is avoided by means of a circumlocution in the case of one of them (see $§$ I29 $d$ ).

6 Rem. As the fundamental rules stated above are the necessary consequence not merely of logical but more especially of rhythmical relations (see $\S 89 a$ ), we must feel the more hesitation in admitting examples in which genitives are supposed to be loosely attached to forms other than the construct state. Some of these examples (the supposed genitives following a regens which is determined by the article) have been already discussed in § $127 \mathrm{f}-\mathrm{h}$. Compare, moreover :
C (a) Genitives after the absolute state, e.g. Is 281 1 fat valley of them that are overcome with wine. The usual explanation that A. forms one single idea (in German Fettigkeitstal), on which the

[^192] almost certainly corrupt. In Dt $15^{18}$ מִשְׁנְ would be expected; in Jos $3^{11}$
 for the construct state probably rests only on the authority of the Masoretes. In Ju 625 f. the text is obviously in confusion. In Ju $\delta^{32}$ (cf. $6^{24}$ ) should come either after


 LXX; if originally in the text, it could only be genitive ( = all abominations of evils), not an adjective; $\operatorname{Pr} 21^{6}$ the text is altogether uncertain (the LXX read
 before מְלֶאֶֶת (cf. $\left.12^{25}\right)$.—Elsewhere (Dt $3^{5}$, $1 \mathrm{KK} 4^{13}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 8^{5}$ ) the supposed genitives are to be taken rather as words of nearer definition standing in apposition, i.e. with high walls, gates, and bars. In Jer $8^{5}$ ירושל is either in apposition to העם הזה or is better (since not in the LXX) omitted as a gloss.
(b) Genitives after a noun with a suffix (where the suffix prevents the direct $d$ government by the nomen regens). Thus in Lv 27 ${ }^{3.566 \text {, where }}$ might be taken, contrary to the accents, as subject of the following clause; in Lv $5^{15.25}$ the suffix may refer to Moses. In Lv $6{ }^{3}$ מַדּוֹ his garment, namely the garment of linen, unless simply in apposition, cf. § $13 \mathrm{I} d$ (or read
 for בְּרִיתִי בְרִית זיַָקֹב, cf. $\S 125 h$ (probably, however, it is a case of dittography of the', which was repeated also before אברהם; so Valeton, ZAW. xii. 3); equally strange is בִּריחִי הַיוֹם Jer $33^{20}$, \&c. On the other hand, אִם יוּה
 Lord ; the text is manifestly corrupt (probably in in to be read, with
 is most probably a later addition [another suggestion is to read בֵאלהים like $G o d$ ('s throne): cf. § $141 d$, note]. In Jer $52^{20}$ two readings are probably


(c) The interposition of a word is assumed between ${ }^{-}$(the whole; cf. $e$ $\S 127 \mathrm{~b}$ ) and the genitive governed by it in $2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{I}^{9},{\mathrm{Jb} 27^{9}}^{\text {( }}$ (ע), and, if the text is correct, in Hos $14^{3}$ (חֻinc). In reality, however, in all three places the genitive relation is destroyed by the transposition of the words (instead
 wholly), e.g. $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1}{ }^{9}$ because my life is yet wholly in me, i.e. my whole life ; cf. Philippi, Stat. Constr., p. 10.-On the instances in which the original construct state sentences, § 1520.
2. The dependence of the nomen rectum on the nomen regens by $f$ no means represents merely what is, properly speaking, the genitive relation (see the examples under $g-i$ ). Very frequently the nomen

[^193]rectum only adds a nearer definition of the nomen regens, whether by giving the name, the genus or species, the measure, the material, or finally an attribute of it (genit. epexegeticus or appositionis, ${ }^{1}$ see the examples under $k-q$ ).

Examples. The nomen rectum represents-
$\boldsymbol{g}$ (a) A subjective genitive, specifying the possessor, author, \&c., e. g. בֵּת־הַפֶּלֶּ the king's house ; דִבַר יִהוֹה the word of the Lord.
$h$ (b) An objective genitive, e. g. Ob ${ }^{10}$. brother ${ }^{2}$ (but in Ez $12^{19}$ Mand followed by a subjective genitive); $\operatorname{Pr} 20^{2}$號 the cry concerning Sodom; Is $23^{6}$

 sense this includes such examples as life, $\operatorname{Gn~} 3^{24}$; cf. $\operatorname{Pr} 7^{27}, \mathrm{Jb} 3^{820}$; ְבְבֵי ;


$i$ (c) A partitive genitive; this includes especially the cases in which an adjective in the construct state is followed by a general term, e.g. the wisest of her ladies, Ju $5^{29}$; cf. for this way of expressing the superlative,
§ 133 h , and also r below.
$k$ Merely formal genitives (genit. explicativus or epexegeticus, genit. appositionis) are those added to the construct state as nearer definitions-


 cf. Gn $1^{612}$, Is $1^{4}, 29^{19}$, Ho $13^{2}$, Mi $5^{4}$, \&c.
$m$ ( $f$ ) Of the species, e.g. .
 nacle of my house, i. e. my dwelling-place, $\psi \mathbf{1 3}^{2}{ }^{3}$.
$n$ (g) Of the measure, weight, extent, number, e. g. מִּתִּ people of number, i. e. few in number, $\mathrm{Gn} 34^{30}$, $\mathrm{Dt} 26^{5}$; cf. also $\mathrm{Ez} 47^{3-5}$ waters of the ankles, waters of the loins, waters of swimming, i. e. which reached up to the ankles, or loins,

O ( $h$ ) Of the material ${ }^{3}$ of which something consists, e.g. ${ }^{\text {. }}$ a vessel of
 ץעִ an ark of wood,

[^194]
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葠 sworn supporters, Neh 6 18.
$v$
 ycarling, Ex $12^{5}$, \&c.; בֶּןֹמְאַת שָׁנָה centum annos natus, Gn $21^{5}$;


 scelestissimus, $2 \mathrm{~S} 23^{6}$, Jb $34^{18}$. Plural masculine, e. g. בֶנִי מרי children of rebellion, $\mathrm{Nu}_{1} 7^{25}$. ${ }^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ is used poetically of things without life, e. g. Is $\boldsymbol{s}^{1}$
 Jb $41^{20}$ son of the bow (i.e. an arrow); so also Ec $12^{4}$ the daughters of song, probably meaning the individual notes.

There is another use of $\begin{gathered}\text { בֶּני } \\ \text { to } \\ \text { to }\end{gathered}$
 Gn 62.4, Jb $1^{6}, 2^{11}, 3^{8^{7}}$ (cf. also god $(s)$, but beings of the class of in Am $7^{14}$ ) persons belonging to the guild of prophets;
 Gn $50^{23}$ are most probably not great-grandsons but grandsons, i. e. those belonging
 2 Ch 2019, \&c., Kohathites; בְּנִי קֶדֶם dwellers in the East.
70 3. Special mention must be made of the not infrequent idiom by which adjectives (sometimes also ordinals, see § 1340 ) are added in the genitive, like substantives, rather than as attributes in the same state, gender, and number as the noun which they qualify; thus, Is $28^{4}$ צִיצַת צִבֵל the flower of that which fades, for which verse i has צִיץ the fading fluwer; cf. further, Is $22^{24}$, Jer $22^{17}$ (?), $52^{19}, \psi 73^{10}, 74^{15}$ (but אֵיָ may be a substantive), $78^{8^{49}}$;

 un homme de bien. ${ }^{1}$ - Finally, an adverb (treated as a substantive) may likewise


$x$ 3. The epexegetical genitives include finally the numerous nearer definitions which follow the construct state of adjectives (and of active and passive participles, or verbal adjectives, cf. § in $6 f-l$ ). For, while the word of nearer definition is added to the verb in the accusative (e.g. . חָּזה אֶת־רַגְלָיו he was diseased in his feet, I K I $5^{23}$ ), it may, with participles and verbal adjectives, be either in the accusative

[^195]( $\S 116 f$ and $k$ ) or in the genitive, the case of a word depending on a noun. Such a genitive relation is usually termed an improper annexion. The nearer definition contains a statement either of the
 and honey; or of the means, e.g. Is $22^{2}$; or the cause, $\mathrm{Ct} 2^{5}$ sick of love; or of the scope of the attribute, ${ }^{1}$

 ones of wickedness (wickedly faithless).

Especially frequent is the use of this genitive to name the part of $y$ the body described as being affected by some physical or mental

 such examples as $\operatorname{Am} 2^{16}, \operatorname{Pr} 19^{1}$, where a suffix is attached to the substantive, must be regarded as instances of the genitive construction, on the analogy of $\operatorname{Pr} 14^{2}$, see § i $16 k$.

## § 129. Expression of the Genitive by Circumlocution.

Pesides the construction of a nomen rectum dependent upon a nomen $\boldsymbol{a}$ regens in the construct state ( $\$ \$ 89$ and $\mathbf{1 2 8}$ ), the connexion of two nouns may also be effected otherwise, either by simply attaching the dependent noun by means of the preposition ?, which, according to § II $9 r$, expresses, besides other ideas, like that of belonging $t o{ }^{2}$ or by the addition of a relative clause (? $\}$
r. The introduction of a genitive by $\}$ sometimes occurs even when the $b$ construction with the construct state would be equally possible, e. g. I S $14^{16}$ הַצִּים לְשָׁאוּ the watchmen of Saul; $\psi 37^{18},{ }_{2}$ Ch $28^{18}$ (where indeed the circumlocution makes the sense much plainer); as a rule, however, this use is restricted to the following cases:-
(a) To prevent a nomen regens being determined by a following determinate $C$ genitive, e.g. i S $16^{18}$ בִּן לִ?

 belonging to David as the author), for which לְ לְרָ of David is used alone


[^196]be regarded as a transposition, but מִּמְׂר is used epexegetically for the general term omitted before לְרִוֹר (as it were, a poem of David, a psalm). Moreover, the introduction of the author, poet, \&c., by this Lamed auctoris is the customary idiom also in the other Semitic dialects, especially in Arabic.
(b) When a genitive is to be made dependent on a nomen regens, which is itself composed of a nomen regens and rectum, and represents, as a com-
 to Boaz (חֶ would be the portion of the field of Boaz); $2 \mathrm{~K} 5^{9}$ at the housedoor of Elisha. This especially applies to the cases in which the compound regens represents a term in very common use, the fixed form of which
 of the chronicles of the kings of Israel; $15^{23}, \& c$. ; cf. also Jos $19^{51}$.
$e$
(c) When for any other reason the construction with the nomen regens in the construct state is inadmissible ; cf.e.g. Lv $18{ }^{20}$, where $\underset{\sim}{2}$, of the suffix, cannot be used in the construct state ; but Lv $15^{16} \mathbf{f f}$, \&c., ; in the construct state); Ex $20^{5}$ upon the third and upon the fourth generation of them that hate me;



 is always one compound idea with the substantive numbered, and consequently (as in the examples under b) does not admit of being in the constr. st. with a genitive. The same naturally applies also to such examples as ı K $3^{18}$ בַּיוֹם הַשְׁלִישִי לְ?
 month, Gn $8^{5}$ and frequently.
$g$ Rem. In cases like $2 \mathrm{~S}_{3}{ }^{2}$ and his firstborn was Amnon the genitive expressed by circumlocution with $\}$ is in reality dependent on a regens which is omitted ( בּן $a$ ( $a$ son of Ahinoam); cf. $2 \mathrm{~S}_{3} 3^{9.5}$,
 Lord), and the remarks on שְרָוְר מְוְמוֹר under cabove.
h. 2. The periphrastic expression of the genitive by means of $b_{?}$ is used
 (prop. the sheep which belonged to her father); $\mathrm{Gn}^{\top} 47^{4}$ and frequently. So also (according to § $128 a$ ) when a genitive depends on more than one substantive,
 מִצְרַים would indicate only the baker as belonging to the king); or when a genitive (as in the examples under $d$ above) is added to a compound, which expresses one united idea ( $\mathrm{Ru} 4^{3}$ ) ; or when, as a fixed term (e.g. a title), it appears always in the same form, e.g. Ct $1^{1}$ º

${ }^{1}$ In New Hebrew
 independent sign of the genitive.

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 $\mathrm{Nu} 9^{18.1}$
d (4) When it goverus independent sentences (cf. § 155 ), which virtually stand to the construct state (as nomen regens) in a sort of genitive relation, e.g. Ex $4^{13}$ anּ

 David encamped; Jer $48^{36}, \psi 16^{3}$ (if the text be right), $65^{5}\left(\operatorname{Pr} 8^{32}\right)$, $\psi 8 \mathrm{I}^{6}, \mathrm{Jb} 18^{21}$ the place of him that knoweth not God; $\mathrm{Jb} 29^{16}, \mathrm{La} \mathbf{1}^{14}$ (if the text be right) into the hands of those against whom I cannot stancl. ${ }^{2}$ In $\mathrm{Gn} 39^{4}$ (位) in Ex $9^{4}$, still more boldly, a subst. with ?. -Very often a timedelermination governs the following sentence in this way; thus אַּחֵר followed by a perfect, Lv $25^{49}$, i S $5^{9}$; clause), Ex $6^{28}, \mathrm{Nu}_{3}{ }^{1}, \mathrm{Dt}_{4}{ }^{15}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{22^{1}}, \psi^{188^{1},} 59^{17},{ }_{1} 3^{8}{ }^{8}$ (in every case before a following perfect), $\psi 56^{10}$ (before an imperfect); מיצוֹa followed by the perfect, Jer $36^{2}$; בִּימים ( as in the days when... ${ }^{3}$; cf. תבּעְ before a perfect, Jer $6^{15}$ (cf. $49^{8}, .5^{31}$ ); before an imperfect, $\mathrm{Jb} 6^{17}$;

e (5) Connected with a following word in apposition; certainly so in

 a sonthsaying spirit; cf. $\mathrm{Dt}_{21} \mathrm{I}^{11}$. $-\mathrm{Gn} \mathrm{I}^{4}{ }^{10}$, Ju $19^{22}$ (but read probably
 $Q^{e} \hat{r}_{\hat{e}}$; Jer $46^{9}, \psi 35^{16}(?), 78^{9}, \mathrm{Jb}_{20} 0^{17 b}$ (unless

Rem. Some of the above passages may also be explained by supposing that there exists a real genitive relation towards the preceding construct state, which has been, as it were, provisionally left in susperso, in consequence of the insertion of some interrupting word, e.g. Is $37^{29}$, \&c.; Jb 2017a. Elsewhere (Dt $33^{19}, \psi 68^{34}$ ) the nomen regens probably governs the following construct state directly. 4

[^197](6) The numeral אֲחֵּ in close connexion, and even with $g$ small disjunctives, e.g. $\mathrm{Gn} 3^{22}, 48^{22}$, i $\mathrm{S}^{3}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 7^{22}$, $\mathrm{Is}_{2} 7^{12}, \mathrm{Zc}_{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{I}^{7}$.
The character of these passages shows that the numeral here cannot be in the construct state, but is merely a rhythmical shortening of the usual (tonelengthened) form.

## § 131. Apposition.

1. Apposition in the stricter sense is the collocation of two sub- $\boldsymbol{a}$ stantives in the same case in order to define more exactly (or to complete) the one by the other, and, as a rule (see, however, below, under $g$ ), the former by the latter. Apposition in Hebrew (as in the other Semitic languages ${ }^{1}$ ) is by no means confined to those cases in which it is used in English or in the classical languages. It is not infrequently found when either the subordination of one substantive to the other or some more circumstantial kind of epexegetical addition would be expected.
2. The principal kinds of apposition in Hebrew are:-
 (who was) a widow, r K $7^{14}$; נַעֲרָה בְתוּלָה a damsel (that is) a virgin,


 Is $3^{24}$ (unless

 parallel passage $1 \mathrm{Ch}_{1} 9^{9}$ for ' הָּ refer to the reading in 2 S .
(b) Collocation of the person or thing and the attribute, e.g. Jb $20^{29} C$
 man (but רְשָׁ might also be an adject.) ; cf. $\operatorname{Pr} 6^{12}$. -Lv $6^{13}, 16^{4}$ (where,
 are) truth; (immediately after אֵמְרֵי אֵֵֶ) cf. iS $2^{13}$, Mi I ${ }^{11}$ (where,
 words); $\psi 45^{6}($ ( $), 68^{17}$ (cf. verse 16). In a wider sense this includes also such cases as $\psi 60^{5}$, drink), which causes staggering ${ }^{2}$; 1 K $2^{27}$, $2_{2}$ Ch $18^{26}$ ץ

[^198]
 taken out of the pastures, and $1 \mathrm{~K} 6^{7}$ undressed stones which come
 a condition are in apposition in Ez $18^{6}$ (unless ${ }^{\text {and }}$ an is to be read). In I S $4^{1}$ read
d (c) Collocation of the person ( $\mathrm{Dt}_{28^{38}}$ ) or thing (form) and material, ${ }^{1}$ or of the place or measure and its contents, e.g. I Ch I5 $5^{19}$ D
 ${ }_{1} \mathrm{Ch} 28^{15.18}($ ? $)$; Ex $28^{17}$ four rows, namely stones (for which $39^{10}$ has
 $a$ seah of fine four; cf. $2 \mathrm{~K} 7^{16,18}, \mathrm{Gn}_{1} 8^{6}, \operatorname{Ex} \mathbf{1 5}^{633}, \mathrm{Lr} 5^{11}, \operatorname{Ru} 2^{17}$,
 Ez $22^{18}$ (if the text be right). With the material placed before the measure, Ex $3^{235}$.-A period of time and its contents are placed in apposition

 Dn $10^{2 t}$.

Finally, under this head may be included all the cases in which a numeral (regarded as a substantive) is followed by the object
 § 134 b.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ (d) Collocation of the thing and the measure or extent, number, \&c.,

 ๆ疎 be constr. st.); ; knees, which reached to the knees, $\mathrm{Ez} 47^{4}$ (also to the loins, in the same verse). This likewise includes the cases in which a noun is followed in apposition by a numeral (see § 134 c) or an adverb, originally conceived as a substantive, e.g. Neh $2^{12}$,
 much-making, i. e. much understanding, unless $n$ n̄ר? an adverb with $;$

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$\mathrm{Ez}{42^{5}}^{5}$ (?), Dn $1^{11}$, 1 Ch $4^{42}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 26^{14} .{ }^{1}$ —Cf. finally, $\mathrm{Ct} 3^{7}$, where the suffix
 the genitive is expressed by ?. ${ }^{2}$
0 Of a different kind are the cases in which the permutative with its proper suffix follows as a kind of correction of the preceding suffix, e،g. Is $29^{23}$ when he (or rather) his children see, \&c. (but יץלָדָיו: is clearly a gloss); cf. $\psi 83^{12}$; in

p 5. Cases of apposition in a wider sense are those in which the nearer definition added to the noun was originally regarded as an adverbial accusative; on its use with the verb and on the relative correctness of speaking of such an accusative in Hebrew, cf. $\S 118 a$ and $m$. Owing to the lack of caseendings, indeed, it is in many instances only by analogies elsewhere (especially in Arabic) that we can decide whether the case is one of apposition in the narrower or in the wider sense; in other instances this must remain quite uncertain. However, the following are probably cases of apposition in the wider sense :-
$\eta$ (a) Such phrases as מִּשְֶׁה צֶסֶף a double amount in moncy, Gn $43^{15}$; cf. Jer $\mathrm{I}^{18}$; i S $17^{5}$ five thousand shekels in brass, but this might also be taken (as in d) shekels which were brass; certainly such cases as Jb $\mathbf{I}^{10}$ older than thy father in days, and the expression of the superlative by means of


 wounds without cause, ${ }^{9}$ perhaps also Gn $34^{25}$ ( (b)
$r$ (b) A few examples, in which an epexegetical substantive is added to a
 (but it is also possible to explain it (as in c) of thy conduct, which is lewdness);
 (cf., however, $\psi{ }^{18}{ }^{93}$ ) ; $\mathrm{Hb}^{8}, \psi 7 \mathrm{I}^{7}$. While even in these examples the deviation from the ordinary usage of the language (cf. § $135 n$ ) is strange, it is much more so in
 reckoned by genealogy (but perhaps 'הַמִּתִי is in apposition to the sutfix in (כּתְכָם), also the curious combinations (mentioned in § 128 d) of a proper name (Lv $26^{42}$ ), and in Jer $33^{20}$ with םín ${ }^{\text {. }}{ }^{4}$
${ }^{1}$ But in Is $17^{6}$ we should certainly divide the words differently and read



${ }^{2}$ Some of the examples given above are textually (or exegetically) doubtful, whilst in the case of others, especially those from the later Books, we cannot help asking whether such a prolepsis of the genitive by means of a suffix (as e.g. $E z{ }_{10}{ }^{3}$ ) is not due to the influence of Aramaic, in which it is the customary idiom; cf. Kautzsch's Gramm. des Biblisch-Aram., § $81 e$ and $\S 88$.
${ }^{3}$ In $\psi 69^{5}$ חִּנְ adverlial accusative with a participle; cf. §118q.
${ }^{4}$ But in Nu $25^{12}$ שׁׁל may also be explained, according to $c$, as really in apposition. Cf. on the whole question Delitzsch, Psalmen, 4th ed., p. 203, note I .
6. In Dt $33^{44}$ (מוֹרָשָׁח, (צִרָה), the absolute state appears to be used instead of the construct to govern a following logical genitive; this, however, cannot be explained either as a special kind of apposition, or (with Hitzig) as a peculiarity of the dialect of Northern Palestine, but is merely a textual corruption. On the other hand, in $\mathrm{Jb} 31^{11}$ 并罻 is evidently intended to combine the readings
 $\dot{\psi} 80^{8.15}$ is due to the fact that in $\dot{\psi} \dot{\psi} \mathbf{x}^{2-83}$ Nas almost throughout been subsequently substituted by some redactor for the divine name יהוה; on


7. Lastly, the nearer definition (qualification) of a noun may be effected by $t$ means of a preposition (either with a suffix or with an independent noun), but must then be distinguished from the cases in which the preposition is
 unto her husband with her (=her husband who was with her); in Gn $9^{16}$ (that I may remember the everlasting covenant between God and every living creature of all flesh) and other places, the qualification of the noun is itself also qualified.

## §132. Connexion of the Substantive with the Adjective. ${ }^{2}$

1. The adjective (like the participle used adjectivally), which serves $\boldsymbol{a}$ as an attribute of a substantive, stands after the substantive, and agrees with it in gender and number, e.g. אִּשָׁה יָפָה , צִּשׁ גָּ a great man a beautiful woman. If the substantive is immediately connected with a genitive, the attribute follows the latter, since, according to $\S 89$ and $§ 128 a$, the construct state and the genitive belonging to it are
 On the attribute when attached to a determinate substantive, see above, § $\mathrm{I}_{2} 6 u$.
[^200]6 Rem. I. Where an adjectival attribute appears to stand before its substantive (according to the usual explanation, for the sake of special emphasis) the relation is really appositional in character; thus, Is $10^{30} 0$ thou poor one, Anathoth! (but probably (a righteous man, my servant; but in $\dot{2}^{21}{ }^{21}$ T and the substantives); Jer $3^{6.10 ~ f}$., $\psi 18^{4}$ him who is worthy to be praised will I call upon, the Lord; $9^{2{ }^{12}}$ (apposition after participles).-But רַבִּים and nin many, are sometimes placed, like numerals, before the substantive, Jer ${ }^{1616}$, Neh $9^{28}$ (in $\psi 145^{7}$ I 1 is a subst. regens, in $89^{61}$ the text is corrupt); an appositional relation can scarcely be intended in these instances.
C 2. In a few expressions (mostly poetic) the adjective appears not as an attribute after the substantive, but in the construct state governing it; so in the singular, Ex $15^{16}$ (unless לָּỉ should be read); iS $16^{7}$ (the height of his stature);
 stones; Is $35^{9}, \mathrm{Ez}^{24}, \psi 46^{5}$, and with a following collective instead of a plural,
 in Latin canum degeneres. However, in almost all these cases the adjective which is made into a regens is strongly emphatic, and is frequently equivalent to a superlative (see below, § 133 g ).
3. When two adjectives follow a feminine, sometimes only that standing next to the noun takes the feminine termination, e.g. I K $19^{11}$
 dislike of the feminine form may also be observed in the case of verbal predicates referring to feminine subjects, cf. $\S 145 p$ and $t$.

When an attribute qualifies several substantives of different genders, it agrees with the masculine, as being the prior gender (cf. § 146 d), e.g. Neh $9^{13}$


When three attributes follow a substantive, the first two may stand without a conjunction, and the last be attached by wāw copulative, cf. Zc $1^{8}$.
e 4. After feminines plural ending in $\square^{\prime}$-( $(\$ 87 p)$ the adjectival attribute (in accordance with the fundamental rule stated above, under a) takes the ending תi, e.g. Is $10^{14}$ בֵיצִים עֲזָבוֹת forsaken eggs; Gn $32^{16}$. For a strange exception see Jer $29^{17}$ (differently in $2^{2}$ ).
5. With regard to number it is to be remarked that-
(a) Substantives in the dual are followed by adjectives (or participles) in

$\boldsymbol{g}$ (b) Collective ideas are not infrequently joined with the plural of the adjective or participle (constructio ad sensum); thus, e.g. צֹא sheep [with fem. plur.],
 ת mena in the connexion of collectives with plural predicates in § 145 c.
$h$ (c) The pluralis excellentiae or pluralis maiestatis is joined, as a rule, to the
 Is $19^{4}$; but cf.

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of a separation, distinction or superiority of one person or thing from or over
 prefer it) before something else, e. g. Jb $7^{15}$, cf. Dt $14^{2}$ (also ${ }^{-1}$. . . excellence of . . . over..., Ec $2^{13}$ ); it is also seen in examples like Gn $37^{9}$ now Israel loved Joseph more than all his (other) children; $29^{30}$, S $_{2}{ }^{29}$, Ho 6 6. ${ }^{2}$
C 2. A somewhat different idea underlies the use of phe after adjectives, or intransitive verbs possessing an attributive sense, when the thought to be expressed is that the quality is too little or too much in force for the attainment of a particular aim or object, e.g. Is $7^{13}$ is it a small thing (i.e. too little) for you to . . .? Jb $15^{11}$; after an intransitive verb, e.g. Gn $3^{2^{11}} I$ am too
 the expressions
 - מִּ
 po be too short for something, Is $50^{2}$, and very frequently to too wonderful for one (and, consequently, inconceivable or unattainable), Gn 1814, Dt $17^{8}, 30^{11}, \operatorname{Jer} 37^{17}, \operatorname{Pr} 30^{18} ;$ in $\psi 139^{6}$ in the same sense is followed by .מִן. This use is especially seen in the numerous instances in which the attribute is followed by מן with an infinitive, e.g. I K $8^{64}$ the brazen altar. . . was מָּ מָּנט too littlc to receive (to be able to receive) the burnt offering, cf. Gn $4^{13}, 3^{67}$ too great for them to dwell together; after verbs, e.g. Ex $1^{4}$, Is $28^{20}$, $\psi 40^{6}$. Finally, cf. רַב לָכֶס מִּן, followed by the infinitive, it is enough (prop. too much) for you to . . . , meaning ye have . . . long enough, I K $12^{28}$; cf. Ex $9^{28}$ and Ez $44{ }^{6}$ ("ן pollowed by a substantive). ${ }^{3}$
d In all these instances expresses either the removal of a thing from a person, or the severance of the person from some aim or object; cf. also the expression nothing will be unattainable for them (prop. there shall not be cut off from them anything which, \&c.), Gn II ${ }^{6}, \mathrm{Jb}_{42^{3}}$.
e 3. The attributive idea, on which - p logically depends, must sometimes, in consequence of a pregnant use of the - מן (see the analogous examples in
 graven images were more numerous than those at Jerusalem, \&c. $;^{4}$ Mi $7^{4}$ worse than a thorn hedge; $\psi 62^{10}$ lighter than a breath; Jb $1 \mathrm{I}^{17}$ clearer than the noonday; Ec $4^{17}$ better than, \&c.

[^202]2．The correlative comparatives greater－less（older－younger）are $f$ expressed by the simple adjective with the article（the great，equivalent to the greater，\＆c．）；Gn ${ }^{16}, 19^{31.34}, 27^{15}, 29^{16.18 .26}$ ．

3．To express the superlative it is also sufficient（see above，$f$ ）to $g$ make the adjective determinate，either by means of the ar．icle or a following partitive genitive（or suffix）；in this case the article or genitive indicates that the attribute in question belongs especially to one or more definite individuals；${ }^{1}$ e．g．i $S 9^{21}$ הַצְצִיָה the least； $16^{11}$祘 the little one，i．e．the youngest of eight sons； $17^{14}$ David was祘 the youngest，and the three great，i．e．elder，\＆c．；Gn $42^{13}, 44^{2}$ ，
 youngest son；cf．Jos $14^{15}$ ；also with a following genitive， $2 \mathrm{Ch} 21^{17}$花 בְּנָּי the youngest of his sons： $\operatorname{Pr} 30^{24}$ the least upon the earth；with suffix，Mi $7^{4}$ טמוְדוֹלָם ${ }^{4}$ טוֹבָ their good one，i．e．the best of them；Jon וֹעַד־־ְטַנַּם from the greatest of them even to the least of them；cf．the inverse order in Jer $6^{13}, 3 \mathbf{1}^{34}$ ．
Rem．1．The above examples apply only to the most common relative $h$ attributes（great，small，good），and to expressions which by usage easily came to be recognized as periphrases for the superlative．Other adjectives，however， when followed by a partitive genitive，also acquire the sense of a superlative； this appears from the context，e．g．Dt $33^{19}$ the most hidden treasures of the sand； $\mathrm{Ju} 5^{29}$ the wisest amongst her ladies；Is $\mathbf{1}_{4}{ }^{30}, 19^{11}, 23^{88}$ ．， $29^{19}$, Jer $49^{20}$, Ez $28^{7}$ ， $\mathrm{Zc} \mathrm{In}^{7}, \psi 45^{13}$ ， $\mathrm{Jb} 30^{6}$（in the most horrible of valleys）， $4 \mathrm{I}^{22}$ ；probably also $\psi 35^{16}$ ． On this government by the adjective generally，cf．§ 132 c ．－Moreover，the combination of a substantive in the construct state with an adjective used substantivally（ $\delta 128 w$ ）sometimes serves as a periphrasis for the superlative，

2．Other periphrases for the superlative are the use of a substantive in the $\boldsymbol{i}$ construct state before the plural of the same word（which is naturally to be
 the most holy place ；שׁׂיר הַשִׁיִּירים（Ct $\left.1^{1}\right)$ the most excellent song；cf．Gn $9^{25}$（ $=$ serrus servorum，the lowest servant）； $\mathrm{Nu} 3^{32}$ ， $\mathrm{Dt} \mathrm{Io}^{17}\left(4 \mathrm{I} 3^{62.3}\right)^{2}$ ； $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K}{ }^{27}$ ，Is $34^{10}$（cf． Gal $1^{5}, \operatorname{Rev} 2^{5}$ ）；Jer $3^{19}$, Ez $^{166^{7},}{ }^{266^{7}}$（king of kings，of Nebuchadrezzar； cf． $\mathrm{ITim} 6^{15}, \operatorname{Rev} 17^{14}, 19^{16}$ ，and another kind of periphrasis in $\psi 95^{3}$ ）；Ec $1^{2}$ ． Similarly in Jer $6^{28}$ two participles are combined，and in $\mathrm{Ho}^{10{ }^{15}}{ }^{15}$ two substantives in the singular．Finally，the same object is attained by connect－ ing one substantive in the construct state with another of the same stem


3．The intensification of attributes by means of repetition belongs rather $k$ to rhetoric than to syntax，e．g．Ec $7^{24}$ 茲 exceeding deep $;$ I S $_{2}{ }^{3}, \operatorname{Pr} 20^{14}$ ； the adjective is even used three times in Is $6^{3}$ ．－Cf．the repetition of adverbs for the same purpose in Gn $7^{19}, \mathrm{Nu}^{14} 4^{7}$（מִּמְאֹר מְאֹד exceedingly，also Ex $\left.I^{7}, \& c.\right) ; E z{ }^{2}{ }^{15}$ ．$-O n$ the other hand，in $\mathrm{Dt} 28^{43}$ the repetition expresses

[^203]a continuous progress, higher and higher . . . lower and lower; in Dt $2^{27}$ (see $\S 123 e)$ and $16^{20}$ (nothing but justice) the constancy of the action. Cf. Ex $23^{30}$ little by little, very gradually. ${ }^{1}$
$l$ The repetition of substantives serves also as a periphrasis for the superlative in such cases as לִרְ (Ex $3^{18}$ ) = to the remotest generations; cf. $17^{16}$, Jer $6^{14}, 8^{11}$ (perfect peace); Ez $21^{32}$ ( the emphatic combination of synonymous verbs in Is $33^{10}$. Sometimes the completeness of an action or state is expressed by placing together two or even three substantives of the same stem and of similar sound, cf. Is $\mathbf{2 2}^{5}$,


## § 134. Syntax of the Numerals.

Cf. the exhaustive statistics collected by Sven Herner, Syntax der Zahlwörter $\operatorname{im}$ A. T., Lund, r893. E. König, 'Zur Syntax der Zahlwörter in A. T.,' AJSL. xviii. 129 ff.

1. The numerals from 2 to 10 , as being originally abstract substantives, ${ }^{9}$ may be connected with their substantives in three different ways. They may stand either -
(a) In the construct state before the substantive (the object numbered
 i.e. three days ; שְׁנֵי הָּאְנָשִׁים the two men; or


(c) In the absolute state (likewise in apposition) after the object numbered, e.g. .בּנוֹת שָָלוֹש. So especially in long lists, since in these the substantives naturally come first, e. g. Gn $32^{25} . \mathrm{Nu} 7^{17}, 28^{19}$. Apart from such cases, the frequency of this order in the later Books is due to the fact that the character of the numeral tended more and more to become adjectival rather than substantival. ${ }^{4}$
${ }^{1}$ Adverbs of the same stem are connected in this way in $\mathrm{Nu} 6{ }^{9}$, Is $29^{5}, 30^{18}$;
 to be placed together for a similar purpose, equivalent to simply and solely.
${ }_{2}$ Different in kind from the triple utterance of the same words in $2 \mathrm{~S} 18^{39}$, Jer $7^{4}$ and $22^{29}$, and the double exclamation in Jer $4^{19}$ and La $I^{16}$ (?).
${ }^{3}$ Cf. $\S 97 a$, where it is shown that the masculine is the original form of the numerals (used for both genders), and that the feminine was afterwards differentiated and used with masc. nouns, primarily in the second decade and then in the first as well.
${ }^{4}$ From Herner's tables (op. cit., pp. 55-66) it appears, according to p. 68, that in the documents J, E, D of the Pentateuch, and in Jos I-I2, Judges, Samuel, Isaiah, Jeremiah, the Minor Prophets, Psalms, Megilloth, and Job, the numeral never, or very rarely, stands after its noun; in Kings and Ezekiel it stands several times after; in the Priestly Code nearly always after; in Chronicles, Ezra, Nehemiah, and Daniel, nearly as often after as before the noun. In Ex $28^{10}$ the Masora makes the numeral in the genitive follow the construct state of the substantive numbered; we should, however, read


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 In Dn $12^{11}$ the plural ${ }^{\text {יָמיָ }}$ precedes the numeral twelve hundred.
$h$ 3. Numerals compounded of tens and units (like 21,62 ) take the object numbered either after them in the singular (in the accusative),
 according to $e$, since it conforms to the ten immediately preceding;
 especially in the later Books, Dn $9^{26}$, \&c.; or the object is repeated (but only in I K 6 ${ }^{1}$, and the Priestly Code; sometimes even several times, e.g. Gn $23^{1}, 25^{7.17}$ thrice) in the plural with the units, and in

 hundred and twenty and seven years. Cf. Gn $5^{6 \mathrm{ff}}$.
$i$ Rem. I. It may further be remarked with regard to the order, that the thousand or thousands always precede the hundreds, \&c., and the hundreds almost always come before the smaller numbers (in Kings and Ezekiel sometimes, and in the Priestly Code usually, after the smaller numbers), the tens in the earlier Books (documents $J$ and D of the Pentateuch, in Joshua 1-12, Judges, Samuel, Isaiah, and also in Ezra and Nehemiah) before the units, but in Jeremiah, Ezekiel, the Priestly Code, Joshua $1^{-2}+$ after the units (see Herner, op. cit., p. 73). After the hundreds the smaller number is very frequently added without !, especially in Ezra, Nehemiah, and Daniel.
On the syntax of the cardinals in general :-
$k$ 2. The cardinals are determined by the article, when they refer back (without being connected with the object numbered; cf., however, Lr $25^{10 \mathrm{f}}$., $\mathrm{Nu} 1^{65}, \mathrm{Jos} 4^{4}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{2} 3^{19}$ ) to a number or list already mentioned, e.g. Gn $2^{11}$
 the five (enumerated in verse 2) ; cf. I Ch $\mathrm{I}^{20 \mathrm{f}}$., and the determinate tens in Gn 1829.31 f . A demonstrative with the article may also be added to a numeral determined in this way, e. g. Dt $19^{9}$ (but cf. also $\mathrm{Gn} 9^{19}$, $\mathbf{2 2}^{23}$, where the numeral and demonstrative are practically determinate in themselves). In the case of the numerals from in to 19 the article may stand either before the unit ( 1 Ch $25^{19}, 27^{15}$ ) or before עָשָׁ (Jos $4^{4}$ ); it is used before all three members of a compound number (273) in $\mathrm{Nu}_{3}{ }^{46}$.
$l$ In apposition with any determinate substantive the cardinal number is used without the article, not only when it precedes the substantive, as in Jos I5 ${ }^{14}$ אֶת
 discussed above in $\S 126 x$, Gn $2 \mathrm{I}^{29}$, \&c.), but also when it follows the
 here, as in the cases noticed in $\$ 126 z$, be also due to the dislike of a hiatus, but cf. also $2{ }_{2} \mathrm{~K}_{2}{ }^{2} 5^{16}$ after a determinate substantive. The fact that it is by nature determinate would also be a very simple explanation of
 תַּ

Such cases as שִׁבְעַת הַיָּמִים Ju $14^{17 \text { (which is determined by a following } m}$ determinate genitive) are explained from § $127 b$; I Ch $9^{25}$ perhaps from $\S 126 q$; in Is $30^{26}$ probably the light of all the seven days of the week is meant; on the other hand, in IS $9^{20}$ and $25^{38}$ the article is, with Wellhausen, to be omitted.
3. Certain specifications of measure, weight, or time, are commonly omitted $\boldsymbol{n}$ after numerals, e.g. Gn $20^{16}$ 亿ֶֹ


 like cakes, is to he supplied. -The number of cubits is stated in the Priestly Code (Ex 262, \&c.) and in I K 6 and 7 (otherwise only in Ez $4^{\circ}{ }^{5.21}, 47^{3}$. Zc $5^{2}$,
 Ex $27^{11}$ the Samaritan and LXX read אַּשָּ after עֲ
4. The ordinals above ro have no special forms, but are expressed $O$ by the corresponding cardinals, which may then stand either before or

 and, with repetition of ${ }^{\top}$ a cardinal occurs without $\nexists$ (and therefore in the accus. temporis, according to § $118 k$ ) in $\mathrm{Gn} \mathrm{I}_{14}{ }^{4}$ (the Samaritan, however, has ובשלש); with the article (but without a numbered object, see under $k$ ), r K $19^{19}$. ${ }^{1}$-On the position of the numeral as a genitive following its noun, cf. e. g. i K $16^{10}$ in the tuenty and serenth year, and with a determinate numeral, Ex $12^{18}, \mathrm{Nu} 33^{38}$, $\mathrm{Dt} 15^{9}$. In this case, however, $2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{I}^{10}$; after a determinate numeral, Lv $25^{10} .{ }^{2}$

Rem. In numbering days of the month and years, the cardinals are very $P$ frequently used instead of the ordinals even for the numbers from 1 to 10 ,
 themselves are always numbered by the ordinals (בֵּ בּׁ

 Lv $23^{32}$ (always, however,
 three days, i.e. on the third day (in verses II and 16 and in Ezr $10^{8}$ the ordinal is used), also I S $30^{13}$ (כִּי חָלִיחִי הַיוֹם שְׁלֹשָׁ because three days agone I fell sick, prop. to-day three (days).
${ }_{2}$ All these expressions may indeed be explained by supposing that, e.g. in Lv $25^{10}$, the proper meaning is the year of the fifty years which it completed, i.e. the fiftieth year ; but it is more correct to regard שִׁנַׁ cases not as a real nomen regens, but simply as a connective form to be explained on the analogy of the cases mentioned in $\S 128 k$.
omission of Di י in all these cases see under $n$; only in late passages is ai
 when the year is stated by $ת$ נִשִ

 explained according to $\$ 128 \mathrm{k}$. This is supported by the fact that the Masora on Jer $28^{1}, 32^{1}$ requires in the $Q^{e} r e \hat{e}$ בשנח for

I 5. Distributives are expressed either by repetition of the cardinal number, e.g. Gn $7^{9915}$ is each; with the numbered object also repeated, e.g. Jos $3^{12}$
 Neh $1 \mathrm{I}^{1}$, one out of every ten) ; cf. § $123 d$; or a periphrasis with
 repeated; the simple distributive ? is, however, sufficient (as in

$r$ 6. The multiplicatives are expressed either (like the ordinals above ro, see under o) by the cardinals (in the feminine, probably owing to

 $2 \mathrm{~K}^{10}, \mathrm{Jb}_{40^{5}}$, for which in $\mathrm{Jb} 33^{14}$ (the latter also in I $S_{1} 8^{21}$ ); or by the dual of the numeral, thus Gn $4^{15}$ (in verse 24 along with the cardinal 77 for 77 times); Is $30^{26}$,
 a step, with the article,

 three times; cf. Ez $41^{1}$ thirty-three times; $2 \mathrm{~S}_{24}{ }^{3}$ an hundred times; Dt $\mathrm{I}^{11}$ a thousand times; $\mathbf{I}$ K $22^{16}$ un until how many times,
 many times, Neh $9^{28}$.-In $\mathrm{Gn}_{43^{34}}$, five times is expressed by (prop. five hands), ${ }^{3}$ and in Ex $16^{5}$ the double is expressed by (prop. a repetition over and above that which, \&c.).-Of the ordinals
 Latin tertium consul; a fifth time, Neh $6^{5}$; בַּפַּשַׁם Tivos $6^{16}$.

