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PATREON

## HEADS

OF
HEBREW GRAMMAR

## HEADS

OF

# HEBREW GRAMMAR 

CONTAINING ALJ THE PRINCIPLES
NEEDED BY A LEARNER.

By
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TWENTY-THIRD IMPRESSION



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## PREFACE.

The object of these Heads of Hebrew Grammar is to furnish the learner of that language with all that is noedful for him in his introductory studies, so that he may be thoroughly grounded in all that is elementary.

In teaching, the present writer has been wont to give oral instruction as to all the elements, commonly making use of some short Hebrew grammar;-marking the rules which require attention, and adding others which are not to be found in elementary grammars in general.

In this way he has had a kind of oral Hebrew grammar for learners; and the same grammatical instruction which he has thus communicated to those whom he has thus taught, is here given written doun for use or reference.

He is well aware that the number of Hebrew grammars,both of those called elementary, and of those called critical, -is very great; this consideration made him long feel reluctant to commit his oral grammatical instruction to writing; but, if the mass of Hebrew grammars be examined, it will be found that very few of them possess any distinctive features; and he is not aware of one which he has been able to use as thoroughly adapted to the wants of learners. The outlina
grammars are mostly unclear in arrangenment, and often in correct in statement. With regard to this outline, he can only say, that it has already stood the test of experience in its practical use, and thus he is able to speak of the result as satisfactory. This gives him a confidence in introducing this outline to others, besides those to whom he has given oral instruction.

It is true that in recommending an outline of Hebrew grammar to beginners, no less an authority than that of Gesenies is opposed to one :-the opinion of that learned man, the greatest Hebraist of modern times, was, that a learner should use a critical grammar from the commencement of his studies. But Gesenius, in his Hebrew tuition, had to do not with mere beginners; the students came to him with an elementary grounding in forms and inflections acquired in the Gymmasium, previous to their university course; and we believe that a critical grammar, if put into the hands of a mere beginner, will be found to deal with subjects in a deep and philosophic manner, which will, for a time, be rather a hindrance than a help, because the subjects themselves are not understood.

Let there be a proper groundwork laid of rorms and inflections, as well as of the ordinary forms of construction, and then the best and most critical Hebrew grammars may be studied, and that with profit. Every one who seeks an intimate knowledge of Hebrew should be encouraged not only to use, but to study, the grammar of Gesenius [as edited and enlarged by Professor E. Kautzsch (English translation from the twenty-sixth German edition; Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1898)]; but no one should be recommended to attempt this, unless elementary knowledge be first acquired with accuracy, either
from an elementary grammar, or by selection from one that is critical.

Here an attempt is made to lead the learner into a practice of reading fluently; few things are more necessary to him than this; with this object, the Hebrew words in the former part of the grammar have their pronunciation appended to them in our letters, with the syllables divided, and the accents marked. In dividing the syllables, the common practice of Hebraists has been followed.

A chapter has been added on the accents; this is a subject which is generally passed over in Hebrew grammars in a manner much too summary; the Table of Consecution will be found much more complete and accurate than those generally given.

It may be thought that even in this brief grammar some things are repeated which need only have becn stated once; the reason is that it is found in practice that some things require to be stated in different conneetions; and, therefore, a little repetition is a less evil than to neglect the convenience of the learner would be.
The learners of Hebrew are either adults who wish to read the Bible in the original, or younger persons who have Hebrew assigned as part of their studies. The adult learner, if he acquire some small ability in reading the Hebrew Bible first, will afterwards find the critical details of Hebrew grammar far more easy to be understood; while for a young person the memory is commonly in advance of mere reasoning power, and thus things can be better learned first, and the fuil and minute explanations of the reasons, etc., may follow after. Hence many things have been left without minute explanation, the desire being in no sense to supersede critical grammars; and,
also, many things may be presented in a different form and connection to an advanced scholar, from that in which they can to a student.

The importance of Hebrew to every biblical student is very great; this is an admitted fact; yel how very many in this country, who possess at least some knowledge of the Greel New Testament, still (in spite of all the increase of Hebrew learning) know nothing of the Old Testament in the original !

## TO THE LEARNER.

The: lather is recommended-
1st. To acquire a knowledge of the letters, etc., and to learn to read and enunciate fluently.
2nd. Then to learn the personal pronouns and the verb in Kal;-to observe the differences of the species, and gradually to obtain an entire familiarity with the whole of the regular verb.
3rd. Then attention may be paid to the common prefixes and suffixes.
4th. Then to the nouns-feminine, plural, construct state, article, etc.
5th. Then the irregular verbs may be learned (in this the mind may be used more than the memory merely).
C.th. After this the declensions of nouns may be aequired.

While learning these parts, the learner should read carefully and often the remarks and rules which are introduced; and when an accurate knewledge has been gained of regular forms and inflections, and a good general knowledge of those that are irregular, the learner may study all that relates to Syntax,

A small volume of Hebrew Reading Lessons, containing the first four chapters of Genesis, and the eighth of Proverbs, giving the lessons which the present writer has been accustomed to impart orally, has been published by Messre. Bagster; this will be found of much assistance by the learner; many have, he knows, been aided by it.*
Let the learner keep the Table of Verbs open before him in reading Hebrew; he will thus be aided in finding what any part of a verb is with which he may meet.

The rules given at the conclusion of the "Heads of Hebrew Grammar" for finding words in a lexicon, will be sufficient for ordinary purposes, whether the lexicon be one of the old ones according to roots, or one arranged alphabetically like that of Gesenius.
It may here be mentioned, that besides the Hebrew lexicons of ordinary anrangement, there has been of late published by Messrs. Bagster, "An Analytical Hebrew Lexicon"; this work, by Mr. B. Davidson, will be peculiarly useful to learners ; for they may there find every word in the Hebrew Bible in alphabetical arrangement, just as it is read in the Sacred Text; the word is referred to its root, and the parsing is given very clearly.

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Declension of Masculine Nouna
Declension of Feminine Nouna

# HEADS 

JW

## HEBREW GRAMMAR.

## PART I.

## THE LETTERS AND READING.

4. 5. Hsbrew is written, like most of the languages of the same class, from right to left.

The letters are all regarded as consonants, the vowrels are supplied by points; of which most are placed below the letter which they follow in pronunciation.
§ 2.-THE LETTERS

The Hebrew letters are twenty-two in number The following table exhibits the Alphabet, showing the order, names, and powers of the lettere :-

## THE ALPHABET.

| * | A-leph | a light breathing. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | Bēth | E. |
| 2 | Gî-mel | G hard. |
| 7 | Dā-leth | D. |
| 7 | Hē | H. |
| 1 | Vāv | V |
| 1 | Za'-yin | Z. |
| 7 | Khēth | Kh. (a hard mapirated guttural |
| $\stackrel{\square}{0}$ | Teth | ' |
| 1 | Yodh | Y. |
| 7 | Caph | K or C hard. |
| 5 | Lā-med | L. |
| $\square 8$ | Mem | M. |
| 13 | Nūn | N |
| $\square$ | Sā-mech | S. |
| $y$ | $A^{\prime}$ - yin | probably a hard breathing. |
| 7 0 | Pe | P. |
| $\gamma 3$ | Tsā-dē | Ts. |
| $P$ | Küph | K hard. |
| 7 | Rēsh | R. |
| $\{2$ | $\operatorname{Sin}$ | S. These are counted as but |
| 0 | Shin | Sh. $\}$ one letter |
| 刃 | Tầ | T |

In pronouncing the names of the letters, let the vowels be sounded us in Italian and some other continental languages; i.e.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
a \text { like } a h \text { (or } a \text { in father). } & i \text { like } e e . \\
u \text { " } e h \text { or } a y . & u \text { " oo. }
\end{array}
$$

attention should be given to this vowel scale, as it will be used chrourhout the aresent work, because of its presenting many con-
veniences to the learner in enabling the pronunciation of Hebrew words to be given with uniformity and accuracy.

## § 3.-REMARKS ON THE LETTERS AS TO FORM.

It is needful to learn carefully to distinguish from one another the letters which are somewhat similar in form.

コ Bēth resembles $\mathfrak{J}$ Caph; but the lower corner of Caph on the right-hand is rounded, while $\exists$ Bëth is not.

7 Dā-leth resembles 7 Resh; but the latter is rounded at the shoulder, while the former is not

7 Dä-leth also resembles 7 final Caph; but it is distinguished by the latter being extended below the line.
i Hè, $\Pi$ Khēth, and $\Pi$ Tāv, resembie each other; they are thus distinguished :- Hee has its left-hand stroke not joined to the upper line, while $\Pi$ Khëth is so joined ; $\AA$ Tāv is distinguished from both by having a kind of foot at the bottom of the left-hand atroke.

I Vāv is distinguished from $\boldsymbol{I} \mathrm{Za}^{\prime}$-yin by being rounded at the top; it is distinguished from * Yodh, bv the latter being smaller, and not being drawn down to the line; and 1 Vāv and $\uparrow \mathrm{Za}^{\prime}$-yin are both distinguished from $\boldsymbol{\text { f inal Nün }}$ by the latter being drawn below the line.
$\bigcirc$ Teth is open at the top, and $D$ Mem is open at the bottom.
a Final Mem is square at the lower right-hand corner, while D Sà-mech is rounded.

Y $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-gin has its tail turned to the left, but $Y$ Tsā-dē has the tail with a curve first to the right, and $\boldsymbol{Y}$ final $T$ sà-dē has the tall drawn straight down.

彩 Sin has a dot on the left tooth, $\mathrm{u}^{\mathrm{j}}$ Shin on the right.
A little attention to these renarks will soon enable the learner to distinguish those which at first appear to the eye as somewhat alike.

It is important to be thoroughly versed in the letters; to this end ; 4 is well to take any passage in the Hebrew Bible and name aloud earh letter in succession, with reference to the table in all cases of doubt.

The five forms of letters marked finals, are those which are used when the letter happens to be at the end of a word.

Sometimes a letter is found dilated, thus, $\square, \boldsymbol{\sim}$, this is merely to fill up the line.

## § 4.-ON THE POWERS OF SOME OF IHE LETTERS.

$\approx \mathrm{A}$-leph and $\bar{y} \mathrm{~A}^{\prime}$-yin are generally omitted in pronunciation; the former is simply a breathing enunciated with the vowel with which this letter is connected.

Y A'-yin seems to have had originally a guttural aspirate sound; and it is not improbable that, even while Hebrew was a living language, it was almost entirely dropped as to pronunciation in some words, even though retained in others. As there is much doubt as to its true power, it will be better to treat it in the same way as $\mathbb{N}$ A-leph in reading. in giving the pronunciation of any Hebrew words in which y $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-yin occurs, it will be itasl/ inserted instead of any attempt being made to supply an equivalent in Roman letters.

Six of the letters-3 Bēth, 3 Gïmel, 7 Dāleth, 3 Caph, 5 Pè, n Tāy, are given in the above table with a dot in the middle of each. This dot is called Daghesh lene, and its use is to harden the letter in pronunciation; without it $\mathbf{3} \mathbf{B}$ becomes $\mathbf{I} \mathbf{V}$; $: \mathbf{G}$ becomes $\mathrm{J} \mathbf{G b}$; 7 D
 $\therefore \mathrm{P}$ becomes D Ph or $\mathrm{F} ; \boldsymbol{\mathrm { T }}$ becomes $\cap \mathrm{Th}$. In I and 7 the difference of sound is rarely observed; however, for convenience sake, they will be in this Grammar expressed by $\dot{\AA}$ Gh and 7 Dh, when Hebrew words are given in our letters.

This twofold sound of these six letters requires particular attention
The point Daghesh may also be written in any letter except $\mathbb{N} \mathbf{A}$-lepin, i Hē, $\Pi$ Khēth, $\boldsymbol{y} \mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ - yin, and 7 Rēsh. It is then calied Daghesh forte or double Daghesh, and its use is to double the letter in which it is written. The six letters $3,3,7,3, B, \cap$, may also have Daghesh forte; and then they are both hardened and doubled; they become $\mathrm{Bb}, \mathrm{Gg}$. $\mathrm{Dd}, \mathrm{Kk}$, $\mathrm{Pp}, \mathrm{Tt}$, and not $\mathrm{Vv}_{\mathrm{v}}$, etc., nor yet Bv , etc., nor Vb . (The distinction between Daghesh lene and Daghesh forte in these six letters will be explained when we speak of the division of syllables.)

A small line, called Raphe ( ${ }^{-}$), over one of the letters which take Daghesh lene (thus, ㅍ) is scarcely ever found in printed Hebrew
although frequent in MSS.) ; its only use is to show the absence of Daghesh lene.

A similar point called Mappik is written in the letter $\overline{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{He}$, which has then a fuller sound.

$$
\text { § } 5 .- \text { THE VOWELS. }
$$

It has been already said that the vowels are expressed by points, and that these points are appended to the letter which they follow in pronunciation.

In the following list of the vowels, the letter 3 is so placed with the long vowels as to show the places of the point and the letter.

The letters 73 are given to exhibit the place in which the short vowels stand.

With regard to the sounds of the vowels, the reader is requested to remember the Italian wowel scale: $n=\mathrm{ah} ; \quad e=\mathrm{eh}$, or ay; $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{ee}$ (or i in pique) ; 0 ; $u=0$.

There are five long vowels-

| $(-)$ | Kä-mets. | ${ }^{\text {a }}$ as | Bi. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (-) | Tsē-rė | $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ as | Bee. |
| - | Long Kh | i as | Bi. |
| i or | Khö-lem | $\overline{0}$ as iz | Bo. |
| 1 | Shū-rèk | 行 as | Bu. |

There are five short vowels-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - Pa'-thakh } \quad a \text { as } \mathfrak{y} \text { Bad. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - Short Khirik i as Bị Bid. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - Kib-buts a as Bud. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Besides these ten vowels there are also what are cailed imperfect vowels.

Every letter which has no rowel of its own has Sh'va (:) expressed or understcod beneath it. When $S h^{\prime} v a(:)$ is sounded at all (vocal $S h^{\prime} v a$ ), it is like an extremely short $e$, bardly more than an
ellision between two consonants. When silent it serves to divide the syilables.

Rut when $S h^{\prime} v a$ would, in accordance with analogy, be written undel the letters $K, \pi, \Pi, \Psi$ (called gutturals), fer greater convenience of enunciation, a more distinct vowel sound is combined with it ; and thus there arise three imperfect vowels, called compound Sh'vas. They are-

- Khatēph Pa'-thakh : a extremely short, like $a$ in $a$ bound.
$\overline{v i}$ Khatēph Sé-gol : e extremely short, like $e$ in beneath.
- Khatēph Kā-meta: $\theta$ extremely short, like $o$ in collection.


## § 6.-REMARKS ON SOME OF THE vOWELS.

It will be observed that the Kä-mets à, and Kā-mets Khatēph ŏ, have precisely the same form. When $\bar{\tau}$, not accompanied by an accent, is followed immediately by a letter doubled by Daghesh expressed or understood, or by a $S h^{\prime} v a$, or by Mak-keph (see below), it is $\check{6}$; utherwise it is almost necessarily $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$. But if another -T as $\check{0}$ follows, then it is $\check{n}$ even though accompanied by an accent.

The rules for the division of syllables will show the meaning of this rule, and also how simple it is as to its practical application.

The "Yodh, which is given with long Khi-rik, is said to coalesce with the vowel, and thus it is not enunciated separately. This * Yodh is not unfrequently omitted, and then long Khi-rik and short are to the eye alike; but the division of syilables shows whether it be long or short.

Khö-lem may have the letter ; standing under or not; the sound is wholly unaffected.

Shü-rêk cannot be written without the letter 1; the point resemblea Daghesh, but it may be thus distinguished; if the 1 have another vowet to be pronounced after it, then the dot is Daghesh; if not, it is Shu-rek. Thus, other vowel. If the 1 be omitted in any word which ought to take Shü-rèk, then Kib-huts - is used in its stead.

When a vowel is foilowed by a homogeneous letter, they coalesce in sound ; this is the case with Khi-rik followed by P Yodh, and also with -. Taè-rè followed by the same letter; when 'Yodh or 1 Väy follows a rowel not homogeneous, then the power of the letter must be fully
 nounced $\bar{a} y$ (like the Greek $a u$ ), $a v, \bar{a} i v(o r \bar{a} v), \bar{o} y$.

The vuwel Khö-lem has some peculiarities when connected with $\dot{\theta} \operatorname{Sin}$ or $\mathscr{U}$ Shin :-when it should follow $\dot{\theta}$, it would coincide with the dot which the letter already has to distinguish it from $\boldsymbol{e}^{\text {d }}$ Shin; the dot, therefore, is not repeated, and thus without another vowel expressed will be equal to 妙, i.e. so.

When Khō-lem should precede $\dot{ש}$ Shin, the dot is only once written thus, שia bōsh.

When the letter is found thus, $\mathbb{E}$, if a vowel precedes, then the letter is $\mathscr{v}^{\dot{j}}$ Shin with Khō-lem; but if no vowel is appended to the preceding letter, then it is Sin, preceded by Khō-lem : טég Shō-phēt, and烟? Yir-pös, are words which exernplify the two cases.

The vowel Khö-lem is of the same form as an accent called R'viă ; but this accent may be distinguished by standing higher up, and at the middle of the letter; the letter is also then accompanied by a vowel as well as this accent.