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a trace of popular language), e.g. IS $23^{22}$ (?), $\mathrm{Ct}_{5} 5^{5}$, and (like other indications of the very late origin of the book) very frequently in Ecclesiastes, e.g. ${ }^{16}$, $2^{1.11 .15}, 3^{17 \text { I }}$ and thirteen other places ; in Aramaic, Dn $5^{16}$.
C 2. Substantival subjects also are somewhat frequently resumed, and thus expressly emphasized, by the insertion of the corresponding separate pronoun of the 3 rd person before the predicate is stated, e. g. Gn $3^{12}$ the woman whom
 in Is $7^{14}$ after the predicate and subject is equivalent to he himself. ${ }^{1}$
d 2. Not infrequently the separate pronoun serves to give strong emphasis to a suffix of the same person which precedes (or sometimes even to one which follows), whether the suffix be attached to a verb (as accusative) or to a noun or preposition (as genitive). In English such an emphasis on the pronoun can generally be rendered only by laying greater stress upon it, or sometimes by repeating it; cf., on the contrary, the French mon livre à moi. The separate pronoun in such instances is not to be regarded as a casus obliquus (accusative or genitive), but as the subject of an independent sentence, the predicate of which must in each case be supplied according to the context.
e Examples of emphasis:-
 even me also (prop. biess me, I also would be blessed); Zc $7^{5}$; cf. also Ez 63,













 for you yourselves; Jer $25^{14}$.


$h$ The same principle also explains Gn $4{ }^{26}$ to to Seth, to him also (not


[^205]3. The oblique cases of the personal pronouns expressed by means of $i$ a preposition (or the nota accus. את) with a suffix may be used either in a demonstrative or reflexive sense, ${ }^{1}$ as iל to him, but also to himself, e. g. Ju $3^{16}$ and Ehud made iל for himself a sword, cf. Gn $33^{17}$; so also
 and $\mathrm{Gn} 22^{3}$ with himself; بyịn with her, and I S $\mathbf{1}^{24}$ with herself; also apparently as a pleonastic dativus ethicus (see § 1198 ), Jb $12^{11}, \mathbf{I}^{1}$.

Rarely, and only when marked emphasis is intended, is the accusative $k$ of the reflexive pronoun represented by the nota accusativi את with a suffix (this being ordinarily expressed by the reflexive conjugations

 note 2.
Rem. There is a similar emphasis in Is $49^{28}$ on and aְּשָּרָּ sense of their own flesh, their own blood. On the sometimes demonstrative, sometimes reflexive meaning of noun-suffixes of the 3 rd person singular and plural, cf. $\S 9 \mathrm{r}, p$ and $q$. For other circumlocutions to express the idea of self, see § $139 f$.
4. The possessive pronouns are, according to § $33 c$, expressed by $m$ the suffixes of the noun (in the genitive), ${ }^{3}$ which may represent either a subjective genitive, or (like the genitives proper, § $\mathbf{1} 28 h$ ) an oljective genitive, e.g. חִחָָ̣י the wrong done against me, Gn $16^{5}$, Jer $5_{15}^{35}$; cf. $\mathrm{Gn} 9^{2}, 18^{21}, 27^{13}\left(2 \mathrm{~S} 16^{12} K^{e} t h\right.$.) ; Gn $30^{23,}, 39^{21}$ (cf. Ex $3^{21}, \& c$.); $50^{4}$, Ex $20^{20}, 2 \mathbf{1}^{35}, \mathrm{Ju} 4^{9}, \mathrm{I}^{12}$ ( ${ }^{12}$ ( $\mathrm{Na} 3^{19}, \mathrm{Pr}^{27}, 24^{22}, \mathrm{Jb} 20^{29}, 23^{14}, 34^{6}$. Cf. also such pregnant expres-
 will send thee help; Gn $3{ }^{\circ}{ }^{18}, 39^{21}$, Ex $2^{9}$, Is $1^{26}$ (and I will restore judges for thee); $\mathrm{Ez} 37^{75}$.

When several substantives are co-ordinated, the pronominal suffix must be attached to each singly, e.g. Gn $3^{66}$ and Esau took
 is hardly correct.

[^206]$n$ 5. When the genitive, following a construct state, is used periphrastically to express the idea of a material or attribute ( $\$ 1280$ and $p$ ), the pronominal suffix, which properly belongs to the compound idea (represented by the nomen regens and genitive), is, like the article (§ 127 ), attached to the second substantive (the genitive), e.g. הַר־־ְדְשְׁי prop. the hill of my holiness, i. e. my holy hill, $\psi 2^{6}$, \&c.; ; עִּר קִדְשְׁך thy

 strength; $3^{8^{6}}$; after an adjective as nomen regens, Is $\mathbf{I}^{3}{ }^{3}\left(Z_{p} 3^{11}\right)$ ) My proudly exulting ones.-On the same analogy is the use of
 - תְּפְּדּת $m y$ house of prayer, although the genitive here does not convey the idea of an attribute.

0 Rem. I. Through a weakening in the distinction of gender, which is noticeable elsewhere (cf. §110 $k, 144 a, 145 p, t, u$ ) and which probably passed from the colloquial language ${ }^{2}$ into that of literature, masculine suffixes (especially in the plural) are not infrequently used to refer to feminine substantives; thus a noun-suffix in the singular, Ex $11^{6}, 25^{19}$, Ju 11 ${ }^{34} ;^{3}$ in the plural, Gn $31^{9}, 3^{26}, 41^{23}$, Ex $1^{21}, 2^{17}$, Nu $2 \boldsymbol{t}^{7}$ (but the feminine suffix twice immediately after, and so the Samaritan also in

 a feminine suffix); $\mathrm{Jb}^{14}, 39^{3}$ (חִבְלִיהֶם in parallelism with $\mathrm{Ct}_{4}{ }^{2}, 6^{6}, \mathrm{Ru} 1^{8 f f}$. (along with feminine suffixes) ; Dn $1^{5}, 8^{9}$. Verbal suffixes in the singular, Ex $2^{25}$; in the plural, Ju 163, $\operatorname{Pr} 6^{21}, \mathrm{Jb} 1^{15}$. But Gn 2615.18, $33^{13}$, Ex $2^{17}$, IS $6^{10 a}$ are to be explained according to $\$ 60 h$. On feminine, see § 32 n . On the use of the masculine in general as the prior gender, see § 122 g .
2. The suffix of the 3 rd person singular feminine (as also the separate
 to the verbal idea contained in a preceding sentence (corresponding to our
 cf. Gn $24^{14}$ ( suffix of the 3 rd singular feminine refers to the plurals of things, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K} 3^{3}$

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## § 136. The Demonstrative Pronoun.

a The demonstrative pronouns are זֶ, fem. hic, haec (hoc), hi, \&c., and the personal pronoun Nil, likewise used
 ea (id), or ille, \&c., ii, eae or illi, \&c. The distinction between them in usage is that (like hic, ö $\delta \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ) almost always points out a (new) person or thing present, while (like is, ille, aủrós, èкєivos) refers to a person or thing already mentioned or known (see the examples below). ${ }^{\text {. }}$
$b$ Rem. 1. Compare the instructive examples in Gn $32^{3}$, Tu $7^{4}$ of whom $I$ say unto thee, this (ה) (il) shall go with thee, he shall go with thee (so afterwards with negatives)." Moreover, הַיוֹם הֶַּה this day, i.e. the actual day on which
 which the historian has just been speaking ( $\mathrm{Gn}_{1} 5^{18}, 2^{62}$ ) or of which the prophet has just been foretelling (Is $5^{30}, 7^{18.20 \mathrm{f}}$.) and of which he continues to speak or foretell. Nevertheless and are also found in certain common combinations where and הוֹא

 occurs, e.g. in I S $1 c^{27}, 21^{16}$, 1 K ${ }^{22}{ }^{27}$, Is $6^{10}$, \&c. In the sense of the neuter,
 than הִיא.
C 2. Both interrogative words (like the Latin nam in quisnam; cf. also quis tandem);




 Jer $3^{0^{21} \text {. }}$
3. וֶה is likewise used as an enclitic (see c above): (a) of place, in such
 ${ }_{2} \mathrm{~S}_{2}{ }^{20}$ is it thou?

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 just now, $2 \mathrm{~K}_{5}{ }^{22}$; and rather frequently before words denoting number, e.g.
 the numeral in Ğn $3^{41}$ 亿ֶה elliptically for this, i.e. this present period, is to me, i.e. makes altogether, twenty years, \&c. The other examples are similarly elliptical.

## § 137. The Interrogative Pronoun.

The interrogative pronoun who may refer either to a masculine $a$ or feminine person ( $\mathrm{Ct} 3^{6}$ ), or even to a plural, e.g. ye? Jos $9^{8}$; מִי־אֵּ i. e. who exactly, who in particular ?). It is used of the neuter only
 Shechemites? $\mathrm{Ju} 9^{28}, \mathrm{I}^{17}, \mathrm{Gn} 33^{8}$, Mi $\mathbf{1}^{5}$; even more boldly, with the
 rogative is

Moreover, "pmalso be used in the sense of a genitive, e.g. $b$

 Is $6^{8}$; with prepositions, e.g. "בְִּּ I K $20^{14}$ (in an abrupt question by
 what $?$ is used for the nominative, or accusative, or genitive (Jer $8^{9}$ ), or with prepositions, e.g. עַלֹאדה whereupon? Is $\mathrm{I}^{5}$, $\mathrm{Jb} 38^{6}$; why?


Rem. Both and מִּ are used also in indirect questions (on the merely $C$ relative distinction between direct and indirect questions in Hebrew, see the Interrogative Sentences), e.g. Gn $39^{8}$ (but read מאאֹטָּ with Samar. and LXX), $43^{22}, E x 3^{2}$. -On the meaning of their use as indefinite pronouns (equivalent to quisquis, quodcunque or quicquam),



 whosoever Ex $3^{33}$, ${ }_{2}$ TS 2011, and
corrupt. In $\mathrm{Ju}_{5}{ }^{5}$ in fact Moore as a very early gloss, which subsequently found its way from this passage into $\psi 68$.
${ }^{1}$ A quite different use of מָּ was pointed out (privately) by P. Haupt in Ct $5^{8}$ will ye not tell him? i.e. I charge you that ye tell him, and $7^{1}=$ look now at the Shulamite, corresponding to the late Arabic má tarâ, just see! má taqülu, say now! It has long been recognized that $\underset{T}{ }$ is used as a negative in Ct $\delta^{4}$.

Tu 1018. A still further weakening of the indefinite use of מטה is the combingion
 anything at all (usually with a negative), and as an adverb in any way, $1 \mathrm{~S} 21^{3}$, see the Lexicon.

## § 138. I'he Relative Pronoun.

Cf. Philippi, Stat. constr. (see heading of $\S 89$ ), p. 7 I f., and especially V. Baumann, Hebräische Relativsätze, Leipzig, 1894.
$a$ Relative clauses are most frequently (but not necessarily; cf. § I 55 b) introduced by the indeclinable : a relative pronoun in the Greek, Latin, or English sense, nor is it a mere not relationis, ${ }^{2}$ but an original demonstrative pronoun [as though iste, istius, \&c.]. ${ }^{3}$ Hence it is used-
(1) In immediate dependence on the substantival idea to be defined, and virtually in the same case as it (hence belonging syntactically to the main clause); e.g. Gn $24^{7}$. . . הּ Lord, iste, he took me . . . he shall send, \&c. (=who took me); Gi $2^{2}$ and God finished Such qualifying clauses may be called dependent relative clauses.
 live, in $G n 2^{2}$ in the accusative. A further distinction between the examples is that in Gi $24^{7}$ the main idea (Vוה), to which is only resumed in the qualifying clause by the subject (he) inherent in

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 Is $5^{25}, 469^{\text {² }} ;$ Tinto the hand of those-thou hatest (them); depending on a preposition, e.g. that (place)-he is there, i. e. where he is; cf. Ju $17^{8}$ and Ru $1^{16}$ אֶּשְ

$f$ From these examples it follows that in independent relative clauses the retrospective suffix, or adverb of place, may be, and in fact generally is, omitted. As a rule, however (as in the dependent relative clause), this does not apply to cases in which the retrospective pronoun, by the construction of the sentence, depends on a preposition, ${ }^{2}$ e.g. Gn $44^{9 f}$. he-it (the cup) is founa with him, -shall die (for the Wäw of the apodosis in
 anomalous, as in Gn $31^{32}$ NצM with whomsoever thou findest, where Nㅜㅄ is a relative pronoun in the English sense; on the other hand, in
 op. cit., p. 37) by reference to $47^{18}$, as a demonstrative pronoun, stand now with thine enchantments . . ., with those-thou hast laboured (with them).
[With regard to the preceding explanation of course understand that, in Hebrew as we know it, $\underset{\sim}{7} \underset{\sim}{*}$ never occurs as a mere demonstrative. A particle which, whatever its origin, is uniformly used with reference to something in another, contiguous clause, will naturally have acquired in practice that force which we denote by the term 'relative'.]
$g$ Like the original demonstrative pronoun $\overbrace{\mathcal{E}} \mathrm{n}$, the demonstratives proper $\begin{aligned} & \text {,ֶ, it, }\end{aligned}$ " (the last commonly), ${ }^{3}$ and sometimes the article, are used somewhat frequently in poetic language to introduce both dependent and independent relative clauses. With regard to the construction of hold good.

Examples:-
(a) IT in apposition to a governing substantive in the nominative, $\psi 104^{26}$
 formed; Is $4^{24}$ ( $\mathbb{T}$ ) ; in the accusative, Is $25^{9}, \psi 74^{2}$ (in both cases with a retrospective pronoun ; if is used without it in $\psi 132^{12}$ ); in apposition to
 unto thy father, him - he begat thee, i.e. who begat thee; $\psi{ }^{17^{9}}$ (97).—In $\psi 104^{8}$ unto the place which thou hadst founded for them (cf. § 130 c ), in in the genitive after the construct state to the place of that, thou hadst

[^210]founded (it) for them; on the same analogy we may also take, with Baumann
 $10^{2}, 31^{5}, 32^{8}, 62^{12}, 14^{4}, 143^{8}$ (all examples of 1 ).

To introduce independent relative clauses ris used as a nominative in $/ 4$ Jb $19^{19}$; as accusative, $\mathrm{JbI} 5^{17}$ and $\geqslant \mathrm{Hb} \mathrm{in}, \dot{\psi} 68^{29}$ (after a preposition, Ex $13^{8}$; but the text is evidently corrupt).
(b) More certain examples of the use of the article as a relative pronoun $i$ (more correctly, perhaps, of the demonstrative which is otherwise used as
 1 Ch $29^{8}$ (where נִמְצָ can only be perfect Niphial); $2 \mathrm{Ch}_{2} 9^{96}, \mathrm{Ezr}^{1014}$. In connexion with a plural, Jos $10^{24}$ the chiefs of the men of war הֶּ who whin win went with him; Ezr ${ }^{25}$, $10^{17}$, 1 Ch $29^{17}$. Finally, in the sense of $i d$ quod, Jer $5^{13}$ (where, however, we should read with the LXX 7הָ הָ IS $9^{24}$ the thigh equivalent to הַּהֵכִין

 examples, moreover, belong to the latest Books (Ezra and Chronicles). On the other hand, another series of instances (even in the older texts) is extremely doubtful, in which the Masora likewise requires perfects, either by placing the tone on the penultima, as in $\mathrm{Gn} 18{ }^{21}, 46^{27}, \mathrm{Jb} 2^{11}$ הַהָּאָּ ; Is $5^{10}$

 all these cases intended participles (and in fact perfect participles, cf. § II $6 d$ )



## § 139. Expression of Pronominal Ideas by means of Substantives.

Analogons to the periphrases for expressing materials and attributes $a$ by means of substantives ( $\$ 128 o$ and $p$ ), is the use of substantives to represent certain kinds of pronominal ideas, for which no special expressions exist. Thus-
I.
(a) The idea of each, every (in the sense of each severally) with reference to persons, ${ }^{1}$ and even animals ( $\operatorname{Gn~}_{15} 5^{10}$ ), e.g. Gn $10^{5}$, feminine Ex $3^{22}$; שׁ눈 is the object, e.g. in Jer $12^{15}$. On

In a few passages $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ in the above sense is placed for the sake of emphasis $\boldsymbol{C}$ before the governing noun (always a substantive with a suffix), thus מַיר אישׁ at the hand of the brother of every man. But although the explanation seems to be

[^211]supported by $\mathrm{Gn}_{42^{25}}$ and $\mathrm{Nu} \mathrm{in}^{17}$, it is inconceivable that such an inversion of nomen regens and rectum should occur. It is more likely, either that the second substantive is in apposition to שi'N (thus Gn $9^{5}$ at the hand of every man, his brother, [unless it is a combination of the two readings מִּר and

 of casus pendens, and only receives its nearer definition from the following substantive with suffix ; thus Gn $41^{12}, 4^{25}$ (according to the context $=$ to every one in his sack); $42^{35}$, where

(b) Any one, some one, e.g. Gn $13^{16}$, $\mathrm{Ct}^{87}$, with a negative no one ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ so after -



 Cf. finally, and the expressions noticed in § 144 e . The latter include also instances
 any man.

 is used to represent the ideas of alter-alter, the one-the other ${ }^{3}$ (in reference to persons, animals, or things without life; see the Lexicon) or the idea of one another, e.g. Gn $I^{11}$ and they separated themselves other ; Ex $26^{3}$ five curtains (ירִיעֹת fem.) shall be coupled together to another.

 $29^{24}, \mathrm{Jb} 18^{4}$ (in all cases ${ }^{2}$ ַַ $\mathfrak{Z}$ equivalent to himself) and in the plural, Jer $37^{9}$, \&c. Similar to this is the use of $\begin{gathered}\text { בִּקִרְבּ } \\ \text { Gn } 188^{12} \\ \text { (prop. in her inuard }\end{gathered}$ part) in the sense of within herself. ${ }^{5}$
${ }^{1}$ Cf. on the whole question the thorough discussion by Budde, Die bill. Urgeschichte, p. 283 ff. : according to him, the words in Gn $9^{5}$ are to be rendered at the hand of one another (from men mutually) will I require it. [In support of this view, Budde points to Zc $7^{10}$
 can only, he observes, be rendered 'and devise not the hurt of one another in your heart'. So also König, Syntax, § 33.]
${ }^{2}$ Cf. also איא- Gn 39 $9^{11}$. On the expression of the idea of no one by means of ${ }^{1}$ Nith a following participle, see the Negative Sentences, § 152 l.
${ }^{3}$ Elsewhere 7 . . . זֶ are used in a similar sense, Ex $14^{20}$, Is $6^{3}$; also
 one end . . . to the other end).

4 On the representation of this idea by pronouns, separate and suffixed, see § $135 \alpha, i$ and $k$.
${ }^{5}$ In a similar way the idea of self in Arabic, as in Sanskrit (âtman), is paraphrased by soul, spirit; in Arabic also by eye; in Rabbinic by gla body, $^{\text {b }}$,

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## CHAPTER II

## THE SENTENCE

## I. The Sentence in General.

§ 140. Noun-clauses, Verbal-clauses, and the Compound Sentence.

1. Every sentence, the subject and predicate of which are nouns or their equivalents (esp. participles), is called a noun-clause, e.g. וֹהוֹה מַלְּנְּנו men of Sodom were wicked and sinners, $\mathrm{Gn}_{\mathrm{I}}{ }^{13}$; לָּ theirs, $\psi 115^{5}$; see further, § 141 .
$b$ 2. Every sentence, the subject of which is a noun (or pronoun included in a verbal-form) and its predicate a finite verb, is called
 divided, $\mathbf{I}^{7}$; see further, § 142.

C Rem. In the last example the pronominal subject is at least indicated by the preformative ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ), and in almost all forms of the perfect by afformatives. The 3 rd pers. sing. perf. however, which contains no indication of the subject, must also be regarded as a full verbal-clause.
d 3. Every sentence, the subject or predicate of which is itself a full
 his way is perfect, equivalent to God's way is perfect; Gn $34^{8}$ שְׁרֶם בְּנִּ חָּ my son Shechem—his soul longeth for your daughter; see further, § 143.
$\boldsymbol{e}$ 4. The above distinction between different kinds of sentencesespecially between noun- and verbal-clauses-is indispensable to the more delicate appreciation of Hebrew syntax (and that of the Semitic languages generally), since it is by no means merely external or formal, but involves fundamental differences of meaning. Nounclauses with a substantive as predicate, represent something fixed, a state or in short, a being so and so; verbal-clauses on the other hand, something moveable and in progress, an event or action. The latter description is indeed true in a certain sense also of noun-clauses
with a participial predicate, except that in their case the event or action (as distinguished from that expressed by the verbal-clause) is of a fixed and abiding character.

Rem. By the Arab grammarians every clause beginning with an inde. $f$ pendent subject is regarded as a noun-clause, and every clause beginning with a finite verb as verbal. If a finite verb follows the noun-subject the two together (since the verb comprises its own subject and is thus a complete verbal-clause) form a compound noun-sentence, just as when the predicate consists of an independent noun-clause. Though this definition of the different kinds of sentence, which we formerly accepted (in § $144 a$ of the 22nd to the 24th German editions of this Grammar), is rejected above, a-d, we must, nevertheless, mention here the point in which this more complicated view of the Arab grammarians may be regarded as at least relatively correct, namely, in classifying verbal-clauses according as the subject precedes or follows the verb, a distinction which is often of greatimportance in Hebrew also; see further, in § $142 a$.

## § 141. The Noun-clause.

1. The subject of a noun-clause (see § $140 a$ ) may be-
 going out) of $E d e n, G n 2^{10}$.

 אָּ
 contained in
2. The predicate of a noun-clause may be-
 Lord your God; Gn $42^{13}$. Specially characteristic of the Semitic mode of expression are the cases in which both subject and predicate are substantives, thus emphasizing their identity ('the thing is its
 the altar (was) wood..., and the walls thereof (were) wood, i.e. of wood. Cf. below, c.
(b) An adjective or participle, e.g. Gn $2{ }^{12}$ בוֹר the gold of that land is good; now now Ephron was sitting, \&c., Gn $23^{10} .^{2}$ Very frequently such noun-clauses, attached by Wāw to a verbal-clause, are used to represent a state contemporaneous with the principal action; cf. $e$ below.
 thy servants.

[^212](d) A pronoun, e.g. Gn $10^{12}$ (חִּ), Ex $9^{27}$ ( ( $\left.{ }^{(\mathrm{D}}\right)$. ${ }^{1}$
(e) An adverb or (esp. if formed with a preposition) any specification of time, place, quality, possessor, \&c., which may be regarded as the

 $\psi 13^{115}$; his, $\psi 100^{3} Q^{e} r \hat{e}$.

C Rem. I. The employment of a substantive as predicate of a noun-clause is especially frequent, either when no corresponding adjective exists (so mostly with words expressing the material ; cf. § 1280) or when the attribute is intended to receive a certain emphasis. For in all cases there is a much greater stress upon a substantival predicate, ${ }^{2}$ since it represents something as identical with the subject (see above, $b[a]$ ), than upon an adjectival or verbal predicate ; cf. $\mathrm{Ct}^{10}{ }^{10} ; \psi \mathbf{5}^{10}$ all the paths of the Lord are
 $88^{19}, \operatorname{Pr} 3^{17}, \mathrm{Jbl}^{22^{12}}, 23^{2}, 26^{13}, \mathrm{Ru} 3^{2}$. Sometimes the emphasis on the predicate is obtained by the use of the plural form (according to $\S 124 e$ ), e.g. $\psi 110^{3}$ thy people are ${ }^{\text {In }}$, altogether willingness; $\mathrm{Ct} 5^{16}$, $\mathrm{Dn} 9^{23}$.
d Sometimes the boldnéss of such combinations is modified by the repetition
 strength the strength of stones? $\operatorname{Pr} 3^{17}$. That the language, however-especially in poetry-is not averse even to the boldest combinations in order to emphasize very strongly the unconditional relation between the subject and predicate, is shown by such examples as $\psi 45^{9}$ myrrh and aloes and cassia are all thy garments (i.e. so perfumed with them that they seem to be composed of

 showers, i.e. the rainy season; with a bold enallage of the number, Gn $34^{30}$隹 and $I$ (with my family) am persons few in number. For
 and again with a bold enallage of the number, $\mathrm{Jb} 29^{15} I$ was eyes to the blind,

${ }^{1}$ Why in these examples the pronouns, notwithstanding appearances to the contrary, are to be considered as predicates and not as subjects, may be seen from what has been remarked above, § 126 k .
${ }^{2}$ The same naturally applies to most of those cases which are not pure noun-clauses, but have the substantival predicate connected with the subject by ${ }_{T}{ }_{T}$ (e.g. Gn $1^{2}$ and the earth was a waste and emptiness; cf. $\dot{\psi} 35^{6}, \operatorname{Pr} 8^{30}$, $\mathrm{Jb} 3^{4}{ }^{\text { }}$ or where a preposition precedes the substantival predicate, as $\psi 29^{4}$ the roice of the Lord is with power, i. e. powerful.

 ${ }_{2} \mathrm{~S} 20^{9}, \psi \mathrm{r}_{2} 0^{7}, \& c$., is not rather to be regarded as an adjective.
${ }^{4}$ As a rule, in such comparisons $\mathfrak{3}$ (which is then to be regarded as nominative) stands before the predicate, e.g. Is $63^{2}$ wherefore are thy garments like those of one that treadeth in the wine-press? (prop. the like of one that treadeth, instar calcantis); Jer $50^{9}$. The comparison is then much less emphatic than in the noun-clauses cited above.

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 the sense of to become, to fare, to exist, still retains its full force as a verb, and where accordingly the sentence is verbal, and not a noun-clause; especially when the predicate precedes the subject. On the other hand, such examples as Gn $1^{2}$ and the earth was (היָּיָה) waste and emptiness, can scarcely be regarded as properly verbal clauses; $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ referring to past time a statement which, as the description of a state, might also appear in the form of a pure noun-clause; cf. Gn $3^{1}$. This is especially true of the somewhat numerous instances in which occurs as a connecting word between the subject and the participial predicate; e.g. $\mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{I}^{7}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{I}^{14}$ (immediately afterwards a pure noun-clause). The imperfect of הָ especially in the latter case, comes very near to being a mere copula, and this use is more frequent in the later books ${ }^{1}$ than in the earlier.
$k$ Rem. On the employment of existence, and in non-existence, which were originally substantives (on their tendency to be used as verbs, equivalent to est, and non est, cf. § 1000 , and the Negative Sentences, § 152 ) as a connecting link between a pronominal subject and a participial predicate (especially in conditional and interrogative sentences, Gn $24^{42.49}, 43^{4}$, \&c.), see above, § $116 q$, and the various kinds of subordinate clauses mentioned in $\S \S 150,159$.
4. The natural arrangement of words in the noun-clause, as describing a state, is subject-predicate; the principal stress falls on the former since it is the object of the description. Very frequently, however (and not merely in poetry, where greater freedom is naturally allowed in the arrangement of words), the reverse order is found, i.e. predicate-subject. The latter order must be used when special emphasis is laid on the predicate, ${ }^{2}$ or when it consists of an interrogative word; thus with a substantival predicate, e.g. Gn $3^{19}$ עָ הָ Is $6^{3 b}$, Jb $5^{24}$, $6^{12}$; with an adjectival predicate, e. g. Is $6^{3 a}, 28^{21}$, Jer $10^{6}$; with a participle, Gn $30^{1}, 3^{22^{12}}$; with an interrogative pronoun, e.g. Gn $24^{65} ;^{3}$ with an adverbial interrogative, e.g. Gn $4^{9}$ -
$7 /$ Rem. On the above cf. the exhaustive investigations of C. Albrecht, ' Die Wortstellung im hebr. Nominalsatze,' $Z A W$. vii. 218 ff. and viii. 249 ff.; with a complete list of the exceptions to the order subject-predicate, p. 254 ff . The predicate must precede for the reasons stated (an adjectival predicate is particularly emphatic when it has the force of a comparative, e.g. Gn $4^{13}$; the predicate expressed by means of a preposition precedes most frequently when it serves to convey the ideas of having, possessing, e.g. Gn 184, 29 ${ }^{16}$, \&c.; cf. also $\left.26^{20}, 3^{16.43}\right)$.
$n$ The predicate may precede: (a) when the suhject is a pronoun, for 'the person assumed to be generally known, does not excite the same interest as

[^213]that which is stated about him ;' (b) 'in order not to be a mere appendage to a subject which consists of several words,' e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K} 20^{19}$; (c) in interrogative sentences (with a substantival or adjectival predicate or one compounded with a preposition), e.g. IS $\mathbf{l}^{4}$; finally (d) in a relative clause, when the predicate is adverbial or compounded with a preposition, as a rule closely united (by Maqqeph) with

## § 142. The Verbal-clause.

1. By § $140 f$ there is an essential distinction between verbal- $a$ clauses, according as the subject stands before or after the verb. In the verbal-clause proper the principal emphasis rests upon the action which proceeds from (or is experienced by) the subject, and accordingly the verb naturally precedes (necessarily so when it is in the perf. consec. or imperf. consec.). Nevertheless, the subject does sometimes precede even in the verbal-clause proper, in the continuation of the narrative, e.g. Gn $7^{19}$, $1 S 18{ }^{1,}, 2 S 19^{12}$; especially so if there is special emphasis upon it, e.g. Gn $3^{13}$ (it is not I who am to blame, but) the serpent beguiled me, cf. Gn $2^{5}$, \& c. ${ }^{1}$ In the great majority of instances, however, the position of the subject at the keginning of a verbal-clause is to be explained from the fact that the clause is not intended to introduce a new fact carrying on the narrative, but rather to describe a state. Verbal-clauses of this kind approximate closely in character to noun-clauses, and not infrequently (viz. when the verbal form might just as well be read as a participle) it is doubtful whether the writer did not in fact intend a noun-clause.

## The particular state represented in the verb may consist-

(a) Of an act completed long before, to which reference is made only because it is necessary for understanding the sequel of the principal action. If the predicate be a perfect (as it almost always is in these cases), it is generally to be rendered in English by a pluperfect; cf. the examples discussed above in $\S \operatorname{Io6} f\left(\mathrm{I} \mathrm{S}_{2} 8^{3}\right.$, \& c. ) ; also Gn $6^{8}$ (not Noah found grace); $16^{1}, 18^{17}, 20^{4}, 24^{1}, 39^{1}$ (and Joseph in the meanwhile had been brought doun to Egypt); $41^{10}, \mathrm{Ju}^{16}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{S} 9^{15}, 14^{27}, 25^{21}$, $1 \mathrm{~K} 1^{1}$, \&c.-In a wider sense this applies also to such verbal-clauses as $\mathrm{Gn}^{2} 2^{6}$ (see further, § 112 e ), since when they serve to represent an action continuing for a long period in the past, and thus to some extent a state.
(b) Of a fact, contemporaneous with the principal events or continuing as $C$ the result of them. To the former class belong all those instances in which the predicate is combined with הָּיָה has not, as in Gn $\mathbf{1}^{2}$, $3^{1}, \& c$., been weakened to a mere copula, in which case the precedence of the subject is fully explained from the character of the clause as a noun-clause; cf. §141 $i$, and the examples of ${ }^{-1}$, \&c., with a participle, §116r); as an
 Abraham accordingly continued to dwell in the land of Canaan, but Lot dwelt, \&c.

[^214]d Rem. r. The close relation between verbal-clauses beginning with the subject and actual noun-clauses, is seen finally from the fact that the former also are somewhat frequently added with ! (or subordinated) to a preceding sentence in order to lay stress upon some accompanying circumstance; on such noun-clauses describing a state or circumstance, cf. §141 e. This is especially the case, again, when the circumstantial appendage involves an antithesis ; cf. Gn $18^{18}$ seeing that nevertheless Abraham shall surely become, \&c.; $24^{56}, 26^{27}$, Is $29^{19}$, Jer ${ }^{1} 4^{15}, \psi 50^{17}$, Jb $21^{22}$, and such examples as Gn $4^{2.4}, 29^{17}$, where by means of ! a new subject is introduced in express antithesis to one just mentioned. Moreover, in the examples treated above, under $b$ and $c$ ( $\mathrm{S} 28^{3}$, \&c.), the subject is frequently introduced by ?, which then corresponds to the Greek $\delta \epsilon^{\prime}$, used to interpose an explanation, \&c., see Winer, Gramm. des neutest. Sprachidioms, § $53 \cdot 7$ b.
e 2. By a peculiar construction verbal-clauses may be joined by means of ? and a following subject to participial clauses, e.g. Gn $38^{25}$ הִיא מוּצֵאת וחִיא
 for other examples, see $\S$ in $6 u$ (where it is pointed out, note I , that the apodosis also frequently appears in the form of a noun-clause, a further proof of the close relation between verbal-clauses beginning with the subject and noun-clauses proper). Without doubt there is in all these cases a kind of inversion of the principal clause and the temporal subordinate clause; the latter for the sake of greater emphasis being raised to an independent noun-clause, while the real principal action is added as though it were an accompanying circumstance, and hence in the form of an ordinary circumstantial clause. [Cf. Driver, Tenses, § 166 ff .]
2. According to what has been remarked above, under $a$, the natural order of words within the verbal sentence is: Verb-Subject, or Verb—Subject-Object. But as in the noun-clause (§ $14 \mathrm{I} l$ ) so also in the verbal-clause, a variation of the usual order of words frequently occurs when any member of the sentence is to be specially emphasized by priority of position. ${ }^{1}$ Thus the order may be :-
(a) Object—Verb—Subject: $\mathrm{Gn} 30^{40}, 37^{4}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{S}_{15} 5^{1}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 23^{19}$ and frequently. Naturally the examples are far more numerous, in which the object precedes a verbal form which includes the subject in itself,
 $\operatorname{Pr} 13^{5}, \& c$.
(b) Verb-Object-Subject: $\mathrm{Gn}_{21} \mathrm{I}^{7}, \mathrm{Nu}_{5}{ }^{23,}, \mathrm{IS}_{1} 5^{33}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{24}{ }^{16}$ (but is probably only a subsequent addition); Is $I^{13}, \psi 34^{22}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{II}^{19}, \& \mathrm{c}$.
(c) Subject-Object-Verb: Is $3^{17}, 11^{8}, 13^{18}$, Ho $\mathbf{I 2}^{11}, \psi 6^{10}, 1^{5}$, $\mathrm{Jb} 29^{25 .}{ }^{2}$

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$b$ (b) An independent verbal-clause: (a) with a retrospective suffix, ${ }^{1}$ e.g. Gn $9^{6}($ cf. $§ 116 w) ; 17^{15}$ as for Sarai thy wife, thou shalt not call her name Sarai; $26^{15}, 28^{13}, 34^{8}$, Ex $30^{37}, 3^{2^{1}}$, $152^{10}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 1^{29}$, Is $9^{1}$, $11^{10}, \mathrm{Ez} 33^{2}, \mathrm{Ho} 9^{11}, \psi \mathrm{II}^{4}, 4^{65}, 65^{4}, 74^{17}$, Dn $\mathbf{I}^{17}$; with a pronoun as the principal subject, $\mathrm{Gn} 24^{27}$; $(\beta)$ without a retrospective suffix, Is $19^{17}$ every one that mentions it (Judah) to it (Egypt), it (Egypt) is afraid.

C Rem. I. In all the above examples prominence is given to the principal subject (by its mere separation from the context by means of a greater disjunctive, as a casus pendens ${ }^{2}$ ) in a manner which would be quite impossible in a simple noun or verbal-clause (e.g. Na ${ }^{3}$ if it were the French c'est moi qu'on a accusé. But the statement or question contained in the clause which forms the predicate also receives greater weight. For the same purpose other members of the sentence also are sometimes placed at the beginning and resumed again by a following suffix; thus the object, Gn $13^{15}, 21^{13}, 35^{12}, 47^{21}$ (with the Samaritan and LXX read perhaps ind I S $25^{29}$; a specification of place, Gn $2^{17}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 22^{18}$, \&c.; a substantive with ?, $1 \mathrm{~S} 9^{20}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 6^{23}$; cf. the examples in § 135 a . - In Nu $\mathrm{I}^{59}$ a dative is co-ordinated with the casus pendens, i.e. there is a transition to a different construction.
2. To compound sentences belong also the numerous examples already treated in the account of the tenses, where the predicate of a casus pendens is introduced by the wōw apodosis. The isolation and prominence of the principal subject is in this case still more marked than in the instances treated above; on the casus pendens with a following imperfect consecutive (e.g. Jer ${ }^{19}, 33^{24}$ ), cf. § $111 h$; with a following perfect consecutive (e.g. Ex $4^{21}, 12^{44}, \mathrm{Nu} 23^{3}, \mathrm{IS} 25^{27}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 14^{10}$, Is $9^{4}, 56^{64}$.), § $112 t$ and $m m$; on the participle as casus pendens. § 11200 and $\$ 116 w$.-In Jb $1_{5}{ }^{17}$ wāw apodosis follows with the cohortative; in $\mathrm{Jb}_{2} 3^{12}, \psi 115^{7}$, the imperfect is separated by $\mathcal{\aleph}$ from the wāw apodosis; in $\mathrm{Jb} 4^{6}$ as for thy hope, it is the integrity of thy ways, $3^{626}, \mathrm{Ec} 5^{6}$, an incomplete noun-clause is appended by wāw apodosis. On $w \bar{a} w$ apodosis after disconnected specifications of time, cf. § 11200 at the end,
 cerned) I will be thy servant, Nu ${ }^{12}{ }^{12}$, Jer $4^{1}$ (me thou needest not fear).
e 3. Sometimes a substantive introduced by ? (in respect to; cf. § IIgu) serves the same purpose as the casus pendens beginning the sentence, as $\mathrm{Nu} 18^{8}$ (unless the ? here serves to introduce the object, according to \& II7n); Is $\mathbf{3}^{\mathbf{2}}{ }^{1}$ (where, however, וְשָׁרים should most probably be read); Ec $9^{1}, 1 \mathrm{Ch} 7^{1}, 24^{20 \text { ff. }}$, $2 \mathrm{Ch} 7^{21}$. On the other hand, $\psi 16^{6}, 17^{4}, 32^{6}, 89^{19}, 119^{91}$, are very doubtful. The suggestion of P. Haupt (Johns Hopkins University Circulars, xiii. no. 114; Baltimore, 1894) also deserves attention, that in passages like Ec $9^{4}$, and in לְלִ Gn $9^{10}, 23^{10}$, Ex $27^{9.19}, E z 44^{9}$, \&c., $\boldsymbol{b}$ is not the preposition, but an emphasizing particle, answering to the Arab. lă, surely; Assyrian $l \hat{u}$; with $\bar{\zeta}$ it is equivalent to in short. Cf. also ? ? ? sive-sive, et-et, Jos $\mathbf{1 7}^{16}$, Ezr $1^{11}$, Assyrian lû-lû.
${ }^{1}$ Cf. the Mêsa' inscription, l. 31, and Horonain, therein dwelt, \&c.
${ }^{2}$ But this term must not (any more than that formerly used 'the subject preceding absolutely') be misunderstood to mean that the principal subject is, as it were, floating in the air, and that the whole sentence results in an anacoluthon. On the contrary, to the Semitic mind, such sentences appear quite as correctly formed as ordinary noun- and verbal-clauses.