When the vowels Khi-rik and Khō-lemn are written with the letters ' and 1 , then the words are said to be written full; when these letters are omitted, the words are termed defective.

$$
\text { § } 7 \text {.-ACCENTS, ETC. }
$$

It will not be needful in this place to advert particularly to the very numerous marks (besides the vowel points) which are written below or above Hebrew words;-they are the accents; and although it is important to observe what syllable has an accent, or a Metheg (a small perpendicular line, thus, $\mathbb{N}$ ), yet the distinction of the accents, and their powers, may be passed by for the present. It is only needful to remark that certan of the accents serve as stops, and that in such cases they commondy lengthen the vowel of the accented syllable.

A short line ( ${ }^{-}$) called Makkeph is used to connect words: it takes away the accent from the former of the two words so joined, and the powel of its accented syllable is then, commonly, shortened : e.g. ל. kol,


The accented syllable is always either the last or last but one: if a word has two accents marked on it, the accented syllable is that which has the latter of the two, except when the same accent is repeated, and then the former marks the accented syllable.

## § 8-SYLLABLES.

To read Hebrew fluently, great attention should be paid to the forma bion of syllables.
a, Every syllable must begin with a consonant.
The only exception is when a word begins with ; and even there the letter conlesces with the vowel.
$N$ at the commencement of a word is but a seeming exception, for that letter is regarded as a consonant without audible sound.
b) Every syllable must be ended in one or other of the following ways:-
i. By a long vowel.
ii. By a short vowel, followed by a consonant.

This consonant may be one doubled by Daghesh; in that case the consonant concludes the one syllable, and commences the next.*
iii. By a short vowel, accompanied by Metheg or an accent.
c) A long vowel without an accent cannot take the following consonant in the same syllable, nor does it even with an accent, if that consonant be needed to commence the following syllabre.
d) No imperfect vowels or compound $S h^{\prime} v a$ can ever be the vowel of a syllable: the compound $S^{\prime} h^{\prime} w$ is regarded simply as an

- It must be observed, that the letters which do not take Daghesh are sometimes regarded as doubled; the short vowel preceding closen the syllable as if the letter had Daghesh, and it thus ended one syllable and also began the next; in such cases the letter is said to have Daghesh by implieation.
appendage to the letter under which it is written, to enable it to be more clearly enunciated.
e) No word or syllable can begin with more than two censonants: in such case the $S h$ 'va under the first is sounded like an extremely short $e$ or an elision.
f) Shiva can never be vocal unless at the beginning of a word, or when preceded by an open syllable.

It will also be observed, that more than two Sh'vas can never come together, and also that two compound Sh'vas cannot follow each other. When $S h^{\prime} v a$ is not vocal, it marks the absence of a vowel, and serves to divide syllables.
g) Furtive $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh. The rule which requires that the vowel under a letter should be taken after it, has one exception. Wher. $y, \pi$, or $\pi$, stands at the end of a word with - under it, the - is enunciated before it; but is not considered as constituting n syllable, and is pronounced very short ; as $\operatorname{til} 7$ rüăkh, spirit: Mili gax-vōanh, high. Indeed, it is evident that the $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh in such words could not be enunciated after the letter, for no syllable would be formed, since a short vowel would require a consonant after it.
A syllable which ends with a vowel is called an open syllable; a syllable which ends with a consonant is alled a ciose syllable.

Now that the rules for the formation and division of syllables have been given, the general distinction betueen $K a \bar{a}-m e t s$ and Kā-mets Khatēph may be stated more simply :-

- is à in an open syllabie, or in a close sylable with the accent.
$\mp$ is or in a close unaccented syllable. (It may also be here remarked, that if - is followed by another $-\bar{T}$ or $-\bar{\nabla}$, then the former, even though with an accent, is also -ob).


## § 9.-SPELLING.

It will aid greatly in fluent reading for the learner to acquire the babit of spelling Hebrew words.

Call the letters by theit names (each of which begins with its own
power), and the vowels by their powers, $\bar{a}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathbf{i}}, \overline{\mathrm{o}}, \overline{\mathbf{u}} ; \boldsymbol{K}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{i}, \overline{\mathrm{X}}, \mathbf{x}$. Pronounce in spelling each syllable distinctly. Pass by Sh'va; only attering it, when vocal, by an elision between the consonants. When a letter is doubled by Daghesh, repeat it at the end of one syliable and the beginning of the next.

When the בת בת them accordingly. Do this at least with regard to I Veth, J Chaph 5 Phē, ת Thāv.

בí say A-leph, ä, Vēth. āv (father).
Ḍ̛: " A-leph, ē, Mem. ēm (mother).
חָ " A-leph, $\vec{a}$, Khēth. àkh (brother).
Nヨ , Bèth, $\bar{a}, A$-leph. bā (he came).
YTV ", A-leph, e, e- Résh, e, Tsā-dē. rets. é-rets (earth)
בּקר " Bēth, $\overline{\text { an }}$, bo-. Kūph, $e$, Rësh. -ker. bö'-ker (morning).
 hīm (God).
(Observe in this word that $\bar{\because}$ is not considered the vowel of the syllable, but Elo - is taken together, and so always with the imperfect vowels).
 b'ré-shith' (In the beginning).
These will serve as specimens to the learner how to name the elements in the formation of syllables. In the following words the pronunciation is given, and the division into syllables, so as to serve as examples to the learner, and thus to aid in tuency of pronunciation and reading :-

Tivily vay-yan-n'chä (a) (b) (and he humbled thee,;

Trentil vay-ya-ăchi-l'chä (c) (and he fed thee with)

为 ăsher (which)

N vion (and not)

Fryize xvoi-thé-chā (thy fathera;)


```
    * ho-dhi-\wcha' (thee to make to know)
    ``. ki (that)
    *ō (not)
    M Yal-hal-le'-chem (upon the bread)
    \ l'vad-dó' (alone)
```




```
            4. ki (but)
```



```
    # phi-y'hö-väh (c) (the mouth of Jehovah [or the Lond]
    ###,: yikh-yeh' (shall live)
    \squareדָהֶהTM hā-ă-dhäm (the man). Deut. viii. 3.
```

Remares on some of the Words.
a) Let great care be taken not to pronounce '! vay, like ay in English, but so as to rhyme with mai in Italian.
b) The letter $y$ is used in the pronunciation so as to mark its place in the formation of syllables.
c) Observe how a short vowel (ya-) with Metheg may conclude a syllable.
d) When words are joined together by Mak-keph, then the first loses its accent, and thus they are united in pronunciation, though not necessarily in translation.
e) For the most sacred Divine name $\mathbf{N}_{\mathbf{T}} \mathbf{T}$ : ; the Jews substitute, in reading,


As, in the former part of this Grammar, the pronunciation and syllabic division of all the Hebrew words will be given, this will be a further aid to the learner.

The learner should write out passages from the Hebrew Bible in our 'etters, dividing the syllables, and pronouncing them aloud. The importance of bringing the eye, the eur, and the voice, all to assist the memory, can hardly be over stated.

## 5 10.-DIVISION OF THE LETTERS ACCORDING TO THEIR POWERS.

In onder that the different classes of letters may be conveniently remembered, they have been formed into mnemonic words by the insertion of vowels.

They are divided (according to the organs used in enunclating them) into-



d) Dentals $7, Y, \mathcal{U}, 0,1$. . 1 , zas-ts'rash.

All the Dentals, except 7 , are often classed under the name of Sibilants.

The letter 7 , in many respects, partakes of the nature of the Gutturals.
f) The Liquids, 7, 3, D, ל, for many purposes may be considered as a class by themselves.
g) The letters 'Nה Nה Wה e-hĕvi, are called Quiescents, because of their coalescing so frequently with the vowel sounds with which they are connected.

## § 11.-REMARKS ON THE GUTTURALS.

The Gutturals and 7 being incapable of being doubled by Daghesh forte, in cases in which this would take place with regard to any other letter, the preceding short vowel is often lengthened by way of compensation.

But $\Pi$ and $n$ are often regarded as doubled by implication.
The gutturals, $B, \Pi, y$, have a great tendency to take the vowel $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh before them, in cases in which some other short vowel (such as Khi-rik) would have been used, had a different letter followed.

The gutturals in general take a compound $S h \cdot v a-$, or $\overline{7}$, or $\overline{7}$. instead of a simple - Sh'va.

Exemplifications of these remarks, as well as a further statement of
peculiar modifications of vowel sounds occasioned by the gutturals and 7 , will be given as the cases occur in the flexion of verbs, etc., which conmin gutturals.

## (12.-ON DAGHESH LENE.

Daghesh lene is regularly introduced in ine letters בְּ B'ghad C"phath, when they stand at the beginning of a syllable, preceded by a consonant sound. Thus, at the begiming of a word, this Daghesh will be inserted in any of these letters, unless a vowel sound has preceded in close connection, as ' 7 ? but,

In all cases in which one of these letters has Daghesh, if it can te doubled, we may safely conclude that it is Daghesh forte.

## ₹ 13.-ON DAGHESH FORTE

In cases in which the same letter would be repeated without ang vowel sound between, one of the letters is omitted, and Daghesh forte is inserted. (So that if the same letter is found twice following, there will always be a vowel or a $S h$ 'va vocal under the former.)

When a letter has, on any account, been omitted (in the flexion of a verb or other cases), Daghesh forte will be regularly inserted in the following letter, as compensation for the omitted consonant.

Daghesh forte is sometimes inserted in the first letter of a word afte a preceding vowel; in such a case, the letter must be doubled, and the two words must be pretty closely joined in pronunciation.

Daghesh forte is not unfrequently omitted when the doubled letter it pointed with $S h^{\prime} v a$; this is sometimes, also, the case when it is pointed with a compound $S h^{\prime} v a$.

Daghesh forte is sometimes inserted in a letter for the sake of euphony, or to add an emphasis to a word by dwelling the longer on its enunciation.

If the same letter is twice repeated, having only Sh'va under it in Its Brst occurrence, then the first of the two letters will be pronounced as il doubled; thus, הू hal-l'lừ.

## § 14.--DIVISION OF THE IETTERS ACCORDING TO THEIR USE.

Eleven of the Hebrew letters are called Serviles. Thes wre formed with the memorial words (Ethan, Moses, and Caleb).

The other eleven letters are called Radicals; the Serviles may be Radicals, but the Radicals can never be Serviles; i.e. any of the other eleven letters must be integra! and elementary parts of the word in which they are found (There is the single exception of $ט$, used for $\Omega$, on a case which will be afterwards explained.)
 tenses of verbs.
 particles.

Some of these letters are also used in various ways in the iormation of words.

The letters verbal roots.

## § 15.-MUTATION OF VOWELS.

Some of the vowefs are immutable.
The long vowels are often immutable; but when they are so can only be learned by understanding in what forms they are essentially long, and not merely so from having the accent.

In general ${ }^{-}, \because,-1,1$, when the quiescent letter is proper to the form are immutable; $\bar{\tau}$ is so often.

A short vowel is immutable in an unaccented syllable followed by Daghesh forte, also in any syllable ending with a consonant, followed by another of the same kind.

When any addition is made to the end of a word, the vowels, if mutable, are commonly shortened.

A long vowel that loses its accent, if mutable, is commonly shortened into its corresponding short vowel, or disappears, leaving only a Sh'va.

If a prefix, which coinmonly takes $S h^{2} v a_{1}$ is joined to a word, the first letter of which has $S h^{\prime} v a$ already, the former $S h^{\prime} v a$ is commoniy changed into Khi-rik. If a compound Sh'va follows, then the short rowel (with Metheg) which is homogeneous to the compound Sh'va, is generally used under the prefix

## PART II.

## PARTS OF SPEECH.

## DIVISION.

We shall have to consider-1. The Promouns; taken first because they conveniently introduce the learner to II. The Verb;-III. The Nouns Substantive and Adjective; 一and IV. Particles. This latter term is used to comprehend what in other languages are commonly classed as Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections:- the limits of these parts of speech are often, in Hebrew, very slightly defined; or rather, perhaps, it should be stated that the same Hebrew word is used sometimes in one sense, sometimes in another. (Compare the English for prep, and for conj., and for as merely marking the dative; also, that relative, and that demonstrative, and that conjunctive: "I am glad that that book that I sent, pleases you.")

The Article will be treated of in connection with the Substantive.
It has been already mentioned that the letters Mon-sheh W'che'-iev form prefices; and in this place it will be for the learner':
convenience to state that in Hebrew many prefices and suffres are used with nouns and verbs, when we should employ separate words. The possessive pronouns, objects of verbs (frequently), and prcnouns after prepositions, are supplied by suffixes; and the article, relative sometimes, some prepositions, etc., are supplied by prefixed particles.

## 1.-THE PRONOUNS.

## § 1.-THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The following is a Table of the personal pronouns in their separable forms :-

## Singular.


 2 pers. f. $\mathfrak{H}$ 区 (
3 pers. m. ה ה . . . hū.
s pers. f. . . . . . hi.

Plural.
1 pers. c.
2 pers. m. . . . . àt-tem'.

3 pers. $m$.

The forms included between parentheses are of rare occurence.
In the Pentateuch the third person sing. fem. is generally Nit it in pointed אוחִ, and is read hi (the same as N (ה), and never hiv.

From the personal pronouns are formed suffixed pronosns; these supply the possessive pronouns after substantives, the objects of verbs, and the pronoun after prepositions. They never can stard alone as neparate words. They will be found in Table I.

## § 2.-DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Singular.

| \% zeh. |
| :---: |
| กsi it it zōth (zō, zōh). |

תאֹ̣ if it zōth (zō, zōh).

Plural.
rarely

There is also found, poetically, the demonstrative 17 zü, which (like the English that) may take the place of the relative

## § 3.-THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

然 that. This word is also used as a conjunction, and it appears to be properly an indication of relation, rather than a proper relative pronoun like who, ös, qui.

Sometimes - $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{v}}$ (an inseparable particle, with Daghesh in the following letter) is found as the relative; this is formed from wist by the elision of the $\mathbb{N}$, and the 7 blended with the following letter by doubling it:this particle is also $\mu$ ointed $\cdot \underline{\sim}$ (the dot following the letter is to indicate the place of Daghesh), once $\underset{\underset{T}{*}}{\boldsymbol{\sim}}$ before $\mathbb{K}$, which cannot take Daghesh; and also ${\underset{\sim}{e}}^{2}$.

Besides the relative, there is often in the same member of the sentence a suffixed personal pronoun referring to the same person or thing, in order to express the relation more definitely as to person,
 whose head.

## 6 4.-INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

The interrogative ${ }^{0}$ mi who $?$ is used of persons, and mäh what? of things.

הָ māh is very frequently connected by Mak-keph with the following word,
 mense of wheever, whatever.

## II.-THE VERB.

## § 1.-SPECIES OR CONJUGATIONS.

a) Various modifications of meaning, which in Western languagea are expressed partly by woices of the verb, partly by other verbs, are found in Hebrew in the several species or conjugations of the same verb. The word conjugation is however objectionabie, for its meaning in the grammar of other languages is wholly different:the word species will therefore be used in speaking of these voices or modifications.
b) The usual species are seven :- the first species is called Kal לp, i.e. light, from its presenting the verb in its simplest form, unburdened with formative letters in the same way as the others are. The other species take their conventional names from the respective parts of the verb $\overline{\mathcal{U}} \mathrm{T}$ pa-yai', to make or do, which was formerly used as an example.

The common species are--

1. Kal simply the active voice, as Sopp kã-tal', he killed.
2. Niphal, used as the passive of Kal, as hop nik-tal', he was killed. (The ariginal signification of this species was refiective, and hence its meaning has passed over into that of the passive voice:-how easily this may occur is shown in such living lan. guages as the Italian.)
3. Piel, intensitive of Kal , as
4. Pual, passive of Piel, as
5. Hiphil, causative of Kal, as הֶקטיר hik-til, he caused to kill.
6. Hophal, passive of Hiphil, as
7. Hithpaël, reflective, as hith-kat-tel', he killed himself.
c) There are other species occasionally found, which will be noticed, after the flexion of the regular verb has been given :-it need oniy be stated in this place that in all the species, whether unfrequent or not, the flexion is always the same; so that if the form of the word, such as Hiphil or Pilpel, or whatever it tre, is
given, the learner can be at no loss how to supply the whole of the tenses und persons.
d) The third person singuiar of the preterite tense is taken as the root of the verb; although, commonly, for convenience sake in naming the verb, the translation of the infinitive is given; thus, we say, ITַT kä-thav', to write; because the inf. is regarded in English as being as much the name of the verb as the pret. is in Hebrew.

The manner in which the third pers. sing. of the pret. is pointed in the several species, has been shown above.
©) Every verb in Kal properly consists of three letters;-and since Syen Pā-al' was formeriy used as the example, the three letters $\Rightarrow, y$, and $b$ are used us the conventional representatives of the three radical letters, whatever they may actually be. Thus, "a verb "3日 Pē Nūn" would mean one whose first radical is 1 ;"a verb "ly $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-yin Vāy" would mean a verb whose middle radical is 1 ;-wa verb " Lä-med $H \bar{H}^{"}$ is one whose last radical is $\bar{i}$, and so on with regard to other letters.
f) The vowel under the middle letter of the pret. Kal is commonly a - ; sometimes $\overline{0}-$, and sometimes $\overline{\mathbf{e}}-$. The expressions, a verb middle $A$, midulle $O$, and middle $E$, are used to denote these respective variations. Some verbs are found with more than ont form :-middle $E$ and middle $O$ have generally an intransitive signification.
g) Niphal is marked in the pret. by the prefixed 9 .

Piel, by the Daghesh inserted in the middle letter.
Pual, also by Daghesh, and it is distinguished from Piel by the blunter vowels.
Hiphil is marked by the prefix in (and the inserted before the last radical).
Hophal is marked by the prefix iri.
Hithpaël by the prefix Mị, and by Daghesb in the middie radical.
The three species-Piel, Pual, and Hithpaël-are called the Dagheshed species, from their having the middle radical regularly doubled by Daghesh

## f 2.-MOODS AND TENSES.

a) In Helbew there is but one mood to serve the purpose both ol the indicative and of the subjunctive, according to the connection in which it may be used.
b) It has but two tenses, the preterite and the future:- these tenses are used with various modifications for expressing the different parts of actual time; the simple signification of each of these, when unconnected with modifying words, is, that the preterite relates to time past, and the future to that which is future:- the point of time from which the reckoning is made is often, however, not the actual time of the narration, but some point of time previously spoken of.
c) There is also in the third and second persons in some species a shortened future, called the apocopated future, often used in conditional or relative sentences.
d) For the first person there is a form lengthened by the addition of the letter N ; this is called the paragogic future; its use is similat to that of the apocopated future.

The apocopated forms and their use, as well as that of the paragogic forms, will be more fully explained after the flexion of the regular verb has been given.
e) The infinitive has two forms, one of which is called the infinitive absolute, the other the construct; their use will be subsequently explained.
$\cap$ The imperative has only the second person masc. and fem. sing. and plur. In Pual and Hophal, the imperative is wanting.
E) In each species there is one participle: the active participle of Kal is often called the participle Benoni (i.e. intermediate), as expressing present time, -a time between that properly denoted by the two tenses. It is also called the participle Poel, from its form. To Kal there ia also joined another participle of a pasive sense, called Paül.

## 8 3. -FLEXION OF THE REGULAR VERB.

It will be observed that the verb is so arranged that the persons of the tenses commence with the third person sing. and go upwards to the first; the reason of this is, that in the pret. it is the third persons from which the verbs are formed.

The distinction of masc. and fem, (in some parts) must also be noticed, as contrary to what is found in the Western languages.

The inf. is placed next to the pret. because from it the imperative and future are formed.

## KA.

## Preterite.

Sing. 3. bop rā-tal, he killed.

2.


1. '

Plur. 3. $\quad$ ib op kā-t'lü', they killed.

2. HTTp $\mathrm{k}^{\prime}$ tal-ten, ye killed (fem.).

1. 19 ?

## Infinitive.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hop* step, to kill } \\
& \text { Abs. לivpe kà-tör', to kill. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Imperative

Sing. 2. Sip* k'tōl, kill thou (masc.)
2. "bop* kit-li, kill thou (fem.).

Plur. 2. קiptiū', kill ye (masc.).


## Puture.


3. $\quad$ 万ק
2. ל bing tik-tō', thou wilt kill (masc.).
2.

1. לקֻek ek-tōl', 1 shall kill.




2. נָּ nik-tōl', we will kill.

## Participle.

Act.
ק"ק̣" kō-tē, killing.

Pass. ל, pict* kā-tūl', killed.

When the verb in Kal has been thoroughly acquired, there is but little more to be learned as an exercise of memory with regard to the verbs; for the terminations and the letters prefixed in the future (called preformatives) are the same in all the seven species, and that even with regard to the verbs which are called irregular :-thus, a thorough knowledge of the twenty-seven words, of which Kal consists is almost all that requires any labour in the acquisition.

The participles and the inflitives in the several species will always require particular attention, as well, of course, as the manner in which the characteristics of each species affect the form of the words.

## NIPHAL.

## Preterite.

Sing. 3. bope * nik-tal', he was killed.


2. Fiper nik-talt', thou wast killed (fem.).
I. 'Fִ?

Plur. 3. nik-t'lu', they were killed.
2. $\quad$ ppoppa nik-tal-tem', ye were kilied (masc.)
2.


## InFImittve.

לụּקָּ* hik-kā-tēr', to be killed.


## Imparative.



Plur. 2. : thepp hik-kā-t'lu', be ye killed (masc.).


## Potuaz.

Sing. 3. לope** yik-kā-tel', he will be killed.
3. לט̣קָ tik-kā-tēr, she will be killed.
2. $\quad$ bupar tik-kā-tēl', thou wilt be killed (manc.).


1. לop ek-kā-tē', I shall be killed.


2. (maspant.)
3. ה
4. נְקָּקִּ nik-kā-tēl', we shall be killed.

Paeticiple
נִקְטְל " nik-tãl', kiliea.

## PIEL．

## Printenitt

sing． 3.
Spp：kit－tēl＇，he killed diligently．
3．infop kit－t lāh＇，she killed diligently．
2.

「ア0p＊kit－tal＇tă，thou killedst diligently（mac．）．
2.
1.

Putr， 3.
2．＇kit－tal－tem＇，ye killed diligently（masc．）．

$43^{3}$ Op？kit－tal＇－nū，we killed diligently．

## Infinitive．

Spop＊kat－tēr，to kill diligently．
Abs．$\quad$ Sop＊kat－tōl，to kill diligently．

Impriative．
Sing． 2.
לop＊kat－tēl＇，kill thou diligently（masc．）．
2．${ }^{2}$ ？
Hiur． 2.
4也® kat－t＇lu＇，kill ye diligently（masc．）．


## Puture．

Sing．3．$\quad$ bep：y＇knt－tèl，he will kill diligently．

2．bogit kat－tel＇，thou wilt kill diligently（masc．）．
2．＂جper t＇kat－t＇li，thou wilt kill diligently（fem．）．
1.

Gepor hkat－tel＇， 1 shall kill diligently
Plar． 3 Swe．y＇kat－t＇liz＇，they will kill diligently（masc．）．


2. הנְ

1. Sep ${ }^{2}$ 'kat-tēl', we shall kill diligently

## Participle

Act. Sen m'kat-têl', killing diligently.

## DUAL.

## Preterite.

Sing. 3. לeperent-tal', he was killed diligently.
3.
2. $\underset{\sim}{\text { Pep pen kut-tal'-tă, thou wast killed diligently (masc.) }}$
2. . kut-talt', thou wast killed diligently (fem.).

1. pf

Plur. 3. 3 pat kit
2. pe kut-tal-tem', ye were killed diligently (masc.).
2. pe kut-tal-ten', ye were killed diligently (fem.)
1.
infinitive.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hops. kut-tal', to be killed diligently. } \\
& \text { Abs. } \quad \text { hep* kut-tōl, to be killed diligently. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## imperative.

Wanting.

## Future.

Sing. 3. Sere: y ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ kut-tal', he will be killed diligentiy,
3. Sent t"kut-tal', she will be killed diligently
2. Ka per tkut-tal', thou wilt be killed diligently (masc.)
2. "

1. Sees ăkut-tal'. I shall be killed diligently.

2. .
3. 'thentertu', ye will be killed diligently (masc.).
4. ${ }^{2}$. $t^{\prime}$ kut-tal'-näh, ye will be killed diligently (fem.)
5. נֶקֶּטַּ n'kut-tal', we shall be killed diligently.

## Participle.



## HIPHIL.

## Preterite.

Sing. 3. הִקְטִיל* hik-tii', he caused to kill.

2. .a cone hik-tar-tā, thou causedst to kill (masc.)


1. הִקְטַּתְ hik-tal'-ti, 1 caused to kill.



2. הִקְחַלִּנְ hik-tal'-nă, we caused to kill.

## Infinitive.




Imperative.
Sing 2. הַקטק" hak-tēl', cause thou to kill (masc.).


2.

## Future.

Sing. 3. Sipe: yak-til', he will cause to kill.
3. הַ
2. לnup tak-til', thou wilt cause to kill (masc.).


1. אֲקַ




2. nַקְטִיל nak-tī, we shall cause to kill.

Apocopated Future.


## Participle.

Act.

## HOPHAL.

## Pretiritt.

Sing. 3 hoñon nok-tai, he was caused to kill.

2.



Plur. 3. hok-t'ü', they were caused to kill.



1. הָקְטְלִּלִּ hok-tal'-nū, we were caused to kill

## Leficititive.

## Implezative.

## Wenting.

## Puture.

Sing. 3. Sopi* yok-tal', he will be caused to kill.
3.
2. Son tok-tal, thou wilt be caused to kill (masc.)
2. ${ }^{2}$.
:. לow ok-tal', 1 shall be caused to kill.


9.
2. ${ }^{2}$ tok-tal'-näh, ye will be caused to kill (fem.).

1. गָ

## Pabticiplia.



## HITHPAEL.

## Pretierite.

sing. 3. hith-ikat-tel', he killed himself.




1. ${ }^{\text {. }}$, hith-kat-tal'-tī, 1 kilied myself.

2.0 .

2. $\mathfrak{q}$, הְחְקַּ hith-kat-tal'-nū, we killed ourselves.

Lnfinitive.


## imperative.

Sing. 2. לencene hith-kat-tēl', kill thyself (masc.).

Piur. 2. הִחְקְ hith-kat-t'lu', kill yourselves (masc.).
2, $n$,

## Puturs.

Sing. 3. Seṇ:* yith-kat-tel', he will kill himself.
3. ${ }^{2}$, tith-kat-teif, she will kill herself.
2. Aith-kat-tel', thou wilt kill thyself (masc.).
2. "קחקְק", tith-kat-thi, thou wilt kill thyself (fem.).

1. 'hente eth-kat-tel', 1 shall kill myself.

2. תith-kat-tēl'-näh, they will kill themselves (fem.)
3. then tith-kat-t'lū', ye will kill yourselves (masc.).
4. ח.
5. 

## Participle.

Act Senem mith-kat-tel', killing one's melf.
§ 4.-REMARKS ON THE TABLE OF THE VERB.
It is not requisite to use the personal pronouns with the pret. and fut; ; when they are inserted, they have a peculiar emphasis.

The terminations of the pret., and the preformatives of the future, are almost entirely taken from fragments of the personal pronouns, compounded, as it were, with the root of the verb.

Those parts of the verb, which are marked in the Table with an asterisk, are those from which others are formed. The manner in which the vowels in Hebrew are contracted, when a word is lengthened, is very well exhibited in the flexion of the verb.

## § 5.-ON THE PRETERITE OF KAL.

The verb $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{O}} \underset{\mathrm{T}}{ }$, being a werb middle $A$, differs in some respects, as to its flexion, from verbs middle $E$ and middle $O$.

The following is the pret. of $\underset{\sim}{\text { ®ָה }}$ kāh-vēdh', a verb middle $E$, which will show how the E sound disappears in lexion.



2.

1. כָּבָּרְּ

2. פָּבַרְתֶ k'vadh-tem', ye were heavy (masc.).
3. כּבַרְחֶּ k'vadh-ten', ye were heavy (fem.).
4. 

In puuse, however, the E sound may often re-appear.
In verbs middie $O$, the $O$, when accented, is retained; as, from ל; to be able; $\underset{T}{\text { nt }}$ syllable should lose the accent, then the $\underset{\sim}{-}$ Khō-lem becomes $\underset{\mathrm{r}}{ }$ Kā-mets Khatēph; e.g. from vailed ;

## 8.-ON THE INFINITIVE AND IMPERATIVE.

It will be observed, that there are two forms given of the inf.,-the construct and the absolute. This distinction is taken from the analogy of nouns: it must, however, be observed that the construct infinitive is the more simple form, and that it is not shortened from the other.

Infinitives are also found with feminine terminations $7_{7}, \Pi_{7}$, like nouns: this is especially the case in some classes of irregular verbs.

The form of the imperative bears (as is manifest) a very close relation to the infinitive; and the same form also lies at the basis of the future.

## T T. -ON THE FUTURE OF KAL, AND THE DISTINCTION

 OF THE FUTURE IN THE DIFFERENT SPECIES.In the example given above, ${ }^{3} p p_{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$-tal', the middle radical takes In the future, biep. yik-tol' ; this, however, is almost entirely conaned to veros middłe A; a good lexicon will, however, alwaye prevent difficulty by showing what is the vowel of the future in cases of any irregularity. If allowance be made for the variation as to the vowel of the middle radical, no difficulty will be found in the flexion of the future.

The following is the future of $\overline{7} \frac{7}{T}$ käh-vèdh':-


2. 7 T크 tich-badh', thou wilt be heavy (masc.).
2. "
1.



2. ${ }^{\text {2 }}$, tichubadh'-nāh, ye will be heavy (fem.).


So, also, in the imperauve:

In the future of כָּרָ kāh-vèdh', it will be observed that the letter 〕 receives Daghesh : this has nothing to do with the inflexion, but it arises solely from the second radical being one of the חַּׁק

 It is necessary not to confound Daghesh, inserted in one of these letters, with Daghesh forte, when found as a characteristic of a Dagheshed species.

It facilitates the distinction of the seven species in the future, to remember that in the regular verb the preformative takes, in Kal and Niphal, Khi-rik (Niphal having the nert letter doubled by Daghesh), in Piel and Pual, Sh'va; in Hiphil, Pa'-thakh; in Hophal, Kà-meta Khatēph; in Hithpaël, Khï-rik, with $\Omega$ following, making the syllable !? yith.

In the first person singular of the future, however, the preformative $N$ takes $\mathrm{Se}^{\prime}$-gol in those cases in which ' of the third has Khi-rik; and it takes - Khateeph $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh when the " has Sh'va.
§ 8.-NIPHAL.

It is considered that the syllable prefixed to the pret. of this species was originally and properly J ? hin. This, however, appears only in an abbreviated form ; צִקְטַל nik-tal' being for hin-k'tal': in the inf., however, the more full form is seen, for hik-kā-tēl is for הִנְקָטָּ hin-kā-tēl', the $P$ doubled by Daghesh being a compensation for the omission of the $J$.

This more full expression of the prefix is also found in the imperative, as being formed from the infinitive.

In the future the $\partial$ of the prefix is eltogether excluded, and its
omission is compensated by Daghesh in the following letter; thus, from bunple yin-kä-tel', by excluding the 3, and doubling the next letter, we get the existing form hơp, yik-kin-tēr.

Care must be taken to distinguish the participle of Niphal from the pret. third person sing. The pret. has $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh under the middle rudical; the part. has Kā-mets.

## § 9.-PIEL AND PUAL.

The characteristic of these two species is, that they are formed by internal modification of the root.

They are emphatic in their character, and that appears to be denoted by the internal strengthening of the form by doubling the middle radical. In Pual, as well as in Hophal, it may be observed how, in Hebrew, the thicker and blunter vowels are used in the passive woice.

|  | Piel. | Pual. | Hiphil. | Hophal. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pret. | i è | u a | i i | - |
| Fut. | a ė |  | a i | 0 a |

The participles of all the species, from Piei onward, take the preformative $D$; these participles may be distinguished from one anotrer, by bearing in mind that this letter is prefixed with the same vowel as the ' of the third pers. of the fut. of the same species takes.

## § $10 .-$ HIPHIL AND HOPHAL.

The characteristic of Hiphil is the prefixed ' T in the pret.; the ' inserted before the last radical is retained in the third persons sing. and plur. of the pret., in the inf., part of the imperative, and almost all through the future.

In regular verbs, Hiphil is the only species in which the apocopated future appears; the " is then omitted in the third and second persons (to which alone the future belongs), and the midde radical is pointed with Tsē-rẽ -.

The characteristic of Hophal is the prefixed ' hŏ : instead, however.
of Kä-mets Khatéph, Kib-buts is sometimes found as the vowel, both of this prefixed sollable, and also of the preformatives of the future.

## § 11.-HITHPAEL.

This species is plainly distinguished from the other species by the peculiar prefix, and the Daghesh in the middle radical.

The $\Pi$, however, of this prefix sometimes suffers certain modifications :-
a) If the verb have a sibilant $i, D, \mathcal{Y}, \dot{ש}, \dot{\mathcal{E}}$, for its first radical, then the $\Omega$ of the preformative and the sibilant are transposed; thus, from
 and then by transposing the $\Pi$ and the sibilant $v^{\dot{v}}$ we get hish-tam-mēr', to take heed. And when the sibilant is $\mathbf{Y}$, not only is there this transposition, but the $\Pi$ is then also changed into 0 ;-thus, from PדַTY tsâ-dak', to be righteous, we should have analogically in Hithpaël הֲתְצֵּק hith-tsad-dē̌', by transposition הִצְתּתָּ hits-tad-dēk'; and then by changing $\Omega$ into 0 ,
 case in which one of the eleven radicals can be used as a servile.
b) Before $T, ~\llcorner$, and $\Pi$, the $\Omega$ of the prefixed syllahle is assimilated Daghesh forte being inserted to compensate for its omission ; at from $\underset{T}{\text { Un }}$ tā-har', to be pure, we should have analogically haith-ta-hēr'; and this becomes הִחֲטֵּר hit-ta-hēr', to cleanse one's self. (The it which cannot take Daghesh is here regarded as doubled by implication.) Assimilation, also, some times takes place when the root begins with $J$ or $\beth$.
The signification of Hithpaël is commonly reflexive, but chiefly of Piet ; it also is sometimes used for to make one's self to be whatever the verb expresses, or to show one's self to be so, or to feign to be so. It has sometimes a merely intransitive signification, and sometimes it is passive.

The ideal meanings of the other species are often not the signification with which they are actually used:-thus, Piel is often causative. The lexicon must, therefore, be used to know in what species a verb is used (for very few are used in all seven), and what the actual signification is of each species.