## § 144. Peculiarities in the Representation of the Subject (especially in the Verbal-clause).

1. According to § 40 ff . most forms of the finite verb include $\mathfrak{a} a$ specification of the subject in the form of personal afformatives (in the imperfect also in the form of preformatives). Not infrequently, however, masculine forms are used in referring to feminines, e.g.
 imperative, $\mathrm{Am}_{4}{ }^{1}, \mathrm{Zc}_{1} 3^{7}$ (for other examples, see § $110 k$ ). On emphasizing the pronominal subject by the addition of the separate pronoun, see § $135 a$ and $b$.

On the masculine as prior gender, cf. $\S 122 g$; on similar anomalies in the use of the personal pronoun, $\S 1350$, in the connexion between substantive and adjective, § $132 d$, between subject and predieate, § $145 p, t, u$.
2. The third person singular is often used impersonally, especially $b$
 to pass; angry, $\mathrm{Gn}_{4}{ }^{6}, \& \mathrm{c} . ;$ ib


 Scmewhat different are the instances in which the 3 rd singular feminine occurs as the predicate of a feminine subject which is not mentioned, but is before the mind of the speaker, e.g. Is $7^{7}, \mathrm{I}_{4}{ }^{24}$,
 feminine predicate, and in Jer $19^{5}$ ִֵer alone); different, too, are the instances in which the 3 rd singular masculine refers to an act just mentioned, e.g. Gn $7^{11}$ ! וָהָהָ and this (the circumcision) shall be a token of a covenant, \&c.

Rem. The expressions for natural phenomena may be either in the 3 rd $C$ sing. masculine or feminine, e.g. C it becomes light, I S $29^{10}$ (but with an

 it rains, $\operatorname{Am} 4^{7}$ (where, however, the context requires the reading אַמִטִיר); $\psi 50^{9}$ ?

[^216]$d$ 3. The indefinite personal subject (our they, one, the French on, and the German man ${ }^{1}$ ) is expressed-
(a) By the 3 rd person singular masculine, e.g. קָ p one (sc. any one who named it, see the Rem.) called (or calls.) it, Gn $\mathrm{II}^{9}, \mathrm{I}^{14}$, $19^{22}$,
 other examples are $\mathrm{Gn} 38^{28}$ one put out a hand; $\mathrm{Nu}_{2} 3^{21}, \mathrm{r} \mathrm{K}_{2} 2^{38}$,
 $\mathrm{Jb} 2^{23}$; by the 3 rd singular feminine (
e Rem. The Jewish commentators, following the Arab grammarians, usually explain these singulars by the addition of the participle (generally determinate) of the same stem, e.g. קרָא רַקֹן. This view is supported by the
 treader treads out, for one treads out; $28^{4.24}$ (doth one plow continually.?); Dt $17^{6}$ (Ez 1882), Dt 228, $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 7^{9}$ ( $\mathrm{Ez} 33^{4}$ ), Jer $9^{23}$; with an indeterminate participle (as in Arabic, e.g. qāla qā'ilun, a sayer says, i.e. some one says), e.g. Nu $6^{9}$, Am $9^{1}$; cf. above, § $116 t$, and, on the whole question, Driver on IS $16^{4}$.
$f(b)$ Very frequently by the 3 rd plural masculine, e.g. Gn $29^{2}$ for out of that well $26^{18}, 35^{5}, 4 \mathrm{I}^{14}, 49^{31}$, I K $1^{2}$, Is $3^{88^{16}}$, Ho $12^{9}$, Jb $18^{18}, 34^{20}$, Est $2^{2}$, Neh $2^{7}$.
$\boldsymbol{g}$ Rem. The zrd plur. also is sometimes used to express an indefinite subject, where the context does not admit of a human agent or at least not of several, e.g. Gn $34^{27}$. In such a case the 3 rd plur. comes to be equivalent to a passive, as very commonly in Aramaic (see Kautzsch's Gramm. des Bibl. Aram., § 96. Ic); e.g. Jb $7^{3}$ wearisome nights מִap have they allotted to me (equivalent to were allotted to $m e$; to make 'invisible powers' the subject is a merely artificial device) ; $\mathrm{Jb} 4^{19}, 6^{2} ; 188^{18}, 19^{26}, 34^{20}, \mathrm{Ez}^{3{ }^{25}}, \psi 63^{11}, \operatorname{Pr} 2^{22}$ (in parallelism with a passive) ; $9^{11}$.
 (or can) not come thither (prop. thou wilt . . .); Jer ${ }^{2} 3^{37}, \operatorname{Pr} 199^{25}, 30^{28}$



$i$ (d) By the plural of the participle, e. g. Jer $38^{23}$ and all thy wives and thy children $\begin{aligned} & \text { arwep (prop. are they bringing out }=\text { ) they will bring }\end{aligned}$ out, \&c.; cf. Is $\mathbf{3}^{2{ }^{12}}, \mathrm{Ez} \mathbf{I}^{7}, \mathrm{Neh} 6^{10}$ (for some are coming to slay thee)

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person ; cf.e.g. Gn $40^{22}\left(41^{13}\right), 4^{14}, 43^{34}$ (and he commanded to set before them, \&c.) ; $46^{29}, 2 S_{12}{ }^{9}$.
$O$ 2. Supposed ellipses of a definite subject are due either to a misunderstanding of the passage, or to a corruption of the text. Thus in IS $24^{11}$ after
 read with the LXX corrupt.
$p$
3. In poetic (or prophetic) language ${ }^{1}$ there sometimes occurs (supposing the text to be correct) a more or less abrupt transition from one person to another. Thus from the 2 nd to the 3 rd (i.e. from an address to a statement), Gn $49^{4}(?)$, Is $31^{(9}$ (?), $42^{20}, 52^{14}, 61^{7}$, Mal $2^{15}$ (where, however, for
 Is $22^{16}, 47^{8}, 4^{81}, 54^{1.11}, \operatorname{Jer} 22^{16}, 49^{4.18} \times \operatorname{Am} 5^{6 \mathrm{f} .}$, Mic $1^{2}\left(=1 \mathrm{~K} 22^{28}\right)$, Mal $3^{9}$, $2 \mathrm{~K} 9^{31}$; and after ${ }^{4}$ Is $5^{8}, 29^{15}$, Jer $22^{13}$ ]. From the 3 rd to the 2 nd pers., Dt $32^{15}$, Is $I^{29}$ (but read probably insertion of $3^{\text {rd }}$ pers., La $3^{1}$ (in a relative clause). In Jb $13^{28}$ the $3^{\text {rd pers. Nint is probably }}$ employed $\delta \in \iota \kappa \tau \iota \kappa \omega$ s for the ist.
§ 145. Agreement between the Members of a Sentence, especially between Subject and Predicate, in respect of Gender and Number.
$a$ 1. As in other languages, so also in Hebrew, the predicate in general conforms to the subject in gender and number (even when it is a
 however, numerous exceptions to this fundamental rule. These are due partly to the constructio ad sensum (where attention is paid to the meaning rather than to the grammatical form ; see $b-l$ below), partly to the position of the predicate (regarded as being without gender) before the subject.
$b$ 2. Singular nouns which include in themselves a collective idea (§ $123 a$ ), or which occasionally have a collective sense ( $\$ 123 \mathrm{~b}$ ), may readily, in accordance with their meaning, be construed with the plaral of the predicate, whether it precedes or follows. This is also the case, when the collective is itself feminine but represents, exclusively or at least generally, masculine persons.

## Examples:-

C (a) Of collectives proper (cf. § 132 g ): (a) with the predicate preceding,



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## § 145 d-i] Agreement between Members of a Sentence 463




 construed with the plural in the following relative clause; Jb ${ }^{14}$ הַבָּקר



 by a predicate in the singular.
(b) Of substantives occasionally used as collectives: (a) with the predicate $d$

 even after ה! Jb $19{ }^{19}$.]
(c) Of feminines as collective terms denoting masculine persons: (a) with $e$ the predicate preceding, $1 S_{1} 7^{46}$ ץרָ
 N



Examples of predicates in the singular, notwithstanding the collective meaning of the subject, occur in Gn $35^{11}$, Ex $10^{24}, 14^{10}$, Dt $1^{39}$, \&c.-For examples of bold enallage of the number in noun-clauses with a substantival predicate, see above, § I4Ic.

Rem. Not infrequently the construction begins in the singular (especially $\boldsymbol{\mathcal { E }}$ when the predicate precedes; see o below, but is carried on, after the
 , שִּ
3. On the other hand, plurals which have a singular meaning $h$ ( $\$ 124 a$ ) are frequently construed with the singular, especially the pluralis excellentiae or maiestatis (§ $124 g-i$; on the union of these plurals with attributes, cf. § $132 h$ ), as ${ }^{2}$ Gn $\mathbf{I}^{1.3}$, \&c. (but see the
 over, forms with a masculine meaning are construed with a masculine predicate, e.g. Ec $12{ }^{9}$ anc

Rem. The construction of אֲלהּ God with the plural of the predicate may $i$ be explained (apart of course from such passages as IK $19^{2}, 20^{10}$, where the speakers are heathen, and אֲאלחים may, therefore, be a numerical plural) partly as an acquiescence in a polytheistic form of expression, partly from the peculiar usage of one of the early documents of the Hexateuch, called $E$ by Wellhausen, \&c., $B$ by Dillmann; cf. his commentary on NumbersJoshua, p. 618, and above, § 124 g , note 2. So Gn $20^{13}$ (but in conversation with a heathen) ; $31^{63}, 35^{7}$, cf. also Jos $24^{19}$. That this construction was afterwards studiously avoided from fear of misconception, is shown by such passages as Neh $9^{18}$ compared with Ex $32^{4.8}$, and I Ch $17^{21}$ compared with ${ }_{2}$ S $7^{23}$. Cf. Strack's excursus on Gen $2^{13}$ in Die Genesis, Munich, 1905, p. 77.
$k$ 4. Plurals of names of animals or things, and of abstracts, whether they be masculine or feminine, are frequently construed with the feminine singular of the verbal predicate ${ }^{1}$ (on the collective sense of the feminine form, cf. § 122 s ); thus Jo $\mathrm{I}^{20}$ ( of the field long; Jer $\mathbf{1 2}^{4}$ (where the predicate precedes), cf. also $\mathrm{Jb}_{12^{7}}$; names of things with the predicate preceding occur in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{2} 4^{13}$,

 ( $K^{c} t h$., $48^{41}, 49^{24}, \operatorname{Pr} I_{5} 5^{28}, 20^{18}, \mathrm{Jb}_{4}{ }^{10} .{ }^{10}$
$l$ 5. Moreover, the plural of persons (especially in the participle) is sometimes construed with the singular of the predicate, when instead of the whole class of individuals, each severally is to be represented as affected by the statement. Undoubted examples of this distributive
 thee, cursed be every one of them, and those that bless thee, blessed be every one of them; Ex $3 \mathbf{I}^{14}, \operatorname{Lv}_{1} 7^{14}$ and $19^{8}$ (in both places the
 maiestatis according to § $124 k ; \operatorname{Pr} 3^{18.36}(?), 18^{21}(?), 21^{276}, 27^{16}, 28^{1 b}$, $28^{16} K^{e} t h$.
m Rem. Analogous to the examples above mentioned is the somewhat frequent ${ }^{4}$ use of suffixes in the singular (distributively) referring to plurals; cf. the verbal-suffixes in Dt $21^{10}, 28^{48}, \operatorname{Am} 6^{10}$; and the noun-suffixes in Is $2^{8}$, $30^{22}$, Jer $31^{14}, \mathrm{Ho}_{4}^{8}$ (but since $I$ follows, for the early versions) ; $62^{5}, 14^{10}(?), \mathrm{Jb} 3^{832}, \mathrm{Ec}$ io ${ }^{15}$ [but LXX הַכַּםִיל]; finally, the suffixes with prepositions in Is 2 20 whe which they made each one for himself (according to others, which they (the makers) made for him); $5^{26}, 8^{20}$,


 undoubtedly corrupt.

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 grape the flower becometh.
$r$ (b) The adjective in a noun-clause, e.g. $\psi 119^{137}$ upright are thy judgements ; cf. verse 155.—On the other hand,
 unusual orthography or simply a misspelling for 7 "
$\boldsymbol{S}$. Kem. I. As soon as a sentence which begins with an uninflected predicate is carried on after the mention of the subject, the gender and number of the subsequent (co-ordinate) predicates must coincide with those of the subject, e.g. Gn $1^{14}$ ( (see $p$ above).
. The dislike mentioned in $p$ above, of using the feminine form (cf., further, § $144 a$, with the sections of the Grammar referred to there, and below, under $u$, is exemplified sometimes by the fact that of several predicates only that which stànds next to the feminine substantive is inflected as feminine (cf. the treatment of several attributes following a feminine
 better taken as an infin. abs. = excitando, reading אָּ אִמְלְלָה אֶרִץ mourneth, languisheth the land. Cf. Jer $4^{30}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{r}^{19}$, and the examples ( $\$ 47 k$ ) where only the first of several consecutive forms of the 2nd sing. fem. imperf. has the afformative $i$, Is $57^{8}$, Jer $3^{5}, \mathrm{Ez} 22^{4}, 23^{32}$ ( (חִּשְׁn) ; on the converse sequence of genders in imperatives, $\mathrm{Na} 3^{15}$, cf. § $110 k$.-Of a different kind are instances like $\operatorname{Lv} 2^{1}, 5^{1}, 20^{6}$, where person (fem.) as the narrative continues, assumes (in agreement with the context) the sense of a masculine person.
$u$ 3. The instances in which the gender or number of the following predicate appears to differ from that of the subject are due partly to manifest errors
 וְהָיָה then follows correctly; i S $2^{20}$ read with Wellhausen ${ }^{128}$, instead of in in in in in plural as in verse 25 ; so also Ez $20^{38}$ for א א La $5^{10}$ read in Jer $4^{815}$ also the text is certainly corrupt. Other instances are due to
 (after (yיָּיָ ), $63^{4}, \operatorname{Pr} 5^{2}, 10^{21.32} 18^{6}, 26^{23}, \mathrm{Jb} 15^{6}$ (all after
 are also to be explained (see $p$ ) from the dislike of the 3 rd plur. fem. imperf.; moreover, in Jer $44^{19}, \operatorname{Pr} 26^{23}$ the plur. masc. even of a participle occurs
 as a case of attraction to the following singular predicate. ${ }^{3}$ - ${ }^{\text {خבץץ }}$

[^220]is a substantival participle (a lurker, a coucher). In Gn $47^{24}$ ! remains undefined in gender (masc.), although the noun precedes for the sake of emphasis; so also in Gn $28^{22}$, Ex $1^{249}, 28^{7.32}, \mathrm{Nu}^{14}, 15^{29}$, Jer $5^{0^{46}}$; Ec $2^{7}$ ( הֹיָ as if the sentence began afresh, and servants born in my house . . . there
 regarded as masculine, § 122 o) be taken impersonally, fire, without its being blown upon. - In Is $16^{8}$ and $\mathrm{Hb} 3^{17}$ the predicate in the singular is explained
 masculine form of the predicate is abnormal in $\psi 87^{3}, \operatorname{Pr} 2^{10}, 12^{25}, 29^{25}$, Jb $8^{7}, 3^{618}$.

## § 146. Construction of Compound Subjects.

1. When the subject is composed of a nomen regens (in the construct $a$ state) with a following genitive, the predicate sometimes agrees in gender and number not with the nomen regens, but with the genitive, when this represents the principal idea of the compound subject. ${ }^{1}$ Thus $1 \mathrm{~S}_{2}{ }^{4}$ קֶקשׁׁת it were the mighty men with their bow are broken; Ex $26^{12}, \operatorname{Lv} 13^{9}$, I K $I^{41}$ (but the text is clearly very corrupt), $\mathrm{I}^{16}, \mathrm{Is}^{2}{ }^{11}, 2 \mathrm{I}^{17}, \mathrm{Zc} 8^{10}$, Jb $15^{20}, 21^{21}, 29^{10}, 32^{7}$ (רב שָׁנִים equivalent to many years); $38^{21}$; with the predicate preceding, $2 \mathrm{~S} 1 \circ^{9}$, unless it is to be explained according to $\oint 145 k$.

Rem. 1. The cases in which hip (voice, sound) with a following genitive $b$ stands at the beginning of a sentence, apparently in this construction, are really of a different kind. The bip is there to be taken as an exclamation, and the supposed predicate as in apposition to the genitive, e.g. Gn $4^{10}$ the roice of thy brother's blood, which crieth (prop. as one crying) . . .! = hark! thy brother's blood is crying, \&c. ; Is $13^{4}$, 666. In Is $52^{8}$ an independent verbal-clause follows the exclamation the voice of thy watchmen!; in Jer $10^{22}$ and $\mathrm{Ct}^{2}{ }^{8}$ an independent noun-clause; in Is $40^{3} \mathrm{p}$ קר ל לip the voice of one that crieth! i.e. hark! there is one crying is followed immediately by direct speech ; in Mi $6^{9}$ hip hark! may be used disconnectedly (cf. the almost adverbial use of לip in $\S 144 \mathrm{~m}$ ) and $\mathrm{H}_{i}$ : be taken as the subject to
 genitive as subject of the sentence, the predicate usually agrees in gender and number with the genitive, since is equivalent in sense to an attribute (whole, all) of the genitive; hence, e.g. with the predicate preceding, Gn $5^{5}$
 Samaritan reads ill here also); Ex $15^{20}$; with the predicate following, $\psi 150^{6}$, \&c. Exceptions are, e.g. Lv $17^{14}$ (but cf. § $145 l$ ), Jos $8^{25}$, $\operatorname{Is} 64^{10}, \operatorname{Pr} 16^{2}$, $\mathrm{Na} 3^{7}$. On the other hand, in such cases as Ex $12^{16}$ the agreement of the

[^221] ל being equivalent to the whole of work (is forbidden).
2. When the subject of the sentence consists of several nouns connected by wāw copulative, usually
(a) The predicate following is put in the plural, e.g. Gn $8^{22}$ seed time and harvest, and cold and heat . . . shall not cease (לא יִשְֹׁׂת (ל); after subjects of different genders it is in the masculine (as the prior gender, cf. § $13^{2}$ d), e.g. Gn $18^{11}$ אַבְרָהם וְשָׁרָה וְקָנִים Abraham and Sarah were old; Dt $28^{32}$, I K $1^{21}$.
e Rem. Rare exceptions are $\operatorname{Pr} 27^{9}$ ointment and perfume rejoice the heart, where the predicate agrees in gender with the masculine

 in the compound sentence, Is $9^{4}$, it agrees with the feminine subject immediately preceding. ${ }^{1}$
(b) The predicate preceding two or more subjects may likewise be used in the plural ( $\mathrm{Gn}_{4} 0^{1}, \mathrm{Jb}_{3}{ }^{5}, \& c$.); not infrequently, however, it agrees in gender and number with the first, as being the subject nearest to it. Thus the predicate is put in the singular masculine before several masculines singular in $\mathrm{Gn} 9^{23}, 1 \mathrm{I}^{29}, 2 \mathrm{I}^{32}, 24^{50}, 34^{20}$, $\mathrm{Ju} \mathrm{I}^{5}$; before a masculine and a feminine singular, e.g. Gn $3^{8}, 24^{\text {b }}$ then said (וֵיאֹאֶר) her brother and her mother ; $33^{7}$; before a masculine singular and a plural, e.g. Gn $7^{7}$ and Noah went in, and his sons, \&c.; Gn $8^{18}$ (where feminines plural also follow) ; $44^{14}, \operatorname{Ex~} 15^{1}$, $2 \mathrm{~S} 5^{21}$; before collectives feminine and masculine, 2 S I $2^{2}$.
$g$ Similarly, the feminine singular occurs before several feminines
 before a feminine singular and a feminine plural, e.g. Gn $24^{61}$; before

 singular and a masculine plural, e.g. Gn $33^{7}$ (cf., on the other hand, $\psi 75^{4}$ dissolved are the earth and all the inhabitants thereof). The plural feminine occurs before a plural feminine and a plural masculine in Am 8 ${ }^{13}$. - In Jer $44^{25}$ for חה with the LXX, and cf. verse 19.
$l l(c)$ When other predicates follow after the subjects have been mentioned, they are necessarily put in the plural ; cf. $\mathrm{Gn} 21^{32}, 24^{61}$, $3 \mathrm{I}^{14}, 33^{7}$, \&c., and § 145 s .

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 or there is no indication whatever of the predicate, so that the sentence is limited to with the suffix, as in the frequent use of
 follows of a demonstrative pronoun and the copula, e.g. Gn $22^{7}$ הֵֵּה הָהֵ

 and $l o$, it was the latter growth, \&c. By a very pregnant construction the simple here am I!
c 3. Examples of exclamations (threatening, complaining, triumphing, especially warlike or seditious) in which, owing to the excitement of the speaker, some indispensable member of the sentence is suppressed, are-(a) with suppression of the predicate (which has frequently to be supplied in the form of a jussive), e.g. Ju ${ }^{20}$ a sword for the Lord and for Gideon $/$ (verse 18 without (ֶ) $)$; $2 \mathrm{~S} 20^{1}$ and $2 \mathrm{Ch} 10^{16}$ (cf. also $1 \mathrm{~K}{ }^{2} 2^{36}$ ) every man to his tents, $O$ Israel / (i. e. let every man go to or remain in his tent); without $\mathbf{1} \mathrm{K}_{12}{ }^{16}$; moreover, $\mathrm{Is}_{\mathrm{I}}{ }^{23},{ }_{1} 3^{4}$ (on the exclamatory hip equivalent to hark! cf. § 146 b ); $28^{10}, 29^{16}$

 behold what a weariness!) ; Jb $22{ }^{29}$; perhaps also $\mathrm{Gn}_{49} 9^{4}$ 曷 a bubbling over as water (sc. happened), unless it is better to supply a subject cf. § $152 k$; Jb $15^{23}$ N-N where sc. is bread ?-(c) With suppression of both subject and predicate, Ju ${ }^{18}$ (see above); $\mathbf{~ I ~ K ~}{ }_{12}{ }^{16}$ (see above); $2 \mathrm{~K} 9^{27}$ in in wim also / explained immediately afterwards by smite lim / Ho $5^{8}$ after thee, Benjamin / sc. is the enemy (differently in $\mathrm{Ju} 5^{14}$ ) ; $\psi 6^{4}, 90^{13}, \mathrm{Hb}^{6}{ }^{6}$ עַר־מָּ (unless ill is to be read), $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1}{ }^{26}, 2 \mathrm{~K}_{5}{ }^{17}$, see § 159 dd .

Rem. 1. To the class of incomplete sentences naturally belong exclamations introduced by interjections two the object of the threat or imprecation follows regularly with ? (cf. vae tibi) or אֶּ or ${ }^{-6}$ the day! Jo $\mathrm{I}^{17}$; on the other hand, the object of commiseration (after (i) follows mostly in the vocative, or rather in the accusative of exclamation (cf. vae te


[^223]Jer $22^{18}$; חin in ah, sinful nation! Is $1^{4}, 5^{8.11 .18 .20 .22}$ (ahl they that . . .).一 For Dī cf. Hb $2^{20}, \mathrm{Zp} 1^{7}, \mathrm{Zc} 2^{17}$.
2. Finally, instances of noun-clauses shortened in an unusual manner $\boldsymbol{e}$
 \&c.; cf. verses 5 and 6 שֶּ
 cf. $\oint 128 \boldsymbol{d}$ above.

## II. Special Kinds of Sentences.

## § 148. Exclamations.

The originally interrogative is used to introduce exclamations $a$ of wonder or indignation $=O$ how ! or ridicule, why! how! sometimes strengthened by ֶֶ or according to § 136 c.-Astonishment or indignation at something which has happened is introduced by איך how (likewise originally interrogative) with the perfect; the indignant refusal of a demand by an exclamation of lamentation by איָָה, less frequently Jo $1^{18}$ by מָ.

## Examples:-

 astonishment) before verbal-clauses, e.g. Gn $27^{20}$ (מַה־); $3^{829}$, Nu $24^{5}$ (hovo goodly are . . .!); $\psi 21^{2}, \mathrm{Ct}^{2}$; before the predicate of noun-clauses, e.g. Gn $28^{17}, \psi 8^{2}$; mockingly before the verb, ${ }_{2}$ S $6^{20}$ (how glorious was . . .!);
 done!
7 'K with the perfect, e.g. Gn $26^{9}, \psi 73^{19}$; in scornful exclamation, Is $\mathrm{I}^{4.12}$; in a lament (usually איאָה), 2 S ${ }^{25.27}$; with the imperfect, in a reproachful question, Gn $39^{9}, 44^{8}, \psi \psi_{11^{1}, 13 i^{4}}$; in a mocking imitation of lament, Mi $2^{4}$.

Kith the perfect, Is $\mathrm{I}^{12}, \mathrm{La}^{1} 1^{1}$; with the imperfect, La $2^{1}, 4^{1}$.
Rem. I. The close relation between a question and an exclamation appears $C$
 who is a God like unto thee? and so in general in rhetorical questions as the expression of a forcible denial; similarly in the use of an interrogative sentence to express a wish, see $\$ \$ 150 d$, $15 \mathrm{I} a$.
2. A weaker form of exclamation is sometimes produced by the insertion $d$ of a corroborative $\mathfrak{`}$ ? verily, surely, before the predicate, Gn $18^{20}$; cf. $33^{11}$, Is $7^{9}$, and the analogous cases in the apodoses of conditional sentences, § 159 ee.

## §149. Sentences which express an Oath or Asseveration.

 $\mathrm{Gn} 22^{16}$ ) in the sense of certainly, are used to introduce promises or threats confirmed by an oath (especially after such formulae as an
, \&ce., as well as after imprecations, see below), and also simple asseverations, e.g. iS $2^{30}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 20^{\circ 0}$, Jb $27^{\circ}$ after formula.

Rem. No certain explanation of these particles has yet been given. According to the usual view, phrases expressing an oath depend on the suppression of an imprecation upon oneself, e.g. the Lord do so unto me, if I do it equivalent to $I$ certainly will not do it; then naturally אם-לא properly if $I$ do it not equivalent to $I$ certainly will do it. It is indeed diffcult to understand such self-imprecations, put into the mouth of God, as in Dt $1^{34} \mathrm{f}$., Is $14^{24}, 22^{14}, \mathrm{Jer} 22^{6}, \mathrm{Ez} 3^{6}, 35^{6}, \psi 95^{11}$. Possibly, however, the consciousness of the real meaning of the formula was lost at an early period, and אם-לֹא simply came to express verily, אִם verily not.-In $1 S_{25}{ }^{22}$, where, instead of a self-imprecation, a curse is pronounced upon others, read לָר לָוֹד with the


## Examples:-

C (a) The particles and used after the utterance of an oath and
 הִּ thing; I S $14{ }^{45},{ }_{2} \mathrm{~K}_{5}{ }^{16}$ (after

 spoken by God, Is $I_{4}{ }^{24}$, where ${ }^{\text {א }}$ occurs first with the perfect in the sense of a prophetic perfect, $\S 106 n$, but in the parallel clause with the imperfect; Jer $22^{6}$; in Gn $31^{52}$ the negative oath introduced by א is immediately afterwards continued by with the imperfect.In Ez $34^{10}$ the threat introduced in verse 8 by אֲם-לֹא is, after a long parenthesis, resumed with חִנִִי.
 God do so to thee, and more also! thou shalt not hide anything from me, \&c.; cf. IS $25^{22}$. On the other hand, כִּ follows
 IS $25^{34}$ the preceding $\mathfrak{C}$ is repeated before the asseveration is repeated (after the insertion of a conditional sentence) in the perfect consecutive.


 with the imperf. Is $5^{9}$, with the perfect, Jb $22^{20}$.


 $\oint 93$ (a, note.

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 whither? whither, and J. Barth, Sprachwiss. Untersuchungen, i. 13 ff .
d The particular uses are as follows :-
(a) The particle i! stands primarily before the simple question, when the questioner is wholly uncertain as to the answer to be expected, and may be
 is your father yet alive? have ye another brother \& for in cf. Gn $24^{33}$, is $9^{11}$; for ${ }^{\text {is }}$ is it that? $\mathrm{Jb} 6^{22}$; for הִּוֹ verbal-clauses, e.g. Jb $2^{3}$ hast thou considered ( 7 ? In other cases ${ }_{-1}$ ( $=$ num?) is used before questions, to which, from their tone and contents, a negative answer is expected, e.g. Jb $14{ }^{14}$ if a man die, היִיח? shall he indeed live again? Sometimes a question is so used only as a rhetorical form instead of a negative assertion, or of a surprised or indignant refusal, ${ }^{2}$

 brother's keeper? cf. $2 \mathrm{~K}_{5}{ }^{7}$, and the two passages where it is used before the infinitive (constr. Jb $34^{18}$, absol. Jb $40^{2}$; on both, see $\S 113$ ee, with the note). —On the other hand, in I K $16^{61}$ for
$\boldsymbol{e}$ Rem. i. A few passages deserve special mention, in which the use of the interrogative is altogether different from our idiom, since it serves merely to express the conviction that the contents of the statement are well known to the hearer, and are unconditionally admitted by him. Thus, Gn $3^{11}$ surely thou hast eaten; Gn $27^{36}$ חָדִי ְָרָ prop. is it so that one names? \&c., i. e. of a truth he is rightly named Jacob; Gn ${ }_{2} 9^{15}$ verily thou art my brother; Dt ${ }_{11}{ }^{30}$, Ju $4^{6}$, I S $2^{27} I$ did indeed, \&c.; $20^{37}$, $1 \mathrm{~K} 22^{3}$ ye know surely ...; Mi $3^{1}$, Jb $20^{4}$.In IS ${ }^{2} 3^{19}$ (cf. $\psi 54^{2}$ ) a surprising communication is introduced in this way (by (b). in order to show it to be absolutely true, and in $\mathrm{Am}^{7}$ a concession is expressed by הי: I have, it is true, \&c. Finally, we may include the
 to surcly it is, they are written (the latter in $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{II}}{ }^{11},{ }_{1} 4^{29}$, and very often elsewhere in the books of Kings and Chronicles), synonymous with the
 $2 \mathrm{~K}{ }^{15}{ }^{11},{ }_{2} \mathrm{Ch} 27^{7}, 32^{32}$.

Of very frequent occurrence also are questions introduced by really contain an affirmation and are used to state the reason for a request or warning, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~S} 2^{22}$ turn thee aside . . . wherefore should I smite thee to the ground? i. e. otherwise I will (or must) smite, \&c. ; cf. I $\mathrm{S}_{1}{ }^{17}$, and Driver on the passage;

pronouns and adverbs into interrogative words by means of a prefixed Nㅡㅇ, see the Lexicon.
${ }^{1}$ On the use of the imperfect in deliberative questions, see § $107 t$; on the perfectum confidentiae in interrogative sentences, see $\S 106 \mathrm{n}$.
${ }^{2}$ Analogous to this is the use of the interrogative in the sense of a reproachful remonstrance instead of a prohibition, as Ct $\delta^{4}$ when should ye stir up? i.e. pray, stir not up; cf. also Jb $31^{1}$; see above, § 148.
2. The rare cases in which a simple question is introduced by (as some- $f$ times in Latin by an? is it?) are really due to the suppression of the first member of a double question; thus I K ${ }^{27}$, Is $29^{16}$, $\mathrm{Jb} 6^{12}, 39^{13}$.
(b) Disjunctive questions are, as a rule, introduced by $\mathbb{Q}$-in (utrum-an ?) $g$ or sometimes by in a question which implies diskelief, $\mathrm{Gn}_{17^{17}}{ }^{77}$. In Jb $34^{17}, 40^{88}$. special emphasis is given to the first member by ${ }^{9} \underline{N}$ prop. is it even? The second
 each case before $D$, and hence no doubt for euphonic reasons, to avoid the combination ${ }^{\prime} D E \mathbb{C}$; cf. also Ju $18{ }^{19}$, Ec $2^{19}$.
 frequently the disjunctive form serves (especially in poetic parallelism; but cf. also e.g. Gn $37^{8}$ ) merely to repeat the same question in different words, and thus to express it more emphatically. So $\mathrm{Jb}^{17}$ shall mortal man be just before God? or (WN) shall a man te pure before his Maker? Jb $6^{5!}$., $\delta^{3}, 10^{41}$., $11^{2.7}$, $2^{2}{ }^{3}$, Is $10^{15}$, Jer $5^{29}$. The second member may, therefore, just as well be



(c) With regard to indirect questions ${ }^{2}$ after verbs of inquiring, doubting, $i$ examining, ${ }^{3}$ \& ., simple questions of this kind take either in whether, Gn $8^{8}, 4$
 the indirect question is introduced by iא, i.e. probably if perchance. In disjunctives (whether-or) $3 i^{32}, \operatorname{Ex} 1^{4}$ ), and Ec $2^{19}$. The formula بִי יֹרָע אִם has an affirmative force, who knows whether .. . not, like the Latin nescio an, Est $4^{14}$.
 ל? have become also interrogative, for whose cauise?
(d) (cf. § $136 c$ ) immediately after the interrogative serve to $l$ give vividness to the question; so also אiפN (for which five times in Job)

${ }^{1}$ ון וְ occurs in $\operatorname{Pr} 27^{24}$ after a negative statement; we should, however, with Dyserinck read $\dot{\square}$ ! second clause of Ju 14 ${ }^{15}$, but the text can hardly be correct (cf. Moore, Ju'ges, New York, 1895, p. 337); in iS $23^{11}$ the second in introduces a fresh question which is only loosely connected with the first.-In Nu $17^{28}$ and in the third
 DK from its use in oaths (see above, § 149 b ) may simply mean verily not.
${ }^{2}$ It should here be remarked that the distinction between direct and indirect questions cannot have been recognized by the Hebrew mind to the same extent as it is in Latin or English. In Hebrew there is no difference between the two kinds of sentence, either as regards mood (as in Latin) or in tense and position of the words (as in English). Cf. also § 137 c.
 according to the context, implies to give information upon a question.
 of the article which is assumed by the Masora.
where then is . . .? However, NiDN may also be placed at the end of the entire question (Ex $33^{16}$, Is $22^{1}$; also Ho $\mathbf{I}^{10}$, since either אהי is a dialectical form of אַיֵה, or should be read instead of it) or at the beginning of the question proper, after a strongly emphasized word, as in Gn $27^{37}{ }^{1}$
(e) Sometimes one interrogative governs two co-ordinate clauses, the first of which should rather be subordinated to the second, so that the interrogative word strictly speaking affects only the second; thus Is $5^{4}$ after wherefore looked I. . . and it brought forth? i.e. wherefore brought it forth, while I looked, \&c.; Is $50^{2}$; after i] Nu $3^{2^{6}}$, Jer $8^{4}$, also Nu $16^{22}$ (read שinn); after
 and ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} 4^{21}$ are separated from the verb to which the $\stackrel{*}{5}$ belong by the insertion of a conditional clause.
$n$
3. The affirmative answer is generally expressed, as in Latin, by repeating the emphatic word in the question (or with the second person changed to the first, Gn $24^{59}, 27^{24}, 29^{5}, \mathrm{Ju} 13^{11}$ ), Gn $29^{6}, 37^{32 \mathrm{f}}$,
 text of $2 \mathrm{~K}_{10} 0^{15}$, see § 159 dd.) As a negative answer the simple is sometimes sufficient, as in Gn $19^{2}$, $1 \mathrm{~K}_{3}{ }^{22}$, \&c.; cf. § $15{ }^{2} c$; and in $\mathrm{Ju} 4^{20}$ the simple $i_{i T}^{N}$ equivalent to no or no one.

## § 151. Desiderative Sertences.

a A wish may be expressed not only by the simple imperfect ( $\$ 107 n$ ), cohortative (§ 108, especially with
 a simple noun-clause (§ 116r, note, and § 14I $g$ ) but also in the following ways:-

1. By exclamations in the form of interrogative clauses : ${ }^{3}$ especially sentences with pollowed by the imperfect as being the mood of that which is still unfulfilled but possible, and hence also of that which is desired, e.g. 2 S I $5{ }^{4}$ who maketh me judge? i.e. $O$ that $I$ were made judge! $1 \mathrm{~S}_{20}{ }^{10}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 23^{15}$. On the other hand, "o with the perfect (Gn $2 \mathbf{1}^{1}, \mathrm{Nu}_{23}{ }^{10}$, IS $26^{9}$, Is $53^{1}$, \&c.) or participle ( $\psi 59^{8}$, $\operatorname{Pr} 24^{22}$, \&c.), rather expresses a rhetorical question, i. e. a denial, cf. § 150 d . Especially frequent is the use of introduce all kinds of desiderative clauses (see under $b$ ). -In Mal $\mathbf{I}^{10}$ the desiderative clause proper is co-ordinated with an interrogative clause,
 appended to the conditional sentence.
${ }^{2}$ Cf. the analogous sentences after $\sum_{\mathbb{V}}^{5}$ because, Is $6 \mathbf{j}^{12}$, Jer $35^{17}$; after causal
 Dt $8^{12-14}, 25^{9}$, Jos $6^{18}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 2^{28}$.
${ }^{3}$ The transition from a question to a wish may be seen, e.g. in Nu in ${ }^{4}$ who shall give us flesh to eat? i.e. O that we had flesh to eat!

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## § 152. Negative Sentences.

1. Besides the use of rhetorical questions ( $\$ \mathrm{I}_{5} \mathrm{~F} \mathrm{~d}$, $15 \mathrm{I} a$ ), independent sentences are made negative by the adverbs $火$ (Jb 6 ${ }^{21}$, where instead of the $K^{e} t h$. ל we must evidently read ל ל ; perhaps preserved as a substantive $)=$ the Greek ov, not, ${ }^{-} \boldsymbol{-} \underset{\sim}{n}=\mu \dot{\eta}\left(\mathrm{Jb} 24^{25}\right.$ as a sub-
 The forms regard to noun-clauses, see e) are regularly negatived by $\dot{\text { (besides its use as }}$ negativing single words ${ }^{1}$, while ${ }^{\top} \underset{\sim}{N}$ is used exclusively with nounclauses (see the examples below).
$b$ The conjunctions ${ }^{\square}$ and ${ }^{\square}$ that not, serve to negative dependent clauses. The particular uses of these particles are as follow's:-
 unconditional negation, and hence is usually connected with the perfect or imperfect (as indicative); on $\dot{\kappa}\rangle$ with the imperfect to express an unconditional prohibition, see § 1070 ; on its use with the jussive, see § 109 d.-On

 (cf. the French ne . . . personne, ne . . . rien), usually in the order לֹ. . . . אं,

 same statement in the form of a rhetorical question, Jer $3{ }^{22^{27}}$ ); $\operatorname{Pr} 12^{21}, 30^{0^{30}}$
${ }^{1}$ Especially in compounds, e.g. לאז-אֵל lit. a no-God (Germ. Ungott) who is indeed called a god, but is not really a god, Dt $32^{21}$; לא אֲא verse 17 , cf.

 superhuman (of God), Is $31^{8}$; לֹאֶּ

 unsatisfying; $\psi 44^{13}, \mathrm{Jb}^{11}, 15^{32}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{Ch} 12^{33}$. -In Nu $20^{5}$ a construct state with several genitives is negatived by לi ל-Also is used with an infinitive,


 ciple, e.g. Jer $2^{2}$ (unsown) ; $6^{8}, \mathrm{Ez} 4^{14}, 2^{24}, \mathrm{Zp} 2^{1}, 3^{5}$; the Masora, however,
 always 3rd sing. fem. perf. in pause $=$ she was not comforled, \&c., and consequently not compounds, but either relative clauses or (Is $54^{11}$, Ho $1^{6}$, and especially ${ }^{25}$ ) main clauses instead of proper names.- On the abc 70 compounds generally, cf. the dissertation mentioned in § 81 $d$, note 2 ; on their use in sentences expressing a state, to convey attributive ideas, see $u$ below.
. . . . * inverted order, Ex $12^{16}$ פָּ

 thou shalt not see them all, but only a part.

Analogous to לֹ . . . . clauses in the sense of no one at all, not a single one. On S.j.jnothing at all, see under $p$.