## 5 12.-SPECIES LESS FREQUENTLY USED.

Of these some are mostly connected with Piel, as being formed by changes within the root, either by repeatins one or more of the radical letters, or by inserting a long vowel. Similarly there are found passive forms analogous to Pual, and marked by the vowel of the final syllable : there are also found forms analngous to Hithpaël.

The flexion of these forms may be known from the analogy reapectively of Piel, Pual, and Hithpaël.

1. Poel, bưip kō-tēl, act.

2 Poal, Soup kō-tal", pass.
3. Hithpoel, לpֵon hith-kō-tēl, reflective.

5. Pulal, 3 טp kut-lal', pass.
6. Hithpalel, Ghẹan hith-kat-lël', reflective.
7. Pealal, לoptal-tal'.
8. Pilpel. This is formed from verbs whose middle radical is 1 , or whose last two radicals are alike. This form will be noticed when the peculiarities of such verbs have beer pointed out.

9, 10. Poel and Poal will be considered in speaking of verbs whose two latter radicals are alike.
11. Tiphel, as 'תp tik-tēl', following the analogy of Hiphil.
12. Shaphel, as Soppei shak-tēl', also following Hiphil. (In Hebrew only in a derivative noun.)
13. Hothpaal, as Sōphin hoth-kä-tal', passive of Hithpaai,

There are also a few reduplicated forms found in Hebrew in single examples.

## § 13.- QUADRILITERALS

It will have been seen that a Hebrew root commonly and properly consists of three letters : - there are, however, some forms of more than three letters. The following are all the quadriliterals which exist as verbal roots:-

臽 par-shēz', to spread out.
kir-sēm', to devour.
ข่ยทำ ru-tăphash', to become green again
Ben kur-bal', to be girded.
 turn to the left.
The two former of these roots resemble Piel; the third and fourth resemble Pual. Some of them appear as if they were formed by the insertion of 7 , instead of doubling the middle radical.

Besides these there occur also other pluriiiteral forms as nouns.

## § 14.-IRREGULAR VERBS.

Irregular verbs in Hebrew do not mean verbs whose flexion is anomalous, but verbs which, because of some peculiarity in their internal structure, have some peculiarity in their flexion. For instance, if a letter, which ought regularly to take Daghesh, because of its place in the root, be one of those incapable of receiving Daghesh, then this circumstance will modify the application of the regular forms with regard to such a verb. The same must be observed with regard to werbs in which there is peculiarity in the nature of any of the radicals. But it cannot be too fully borne in mind that the formative letters of the several parts are always the same, whether verbs are called regular or irregular.

## A. § 15.-VERBS WITH GUTTURALS.

The first kind of irregular verbs is that of verbs with gutturals. Of these there are three classes.

When either of the three radicals is a guttural, the vowela of the word are necessarily affected by the peculiar properties of the letter. $\mathcal{N}$ and $\boldsymbol{i}$ do not come into consideration under the head of these verbs, except when these letters are regarded as actual consonants. The letter 7 must, for most purposes, be treated in verbs as a guttural.

These verbs must be distinguished according as the guttural is the first, the second, or the third radical (called, technically, verbs guttural, 1 gutturak, or $h$ guttural).

## 5 16.-VERBS 9 GUTTURAL.

The Table of verbs exhibits the verb '7py Ya-madh', to stand :- the parts in which the regular pointing, etc., are not exactly followed in this verb, will be easily observed by the learner.

These deviations fall under the following heads : -
a) When the first radical would ordinarily take a simple Sh'va at the beginning of a word, in these verbs a compound Sh'va is used.
b) When a preformative is affixed, it will take the vowel homogeneous to the compound Sb'va, as "Ty pound Sh'va is changed into that which is bomogeneous to the


e) The guttural, however (especially $\Pi$ ), in many verbs, when standing after a preformative at the end of a syllable, retains the simple Sh'va; but, in this case, the preformative takes the same vowel which corresponds with the compound Sh'va, which would have been used according to the rule given above. Thus, רity yakhmödh', he will desire. (This, according to the above rule, would bave been 7 hat ya-khămödh')
This is technically called the hard combination; when the compound Sh'va is used, it is termed the soft combination. Many verbs have botb forms.
d) When in such a form as 7 ºver ya-Yamōdh', there is an addition of a sufformative ( $1-$, "-, $\Pi$ ), which causes the final vowel to disappear in Sh'va, then the compound Sh'va of the guttural is regularly exchanged for the corresponding short vowel ; as
 middle radical in such a case may be regarded as Sh'va vocal. But in these cases, also, the harder form may be used.)
s) In the inf., imp., and fut. of Niphal, where the first radical would regularily be doubled by Daghesh, this doubling is of necessity omitted, and the previous vowel is lengthened to make compensation.
Verbs, whose first radical is $k$, fall under the rules here given, so fof
as the $\mathbb{N}$ is treated as a consonant at the commencement of syllable These verbs also require a separate consideration as to the casea in which the $\mathbb{N}$ quiesces. See verbs Pē A-leph ( $\$ 23$, below).

The rules will appear far from difficult when the learner's ear is well accustomed to the flexion of verbs with gutturals.
 to live, are not commonly treated as gutturals.

## 4 17.-VERBS $y$ GUTTURAL.

The variation of these verbs, from the flexion of Sop kā-tal', is not so great as is the case with verbs $\overline{3}$ guttural.

This will be seen from the flexion of PV; zā-yak, to cry out, a verb of this class, given in the Table of verbs.

The variations from the regular forms take place on the following principles :-
a) When a simple $\mathrm{Sh}^{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{va}$ would regularly be placed under the midde guttural, the compound Sh'va - Khatēph $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh is used with. out exception. For instance, as from hop kā-tal', we have third
 by the change of the Sh'va under the madie radical into --)

D) In the imperative, the vowel which precedes the Khateph $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh is assimilated to it; i.e. the vowel homogeneous to the compound Sh'va is used instead of the Khī-rik ; thus, "PUT za-Yǎki'.
c) The preference of gutturals for the A sound has some influence in these verhs on the vowel following the guttural ; and thus in the fut. and imperative of Kal, these verbs, even when transitive, are commonly inflected middie $A$. See the Table.
d) This preference of gutturals for the $A$ sound following them, not being, however, so strong or decided as for that sound preceding them, the Tsē-rẽ of the fut. Niph. and in Piel is commonly retained (even when shortened), and so is the Khō-lem of the inf. Kal.
e) But in Piel pret, the last syllable often takes $\mathrm{Pa}^{-}$-thakia.
$\cap$ In the three Dagheshed species, the Daghesh cannot of course appear, because it is the middele radical that takes it; however, $\pi, \pi$, and $y$ are generally regarded as doubled by implication; and thus the preceding vowel remains short.
g) But when $\mathbb{N}$ is the middle radical, the Khi-rik is commonly lengthened into Tsë-rē, as $\mathfrak{N B e}$ mēn, to refuse; and the vowel is aluays lengthened when 7 is the middle radical, as $\overline{7}$ בַ bee-reech', to bless. In order fully to exhibit this peculiarity of Piel, 7 ? 3 Bee-rēch' has


## § 18.-VERBS $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$ GUTTURAL.

With regard to the verbs which have a guttural for the third radical, there are two general rules which apply as the basis of their irregularities:

1) If the regular vowel of the final syllable remains, then furtive $P a^{\prime}$-thakh is inserted under the final gottural;
2) Or else $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh is substituted for the regular vowel before the guttural.
a) The strong unchangeable vowels $-, i, 1$ are always retained; thus,


b) The $O$ of the fut. and imper. Kal, not being a sound so strongly fixed (as it is always shortened when deprived of the accent), becomes $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh, instead of remaining, and $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh being inserted under the guttural. Thus, these varbs, whether transitive or not, become future A, as ${ }^{2}$,
c) When the regular vowel of the final syllable is Tsē-ré, this is either retained (the guttural taking furtive $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh), or else $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh is substituted for the Tseéree. This takes place with regularity in particular parts of the verb: the participles of Kal and Piel take Tsē-rẽ (except in the construct state; see under Nouns). In the fut. and inf. Niphal, and the pret., inf., and fut. Piel, the form with Pa -thakh is used, except at the end of a period and in pause ; then it is Tsee-ré, followed by furtive $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh.

In the inf. constr. of Piel and Hiphil, $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh is used; and so also in the shortened forms of the fut. and imperat. Hiphil.
d) When the third radical regularly takes simple Sh'va, the guttural commonly retains it, as being Sh'va quiescent.
e) In the second pers. fern. sing. of the pret., an auxiliary Pa'-thakh is placed under the guttural instead of Sh'va; thus, instead of ;
This $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh has sometimes been incorrectly called a furtive $\Gamma \sigma^{-}$-thabh; and this error in name has led to an error in enunciation, by taking the $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh before the guttural, as the real furtive $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh ought to be sounded.

## B. § 19.-DEFECTIVE VERBS IN GENERAL.

The second kind of irregular verbs consists of contracted or defective verbs. These differ from the three classes of verbs with gutturals, in the letters being affected in these verbs: in thene, one of the three radicals frequently disappears altogether.

There are two classes of defective verbs:
a) Verbs Pē Nūn.
b) Verbs "3y, or geminate verbs; i.e. verbs whose second and third radicals are alike.
§ 20.-VERBS PE NUN.

The verb peculiar texion of this class of verbs.

The general principle, with regard to this letter 3 , in these verbs is, that, when it would be pointed with Sh'va in any tense, it may be wholly omitted.
a) Thus the initial $J$ often entirely disappears in the imper. and in the inf. const. The fem. termination $\Pi_{v}-$ eth (or with gutturals $\Pi_{-}-$ -ath), is then, however, regularly added to the inf. The imper often ia also lengthened with a paragogic $n$.
b) When the ; pointed with $\mathrm{Sh}^{\prime}$ va, stands after a preformative at the
send of a syllable, it s omitted, and compensation is made by

 pret. Niphal, and throughout Hiphil and Hophal (which latter species always takes Kib-buts instead of Kä-mets Khatēph.)
The other parts of verbs Pè Nūn are all regular. The future with 0 is the most common, as in the regular verb:-one verb only, nä-than', to give, has the future with E ;-others, as in the example in the Table, have the future with $\mathbf{A}$.

It will be seen from these remarks that the irregularity of verbs "פ s confined to a very narrow compass, easily understood and easily emembered.

The Nūn is sometinaes retained in parts in which it might have been omitted.
 to the following letter, which is then doubled by Daghesh: thus, irst pers. pret. Kal for 'תָחנְחִּ nā-than'-ti, we find nā-that'ti.

In the verb לָק lä-kakh', to take, the $ל$ is omitted in the same manner as $\mathcal{J}$ would be; and thus it falle, as to flexion, under this class of verbs.

## \$ 21.-VERBS "UV, OR GEMINATE VERBS.

The general principle of the irregularity of these verbs is the con traction of the second and third radicals into one letter (doubled by Daghesh, in many cases, when practicable).
 exhibits the peculiarities of this class.
a) The contraction takes place even when a full vowel would regularly stand between the second and third radicals;-thus, $\bar{J}$ sōv' for

b) But when an unchangeable vowel is found between these radicals, or the middle one has Daghesh forte, no contraction takes place.
e) The effect of the contraction is to reduce the form of the root to a monosyllable; and this form takes throughout the vowel which
properly belongs to the second syllable of the full form. This may be seen by comparing all these shortened forms in the Table, with those of the regular verb.
d) The Daghesh forte, which properly belongs to the third radical, is not inserted except when formative additions are made at the end of the word. So that we have pret. third pers. sing. D gay and not 30 sabb.
e) When the afformative addition hegins with a consonant (1, $\Omega$ ), a vowel is inserted between it and the Dagheshed third radical. This vowel is in the pret. $i$, in the fut. ${ }^{4}-$ (see Table). This inserted vowel may (like the terminations of the persons) belong to the fragments of the personal pronouns which are combined with the root to form the flexion.
万 The preformatives of the future Kal, pret. Niphal, and of Hiphil and Hophal, stand in an open syllable; they are, therefore, prefixed with a long vowel. This long vowel is changeable when addition is made at the end of the word, etc., except the of Hophal.
g) There is also another way of concluding the syllable of these preformatives; the short vowel is retained, and the syllable is closed by doubling the following letter by Daghesh. Thus, from sā-vav (contr. Dַ sav) the regular future would be ${ }^{2}$ ', yis-bōv'; the first contracted form is $\bar{Z} \bar{D}_{\tau}^{\prime}$ yā-sōv', the second $\bar{Z}{ }^{4}$. yis-sōv'.
b) Attention must be paid to the tone-syllable of these verbs as marked in the Table; because, with regard to this, they differ in some respects from the regular verb :-the contracted root retains the accent on itself in several cases.
i) In many verbs of this class, instead of Piel, Pual, and Hithpaël, there are found the species Poel, its passive Poal, and the refective Hithpoel. Sometimes Pilpel and Hithps pel are found. The flexion of these species is regular like Piel.

## C. § 22.-VERBS QUIESCENT.

The thind lind of irregular verbs are those which contain one of the quiescent letters, "חקָ e-hěvi', in such a part of the root that it quiesces or coalesces in flexion with a vowel sound.

Of quiescent verbs there are eight classes :
a) verbs Pe A A-leph.
b) "Pe Yodh (when the " is for 1).
c) : Pë Yodh (properly).
d) "Pe Yodh (contracted).
e) ", A'-yin Vāv.
) " A'-yin Yodh.
g) " Lā-med A-leph
h) " Lā-med Hē (for 1 or ${ }^{4}$ ).

It will be observed that there are only six forms of these verbs, for roots of classes $b, c, d$ are alike in pret. Kal.

## § 23.-VERBS PE A-LEPH.

In those respects in which the initia, A-leph is treated as a guttural consonant, these verbs belong to the class of verbs Pe guttural. (See § 16.) They must, however, be here regarded in those cases in which the $\mathbb{N}$ quiesces, i.e. is not treated as a consonant, but is blended with the preceding vowel sound. This only takes place with particular verbs, and in certain parts of the verb.

 $\bar{a}-p h a ̄{ }^{\prime}$, to bake; the $\mathbb{N}$ always quiesces in Khō-lem; thus, from רַ vowel of the concluding syllabie, instead of Khō-lem; but, when not in pause, this -. becomes -; when the accent is drawn back from the concluding syllable, the vowel sometimes becomes $-\cdots$, sometimes - .
b) Some verbs have the future in two forms; one quiescing in $O$, the other with the $N$ treated as a guttural ; e.g. from Ins an-khaz', to

$c$ ) In these verbs with the $\mathbb{N}$ quiescing in $\mathbf{O}$, in the first person of the fut. the $\mathbb{N}$ is regularly omitted, in order to prevent the letter from coming twice together.
In the Table of verbs is given the fexion of a verb of this class.

A lexicon will always show whther, in a verb with $\mathcal{N}$ for the first radical, the $\mathbb{N}$ is treated as a guttral or as a quiescent.

In some verbs the $\mathbb{N}$ ssems to quiesce in.- , but in these cases the $\mathbb{K}$ has been treated as a guttural, and a contraction has taken place; e.g. from


## § 24.-VERBS PE YCDH (phopraly PE VAV),

The three different classes of verbs Pē Yodh must be carefully distinguished from one another, lecause their fexion is modified on entirely different principles.

The verbs of this class are regarded as if they originally had com. menced with 1 ; and thus the lettr 1 has a continual tendency to appear.
a) In verbs Pè Yodh for Vāy ${ }^{\text {the }}$ thee is a twofold form in the fut., imper., and inf. const. Kal. Abut half of these verbs have the ; in
 yà-shav', to sit, fut. בẹ̛.. y-shēv', with the ' of the root blended

 termination $\mathrm{n}_{\nabla}$.
b) The rest of these verbs retair the , in these parts: they have the
 is retained as a consonant, nd in fut. as "थ̌ำ" yi-rash', it quiesces as belonging to the vowel Khi-rik.
c) In Niphal, Hiphil, and Hopha the original 1 appears It quiesces in Khö-lem in the pret. and p.rt. of Niphal, and throughout Hiphil; thus, from ${ }^{2}{ }^{4}$, yā-shav', the Hiphil would be by restoring the !, Then hiv-shiv', then by Heading the $\boldsymbol{i v}$ (perhaps originally iw)
 restored 1 quiesces in Shi-rëk. In the inf., imper., and fut. Niphal, i remains as a ccisonant, and is regularly doubled by Daghesh.
d) In the Hithpaël of some vebs, 1 is used, retaining its coneonant power.

The other parts of the lexion of these verbs is mostly regular. (See the Table of verbs.)

As the initial " so frequently disappears, it is important to observe that these verbs, in most of the forms in which 'is omitted or changed, may be distinguished thus:-in Kal fut. by - under the preformatives; in Niph., Hiph., Hoph., by the 1 before the second radical.
§ 25.-VERBS PE YODH (properly so).

The peculiarities of this class are-
a. In Kal they take the same forms as those of the verbs Pe Yodh for Vāv, which retain the' as a consonant, with the fut. A. The becomes - when it loses the accent.
$b$ In Hiphil the " is retained, but quiesces in.- (see the Table of verbs), sometimes with -.
The only verbs belonging to this class are the following:一苞
 yi-tzar', to form ; S'י Yā-lal', to bemoan;

In the fut. Hiph. 3'יֶ has an anomalous form, with Sh'va placed under the first ', and the Tsee-re placed under the second instead; thus,


## § 26.-VERBS PE YODH CONTRACTED.

The ' in these verbs does not quiesce in a preceding vowel, but it dsappears, and its absence is compensated by doubling the next letter
 hts-tsĭay, Hoph.
 in which the ' is assimilated and the next letter doubled; and the other it which it quiesces in a vowel.

An example of these verbs is not given in the Table: their flexion is exactiy like that of verbs Pè Nūn, and they are of unfrequent occurrence.

## § 27.-QUIESCENT VERBS A'-YIN VAV

a The medial 1 of these verbs always quiesces; and thus the root always appears as a monosyllable.
$b$ The vowel in which the 1 quiesces is properly the vowel of the second syluable.
$c$ But from the $i$ being ordinarily united with this vowel sound, it generally becomes fuller ; thus, pret. Kal for Dilp kā-vam', we have $\mathrm{DP}_{\mathrm{T}}$ kām.
$d$ A verb of this class middle $E$ will have -. as its vowel; and so a verb middle $\mathbf{O}$ will retain its Khō-lem.
e The preformatives of Kal fut., Niph. pret., Hiphil, and Hophat, take a long vowel instead of a short one. Fut. Kal and Niph. pret. take - , Hiphil takes.- , and Hophal 4.
$f$ In the pret. Niph. and Hiph., $i$ is commonly inserted before the afformatives of first and second persons, "- is similarly inserted in fut. Kal before the termination $\mathrm{BI}_{\mathrm{T}}$.
g The accented syllable, as given in the Paradigm, requires particular attention, this class resembling verbs "Yy in several respects with regard to the accent.
$\boldsymbol{h}$ In verbs properly " $1 \boldsymbol{y}$, the species Piel, Pual, and Hithpaël are of very rare occurrence. The verb 7ily Judh', to surround, Piel Tyy yiv-vedh' is the only verb in which the 9 is retained in these species as a consonant. In some other verbs has taken the

i) For Piel, Pual, and Hithpaël, this class of verbs generally have Pilel, Pulal, as given in the Table, and Hithpalel. Some of these verbs are found with Pilpel.

It must be observed that the part of these verbs, which is given as th name of the verb, is the inf., and not the pret. The reason of this is, that in the pret. the medial radical is omitted, and thus the inf. is taen as the simplest form which exhibits all the three radical letters.

There are various peculiarities of punctuation found in verbs of this clss; practice, and a lexicon which gives the peculiarities of the dif-
ferent verbs, will do more than anything eise to make chese anomalies familar.

As these verbs, in many respects, greatly resemble verbs "yy, it will be well carefully to observe in the Table the parts in which they differ.

Besides quiescent verbs " $\psi$, there are also verbs whose niddle radical is 1 , treated as a consonant throughout; e.g. חָּ - verb Pè guttural, fut. 7

## § 28.-QUIESCENT VERBS A'-YIN YODH.

The general flexion of these verbs is the same as that of verbs $A^{\prime}$-yin Vāv; the ' in these words is treated just as the 1 is in those.

The principal distinguishing peculiarity of the verhs medial ', is the second form of the pret. with the 'retained. This form resembles, in its structure, Hiphil, but with the prefixed $\boldsymbol{i}$ omitted.

Some verbs possess both forms, medial 1 and medial '; and, indeed, in almost ail cases the connection between these two clasies is exceed'ngly close.

## § 29.-QUIESCENT VERBS LA-MED A-LEPH.

The $K$ in these verbs is partly treated like a guttural, partly as quiescing in the vowel sound with which it is connected.
a) In those parts of the verb in which the N remains at the end of the word, the regular vowels are found, only $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thkh is there changed into Kä-mets;-thus, the pret. is pointed thus, pָ mā-tsä́, to find. This ${\underset{T}{r}}^{\text {is }}$, however, mutable when additions are made at the end of the word.
b) The fut. and imp. Kal take $A$, according to the anabgy of verbs Là-med guttural.
e) Before afformatives, begianing with a consonant ( $\Omega, J$ ), the $N$ quiesces in the pret. Kal in Kà-mets, in the pret. of the other species in Tsë-rē, and in the imper. and fut. of all :he species in Se'-gol.
d) Before afformatives beginning with a vowel, the punctuation as regular
e) Verbs of this class, that are middle E, retain the Tsë-rè throughout the pret.

## § 30.-QUIESCENT VERBS LA-MED HE.

These verbs were originally, some "h, and some " $"$; but as the 1 or "is always, in these verbs, changed into 7 in the pret. third person sing., they are classed togetber as verbs "לוֹ. Very few verbs, however, occur which are properly " 1 .

The verb ${ }^{4} \prod_{-T}$ khā-yay', to live, is the only verb final' which does not change it into $i$; there are, in fact, two roots, the one "yy (pret.

 to be high : they must not be confounded with verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime} \%$ quiescent.

The chief peculiarities of these verbs are-
a) In all forms (except one) which end with the third radical, in is substituted for "or 1.
b) This it is pointed-
$\underset{\tau}{-}$ in all the preterites, in all the species.
$7-$ in all the futures and parts. act., in all the species.
$7_{-}^{-}$in all imperatives, in all the species.
$\mathrm{H}^{-}$in the inf. absol., in all the species, except Hiph, and Hoph.
c) The one exception in which the final "appears is the part. pass. Kal;

d) The inf. const. bas always the fem. form in 1 -
e) The original , remains, but is quiescent, before the afformatives beginning with a consonant ( $\Omega, 2$ ); in the pret., in the fut., and imper. it quiesces in "- ; in the pret. Kal --; in the pret. of the other active species "-. or "-; in the pret. of the passive species only *-..
f) The and the preceding vowel usually fatl away before the afforma. tives beginning with a vowel.
5) The apocopated future (which has been already mentionedj is found in verbs of this class in all the species.

The variations from the form of $\mathrm{SOP}_{\mathrm{T}}$, occasioned by the principlea mentioned above, will be easily remembered as to their application, by thoroughly acquiring the flexion of the verb itself. The learner cannot have too deeply impressed upon him the importance of having the eye, the ear, and the tongue, all combined to assist the memory and the reason in the application of rules.

## \& 31.-RELATION OF VERBS OF Different classes TO ONE ANOTHER.

There are many of these classes of verbs which stand in such close relation to one another, that two verbs which are nearly aike in their radical letters, but which belong to different classes, borrow forms from the verb with which they are closely connected.
a) Verbs "

 ing the pointing proper to verbs "אלד (iii.) the form of verbs "

On the other hand, verbs "לו" sometimes follow the analogy of verbs

 tich-leh'). (iii.) In both letters and points, as ata
b) Verbs "Yy and "中y. The similarity of these verbs is seen in their flexion in the Table, - and thus they occasionally borrow forms from one another; thus, יָּ yau-rūn', be will rejoice (for


1) The connection of verbs "1V and " $\%$ has been already noticed :-in these classes the connection of forms is so intimate, that in many of them a twofold root is laid down, as sum or aim, to put or place.

## § 32.-VERBS DOUBLY IRREGULAR.

Many verbs partake of the peculiarities of more than one of these
classes, tuas, a verb may be "פ and "ע, or and " 9 , etc. In such verb: the analogy followed is sometimes of the one class, some. times of he other, and sometimes all the peculiarities of both are observed.

These firms, when met with, should be examined with the Tables of both the chisses of verbs which are combined in the one root; thus, few of them wil present any real dificulty.

## § 32-PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES FOR THE VERB.

When tie object of the verb is expressed by a pronoun, it may either be done by using the word $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ (the mark of the object) with a pronominal suffi: joined to it; or else by placing a fragment of a persona; pronoun asa suffix to the verb itself.

The following is the Table of these pronominal suffixes:-

## Singular.


met.
2 pers. m. 7.7 - (ekhä), in passe $7_{7}^{*}$
2 pers. f. 7 , 7 $\frac{7}{\tau}, 7$.., $7 \frac{\geq}{\%}$
3 pers. m. $ก, 1 ; 4 \frac{2}{\tau},(4), 1 ; 4 \times$
him:
3 pers. f. 7 : $\boldsymbol{7}$
hor

## Piural.

1 pers.c. 3 ; $\operatorname{sj}^{2}$; $3 \frac{2}{\square}$
4
2 регs. m. כֶ,
2 pera. f. چ, ?

In most of these suffixes there are three forms ;-
a) One begnning with a consonant;
b) c) Two beginning with a vowel (for forms ending with a consonant), which must be written under the concluding letter of the preceding word. Of these two forms (as $?-\frac{4 y-7}{-7}$ ), that with the union vowel $a$ is for the forms of the pret. ; that with e (rarely with a) for the forms of the fut. and imper, The suffixes beginning with J have only Sh'va instead of a proper union vowel;-in pause this Sh'va becomes $T_{7}$ with the accent.
The suffix is sometimes streng.hened by an epenthetic being inserted between the verb and it; it may be properly termed $\mathcal{I}$ demonstrative: this only occurs in the fut. and in pause. This 2 , however, is commonly blended with the sufixes (represented by Daghesh forte in the next letter).

Thus, we find a new series of forms in the following persons:-
1 pers.
2 pers. $\overbrace{}^{\frac{2}{7}}$ (ance $7 \frac{2}{7} \frac{2}{7}$ ).


1 pers. pl. 45 (for $12 \frac{1}{y}$ ).

## § 34.-THE PRETEFITE WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

These suffixes often affect the word to which they are joined. In the pret. this may take place in two ways-
a) The terminations of some oi the persons of the pret. are changed before a suifix.
Thus,-
3 pers. sing. fem. the termination is $\Pi_{-}, \Pi_{r}$ (for $\boldsymbol{N}_{r}$ ).
2 pers. sing. masc. besides $\nabla_{T}$ there is $\pi$ with a union vowel (at least with the suffix " ${ }^{\prime}$ ).
2 pers sing. ${ }^{9}$ (for $\boldsymbol{7}$ ). This coincides in form with the first person.
 \%ariation, requires particular notice $:-2$ pers. plur. fem. $\sqrt{7}$ is nowhere found with sutixes.

The following is the flexion of the pret. in Hiphil before the suffize: :

## Singular.



## Plural.


b) The form is aiso varied, because the accent is drawn on towards the suffix, so that it never rests on the root itself: this occasions, particularly in the pret. of Kal, changes in the vowels.

## Singular.



## Plural.



The suffixes $\bar{\square}$ and $\hat{\eta}$, and $\square \underset{\%}{ }$ and $\mid 7$, always take the accent: they are distinguished by the designation grave suffixes.

The thitd pers. sing. fem. has (except with the grave suffixes) the accent on its own last syllable:-when followed by the suffixes, which do not make a syllable of themselves, they have their vowels shortened ; (7- $\boldsymbol{\omega}^{-3}$ ).

In the Table of verbs is given the verb combined with the pronominal suffises.

## § 35.-THE FUTURE WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

a) In verbs Future $O$, those parts of the future which end with the last radical, change the Khō-lem of the final sylable commonly to Sh'va vocal;-sometimes to Khatēph Kā-mets (-ָ); but to

b) For the second and third persons pi. fem., instead of nāh,
c) At the end of a clause, the form with Nun demonstrative is frequently used.
d) Verbs Future $A$ retain the Pa' $^{\prime}$-thakh in the fut. and imper.; and when it would have to stand in an open syllable, it is lengthened into Kā-mets.
e) In Piel the Tsë-rè of the inal syllable becomes Sh'va, except that
 ally into Khī-rek).

## 5 36.-INFINITIVE, IMPERATIVE, AND PARTICIPLE, WITH SUFFIXES.

a) The inf. of an active verb can take an accusative of the object, and, when so used, it has the verbal suffix properly so called; thus,
 however, be used as a noun, and take a suffix as a genitive (a
 the inf. thus assumes will be explained when speaking of nouns.
b) The imper. second pers. masc. sing. takes its suffix like the infin. with accus. : -second pers. fem. sing. and second pers. masc. pl. remain unchanged :-for the fem. ${ }^{\text {a }}$. $\mathrm{k}^{\prime}$ tol ${ }^{\prime}$-näh is substituted before a sulf. \&
c) The participles receive suffixes in the same manner as nouns do of the tame form.

## § 37.-IRREGULAR VERBS WITH SUFFIXES

As in many classes of the verbs, called itregular, the form and the vowels are considerably changed, of course the addition of a suffix will affect them in a manner not altogether the same as the regular verb.

The following variations require notice:-
In verbs " N ל, the N is treated as a guttural, and nct as a mere quiescent before 7, ,

Verbs "לדו lose the final $\pi$ with the preceding vowel when a suffix is
 Sometimes "- takes the place of final $\because=$ or $\pi-$. The third pes. pret. fem. before a suff. always takes the form ending in $\boldsymbol{n}$-.

## § 38.-VAV CONVERSIVE.

In this place it is needful to treat of 1 conversive, because otherwse some particulars with regard to the verbs cannot be explained.

In general, it must be remarked that the power of expressing time is not strongly impressed on the two tenses of the Hebrew verb:-if a note of time be given in the sentence by an adverb, or in any other way, then the pret. or fut. has its own proper notion of time subcrdinated to that which is specified; this may take place either absolutly or relatively,

When the conjunction 1 and is prefixed to a verb, in many cases it has the effect either of so joining the verb to something which tas preceded, as to change the force of the tense, or else to change the force of the tense simply and of itself
a) This is markedly the case with the future tense. I conversive of the future is prefixed with $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh and Daghesh forte in the nest letter 1 . ( It is thus distinguished from the ordinary copulative 1 , which takes Sh'va !.) From bipp: yik-tol', he will kill, we gat by prefixing ' conversive bip '1 vay-yik-tol', and he killed. Wih the preformative of the first person $\mathbb{N}$, the pointing is slightly varied, because $\mathbb{N}$ cannot take Daghesh; the 1 thus receives - st compensation for the omitted Daghesh : Sטְ

Sopky vāelx-töl', and I killed. This Daghesh forte may be omitted (see above, Part I. \& 13), when the letter which should receive it is pointed with Sh'va:-thus, in fut. Piel, ${ }^{\text {, }}$, $y^{\prime \prime}$ dabbēr, he will speak; and he spoke.
The effect which 1 conversive of the future has on the form of the verb to which it is prefixed, is important:-when an apocopated future exists, that shortened form is used after i conversive:-the accent is also often drawn back from the last syllable. Thus, from mūth, to die, fut. $\boldsymbol{\square}$,

bj Vā conversive of the pret. does not differ in its form from a common copulative ( (). In general, when a pret. is thus joined to a common fut., it loses its signification of past time. Thus, הָיָה hā-yāh', it was;
This 1 conversive of the pret. has generally the effect of throwng ferward the accent to the last syllable, in those parts of the pret. which would ordinarily have it on the penultima:-thus, הָ


This throwing forward of the tone does not take place in the first person pl., nor in verbs "לוֹלה"

## § 39.-THE APOCOPATED FUTURE.

In the second and third persons of the future of Hiphil in all verbs, -in certain parts of others,- and in all the species of verbs "ה, there is a shortened form of the future, called the jussive or apocopated future. The Table of the verbs exhibits those species of the different classes of verbs in which this is found.

The principal uses of the apocopated future are :-to express a command or wish, after a negative to express a prohibition,--in inferential clauses as after conjunctions signifying that,-and after 1 conversive.

The use of this fut. after 1 conversive, appears to be closely con. sected with its use after conjunctions signifying that; the I conversive
appears to be stronger than a mere copulative, as though the verb to which it is joined expressed a kind of consequence or inference.

## § 40-THE PARAGOGIC FUTURE.

The lengthened form of the future only belongs to the first person (thus reaembling the deliberative use of the subj. in Greek) ; it is formed by adding He paragogic ( $\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{r}}^{-}$) to the simple form of the tense; thus,
 verbs (except the passive) whether regular or irregular. It takes the accent whenever the afformatives $\rightarrow$ and - would do so, and thus it affects the final vowel of the future in the same way as these afformatives would do.

In signification and use, the paragogic future resembles the apocopated future; -it has not, however, the same tendency to follow a conversive 1 .

It may also be bere mentioned, that $;$ paragogic is sometimes added by way of emphasis to parts of a verb ending with a vowel.

## § 41.-APOCOPATEI AND PARAGOGIC IMPERATIVES

The imperative may be shortened in a similar manner and form to the future; it may also (although it is not used in the first person) receive the paragogic $\boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{-}$. In many verbs it is only one of the forms (common, apocopated, paragogic) which is found in actual use. Their significations are thus not so strongly marked as is the case in the future; the apocopated form, however, appears in its nature to mark energy-the lengthened emphasis.

The imperative cannot, in Hebrew, be used with a negative; this alone takes away a whole class from the uses which the corresponding future has: I conversive is, of course, out of place when an imper. is concerned; and thus any analogy, which might have been drawn from the fut. to these forms of the imperat., becomes exceedingly circumscribed. When the sense of a negative imperative is wanted, the future s used with a prohibitory particle.

## § 42.-FORMATION OF VERBS. DENOMINATIVES.

The verb is generally regarded as the root from which nouns, etc., are formed; and no doubt, in the great majority of cases, it is the mos? simple form which the Hebrew language possesses.

We may regard the different species as derivatives from Kal; and in fact, in many important respects as to signification and use, they must be so treated.

But there are also some real derivative verbs; they are formed from nouns, and hence they have the name of denominatives:-de nomine.
 $\bar{o}^{\prime}$-hel, a tent. The noun from which the denominative verb is formed, ls itself commonly derived from some other verb. Denominatives are often formed in some particular species, e.g. Piel or Hiphil.