Rem. I. The examples in which $\left.\boldsymbol{N}^{i}\right\rangle$ is used absolutely as a negative answer, $C$ equivalent to certainly not! no! must be regarded as extremely short verbalclauses, e.g. Gn $19^{2}$ ( $\left.\mathcal{K}\right\}$ according to the context for 7 giv \&c.) ; $23^{11}, 4^{210}$, Hag $2^{12}, \mathrm{Jb} 23^{6}$, sometimes with a following ${ }^{1}$ ? but, Gn $19^{2}$ (see above); $\operatorname{Jos} 5^{14}, 1 \mathrm{~K} 3^{22}$.
2. The negation of noun-clauses by $i<$ (as opposed to the regular negation $\mathbb{C}$ by ("N) always includes a certain emphasis, since the force of the negation falls rather upon a particular word (cf. e.g. Ez $36^{62}$ ), than upon the whole
 thus specially negatived by ís ; cf. $\psi 74^{9}$, where, however,
 a pronominal subject are thus negatived by $\left.{ }^{\top}\right\}$, $\mathrm{Gn} 20^{12}, \mathrm{Nu}_{3} 5^{23}$ ( $\mathrm{Dt}_{4}{ }^{42}, 19^{4}$ );

 of words; Am $5^{18}$. -Noun-clauses with a substantival subject, Gn $29^{7}, \mathrm{Nu} 23^{19}$,
 $4 \mathrm{I}^{2}$; in $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{39}$ even ${ }^{\text {ein }}$. before an adjectival predicate; in I S $2^{26}$ (where a preceding noun-clause is negatived by (בִּלְחִּ in circumstantial clauses to express attributive ideas, see $u$ below.
3. As a rule $i \zeta$ stands immediately before the verb, but sometimes is $\mathcal{C}$ separated from it (frequently to bring into special prominence another word which follows it) ; thus Jb 227, Ec $10^{10}$ before the object and verb; Nu $16^{29}$ before the subject and verb; Dt $8^{9}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 3^{34}, \psi 49^{18}, 103^{10}, \mathrm{JbI} 3^{16}, 34^{29}$ before a complementary adjunct. In Dt $32^{5}$ 사 according to the accentuation even stands at the end of the clause (they offend him not) ; but undoubtedly are to be taken together.-On the position of i with the infinitive absolute, see § II3v.
(b) ${ }^{-} \underset{\sim}{x}$ is used like $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta}$ and ne to express a subjective and conditional negation, $f$ and hence especially in connexion with the jussive ( $\$ 109 \mathrm{c}$ and $e$ ) to introduce prohibitions, warnings, negative desires, and requests. On $-3 \underline{N}$ with the imperfect, see § IO7 $p$; with the cohortative, see § $108 c$; on $2 \mathrm{~K} 6^{27}$, see § 109 h.

Rem. I. -לN( (like Nit, see note on a above) may be used to form a compound $\boldsymbol{G}$ word, as in $\operatorname{Pr} 12^{28}$ N not-death (immortality); though all the early versions read $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{\sim}} \boldsymbol{\sim}$
 $m y$ daughters, and Gn $19^{18}, 33^{10}\left(\mathcal{N}_{\boldsymbol{\tau}} \mathcal{V N}^{-}\right)$, are also due (see under c) to extreme shortening of a full clause (in $2 \mathrm{~S} 13^{25}$ such a clause is repeated immediately
afterwards) ; thus in $2 \mathrm{~S} 1^{21}$, Is $62^{2}, \psi 83^{2}$ יִי is evidently to be supplied, and in Jo $2^{13}$, Am $5^{14}, \operatorname{Pr} 8^{10}$ the corresponding jussive from the preceding imperatives, in $\operatorname{Pr} 7^{12}$ from the preceding infinitive absolute.
 Jer $10^{24}, 15^{15}, \psi 6^{2}, 3^{8^{2}}$ before another strongly emphasized member of the sentence. ${ }^{1}$
$i$ (c) $\boldsymbol{i}$ ( nective form, cf. שְׁנִים for
 As שi.n (he, she, it is, was, \&c.) includes the idea of being in all tenses, so includes the idea of not being in all tenses. Hence-
$k$ (I) The absolute state $\boldsymbol{K} \times$, with an evident transition to the meaning of a verbal predicate, there does not exist, always follows the word negatived, e.g.


 reference to a plural; $\mathrm{IK}{ }^{18{ }^{10}}, \mathrm{Is} 41^{17}, 45^{21}, 59^{11}$, $\operatorname{Mi} 7^{2}, \operatorname{Pr} 13^{4}, 25^{14}, \mathrm{Jb} 3^{9}$
 Gn $30^{1}$, Ex $3^{23}$, Ju $9^{15}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 2^{10}$.—Quite anomalous is ${ }^{15} \times{ }^{\mathbf{K}} \mathrm{Jb} 35^{15}$ before a perfect as an emphatic negation; the text, however, can hardly be correct.
$l$ (2) The construct state ${ }^{\prime}$ Ns stands in its natural position immediately before the substantive whose non-existence it predicates, or before the subject of the sentence which is to be negatived. To the former class belong also the very numerous instances in which ${ }^{\prime} \times \mathbb{N}$ is joined to a participle, e.g. I S $26^{12}$ and there was not one seeing, \&c., i. e. and no man saw it, nor knew it, neither did any awake; so especially in subordinate circumstantial or descriptive clauses, such as Is $5^{29}$ "יְפְלִיט וְאֵיץ פַצִיל and he shall carry it away, while there is none delivering, i. e. without any one's delivering it; $\psi \boldsymbol{r}^{3}$, \&c.; Lv $26^{6} \& c$., וִֵין phenthout any one’s making you afraid; cf. $\S 141$ e.
 רַּבּ Joseph was not in the pit.
7 (3) When the subject which is to be negatived is a personal pronoun, it is joined as a suffix to
 also absolutely, Gn $4^{2^{13}}$ he is ( $5^{24}$ he was) no longer alive ; אינָ they are not, \&c. When the accompanying predicate is a verb, it follows again (see $l$ ) in the form of a participle, since $\mathfrak{j}$ אֵalways introduces a noun-clause, e.g. Ex $5^{10}$

$n$ Rem. In Neh $4{ }^{17}$ אֵֵ other (substantival) subjects; these are again expressly summed up in

${ }^{1}$ In Jer $51^{9}$ the pointing -אֶ occurs twice instead of $-\boldsymbol{K}$, and is thus, in the opinion of the Masoretes, equivalent to against him that bendeth; but undoubtedly we should read -א.

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לִבִלִּתי on לִבְלִּתִּ as a conjunction, see $x$ below.

On אی as a negative particle in oaths (verily not), see § 149 c above.
$u$ Rem. on $u$. the expression of negative attributes by means of almost exclusively in poetic language) or ${ }^{j}$ 스 with a following substantive, mostly in the simplest form of circumstantial clause; e.g. ${ }_{2} S 23^{4}$ בּקֹר תily a morning when there are not clouds, i. e. a cloudless morning; cf. Jb $12{ }^{24}$,
 childass; so also בְּלִ e.g. Jb $24^{10}$ and e.g. $\psi 88^{5} I$ am as a man there is not help, i.e. like a helpless man; Is $9^{6}{ }^{\gamma}{ }^{-1} \uparrow$ endless ; $47^{11}$, Ho $7^{11}$;

 such periphrases take the form of relative clauses (cf. $\$ 155$ e), e.g. Jb $30^{13}$
 is only an intrusion from $29^{12}$, and $w e$ should read without any one's restraining them; in $29^{12}$ translate the fatherless and him that had none to help him;
 is that of a man who hath no hands; $\mathrm{Zc} 9^{11}$ out of the waterless pit. ${ }^{1}$
How far such compounds finally came to be regarded by the language simply as negative adjectives, may be seen partly from the fact that they (as also relative clauses analogous to the above) are frequently co-ordinated with real adjectives, Jo $\mathbf{1}^{6}, \psi 77^{12}$, Jb $29^{12}$; cf. also Is $59^{10}$, where
 dative b, e.g. Is $4{ }^{0^{29}}\left(=\right.$ and to the powerless) ; Jb $26^{2 a .3}$, Neh $8^{10}$.

We (i) lest, that not, at the beginning of a clause expressing a fear or precaution, hence especially after such ideas as fearing, Gn $3^{2{ }^{12}}$, \&c. (cf. $\delta \in i \delta a \sim \mu \eta^{\prime}$, vereor ne), taking heed, frequently after taking care, $2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{10²3}, \mathrm{\& c} \mathrm{Not} \mathrm{infrequently} \mathrm{the} \mathrm{idea} \mathrm{on} \mathrm{which}$.$\rceil depends,$ is only virtually contained in the main clause, e.g. Gn $19^{19} I$ cannot escape to the mountain (because I am afraid), Gn $26^{9}, 38^{11}$; also in Gn $44^{34}$ from the rhetorical question how shall I...?
 an appeal to do or not to do an action by which something may be prevented (in which case is simply equivalent to the final ne); cf. e.g. Gn $11^{4}, 19^{15}, \mathrm{Nu} 0^{18}$ (where 7 lest is separated from the verb by a strongly emphasized substantive); Ju i $5^{12}$ after swear unto me; $\operatorname{Pr}{ }^{2} t^{18}$. $-\operatorname{In~Gn~} 3^{22}$ and now, lest he put forth his hand, \&c., $\rceil$ is to be regarded as virtually dependent on a cohortative, which immediately afterwards (verse 23) is changed into an historic tense; cf. also Gn $26^{7}, 31^{31}, 42^{4} \mathrm{Ex} 13^{17}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{S} 13^{19}$, $27^{11}, \psi 38^{17}$, in every case after , דִּי אָמַר , פִּי אָמַרְתִּי \&c. = I thought, \&c., I mus6 beware lest, \&c.

Rem. According to $\S 107 q$, $\rceil$ is naturally followed by the imperfect; for the exceptions, $2 \mathrm{~S} 20^{6}, 2 \mathrm{~K} 2^{16}$, see § $107 q$, note 3 ; cf. moreover, $2 \mathrm{~K} 10^{28}$筑 look lest there be here, \&c.

[^224]（k）לִבְלִּ that ．．．not，with the imperfect，Ex $20^{20}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 4^{14}$（in Jer $23^{14} x$
 is a relative clause governed by $\}=$ according to things which they have not seen．

2．Two negatives in the same sentence do not neutralize each other $y$ （as in nonnulli，non nemo），bat make the negation the more emphatic

 especially applies to the compounds formed by the union of or or on
 Jer $2^{15}$（מבְּ？ is left there．On the other hand，in Is $50^{2}$ מןך the מֵیֵּ because there is no water；as also in Ex $14^{11}$－הֲמִבְּ？ there were no ．．．？ $2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{i}^{3.6 .16}$ ．In Ec $3^{11}$ אֹא except that（yet so that man cannot，\＆c．）．

3．The negative sometimes extends its influence from the first to $Z$ a second negative sentence parallel with it（which may or may not have $W a \bar{a} w$ ）；e．g． $\mathrm{IS}_{2}{ }^{3}$ talk not so much arrogancy；let（not）boasting
 Is $23^{4}, 28^{27}, 38^{18}, 47^{14}, \mathrm{Ez}_{\mathrm{I}} 6^{47}, \psi 9^{19}, \mathrm{I} 3^{5}, 35^{19}, 3^{8^{2},} 44^{19}, 75^{6}, \mathrm{Jb}_{2} 8^{17}$（so


## § 153．Restrictive and Intensive Olauses．

The particles $7 \mathbb{N}, \mathcal{P}$ only，serve to introduce restrictive clauses，and ロ：，凡 also，besides，even，intensive clauses．It is to be observed that the force of these particles does not necessarily affect the word which immediately follows（as is the case with ${ }^{7} \mathrm{Gn} 7^{23}, 34^{15}$ ； F Gn $6^{5}$ ，
 ตַ $\mathrm{Dt} \mathrm{I}_{5}{ }^{17}$ ），but very frequently extends to the whole of the following


 $\mathrm{Jb} 2^{10}$ 䍐 is placed before two co－ordinate sentences，although，strictly speaking，it applies only to the second．Cf．the analogous examples in $§ 15 \circ \mathrm{~m}$ ．

[^225]
## §154. Sentences connected by Wāw.

a Wāw copulativum ${ }^{1}$ (!) serves to connect two or more sentences, or single words (on its various vocalization, cf. § $104 d-g$ ). Its use, however, is by no means restricted merely to joining sentences which

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in poetic style, the attributive relation is expressed by simple co-ordination. ${ }^{1}$
c The governing substantive or pronoun is frequently (in certain cases always) resumed by a pronominal suffix or an adverb. The resumption may, however, be omitted, just as in relative clauses introduced by پֶ, \& \& c.; see § $138 f$.
d. In Arabic a distinction is made between relative clauses used for the nearer definition of a determinate substantive (sila), and those which are attached to an indeterminate substantive (sifa). The former must be introduced by the demonstrative pronoun alladí, the latter are always simply co-ordinated. The same distinction was no doubt originally observed in Hebrew, since simply co-ordinated relative clauses are most commonly found after indeterminate substantives (see the examples below), and in cases like Dt $28^{49}$
 and especially $1 \mathscr{S}^{\mathcal{S}} 3^{11}$ ), the addition of stress laid on the indeterminate substantive, ${ }^{2}$ a nation of such a kind, thou understandest not their tongue. On the other hand, in poetic style at least, אֲשְׁר is somewhat frequently omitted even after a determinate noun, but only rarely in prose (except by the Chronicler; cf. $1 \mathrm{Ch} 9^{22}, 12^{23}, 29^{1}$ (read
 Ezr 1 ${ }^{5}$, but also Gn $39^{4}$; for further instances, see Driver, Introd. ${ }^{8}$, p. 537, no. 30) ; so Ex $18^{20}$, Ju $8^{1}, 20^{15}$, $1 \mathrm{~K}_{1} 3^{12}$ ( $=$ which way), so $2 \mathrm{~K}_{3}{ }^{8},{ }_{2} \mathrm{Ch} 18^{23}$; Neh $13^{29}$; after a pronominal subject, i S 69 . In Jer $52^{12}$ for with the LXX.
2. If the nearer definition of a substantive or pronoun is effected by simple co-ordination of the relative clause, it may take the form-
(a) Of a noun-clause, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~S} 20^{21}$ a man of the hill country of Ephraim in who洜 that had gold; $\psi 1^{4} 1^{4}, \operatorname{Pr} 22^{11}$; when referring to a noun-
 (self-)confidence.-On periphrases of this kind to express negative
 see § $55^{2} u$, and cf. for this very short form of the relative clause, Gn $15^{13}$ בְּ בְּאֶרץ לֹא

(b) Of a verbal clause.

Here we must distinguish the cases in which the retrospective pronoun-
(I) Is the subject of the relative clause, and is contained in the

[^227]verb; so after a determinate substantive, $\psi 34^{9}$ happy is the man,

 after ${ }^{-}$כָּ $\psi \psi$ I $^{18}$; referring to a vocative, which is determinate in itself even without the article, Is $54^{1}$, or to a noun-suffix (see under $e$ ), $\psi \mathrm{I}^{4}$; after an indeterminate substantive, e.g. $\mathrm{Jb}_{3} \mathrm{I}^{12}$ it is a fire (that) devoureth unto Abaddon; Dt $\mathbf{3}^{2^{176}}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{S} 6^{9}$, Is $55^{13,} 56^{2}, \psi 68^{31}, 78^{6}$, $\operatorname{Pr} 30^{17}, \operatorname{La~} 1^{10}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 28^{9}$; referring to the suffix in behold me, who have laid, \&c., but perhaps the participle $7 \mathrm{To}^{i}$ is to be read; $29^{14}, 38^{5}$ (but probably again the participle $\begin{aligned} & \text { nit } \\ & \text { should be read }\end{aligned}$ instead of the imperfect); $\mathrm{Ez}_{2} 5^{7}$. The relative clause is used in this way especially to supply the place of an adjective, e.g. Gn $49^{27}$
 negative quality, e.g. Is $40^{20}$, Ho $4^{14}$ an undiscerning people.

Rem. Very frequently such relative sentences are attached to substantives $\boldsymbol{g}$ which have the particle of comparison $\underset{\sim}{3}$, e.g. Jb $7^{2}$ as a servant that earnestly desireth the shadow, \& c. ; Dt $32^{11}$, Is $62^{11}$, Jer $23^{29}$, Ho $6^{3}, \psi 4^{2}{ }^{2}, 83^{15}$,

 $\psi 49^{13.21}, 125^{1}$; see also the examples under $h$. Sometimes it seems simpler in such cases, to take the verb directly as predicate to the preceding
 a conjunction-a view which even Hupfeld was ready to accept, at least as regards $\psi 90^{5}, 125^{1}$, Is $53^{7}, 61^{11}$, but it can hardly be right.
(2) The cases in which the retrospective pronoun represents an $/ /$ accusative of the object, or would do so if not suppressed, as it usually is in such cases in relative clauses with
 they knew not (see also the end of the verse); after a substantive with $\underset{\sim}{3}$ (see above, $g$ ), Jer $23^{9}, \mathrm{Jb}_{1}{ }^{288}$. Without a retrospective pronoun, after a determinate substantive, $\mathrm{Ju} 8^{1}, \psi 33^{12}$ (preceded by a relative clause with $\begin{gathered}\text { vén } \\ \text { ) } \\ \text {; } \\ \text { Jb } 28^{1} \text {. Other examples of this kind, though the }\end{gathered}$ article is omitted according to poetic usage, are Is $\mathrm{I}_{5}{ }^{7}$ (יְתָה עָּשָׁ which Jer $48^{36}$ יִחְרַח עָשָׁn with the substantive in the construct state governing the relative clause, see § 130 d$), \psi 7^{16}, 5 \mathrm{I}^{10}, \mathrm{La} \mathrm{I}^{21}$. -Without the retrospective pronoun, after an indeterminate substantive, e.g.
 the tongs from off the altar; Ex $5^{17}$, Is $42^{16}\left(48^{17}, \psi 25^{12}\right.$, all after

 into a land (that) they know not.
(3) The cases in which the retrospective pronoun is dependent on $\boldsymbol{i}$ a preposition, or its place is takeu by the adverb ${ }^{\sim} \underset{T}{\text { e }}$, as in Jer $2^{6}$ end.
 which I take refuge; Ex $1^{20}$, $\mathrm{Is}_{4} 2^{1}$; in $\mathrm{Jb} 3^{3 a}$ also, the omission of the article with i i is only a poetic licence. After an indeterminate substantive, Jer $2^{6}$, last clause but one ; $\psi 3^{2}$.
$k$ In this case also the retrospective word is not infrequently suppressed, giving rise to extremely short, bold expressions, such as
 of the pit with) ye act violently against me.-A retrospective adverb is suppressed in $\mathrm{Jb} 38^{19}$ where is the way (to the place where) the light dwelleth? cf. $3^{8^{24}}$.
$l$. Rem. I. The omission of the retrospective word occurs most frequently in relative clauses which are governed by the construct state of a preceding substantive (especially an expression of time) and hence are virtually in the genitive. In addition to the instances already given in § $130 d$, cf. the following : after בִּיוֹם Lv $7^{35}, \psi 56^{60}$; after טיוֹם Jer $3^{6^{2}}$; after simple

 after עַר־עָת Mi $5^{2}$; after מַעִת $\psi \psi^{8}$ thou hast put gladness in my heart more than (their gladness) at the time (when) their corn and their wine are increased.
2. The agreement ( $\S 138 d$ ) of the retrospective pronoun with a pronominal regens in the ist or 2 nd person also takes place in a simple co-ordinated relative clause in IS $26{ }^{14}$ who art thou (that) criest? Cf., however, Is $63^{19}$ we are become as they over whom (
$n$ 3. Occasionally—chiefly in poetic or otherwise elevated style—even independent relative clauses are simply co-ordinated with a regens, whereas we should expect them always to be proceded by a demonstrative pronoun, on the analogy of the examples in § $138 e$. The suppressed pronoun would stand-
(a) As subject, Is $4 \mathrm{I}^{24}$ an abomination (is he) that chooseth you (but read perhaps לִבְחר); Jb $30^{19}$, cf. § 152 u.
(b) As object, Is $4 \mathrm{I}^{2}$, with a retrospective pronoun; Mal $2^{16}$ וְבָּ him that covereth (or read îכְֶׂה) ; Jb $29^{12} I$ delivered . . the fatherless also, and him that had none to help him.
(c) In the genitive governed by a substantive (cf. § 130 d ), Ex $4^{13}$
 send, i.e. by the hand of some one else; $\psi 65^{5}$ and $\operatorname{Pr} 8^{32}$, verbalclauses after La $I^{14}$; after ${ }^{-\zeta}$ Эָ $\operatorname{Tn} 39^{4}$, but we must certainly read here, with the Samaritan and LXX, שָּ

(d) Governed by a preposition; so verbal-clauses after Jer $_{2}{ }^{8}$;


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 finally the formula צֵם mother with children, Gn $3^{2^{12}}$; cf. Ho $10^{14}$ and § ingaa note 2.

Rem. On circumlocutions of this kind to express negative attributes by means of short noun-clauses (complete or incomplete), cf. § i52 $u$.
3. As circumstantial verbal-clauses, ${ }^{3}$ we find ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) sometimes affirmative clauses (see below), but far more frequently (2) negative clauses (see $f$ ), and among these (3) a certain number of expressions which may be regarded simply as equivalent to negative adverbial ideas (see $g$ ).

Examples of (1) Is $5^{11 b}$ woe unto them, that tarry late in the evening,
 62 ${ }^{5}$. The circumstantial verbal-clause is used to particularize an action which has before been expressed generally, in Gn $44^{12}, 4^{8^{14}}=$ crossing his

 thou hast commanded judgement; a consequence in $\psi 103^{5}$. ${ }^{4}$
e Rem. On the cases in which an imperfect in the sense of a final clause is

$f$ Of (2), subordinate verbal-clauses with it (in English usually rendered by without and the gerund, if the subject be the same as in the principal
 perfect is so used in Gn $44^{4}$, Ex $34^{28}$, i S $30^{2}$, Jb $20^{26}$ (without its being blown upon $i t$ ). With a different subject, equivalent to a consecutive clause in English, Is $27^{\theta}$ isp clauses in the same sense (without doing, \&c.) are frequently connected by ! ; cf. $1 \mathrm{~S} 20^{2}, \mathrm{Jb} 24^{22}, 42^{3}$; in a concessive sense, Is $33^{1}, \psi 44^{18}$.
 unsparingly, Is $30^{14}$ (after an infinitive absolute); $\mathrm{Hb}^{17}, \mathrm{Jb}^{10}$ (but Jb 16 ${ }^{13}, 27^{22}$; see $f$ at the end) ; לא כחִרג (prop. they hide not) openly, Is $3^{9}$ (but

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## § 157. Object-Clauses (Oratio Obliqua).

Clauses which depend on a transitive verb, especially on what are $a$ called verba cordis, i. e. verbs denoting any mental act, such as to see, to hear, to know, to perceive, to believe, to remember, to forget, to say, to think, \&c., may be subordinated to the governing verb without the help of a conjunction by simple juxtaposition ( $\$ 120 a$ ), or they may be co-ordinated with it either with or without $w \bar{a} w$ copulative ( $\$ 120 \mathrm{~d}-\mathrm{h})$. As a rule, however, the objective clause is introduced by the conjunction

Examples:-
(a) Object-clauses without a conjunction. Besides the passages mentioned in $\S 120$ (especially under $e$ ) there are a number of examples, in which a clause depending on a verbum dicendi or sentiendi (the oratio obliqua of the Latin and English Grammar) is added in the form of an independent noun-

 verbal-clauses, e.g. $\psi 50^{21}$ thou thoughtest [but read הָּin for ${ }_{\mathrm{T}}$ ] ; Gn $4{ }^{15}$, Ju $9^{48}$ what ye have seen me do ; Is $4^{88}$, Ho $7^{2}$.
 and the Lord saw that the wickedness of man was great, \&c.-Direct narration also is very frequently introduced by $\mathfrak{9}$ (analogous to the örı recitaticum; frequently, indeed, with the secondary idea of a particle of asseveration, as in Gn 269, $27^{20}$, e. g. Gn $21^{30}, 22^{18} \mathrm{f}$. $26^{22}, 29^{32}, 37^{98}$, Jos $2^{24}$, \&c., even when the direct narration is not expressly indicated, Gn $4^{25}, 32^{31} ; 4^{51}$ f., Ex $18^{4}$. -On the expression of a second object by means of a clause introduced by 1 , see § $117 h{ }^{2}$

 direct narration, $1 S_{15}{ }^{20}, 2 \mathrm{~S}_{1}{ }^{4}$. Somewhat frequently is preceded by

[^229]the nota accusativi ${ }^{-}$(equivalent to the circumstance, the fact, that), e. g. Jos $2^{10}$, IS $24^{11.19}, 2 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{II}^{20}$, Is $38^{3}$, but in Gn $30^{29}$, Dt $29^{15}$ equivalent to the way in which.

## § 158. Causal Clauses.

a A complete clause, assigning the reason for statements, demands, threats, \&c., sometimes follows with the simple wāw copulative, e.g. $\psi 60^{13}$ give us help against the adversary, and (for) vain is the help of
 without $W a \bar{a} w$, e.g. Gn $17^{14}$. As a rule, however, special conjunctions in various combinations are used to introduce causal clauses.
$b$ The most common causal conjunctions are because, prop. on account of the fact that; both, however, may also be shortened

 Gn 39.23. On the other hand, the simple ${ }^{9} \underline{V N}^{9}$ is sometimes repeated for emphasis, Ez $13^{10}$ (without $93^{6^{3}}$ ); also
 עֲ for this very cause that, Jer $3^{8}$. But just as the simple is used for
 perfect, equivalent to because. . . not.-Cf. further $2 \mathrm{~S} 12^{6}$, all with the perfect, and ${ }^{4}$, with the imperfect) prop. in return for the fact that; similarly again the

 and
C Rem. I. The preposition - עy (because of, on account of) with the infinitive ( $\$ 114 e$ ) is frequently used as the equivalent of a full causal clause; cf. e.g. Am $1^{3.6 .13}, 2^{1.6}$. Such a construction with the infinitive may, however, according to $\S 114 r$, be continued by means of a finite verb, in which case
 because they delivered up . . . and remembered not, \&c.; $1^{11}, 2^{4}$; without $W a ̃ w$, Is $30^{14}$.
2. The choice of tense is regulated by the general principles stated in § 106 ff ., viz. the perfect (ef. especially § $106 f$ ) refers to causes already brought fully into effect, the imperfect to those which may contingently arise; cf. e.g. Dt $7^{12}, \delta^{20}$, I K $8^{33}$, where the imperfect leaves the possibility still open that the persons addressed will perhaps escape the threatened punishments by avoiding disobedience.-Cf. further, § in in $h$ on the imperfect consecutive, and § 112 nn on the perfect consecutive in the apodosis to causal clauses.

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what the imperfect in the protasis had represented as still conceivable; cf. Ho $8^{12}$ ) ; with the perfect consecutive, Gn $47^{25}$, Ex $33^{5}$; with the protasis suppressed, Jb $5^{8}$ (see § $107 x$ ).
(b) Jussive in protasis (cf. $\S 109 h, i$ ) and apodosis, $\psi 104^{10}$ !יִיָּ (if) thou makest darkness, it is night; imperfect in the apodosis,
 is the apodosis to a suppressed protasis if thou cast it down; so in $2 \mathrm{~K} 5^{10}$ In in the apodosis to a protasis if thou woash, contained in what precedes.
e (c) Cohortative (see § $108 e$ ) in the protasis; perfect in the apodosis, $\psi 40^{6}$; imperfect consecutive; Jb $19^{18}$ אָקוּמָה וַיַרַבּרּרּבִי (if) I arise, they speak against $m e$; on the cohortative in the apodosis, cf. $\$ 108 f$.
(d) Innperfect consecutive in the protasis (§ III $x$ ), $\psi$ I $39^{11}$ in in $I$ say, \&c. (with a noun-clause as the apodosis); with a frequentative perfect consecutive in the apodosis, I S $2^{16}$. and $l l$ ), Gn $44^{22}$ ומוּ $9^{15}, 44^{29}, \mathrm{Ex}^{14}, \mathrm{I} 2^{19}, \mathrm{I} \mathrm{S} 16^{2}, 19^{3}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 13^{28}, 1 \mathrm{~K} 8^{30}$; with frequentative perfects, Ex $1^{61}$ (referring to the past, Jer $20^{\circ}$ ); with imperfect in the apodosis (being separated from the $W \bar{a} w$ by $火 \dot{\zeta}$ ), $\mathrm{Nu} 23^{20}, \mathrm{Jb} 5^{24}$; introduced by an infinitive absolute, $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{K} 2^{37}$; an interrogative clause in the apodosis, Lv $I^{19}$; a noun-clause, $\psi 37^{10}$, Jb $7^{21}$.
$h(f) A$ simple perfect (to represent actions which are to be regarded as com-
 a wife, he has found a good thing; an imperfect in the apodosis, Jb $19^{4}, 23^{10}$; an imperfect consecutive, Ex $20^{25}, \operatorname{Pr} 11^{2}, \mathrm{Jb}^{25}, 23^{13} \mathrm{~b}, 29^{11}$; an interrogative clause, Nu 12 ${ }^{14}$, Jb $7^{20}$ if I have sinned (prop., well, now I have sinned!) what can I do unto thee? $21^{31},{ }_{25^{6}}$ Am $3^{8}$; a noun-clause, Jb $27^{19}$.
$i$ ( $g$ ) A participle as castus ${ }^{6}$ pendens (cf. § $143 d$, and the sections of the Grammar there cited, esp. § II6 w) or a complete noun-clause in the protasis; the apodosis mostly introduced by $w \bar{a} w$ apodosis, e.g. $\operatorname{Pr}{ }^{23} 3^{24} K^{e} t h$. i. $\mathfrak{i}$. frequentative in the apodosis, $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{S}_{2}{ }^{13}$, \&c.; but also with a simple imperfect, e.g. Ex $2 \mathrm{I}^{12}$ (cf. § $112 \boldsymbol{n}$ ); with an interrogative imperfect, $2 \mathrm{~K} \boldsymbol{7}^{2.19}$; with an interrogative perfect, Ju $6^{13}$.
$k^{(h)}$ Infinitive with preposition (also as the equivalent of a conditional clause) in the protasis, and a perfect consecutive in the apodosis (cf. § II 2 mm ), e.g.
 (with imperfect, followed by perfects frequentative in the apodosis).

Rem. On the expression of condition and consequence by means of two co-ordinate imperatives, see § IIO $f$.
3. Particles used to introduce conditional sentences are (for which in the later and latest Books sometimes in, see below, under $w$ )

 sometimes used almost in the same sense as $\underset{\text { M. With regard to the }}{ }$
 that $\mathbb{Q}$ is used if the condition be regarded either as already fulfilled, or if it, together with its consequence, be thought of as possibly (or

[^231]probably) occurring in the present or future. In the former case, is followed by the perfect, in the latter (corresponding to the Greek eà $\nu$ with the present subjunctive) by the imperfect or its equivalent
 when the condition is to be represented as not fulfilled in the past, or as not capable of fulfilment in the present or future, and the consequence accordingly as not having occurred or never occurring. In the former case, ללילא and necessarily followed by the perfect (mostly also in the apodosis) corresponding to the Greek $\epsilon i$ with the indicative of an historic tense, and the Latin imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive. In the latter case (which is extremely rare) the perfect, or the participle, or even the imperfect, may be used.

Rem. Since it again frequently depends on the subjective judgement of the $\mathbf{m}$ speaker (see under a), whether a condition is to be regarded as possible or impossible, we cannot wonder that the distinction between $D$ and is not always consistently observed. Although naturally it and cannot take

 cf. e.g. $\psi 50^{12}, 137^{5}, 139^{8}$, Ho $^{12}$ (cf. verse iI). These examples, indeed (a) with the imperfect), may without difficulty be explained from the fact that the connexion of $\$$ with the imperfect was evidently avoided, because the imperfect by its nature indicates a still unfinished action, and consequently (as opposed to ${ }^{\prime}$ ) a still open possibility. But is also used for in connexion with the perfect, especially when an imprecation is attached by the

 The speaker assumes for a moment as possible and even actual, that which he really rejects as inconceivable, in order to invoke the most severe punishment on himself, if it should prove to be the case.

On the frequent addition of an infinitive absolute to the verb in clauses with DN see § 1130 above.

Examples:-
A. I. with perfect in the protasis to express conditions, \&c., which have $n$ been completely fulfilled in the past or which will be completely fulfilled in the future (the perfect is here equivalent to the futurum exactum, § 1060 ). The apodosis ${ }^{1}$ takes-
 for thyself; $\psi 73^{15}$ (see below on 7 ).
(b) Imperfect, e.g. Dt $32^{41}$ אָ $I$ will render vengeance, \&c.; Jh $9^{15 \mathrm{f} .90}$ (in both cases we should expect i) rather than ${ }^{-}$© ; so also in $\psi 44^{21 r}$., with an interrogative imperfect in the apodosis) ; $\mathrm{Jb}_{\mathrm{II}^{13}}{ }^{13}$ (the apodosis is in verse $\mathrm{I}_{5}$ ).
(c).Jussive (or optative), e.g. Jb $3^{19}{ }^{9 \text { fr. }}$ (see $m$ above); Gn $18^{3}$.
${ }^{1}$ We are not here concerned with the fact that the logical apodosis (the consequence of the condition) is sometimes mentioned before the condition; as in $\operatorname{Gn} 18^{28.30}, \mathrm{Ju} 11^{10}, \psi 63^{6 \mathrm{f}},{ }^{13} 7^{6}$, and according to Dillmann Is $4^{4}$.

 $2 \mathrm{~K} 7^{4}$. On the other hand, e. g. Gn $47^{6}$, Mi $5^{7}$, $\mathrm{Jb} 7^{4}$ refer to actions already completed; in $\mathrm{Gn}^{3} 3^{89}$ and $\mathrm{Nu}{ }^{21}{ }^{9}$ the perfect with ! is a perfect frequentative and refers to past time.
(e) Imperfect consecutive (see § 111 q), e.g. Jb $8^{4}$ if thy children have sinned (חָּט:
 I have found grace in your eyes, speak, I pray you, \&c.; the imperative precedes in $\mathrm{Gn} 47^{16}$ and $\mathrm{Jb} 38^{4.18}$.
p (g) A (complete or incomplete) noun-clause, e.g. Jer $14^{18}$ (a vivid realization of the future) if I have gone forth into the field (=if 1 go, \&c.), then, behold, the slain with the sword! \&c.; $\operatorname{Pr} 24^{14}$ (apodosis with wāw apodosis).
2. D With imperfect in the protasis, to express what is possible in the present or future, as well as (according to $\S 107$ b) what has continued or been repeated in the past. The apodosis takes-
(a) The perfect, e.g. Nu $33^{23}$ but if ye will not do so, behold, ye have sinned; here the apodosis represents the time when the consequence has already taken place; so also Jb $20^{12-14}$. On the other hind, Nu $16^{29}$ (as also IS $6^{9}$ and I $\mathrm{K}^{22^{28}}$ ) is a case of a pregnant construction, if these men die as all men die, then (it will follow from this) the Lord hath not sent me.
$\boldsymbol{r}$ (b) The imperfect, e.g. $2 \mathrm{~K} 7^{4}$ אִם if they save us alive, we shall live, \&c. ; Gn $13^{16}, 1{ }^{828.30}, 28^{20} \mathrm{ff}$, Ex ${ }^{2025}$ (the second imperfect is equivalent to a jussive); Is $1^{18}, 10^{22}, A m 9^{2-4}, \psi 5^{0^{12}}$ (where C ironically represents an impossibility as possible) ; $\mathrm{Jb} 8^{5 \mathrm{f}}$. (with the insertion of a second condition in the form of a noun-clause) ; $9^{3.20}, 14^{7}$; a frequentative imperfect referring to the past, On $31^{8}$ (in

(c) The jussive (or optative), e.g. $\psi 137^{5}$; cf. § 109 h .
(d) The cohortative, e.g. Gn $\mathbf{1 3}^{9}, \mathrm{Jb} 31^{7}$; cf. § $108 f$.
$\mathcal{S}$ (e) The perfect consecutive (see the examples in § $112 \mathscr{D f}$ and $g g$ ), e.g. I $\mathrm{S} 20^{6}$
 Gn $24^{41}, \mathrm{Ju} 4^{20}$; with a frequentative perfect consecutive, Gn $31^{8}$ if he said (as often happened) . . ., then, \&c.
( $f$ ) The imperfect consecutive; so perhaps $\psi 59^{16}$, if is to be explained according to §1IIt.
(g) The imperative, e.g. Gn $31^{50}$, $1 \mathrm{~S} 20^{21}$ (with $w a \bar{a} w$ apodosis, but in verse 22 simply 7 . .2 , $21^{10}, ~ J b ~ 33^{5}$.
$t$ ( $h$ ) A noun-clause, e.g. $\operatorname{Gn} 4^{7}, \psi \mathbf{1} 39^{8}, \mathrm{Jb} 8^{6}, 3^{\mathrm{I}^{26} \text {. } \text {. }}$
3. Q א with cohortative, e.g. Gn $30^{31}$; cf. the passages in § 108 e.


$\boldsymbol{v}$ 5. With a noun-clause, e.g. Dt $5^{22}$ (in the apodosis a perfect with $w \bar{a} w$ apodosis), Gn 2746, $\mathrm{Ju}^{15}$ (imperative in the apodosis); $\mathrm{II}^{9}$ (imperfect in the apodosis) ; $2 \mathrm{~S}_{12^{8}}$ (cohortative in the apodosis); Ho $12^{12}$; especially if the subject of the conditional clause be a personal pronoun. In an affirmative sentence this pronoun is often joined to $\operatorname{vin}_{\text {. }}$, in a negative sentence to $\mathbf{~ K}$ (cf. on both, $\S 1000$ ), while the predicate (cf. $\S 116 q$ ) is represented by a participle, usually expressing the future, e.g. Ju $6^{966 \text { f. }}$

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its origin is obscure. Cf. the exhaustive discussion of Delitzsch and Wetzstein on Jb $34^{96}$, where this ' ${ }^{\text {M }}$ appears to be used as a desiderative particle.-Sometimes when one case has been already discussed, another of the same character is added by means of in or, e.g. Ex $21^{\circ 6} /$ ג אí (another possible case) it is known that, \&c., i.e. but if it be known, \&c., LXX ${ }^{\prime} \dot{\epsilon} d \nu \quad \delta \dot{\epsilon}$, Vulg. sin autem; cf. Lv $4^{23.28}, 5^{1}, 25^{49}, 2 \mathrm{~S} 18^{13}$; with a following imperfect, $\mathrm{Ez}_{1} 4^{17 \mathrm{t}}$. -On the hypothetical use of
 (verse 28 CN), Jos $4^{21}$, see the Lexicon.
2. The conditional sentence is frequently found in an abridged form, where the suppressed clauses can be easily supplied from the context; cf.
 I take it (perfect according to $\S 106 n$ ) by force; cf. I S 69 . The use of alone in Ju $6^{18}$ is peculiar, as also in $2 \mathrm{~K}_{10}{ }^{15}$ (where read with the LXX
 appears to be used in the sense of if really . . not, in each case with a following jussive equivalent to may there at least, \&c. (cf. $\S 143$ d); but perhaps with Matthes, $Z A W$. 1903, p. 122 ff., following Kuipers, we should read would that!-In IS $13^{13}, \mathrm{Jb}^{18}$ the condition must be supplied from the preceding clause to complete the sentence introduced by $2 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{I}^{19}$ by N .-The apodosis also appears sometimes in an abridged form (e.g. Gn $4^{24}$, Is $43^{2}$ ) or is entirely suppressed, e.g. Gn $30^{27}, 3^{87}, 50^{15}$ (see $y$ above), Ex $3^{32}, \psi{ }^{27} 7^{19}$, Jb $3^{85}$, where properly 7 as in verses 4 and 18 ; cf. $\S 167$ a. $-\operatorname{In} \psi 8^{4}$, instead of the apodosis $I$ exclaim which we should expect, the exclamation itself follows.
Ce 3. The absolute certainty with which a result is to be expected is frequently emphasized by the insertion of בִּ בִּי עֲתָּ now verily, Nu $22^{29}$, I S $14^{90}$ after ib, Gn 31 ${ }^{42}, 43^{10}$ after 1 , On this corroborative ẹ. cf. such passages as Gn $18^{20}$, \&c., and § 148 d. On after an oath cf. 163 d.
4. Sometimes the force of a hypothetical particle extends beyond the apodosis to a second conditional clause, as in the case of $\mathbb{C} \operatorname{Pr} 9^{12}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{10}^{10}$, 166, $22^{23}$, and ${ }^{\text {Is }} 43^{2}$.
g.s 5. In Ex $33^{20}$ a negative statement takes the place of a condition with a negative consequence, for a man doth not see me and live, instead of for if a man sees me, he does not live; cf. the similar passages, Dt $22^{1.4}$ thou shalt not see . . . and hide thyself, instead of if thou seest . . . thou shalt not hide thyself.