## 111.-THENOUN.

## § 1.-GENDER.

In Hebrew there are only two genders, the masculine and the feminine. Feminine nouns commonly end in $\stackrel{-}{\Gamma}$ or $\Pi \rightarrow$ (preceded by a guttural $\Pi_{-}^{-}$); the termination $7-$ is by far the most common: sometimes there is a double termination $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{T}_{\mathbf{T}}$. Feminines are formed from masculine nouns by adding these termination's; thus, DID sūs, a
 n only is added; thus, 'מוֹאָאָ ā-vith', Moabitess; Nַּ sin.

Besides the words which are denoted by their termination to be feminines, there are also others of this gender; such as words which denote females, or names of countries and towns, and also in general those of members of the body;-besides these, there are many which are sometimes used in the one gender, sometimes in the other, such as Th e'rets, earth.

But whatever their termination may be, names of men, offices os men, of rivers, mountains, and of nations, are masculine. Also, care must be taken not to confound words ending with $n$, when the preceding vowel is not accented Kä-mets, with those having the fem. termination. In general, if the vowel be not Ká-mets, the $\boldsymbol{T}$ is part of the root; if the Kā-mets be without the accent, the termination $\overline{-}-$ is commonly a paragogic it appended to a masc. noun.

## § 2.-CHANGES OF NOUNS AS TO INFLEXION.

The changes which a noum can undergo (besides the instances in which a fem. is formed from a masc.) are those of number, and the construct state: to these may be aided the changes in connection with pronominal suffixes, when the vowels often alter, as is also the case with regard to the plural and the construct state.

In Hebrew there are no cases such as are found in Greek, Latin, and German :-their want is mostly supplied by prefixed prepositions. The term deciension is therefore, when employed in Hebrew, used in a new sense. Motion towards a place is often denoted by a paragogic $\Pi_{-}^{-2}$ (called in local), and this has sometimes been compared to an accusative case.

## § 3.-NUMBER. FORMATION OF PLURAL.

Besides the numbers used in the pronoun and verb, we find here also a dual; its use, however, is exceedingly limited;-it is wholly confined to substantives, and a dual substantive will take a plural adjective.
a) The masc. plural is formed by adding a -- (sometimes written
 sim', horses. If the masc. noun ends in "-, the termination may
 Hebrews; but a contraction of the termination is commonly
 (not
b) There are three very uncommon forms of the plural masc.-

1) $P$ - as in Chaldee and Syriac, -D being changed into 1 .
2) $\because$, the $\square$ being omitted.
3) $\because$
4) The termination for the fem. plural is $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ - . When the noun in the sing. ends with $\stackrel{-}{\tau}, \Pi_{\bar{\eta}}$, or $\Pi_{-}^{-2}$, the termination is omitted to

 ig-g röth'.
If the noun have no fem. termination in the sing., the pl. ending is

 rith', a Hebrewess; pl. עִבְרִיוֹת, עiv-riy-yōth'. If the sing. end in ת nive mal-kuy-yōth'.
d) Words which are sometimes used in one gender, and sometimes in
 phesh, soul; pl. The gender of these plurals is not necessarily that which their terminations wouid seem to indicate; the usage of the language, with regard to each particular word, is the only sure rule.

 shē-mōth'. Also many feminine substantives take the termination $\square^{4}$ - in the plural, as millah', a word; pl. מִלְּ millim'.
n) The certain use of the masc. and fem. $p$. terminations is only found in adjectives and participles; these always take the regular form for denoting the two genders; so atso nouns, of which there are a masc. and fem., only distinguished by the form.

## § 4.-THE DUAL AND ITS FORMATION.

The use of the dial in Hebrew is almost confined to those objects of neture or art which are in pairs; if two ordinary objects, such as men,
trees, houses, are spoken of, the substantive is generany put in the piural with a numeral.

The dual is denoted by the termination a :- ( $\mathbf{a}^{\prime}$-yim; for both

 the fem. termination $\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathbf{r}}$ becomes $\boldsymbol{ת}_{\mathrm{r}}$, as a $s^{\prime}$ phā-tha'-yim, both lips. Ferninines which end in $\Pi$ - retain the $\Omega$. nén

## § 5.-THE CONSTRUCT STATE.

The relation of one noun depending on another is expressed in Greek and Latin by the serond noun, or the one depending being put in the genitive case; thus, caput regis, the head of the king: the mode of denoting this relation in Hebrew is, however, just the contrary. In Hebrew, the change (if any) is made in the former noun, or that on which the other depends. This position is called the construct state. Thus, to express the horse of a king, or a king's horse, which would be in Latin equus regis, we must place, first, the noun horse, on which the other depends, and the word king in close connection with it;-thus ס ouns mé-lech; in this instance it will be observed that the former noan is not changed at all; this arises from its absolute and construct forms being the same. But from the close connection of the two words, the former is commonly shortened in the construct state.
a) In the sing. masc. the vowels are, in most cases, shortened; thus,
 יָ yādh, hand ; יָ yadh mé-lech, hand of a king.
b) In the sing. fem. the termination $7_{T}$ is changed into $\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{-}$, as from מַלְּהּ mal-kāh', queen; mal-kath' Sh'vā, queen of Sheba. Feminines in $\Pi_{\because}$ retain their termination, and if the same noun has both forms, that ending in $\boldsymbol{N}_{\tau}$ and that in $\Pi_{\nabla}$, the latter is used in the construct state, instead of changing the former.
e) The plural and dual terminations $\sigma^{4}-$ and $\square_{0}^{2}=$ are changed in the
construct state to "- (so that the dual then coincides in form with the plural); thus, from $\mathbf{a}^{\prime 0}$ 이 sū-sin', horses; construct


d) In plural with the fem. terminations no change is made, except that of shortening the vowels when mutable.
s) A peculiarity must be noticed with regard to nouns formed from verbs " $\pi$, when in the construct state : those ending in $\Pi_{-}$(masc.) form their constr state in $\bar{\Pi}-$.. as


The vowel changes in forming the plural and construct state ars shown in the Tables.

## \& 6.--PARAGOGIC LETTERS.

The termination $\boldsymbol{\Pi}-$ (unaccented) is often appended to a noun to


 māh, towards the Chaldeans. This paragogic in is commonly called $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ local, and it is sometimes used merely as denoting at a place, instead of towards.

The terminations ?- and $\ddagger$ are sometimes found added to nouns in coe construct state: they are also used in compound proper names in the same use (for instance, מַלְּ "first, being by interpretation, king of righteousness"). Thus, from
 bush. With a fem. noun, as from עy yal div-rā-thī mal-kī tsé-dek, after the order of Melchisedek. It may be seen that in these examples the paragogic -has the accent, and that is usually the case.

The termination $i$ is much more rare: in prose it is only found in
 e'rets, beast of earth.

## § 7.-THE NOUN WITH THE ARTICLE.

The article in Hebrew is formed by prefixing the letter $i$ to the noun, with $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh for its vowel, and Daghesh in the next lettee ;
 kāh', a queen; הָּרֶּ ham-mal-kāh', the queen.

The article - $\boldsymbol{T}$ is considered to be a kind of demonstrative pronoun, and most grammarians regard its original form to have been $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{T}}$ hal, but that the letter $\mathfrak{f}$ is always blended with the following letter, and its absence is compensated by Daghesh forte.

If the initial letter of the noun cannot receive Daghesh, then compensation is commonly made by lengthening the vowel of the article.

Thus, before N and 7 , the $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh is always lengthened into
 head; שixin Ț hā-rōsh', the head.

The gutturals $\Pi$ and $\pi$ may be sometimes regarded as doubled $b y$ implication, and thus the short vowel may be retained before them, with. out any difficulty as to closing the syllable; thus, we find that it reguiaily remains in, as ש゙ׁinin ha-khō'-dhesh, the month.

Before the guttural $y$, tke $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh is generally lengthened, as hā-yir', the city.

But if the guttural is pointed with Kä-mets, then before ${\underset{T}{T}}^{7}$ and $\underset{\Gamma}{y}$ the article is $\mathrm{T}_{\top}$, provided it stand before the accented syllable (hence this is the form before all monosyllables), as הָ hā-yām', the people; הָהָ hä-här', the mountain. But if the following syllable be not accented,
 tains ; ${ }^{+}$

Before $\Pi_{T}$ the article is wherever the accent may be piaced, ar
 uckness.

## y \& -THE NOUN WITH PREFIXES.

Various relations of nouns, which in some other languages sie ex-
pressed by cases, are supplied in Hebrew by prefixes. The following letters are prefixed to nouns for these and other purposes:-

? to, for, towards, as ${ }^{3}$ ?

-
We have here only to do with the manner in which these prefixes are united to the nouns, and not to consider the extent and variety of meaning with which they are used.

The prefixes $\underset{\sim}{3}, ?$, $?$, regularly take Sh 'va; but as two $\mathrm{Sh}^{2}$ vas cannot follow each other at the beginning of a word, these prefixes take Khi-rik,
 n fruit ; לְְְ liph-ri, for fruit; " pound Sh'va they regularly take the short vowel (followed by Metheg) that is homogeneous to the compound Sh'va; thus, $\underset{\sim}{T}$ uand; ; ba-ădhā-măh', in land : before quiescents this short vowel

 (saying, dicendo).

The prefixes $\underset{i}{3}, ?, \underset{i}{3}$, when they come immediately before the accented syilable, may be pointed $\underset{T}{3}, \frac{\zeta}{T}, \frac{\square}{T}$.

The prefix $\cdot \underset{\sim}{\varphi}$, as being really $\boldsymbol{\varphi}$ min, written in union with the following noun, regularly places Daghesh in the following letter:-when the following letter is pointed with Sh'va, this Daghesh may (as has been said above, Part $I$, § 13) be omitted, as from ' ${ }^{7}$ p'ri, fruit, we may form 'טְִ mip-p' $\mathrm{cr}^{\prime}$ ', from fruit; and then by omission of the


Before the gutturals • becomes n , as if the guttural be $\Pi, \square$ may be used, and the gattural is treated as doubled hy implication.

## f 9.-THE EXCLUDED ARTICLE.

When a noun has the article, and the prefixes 3, 3. ? are to de roined to it, the 7 of the article is omitted, and the prefix takes the
vovel of the article; thus, הַפֵּ ham-ma'-yim, the water :

 בֶּ

Sut as the connection of of similitude is much less close with the now than is that of the prepositions $\underset{Z}{3}$,$\} , the article may be retained$ afte it; thus, yön', as the day. The article is also sometimes found retained after ? and ?

The copulative conjunction ! does not exclude the article, as having no particular relation to the noun to which it is joined, only from such noun standing first in the sentence or member.
$t$ will be observed that the excluded article is only traced by the vovel points remaining under the prefix, and the Daghesh remaining in the following letter.

## f 10.-THE NOUN WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

To express a pronoun in connection with a noun (thus, my hand, the possession of us), chere is used in Hebrew a suffix in the same mamer as has been shown in the case of the verb.

The suffix joined to the noun is, in fact, the genitive of the personal protoun.

The internal change in the noun, when it takes a suffix, is shown in the lables of nouns.
"he following are the suffixes used with the singular:-

## Singular.



Plural.



Of these forms, those which are without a union vowel are joined to nouns ending with a vowel ( $\bar{n}-\mathrm{and} \mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{T}}$ are not here treated as wowel endings). The forms with a union vowel are used with words ending in a consonant.

In the dual and masc. pl., the terminations $\mathrm{D}^{4}$ - and $\mathrm{a}^{4}$ - are changed for the construct termination "-., which is then blended with the suffixes.

Suffixes of Plural and Dual Noung.

## Singuiar.



Plural.


The , in these forms is not unfrequently omitted in most of the persons.

To form the suffixes of the fem. pl., the same suffixes as are used for the mase are adjoined to the fern. pl. termination.

In the following example of a noun masc. and a noun fem. witr suffixes, one is chosen of which the vowels are not changed; and thus the attention only has to be directed to the manner of combining the suffix with the noun.

## Masculine Noun.

Singular.

## DAD sūs, a horse.

Sing. 1 pers. c. '며이 su-si', my horst
2 pers. m. $\quad$ TDitD sū-s'chä', thy horse.
2 pers. f. TD sü-sēch', thy horse.
3 pers. m . 'TDID sū-sō', his horse.
3 pers. f. TDDD su-säh', her horse.
Plur. 1 pers. c.
2 pers. m. $\quad$,
2 pers. f.
3 pers. m. $\quad$ D
3 pers. f. $\quad$ iộ

## Feminine Noun.

## Singular.

Dū̃ sūāh', a mare.

2 pers. m. Tת, Divi sui-sä-th'chā', thy mare.

3 pers. $m$. 4 กDive sü-sū-thō', his mare.
3 pers. f. $\boldsymbol{A}$ חָ
Piur. 1 pers. c. $\quad$ sū-sü-thḗ-nū, our mare.
2 pers. m.
2 pers. f. סטוּסַתְּץ sü-sath-chen', your mare
3 pers. m. Dita sū-sā-thām', their mare.
3 pera. f. $\quad$ iñon

## Masculine Noun,

Phural.
號 su-sim', horses.
sing. 1 pers. c. $\quad$ "Dū-say', my horses.

- pers. m. ज़?

2 pers. f. $\quad$ T? ${ }^{2}$ ? sü-sa'-yich, thy horses.
3 pers. m. $\quad$.




3 pers. m.
3 pers. f.

## Feminige Noun.

Plutal.
תivib sū-sōth", mares.
sing. 1 pers. c. 'חुiolb sü-sō-thay', my mares.
2 pers. m. Tifinio su-sio-they'-chā, thy mares.
2 pers. f. ${ }^{7}$ T,



2 pers. m.
2 pers. $f$.
3 pers. m.
3 pers. f.

## § 11. THE VOWEL CHANGES OF NOUNS.

The vowels of nouns are shortened on the same prisciples which prevail, more or less, throughout the Hebrew language; all addition to word has a tendency to shorten the mutable vowels.

In nouns, these changes are caused by -
a) The noun being in the construct state (and thus almost united to the following noun),
b) The noun having a pronominal suffix.
c) The addition of the plural and dual terminations.
d) The construct state in the plural, or a suffix added in ty plural.

The term declension has been employed in Hebrew grammar to denote these changes.

It will be observed that in the changes of the vowels of verbs, the later vowel was the most affected; in nouns, on the contrary, the vowel of the penultimate syllable suffers the greatest change.

In all the changes of a noun by addition at the end, the accent is thrown forward. We thus may find-
a) The accent thrown one syllable forward. This occurs with most of the suffixes of nouns singular, and by the dual and piural terminations: thus, ם d'vā-rim', words. So also with the light suffixes (i.e. all

b) The accent thrown two syllables forward. This takes place with the grave suffixes in the plural, when both vowels of the noun are shortened as far as possible;-the same shortening exactiy takes place in the plural construct; thus, 'רִ דִבְךִיכֶם div-rê-chem', your words.
In the construct state of the sing., the vowel-shortening is rathat more marked than when the sing. has a light suffix; the same is tia case with the sing. and a grave suffix ; as d'var-chem', your word.

In feminine nouns with the fem. termination, the changes of vowels are not so great, these nouns having been already shortened in their vowels in the course of formation; thus, from bitis gā-dhöl' (masc.)


The peculiar form of particular words may prevent all the different degrees in the shortening of the vowels; we may, for instance, find words, the wowels of which are immutable, or in which one chaige only is possibue.

## 5 12.-DECLENSION OF MASCULINE NOUNS.

The Tables adjoining exhibit the classes into which masculine nouns are conveniently divided, with regard to their internal structure and changes. The parts given in these Tables are all which it is needful to know, in order to be able to append the pronominal suffixes, etc., in all their variety.

If feminine noung be without a distinctive termination, then they will follow the changes given here in the sing.; but if their plurals (as is commonly the case) be formed with the fem. term. M-, then in the olural they follow the analogy of fem. nouns in general.

In the plural, all light suffixes are joined to the absolute state; the
 giruct state.
[The Declensions of Masculine and Feminine Nouns are shown in the
Tables at the end of the volume.]

## § 13.-ARRANGEMENT OF NOUNS MASCULINE UNDER THE DECLENSIONS.

1. All nouns whose vowels are immutable belong to Paradigm I. As this Table exhibits no vowel changes, it is only given to show the most simple formation, and to make the arrangement complete.
II. To Paradigm II belong the nouns which have a mutable Kīmets in the final syllable, and are either monosyllables or else have no mutable vowel preceding the Kä-mets.
III. The nouns which follow Paradigm III. have an immutable vowel in the final syllable, and a mutable Kā-mets or Tsè-rē in the penultima.
IV. Dissyllables, which have a mutable Kä-mets in each syliable, belong to the form of Paradigm IV. In the word $\boldsymbol{D T}_{\tau} \prod_{\tau}$ khà-chäm' (given as one of the examples), the effect of a guttural is shown in influencing the vowel changes. This class of nouns is very numerous.

Nouns of the more rare form bpp kiotil' (i.e. with the mutable

Tsē-rē instead of mutable Kā-mets in the penultimate), follow the
 chār', strong drink ; and with a guttural ר nāv', grape.
V. Nouns following the analogy of Paradigm $V$. are hardly more than a variety of the preceding class; they have final Tsē-ree instead of final Kà-mets; but this vowel is treated, in most parts, as the Kä-mets is in the preceding class.
VI. The VIth. class, of which several varieties are given, is very numerous: it comprises the forms called Segolates; the principle of these nouns is, that they were originally monosyllahic, with a vowel under the first letter; thus, there were two letters at the end of the syllable, as $\operatorname{por}$ malch; - to facilitate the enunciation of the letters, the Sh'va under the second letter is changed into a short vowel, commonly Segol, and hence the name of Segolates applied to the whole class; the accent remains on the place of the original vowel, so that the forms are generally with the accent on the penultimate.