## §180. Concessive Clauses.

a Besides the use of the imperative in the sense of a concession, meant either seriously ( $§$ IIOa) or mockingly ( $§$ IIOf), and of concessive circumstantial clauses (§ $141 e, \S 142 d$, and $§ 156 f$ ), concessive clauses may be introduced-
(a) By a simple $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{a}}$ if: thus $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{15}$ with perfect, if (=though) I had been in the right ; Is $I^{18}$ and $1^{22}$ with imperfect in reference to a contingent event.
$b$ (b) By בִּ yea though, Is $1^{15}$ with imperfect; for which we find simply Qנַ in Is $49^{15}$ with imperfect, yea, though these may forget, yet . . . ; on the other

(c) By the preposition $\boldsymbol{-}$ עַ governing a complete noun-clause, as Jb $16{ }^{17} C$
 clause, Is $53^{9}$. On - y with the infinitive in a similar sense (equivalent to in addition to the fact that = notwithstanding that), cf. § 119 a , note 2.

## § 181. Comparative Clauses.

1. A comparison letween two facts is sometimes established by $a$ simply uniting them with wāw copulative, especially in gnomic poetry, when facts of a moral nature are compared with those of the physical world, e. g. $\mathrm{Jb} 5^{7}$ man is born unto trouble, and the sons of flame fy upward, i. $e_{x}$ as the sparks by nature fly upward, so man, \&c.; $\mathrm{Jb}_{\mathrm{I}} \mathbf{2}^{11}$ (in an interrogative form; in $34^{3}$ the same comparison as a statement); $14^{114}, \operatorname{Pr}{ }^{1} 7^{3}, 25^{3}, 26^{3.9 .14}, 27^{21}, \& c .{ }^{1}$ Even without the connecting! Jb $24^{19}$ drought and heat consume the snow waters, שָׁשָאוֹא so doth Sheol those who have sinned (cf. § $155 n$ ); cf. Jer $17^{11}$.
2. The conjunction same sense in Ex $10^{6}, 14^{13}, 34^{18}$ ) as, quemadmodum, is used as a comparative conjunction ( $\mathrm{Ob}^{15}$ ), frequently with $\dagger \exists$ so, corresponding to it in the apodosis, Is $31^{4}, 52^{144}$. Sometimes, however, occurs even after independent statements, Is $55^{9}$, Jer $3^{20}$. - Exact
 points as.

Rem. On the use of $\mathfrak{Z}$ as, with single nouns or pronouns to introduce $C$ comparisons, cf. ir $8 s$; on the alleged use of as a conjunction (equivalent to correspondence with one another, as-so (e.g. Lr $7^{7}$, Ju $8^{18,}$, Is $2^{2}$, Ho $4^{9}$; also so-as, Gn 1825, $44^{18}$, Dt $1^{17}$, 1 K $2^{4}$; in Jos $14^{11}$, 1 S $30^{24}$ ? often,, בַּ substantives with a following genitive ; בָּ ָּ the like of you shall be the like of the stranger, i.e. your duty shall be (also) the stranger's duty; cf. Lv $24^{22}$.

[^232]
## § 162. Disjunctive Sentences.

a The introduction of another possible case, excluding that which preceded, is effected by is or, e.g. Ex $2 \mathrm{I}^{36}$, equivalent to the Latin vel; but also equivalent to aut with an exclusive antithesis, $2 \mathrm{~K}^{16}$; so Is $27^{5}$ in=it would then happen that, for which elsewhere אוֹ.
$b$ In the sense of sive-sive we find in-iא, or or (see the examples in the Lexicon), also ! - $\mathrm{Lv}_{5}{ }^{3}$, $\mathrm{Nu} 9^{14}$, Dt $4^{4}$, Is $2^{138}$, Jer $3^{2^{20}}, \psi 76^{67}$, Jb $34^{29}$, perhaps also Ex $21^{16}$ (but not $\operatorname{Pr} 2^{9}$; cf. Delitzsch on the passage), and ?- (see § 143 e); cf. also

 see § 150 g .

## § 163. Adversative and Exceptive Clauses.

$a$ 1. After negative sentences (especially after prohibitions) the anti-
 but we will have a king over us; $\psi \mathbf{1}^{2}$, \&c.; frequently also by $\mathfrak{\top}$ alone, e. g. Gn $18^{15}, 19^{2}$, or even simply connected with !, Gn ${ }_{1} 7^{5}$, ! perfect consecutive ; $42^{10}$; cf. Ex $5^{18}$.

Rem. Sometimes the negation is only virtually contained in the preceding sentence, e.g. in the form of a rhetorical question (Mi $6^{36}$.) or of conditions which are to be regarded as not having been fulfilled ( $\mathrm{Jb}_{3} \mathbf{3 1}^{18}$ ) ; in such cases becomes equivalent to nay, rather.
c 2. Exceptive clauses, depending on another sentence, are introduced
 ם אִּ with the perfect (equivalent to unless previously) after imperfects which contain a declaration, e.g. Gn $3^{27}$ I will not let thee go, except thou hast previously blessed me; Lv $22^{6}$, Is $55^{10}, 65^{6}, \mathrm{Am}_{3}{ }^{7}, \mathrm{Ru} 3^{18}$. Finally, after a rhetorical question), or simply ${ }^{\text {Gn }} 43^{3}$ with a noun-clause, except your brother be with you; Is $10^{4}$ after a rhetorical question, with a verbal-clause.

[^233]
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and when thou dost overtake them (as soon as thou shalt have overtaken), thou shalt say unto them. Naturally, examples of this kind are very closely related to conditional sentences; ste, therefore, the examples in § 112 kk and $\S 159 \mathrm{~g}$. On the connexion of an imperfect consecutive or a perfect with detached expressions of time (as equivalent to complete clauses), cf. § in b; on the imperfect consecutive after 'יֵַ and a statement of time, cf. § in $g$; on the perfect consecutive following a detached statement of time, as in Ex 166, cf. § 11200 . -In IS $29^{10}$ an imperative with ! follows the perfect consecutize.
$C$ (5) The fact that one action or event has not yet taken place on the
 with the imperfect (according to $\S 107 \%$ ). The apodosis, which may consist of a subject and perfect or even of a noun-clause ( $\mathrm{Gn}_{24}{ }^{15}$ ), ${ }^{1}$ is then connected by (or (i) as in the examples above, under no. 3, e.g. Gn $19{ }^{4}$ (cf. Jos $2^{8}$ ) ( and ( $=$ when) the men of the city . . . compassed, \&c.; Gn $24^{25}$.
d 2. Conjunctions used to introduce temporal clauses are (with perfect, e.g. Gn $6^{1}$, Ju $\mathbf{I}^{28}, 16^{16}, \mathrm{ISI}^{12}$; with imperfect, $\mathrm{Gn}_{4}{ }^{12}, \mathbf{1 2}{ }^{12}$, $24^{41}, \operatorname{Ex~}_{3}{ }^{21}, \operatorname{Lv} 21^{9}, \operatorname{Dt} 31^{21}$, Is $I^{12}, 8^{19}$ ) and ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ wanen ( imperfect also =as often as, $\psi 8^{4}$; with perfect $\mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{I}^{5}$ ); less frequently (joined with a perfect), e.g. Gn $3^{3} 8^{9}, \mathrm{Nu} 2 \mathrm{I}^{9}, \mathrm{Ju} 6^{3}, \psi 4 \mathrm{I}^{7}, 94^{18}, \mathrm{cf}$. also Is $24^{13}=$ quotiescunque; also in the same sense with an imperfect, $\mathrm{Nu} 36^{4}$; with a perfect, equivalent to the futurum exactuin, Is $4^{4}$. Other conjunctions of time are the compounds $\underset{\sim}{\text { in }}$ when, Gn $19{ }^{15}$; when, after that; ;ַּאֶשׁׁ $\mathrm{Gn} 3^{811}, \mathrm{Jos}^{22}, \mathrm{I}_{1} \mathrm{~S}^{22}$ [with the imperfect=only when, as in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{10} 0^{5}$ ]); $2^{5}$, \&c.; especially in the formula is istil there was none left remaining to him (where indeed it would be very natural to read
 that, Ec in $2^{1.2 .6}$ with an imperfect, as in $\operatorname{Pr} 8^{26}$ עַ with a perfect ; עֲר־אִ, עַ

 attached to it in the same way as the attributive clause to the demonstrative

e Rem. I. With regard to the tenses used with the above conjunctions, the rules are practically the same as those given in $\S 158 d$ for causal clauses. The perfect indicates actions completed in the past or future (in the former case corresponding to the Latin pluperfect, $\S 106 f$, and in the latter to the

[^234]Latin futurum exactum, § 1060 ), the imperfect denotes actions occurring contingently in the future. On שֶׁר with the imperfect as a tempus historicum, cf. 107 c.
 which is not absolute (terminating the preceding action), but only relative, beyond which the action or state described in the principal clause still continues; thus, עַ with the imperfect, $\psi$ IIo ; עַר־בִּ with the perfect, Gn 2613, with i.npf. $49^{10}$; עַר־אַשׁׁר with the perfect, Gn $28^{15}$; with the

 through, i.e. so they passed through.
3. The infinitive construct governed by a preposition ( $\S 114 d, e$ ) is very $g$ frequently used as the equivalent of a temporal clause ; the infinitive with may usually be rendered by when, as, or whilst; the infinitive with $\underset{\sim}{?}$ by when, as soon as (in $\operatorname{Pr} 1^{25}$ followed by a noun-clause introduced by wā w upodnsis), or, when referring to the future, by if; the infinitive after py since. According to $\S 111 g$ such statements of time are generally preceded by יִִיִ! and the apodosis follows in the imperfect consecutive; hence in I S $17^{55}$ (cf. Driver on the passage) וִברִאוֹח with a simple perfect following, is unusual. On the continuation of these infinitival constructions by means of the perfect consecutive, cf. § $112 v$, and in general, § 114 r.—With the participle, $\underset{\sim}{7}$

 , בְּפֹרֹחַת when it budded, $40^{10}$.

## § 165. Final Clauses. ${ }^{1}$

1. Like most of the dependent clauses hitherto treated, the final $a$ clause may also be joined by a simple wāw copulative to the main clause, unless the final clause is directly subordinated to the governing verb.
Examples of the connexion: (a) of a final imperfect (or jussive?) with a perfect by means of !, La $1^{19}$, see $\S 107 q$; with an interrogative sentence, ${ }_{2} \mathrm{~S} 9^{1.3}$, Jb $38^{24}$; with an optative, $\psi 5^{51}$; with an imperative, $1 \mathrm{~K} \mathrm{II}^{21}$; ( $\beta$ ) of a cohortative with an imperative by !, Gn $29^{21}$, IS I $5^{16}$, or a jussive, Neh $2^{5}$ ( $\left.\S 108 d\right)$; ( $\gamma$ ) of a jussive with an imperative by !, Ex $9^{1}, 2 \mathrm{~S}$ 1611, I K $5^{50}, \psi 59^{14}, 86^{17}$; with a jussive, Jb $21^{19}$, or cohortative, § $109 f, g$ (cf. also $2 \mathrm{~S} 24^{21}$ the infinitive with ל, Jon $1^{11}$ wָ with the ist plur. imperf., and
 with a jussive, cohortative, or interrogative sentence by !, § IIO $i$; ( $\epsilon$ ) of a perfect consecutive after another perfect consecutive, Lv I $4^{96}$; after an imperfect, § 112 m and $p$; similarly after a jussive, § $112 q$; after an imperative, § II2r.—On negative final clauses joined by אiל to the imperfect (so Ex $28^{43}$, $30^{20}$; and $\underbrace{2} \mathrm{~S}_{1} 3^{25}$ after with a jussive in the main clause) see the Rem. on $\S 109 \mathrm{~g}$. In $\mathrm{Ex} 28^{32}, 39^{23}$ the negative final clause is simply connected by $火$. ל-On the use of an historical statement after verbs of command-

[^235]ing, where we should expect a final clause (e.g. Neh $13^{9}$ then I commanded, and they cleansed, equivalent to that they should cleanse, and they cleansed; in $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{7}$ a negative final clause is connected in this way by

For examples of the direct subordination of the final imperfect (without !) see § 120 c .
$b$ 2. Final conjunctions are


 $24^{3}$, 1 K $22^{26}$; or $\operatorname{Ev} 3^{14}$; also negatively, matter (purpose) that . . . not, Ec $7^{14}$; אִבְלֵּ with imperfect, Ex $20^{20}$, $2 \mathrm{~S}_{14}{ }^{14}$ that . . . not.—Quite exceptional is the use of ${ }^{-p}$ (if the text be right) in Dt $33^{11}$, not [in prose, $\quad$ ? ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ].

C Rem. All the conjunctions here mentioned are naturally always used with the imperfect, see $\S 107 q$ (on the apparent exception in Jos $4^{24}$, see $\S 74 g$ ). -

 clause (Gn $11^{6}, 28^{4}, \& c$.), see $\S 114 f, h, p$. On the continuation of such infinitival constructions by means of the finite verb, see § $114 r$. On the
 a substantive or infinitive as the equivalent of a negative final clause ( $\mathrm{Gn}_{3} \mathbf{I}^{29}$, I S $15^{23}, \& c$.), see § If $9 x$ and $y$.

## § 186. Consecutive Clauses.

a 1. Consecutive clauses are added by means of simple wāw copulative with the jussive, ${ }^{3}$ especially after negative and interrogative sentences,
 should lie, and (i. e. neither) the son of man, that he should repent; Is $53^{2}$ who is wise, that he may understand these things? prudent, that he may know them? Jb $5^{12}$兑=so that . . . not; in $\operatorname{Pr} 30^{3}$ ! is separated from the predicate by the object. In Gn $16^{10}$ a negative consecutive clause comes after a cohortative, and in Ex $10^{5}$ after a perfect consecutive.-On the other hand, in $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{32.33}$ the jussive in the sense of a consecutive clause is attached without $W \bar{a} w$ to the preceding negative sentence (in

[^236]
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pressed; but the text can hardly be correct) ; perhaps also Is $66^{18}$ (cf., however, Delitzsch on the passage, which is certainly corrupt). ${ }^{1}$ On Gn $23^{13}$ ( ${ }^{\text {b }}$ with the imperative), see § 1 ioe .
c 3. We may mention as instructive examples of involved series of sentences $\mathrm{Gn} 24^{14}$ and ${ }^{42}{ }^{45}$, and $\mathrm{Gn} 28^{64}$.

1 On the other hand, from the Semitic point of view the various kinds of compound sentences are not to be regarded as instances of anacoluthon, e.g. Gn $17^{14.17}$, nor even Gn $3{ }^{10}$ (cf. § 143).

## THE PARADIGMS.

In the paradigms of the verbs, those forms which are to be especially noticed by the beginner are marked throughout by an asterisk as model forms. Thus e.g. in the strong verb the 3 rd sing. fem. קָטְלָ per is the model for which likewise has only a vocalic afformative, and in the same way have a toneless afformative beginning with a conso-
 affix beginning with a consonant has the tone, stand by themselves.In the table of the pronouns the asterisk has a different meaning; see the footnote there.-The bracketed forms (from Paradigm G onwards) are merely analogous formations not occurring in the Old Testament.

The newly added paradigm $(Q)$ consists of forms actually found, belonging to various verbs.
A. The Personal

Nominative of the Pronoun, or Pronomen separatum.
 אַנִי, in pause

3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}m . \text { הוּא he. } \\ f . \text { היא she. }\end{array}\right.$
 pause (צָחָחני) צִאָחִחנו we.



Accusative of the Pronoun,
A.

Simple form.
?


让;



[in] $i_{;} i_{\top},(1 \div) ;[$ - $]$ them (ease).

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B．Strong

|  |  | Qal． |  | Niph＇al． | Piell． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf．Sing． 3 | 3．m．${ }^{\text {30p＊}}$ | 7 ${ }^{\text {³＊＊＊}}$ | ¢ipp＊ | ＊ | ，puep， |
|  | 3．f．${ }^{\text {a }}$ ， |  | ＊ | ＊יְקִטְלָה |  |
|  | 2．m．${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | ＊${ }^{*}$ |  |
|  | 2．$f$ ¢ קטטלִלְת | דָּבדִדֶּתּ |  |  | קִטַּלִ\％ |
|  | 1．c． | כָּלַּרְִּּ |  | נִקִטְטַלִּתִּ | ？poxen |
|  | 3．c．por | כַּבְדוּ | קטִנוּ | גִּקְטְלֵּ | ִִִּלִלּ |
|  | 2．m．${ }^{\text {2 }}$ ． | ＊ |  | נִקְטַלִּתֶם | קִּלַּלִּם |
|  |  | כּבּבְרֶּ | קְטָּנְּ |  |  |
|  | I．c．${ }^{\text {pun }}$ | כָּבַרִנוּ | \％ | נִקִטְלַנִ | ？ |
| Inf． <br> Inf．absol． | ＊ |  |  | לnent | ל－p＊ |
|  | לivp＊ |  |  |  | Sop，לinp＊ |
| Imp．Sing．Plur． | 2．m．לipp |  | ＊习习习 |  | ל累＊ |
|  |  |  | ＊ |  | ＊ppener |
|  | 2．m．קִטְלוּ |  | פִבּדֶּ | הּקָּטְּ | ַַּלְלֵ |
|  | 2．f．${ }^{\text {f．}}$＊ |  | ＊＊ּבְּדְנָּ＊ | ＊ |  |
| Impf．Sing． | 3．m．לippu＊ |  | 兄P？＊＊＊ | ל－p： | S促： |
|  | 3．f． | תִּבְַּּר |  | דֵּ | ת |
|  | 2．m． |  |  |  | תִּקטֵּל |
|  | 2．f．${ }^{\text {a }}$ ， | ＊ |  | ＊ | ＊－ |
|  |  | אכֶּבּרִ |  | אֶקָּל | אֵקַּל |
|  | 3．m．יִקְטִלּ | יִבְבּדּוּוּ |  |  |  |
|  | 3．f．${ }^{\text {a }}$ ． | ＊ |  |  |  |
|  | 2．m．$m$ ． |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2．f． |  |  |  |  |
|  | I．c．נִקְטֹל | נִבְבַּר |  | נִקָּטל | נִקְֵֵּל |

Shortened Impf．（Jussive）．

| Part．act． pass． |  | כָּבֵד | קוטij |  | ＊ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

Verb.

| Puial. | Hipkîl. | Hoph'al. | Hithpåèl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6-p* | *הִִִִיל |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | * |  | * |
| קַטִּלִּ | הִקִטַלִלִּ | הָקטטלִלִּ |  |
|  | הִקִטְלִלִּתִּ | הָהְטְלַלִּתִּ |  |
| קִטִּלִּ |  | הָקְטְלִים |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| קִ- |  |  |  |
|  | הִקִטְלַנְ |  |  |
| wanting. | *הקִטִלִ | wanting. |  |
| bop* | * הַpִֵל |  | * |
|  |  |  |  |
| wanting. | * | wanting. | * |
| wantin. | הַקִטִִילּ | wanting. |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| ל-pore* | - | ל-pָּ* |  |
| \% | תַּקִִִיל |  |  |
| 翟 | תּקִִַּיל | תָּטָּלִל |  |
| * |  |  |  |
| אֵקִטֵּ | אַקִטִיל | אָּטֵּ |  |
|  |  | דיקִטְלִוּ |  |
|  |  |  | * |
| תִּקטּלּ |  | תָּקְטִלּוּ |  |
|  |  |  | חִּתְקַּלּלְנָּ |
| נִקִטֵּל | נַקְטִיל | נָקִטל | נִתְחֵּל |
| לop-* |  |  |  |
|  | *ַַpִִיל |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

Paradigms
C. Strong Verb

Suffixes 1 Sing. 2 Sing. m. 2 Sing.f. 3 Sing. m.









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## D. Verbs primae gutturalis

|  | Qal. | Niph'al. | Hiphîll. | Hophial. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf. Sing. 3.m. | עַַָּר |  |  | 7-1/n* |
| 3. $f$ : |  |  |  |  |
| 2. $m$. | עָמַּדְתָּ | נֶ\% |  |  |
| 2. $f$. | עָמַדְתִּ |  |  |  |
| I. c. | ָָמַרְתִי |  |  |  |
| Plur. 3. c. |  | ֶֶעֶמְדּ |  |  |
| 2. m. | * |  | הֶעֶמַּדְתֶּ |  |
| 2. $f$. |  |  |  |  |
| 1. c. | עָמַדְנוּ |  |  |  |
| Inf. | **) |  | * |  |
| Inf. absol. | האֹףף | ה, |  |  |
| Imp. Sing. m. | 年* |  |  |  |
| $f$. |  |  |  |  |
| Plur. m. |  |  |  | wanting. |
| $f$. | * |  |  |  |
| Impf.Sing. 3.m. | - |  | - |  |
| 3. $f$. | תֶּחֵוּ |  |  |  |
| 2. m. | תֶחֵּוֵּ |  | תַתִִֵֵֶיד |  |
| 2. $f$. |  |  |  |  |
| 1. c. | אֵחֵֵּ | אֵֵֵָר |  |  |
| Plur. 3. m. |  |  |  |  |
| 3. $f$. |  |  |  |  |
| 2. $m$. | תֶּחֶןֶּ |  |  |  |
| 2. $f$. |  | תn/ |  | ת/ |
| I. c. | נֶוֶּ | ֵירֵָר |  | ניעָזֵ |

Shortened Impf. (Jussive). יִּטֵֵ

| Part. act. | ע'מר7 | 枹** |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pass. | עָמוּד |  |  |

E. Verbs mediae gutturalis.

Qal. Niphal. Piél. Pu'al. Hitlpáèl.


| Impf.Sing.3.m. บņịi** |  | \% | 713: | *י*תְּדּרֶד |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3. $f$ ת. | תִּזְחֵט |  | תֶּרַּךְ | תִּתְֵּּרֶּ |
| 2. m. $m$ ¢ |  | תֶּרֶרֶ |  |  |
| * | * | תֶּבְרִִִּ | [ | [ |
| אֶּשׁחט | תֶֶּׁחֵט | אֲבֵרָּ |  | אֶחְּבּרֶּ |
| Plur. 3. m. |  | יָּברִַּ | יִבְרִּ |  |
| 3. $f$. |  |  |  |  |
| 2. $m$. |  | תָּרָּרַּ | תֶּרְּרַּ |  |
|  |  | תִּבְרָּרְדֶה |  |  |
| I. c. | ִִּנְּחֵט | נִבְרֵך | נִלבַךְ | נִתְָּּרֶּ |

Impif: with Suff. יִשְחָהֵהּ

| Part. act. | نֶיחֵט | ִִּשְחָט | * | * |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pass. | שֶׁחּטּ |  |  |  |

F．Verbs

|  | Qal． | Niphial． | Pièl． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf．Sing．3．m． | ¢ | נִּex | newo |
| 3．$f$ ． |  |  | שuׁn |
| 2．m． | שׁׂen |  | \％ |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | nnimex | nnentex |
| I． c． |  | ִִּexemen |  |
| Plur．3．c． | שֶׁלִ |  |  |
| 2．m． |  |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | \％ | נִּ | שׁuburn |
| 1．c． |  |  |  |
| Inf． | nexp | ก | never |
| Inf．absol． |  |  |  |
| Imp．Sing．m． | newe | ก | ก⿹勹巳．＊ |
| $f$. |  |  | － |
| Plur．m． |  | n | \％ |
| $f$. |  | ח\％ | 成 |
| Impt．Sing．3．m． |  | n¢ep＊＊ | กֹewe |
| 3． 7 ． | חn | n |  |
| 2． m ． | nnen | n | ก |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | תnen | nin |
| I．$c$ ． | niven | nen | 2 \％ |
| Plur．3．m． | Mיִ： | ？ | ？ |
| 3．$f$ ． | － | ก | － |
| 2．$m$ ． |  | 为 | ก |
| 2．$f$ ． | nom | － | 隹 |
| I．c． | ִִּשְלח | ？ | \％ |

Shortened Impf．（Jussive）．

| Impf．with Suff． |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Part．act． pass． |  | ִִּשְׁלִחד | － |

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G．Verbs mediae geminatae

|  | Qal． | Niphial． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf．Sing．3．m． |  | － |
| 3．$f$ ． | סֵבְבָּ ， | ＊ |
| 2．$m$ ． | nicion | กiximex |
| 2．$f$ ． | סַּ1ֹת | נְסִּ |
| I．$c$. |  | ְ |
| Plur．3．c． |  |  |
| 2． m ． | ַַבּוֹתָּ |  |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  |
| I．c． | ַַּוֹנטּ |  |
| Inf． | 20＊ | 200\％＊ |
| Inf．absol． | סָבוֹב |  |
| Imp．Sing．m． | 20＊ | ִיִּ1 |
| $f$. | ¢ ${ }^{\text {¢ix }}$ | － |
| Plur．m． | לֹצּ |  |
| $f$. |  | ［ |
| Impf．Sing． $3 . m$ ． |  | 2．：＊ |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | ב® |
| 2． m ． |  | ב®9 |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | － |
| I．e． | Nֹֻ | צּู |
| Plur．3．m． | יִּ | 习包： |
| 3．$f$ ． | ［［n］ | ［ |
| 2． m ． | 品 | \％ |
| 2．$f$ ． | ［［］m［ | ［ |
| I．c． | ！נִּ | P19010 |

Impf．with Wāw consec．

| Impf．with Suff． | 隹 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Part．act． | לֵֹּ | İTİ |
| pass． | 20™＊ | （fem． |

or double ע．

| Hiphîl． | Hophial． | Po＇èl． | Póal． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 2＊ |  |
| ＊ | הוּסַַּהּה | סִוֹבְבָּ | ］［סוֹבְבָּ |
|  |  | סוֹבַבְתָּ | סוֹלַבַתּת |
| תְדִּבּוֹת | הוּסַּוֹתוֹת | סוֹבִבְתִּ | סוֹבַבְתִּת |
|  | ［ | סוֹבַבְּתִּ | סוֹבַבְּתִּ |
|  | הּ0ַַָּּ |  | קוֹבְבַּוּ |
| חֲסִבּוֹתֶם | ［ | סוֹבַבְּתֶם | סוֹבַבְּתֶּם |
|  |  | סוֹבַבְתֶּ | סוֹבַבְּתֶּ |
| חַסִּבּוֹנוּ |  | סוַֹֹבְנִ | סוֹבַבְנִ |
| 20ָד\％ |  | סוֹבֵב |  |
| הָדֵ | Then | סוֵֵֹב | ［0וֹבַ］ |
| 2＊＊＊＊ |  | סוֹבֵב |  |
| הָסֵֵּּי | wanting． | ［סוֹֹוֹבְבִי | wanting． |
| הָרֵּ习习习 | wanting． | סוֹבְבֵּ1 | wantig． |
| ［ |  | סוֹבֵּבְנָּ |  |
|  |  | יִוֹרָב | ］יִוֹבוֹב］ |
| תָּתָ | ］ | תְּוֹרֶב |  |
| 209\％ | 2－ |  |  |
| ［ |  |  |  |
| אָּ | אוּסַב］ |  | אִסוֹבַב |
|  |  | יִיוֹבְבוּ | יִסוֹבְבוּ |
| ＊ | 凩＊ | ［ |  |
|  | ת |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| נָסֵ | ניּסַב］ | נְסוֹבֵב］ | נְםוֹבַב］ |
|  |  |  |  |
| （יְסבְּכֶם） |  | ִיִוֹבְבֵּנִי |  |
| 20n＊ | מִסוֹבֵ |  |  |
|  | מוּסָ |  | טֶסוֹבָב |

H. Verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ פ.


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K. Weak Verbs,

|  | Qal. |  | Niph'al. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf. Sing 3.m. | ָּשַׁ |  | 2uxij* |
| 3. $f$. | regular. |  |  |
| 2. m . |  |  |  |
| 2. $f$. |  |  |  |
| I. c. |  |  |  |
| Plur. 3. c. |  |  |  |
| $2 . m$. |  |  | נִוֹשַׁבְּתֶּם |
| 2. $f$. |  |  |  |
| I. c. |  |  |  |
| Inf. |  |  | 20™* |
| Inf. absul. | בien |  | wanting. |
| Imp. Sing. m. | - |  |  |
| $f$. |  |  |  |
| Plur. m. | ¢ |  |  |
| $f$. |  |  |  |
| Impf. Sing. |  | * |  |
|  |  | תיִירֶ | ת |
|  | תֵֵֵּ\% | תִּירֶׁ | ת |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | הیֵֵּ | אִירטׁ |  |
|  | - יֶּex |  |  |
|  |  | [] | [ |
|  |  | חִּירֶשׁ |  |
|  | [ | [ | [ |
|  | ֵֵֵֵּב | ִִירֵׁ | ִִיְֵֵּב |

Shortened Impf. (Jussive).
Impf. with Wāw consec. בשֶׁ!

| Part. act. | יֵיֵב | 2 ${ }^{\text {2/ix }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pass. |  |  |


M. Weak


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0. Weak


Shortened Impf. (Jussive).

| Impf. with Suff. |  |  | ִיַמְצֵּנִי |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Part. act. | מֹצֵֵ | ִִמְצָ\| | טִמַצֵی |
| pass. | מָצוּא |  |  |

Verbs, к".

| Pual. | Hiphîl. | Hophial. | Hithpa'èl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| קרָָא [טֵצָא | הִמִצִיאֵ |  | ] |
| מִצִֵהּ | הִמְצִיאָה | התְִצְאָה | הִחִמְצְצָה |
|  |  |  |  |
| טִצִֵת | הִמְצֵאת |  | הִתְמֵּאת] |
| טִצֵּאתִי |  |  |  |
| מַצִּתי | הִמְצִּאיֵ |  |  |
| מֵצֵֵתֵּם |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| [ | הִמְצֵּאנּ | הִמְצֵּאנוּ |  |
| wanting. | הַמְצִיאֵ | wanting. | הִתְמַצֵ |
|  | הַמִצֵא |  | wanting. |
|  | הַמְצֵא |  | ] |
| wanting. | הַמְצִּיֵֵיֵ | wanting. |  |
| wantig. | הַמְצִיאנ3 | wanting. |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  | ] |  |
| ] | תַּמְצִּאִֵ | הּמְצָּ | תִּתְמֵּאֵא |
| תְּמְצָּ | תַמִצִיאֵ |  | תִּתְמֵַּּ |
| תִּמְצִִֵי | תַתְּצִּיֵּיֵ |  | ] |
| Nַpux | אַמִציֵ | אָּנְ |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| * |  |  | [ |
|  | תַּמְצִּ |  |  |
|  | תַּמְצֶּאנָּ |  |  |
|  |  | צִמְצָא | נִתְמַצֵּ |
| - |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | מַמְצִיא |  | ִִתְמַאֵ |
|  |  | - |  |

P．Wealc

|  | Qal． | Niph＇al． | Pièl． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf．Sing．3．m． | ה ${ }_{\text {a }}^{\text {a }}$ |  | －${ }^{\text {an＊}}$ |
| 3．$f$ ． | ก | \％ | ， |
| 2．$m$ ． | － |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | נִגְלִית |  |
| I．c． | 罜 | נִנְלִיֵיתִי | גִּלִּיתִ |
| Plur．3．c． | \％ | ִִיְּלד | 品 |
| 2．$m$ ． |  |  | ִַּלִּיֶֶם |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  | ［］$]$ |
| I．c． | \％ |  | 10， |
| Inf． | תibu＊ | nibuna | nibax |
| Inf．absol． | 塄 |  | 1－3 |
| Imp．Sing．m． | 䱚＊ | ה－3＊ |  |
| $f$ ． | ，${ }^{\text {an＊}}$ | 品㙰＊ | 为易＊ |
| Plur．m． | 9 |  | 寝 |
| $f$. |  | ［ | ［ |
| Impf．Sing．3．m． |  |  | － |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | त | 隹 |
| 2．$m$ ． | תִּתְּ |  | תִּגַּלּ |
| 2．$f$ ． | ， |  | ＊ |
| 1．c． | אֶּלִלה |  |  |
| Plur．3．m． |  | －יִּ |  |
| 3．$f$ ． | － | －${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
| $\text { 2. } m \text {. }$ |  |  | คู่า |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  | 为 |
| I．c． | נִגְלֶה | ［0］${ }^{\text {P／}}$ ］ |  |
| Shortened Impf． | לִ̧＊＊ | לasp：＊ | לג\％＊＊ |
| Impf．with Suff．יגְ |  |  | 吅 |
| Part．act． <br> pass． |  | ה，${ }^{\text {an＊}}$ | 管＊ |

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Q. Verbs

|  | 1. Sing. | 2. Sing. m. | 2. Sing. f. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf. Qal. 3. m. | נָּחַנִי |  |  |
|  | P. | P. ${ }^{\text {P/ }}$ |  |
| 3. $f$. |  |  |  |
| 2. $m$. |  |  |  |
|  | P. עֲנַנִּתָּ |  |  |
| 2. $f$. | Pi. |  |  |
| I. c. |  | רִִיתִיך | עִּנִתד |
| Plur. 3. c. | עָּטוּנִי | רָא์ | Pi. |
| I. $c$. |  |  |  |
| Imper. 2.m. | (נְֵֵּנִי |  |  |
| 2. $f$. | Hiph. הַרְדֵיִּ |  |  |
| Plur. 2. m. | Pi. |  |  |
| Impf. 3. m. | יִירִֵּי | - |  |
|  |  | - |  |
| 3. $f$. |  | תִּשְֶּׁ |  |
| 2. $m$. | תִרְאֵנִי |  |  |
| 2. $f$. |  |  |  |
| I. c. |  |  | אֶצִרֶך |
|  |  |  |  |
| Plur. 3. m. |  | Pi. |  |
|  | תִּ |  |  |

with Suffixes.

| 3. Sing. m. | 3. Sing. $f$. | I. Plur. | 3. Plur. m. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 匈 | רָּ | Yָּ | עָּשָּם |
| Pi. ${ }^{\text {כַ3 }}$ | Pi. |  | Hiph. |
| Pi. ${ }^{\text {בּטִּית }}$ |  | Pi. ${ }^{\text {דִּנִּתָּני }}$ | עִנִיתָם |
|  (רְאִיתִיוּוֹר | רִצִיִֹידָ |  | רִצִיתִים |
|  | רִאֹאָּ |  | ¢ |
| Pi. |  |  |  |
|  |  | Hiph. הַרֵֵֵנ | רִֵֵם |
| תֶּלוּ |  |  | Hiph. |
| (1) | (1) | Pi. | - |
| Hiph.品 |  | Hiph. | תִּרְדֵ |
|  |  |  | Pi. |
| ห <br> איצֵּ | אֵ\% |  | אְֵֵֵּּם |
| Pi. |  | Pi. |  |
|  |  |  |  |

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ll 21 In
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促 $158 b^{1}$
בּיִּיִִֶים $35^{b}$

24 e 24 בּּתִּרוֹן


 used abso－ lutely $117 c$ ，with a fol－ lowing genitive 117 c ， $127 b, c$ ；construction of its predicate， $146 c$ ；with a participle absol． $116 w ;$ with a negative $152 b$


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96 בּּלִל
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住 $103 k$
103 $h^{5}, k$
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跲 $85 t, 87 h$
ת 93 ee
$84^{2} 0$
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豝 35 g g
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ר
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ל origin $100 a$ ； in prohibitions 1070 ； with the Jussive log d； as negative answer $150 n$ ， uses of $\mathbf{I}_{5} \quad a-d, u$ ；mega－ living a single idea $1_{5}{ }^{2} a^{1}$ ； exceptional positions of for
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ל לָאט $72 p$


1148 ；with impf． $15^{2} x$ $93 d d$ $29 f$ לִבְרָם $67 p$
69c 69 לרָה



管 $90 n$
$28 b$

湤 $72 z$
$66 f$
w 67 לְהָפֵּר 66
保 67 dd



is written for sis $103 g$
ib in wishes，its construction $\mathrm{I}_{5} \mathrm{e}$ ；in con－ ditional clauses $159^{\circ} l, m$ ， $x-z$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { N } 23 i \\
& \text { טiל } 72 p \\
& \text { 药 } 91 k \\
& 86 f \\
& \text { לִילִ, לדילא formation }
\end{aligned}
$$

27．$w$ ，in conditional
$159 l, m, x-z$

for $48 i$ ；as a jection $105 b$
promo
－
Cf 1056
ת $93 x$
$53 q$
Moa
ת 19 d， אָָּחּה，אָמָּה，לָמָה punctuation $49 f$ ， in requests or $w$ often nearly $=$ lest


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| 130 $130 a^{3}$ ？מִימן（Siloam inscr．） $7 f$ <br> $69 m$ <br> $23 f$ <br> 呚 $48 i, 61 b$ <br> 年 $9 \mathrm{~m} k$ <br> 91 $n$ <br> 00 <br> 74g <br> $74 h$ <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> 的 $119 c^{2}$ <br> 促 $75 q q$ <br> $46 e$ <br> 55b，90m <br> 品管 72 ee <br> 管 $46 d$ <br> 99e，I19 $c^{2}$ <br> 翟 68 k <br> （199c <br> $64 i$ <br> $23 f$ <br> וֹ $119 c^{2}$ <br>  <br> ท $103 \mathrm{~m}, 1350^{9}$ <br> 促 $119 c^{2}$ <br> 解 $85 g$ <br> 號 $85 g^{1}$ <br> preposition <br> $1 a$ ；its punctuation <br> $2 b$ ；with suffixes <br> $3 i, m$ ；its meanings <br> $9 v-z$ ；partitive $119 w^{2}$ ； <br> gative force of $119 w-y$ ； <br> th the comparative | $133 a, b$ ；$=$ too much or too little for $133 c$ ；preg－ nant use in comparisons <br> ？ 55 b <br> מִּבֶּדֶד $119 c^{2}$ <br> $103 m$ <br> מִּpar．apoc．？ <br> 87 $f$ ；poet．for 90 m ， $102 b$ ，for $103 i$（in pause <br> מִגּּ twice poet．for $102 b$ <br> מיֵּ 85 h，$k$ <br> 3 3 מָסוֹרָה <br>  <br>  <br> （infin．） $45^{e}$ <br> $23 f$ <br> 號 $85 \%$ <br> 200 <br> 鹪 530 <br>  <br>  <br> （infin．） $45 d$ <br> 促 93 ss <br> מֵיֵת $133 e^{4}$ <br> nigc <br> $74 h$ <br> 號 92 g <br> 91 $n$ <br>  <br> 130 $a^{3}$ <br> 88c 88 מִצְרִיִּם <br> מָ $23 f$ <br> $9300{ }^{1}$ <br> 的 $93 q q$ | םip 85 g <br> מִּח（infin．） <br> 畆 $75 q q$ <br> משקִנְּך 93 ss <br> $90 n$ <br> מִקְרָ（infin．） <br>  <br>  <br> pens 93 ss <br> ค 93 ss <br> 65d <br> 22s <br> $69 m$ <br> 22s <br> 品 102 b <br>  <br> 85 <br> 85 <br> 75 rr <br> 22s <br> （infin． <br> $74 h$ <br> fixum $85 u$ <br> ת $80 \mathrm{~b}^{2}$ <br>  <br> （Inf．） <br> 119c <br> 的 67 cc習 $85 h$ <br> $92 g$ <br> 80d， <br>  <br> 促 $75 k k$ <br> $97 b^{1}$ <br> 83 93 מִּשְׁתּתֶּם <br> ת 72 c ${ }^{2}$ ， <br> $90 k$ <br> 品 $90 k$ <br>  <br> 64i |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |


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| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
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| 88s 93 נִוֶהֶם | ） 29 g |
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|  | \％ |
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| 隹 19 d | － |
| － | － |
|  |  |
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24•••• II9w
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23 . . . . 157 b N.
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| Judges | Judges |
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20. - $75 n, 144 p$

21 . . . . 120 c
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$24113 d$, $114 m \mathrm{~N}$., $13^{8} g$
${ }^{25}$ - ${ }^{2}$ - ${ }^{131} k$
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2. . $159 d d, 159 \mathrm{ff}$
S. $53 \mathrm{~m}, 69 \mathrm{v}, 74 \mathrm{l}$
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10 - . 135 a N.
25.... 141 h

44

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16 . - - 67 ee
$19 .-{ }^{150} a$
I $20 f, 57$ N., ${ }^{117}{ }_{6} x$

45 1. . . . . $67 p$
2. - III b N., 13 I g
9.... 152 u

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| 3 I | - 125c | 3 - . - $128 e$ | 4. - - 113z |
| 2 | - - 20 | 4. . . . . $68 f$ | 7-112h N., 144 c |

Hosea


## Joel

$1.2100 n, 126 e, 150 \mathrm{~g}$ $26 e$
$52 v$
$16 k$
47
$8 a$
3. . . . 152 g

26 . . . . 1140
. . . $125 k$


2I • • $49 k, 75 z$

Amos
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9. . II4r, 158 c
 126 b
$69 x$ 5In
16. . $118 n, 128 y$
-. . . 113q
163 c
$124 e$
$26 r$
13. - $135^{\circ} 0,144$ a



## Obadiah



Jonah
$13116 d, 122 t$, $135 p$


| Jonah |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & 114 . . \\ & 15 . . \\ & . \\ & 16 f \\ & 0 \end{aligned}$ |  |
|  |  |
| 2 |  |
|  | $117 \%$ |
| $g$ |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
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|  |  |
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|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
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|  |  |
|  | 4-72i, 128l, 134 s |
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|  |  |
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Micah
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Nahum
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3
$53 p$
$67 c c$

- $52 q, 67 c c$ $91 e$ $69 u$
I 45 p
15.. $110 a, 110 k$

17. . . . . $20 h$

Habakkuk


## 155 g

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3 2. ••• 75 mm
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8......131T
9. - . . . 117 q
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|  | 6. . . . 1220 | 9 II4 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ II4 $k$, II4 |
|  | 8 . . . . 116 g | 33 5. . . . .116s |
|  | 10. . 126 b, 141c | 7. . . 11820 |
|  | II . . . . . It6e | 8. . . . 145 e |
|  | 14. . . $49 k, 67 p$ | $10 . . . . .67 v$ |
| 0 | 3 - . . 135 m | 12. . . . 155 h |
|  | - • - ${ }^{\text {- }} 48$ d | $15 . . .126 b$ |
| 21 | $109 k, 126 h, 148 b$ | 34 |

Psalms


37 I. $5 \dot{h}, 35 b, 75 l b$ - $67 n$
9. . . . . $20 f$

14 ••••• 45 g

20. . . 290, 75 m

${ }^{31} \cdot$ ••• $145{ }^{k}$
38

- 55 e
$.124 e$ 6I c
3013 - . . . 10 h 75 gg $75 a a$ - 9300 . $108 f$ 290 N.