Before the newly-introduced Se'gol, if the vowel, which the word had originally, was ahort, it was often assimilated to that newly introduced.
 troducing a Se'-gol we get me'-lech : पָפְּ siphr; inserting Se'-gol,
 guttural, the common inclination of gutturals for the A sound prevails, as shown in the examples $d, e, f$. The effect of a quiescent is seen in g, $h, i$.

The chief peculiarities of these nouns in their declension is, that before suffixes, and in the dual and pl. construct, the word itself returns to its monosyllabic iorm. Thus, 'מַלְ mal-k $\bar{i}$ ', "

The plural absol. is not taken as if from the form ${ }^{9}$ 每号 me'lech, but


The examples of this class exhibit in $a, b$, and $c$, derivatives of the regular verb; in $d, e, f$, guttural forms; in $g, t$, derivatives from verbe

VII. Nouns with mutable Tse-rē in their final syllable, and which are enther monosyilables or else have their preceding vowels immutable, velong under Paradigm VII. Besides many nouns, the participle of Kal of the form 5ō-tē, and those of Piel and Hiphil, belong to this class.
VIII. The characteristic of Paradigm VIII. is the doubling of the final consonant when any addition is made at the end of the word, and the consequent shortening of the preceding vowel. If the word be of more than one syliable, the vowel of the penultimate is affected accord-
 g'mal-līm'; const. '冖ٌ ō-phan-nim'. ( $O$ immutable.)

The mere form of a word will not show whether it belongs to this class; that depends mostly upon its etymology : a lexicon is the proper guide for indicating this.

The Daghesh in the last letter may be omitted when that letter is pointed with Sh'va.
IX. The nouns which follow Paradigm IX. are those derivatives of
 belong here only as relates to the final syllables; the other vowel changes will be according to general analogy.

## 6 14.-THE CHANGES OF VOWELS IN THE FORMATION of FEMININE NOUNS.

*) The ferm termination $T_{T}$ receives the accent, and hence, when added to a masc. form, it would affect the vowels in the same manner as do the light suffixes which commence with a vowel.
The following are examples of how feminines are formed from masculines: the numerals refer to the classification of masculines in the Tables.



$z \bar{a}-k e ̄ n^{\prime}$, fem.
 covert :


 kō-t'lāh', killing. VIII. רָ, fem. רַָּּ rab-häh', much : in khōk,


b) When the fem, termination $\Pi-{ }^{-}$is used, the vowels are similarly affected, although the accent is not thrown forwared ; as הָ khāvēr', fem. . affected, so that the termination of the word follows the analogy of the masc. Segolates (class VI.).
i. Kä-mets and $\mathrm{Pa}^{\prime}$-thakh are both changed to $\mathrm{Se}^{\prime}$-gol ; as $\square$

ii. Tsē-rē is sometimes retained, but in some words it is changed to


iii Immutable vowels (i, i, ?-) are exchanged for their corresponding mutable vowels; thus, בּוֹe bōsh, fem. ר g'vir, fem. פְּרֶּ g've -reth, lady.
 and $\beta_{4} \frac{\cdots}{4}$, corresponding to the masc. Segolate forms.

When the masc., from which the fem. is formed, ends in a guttural, then this termination is pointed $\Pi_{-}^{2}$, and it changes the preceding vowel
 acquaintance.

If a fem. in $\Pi_{r}^{*}$ is formed from a masc. of the analogy of Para. digm VIII., then the final letter is not doubled.
§ 15.-TABLES OF FIMININE NOUNS.
The declension of feminines is less complicated than that of mas. cullines, because the fem. termination las already shortened the vowels. Thus, the feminines given from the masc., in classes III., VII., VIII., all belong (as well as those of class I.) to the fem. Paradigm A. of nouns with unchangeable vowels.

In the plural fem. there is no distiction between the form before light and grave suffixes; the construct state is used equally before each.

The examples given in the Table (eide end of vol.), exhibit the four forms, the analogy of which is followedby feminine nouns.

## 5 16.-ARRANGEMENT OF NOUIS FEMININE UNDER THE DECLENSDNS.

A. All that have immutuable vowels bfong, of course, to Paradigm A.
B. Those which have a mutable Kä-nets or Tsë-rè before the fem. termination $\boldsymbol{i}_{\boldsymbol{\tau}}$ belong to Paradim B. It thus comprehends the feminines from the masc. nouns $f$ classes II., IV., V., and several of class IX.
In many nouns of this form, the ccexisting form in $\Omega_{*: ~}^{2}$ or $\Omega_{--}^{2}$ is used in the construct state, anc before 㫙fixes.
C. To Paradigm C. belong the feminnes from Segolate masc. forms. Nouns similar in form, but not derived from Segolates, do not belong here.
D. The feminine nouns, formed by te termination $\Pi_{\nabla}^{*}$, belong to Paradigm D. In the sing., these esemble the declension of masc. Segolates.
Many of this class borrow a plural from the co-existing form in $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{Tr}}$. or $\boldsymbol{7} \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{F}$ of Paradigm B.

## § 17.-IRREGULAR NOUNS.

There are many nouns which uistly deviate from the genere
analogy of the declension : a lexicon orht to point out all such peculiarities to the learner.

There are, however, secenteen noun which are declined in an anomalous manner; and, as they are in ommon use, it is of particular importance for the learner to be acquaind with them.

Most of their irregularities arise fro the construct state or the plural not being actually derived from he absolute, but from some wholly different (unused) form.
Nָ avy (as though for
 ăvīchem'; plural תiçș ā-vöth'.

 In these forms the analogy of verb:"לה is followed, as if in äkh stood for a-khīm" (Daghesh implied in $\Pi$ ), asf from Mms ā-kbakh'; hence, 'חַی a-khay', etc.: instead of ר a-khadh', fem. © یָn a-khe'-dheth), in pause Nָּ e-khāth'; plural
 ā-khū' = yō-thay' (as if from a sing. tha'-yich (as if from sing.
שin ish, man, softened for 'یַנְּ an-shēy' (rarely plural
 hōth',
 cat.

 from as if from monther sing

花 bèn, son (for


בַּ bath, daughter (for 'בּנְ cst. בִּנוֹת b’nöth.
חָ khām, father-in-law ; buff. $\boldsymbol{T}^{\top}$ ת
חָּ khă-möth', motherin-law.


 kē-leh').
 מִימִּיֶּם mè-mè-chen'.
 found in use in proer names).
ה peh, mouth (for
 piv.
 r'ä-shïm').

## § 18.-SERIVATION OF NOUNS.

Some few nouns are frimitives, or at least there are no roots in the Hebrew language to whic they can be referred; but Hebrew nouns in general are derived from he different parts of the verb.

IN $\overline{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{f}$ father; O e e , mother; and others are primitives. Nouns derived from verbs are caled verbals, as dek, צְרָקָה ts'dā-kăh', rghteousness, from Besides these, there are also nount derived from other nouns, called

at the feet. Many of the nouns, from which denominatives are formed, are themselves verbal derivatives.

Hebrew nouns, derived from verbs, have been sometimes divided intc naked forms, i.e. those which simply exbibit the radical letters of the verb; and augmented forms, i.e. those in which some addition is found to the letters of the root.

The letters which are added, in order to form nouns, are, , D, N , N
 used to designate such nouns as Heëmantive nouns.

In Hebrew there are very few compound nouns, with the exception
 as proper names, compounds are very frequent.

## § 19.—VERBAL NOUNS.

A very brief sketch of the formation of verbals must here suffice: the importance of the principles of formation being attended to by the learner, arises mostly from the signification of words being indicated by their form, and also from their inflection often being known from understanding from what class of the verb they come.

The parts of the verb with which verbals are connected are the participles and infinitives, which may themselves, without any change in form, be used as nouns.

Nouns connected with the inf. regularly denote action or state (according as the meaning be transitive or intransitive), with other connected ideas, such as place of action; they are mostly abstract. Participial nouns commonly denote the subject of the action or state, and hence are concrete. Particular words, however, often differ in meaning from that which they should ideally signify according to their form.

This is much the same as is found in other languages, when a noun, properiy abstract, is used by a kind of metaphor as a conerete, or vice rersa. The English word acquaintunce is properly abstract; il I have no acquaintance with that science"; but it is used as a concrete, whep
we say, "He is an acquaintance of mine," i.e. one of those with whom 1 am acquainted. This is the case in Hebrew with regard to many words.

## 20.-FORMS OF VERBAL NOUNS FROM THE REGULAR VERB.

Of these, a brief view is given in the following list:-the letters ל, $U$, P, are given, not as though words necessarily existed with such letters, but in order to reduce the forms to a kind of common standard.
I. Forms originally Participleb or Paeticipial Nouns of Kal.
 from verbs middle A , mostly used as an adjective expressing quality. See a similar form below ( m ).
 used for intransitive ideas and adjectives of quality.
c) לibp kā-tōr, and binp kā-tō (with $O$ unchangeable), fem. $\mathbf{k}^{\prime}$ tō-läh'; partic. form of middle $\mathbf{O}$, intransitive in sense : -also an adjective form, even when in pret, middle 0 is not found. The same form in substantives is abstract. (The similar form ee, with the last radical doubled, must not be confounded with this.)
 mon form of the act. part. of verbs transitive; hence, used of the instrument with which an action is performed.
 form mostly used as a subst. This form from intrans. verbs expresses quality. Some words of this form express the time of action. The feminines of these forms are apt to take an abstract signification.
 What is habitual; hence, used of trades or occupations. The
 abstract signification.

The doubled middie radical is intensitive in this and the three foilow. ing forms:-
g) קַ kat-tir, and kat-tül' forms of adjectives, only frum intransitive verbs.
k) ; kit-tol'; a form of words implying character, found rarely in a passive sense.
i) P kit-tel'; a form indicating great intensity, so as often to be a fault or defect. The fem. signification.

## I. Forma besimbling Infinitives of Kal.

 (and $l$ ) are the simplest forms of this class: - the first and last of these are used in verbs as the inf. They are not common as nominal forms (i.e. forms of nouns).
 in far more frequent use than the more simple inf. forms. (On the formation, etc. of Segolates, see above, $\{13$, VI.; also on the formation of their feminines, § 14.) In these, as being inf. forms, both in the masc. and in the fem., the abstract is the proper and most frequent signification; the concrete, however, is often found, especially in the form sense is secondary, and derived from the abstract, or else the form is shortened from one with a concrete sense. There is, however,
 passive sense.
 used with absir. sense, with the partic. form $b$, as the corresponding concrete. The form bow ke-tal' (a concrete) is more rarely found.
 of which have a Sh'va, and an unchangeable long rowet. Sometimes a prosthetic N is adjoined, so that we have the form biupk
ek-töl'. The feminines are simply formed. The forms infer

G) Gup mik-tāl'. This is an Aramæan inf. form. Similar forms are pointed $\frac{:}{:},-\frac{\square}{r:-}$. This form often expresses, besides the action, the place of action; sometimes the instrument.
 and $i_{\pi}$. For $\mathfrak{i}$ - there is also a truncated form $\boldsymbol{i}$ (or it) found especially in proper names.
) ח $n$ ? except in the later books.

## III. Participial Forms fhom the Derived Species or

## Conjugatione.

(wa) From Niph.,
 maz-mē-rāh', pruning-knife.





## IV. Infinitive Forms of the Derived Specige.

hh) From Niph., the form
ii) From Piel, as $\gamma$ 昭 ${ }^{\text {g }}$, nap-pēts', dispersion; more often in a fem. form, as ${ }^{7}$
kk) 3 kit-til', and-
 (The latter is very common in Arabic.)
 hash-mā-V'üth', announcing. 'The Kä-mets is unchangeabie.



qq) From Pile,,$\underset{\sim}{\text { qu }}$ a putting on, and-
rr) Пiterin na-ăphūph', adultery.




## § 21.-FORMS OF VERBAL NOUNS FROM THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

The variations in the formation of such nouns, are almost entirely caused by the peculiar forms of the verbs themselves. Those, there fore, only will be particularly noticed in which the variation is marked. The verbals from verbs with gutturals fall, as to general principles, under the nouns from the regular verb.

The letters of reference, in the following lists, connect the forms with those of the regular verb, which have been similarly marked above.

## 1. From Verbs" $\quad$ "

Inf. Kab.

Inf. Hiph.
mm) no הָּלָּה hats-tsä-läh', deliverance (from nā-tmal). Similarly
 yā-dhav'.

## II. Prom Verbs "y.

Part. Ki.

 (from
b) מֵּ mèalkh, fat (from Min mā-khalh').

Inf. Kab.
 line', word; ה?

VERBAL NOUNS FROM THE IRREGULAR VERBS. 81
 ה m'ghil-iah', a roll. By drawing back the accent, the form



Part. Derived Species.
 naked 'a form collateral to Pilpel).
Inf. Derived Species.
 form
From the species Pilpel, het? gal-gal', a wheel (from Sts gā-lal').

## III. From Verbs "פר.

The participial forms are regular.
Inf. forms.
 yā-dhay").




 mān' south.

## IV. From Verbs "iy and "Yy.

Part. forms.
a) ${ }_{\boldsymbol{T}}^{\boldsymbol{t}}$ zār, foreign.
b) 解 ger, stranger; fem. yē-dhah', witness.
c) בive tōv, good; הרָ

Inf. forms.

s2 VERBAL NOUNS FROM THE IRREGULAR VERBS.


-) గִּוֹ place: also טִּ mish-shōt, oar (from Olvi).


V. From Varbs "

Part. forms.
b) הָּק
 הֶ tā-veh'.
d) ) rō-eh', seer : fem.

Inf. forms.




 Uurd radical rarely remains as a consonant, as 4 צֶק a'vay, sickness: but in feminines it is always found with its consonant puwer, as is ictur shal-wāh', rest ; ?
n)
 שְׁחִית sh'khith', pit.
药 mits-vāh', command; ; for

 tar-büth, brood.
mm)

V1. From Verbs Doubly Irregular.
The following are cases of some peculiar difficulty :-
i.) From a verb "

 sign, prob. from הָּ yā-phāh'.


 for

 (How together): ' T ri , irrigating, for '
Dififculty is also sometimes found from a comtraction having taken place, when the root originally contained 2,7 , or $\pi$; as $\Pi$ I gath, wine-
 anger, for


## § 22.-DENOMINATIVE NOUNS.

These are formed from other nouns, whether such nouns are themselves primitives or verbals. Thus, phoph kadh-monn', eastern, comes
 dham'.

The forms assumed by denominatives have been mostly given already, since these nouns generally imitate the forms of verbals. Thus, a verbal, with the prefixed letter © (see $a$, the form prop mik-tal'), was used to signify the place of an action; and in denominatives $D$ is prefixed to a noun to make it a designation of place.

The following are the principal forms of denominatives:-

gate： rēm＇，vine－dresser，from
i．）Like verbals $f$ ，$\Pi$ ，wash－shäth＇，archer，from $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ חַּ mal－lakh＇，seaman，from mé－lakh，sait．This and the previous form indicate occupation，trade．
4i．）Nouns with a prefixed $D$（see verbals o）expressing the place of any－ thing，as maly－yān＇，place of fountains，from


 of cucumbers，from $\mathbb{N} \underset{\sim}{i}$ ？kish－shü＇，cucumber．
iv．）Concretes，formed by the addition of $\dagger$ 位，位，as jivap kadh－mōn＇
解 a＇－char： lity－yāh，a winding．
 i－shōn＇，little man（apple）of the eye．
『．）The termination $\because$ is peculiar to denominatives：this termination changes a subst．into an adj，and it is added particularly to numerals，and names of persons and countries，to form the cor－ responding ordinals，gentile nouns，and patronymics．Thus，from נָּ

 yis－rā－è－li＇，Israelite．In forming a denominative thus from com－ pound words，the compound is generally divided；thus，from
 Rarely for this term．we find＇- ，as＇כִ ki－lay＇，deceitful；and ה－，as liv－neh＇，the white poplar．
 mal－kūth＇，kingdom，from


## \$ 23.--CARDINAL NUMBERS.

The cardinals in Hebrew, from two to ten, are abstract substantives, The the English dozen, score; they are also used adverbially. One, masc.
 other cardinats bave also a mase. and fem. form ; but they are used in connection with the oppositive genders to their own in form. Only in the dual for two, the numeral agrees with the object numbered in render.

## Masculias.

Absol.

1. $\quad 7 \prod_{\tau}$ S ekh-khādh'.


2. ก

3. Bẽ̛o shisb-shàh ${ }^{\prime}$.
4. ${ }^{2}$,

5. 
6. (

Constr.
Tחַ
sh'në'.
为
אַּרַ ar-ba'-yath.

ת
解 shiv-yath
חקשְ
תִּשְ tish-yath'.


## Feminine.

1 Tהצ akh-khath'.
9. $\square: n_{n}^{\prime}$
3. שלׁe shā-lōsh'.


6.


Kin akh-khath'.

שher sh'losh.

Khămēsk'.
we shësh.