41 $29 q$
$109 e$ - $74 h$ $54 f$
42 2.. I22f, 155 g
4. - . M156N.


$$
10 . .68 g, 102 i
$$

43

44 - $102 l$
$124 b$
144 m
1190
$.156 f$
II9 $q$
$128 q$
27 ••••• 72 s
45
$.124 e$
3. - 3 ic, 154 a 5 N.

6 . . $150,290 \mathrm{~N}$.
7. • • • I28d
9... $87 f, 14$ I $^{d}$



Psalms

| 771 | 18 |  | $\begin{aligned} & .55 b, 93 b b \\ & . \quad 20 h \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 78 | 6 |  | $107 k$ |
|  | 15 |  | - 132 h N. |
|  | 16 |  | -. 746 |
|  | 21 |  | - . 66 e |
|  |  |  | . 75 u, 124 e |
|  | 54 |  | - $13{ }^{8} \mathrm{~g}$ |
| 80 | 8 |  | - 1318 |
|  | 11 |  | - $5^{2} q, 12 \mathrm{I} d$ |
|  | 14 |  | - ${ }^{\text {- }}$ n, 56 |
|  | 15 |  | - . $125 h$ |
|  | 19 |  | - - $72 t$ |

81 9.... $109 b$
83 12••••••116fo

84 9.... 125 h
$8629 v, 4^{8 i} \mathrm{~N} ., 61 f \mathrm{~N}$.

885 . . . . . 123 c 152 u
116 h

10. • • • 76
$\begin{array}{r}40 \text { • • • • } 64 \\ 48 . . . \\ \hline\end{array}$
$51 \cdot \bullet \cdot$
$52 \cdot$
5
00 2.. $107 \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{I} 52 \mathrm{r}$
$109 k$, III $t$ 118 r
$155 g$
$112 m$

- 73 d
$49 e$
13 ••••147c
$91 \begin{gathered}4 . \\ 6 . .67 p, 109 k \\ 6\end{gathered}$
$67 q$, 118i
9.... II7ii
$11 \cdot \bullet \cdot \cdot \quad 20 c$
9212 . . . . . 132 b
93 5. . . . . 75 x
94 1. . . $53 m, 69 v$

9.     - • • $93 q q$
$12 \cdot$ • 60.620 g
20.63 m
99 6.74i, 75 00, 119i
1003 . . . . $103 g$
$\begin{array}{ll}1015 \cdot 55 b, 64 i, 90 m \\ 1024 . & 67 u\end{array}$
10. . . . 116 i

| 14. |
| :--- |
| 19. |
| • |
| . |$\quad 106 e$

28 . $67 \mathrm{~g}, 135 \mathrm{a} \mathrm{N}^{1}$
103 1. . . . . $10 g$

| Psalms |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | 3- - 91e, 9 Il |
|  |  |
|  | 9. . . . 117 g |
| 104 | - . 106 g |
|  |  |
|  | 8 . . . . 138 g |
|  | II . . . . $90 n$ |
|  | $12 .$. . . $93 z$ |
|  | 18 . . $20 \mathrm{~m}, 126 \mathrm{x}$ |
|  | $20 . .109 h, 159 d$ |
|  | 21. . . . 114 p |
|  | $25 . . . .136 d$ |
|  | $26 . .$. . 138 g |
|  | 28 . . $47 \mathrm{~m}, 159 \mathrm{c}$ |
| 105 | 12. . . . 118 x |
|  | 28 . - . $53 n$ |
|  | 43-. . . . 781 |
| 107 | 23 - . 5 n, $17{ }^{\text {e }}$ |
|  | 43 - - . 93 m |
| 108 | 7. . . 144 m |
| 109 | - . 117 t |
|  | 3. - . $57 \mathrm{~N}^{2}$ |
|  | 10. . . . 648 |
|  | 13. . . . $75 y$ |
| 110 | . . $164 f$ |
|  | - 110 c |
|  | 3. . . . 141 c |
|  | 4. . . . 901 |
| 111 | . . 5 h |
| 112 | 1. . . . . 5 h |
|  | 8. . . . $164 f$ |
|  | - 120 g |
| 11 | $5 . . . .90 \mathrm{~m}$ |
|  | 7. - . 90 m |
|  | - . $90 n$ |
|  | - . $90 n$ |
| 114 | 1. . . $128 a^{\text {N }}{ }^{2}$ |
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| 118 | - . $90 n$ |
|  | - . . $16 f$ |
|  | - . $53 q$ |
|  | 7. . . $72 s, 912$ |
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|  | 15 . . . . $90 f$ |
| 118 | $520 \mathrm{~g}, 59 \mathrm{f}, 119 \mathrm{gg}$ |
|  | 7. . . 119i |
|  | 10. . . . 60 d |
|  | 11 . . . . . 67 cc |
|  | 13 - . . $113 p$ |
|  | $14 . . . .80 \mathrm{~g}$ |
|  | 18 - . 20 g , 59f |
|  | 23 - . - 74 g |
|  | 25. - - 53 m |
|  | 26. - . 59 e |
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|  | 18. . . . 75 cc |
|  | 28. . . - $\mathbf{1 r}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$ |



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2 1. . . . 135 b
-••• $145 u$
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$$
7500
$$

II4 6 $152 y$ $165 b$
36,67p
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$$
\begin{array}{r}
35 d \\
133 e
\end{array}
$$ $53 q$ 143 d $3^{2} l$

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The first edition appeared at Halle in 1813 (202 pp. small 8vo) ; twelve more editions were published by W. Gesenius himself, the fourteenth to the twenty first (1845-1872) by E. Rodiger, the twenty-second to the twentyeighth ( 1878 -1910) by E. Kautzsch. The first abridged edition appeared in 1896, the second at the same time as the present (twenty-eighth) large edition. The first edition of the 'Übungsbuch' (Exercises) to GeseniusKautzsch's Hebrew Grammar appeared in 1881, the sixth in 1908.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ First used by Schlozer in Eichhorn's Repertorium für bibl. u. morgenl. Literatur, $178 \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{p} .16 \mathrm{I}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ From Shem are derived (Gn $10^{21}$ fr.) the Aramaean and Arab families as well as the Hebrews, but not the Canaanites (Phoenicians), who are traced back to Ham (vv. $6.15 \pi$.), although their language belongs decidedly to what is now called Semitic. The language of the Babylonians and Assyrians also was long ago shown to be Semitic, just as ASsur (Gn $10^{22}$ ) is included among the sons of Shem.

[^2]:    On the importance of Assyrian for Hebrew philology especially from a lexicographical point of view cf. Friedr. Delitzsch, Prolegomena eines neuen
    ${ }^{1}$ For conjectures as to the gradual divergence of the dialects (first the Babylonian, then Canaanite, including Hebrew, lastly Aramaic and Arabic) from primitive Semitic, see Zimmern, KAT. ${ }^{3}$, ii. p. 644 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ In a wider sense all Jewish Aramaic is sometimes called 'Chaldee'.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Hommel, Grundriss der Geogr. und Gesch. des alten Orients, Munich, 1904, p. 75 ff., prefers to distinguish them as Eastern and Western Semitic branches. Their geographical position, however, is of less importance than the genealogical relation of the various groups of dialects, as rightly pointed out by A. Jeremias in Th.LZ. 1906, col. 291.
    ${ }^{2}$ First by Klaproth in Asia Polyglotta, Paris, 1823 ; cf. Leo Meyer in Nacinrichten d. Gött. Gesellschaft, 1901, p. 454.

[^4]:    1 According to Hilprecht, The Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania, i. p. II ff., the inscriptions found at Nippur embrace the period from about 4000 to 450 B. C.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Even now the language of some of the Bedawî is much purer and more archaic than that of the town Arabs. It must, however, be admitted that the former exalted estimate of the primitiveness of Arabic has been moderated in many respects by the most recent school of Semitic philology. Much apparently original is to be regarded with Noldeke (Die semit. Spr., p. 5 [ = Encycl. Brit., ed. 9, art. Semitic Languafes, p. 642]) only as a modification of the original. The assertion that the Arabs exhibit Semitic characteristics in their purest form, should, according to Noldeke, be rather that 'the inhabitants of the desert lands of Arabia, under the influence of the extraordinarily monotonous scenery and of a life continually the same amid continual change, have developed most exclusively some of the principal traits of the Semitic race '.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ That Hebrew in its present form was actually developed in Canaan appears from such facts as the use of yäm (sea) for the west, nigeb (properly dryness, afterwards as a proper name for the south of Palestine) for the south.
    ${ }^{2}$ The Graeco-Roman form of the name is not directly derived from the Hebrew 'עִבְרִ, but from the Palestinian Aramaic 'ebrāya, 'the Hebrew.'

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ We may also leave out of account the linguistically possible identification of the 'Ibriyyim with the Habiri who appear in the Tell-el-Amarna letters (about 1400 b.c.) as freebooters and mercenaries in Palestine and its neighbourhood.
    ${ }^{2}$ This monument, unique of its kind, was first seen in August, 1868, on the spot, by the German missionary F. A. Klein. It was afterwards broken into pieces by the Arabs, so that only an incomplete copy of the inscription could be made. Most of the fragments are now in the Louvre in Paris. For the history of the discovery and for the earlier literature relating to the stone, see Lidzbarski, Nordsemitische Epigraphik, i. pp. 103 f., 415 f., and in the bibliography (under Me), p. 39 ff . The useful reproduction and translation of the inscription by Smend and Socin (Freiburg in Baden, 1886) was afterwards revised and improved by Nordlander, Die Inschrift des Königs Mesa von Moab, Lpz. 1896; by Socin and Holzinger, 'Zur Mesainschrift' (Berichte der K. Sächsischen Gesell. d. Wiss., Dec. 1897); and by Lidzbarski, 'Eine Nachprüfung der Mesainschift' (Ephemeris, i. I, p. iff. ; text in his Altsemitische Texte, pt. 1, Giessen, 1907); J. Halévy, Revue Sémitique, 1900, pp. 236 ff., 289 ff., 1901, p. 297 ff.; M. J. Lagrange, Rerue billique internationale, 1901, p. 522 ff.; F. Prätorius in ZDMG. 1905, p. 33 ff., 1906, p. 402. Its genuineness was attacked by A. Löwy, Die Echtheit der Moabit. Inschr. im Louvre (Wien, 1903), and G. Jahn in Das Buch Daniel, Lpz. 1904, p. 122 ff. (also in ZDMG. 1905, p. 723 ff .), but without justification, as shown by E. Konig in ZDMG. 1905, pp. 233 ff. and 743 ff. [Cf. also Driver, Notes on the Hebrew Text of the Books of Samuel, Oxford, 1890, p. lxxxv ff. ; Cooke, op. cit., p. Iff.]

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Of this inscription-unfortunately not dated, but linguistically and palaeographically very important-referring to the boring of the tunnel, a facsimile is given at the beginning of this grammar. See also Lidzbarski, Nordsemitische Epigraphik, i. 105, 163, 439 (bibliography, p. 56 ff.; facsimile, vol. ii, plate xxi, 1) ; on the new drawing of it by Socin (ZDPV. xxii. p. 61 ff. and separately published at Freiburg i. B. 1899), see Lidzbarski, Ephemeris, i. 53 ff. and 310 f. (text in Altsemit. Texte, p. 9 f.). Against the view of A. Fischer (ZDMG. 1902, p. 800 f.) that the six lines are the continuation of an inscription which was never executed, see Lidzbarski, Ephemcris, ii. 71. The inscription was removed in 1890, and broken into six or seven pieces in the process. It has since been well restored, and is now in the Imperial Museum at Constantinople. If, as can hardly be doubted, the name $\begin{aligned} \text { (i.e. emissio) Is } 8^{6}\end{aligned}$ refers to the discharge of water from the Virgin's Spring, through the tunnel (so Stade, Gesch. Isr. i. 594), then the latter, and consequently the inscription, was already in existence about 736 в. c. [Cf. Cooke, op. cit., p. 15 fi.]
    ${ }^{2}$ M. A. Levy, Siegel u. Gemmen, \&c., Bresl. 1869, p. 33 ff.; Stade, ZAW. 1897, p. 501 ff . (four old-Semitic seals published in 1896); Lidzbarski, Handbuch, i. 169 f. ; Ephemeris, i. 10 ff. ; W. Nowack, Lehrb. d. hebr. Archäol. (Freib. 1894), i. 262 f.; I. Benzinger, Hebr. Archäol. ${ }^{2}$ (Tübingen, 1907), pp. 80,225 ff., which includes the beautiful seal inscribed לשעע עבר ירבעש from the castle-hill of Megiddo, found in 1904 ; [Cooke, p. 362].
    ${ }^{3}$ De Saulcy, Numismatique de la Terre Sainte, Par. 1874; M. A. Levy, Gesch. der jüd. Münzen, Breslau, 1862; Madden, The Coins of the Jews, Lond. 188ı; Reinach, Les monnaies juives, Paris, 1888.-Cf. the literature in Schürer's Gesch. des jüd.Volkes im Zeitalter J. C. ${ }^{3}$, Lpz. 1901, i. p. 20 ff.; [Cooke, p. $35^{2}$ ff.].
     Palestine and to those which dwelt at the foot of the Lebanon and on the Syrian coast, whom we call Phoenicians, while they called themselves כנען on their coins. The people of Carthage also called themselves so.

[^9]:    
    
    
     Lpz. 1909.]

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Whether these can be described simply as 'primitive Semitic' is a question which may be left undecided here.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ That already in Isaiah's time (second half of the eighth century b. c.) educated Hebrews, or at least officers of state, understood Aramaic, while the common people in Jerusalem did not, is evident from 2 K r $8^{266}$ (Is $3^{611}$ ).

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ The extensive use of Hebrew in the popular religious literature which is partly preserved to us in the Midrasim, the Mišna, and the Liturgy, indicates, moreover, that Hebrew was widely understood much later than this. Cf. M. H. Segal, ' Misnaic Hebrew and its relations to Biblical Hebrew and Aramaic,' in J. Q. R., 1908, p. 647 ff. (also separately).

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the name Masora (or Massora, as e. g. E. König, Einleitung in das A.T., p. 38 ff . ; Lehrgeb. d. hebr. Sprache, ii. 358 ff.), and the great difficulty of satisfactorily explaining it, cf. De Lagarde, Mitteilungen, i. gI ff. W. Bacher's derivation of the expression (in $J Q R$. $189 \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{p} .785 \mathrm{ff}$. ; so also C. Levias in the Hebrew Union College Annual, Cincinnati, 1904, p. 147 ff.) from Ez $20^{37}$
     rightly rejected by König, l. c. The correctness of the form הion (by the side of the equally well-attested form $\pi \underline{\square} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ invalidated by his arguments, nor by Blau's proposal to read $\mathrm{N}_{\boldsymbol{\sim}}$ (JQR. xii. 241). The remark of Levias (l.c.) deserves notice, that with the earlier Masoretes ת מסורת is equivalent to orthography, i. e. plene-and defective writing, and only later came to mean traditio.-G. Wildboer, in $Z A W$. 1909, p. 74, contends that as מסר to hand on is not found in the O.T., it must be a late denominative in this sense.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ On his independent attitude towards the Masoretic punctuation, see Delitzsch, Comm. zu den Psalmen', p. 39 .

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the oldest Hebrew grammarians, see Strack and Siegfried, Lehrb. $d$. neuhebr. Spr. u. Liter., Carlsr. 1884, p. 107 ff., and the prefaces to the Hebrew Lexicons of Gesenius and Fürst; Berliner, Beiträge zur hebr. Gramm. im Talmud u. Midrasch, Berlin, 1879; Baer and Strack, Die Dikduke ha-leamim des Ahron ben Moscheh ben Ascher u. ardere alte grammatisch-massorethische Lehrstücke, Lpz. 1879, and P. Kahle's criticisms in ZDMG. lv. 170, n. 2 ; Ewald and Dukes, Beitröge z. Gesch. der ältesten Auslegung u. Spracherhlärung des A. T., Stuttg. 1844, 3 vols.; Hupfeld, De rei grammaticae apud Judaeos initiis antiquissimisque scriptoribus, Hal. 1846; W. Bacher, 'Die Anfänge der hebr. Gr.,' in ZDMG. 1895, 1 ff. and 335 ff .; and Die hebr. Sprachwissenschaft vom 10. bis zum 16. Jahrh., Trier, 1892.

    2 A strong impulse was naturally given to these studies by the introduction of printing-the Psalter in 1477, the Bologna Pentateuch in 1482, the Soncino O. T. complete in 1488 : see the description of the twenty-four earliest editions (down to 1528 ) in Ginsburg's Introduction, p. 779 ff.
    ${ }^{3}$ Of the literature or the subject down to the year 1850 , see a tolerably full account in Steinschneider's Bibliogr. Handb. f. hebr. Sprachkunde, Lpz. 1859.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ This scriptio continua is also found in Phoenician inscriptions. The inscription of Méva always divides the words by a point (and so the Siloam inscription; see the facsimile at the beginning of this grammar), and frequently marks the close of a sentence by a stroke.

[^17]:    grounds for believing that the South Somitic alphabet is derived not from the Méša' character, or from some kindred and hardly older script, but from some unknown and much earlier form of writing.
    ${ }^{1}$ On the effect of the transitional mixture of earlier and later forms on the constitution of the text, see R. Kittel, Veber d. Notwendigk. d. Herausg. einer neuen hebr. Bibel, Lpz. 1901, p. 20 ff.-L. Blau, 'Wie lange stand die althebr. Schrift bei den Juden im Gebrauch ?' in Kaufmanngedenkbuch, Breslau, 1900, p. 44 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Not 176, as formerly held. Driver and Lidzbarski now read ערביה, correctly, not טוביה.

[^18]:    Oceano delle abbreviature e sigle ${ }^{2}$, Parma, 1883 (appendix, 1884); Ph. Lederer, Hebr. u. Chald. Abbreviaturen, Frankf. 1893; Händler, Lexicon d. Abbreviaturen (annexed to G. Dalman's Aram.-neuhebr. WB., Frankf. 1897); Levias, art. 'Abbreviations,' in the Jew. Encycl., i. 39 ff. ; F. Perles, ' Zur Gesch. der Albbrev. im Hebr.' (Archiv f. Stenogr.. 1902, p. 41 ff.). On abbreviations in biblical MSS. see Ginsburg, Introd., 165 ff.
    ${ }^{1}$ According to Blau, Studien zum althebr. Buchwesen, Strassburg, 1902, p. 167, properly a large $\mathcal{Y}$, called t'luya bocause suspended between the two halves of the Psalter, and then incorrectly taken for a littera suspensa.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. C. Meinhof, 'Die Aussprache des Hebr.;' in Neue Jahrb. f. Philol. u. Pädag., 1885 , Bd. 132, p. 146 ff. ; M. Schreiner, 'Zur Gesch. der Ausspr. des Hebr.,' in $Z A W$. 1886, p. 213 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Frankel, Vorstudien zu der Septuag., Lpz. 184 I, p. 90 ff.; C. Könneke, 'Gymn.-Progr.,' Stargard, 1885. On the transcription of eleven Psalms in a palimpsest fragment of the Hexapla at Milan, see Mercati, Atti della R. Accad., xxxi, Turin, 1896. [Cf. Burkitt, Fragments of . . . Aquila, Cambr. 1897, p. 13.$]$
    ${ }^{3}$ Numerous examples occur in Hieronymi quaestiones hebraicae in libro geneseos, edited by P. de Lagarde, Lpz. 1868 ; cf. the exhaustive and systematic discussion by Siegfried, 'Die Aussprache des Hebr. bei Hieronymus,' in $Z A W$. 1884, pp. 34-83.
    ${ }^{4}$ It is, however, doubtful if the LXX always consciously aimed at reproducing the actual differences of sound.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ The modern Samaritans, however, in reading their Hebrew Pentateuch pronounce invariably as $V$.

    2 The original value of $D$, and its relation to the original value of and $\dot{V}$, is still undetermined, despite the valuable investigations of P. Haupt, ZDMG. 1880, p. 762 f. ; D. H. Müller, 'Zur Geschichte der semit. Zischlaute,' in the Verhandlungen des Wiener Orient. Congresses, Vienna, 1888, Semitic section, p. 229 ff.; De Lagarde, 'Samech,' in the $N G G W$. 1891, no. 5, esp. p. 173; Aug. Müller, ZAW. 1891, p. 267 ff.; Nöldeke, $Z D M G .1893$, p. ıoo f. ; E. Glaser, Zwei Wiener Publicationen über Habaschitisch-punische Dialekte in Südarabien, Munich, 1902. pp. 19 ff .-On the phonetic value of $\mathbf{Y}$ see G. Hüsing, OLZ. I907, p. $4^{6} \mathrm{ff}$.

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[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ So at any rate at the time when the present punctuation arose．

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ In proper names the LXX often use the diphthongs ai and aú where the Hebrew form has $\hat{e}$ or $\hat{0}$. It is, however, very doubtful whether the ai and av̀ of the IXX really represent the true pronunciation of Hebrew of that time ; see the instructive statistics given by Kittel in Haupt's SBOT, on I Ch $1^{2.20}$.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Sanskrit, in the Old Persian cuneiform, and in Ethiopic, short a alone of all the vowels is not represented, but the consonant by itself is pronounced with short $a$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. especially Stade, Lehrb. der hebr. Gr., p. 34 ff.
    ${ }^{3}$ According to Stade, the employment of in for a probably took place first in the case of the locative accusatives which originally ended in $\boldsymbol{n}_{\bar{T}}$, as as
    ${ }^{4}$ The form contradicts the view of Oort, Theol. Tijds., 1902, p. 374, that the above instances from the Mê̆a'-inscription are to be read benhu, bahu, lahu, which were afterwards vocalized as beno, bo, $l_{0}$.

[^24]:     qètel, and several of these forms have also different senses.
    ${ }_{2}$ The most important of these differences are, ( $a$ ) those between the Orientals, i. e. the scholars of the Babylonian Schools, and the Occidentals, i. e. the scholars of Palestine (Tiberias, \&c.) ; cf. Ginsburg, Introd., p. 197 ff.; (b) amongst the Occidentals, between Ben-Naphtali and Ben-Asher, who Hourished in the first half of the tenth century at Tiberias; cf. Ginsburg, introd., p. 24 If . Both sets of variants are given by Baer in the appendices

[^25]:    to his critical editions. Our printed editions present uniformly the text of Ben-Asher, with the exception of a few isolated readings of Ben-Naphtali, and of numerous later corruptions.
    ${ }^{1}$ See Geiger, 'Massorah bei d. Syrern,' in ZDMG. 1873, p. 148 ff ; J. P. Martin, Hist. de la ponctuation ou de la Massore chez les Syriens, Par. 1875; E. Nestle, in ZDMG. 1876, p. 525 ff.; Wsingarten, Die syr. Massora nach Bar Helraeus, Halle, 1887.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ In early MSS. the sign for Qames is a stroke with a point underneath, i. e. according to Nestle's discovery (ZDMG. 1892, p. 41 I f.), Pathah with Holem, the latter suggesting the obscure pronunciation of Qames as $\delta$. Cf. also Ginsburg, Introd., p. 609.
    ${ }^{2}$ Instead of the no doubt more accurate transcription $\bar{a}$, $\hat{a}$ we have

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ After the example of the Jewish grammarians the expression, 'the vowel letter rests (quiesces) in the vowel-sign,' has become customary. On the other hand, the vowel letters are also called by the grammarians, matres lectionis or supports (fulcra).
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. T. C. Foote, The diphthong ai in Hebrew (Johns Hopkins Univ. Circulars, June, 1903, p. 70 ff.).

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ At least according to the Masoretic orthography ; cf. Wellhausen, Text der Bb. Sam., p. 18, Rem.
    ${ }^{2}$ Jerome (cf. Siegfried, $Z A W$. 1884, p. 77) in these cases often gives $\breve{a}$ for $\check{b}$.
    ${ }^{9}$ Cf. the remarks of I. Guidi, 'La pronuncia del setre,' in the Verhandl. d:s Hamburger Orient.-Kongr. of 1902, Leiden, 1904, p. 208 ff ., on Italian e for Latin $i$, as in fede $=f \hat{i} d e m$, pece $=p i c e m$.

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Delitzsch, Physiologie u. Musik, Lpz. 1868, p. 15 f.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. above, $b$, end. On Jerome's transliteration of o for $\bar{a}$, see ZAW. 1884, p. 75 .

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ These statements, in order to be fully understood, must be studied in connexion with the theory of syllables ( $\$ 26$ ) and Metheg ( $\S 16 c-i$ ).

[^31]:    1 In the Babylonian punctuation ( $\S 8 g$, note) $\bar{a}$ and $o$ are carefully distinguished. So also in many MSS. with the ordinary punctuation and in Baer's editions of the text since 1880, in which $T_{\%}$ is used for ol as well as for ${ }^{\circ}$. Cf. Baer-Delitzsch, Liber Jobi, p. 43. But the identity of the two signs is certainly original, and the use of $F$ for $o b$ is misleading.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ The same occurs frequently also in the Greek and Latin transcriptions of Phoenician words, e.g. מְלָּבָּ Malaga, gubulim (Schroder, Die phöniz. Spr., p. 139 ff.). Cf. the Latin augment in momordi, pupugi, with the Greek in $\tau^{\prime} \in \tau \cup \varnothing a, \tau \in \tau \cup \mu \mu \in ́ v o s$, and the old form memordi.
    ${ }^{2}$ See especially Yehuda Hayyûg, pp. 4 f. and izo f. in Nutt's edition (Lond. 1870), corresponding to p. 200 of the edition by Dukes (Stuttg. 1844); Ibn Ezra's Șahoth, p. 3; Gesenius, Lehrgebäude der hebr. Sprache, p. 68. The Manuel $d u$ lecteur, mentioned above, $\S 6 b$, also contains express rules for the various ways of pronouncing Šewâ mohile: so too the Dikduke ha-teamim, ed. by Baer and Strack, Lpz. 1879, p. 12 ff. Cf. also Schreiner, ZAW. vi. 236 ff.

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ Oort, Theol. Tijdschr. 1902, p. 376, maintains that 'the Masoretes recognized no distinction between Dageśs lene and forte. They used a Dageš where they considered that a letter had the sharp, not the soft or aspirated sound.' This may be true; but the old-established distinction between the two kinds of Dages is essential for the right understanding of the grammatical forms.
    ${ }^{2}$ Wãw with Dagey ( 7 ) cannot in our printed texts be distinguished from a wäz pointed as $\check{S u} \hat{u} r \nsucc q$ ( $\left.{ }^{( }\right)$; in the latter case the point should stand higher up. The $\mathfrak{q} \hat{u}$ is, however, easily to be recognized since it cannot take a vowel before or under it.
    ${ }^{3}$ Stade, Lehrb. der hebr. Gr., Lpz. 1879, pp. 44, 103, rightly insists on the expression strengthened pronunciation instead of the older term doubling, since the consonant in question is only written once. The coinmon expression arises from the fact that in transcription a strengthened consonant can only be indicated by writing it as double.

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the attempts of Christian scholars of the sixteenth century to express the Hebrew accents by musical notes, cf. Ortenberg, $Z D M G$. 1889, p. 534.
    ${ }^{2}$ At the same time it must not be forgotten that the value of the accent as a mark of punctuation is always relative; thus, e. g. 'Athnâh as regards the logical structure of the sentence may at one time indicate a very important break (as in Gn 1'); at another, one which is almost imperceptible (as in Gn $\mathbf{I}^{1}$ ).
    ' 'Above' in this sense means what comes before, 'below' is what comes after; cf. Bacher, $Z A W .1907$, p. 285 f.

    - Cf. Delitzsch on Is $40^{18}$.

[^35]:    Stud. U. Krit., 1904, p. 448 ff., G. Beer, $T^{\prime} L Z$. 1905, no. 3, and esp. A. Klostermann, Theol. Lit.blatt, 1904, no. 13, with whom Ginsburg agrees (Verhandlungen des Hamb. Or.-kongresses von 1902, Leiden, 1904, p. 210 ff .) in showing that the tradition with regard to the 479 or 480 uses of Paseq is by no means uniform. The purpose of Paseq is clearly recognizable in the five old rules: as a divider between identical letters at the end and beginning of two words; between identical or very similar words; between words which are absolutely contradictory (as God and evil-doer); between words which are liable to be wrongly connected; and lastly, between heterogeneous terms, as 'Eleazar the High Priest, and Joshua'. But the assumption of a far-reaching critical importance in Paseq is at least doubtful.-Cf. also the important article by H. Fuchs, 'Pesiq ein Glossenzeichen,' in the Vierteljahrsschrift f. Bibelkunde, Aug. 1908, p. 1 ff. and p. 97 ff.
    ${ }^{1}$ If the word in question has the tone on the penultima, Pastea is placed over it also, e.g inith Gn $\mathrm{I}^{2}$; cf. below, $l$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Wickes requires Gereáyim (and

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. as the source of this account of Mètheg, the exhaustive treatment by S. Baer, 'Mèthěg-Setzung nach ihren überlieferten Gesetzen,' in A. Merx's Archïv für die wissenschaftl. Erforschung des A. Test., Heft i, Halle, r867, p. 56 ff., and Heft ii. 1868, p. 194 ff. ; Baer and Strack, Dikduke ha-t? amim, p. 30 ff .

[^37]:    instead of p $P_{?} Q^{e} \cdot \dot{i}$, which was formerly common but is properly a past tense ( $=$ lectum est), see Kautzsch, Gramm. des Bill.-Aram., P. 8I, note.

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Barth, Etymologische Forschungen, Lpz. 1893, p. 15 ff. (' Lautverschiebungen').
    ${ }^{2}$ See in the Lexicon, the preliminary remarks on the several consonants.

[^39]:    in בָּלָה Jos $19^{9}$ for only clerical errors, as is undoubtedly כָּאָר Am S ${ }^{8}$ for ${ }^{8}$ (9) $9^{5}$ ).
    ${ }^{1}$ Frensdorff, Ochla $W^{\prime}$ ochla, p. 97 f., gives a list of forty-eight words with quiescent $K$.
    ${ }_{2}$ This awkward term is at any rate as suitable as the name Alef protheticum proposed by Nestle, Marginalien u. Materialien, Tübingen, 1893, p. 67 ff .
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Barth, Etymologische Sludien, Lpz. 1893, p. 1 ff.; Königsberger, in Zeitschrift f. wissenschaftliche Theo'ogie, 1894, p. 45I ff.

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Baer, ' De primarum vocabulorum literarum dagessatione,' in his Liber Proverbiorum, Lpz. 1880, pp. vii-xv; F. Prätorius, 'Ü̈ber den Ursprung des Dag. f. conjunctivum,' in $Z A W$. 1883 , p. 17 ff . (ascribed to an original assimilation of $\Omega$ or g ).

    2 ? 2 the Dager forte conj. when משׁׁn with a conjunctive accent precedes, Ex $6^{10.29}$, ${ }^{1} 5^{24}$, \&c.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ The ordinary reading $\mathfrak{n}$, הרִרִּ telligible if the 7 has Dagey.
    ${ }^{2}$ Also in $\psi 45^{10}$ read בְּיִּקְרוֹתִּ
    

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ So in Latin fel (for fell), gen. fellis ; mel, mellis; os, ossis. In Middle High German the doubling of consonants never takes place at the end of a word, lut only in the middle (as in Old High German), e g. val (Fall), gen. valles; swam (Schwamm, \&c., Grimm, Deutsche Gramm., 2nd ed., i. $3^{83}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Dageš forte is almost always omitted in $?$ when it is the prefix of the participle Pi'el or Pu'al, hence $\psi 104^{3}$ הthe roof Ec $\mathrm{IO}^{18}$ (cf. הJNTM the work, \&c.).
    ${ }^{3}$ According to some aliso in $\mathscr{F}$ in ${ }^{\top}$ Is $17^{10}$; but see Baer on the passage.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Delitzsch, Ztschr.f. luth. Theol. u. Kirche, 1878, p. 585 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Also L. Proverliorum, 1880, Praof. p. ix; and Dikduke ha-teamim, p. 30 (in German in Künig's Lehrgeb., i. p. 62).

[^44]:     and
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. terra and the French terre, the German Rolle and the French role; German drollig and French drôle. The omission of the strengthening shows a deterioration of the language. Arabic still admits of the strengthening of gutturals in all cases.

[^45]:    

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or as consonantal vowels (see above), and are then transcribed by P. Haupt, Philippi, and others, as $u, i$, following the practice of Indogermanic philologists. I for $\mathfrak{y}$ and, alone is a standing exception, see § 26 . I and § 104 e . On ' $\boldsymbol{\rightharpoonup} \boldsymbol{i}$ at the beginning of a word, cf. $\S 47 b$, note. According to $\S 19 a$, end, initial 1 in Hebrew almost always becomes ${ }^{9}$; always in verbs originally $l^{\prime \prime}$, , $\$ 69$ a. Apart from a few proper names, initial 9 occurs only in 1
    

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Abulwalid, Ben-Naphtali regarded the Yod $h$ in all such cases as a vowel letter.

    2 Instances in which no contraction takes place after ă are, صַימִיִִים I Ch 12;
     \&c.-On the suffix
     contraction of מָׁוֶת (ground-form mawt) death, constr. (ground-form 'ayn ['ain]) eye, constr. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ".

[^48]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Arabic, in such cases, often writes etymologically ${ }^{1}$ 릉, but pronounces galā. So the LXX But even in Arabic
    ${ }^{2}$ By tocales impurae the older grammarians meant vowels properly followed by a vowel letter. Thus $\underset{T}{ }$ ְְ $k^{e} t h a ̂ a h$ was regarded as merely by a licence for

[^49]:    ${ }^{1}$ In exceptions such as ${ }^{\text {שׁ丷 Gn }}{ }^{\text {Gn }} 4^{25}$ (where šāt is required by the character of the form, although the closed syllable has lost the tone owing to the following Maqqeph), Metheg is used to guard against a wrong pronunciation;
    
     usually (? always) are rendered toneless by a following Maqqeph. Cf. also
    

[^50]:    1 Analogous to this attenuation of $\breve{a}$ to $i$ is the Lat. tango, attingo; laxus, prolixus; to the transition of $\check{a}$ to $\check{e}$ (see above, a), the Lat. carpo, decerpo; spargo, conspergo.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Barth, Die Nominalbildung in den semit. Spr., p. xxix; A. Müller, Theol. Stud. u. Krit., 1892 , p. 177 f., and Nestle, ibid., p. 573 f.
    

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the apparent exceptions $\mathbb{N}$ $\boldsymbol{N}$ has entirely lost its consonantal value, and is only retained orthographically, are
    ${ }^{2}$ In this form ( $\$ 65 \mathrm{~g}$ ) the Dagč lene remains in the final Tāw, although a vowel precedes, in order to point out that the helping Pathah is not to be regarded as a really full vowel, but merely as an orthographic indication of a very slight sound, to ensure the correct pronunciation. An analogous case
    

[^52]:    ${ }^{1}$ Even Hebrew prose proceeds, according to the accentuation, in a kind of iambic rhythm. That this was intended by the marking of the tone, can be seen from the use of Metheg.-Jos. Wijnkoop in Darche hannesigah sive leges de accentus Hebraicae linguae ascensione, Ludg. Bat. 188ı, endeavours to explain, on euphonic and syntactical grounds, the numerous cases in which the usual retraction of the tone does not occur, e.g. . probably is to avoid a kind of hiatus; but cf. also Am $4^{13}$. Prätorius, Ueber den rückweich. Accent im Hebr., Halle, 1897, has fully discussed the nasog' ahor.
     described by Baer as 'error turpis'. -That an unchangeable vowel in a closed final syllable cannot lose the tone is shown by Prätorius from the duplication of the accent (see above, $\S 22 f$ ).

[^53]:    ${ }^{2}$ In most cases, probably on account of a following guttural or (at the end
    
     Is $65^{17}, \operatorname{Pr} 25^{3}$, where $\bar{a}$ has munah, are very irregular, but the lengthening here is probably only to avoid the cacophony săaphát ' 'it. In the same way
    
     a different explanation ; see $\$ 32$ c.-The theory of Olshausen and others that the phenomena of the pause are due entirely to liturgical considerations, i.e. that it is 'a convenient way of developing the musical value of the final accents by means of fuller forms' in liturgical reading (Sievers, Metr. Studien,
     grammarians'), is contradicted by the fact that similar phenomena are still to be observed in modern vulgar Arabic, where they can only be attributed to rhythmic:al reasons of a general character.

[^54]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the questions discussed here compare the bibliography at the head of $\S 79$.

[^55]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Philippi, 'Der Grundstamm des starken Verbums,' in Morgenländische Forschungen, Leipz. 1875, pp. 69-106.

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ Consonants which are not found together in roots and stems are called incompatible. They are chiefly consonants belonging to the same class, e.g. ג,
    
    ${ }^{2}$ In Hebrew they are comparatively rare, but more numerous in the other Semitic languages, especially in Ethiopic.

[^57]:    ${ }^{1}$ So expressly Nöldeke in $Z A W .1897$, p. 183 ff. ; but most probably it is to be read צֻל
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Hupfeld, 'System der semitischen Demonstrativbildung,' in the Ztschr.f. d. Kunde des Morgenl., vol. ii. pp. 124 ff., 427 ff.

[^58]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Phoenician and Moabite (inscription of Mêšá, line 1) it is written אנך, without the final '-. In Punic it was pronounced anec (Plaut. Poen. 5, I, 8) or anech (5, 2, 35). Cf. Schröder, Phöniz. Sprache, p. 143. In Assyrian the corresponding form is anaku, in old Egyptian anek, Coptic anok, nok.

[^59]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the inscription of King Mêša' (see § $2 d$ ), lines 6 and 27, we find for Nin, and in the inscription of 'Ešmun'azar, line 22, for Zenjirli inscriptions (see § 1 m ) both $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{N}}$ and 1 occur (Hadad i, l. 29).
    ${ }^{2}$ Also in tivelve places in the Babylonian Codex (Prophets) of gi6 A. D.; cf. Baer, Ezechiel, p. 108 f. ; Buhl, Canon and Text of the O.T. (Edinb. 1892), p. 240.

[^60]:    ${ }^{1}$ An original form han, proposed by Ungnad, 'Der hebr. Art.,' in OLZ. x ( 1907 ), col. 2 Io f., and $Z D M G .1908$, p. 80 ff ., is open to grave objections.
    ${ }_{2}$ In the Lihyanitic inscriptions collected by Euting (ed. by D. H. Müller in Epigraphische Denkmäler aus Arabien, Wien, 1889) the article is $ה$, and also in a North Arabian dialect, according to E. Littmann, Safa-inschriften, p. 2, Rem., and p. 34.
     pronounced asse, esse (also as, es, is, $y s, u s$ ), or-especially in the later Punic

[^61]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. W. J. Gerber, Dic hebr. Verba denom., insbes. im theol. Sprachgebr. des A. T., Lpz. 1896.
    ${ }^{2}$ For the sake of brevity, however, the meaning in Hebrew-English Lexicons
    

[^62]:    ${ }^{1}$ The term Conjugation thus has an entirely different meaning in Hebrew and Greek or Latin grammar.

[^63]:    1 This paradigm was borrowed from the Arabic grammarians, and, according to Bacher, probably first adopted throughout by Abulwalîd. It was, however, unsuitable on account of the guttural, and was, therefore, usually exchanged in later times for verb has the advantage, that all its conjugations are actually found in the Old Testament. On the other hand, it has the disadvantage of indistinctness in
     of ל op, commonly used since the time of Dank, avoids this defect, and is especially adapted for the comparative treatment of the Semitic dialects, inasmuch as it is found with slight change (Arab. and Ethiop. $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{S}}$ ) in all of them. It is true that in Hebrew it occurs only three times in val, and even then only in poetic style ( $\psi \mathbf{I} 39^{19}, \mathrm{Jb} \mathrm{I}^{15},{ }^{15} 4^{14}$ ) ; yet it is worth retaining as a model which has been sanctioned by usage. More serious is the defect, that a number of forms of the paradigm of leave the beginner in doubt as to whether or not there should be a Daces in the $B^{e}$ gadk ${ }^{e}$ phat letters, and consequently as to the correct division of the syllables.

[^64]:    ${ }^{1}$ But cf. such instances as Jer 485. In Arabic also, transitive verbs are found with middle $i$, corresponding to Hebrew verbs with $\bar{e}$ in the second

[^65]:    syllable. Hence P. Haupt (Proc. Amer. Or. Soc., 1894, p. cif.) prefers to distinguish them as verba voluntaria (actions which depend on the will of the subiject) and involuntaria (actions or states independent of the will of the subject).
    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Nöldeke, 'Die Endungen des Perfects' (Untersuchungen zur semit. Gramm. ii.), in ZDMG. vol. 38, p. 407 ff., and more fully in Beiträge zur sem. Sprachwiss., Strassb. 1904, p. 15 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ According to Noldeke, l.c., p. 419, the original Semitic termination of the Ist sing. Perf. was most probably k $\hat{u}$; cf. the Ethiopic qatalku, Arabic qataliu.

[^66]:    ${ }^{1}$ Many of these forms, which are uncommon in Hebrew, are usual in the

[^67]:    ${ }^{1}$ The terms absolute and construct are of course not to be understood as implying that the Infin. constr. ל forms the construct state (see § 89) of the Infin. absol. (לivp ground-form qă!âl). In the Paradigms the Inf. constr., as the principal form, is placed before the other, under the name of Infinitive simply.
    ${ }^{2}$ According to the remark of Elias Levita on Qimhi's Mikhlol, ed. Rittenb., 14 a, these feminine forms occur almost exclusively in connexion with the preposition ?.

[^68]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Infin. absol., like the Greek Infin., is also sometimes used for the Imperative ( $\S 113 \mathrm{bb}$ ). Cf. in general, Koch, Der semitische Inf. (Schaffhausen, 1874).
    ${ }_{2}$ In $H o p h^{\prime}$ al an Imperative is found only twice ( $\mathrm{Ez} 32^{19}$, Jer. $49^{8}$ ), and closely approximating in meaning to the reflexive.

[^69]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Cf} . \S 24 \mathrm{e}$. In favour of the above view of Qimhi may be urged the phonetic orthography $\mathbb{U N}$ (in Pr $18^{24}$ שיׁ), 2 S $14^{19}$ (unless, with Perles,
    
    
     IS $14^{49}$ is probably for
     corresponds to the Hebrew ' as the preformative of the Impf. Qal.
    ${ }^{2}$ This is also the proper gender of the plural syllable $\hat{u}, \hat{u} n$. In Hebrew, indeed, it is used in the 3 rd plur. Perfect for both genders, but in the kindred languages even there only for the masculine, e.g. in Syriac qetad $\hat{u}$, quadüun,
     qătălu, fem. qătálnă, Eth. qătălû, qătălâ.

[^70]:    ${ }^{1}$ This $a$ is, however, by no means restricted to intransitive strong verbs; apart from verbs third guttural ( $\$ 65 b$ ), it is to be found in $\left.\right|^{\prime \prime}$ פ and $y^{\prime \prime} y$, and
    
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Barth, ' Das $i$-Imperfekt im Nordsemitischen,' ZDMG. 1889, p. 177 ff.

[^71]:    ${ }^{1}$ [See details in F. B8ttcher, Lehrb., § 930 ; and cf. Driver on I S 2 ${ }^{15}$.]

[^72]:    ${ }^{1}$ Probably this $\bar{a}$ goes back to the syllable an, which in Arabic (see above, Rem. to $b$ ) is used for the formation of the 'energetic' mood, and in Hebrew (see the footnote to $\S 58 i$ ) often stands before suffixes.

[^73]:    ${ }^{1}$ Only in ist plur. do we find a few shortened forms, as $\underset{\sim}{\text { gen }}$ I $\mathrm{S}_{1} 4^{9 \mathrm{C}}$, parallel with cohortatives; and
    
     $\S 9 v$; on טלוכה, Ju $9^{8} K^{e} t h$., see § $46 e$.

[^74]:    ${ }^{1}$ The other Semitic languages do not exhibit this peculiarity, excepting the Phoenician, the most closely related to Hebrew, and of course the Moabitish dialect of the Més $a^{a}$ inscription, which is practically identical with Old Hebrew. It also appears in the inscription of i Noldeke, ZA. 1908, p. 379) where we find (רוֹאik and lifted up my hand, ויענני and he answered me, after a perfect of narration.

[^75]:    1 The plural forms in $\dagger$ also occur less frequently after wāzo consecutive; cf.,
     inever occurs after wāw consecutive.
    2 In the ist plur. ${ }^{\text {I }}$ Neh $4^{3}$ is the only instance in which the vowel
     treatment of the tone in the imperfect, imperative, and infinitive Niph'al, see § 5122.
    ${ }_{3}$ In usage the Hebrew wā̃o does duty for the Arabic fă (wāw apodosis, see § 143 l) as well as wă.

[^76]:    ${ }^{1}$ The irregularity in the tone of these perfects manifestly results from following conflicting theories, not that of Ben Asher alone.

[^77]:     whispering) of the Lord, \&c., is always written defectively.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Vollers, 'Das Qatil-partizipium,' in ZA. 1903, p. 3 I 2 ff.

[^78]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Halfmann, Beiträge zur Syntax der hebräischen Sprache, I. Stück, Wittenb., 1888, 2. St. 1892 (Gymn.-Programm), statistics of the Niph'al (Pu'al, Hoph'al, and qātûl) forms at different periods of the language, for the purpose of ascertaining the meaning of Niph. and its relation to the passive ; the selection of periods is, however, very questionable from the standpoint of literary criticism.
    ${ }^{2}$ But, like הדקָּ, only in connexion with imperfects, except Jer $7^{9}$. Barth is therefore right in describing (Nominalbildung, p. 74) both forms as later analogous formations (in addition to the original Semitic לְטְ), intended to assimilate the infinitive to the imperfect which it strengthens.

[^79]:    ${ }^{1}$ So in all verbs which end in Nûn, and in almost all which end in Lamed (Olsh. p. 538). Barth is probably right in supposing (ZDMG. 1894, p. iff.) that the vowels of the strengthened perfects have been influenced by the imperfect.
    ${ }^{2}$ As Mayer Lambert observes, the same view was already expressed by Ibn Ganâh (see above, $\S 3$ ) in the Kitāb el-luma', p. 161. Cf. especially Barth, 'Das passive Qal und seine Participien,' in the Festschrift zum Jubiläum Hildesheimer (Berlin, 1890), p. 145 ff.

[^80]:    ${ }^{1}$ This $\hat{\imath}$ may have been transferred originally from the imperfects of verbs $7^{\prime \prime} y$, as a convenient means of distinction between the indicative and jussive, to the imperfect of the strong verb and afterwards to the whole of Hiph'il; so Stade, Philippi, Praetorius, ZAW. 1883, p. 52 f.

[^81]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Wolfensohn, 'The Pi'lel in Hebrew,' Amer. Journ. of Or. Studies, xxvii (1907), p. 303 ff.

[^82]:    ${ }^{1}$ This subject of the verbal suffixes is treated here in connexion with the strong verb, in order that both the forms of the suffixes and the general laws which regulate their union with verbal forms may be clearly seen. The rules which relate to the union of the suffixes with weak verbs will be given under the several classes of those verbs.
     the sense of to attack), and according to some, in Is $44^{21}$; with $\dot{H}$ ithpa'ell Is $14^{2}$ (הִחֵנֵֵ to appropriate somebody to oneself as a possession); cf. above, § $54 f$, and § 117 w.
    ${ }^{3}$ On the cases where $\mathbb{M}$ is necessary, see § 117 e.
    ${ }^{4}$ The exceptions in Jer $7^{19}, \mathrm{Ez} 34^{2.8 .10}$ are only apparent. In all these instances the sharp antithesis between $\quad$ חָic (themselves) and another object could only be expressed by retaining the same verb; also in Ex $5^{19} \quad \underset{\sim}{\square}$ í after an active verb serves to emphasize the idea of themselies.

[^83]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Diehl (see above), p. 6I, כָ occurs only once with the perfect (see $\S 59 \mathrm{e}$ ), 7 times with the imperfect, but never in pre-exilic passages, whereas the accus. אתף occurs 40 times in Jer. and 36 times in Ezek.- הֶa occurs only once as a cerbal suffix (Dt $3^{26}$, unless, with Kahan, Infinitice u. Participien, p. 13 , אַפִּ
    

[^84]:    1 We have kept the term connecting vowel, although it is rather a superficial description, and moreover these vowels are of various origin. The connective $a$ is most probably the remains of the old verbal termination, like the $i$ in the 2nd pers. fem. sing. קְטַלִתִּיהּ. Observe e.g. the Hebrew form qetact-ani in connexion with the Arabic qatala-ni, contrasted with Hebrew qetālat-ni and Arabic qatalat-ni. König accordingly prefers the expression 'vocalic ending of the stem', instead of 'connecting syllable'. The connective $\bar{e}$, $\bar{a}$, as Prätorius (ZDMG. 55, 267 ff.) and Barth (ibid. p. 205 f.) show by reference to the Syriac connective ai in the imperf. of the strong verb, is originally due to the analogy of verbs was used as a connecting vowel first of the imperat., then of the impf. (besides many forms with $a, \S 60 d$ ), and of the infin. and participle.

[^85]:    
    ${ }^{2}$ On the $a \mathfrak{a}$ an original element of the verbal form, see $\S 58 f$, note.

[^86]:     (see e); but no example of the kind occurs in the O.T. In Is $5 \mathrm{I}^{2}$ the imperfect is used instead of the perfect with a suffix.

[^87]:    
     and $\S 48$ inote.

[^88]:     with Baer, Ginsb.

[^89]:    ${ }^{1}$ Verbs ל in which the $\boldsymbol{H}$ is consonantal obviously belong also to this class; e.g.

[^90]:     xxvii. I 36 if.
    ${ }^{2}$ An imperfect in $a$ (ש) ind given in the Paradigm, simply because it is the actual form in use in this verb.

[^91]:    ${ }^{1}$ P. Haupt on Ju $16^{5}$ in his Bible, compares the form of the Assyrian imperfect iddan or ittan (besides inadin, inändin) from nadanu=inJ. But could this one passage be the only trace left in Hebrew of nn imporf. in a from 1ת ?

[^92]:    ${ }^{1}$ So (partly following Ewald and Böttcher) A. Müller, ZDMG. xxxiii. p. 698 ff. ; Stade, Lehrbuch, $\S 385$ b, $c$; Noldeke, and more recently Wellhausen, 'Ueber einige Arten schwacher Verba im Hebr.' (Skizzen u. Vorarb. vi. 250 ff.). Against Bötcher see M. Lambert, REJ. xxxv. 330 ff., and Brockelmann, as above.

[^93]:    1 Sometimes both $P_{i}{ }^{i} \bar{e} l$ and $P_{o}{ }^{\prime} \bar{e} l$ are formed from the same stem, though with a difference of meaning, e.g.
     encompass.

[^94]:    ${ }^{1}$ For is as suffix of the 3 rd person a parallel might be found in isein， $\S 1000$ ，and probably also in the Nûn of the Phoenician sutfix נa ：cf．Barth， ZDMG．xli．p．643，and the note on § 1000.
    ${ }^{2}$ Also in Ez 66，instead of
    洞范．．
    ${ }^{3}$ According to Stade，Grammatik，§95，Rem．，the pronunciation with $\hat{u}$ ， since it also appears in Neo－Punic［and in Western Syriac，see Nöldeke，Syr． Gramm．，§48］，was that of everyday life．

[^95]:    ${ }^{1}$ So in the modern vulgar Arabic of South Palestine, ya'kul (he eats) becomes yôkul.
    ${ }^{2}$ On this $\bar{e}$ (originally $\mathfrak{i}$ ) as a dissimilation from $\bar{o}$ (originally $\breve{u}$ ), cf. § 27 20, and F. Philippi, in the Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft, xir. 178. The latter rightly observes that the existence of an original $u$ in the imperfect of in indicated by the form of the imperative Nָּל, the Arabic ya*kul and the Aramaic יאכִל, as well as by the fact that are fuund along with $!$ !.

[^96]:    1 The $e$ of the first syllable is really $\hat{\epsilon}$, not tone-long $\bar{e}$, since it is retained not merely before the tone, and in the counter-tone (e.g.
     plena of this $\hat{\hat{e}}$ occurs (with the exception of $\boldsymbol{p}^{94} \psi 72^{14}$, elsewhere pointed
     עㄱ․‥-Of the varions explanations of the $\hat{e}$ the most satisfactory is that of Philippi (ZDMG. xl. p. 653) that an original yălàd, for example (see above), became yilid by assimilation of the vowel of the first syllable to that of the second; this then became yélēd instead of yēlēd, in an attempt to raise the word again in this way (by writing $\hat{\epsilon}$ instead of $\bar{e}$ ) to a triliteral form.

[^97]:    ${ }^{1}$ A ninth ${ }^{\text {PT }}$ to $a d d$, is also to be included. In the Mêsa'inscription, 1. 2 I , the infinitive is written לספח (cf. 1. 29); hence read in Is $30^{1}$ (Nu $32^{14}, \mathrm{Dt} 2^{18}$ ) Jer $7^{21}$ corresponds "ö
    

[^98]:    ${ }^{1}$ The term $1 / ע$ was consequent on the view that the $W a \bar{w} w$ (or ' in the case of verbs $9 / \bar{y}$ ) in these stems was originally consonantal. This view seemed especially to be supported by the return of the $W \bar{a} w$ in Piēl ( 7 usually passing into ' as in ${ }^{\text {a }}$, cf. Arabic qáwwămă), and by certain forms of the absolute state of the nouns of such stems, e.g. מin to die. Hence in explaining the verbal forms a supposed stem qawam (in verbs ${ }^{\prime}$ original yaqwŭm, the infinitive absolute aip to original qawôm, the participle passive to original qawûm. It must, however, be admitted: (I) that forms like hence evidently secondary as compared with the pure Hebrew forms \&c. ; (2) that to refer the verbal forms invariably to the stem many cases to phonetic combinations which are essentially improbable, whereas the assumption of original middle-rowel stems renders a simple and natural explanation almost always possible. These $\begin{aligned} & \text { ע } \\ & \text { y }\end{aligned}$ stems are therefore to be rigidly distinguished from the real $1 / ע$ stems of the strong forms, such as $\pi \underset{\square}{7}$, view with regard to $\boldsymbol{y}^{7}$ ystems was taken by Samuel Hannagid (cf. Bacher, Leben und Werke des Abulwalid, p. r6); recently by Böttcher (Lehrbuch, § III2), and (also as to ע"ע stems) especially by Müller, Stade, and Wellhausen (see above, § $67 a$, note). On the other hand, the old view of $I$ and 1 as consonants has been recently revived by Philippi, Barth, M. Lambert, and especially Brockelmann (op. cit.).

[^99]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Aramaic, however, always ${ }_{T} \mathrm{P}_{\uparrow}$; also in Hebrew grammars before
     only in pause, e.g. קמִמְּ Mi $7^{8}$,
    ${ }^{2}$ According to Stade (Grammatik, $\S 385 e$ and $f$ ) the $e$ in $n$ is of the nature of a diphthong (from $a i$, which arose from the union of the vowel $i$, the sign of the intransitive, with the $\breve{a}$ of the root), and likewise the $o$ in ראוא, \&c. (from au). But of (from au) could not, by $\$ 26 p$, remain in a closed penultima (nemis, \&c.); consequently the 0 of these forms can only be tone-long, i.e. due to lengthening of an original $\check{u}$, and similiarly the $\bar{c}$ of מֵת to lengthening of an original $i$. This is confirmed by the fact that the $\bar{j}$ in
    
    

[^100]:    ${ }^{1}$ So in Arabic, prop. qa'im, since the two vowels are kept apart by the
     \&cc. (cf. Wright's Gramm. of the Aratic Language, and ed. vol. i. p. 164).
    ${ }^{2}$ (1) IS $6^{7}$ (cf. 2 Ch $6^{25}$ ) could only be an orthographic licence for
    

[^101]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Delitzsch's commentary on $\psi 3^{8}$.

[^102]:    1 That verbs $\exists^{\prime \prime} y$ and $" ע$ are developed from biliteral roots at a period before the differentiation of the Semitic languages is admitted even by Noldeke (Beiträge zur sem. Sprachwiss., Strassburg, I904, p. 34 ff.), although he contests
     tīve dropped.

[^103]:     form of $\quad$ which must necessarily be explained as a Qal, except the ptcp.
     instances of Hiph'il-forms, parallel with Qal-forms of the same meaning, are merely due to a secondary formation from the imperfects Qal יִּ \&c., which were wrongly regarded as imperfects Hiph'il: so Barth, ZDMG. xliii. p. Igo f., and Nominalbildung, p. 119 f.

[^104]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Wellhausen, 'Ueber einige Arten schwacher Verba' in his Skizzen, vi. p. 255 ff ., the the verbs, apart from some true $\boldsymbol{l}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ ל and some probable " "ל, are to be regarded as originally biliteral. To compensate for their arrested development they lengthened the vowel after the and radical, as the $1 " y$ verbs did after the ist radical. But although there is much to be said for this view, it fails to explain pausal forms like $\prod_{\text {( }}^{\text {( }}$ (see $u$ ). It seems impossible that these should all be late formations.
    ${ }^{2}$ In the Mêša' inscription, line 5, ויענו and he oppressed occurs as 3rd sing. masc. imperfect Pi'el, and in line 6, אענו I will oppress as ist sing.

[^105]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the Siloam inscription also (see above, § $2 a$ ), line 3 , הית may be read
    
    ${ }^{2}$ All these infinitives construct in $\hat{o}$, in the Pentateuch, belong to the document called E ; cf. $\S 69 \mathrm{~m}$, second note.

[^106]:    ${ }^{1}$ Possibly these examples (like the cases of $S^{e}$ ghôl in pause, see $n$ ) represent the view of a particular Masoretic school, which was intended to be consistently carried out.

[^107]:    ${ }^{1}$ To speak of these changes as a declension of the Hebrew noun, as is usually done, is accordingly incorrect.
     fem. Hoph'al; but משְֶׁ (so Baer and Ginsb.) is also supported by good authority.

[^108]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the list of Palestinian towns taken by Pharaoh Shoshenq, the feminine town-names all end in t. Cf. also the Mësa' inscription, line 3, הבמח זאח this high place; line 26, חifan the highway [see also Driver, Tenses, \& 181, note].

[^109]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Delitzsch (Assyr. Gram., p. 157 f.) the same is true in Assyrian of the corresponding qatl-forms. Without case-endings they are
     On the other hand, acc. to Sievers, Metrik, i. 261, Hebrew ground-forms probably have a twofold origin: they are shortened according to Hebrew rules partly from old absolute forms like kälbu, sifru, quadłu, and partly from old construct-forms like the Assyrian types kalab, sifir, qudư.
    ${ }^{2}$ On the other hand, Ungnad, ZA. 1903, p. 333 ff., rejecting all previous
     to facilitate the pronunciation. From qatlim arose qat ${ }^{\text {a lim }}$, then qatalim and finally $q^{e} t \stackrel{a}{l} \hat{\imath} m$. See, however, Nöldeke, 'Zur semit. Pluralendung,' $Z=1904$, p. 68 ff., who points out that the Semitic nouns fal, $f^{\prime} l$, fu'l with their corresponding feminines falla, \&c., on assuming the plural termination commonly take an $a$ before the 3 rd radical, but that no satisfactory account can be given for it. M. Margolis, 'The plural of Segolates' (Proc. of the Philol. Assoc. of the Pacific Coast, San Francisco, 1903, p. 4 ff.), and S. Brooks, Vestiges of the broken plural in Hebrew, Dublin, 1883, explain m ${ }^{\ominus}{ }^{\circ}$ ākhìm as a pluralis fractus.
    ${ }^{3}$ It is worthy of notice that St . Jerome also (cf. Siegfried, $Z A W$. iv. 76) frequently represents the vowel of the first syllable by a, e.g. gader, aben,
     רֶֶּ \& \& .

[^110]:    ${ }^{1}$ On this theory cf. Stade, Hebrüische Grammatik, § 199 b; De Lagarde, Übersicht, p. 57 f.; A. Müller, ZDMG. xlv, p. 226, and especially Philippi, ZDMG. xlix, p. 208.
    2 In St. Jerome's time these forms were still pronounced sadaca (צְדָקָ
     numerous abstracts of this form (e.g. even \&c.) are undoubtedly to be regarded (with Barth, Nominallildung, p. 87) as feminines of infinitives of the form qătal, the lengthening of the second syllable being balanced, as in other cases, by the addition of the feminine termination.

[^111]:    ${ }^{1}$ In $\mathrm{Na} 1^{3}$ only the $Q^{e} r e ̂$ requires $\boldsymbol{A}$ bina.
    ${ }^{2}$ On the fu'âl-forms (regarded by Wellhausen as original diminutives) see
     and E'רִּ hemorrhoids.

[^112]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or perhaps more correctly with Jacob, ZAW. 1897, p. 79, 'declaration', i.e. the part of the meal-offering which 'announces the sacrifice and its ohject'.

[^113]:    ${ }^{1}$ In ${ }^{1}$ ַt $5^{16}$, Neh $8^{10}$, the first syllable is artificially opened to avoid the cacophony ; on the $\mathfrak{a}$ of the second syllable cf. $\S 93$ ee.

[^114]:    ${ }^{1}$ Derenbourg (REJ., 1883, p. 165) infers from the above examples and a comparison of the Arabic 'usfur, sparrow (from safara, to chirp), that $y$ was especially empluyed to form quadriliteral names of animals.

[^115]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the connexion between all these endings see Dietrich's Abhandl. zur hebr. Gramm., Leipzig, 1846 , p. 5 I ff. ; Halevy, REJ. ı888, p. 138 ff. [cf. also Driver, Tenses, § 6, Obs. 2].
    ${ }_{2}$ So also always in the Mêsa inscription, e.g. line 2 號 thirty; line 4 מלכן kings; line many days, \&c.
    ${ }^{3}$ According to some this $\hat{\imath}$ is simply due to a neglect of the point ( $\S 5 \mathrm{~m}$ ), which in MSS. and elsewhere marked the abbreviation of the plur. ending.
     of endearment (cf. (פִּלוּבַי, אִחוּמַי) transferred to an appellative, but such an explanation is rendered unlikely by the meaning of this isolated instance.

[^116]:    ${ }^{1}$ But for $\operatorname{Pr} 28^{0.18}$ (which the Masora takes as two roads leading from the cross-ways) רְּרְדִּים is to be read.

[^117]:    ${ }^{1}$ On some remains of obsolete case-endings see $\S 90$.
    ${ }^{2}$ The same phenomenon of the tone may also be easily seen in other languages, when two words are closely connected in a similar way. Observe, for example, in German the natural stress on the last word in 'der Thron des Königs'; though here the other order of the words (inadmissible in Hebrew) 'des Königs Thron' exhibits the same peculiarity.

[^118]:    ${ }^{1}$ Brockelmann, Sem. Sprachwiss., p. II3, also takes it as such, láylā being properly at night, then nightsimply. Barth, however (Sprachwiss. Abhandlungen,
    

[^119]:    
     Mi $5^{1}, \& \mathrm{c}$.]
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Sarauw, 'Der hebr. Lokativ,' ZA. 1907, p. 183 ff. Ho derives the
     do with the old accusative.
    
    

[^120]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. the list in L. Kaila, Zur Syntax des in verbaler Alhüngigkeit stchenden Nomens im alttest. Hebr., Helsingfors, 1906, p. 54.
    ${ }^{2}$ The name שְׁמוּאֵל formerly regarded as a compound of and K , is better explained with Prätorius, ZDMG. 1903, p. 777, as a name of affection, for according to Prätorius,

[^121]:    ${ }^{1}$ See an analogous case in $\$ 87 \mathrm{~s}$. Cf. also the double feminine ending in the $3^{r d}$ sing. perf. of verbs $ה^{\prime \prime} \zeta, \S 75 i$.

[^122]:     participle Niph. of verbs $\left.\wedge^{\prime \prime}\right\}$ form an exception; cf. $\S 9300$.

[^123]:    ${ }^{1}$ A sort of detailed commentary on the following scheme of Hebrew declensions is supplied by E. König in his Hist.-krit. Lehrgeb. der hebr. Spr., ii. 1, p. 1 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ According to P. Haupt 'The book of Nahum' in the' Journ. of libl. Lit., 1907, p. 29, the $\theta$ in hence to be pronounced $\sigma \dot{\sigma} \phi \rho, \ddot{S} S_{\nu}(\mu \dot{\sim})$, a theory unknown at any rate to the Jewish grammarians.

[^124]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to M. Lambert, REJ. 1896, p. 21, $a$ tends to remain with labials; so in 14 cases out of 22 masculines, and in 3 out of 6 feminines.
    ${ }^{2}$ Probably only a theory of one particular school and not generally accepted, or at any rate not consistently carried out ; cf. König, Lehrgeb., ii. 22.

[^125]:    ${ }^{1}$ The proposal of Haupt (SBOT. 'Proverbs', p. 34, l. 44 ff.) to read \&c., does not seem to be warranted. The case here is quite different from that in $\operatorname{Pr} 1^{22}$ where the Masora requires ${ }^{2}$,
    

[^126]:    $1{ }^{1}$ חֵonly in Dn $12^{7}$ as constr. st., since in the asseverative formulae (cf.
     Amos $8^{14}$ ), $\Pi$ is a contracted form of the absol. st. (prop. living is Pharaoh ! \& $c_{\mathrm{i}}$ ). It is evidently only a rabbinical refinement which makes the pronunciation 끄 distinctive of an oath by God (or of God by himself), as in the regular
    

[^127]:    ${ }^{1}$ מַקרְשִׁיֶּם Ez $7^{24}$ for however, the part. Pi'el , is intended, without Dage§ in the 7 (according to § 20 m ).

[^128]:    ${ }^{1}$ עַשֹֹֹׁׁרֶת Astarte (plur. עַשְׁתָּתוֹת), which was formerly included among these examples, is most probably due to an intentional alteration of the

[^129]:    ${ }^{1}$ This explanation of תָח than the assumption that the fem. ending ăth is lengthened to compensate for the loss of the 3rd radical (so Wellhausen, Skizzen, vi. 258), or that the form is derived from 'ahi, the old-semitic constr. st. of the accusative, with $\Pi$ feminine (so Barth, ZDMG. 1899, p. 598).

[^130]:    ${ }^{1}$ So already Gesenius in his Thes. linguae Hebr., i. 83 f., and recently again Friedr. Delitzsch, Prolegg., p. 160 ff., Practorius in Kuhn's Orient. L.-B., 1884, p. 196; König, Lehryeb., ii. 38 ; while Nöldeke (ZDMG. 1886, p. 739 f.), against
    

[^131]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Nöldeke, Beiträge, p. 58, yaum, probably an extension of a biliteral word which has survived in יְיִי, , Barth, horvever, Orient. Studien,
     caused by the naturally close connexion and association of these plurals with שְׁשְׁוֹת , שְׁנֵי , שִָׁים years, to which they became assimilated in form. The
     from the Arab. yaum, is contradicted by the invariable spelling L [ , \&c., notwithstanding the spelling (? ? ? (cf. § $7 f$ ), and מִאן Ho 62. Cf. also the note on $\S 100 \mathrm{~g}$.

[^132]:    1 עַשׁׁת 1 , which remained for a long time unexplained, was recognized (first by J. Oppert) in the Assyro-Babylonian inscriptions in the form ištin or isten; cf. Friedr. Delitzsch, Assyrische Graminatik, p. 203, and P. Haupt, in the American Journal of Philology, viii. 279. Accordingly, עֲשׁׁׁun is a compound, like the Sansk. êkâdaçan, ë $\nu \delta \epsilon \epsilon a$, undecim (analogous to the combination of units and tens in the numerals from 12 to 19), and is used at the same time in the composition of the feminine numeral eleven. On the gradual substitution
     /ע עַשׁׁת the Priestly Code, and in passages undoubtedly post-exilic, so that it may very well be a loan-word from the Babylonian.
     expect 'a $a_{\text {särim }}$, Ye $b h \bar{a}$ 'im, te téä́im. Is this very unusual deviation from the common formation (see above, $\S 93 l, o, r$ ) connected with the special meaning of these plurals, or are these survivals of an older form of the plural of segholates?

[^133]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to the conclusions of König (De Criticae Sacrae Argumento, p. 6r, and Lehrgeb., ii. p. 2 I 5 ff.), the smaller number more commonly precedes in Ezek. and the Priestly Code, but the larger always elsewhere. S. Herner (Syntax der Zahlwörter im A. T., Lund, 1893, p. 71 ff.) arrives at the same conclusion by a full examination of the statistics; cf. also his remarks on König in $Z A W$. 1896, p. 123, and König's reply, ibid., p. 328 f.
    ${ }_{2}$ Cf. Kautzsch, Die Aramaismen im A.T. (Halle, 1902), p. 79 f.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. D. H. Müller, 'Die numeralia multiplicativa in den Amarnatafeln u. im Hebr.,' Semitica, i, Wien, 1906, p. 13 ff.

[^134]:     hence to be read mőhär (cf. מחר morning) ; but according to P. Haupt (notes to Eisther, p. 159) from יía

[^135]:    ${ }^{1}$ Is this $\square$ an instance of the locative or temporal termination (cf. especially צ'צ (צ) mentioned in $\oint 88 \mathrm{c}$ ? Noldeke, ZDMG. xl. p. 721, considers י'וימָ a secondary substantival form (used adverbially like sponding to the Phoenician and Aramaic Dyr. 'imāmā; cf. on the other hand, Konnig, ii. 255, who follows Olshausen in maintaining that the $\bar{a} m$ is an adverbial termination.
     was formerly included under this head, is better taken, with Barth (Nominalbildung, p. 352, Rem. 2), as a participle formed like עיוֹעָ
    

[^136]:    ${ }^{1}$ The separation of the $i 7$ at the beginning of $\mathrm{Dt} 3^{2}{ }^{\circ}$, expressly noticed by Qimhi (ed. Rittenb., p. 40 b) as an unique instance, is perhaps a protest against admitting a particle הـ.
    ${ }^{2}$ This form, which occurs in De $29^{14}$, 1 S $14^{39}, 23^{29}$, Est $3^{8}$, is textually very
     Nu 23 ${ }^{13}$. Most probably, with Stade, Gramm., § 370 b, and P. Haupt, SBOT Numbers, p. 57, line 37, we should read $\mathfrak{i} \mathfrak{F}$

[^137]:    ${ }^{1}$ König, Einleitung ins A. T., p. 393 (ef. also the almost exhaustive statistics in his Lehrgebäude, ii. 292 ff.), enumerates eight instances of phefore a word without the article in 2 Samuel and Kings, and forty-five in Chronicles.
    ${ }^{2}$ Jerome (see Siegfried, ZAW. iv. 79) almost always represents $\underset{\text { コ̣ }}{ }$ hy $b a$.

[^138]:    ${ }^{3}$ The question whether ins can also stand for the sing. ib, which Rödiger and recently W. Diehl (Das Pronomen pers. suff. ... des Hebr., p. 20 f.) and P. Haupt (SBOT. on $\operatorname{Pr} 23^{20}$, a contraction of la-hum $\hat{u}$ ) have altogether denied, must be answered in the affirmative unless we conclude with Diehl and Haupt that all the instances concerned are due to corruptions of the text. It is true that in such places as Gn $9^{26.27}$, Dt $33^{2}$, Is $30^{5}, \psi 73^{10}$ (all in or immediately before the principal pause ; in Dt $33^{2}$ with Zaqeph qa!on at least) ins can be better explained as plural (in reference to collective nouns); and in Is $53^{8}$ for hand, in Is $44^{15}$ its explanation as plural would be extremely forced. Even then there would remain-presuming the traditional text to be correct-
     (beside עֲלָיו), and especially Jb $22^{2}$. In all these places the most extreme exegetical artifices can only be avoided by simply admitting a singular suffix
     see § 91 $l$.
    
    ${ }^{5}$ The use of P here for "- (cf. above, d) might be due to euphonic
    

[^139]:     which is justly blamed by Ibn Ezra.

[^140]:    1 The reference of these forms to original plurals has been again expressly supported by De Lagarde, Symmicta, ii. IoIff. ; Nachrichten der G. g. G., 188i, n. 376 , cf. Mittheilungen, 1884 , p. 63 ; also $G G A .1884$, p. 280 f. According to Barth, $Z D M G$. xlii. p. 348 ff., and Nominalbildung, p. 375 ff.,
     analogy of לִפְ: , \&c., since the real plural forms ought to be \&c. ; cf., however, König, Lehrgebäude, ii. 305 f.

    2 On the use of this particle see $\& 119 \mathrm{~g}$.

[^141]:    1 Cf. P. Haupt in the Notes on Esther, $9^{2}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Incorrectly, e.g. in the Vulgate, Samuel autem mortuus est . . . et Saul abslulit magos, \&c.

[^142]:    1 With regard to the great but very natural preponderance of intransitive verbs (expressing an existing state), cf. the lists in Knudtzon (see abovo, p. 309, note 2), pp. II7 and 122 in the Danish text.
    
    

[^143]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. the similar use of ö̀ $\lambda \omega \lambda a$ ( $\delta$ '́' $\phi \theta o \rho a s, \Pi .15 .128$ ) and perii! On the kindred use of the perfect in conditional sentences, cf. below, $p$.
     used in the expression of an earnest desire that something may happen (but have me in thy remembrance, \&c.). Neither this passage, however, nor the use of the perfect in Arabic to express a wish or imprecation, justifies us in assuming the existence of a precative perfect in Hebrew. In Jb $21^{18}, 22^{18}$, also, translate the counsel of the wicked is far from mo. Cf. Driver, Tenses ${ }^{9}, \mathrm{p} .25 \mathrm{f}$. In Is $43^{9}$ either is imperative (see §5I 0) or we must read İDin which follows.

[^144]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is not always possible to carry out with certainty the distinction between continued and repeated actions. Some of the examples givon under $f$ might equally be referred to $g$.

[^145]:     is followed by the perfect. On Jos $4^{24}$ see above, § $74 g$.
    [ ${ }^{2}$ R.V. because he shall not see.]
    ${ }^{3}$ In $2 \mathrm{~K}^{26}{ }^{16}$ occurs with the perf. in a vivid presentment of the time when the fear is realized and the remedy comes too late. (In $2 \mathrm{~S}_{20^{6}}$, since a perfect consec. follows, read with Driver ימשִּ

    4 By this, of course, is not meant that these finer distinctions were consciously present to the Hebrew mind. They are rather mere expedients for making intelligible to ourselves the full significance of the Semitic imperfect.

[^146]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the few examples of cohortatives in the 3 rd sing., see $§ 4 \mathrm{~S} d$.
    2 But verbs $\left.\boldsymbol{N}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$, according to $\S 7 j l$, even in the cohortative, almost always
    
    [ ${ }^{3}$ R.V. let me sing.]

[^147]:    ${ }^{1}$ This does not include the cases in which the jussive is not logically dependent on a preceding imperat., but is merely co-ordinated, e.g. Gn 207, $\psi: 7^{14}, \& c$.

[^148]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the close relation between the imperative and jussive (both in meaning and form), cf. § $4^{6}$ and $\S 4^{8} i$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Like the threatening formulae in the Latin comic writers, e. g. vapula, Ter. Phorm. v. 6, $10=$ vapulare te iubeo, Plaut. Curc. vi. 4, 12.

[^149]:    ${ }^{1}$ On an apparent exception (the imperf. consec. at the beginning of whole books) see $\S 49 b$ note.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Is $45^{4}$, where the imperf. consec. is joined to an abrupt statement of the cause, and Jb $3^{67}$, where it is joined to an abrupt statement of the place.

[^150]:    is only beginning, becoming or still continuing, and hence in any case incomplete. The simplest view is to suppose, that the use of the perfect consecutive originated from those cases, in which it had to express the conclusion (or final consequence) of an action which was continued (or repeated) in past time (see the examples above), and that this use was afterwards extended to other cases, in which it had to represent the temporal or logical consequence of actions, \&c., still in progress, and thus in the end a regular interchange of the two tenses became recognized.

[^151]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also in $E z 44{ }^{12}$ (where Stade, ZAW. v. 293, would read the unusual tenses may have been intentionally chosen : because they continually ministered and so always became afresh . . .
    ${ }_{2}$ Driver, on this passage, rightly refers to $1 \mathrm{~S}_{2}{ }^{19}$.
    ${ }^{3}$ Am $4^{7}$ would also come under this head, if and the statement refers to the past ; מָֹעַ might, however, also be a perfect expressing positive assurance ( $\$ 106 \mathrm{~m}$ ), and the passage would then come under $s$.
    ${ }^{4}$ That tell them) may be seen from
     actions which happened only once.

[^152]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the various combinations with six. 272 ff .

[^153]:    ${ }^{1}$ In a number of the examples of this kind the protasis is already loosely connected by means of והיה, and hence some of them had to be already mentioned above, under $y, b b, e e$.
    ${ }^{2}$ In IS $24^{19}$ a question appears to be expressed by the perfect consecutive, for if a man find his enemy, will he let him go well auay? Probably, however,
    

[^154]:    1 Mayer Lambert, REJ. xxvi. 55, is probably right in pointing some of these forms as infin. abs. instead of perfects.
    ${ }^{2}$ In the whole of Qoheleth the imperfect consecutive occurs only in ${ }^{17}$ and 4 ${ }^{1.7}$. Several of the perfects with ! can no doubt be explained as frequentatives, e. g. $1^{13}, 2^{5.9 .11 .13 .15}, 5^{18}$, compared with $6^{2}$; but this is impossible in such passages as $9{ }^{14} \mathrm{ff}$. In Ezra, Driver reckons only six examples of the historical perfect with !, in Nehemiah only six, and in Esther six or seven.
    ${ }^{3}$ Stade in $Z A W$. v. 291 ff. and in Ausgewählte akad. Reden, Giessen, 1899 , p. 194 ff . and appendix p. 199, discusses, in connexion with $2 \mathrm{~K} 12^{12}$, a number of critically questionable perfects with ?. He considers that the whole section, $2 \mathrm{~K} 23^{4}$ from $\mathrm{N}_{\underset{\sim}{U}}^{\substack{~}}$ to verse 5 inclusive, is to be regarded as a gloss, since the continuation of an imperfect consecutive by means of a perfect with ! never occurs in pre-exilic documents, except in places where it is due to corruption of the original text. The theory of frequentative perfects consecutive (even immediately after imperfects consecutive), which has been supported above, under $f$ and $g$, by a large number of examples, is quite inconsistent with the character of the action in $2 \mathrm{~K} 23^{5}$ וֹתָּ and verse 14 וְשִׁבּר).

[^155]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or does $ו$, ונ, as a frequentative, imply fastening with several bolts? It is, at all events, to be noticed, that in $2 \mathrm{~S}_{1} 3^{18}$ also follows an imperfect consecutive.

[^156]:    ${ }^{1}$ The infinitive absolute can never be joined with a genitive or a pronominal suffix.
    ${ }^{2}$ Perhaps construct, or should be written 1

    3 וא IS I ${ }^{9}$ is impossible Hebrew, and as the LXX shows, a late addition.

[^157]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. A. Rieder, Die Verbindung des Inf. abs. mit dem Verb. fin . . . im Hebr., Lpz., 1872 ; also his Quae ad syntaxin Hebraicam . . . planiorem faciendam ex lingua Graeca et Latina afferantur, Gumbinnen (Programm des Gymnasiums), 1884. G. R. Hauschild, Die Verbindung finiter und infiniter Verbalformen desselben Stammes in einigen Bibelsprachen, Frankfurt a. M., 1893, discussing especially the rendering of such constructions in the Greek and Latin versions,

[^158]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Arabic also, the intensifying infinitive regularly stands after the verb, but in Syriac before the verb.
    ${ }_{2}$ Also in Ez I ${ }^{14}$ for the distorted form

[^159]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. in French, Le mal va toujours croissant, la maladie va toujours en augmentant et en empirant, 'continually increases and becomes worse and voorse.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Rieder, Quo loco ponantur negationes אל . . . (Zeitschrift für Gymn.Wesen, 1879, p. 395 ff.).
    ${ }^{3}$ In three passages even the infinitive absolute of another stem of like sound occurs; but in Is $28^{28}$ שincin is no doubt a mere textual error for and in Jer $8^{13}$, according to § $7^{2}$ aa, we should read
     corresponding in form to 'a $q \hat{a} m[\bar{a}]$ the Aram. infin. 'Aph'el of plo but there is
    

[^160]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. also such infinitives in French as voir (page so and so, \&c.), s'adresser..., se méfier des voleurs!
    ${ }^{2}$ Prätorius, op.cit., p. 547 : the extraordinarily common use of the infinitive form $q \bar{a} \nsubseteq \bar{o} l$ in the sense of an imperative, jussive, or cohortative has long since caused it to be compared with the Arab. fa'alli. It thus appears that the infin. $q \bar{a} t \bar{o} l$ in Hebrew could be used from early times as a kind of fixed, invariable word of command.
     read with Cornill the infinitives absolute $\underset{T}{ }$, \&c. The $\dot{K}^{e}$ thîbh probably intends
    ${ }^{4}$ In ${ }_{2} \mathrm{~S} 3^{18}$ the infinitive construct appears to be used instead of the
     ( $2 \mathrm{Ch} \mathbf{1 8 2 9}$ ), which was formerly included under this head (I will disguise myself and go into the battle), read
    ${ }^{5} \mathrm{In} \mathrm{Jb} 34^{18}$ in a similar question instead of the infinitive constr. we should rather expect the infinitive absolute (הָאָ M), unless with the LXX and Vulg. the participle with the article $\left(7{ }_{\sim}^{2}\right)$ is to be read.

[^161]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. $\$ 45 \mathrm{~g}$, according to which the close union of the $\}$ with the first consonant of the infinitive ( לְכִּ with a firmly closed syllable, as opposed to
     form. Quite distinct are the few examples where the infinitive with $\}$ serves to express time, as Gn $24^{63}$ ? לְפְin at the eventide (prop. at the time of the return of evening) ; cf. Dt $23^{12}, ~ E x ~ 144^{27}, \mathrm{Ju} 19^{26} ;{ }_{2} \mathrm{~S} 18{ }^{29}$ when Joab sent the king's servant.

[^162]:    ${ }^{1}$ This view is based upon the fact, that in numerous expressions of this kind (see the examples above) the ? may be omitted, and the infinitive con. sequently stand as an actual accusative of the object (see above, c). However, the connexion of the verb with the object is in the latter case closer and more emphatic (hence especially adapted to poetic or prophetic diction), than the
    
    
     mind as to hearkening. When connected with ?, the governing verb has a more independent sense than when it directly governs the accusative of the object.

    2 In almost all these examples the principal idea is properly contained in the infinitive, whilst the governing verb strictly speaking contains only a subordinate adverbial statement, and is therefore best rendered in English by an adverb; e.g. Gn $2 \mathbf{7}^{20}$ how is it that thou hast found it so quickly? (prop. how thou hast hastened to find!), Gn $3{ }^{17}$ wherefore didst thou flee secretly? So
    
     also $2 \mathrm{~S} 19^{4}$, Jer $\mathrm{I}^{12}$, Jn $4^{2}$, and the analogous instances in $\S 120 g$; also $2 \mathrm{~K}^{2}{ }^{1}$ thou hast asked a hard thing.

[^163]:     $17^{9}$,\&c., and numberless times in the legal parts of Exod., Lev., and Num.)-a pleonasm which is not surprising considering the admittedly prolix and formal style of the document.
    ${ }^{2}$ When Delitzsch on $\psi 104^{21}$, referring to $\mathrm{Hb}^{1}{ }^{17}$, explains the infinitive with $\}$ as an elliptical mode of expressing the coniugatio periphrastica (equivalent to flagitaturi sunt a deo cibum suum), this is, in point of fact, certainly applicable to this and a few other places mentioned above; but all these passages, in which the infinitive with $h_{\text {follows, }}$ are to be distinguished from the cases treated above under $h$, where the infinitive with $\}$ wilhout Wã w corresponds to a Latin gerundive, or is actually used to express the coniugatio periphrastica.

[^164]:    ${ }^{1}$ The great frequency of examples of this kind，especially in the poetical books，is due to a striving after what is called chiasmus in the arrangement of the parallel members in the two halves of the verse，i．e．in the instances given，the finite verb at the end of the second（co－ordinate）clause is parallel with the infinitive at the beginning of the first．In this way the verbal form necessarily became separated from thie ！，and consequently the imperfect had to be used instead of the perfect consecutive．Such a parallelism of the external and internal members of a verse is frequent also in other cases，and was evidently felt to be an elegance of elevated－poetic or prophetic－style．
    ${ }^{2}$ For examples of the accus．of the object with a pass．infin．，see § 121 c ．

[^165]:     original reading was undoubtedly ining, and the text is now in a state of confusion; verse $30 a$ should come before verse 29b. In Gn 19 ${ }^{29}$, ${ }^{25} 5^{26}$, Ex $9^{16}$, $13^{21}$, i S $18{ }^{19}$, Jer $41^{6}, \psi 42^{4}$ the subject, although not indicated, is easily supplied from the context. The infinitive in such cases is best rendered in English by a passive.

[^166]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Arabic, where the case-endings leave no doubt as to the construction, it is equally possible to say either qatlu Zaidin (gen. of subj.) 'Amran (acc.), literally Zaid's killing 'Amr, or qatlu'Amrin (gen. of obj.) Zaidun (nom. of subj.), or even el-qatlu (with article) Zaidun (nom. of subj.) 'Amran (acc. of obj.).

[^167]:    ${ }^{1}$ When, as in $\mathrm{Jb} 40^{19}$, the participle with the noun-suffix ivivi he that made him, also has the article (cf. § 127 i), the anomaly is difficult to understand, since a word determined by a genitive does not admit of being determined by the article.-No less remarkable is the use of the constr. st. of the participle
    
     follows the genitive of the object, עשׁׁׂה שַׁחר עִיפָּה maker of the morning into
     perhaps the perfect ( ${ }^{\prime}$ (i) should be read as in $6^{15}$. In Ez $27^{94}$, the ancient
    
    
    ${ }^{2}$ On the proper force of this accusative when retained in the passive con-

[^168]:    ${ }^{1}$ A jussive is practically to be supplied also in the formulae of blessing and
    

[^169]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the parallelism between the external and internal members, which appears here and in many other examples of this kind, see the note on § 114 r .
    ${ }_{2}$ The verb in question may either have been originally transitive, or only have become transitive by a modification of its original meaning. Thus the vocalization shows that (to have pleasure, usually with $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{\square}$ ) to desire, be full of something, also transitive) to fill, were originally intransitive. Cf.
     with an accusative; ; ֶָּׁ accusative (cf. further, under $u$ ). The examples are different in which verbs
     redire, Is $52^{8}$, take an accusative of the aim of the motion, while אil according to the Old Semitic usage, even takes an accusative of the person (at least in poetry, equivalent to ${ }^{-}$.בוֹא in prose).
    ${ }^{3}$ On traces of these endings, especially the remains of a former accusative ending in $a$, cf. $\S 90 c$.

    4 - אֶת (toneless owing to the following Maqqeph), and (with a tone-long
     cf. $\S 103 b$ : the underlying form $\bar{a} t h$ was obscured in Hebrew to ôth, shortened to ăth before suffixes beginning with a consonant and then modified to ${ }^{-\pi}$ whence finally the secondary form with the tone), Phoenician i.e. probably iyyäth (for the Phoenician form, cf. G. Hoffmann, Einige phönik. Inschriften, Göttingen, 1889, p. 39 f.), Punic yth or (according to Euting) pronounced even as a mere prefixed $t$, Arabic, before suffixes, 'iyya, Aram. $\Pi_{T}, n_{-}$.. It was no doubt originally a substantive, meaning essence, substance, self (like the Syriac yäth; on the other hand, any connexion with the Hebrew תiא, Syriac 'ätā, Arabic 'äyat, a sign, must, with Nöldeke, ZDMG. xl. 738, be rejected), but now united in the construct state with a following noun or suffix stands for the pronoun ipse, autós. In common use, however (cf. Wilson, 'The particle $\boldsymbol{K}$ in Hebrew,' Hebraica, vi. 2, 3, and the precise statistics of the use

[^170]:    1 According to the ordinary rules of syntax (cf. § i16t) we should translate, I heard men who said, \&c.

[^171]:    derived from a text which read the Hiph'il instead of נָּ instead of the artificial explanation what a burden (is, do ye ask ?) we should read with the LXX and Vulg. הַ צָּ
    
     Jer $5_{5}^{1}$, Ez $_{3} 6^{69}$.
    ${ }^{1}$ Dillmann, Grammatik der äthiopischen Sprache, p. 349.
    ${ }^{2}$ With regard to Biblical Aramaic, see Kautzsch's Grammatik des Bibl.-Aram., p. I51 f. In other ways, also, a tendency may be observed in later Hebrew to make use of the looser connexion by means of prepositions instead of the closer subordination of the noun in the accusative.

[^172]:    1 Cf. a very pregnant expression of this kind in $\psi 21^{19}$ for thou shalt make them (as) a neck, i.e. thou shalt cause them to turn their necks (backs)
     mine enemies unlo me as a back; cf. Jer $1 \delta^{17}$.

[^173]:    1 Analogous to this is the $\sigma \chi \hat{\eta} \mu a \kappa a \theta^{\prime}$ ö $\lambda o \nu \kappa \alpha i$ катd $\mu \epsilon ́ p o s$ in Greek epic pcetry,
    

[^174]:    ${ }^{1}$ In $\psi 2^{12}$ ? of respect (with regard to the way) ; see below, m.

[^175]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. above, § 100 c , on certain substantives which have completely become adverbs; and $\S 113 h$ and $k$ on the adverbial use of the infinitive absolute.
    ${ }^{2}$ It is, as a matter of fact, permissible to speak of the above examples as comparatio decurtata, but it must not be assumed that the comparative particle ?, which is otherwise regularly prefixed (see s), has actually dropped out.
    ${ }^{3}$ On the use of $\underset{:}{\mathrm{O}}$ as a prefix, cf. § 102 c .

[^176]:    1 Cf. Wandel, De particulae Hebr. Э indole, vi, usu, Jena, 1875.
    ${ }^{2}$ e.g. res in praeda captae, i. e. things taken as spoil; see Nägelsbach, Lat. Stilistik, § $123^{4}$. On the Hebrew $ヨ$ essentiae, see Hauschild in the Festschrift zur Einwoilung des Goethegymn. Frankf. a. M. 1897, p. 16.3.
    ${ }^{3}$ Other instances formerly cited here (Is $26^{4}, \psi 55^{19}$, where $\beth$ is used before the subject) as well as $\psi 68^{5}$ int
    

[^177]:    1 Similarly the force of a negative is sometimes extended to the parallel nember; see § $152 \boldsymbol{z}$.

[^178]:    1 Cf. the English colloquial expression $I$ will try and do it.
    2 Of a different kind are the cases in which ${ }^{2}{ }_{T}$ with a negative is co-ordinated with a verb to emphasize the non-recurrence of the action; cf. Nu $1^{{ }^{25}}$ they prophesied and added not, sc. to prophesy, i.e. but they did so no
    
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. the analogous examples in Kautzsch's Gramm. des Bibl. Aram., § 102.
    4 To be distinguished, of course, from the cases in which two equally important and independent verbs are used together without the copula in vigorous poetic imagery, e.g. Ex $15{ }^{9}, \mathrm{Jb} 29^{8}, \& c$,

[^179]:    ${ }^{1}$ When this is not recognizable either by the nota accusativi, or by its disagreement with the passive form in gender, number, and person, it

[^180]:    ${ }^{1} 1$ nemp is feminine only when it is a collective, denoting the persons in a camp.
    
     shoulder, also שְֶֶׁם woml, except in Jer $20^{17}$, are invariably construed as masculine.-

[^181]:     1, 80, \& $\mathbf{1}$. , the camel corps.

[^182]:    ${ }^{1}$ The plural form בְּקָרים from Neh ${ }^{1037}$ (where according to the Mantua edition, Ginsburg, \&c., even our sheep, is also to bo read; Baer, however, has 4 iskes , and $2 \mathrm{Ch} 4^{\mathrm{s}}$. In Am $6^{12}$ read, with Hitzig, בַּבּקָ

[^183]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. in the New Testament St. Mark 699 P. $\sigma \nu \mu \pi \delta \sigma \iota a \quad \sigma \nu \mu \pi \delta \sigma \iota a, \pi \rho a \sigma \iota a i \pi \rho a \sigma_{\iota} a i$ (Weizsäcker, tischweise, beetweise).
    ${ }^{2}$ These repetitions of larger groups of words belong entirely to the Priestly Code in the Pentateuch, and are unquestionably indications of a late period of the language. Of quite a different kind are such examples as Ez 166, where the repetition of four words serves to give greater solemnity to the promise, unless here, as certainly in $1^{20}$, it is a mere ditlography; the LXX omit the repetition in both passages.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Dietrich, 'Über Begriff und Form des hebr. Plurals,' in the Abhandl. zur hebr. Grammatik, Leipzig, 1846, p. 2 ff.

[^184]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mayer Lambert in REJ. xxiv. 106 ff ., enumerates no less than ninety-five words ending in $i m$, which in his opinion are to be regarded as pluralia tantum.
     virtutum; later grammarians call them plur. excellentiae, magnitudinis, or plur. maiestaticus. This last name may have been suggested by the we used by kings when speaking of themselves (cf. already 1 Macc. $10^{19}, 1_{1{ }^{31}}$ ); and the plural used by God in Gn $1^{26}, 11^{7}$, Is $6^{8}$ has been incorrectly explained in this way. It is, however, either communicative (including the attendant angels; so at all events in Is $6^{8}$, cf. also Gn $3^{22}$ ), or according to others, an indication of the fullness of power and might implied in (see Dillmann on Gn $\mathbf{1}^{26}$ ); but it is best explained as a plural of self-deliberation. The use of the plural as a form of respectful address is quite foreign to Hebrew.

[^185]:    
     not as a proper name but as a gentilic name ( $=$ the tribe of the Manassites), for
     in Ju i $8^{1}$ שָּ names in ${ }^{4}$ ) is even used adjectivally.

[^186]:     prince, is not to be attributed to any special archaism, but is to be explained from the fact that they belong solely to poetic language, which avoids the article;
     the passages we possess.

[^187]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the analogous use of the article before participles which have a verbal suffix, as in $\psi 18^{33}$, \&c., cf. above, § $116 f$.

[^188]:    ${ }^{1}$ But in Ex $12^{23}$ is either to be explained as the destroyer (now mentioned for the first time) according to $q$, or a particular angel is meant whose regular function it was to inflict punishments. Others again take ' הט even in Ex $12^{23}$ impersonally = destruction.
    ${ }^{2}$ In nearly all the above examples the presence of the article is only indicated by the vowel of the prefix $(\underset{\cong}{\cong}, \Im\}$,$) and might therefore be merely$

[^189]:    due to the masoretic punctuation. There is, however, no reason to doubt the correctness of the tradition. The same is true of the examples under $n$ and 0 .
    ${ }^{1}$ Cf., however, analogous examples in Liblical Aramaic in Kautzsch's Gramm. des Bibl. Aram., § $79 f$, e.g. Dn $\mathbf{2}^{\mathbf{1 4}}, 3^{2}$, \&c.

[^190]:    ${ }^{1}$ The same reason no doubt also favoured the omission of the article
     the article is omitted before עלשִּ probably only for euphony.

[^191]:    ${ }^{1}$ האָָּ sons,

    2 In Ezr $10^{17}$ instead of

[^192]:    ${ }^{1}$ Very rare, and only possible in very rapid utterance, are such exceptions
     the fear of the Lord, so also ${ }^{\text {ñ }}$ Dn $1^{4}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ In $\psi^{11} 4^{1}$ a second genitive is added even without the copula, but the parallelism of the members renders any misunderstanding impossible.
    ${ }^{3}$ In almost all these instances the two (or three) genitives form one closely connected whole, as heaven and earth, sons and daughters.

[^193]:    ${ }^{1}$ Halevy, J. A. xiv. 548, removes the difficulty by pointing

[^194]:    ${ }^{1}$ The latter term is preferred especially by Konig, Theol. Stud. und Krit., 1898, p. 528 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. in Latin a similar use of the genitive after iniuria (Caes. B. G. 1, 30), metus (hostium, Pompeii, \&c.), spes, and other words. In Greek, cf. єüvooa rî̀
    
    ${ }^{3}$ In the almost entire absence of corresponding adjectives ( cedar, a denominative from אָּ אֶר brazen are the only examples), the language regularly has recourse to the above periphrasis. On the form qātul, as expressing an inherent property, cf. § $50 f$; cf. also the proper name, -兰 ferreus.

[^195]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the other hand, in such passages as Is $36^{2}\left(2 \mathrm{~K}_{1} 8^{17}\right), \mathrm{Zc} 14^{4}, \mathrm{Ec} 8^{10}, \& c$., there is no apparent reason why the Masora requires the construct state instead of the absolute; hence forms of the absolute state, shortened in consequence of their close connexion.

[^196]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. the Latin integer vitae scelerisque purus; tristes animi, \&c.
     àvө́ámov (Bernlaardy's Syntax, p. 88). The Arab grammarians distinguish a twofold genitive, one of which may be resolved by ?, and the other by p [see Wright's Arabic Grammar, vol. ii, §75 ff.]. The de of the Romance languages is a development of the latter idea; the Gascon, however, says e.g. lu fille $\dot{a}$ Mr. N.. laying stress upon the idea of belonging to and not that of origin, as in la fille de ... of the literary language.

[^197]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Dt $23^{5}$ the construct state governs a sentence introduced by the
     I S $3^{13}$.
    ${ }_{2}$ Probably Gn $22^{14}$ is also to be so explained (contrary to the accents), and certainly (contrary to the very unnatural division of the verses) 2 Ch $3^{0^{18}}$,
     pardon every one that setteth his haart to seek God. [See Wickes' Accentuation of the Twenty-one Prose Books of the Old Testament, p. 140.]
    ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Cf}$. Na $2^{9}$ ִימֵי דִיא, usually explained to mean from the days that she hath been, but the text is evidently very corrupt.
    ${ }^{4}$ So also Is $28^{18}$ a corner stone of the preciousness (ת) is a substantice not an adjective) of a fixed foundation, i.e. a precious corner stone of surest founda-
    

[^198]:    ${ }^{1}$ On certain uses of apposition peculiar to the Semitic languages, cf. the exhaustive discussion by Fleischer, 'Ueber einige Arten der Nominalapposition im Arab.' (Kleine Schriften; ii. 16); [and see also Driver, Tenses, Appendix IV.]
    ${ }_{2}$ Unless it is to be translated thou gavest us intoxication to drink as wine (and so in $1 \mathrm{~K}{ }^{22^{27}}$ give him affiction to eat as bread, \&c.); cf. $\psi 80^{6}$ and the analogous examples of apposition in the form of a second accusative in $\$ 117 \mathrm{kk}$. More-

[^199]:    
     state) we cannot but ask whether the Masora does not intend the $\mu$ in $\psi 60^{\circ}$ to be taken as construct state (for which elsewhere $\zeta^{\prime \prime}$.).

    1 Cf. also the examples treated above in § 127 h .
     before), see § 88 b.

[^200]:    ${ }^{1}$ Without this assumption it would be inconceivable that יהוה אֲלֵּי צְבָאוֹת should not have been written; that the author of these Psalms regarded nikikiriceady as an independent name of God (so Gesenius and Olshausen) is out of the question.
    ${ }^{2}$ On the expression of attributive ideas by substantives, cf. above, $\S 127 \mathrm{~h}$, and $\S 1280$, with the note ; $\S 135 x$ and $\S 141 c$ (substantives for adjectives as predicates of noun clauses) and $\S 152 u$ (periphrases for negative qualities). On the use of the feminine of adjectives (and participles) to express abstract ideas, see $\AA_{122} \mathrm{q}$. It remains to mention further the employment (mostly only in poetry) of certain epithets in place of the substantives to which the quality in question belongs; e. g. אָבִיר the strong one, i.e. God ; אִִַּיר the strong one, i.e. the bull (in Jer $8^{16}$, \&c., the horse) ; $ל_{p-1}$ swift = the runner (of the horse,
     Gn $49^{29}$ ) ; רֹבֵץ a croucher, i.e. a croucling beast of prey, Gn $4^{7}$. Cf. also int (gravis, augustus) and נָשִׁיא (elatus?), i.e. a prince. The use of adjectives and participles for substantives is much more extensive in Arabic. In Greek and Latin poetical language cf. such examples as iर $\gamma \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\prime}=$ the sea ; merum for rinum, \&o.

[^201]:    ${ }^{1}$ But it is impossible to take תְמִימם in E2 $46^{6}$ as an attribute of probably it is a correction intended to harmonize the passage with Nu $28^{11}$; where two young bullocks are required.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf, 1 S 2818, where as a second accusative; conversely in IS 19 ${ }^{13.16}$, a singular suffix refers back

[^202]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. the Latin ablative with the comparative; also the etymology of such words as eximius, egregius, and the Homeric ék mávtav $\mu \dot{d} \lambda \iota \sigma \tau a$, II. 4, 96 ; $\dot{\boldsymbol{e}} \kappa$ $\pi а \sigma_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \omega \nu, 18,43 \mathrm{I}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ On the other haud, the phrase - צָדָ מִן expresses not a comparison, but only a relation existing between one person and another; thus, in Gn $38^{26}$
     $\dot{\operatorname{Pr}}{ }_{1} 7^{12}$ rather (to meet with so and so) than... is expressed by ${ }^{-1}$ before the second member.
    ${ }^{8}$ Cf. also $2 \mathrm{~K} 4^{3}$, where the idea of doing sometling too little is paraphrased by the Hiph.

    4 With this comparatio decurtata, cf. the still bolder pregnant construction in $\psi 4^{8}$, מיעֶת greater gladness than at the time, \&c.

[^203]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf．also $\begin{gathered}\text { jub the one above，i．e．the Most High．}\end{gathered}$
    2 God of gods，and Lord of lords，just as the supreme god of the Babylonians is called bēl bēl̄̄（Tiele，Compend．der Rel．－Gesch．，p．87）．

[^204]:    ${ }^{1}$ But
    ${ }^{2}$ Probably also manifold.
    

[^205]:    ${ }^{1}$ Analogous to this is the resumption of a noun dependent on a preposition, by means of a pronominal suffix united with the same preposition, e.g. Gn ${ }^{17}$,
    
    

[^206]:    1 As in Luther's Bible jm (ihm), jr (ihr) for sich, and in our version him, her for himself, herself.
    ${ }^{2}$ Niph'al according to 55 I e (like Hithpa'el according to § $54 f$ ) may also include the dative of the reflexive pronoun.
    ${ }^{3}$ Like the substantival genitive, according to $\S 129 h$, the possessivo
     ? ? the substantive, which should take a genitive suffix, is already followed by a genitive, e.g. $1 \mathrm{~S} 17^{40}$. In this case, however, the suffix also is sometimes attached pleonastically, e.g. Ct $1^{6}$ ºn my vincyard, which belongs to me. Cf. Ct $3^{7}$, and the analogous pleonasms in $2 \mathrm{~S} 22^{2}$ (but see $\psi{ }_{1} S^{2}$ ) and $\psi \mathbf{2 7}^{2}$.

[^207]:     my cup, the silver cup.
    ${ }^{2}$ According to Diehl (see the title at the head of $\S 9 \mathrm{I} a$ ), who adduces numerous instances on pp. 44 ff ., 54 ff ., 67 f ., many of these cases may be set down to corruption of the traditional text, while the sudden (and sometimes repeated) change of gender in suffixes is mainly due to the influence exercised on the copyists by the Mishnic and popular Aramaic dialects, neither of which recosnizes such distinctions. Such influence, however, is insufficient to explain the large number of instances of this weakening, occurring even in the earlier documents.
    ${ }^{3}$ The Masora reckons six instances of (Ju $1{ }^{14}{ }^{94}$, where, however, the text is most probably corrupt), Ex $25^{15}$ (?), Lv $6^{8}, 7^{18}, 27^{9}$, Jos $1^{7}$; almost all these passages can, however, be easily explained in other ways.

[^208]:    ${ }^{1}$ On הֶ ה ה ה and standing separately as determinate in themselves, see §125i. On the use of determinate demonstratives as adjectives, see § $126 u$.
    ${ }^{2}$ On the other hand, it is very questionable whether Is $23^{13}$ ( explanation, simply as a prefixed demonstrative particle (the sea yonder, \&c.).
    
     where the subject, this is the sea. Is $23^{19}, \mathrm{Ju} 5^{5}, \mathrm{IK} \mathrm{K}^{14}$, and $\psi 68^{9}$ might also be explained in the same way ; but in these passages the text is almost certainly

[^209]:    ${ }^{1}$ The etymology of the word is still a matter of dispute. Against the identification of Aram. אֲחַר place, trace, Nöldeke urges (ZDMG. xl. 738) that the expression trace of . . . could hardly have developed into the relative conjunction, while the meaning of place has been evolved only in Aramaic, where the word is never used as a relative. According to others, is really a compound of several pronominal roots; cf. Sparling, Die Nola relations om Hebräischen, Leipzig, 1876, and König, Lehrgeb., ii. 323 ff., who follows Ewald and Botcher in referring
     is an original substantive, to be distinguished from $\cdot \underset{\sim}{6}$ and (an original pronominal stem), but used in Hebrew as a not relations, or (as ind and $i_{i}$ are also sometimes used, see below, $g$ and $h$ ) simply for the relative pronoun. Baumann (op. cit., p. 44) sees in the Assyrian sa, Phoenician, Punic, and Hebrew שי゙, the ground-forms, of which the Phoenician and Punic UN (see above, $\S 36$ note) and the Hebrew
    ${ }^{2}$ E.g. like Luther's use of so, in die fremden Götter, so inter each sind, Tn $3^{-2}$.
    ${ }^{3}$ This is the necessary conclusion both from the analogy of the Arabic
     from the use of $\begin{gathered}\text { it and } \# \text { as relatives. }\end{gathered}$

[^210]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Zc $12^{10}$ also, instead of the unintelligible אלי את אששר, we should probably read אֶל-אִּשֶׁ, and refer the passage to this class.
    ${ }^{2}$ Such a strong ellipse as in Is $3{ }^{1}$, where ,העמיקו, is only possible in elevated poetic or prophetic language.
    ${ }^{3}$ The etymological equivalent ${ }^{\text {י }}$ ?

[^211]:    ${ }^{1}$ As a rule ${ }^{\text {Kin }}$ is used in the particularizing sense of each man, with the plural of the verb, e.g. Gn $44^{11}$; sometimes, however, as subject to a verb in the singular, e.g. Gn $44^{13}$.

[^212]:    ${ }^{1}$ For other remarkable instances of ellipse in the Chronicler, see Driver, Introduction, ed. 8, p. 537, no. 27.

    2 Cf. the numerous examples in § 116n-p.

[^213]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Albrecht, ZAW. viii. 252, especially in Deuteronomy and in the Priestly Code.
    ${ }^{2}$ For the same reason specifications of place (e.g. $\mathrm{Gn}_{4}{ }^{7}$ ) or other adverbial qualifications may stand at the beginning of the sentence.
    ${ }^{3}$ The only exceptions, according to Albrecht (see the Rem. above), are Ex 167.8.

[^214]:    1 This of course applies also to the cases, in which the subject consists of a strongly emphasized personal pronoun, e.g. Gn $32^{13} \boldsymbol{\sim} \boldsymbol{\sim} \underset{\sim}{\operatorname{N}}$ thou thyself; $33^{3}$
    Nil he himself.

[^215]:    ${ }^{1}$ Not infrequently also the striving after chiasmus mentioned in § in $\& r$, note, occasions a departure from the usual arrangement of words.
    ${ }^{2}$ This sequence occurs even in prose (Gn $17^{9}, 23^{6}$, \&c.) ; it is, hovever, more doubtful here than in the above prophetical and poetical passages, whether the preceding subject should not be regarded rather as the subject of a compound sentence ( $\$ 143$ ), the predicate of which is an independent verbal-clause; this would explain why the verbal-clause is usually separated from the subject by one of the greater disjunctives.-On the other hand, the sequence Subject-Object-Verb is quite common in Aramaic (e.g. Dn $2^{7.10}$ ); cf.

[^216]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Arabic and Ethiopic the masculine is commonly used in this case, in Syriac the feminine.-The forms חַ hot, טוֹם good, well, bitter, narrow, y] eiil (frequently joined by 4 , ib, \&c.), which many regard as impersonal, are no doubt to be regarded in most cases not as forms of the $3^{r d}$ pers. sing. perf., but, with Hupfeld on $\psi \mathbf{1 8}^{7}$, as adjectives.

[^217]:    ${ }^{1}$ In IS $9^{9}$ הָאָ (prop. the man) is used in exactly the same sense as our one.
    ${ }^{2}$ Elsewhere in such cases e.g. iS $23^{22}$ ), so that it is doubtful whether the present reading of $\mathrm{Gn}_{4} 8^{1}$, \&c., would not be better explained according to $\S 7 d$, note. In Gn $48^{2}$ for the extraordinary (after a plural) either

[^218]:     from this is Gn $26^{7}$, where there is a transition to direct narration.

[^219]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. in Greek the construction of the neuter plural with the singular of the predicate $\tau \alpha \pi \rho \delta \beta a r a$ Baivet; in Attic Greek the plural of the predicate is
     In Arabic also the pluralis inhumanus (i.e. not denoting persons) is regularly construed with the feminine singular of the attribute or predicate, as are all the plurales fracti (properly collective forms).
     cf. above, $\S 44 \mathrm{~m}$; but this explanation would not apply to all the cases under this head, cf. Jo $1^{20}, \psi 37^{31}, 103^{5}$.
    ${ }^{3}$ In $\operatorname{Pr} 14^{1}$ an abstract plural $\prod_{\square} \prod_{\substack{ }}$ (to be read thus with $9^{1}$, \&c., instead of

    4 In several of the above examples the text is doubtful, and hence Mayer Lambert ( $R E J$. xxiv. in $)^{\text {) rejects the theory of distributive singulars generally. }}$ [Cf. Driver, Jeremiah, p. 362, on 167.]

[^220]:    ${ }^{1}$ This does not include such cases as $\mathrm{Jb} 24^{7.10}$, where עָ explained as an accusative denoting a state, $\S 118 n$.
    ${ }^{2}$ יבוא probably an error for ${ }^{2}$. The Masora on Lv $11^{34}$ reckons fourteen instances of
    ${ }^{3}$ So also the pronoun הmphatically resuming the subject (see § $141 \mathrm{I} h$ )
     the offerings of the Lord... that is his inheritance; in number and gender, Lv $25^{33}$ Q $^{\text {e }}$ rê ; Jer $10^{9}$.

[^221]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sometimes, however, the attraction of the predicate to the genitive may be merely due to juxtaposition.

[^222]:    1. Similarly with a mixed object, Gn $33^{2}$ he put . . . Leah and her children
    
[^223]:    ${ }^{1}$ We do not consider here the cases in which these interjections (e.g. הI
    

[^224]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Pr $9^{13}$ (perhaps also $1_{4}{ }^{7}$; but see Delitzsch on the passage) a verbal. clause is used co-ordinately in this way as a periphrasis for an adjective.

[^225]:    1 In I K $10^{21}$ ף with the LXX and Lucian，to

[^226]:    ${ }^{1}$ For further particulars of the use of wāw copulativum, see Gesenius' Thesaurus, i. 393 ff . On its use in the co-ordination of similar tenses and moods (e.g. five imperfects consecutive in Gn $25^{34}$, five perfects with ${ }_{\text {Ild }}$ ) as well as of dissimilar tenses and moods, the remarks made in the treatment of the tenses will suffice. With regard to the connexion of single nouns by ! (which strictly speaking is always really a contraction of so many clauses into a single sentence) the following observations may be made :-
    (a) Contrary to English usage, which in lengthy enumerations uses the and to connect only the last member of the series, in Hebrew polysyndeton is customary, as in Gn $12^{16}$ wāv copulativum six times, $24^{35}$ seven times, $155^{19 f r}$. nine times, and in Jos $7^{24}$ ten times. Sometimes, however, only the last two words are joined (so in a series of three members, Gn $5^{32}, 10^{1}, 11^{26}, 13^{2}, 14^{1}$, $30^{39}, \& c$.; the last three out of a series of four, Jer ${ }^{26}$ ); less frequently only
     day before yesterday, Ex $5^{8}$, \&c., is always without the copula. On the other hand, the cmnstructio asyndetos in a series of verbs is used as a rhetorical expedient to produce a hurried and so an impassioned description; e.g. Ju $5^{27}$ at her feet he bowed, he fell, he lay; Ex $15^{9}, \mathrm{Dt} \mathbf{3 2}^{15}, \mathrm{IS} \mathbf{S} 5^{6}, \mathrm{Jer} 4^{7}, \mathrm{Am}_{5}{ }^{21}$, $\psi$ 10 ${ }^{10}, 14^{1}, 45^{5}, \mathrm{Jb} 20^{19}, 28^{4}, 29^{8}, \mathrm{Ct} 2^{11}, 5^{6}, \& \mathrm{c}$.
    (b) Frequently wā $w$ copulativum is also explanatory (like isque, et-quidem, and the German und zwar, English to wit), and is then called wāw explicativum, e. g. Gn $4^{4}$ and (i.e. namely) of the fat thereof (unless it is simply copulative); Ex $24^{12}$, $25^{12}$ (to wit two) ; $27^{14}, 28^{23}$, Ju $17^{3}$ (in וּpֵּפַכה; here as often elsewhere, to introduce an explanatory gloss, cf. Is $1^{7}{ }^{8}, \mathrm{Ez}_{3}{ }^{15}$, and especially P. Haupt, SBOT. Isaiah, p. 90 , l. 2 Iff .), I S $\mathrm{I}^{34}$ and that too woith the bear; $2 \mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{I}}{ }^{20}$, Is $57^{11}$, Jer $7^{10}, \operatorname{Am~} 3^{11}, 4^{10}, \mathrm{Ze} 9^{9}, \operatorname{Pr} 3^{12}$, Neh $8^{13}, 2_{2} \operatorname{Ch} 23^{10}$ (but in I S $28^{3}$ the 7 before מִן-וְעַד from . . . and even to . . . Gn $13^{3}, 14^{23}, 19^{4.11}, \& \mathrm{c}$. -In I S $6{ }^{11}$ (see Driver on the passage), ${ }_{2}{\mathrm{~S} 1^{29}, ~ \& c ., 1}$ is equivalent to yea, and; in $\mathrm{Is} 3^{27}$ even.
     $\psi$ i $8^{1}$, perhaps also in $\mathrm{Jb}{ }^{10}{ }^{17}$ yea, $a$ whole host ; 2 Ch 1614.-An undoubted example of what is called wāw concomitantiae occurs in $\mathrm{Jb}_{4} \mathrm{I}^{12} a$ seething pot ! with burning rushes; cf. Ex $10^{10}$ (with your little ones), $12^{8}, \operatorname{Lv} 1^{12}$, Is $4^{22^{5}}$. In Arabic this wāw concom. is followed by the accusative.
    !-1 is used in the sense of both-and in $\psi 7^{67}, \mathrm{Dn}^{3}, 8^{18}$. On ! - as meaning sive-sive, cf. $\S \cdot 162 \mathrm{~b}$.
    (c) See the Lexicon on adverbs used in a copulative sense, such as $0 \leq$ also, moreover, summing up a number, e.g.
     examples as 1 S $24^{12}$ see, yea see! ! occurs three times in Gn $24^{25}$ and $3^{20}$; also $\underset{\sim}{20}$, which is generally still more intensive, in the sense of also, in addition to this, even, and belongs rather to poetry, and to the later language; frequently also equivalent to a mere and,
    
     also that, equivalent to not to mention, according to the context either quanto magis or quanto minus.

[^227]:    ${ }^{1}$ The old view that all these cases arise from the omission of $\underset{\sim}{v i}$ is incorrect. These co-ordinated attributive clauses are rather a mere subdivision of the various kinds of circumstantial clauses (see § 156) which may be attached to a nomen regens. Cf. in English this is the letter (which) he wrote to me.
    2 So Baumann, op. cit., p. 14 f., following Böttcher, Lehrbuch, ii. 80.

[^228]:     combat) $2 \mathrm{~K} 14^{8.11}, 2 \mathrm{Ch} 25^{17.21}$, is probably only a shortened form for . פָנִים אֶלֹּפָּנִּם
    
     precedes the verb.
    ${ }^{3}$ Some examples of these have been already discussed in another connexion above, § $120 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{c}$.
    
     source used in cap. 21 Ishmael was still a young child; according to $17^{25}$ he was about 16 or 17 years old.

[^229]:    ${ }^{1}$ On these clauses with $\mathfrak{~ כ ִ ּ ~ a n d ~ g e n e r a l l y ~ o n ~ c l a u s e s ~ w h i c h ~ w e ~}$ should render as subordinate, cf. P. Dörwald 'Zur hebr. Syntax' in Neue Jahrbb. für Philol. und Pädag. 1890, p. 115 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Instead of a complete objective clause we sometimes find a kind of accusative and infinitive construction, especially after נָת
     Sihon did not suffer Israel to pass through his border; 2021; followed by an infinitive with $!$, e.g. Gn $20^{6}, 3^{1^{7}}$, Ex $3^{19}$.-Cf. also the analogous examples
    
    
    ${ }^{3}$ In Jer $2 \delta^{9}$ a subject-clause is thus introduced by usual כִּי

[^230]:    
    

[^231]:    ${ }^{1}$ On ${ }^{\prime}$ cf. Kohler in Geiger's Zeitschr. für Wiss. und Leben, vi (1868), p. 2 I ff.

[^232]:    ${ }^{1}$ On this wāw adaequationis, and in general on these proverbial comparisons, see Delitzsch, Das Salomonische Spruchbuch, p. 9 f. Moreovier, instead of entire clauses, the nouns alone (without predicates) are frequently grouped together, e.g. $\operatorname{Pr} 25^{25}, 26^{21}, 27^{21}$ (called by Delitzsch, the 'emblematic
    
     comparison iniplied in grouping things together. On this use of y cf. Jb $9^{26}$, where with is equivalent to like.
    ${ }^{2}$ In spite of its form this particle has originally nothing to do with
    
    

[^233]:    1 Very probably this use of $\underset{\square}{1}$ arises from the original meaning for if, surely if (כִּ in an affirmative sense); so evidently in Ex $22^{22}$ as a forcible resumption of the preceding $\underset{\text {. }}{ }$. Thus, e.g. Ju $15^{7}$ is simply surely when $I$ have been avenged of you, after that $I$ will cease, equivalent to, I will not cease, until I have, \&c. When the exception follows, an ellipse must be assumed, e.g. Ru $3^{18}$ sureiy (or for) when he has finished it (then the man will rest). It is far less natural to assume such an ellipse with clauses as before single nouns); see a above.

[^234]:    ${ }^{1}$ On the perfect in the protasis, which is critically doubtful, cf. § 107 c.
     is properly up to that (moment)-we shall return.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. the frequent use of wenn [prop. if] for wann [ $=$ when $]$ in German.

[^235]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. H. G. T. Mitchell, Final Constructions of Biblical Hebrevo, Leipzig, 1879.

[^236]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Ez $36^{67}$ a final clause is introduced by taking the form of an object-clause.
    ${ }^{2}$ On ${ }^{2}$ as a supposed conjunction (equivalent to the Arabic li) 1 K $6^{19}$, see $\S 66 i$.
    ${ }^{3}$ That such examples as from the analogy of $\mathrm{Ho} 14^{10}$ and $\mathrm{Jb} 9^{93}$.