The numbers from 11 to 19 are expressed by the simple juxtaposition of the units with the numeral 10 （without a conjunction）；the form of ten is then fem．（masc．in form），the units are in the construct state，which in these cases only expresses close relation．These compound numerais have no construct state，and are always construed adverbially．

In the first two of these numerals there are some peculiarities；the third（13）shows how the rest are formed．

## Mabculine．

11. 



Feminine．


13．ה

The tens，from 30 to 90 ，are expressed by the plural forms of the corresponding units；thus， $\bar{\square}$
 shiv－ $5 \mathrm{im}, 70$ ；${ }^{2}$ are of the common gender，and have no construct state．
 used thus in connection with $\underset{\substack{\text { wity } \\ \hline}}{ }$

When units and tens are used together, they are connected by the conjunction; the earlier usage appears to have been to place the units frrst, the later to place them last.

The following are the remaining numerals:-
 bundreds.
200 -
 mê-öth', etc.
 thousands.

3,000 ארְבֵּ


맨ㅋำ rib-bō-tha'-yim, dual.
30,000 30, tib. bū-ōth', etc.
Some of the units are found in the dual with the signification fold;


The plural תiniety yăsă-rōth', means decads, not ten.
Pronominal suffixes to numerals are tramslated as in apposition with the numerals, as
§ 24.-ORDINAL NUMBERS.
The ordinal First is expressed in Hebrew by jivivo ri-sbön' (for
 nals, from 2 to 10 , are formed as denominatives from the corresponding
cardinals, with the term. "-, and also sometimes inserted in the final syliable.

| Second <br> Third |  | shē-ni'. sh' 1 i -shi'. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fourth | רִדִיצִ |  |
| Fifth | - |  |
| Sixth |  | shish-shì. |
| Seventh |  | sh'vi- $\mathrm{ys}^{1}$ '. |
| Eighth |  | sh'mí-ni'. |
| Ninth | 品 | t'shi-y $\mathrm{y}^{\text {re}}$. |
| Tenth | - | Уasi-ri. |

The fem. forms have the term. ת'-, rarely ins.-; they are also used
 Segolate masc. forms are found with the same signification; as שinin女hö'-mesh, fifth part.

## IV.-PARTICLES.

## \& 1.-THE PaRTICLES IN GENERAL.

All the words used as adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, fall, in Hebrew, under the general name of particles. Ther are mostly borrowed or derived from nouns; some few from pronouns ot verbs. A very small number are primitive.

Those which are derivatives are either, (i.) words borrowed and used with some relation to their original meaning; or (ii.) derivatives formed by addition to another word, as $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ yō-mảm', by day, from Díh yōm, day ; or (iii.) by abbreviation. This is the most common method.

Some of the particles are words so much abbreviated that all character of independent words is lost, and there only remains a letier prefixed to the following word. Such are called inseparable particles.

Particles are also formed (though hut carely) by composition; and
frequently two particles are so connected that they require to be construed together.

## § 2.-ADVERBS.

i.) There are primitive adverbs such as those of negation, tio lo, not;

 at all events for grammatical purposes, be regarded as primitives.
ii.) Other parts of speech, used as adverbs without change of form, are-
a) Substantives with prepositions; as very, greatly; בְּקָּ k'ekh-khädh' (as one), together.
b) Substantives regarded as in the acc.; as $\begin{gathered}\text { as } \\ \text { m’ödh (migbt), very, }\end{gathered}$ greatly; ${ }^{7}$ ¹: yá-khadh (union), together. Some substantives, so used, are not often found in their original signification as nouns;
 (circuit), round about.
Adjectives, as so (properiy, atraight, right) -especially fem. adjec-
 ת크 rab-bath', much.
d) The inf. absol. of verbs, especialily those of Hiphil; these, like substant:ves, are regarded as accusatives; as הַרֵּ har-bēh', much ( $\mu$ rop. doing much).
e) Pronouns, as $7!$ zeh, this, used for here.
iii.) Other adverbs have been formed by adding $\square_{+}$, more rarely $\square_{-}$to substantives; as信 $\hat{i}^{*} \bar{o}^{\prime}$-men, truth;
iv.) Adverbs formed by some abbreviation of longer words; as 7 N ach,


1.) Some adverbs involve a kind of verbal idea, and thus may be used with pronominal suffixes; these suffixes generally have the same form as when used with verbs; vì. yēsh, a particle of existence; ; ${ }^{\prime}$ S a'-yin, a part. of non-existence, are thus used; as '

or construct state ${ }^{\prime}$ - en, implying men-existence, involves the verb to be understood.

## § 3.-PREPOSTTIONS.

i.) Most of these were originally -
s) Substantives in the accusative and construct state, so that the noun governed is regarded as a dependent gentive; thus, 7 N Nak-khar', hinder part, stands as a prep. for behish, after; ip min (part), from, out of; 7Q (duration) sntil.
D) Substantives in the construct state with refixes; as
 account of.
Many substantives, used as prepositions, are found in the phura' con-
 rence than N akh-khar'.
ii.) Prefix prepositions. There are four prefixe of a single letter, which are regarded as abbrevistions of entire worde : they are-


The three first of these are regularly rrefized with Sh'va; as M בִּרֶ as 'ִ?
 quiescents, however, the short vowel and the compound Sh'va may
 sylable having the accent, they are often pointd with Kä-mets, instead of Sh'va; as $\underset{\sim}{\text { S }}$ lã-thēth', for to give. Befoe the article, these three prefixes displace it, and receive its vowel, as las been explained above (III. § 9 ).
$\cdot \nu$ is a contracted form of $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varphi}$, in which the $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ is combined with the following word by doubling its first letter by Daghesh forte; thus, מִבּיָ

of the word，to which it is prefixed，be pointed with Sh＇va，thi Daghesh may be omitted）．Before gutturals，$\cdot$ Pecomes $p$（to comprosate，by the long vowel，for the want of the doubled consonant）；as a Yām＇，from a nation：$\Pi$ is sometimes regarded as doubjed br implica． tion，and then retains Khin－rik，as טM mikh－khūt，from a thread．
iii．）Prepositions with pronominal suffixes．A pronoun follovs a prep． in the same manner as it does a noun，in the form of a suffix．
The following Table exhibits the inseparable prepositons with suffixes：－
a）？with pronominal suffixes：

## Singutar．

Plural．

## 1 p．e th to me．


3 p．m．it to him．
3 p．f．所 to her．

？takes suffixes in the same manner，except that for the tird person

b）$\ddagger$ with pronominal suffixes ：
Singular．
Plural．

＂施宁 as we．


3 p．m．Aning as he．
sp．f． $\operatorname{Tin}_{\boldsymbol{T}}^{\text {in }}$ as ahe．
c）with pronominal suffixes：
Singular．
Piural．
p．c．${ }^{3}$ 解



As some prepositions were originally nouns sing., and others nouns plural, and as in others, both the sing. and plursil were so used,-it will be found that the suffixes also vary accordingly.

In some there is a peculiarity of pointing, when combined with suffixes; thus,
 word $\cap \mathrm{N}$ êth, as tbe mark of the object (bence of the accusative in the active species) with suffixes; this latter
 these forms are sometimes interchanged.

## § 4-CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions were mostly originally otiner parts of speech, or worde which had become previously adverbs or prepositions.
 pronouns. (Compare quod in Latin.)

Such as wal, à bal, that not, were previously adverbs: such adverbs may be combined with a prep.; as an
 in addition that $=$ much more, or much less.

The words (or nouns so used); and thus combined conjunctions are produced; as促 kev ki, because. But the conjunctive the prep. may remain as a conjunction with the same signification as belonged to the combination.

No conjunction is used, with nearly the same frequency, as the inseparable copulative 1. This conj. is regularly prefixed with Sh'va; as וּלִלך ū-l'choll' (the oniy case in which a vowel can begin a word):-before the other labials $\mathcal{Z}, D, D$, it also takes the pointing $)^{\text {; as }}$ as lech, and a king. Before ", ! is changed into !; as "! vi-hi" (and it will be), for ' ${ }^{\text {' }}$ ? which would be unpronounceable in Hebrew: -before

7 and $!$ it is sometimes pointed ! or 7 :-immediately before the accented syllable, it often takes Kä-mets (like 3, 3, ל) ; as 4nī̀ vā-vó'hū, and emptiness.

The punctuation of this letter, when prexixed to verbs, has been considered elsewhere (II. §38).

## 5 5.-INTERJECTIONS.

Several of these are primitive words, being the expression of mere
 woe to $I$ ח

The greater part of the interjections were, however, other parts of speech, which from usage acquired this character; as in hen, or $n$ inn
 gite, imper, of ב⿹\zh26灬, yehav), ued for, cowe on ! go tol and many otbe: words.

## PART III.

SYNTAX.

In treating of the peculiarities in Hebrew construction, it has ng been thought needful to premise those particulars which are necessaris tound in all languages governed by ordinary rules. Those points an noticed in which some peculiarity arises from the nature of the lar,uage, or from the application of peculiar lawe.

## I.-THE NOUN

## \& 1.-SUBSTANTIVES FOR ADJECTIVES.

In Hebrew the proportion of adjectives is comparatively small;-thi leficiency is supplied by substantives. A substantive, denoting qualit or material, is placed after another which it is intended to qualify, th: ast mentioned being in the construct state; thus, wessels o alver, for silver vessels; ternal possession.

Occasionally the substantive, which qualifies another, stands first in
 hy choice valleys. With the substantive totality, used for the adj ill. this is the common construction.

Many adjectives, expressive of property, attribute, or habit, are sup lied in Hebrew by a circumlocution; a word, such as mis man,
 valiant man (lit. son of might); wiy byiz for hairy (lit. master o: lair), and so with the other terms.

Some few adjectives are so applied as to be uned for subscantives :
that is, they are appropriated to some object peculiarly possessed of the


## 5 2.-plurals and COLLECTIVES.

Many words are used in the plural, in Hebrew, when other laiguages would employ the singular. Thus all terms which imply parte space, extencion, or continuance; as as life,


The word singular; but it commonly then takes singular adjectives, verbs, etc., so that the idea of singular and plural appears to be blended in thi form: -this is commonly referred to the plurality of persons in the Grdhead; especially relying upon such passages as, "And God (pl.) said (sing.), Let us (pl.) make (pl.) man in our image," etc. Some norás of dominion are also found applied to one person or thing, but nerer with the same adjunct of real plurality, and generally, at least, from the terms having been originally abstracts (like his lordship) applied to some one person.

Plurals are much more common in poetry than in prose in connection with ideas of parts or extension.

Many nouns in the singular are employed to express a whde clasis, while another word is employed for an individual of that class; thus,
 sheep (or goats). The fem. termination is sometimes added to form a collective noun; thus, $n$ 角: an exile, in such cases the masc. plural will also be found. Some nouns are used both as singulars and as collectives; thus, e's a man, or men; בins enemy, or enemies.

A ncun repeated sometimes implies plurality; thus, a man, for every man; but in such cases the copulative 1 often :onnects the two nouns; such a repetition, without the copulative, may often signify distribution and diversity.

## 5 3.-USE OF THE ARTICLE.

The article - in had originally a demonstrative force, which is still
 time, i.e. this time. A proof of its demonstrative power is found in itt standing sometimes before the verb as a relative.

The principal use of the article is when a noun has to be designated as definite, either as previously mentioned, or as well known, or the only one of its kind, or as one of its kind to which some peculiar prominence is given.

In poetry, however, the article is often omitted, and that in cases in which it would he almost certain that it would have been found in prose.

The article is used in some special cases:
i.) When the name of a class is used collectively to express all the individuals it contains.
ii.) When some particular designation is applied by way of eminence to an individual.
iii.) With some proper names, such as those of well-known rivers, mountains, and some towns, with reference to their origipal meaning as appeilatives.
iv.) To objects used for comparison; from the idea that all terms, so used, must from the nature of the case be well-knoten objectr.
The article is not inserted-
Before a substantive in construction before another substantive, on before substantives which have a pronominal suffix (any apparent exceptions from this rule can generally be explained from the nature of the case). This rule is of great importance, and it is in part founded on the idea that a genitive following, or a suffix, makes the substantive definite already.

If the substantive in construction (which, as just said, cannot take the article) and the following genitive expreas one compound idea, which it is needful to render definite, then the article is prefixed to the
 men of war ; in such cases the article belongs to the whole of the compound idea. In compound proper names a division sometimes takes
place so as to insert the article; thus, בֵיחֲהֵל Beth-el, is compounded of (בֵּיָּ


If the substantive has the article, or is made definite by a following genitive or suffix, the adjective or demonstrative pronoun ( n , Witit) belonging to such substantive must take the article, so as to be definite ulso; thus, הָעָ
 ging the great work of Jehovah.

## § 4.-SUBSTANTIVE AND ADJECTIVE.

The adjective, which qualifies the substantive, stands after it in the same gender and number.

Nouns in the dual take plural adjectives.
It is only on account of some peculiarity or emphasis that an adjective stands before its substantive.

Feminine substantives, when they have two adjectives after them, are sonetimes found with the former only of the adjectives in concord with :hern.

When the adjective is not in direct concord, but the predicate of a sentence, its place is determined by the emphasis and general structure of the sentence: when the predicate thus stands at the beginning of the sentence, it may stand in the masc. sing., i.e. as an undeclined word.

An adjective can take a substantive aiter it, depending upon it, in order to define its meaning or application; thus, יֶקֵּ beautiful of form; ; נָּ

Verbal adjectives can take a substantive after them in the same unkaver as their verbs.

## \& $5 .-T H E$ CONSTRUCT STATE

A few further particulars respecting the construct state require notice.
Several nouns may follow each other, each depending on the one before it; all, therefore, except the last, being in construction; thus,

隹 the rest of the numier of the bows of the mighty ones of the children of Kedar.

But this repetition of nouns in construction is aten avoided by a periphrasis, by means of the prep. $\}$ to, for; this is ued to express the geaitive of possession, and often generally so as to aroid the repetition of the construct state.

The construct state is sometimes used when the wou is not stractiy that on which a genitive depends, but when the two rouns are in close relation in some other way; thus, it is sometimes found before preposition; as frequently the case with participles than with sustantives; thus, אוֹדְבֵי לָנוּם those who love to sleep; ; those who trust in Him. The prep., in such cases, is generally inseparable; iut the construct state is used before $b 2 \underline{y}$ in Judges $\mathbf{v} .10$. (To accour for this use of the construct before a prep., we may consider what was said as to pre positions having originally been nouns.)

The construct is formed sometimes by the relative; ss the place where:-also before relative clauses, without דָ the city (where) David encamped ; טְ the place of (him who) knows not God.

The construct is rarely found even before 1 copulative; as wisdom and knowledge. The construct is also employd in ather cases in which close connection has to be expressed; thus we find one, for 7 Tiss.

## § 6.-THE ACCUSATIVE

The Hebrew has no case terminations;--the only patial exception is the termination $\mathrm{H}_{\text {- }}$ joined frequently to the accus., wen direction or motion to a place is expressed. But this is only a partal expression of case; for even when motion or direction is implied, ths termination is often not added, and when the accusative is used in rdinary circum. stances, it has nothing in its form to distinguish it from the nominative : it is only by the structure of the sentence (e.g. by its leing the object of a transitive verb) that it can be distinguiged.

## DEGREES OF COMPARISON -USE OF THE NUMERALS. 99

 inserted before it; this particle, however (which wih suffixes becomes TiN), can only stand when the substantive is definte; this may take place, 1st. by its having the article; 2nd. by bein; in construction; 3rd. by its having a pronominal suffix; or 4th. fron its being definite in its own nature, as proper names.

Nouns are often found not governed by any veb or preposition; they then become adverbial designations; (1) with regard to place, as answering the question whither? after verbs of mition, where $\boldsymbol{P}$ after werbs of rest; also with regard to space and measurc, as answering how far $P$ (2) With regard to time; in answer to whn? or how long ? (3) And also in other adverbial designations; this, 2 Sam. xxi. 20 , twenty-four in very many expressions in which manner is expresed; we then find habilually, in Hebrew, a noun without any governing word, so that these cases cannot be looked on as merely elliptical.

## 57.-DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

Hebrew adjectives have no terminations to expres the comparative and the superlative; hence circumbocutions are emplyed.

 (iit. sweet from [i.e. in comparison with] honey); ; מָּלָ than any of the people.

The superlative is expressed by some amphatic we of the positive by the article (as in French) or a suffix, or a followng genitive; thus,
 (i.e. the greater); ; prom their grea one and even unto their little one (i.e, from the greatest and even untothe least of them).

## 8.-USE OF THE NUMERAS.

a) The cardinal numbers from 2 to 10 (properly sustantives) are connected with their substantives in three differen ways; (i.) as the
cst Jefore the subst, as as (ii.) in the absol. state before the subst., which may then be regaded as in apposition, as as in three sons; or (iii.) also in apposition after the object numbered (especially in the

b) The numerais from 2 to 10 are almost always found with the plural: the jens, however (from 20 to 90 ), when they precede the subst. reguarly take the sing.; when they follow it in apposition, the plar The former construction is the more common. Thus, we find twerty cubits. In the former case the plural may be used, bot not the sing. in the second. The numerals from 11 to 19 only take certain particular substantives in the sing., such as day, year, man--in general they are found with the plural.
c) When sumerals are compounded of tens and units (e.g. 21, 62, 39), they either take the object numbered after them in the sing., as隹 two and sixty years; - else they take it before them in the plural, -this is the case in the later books;-or else the object numbered is repeated with the smaller number in the plurd, the larger in the singular.
d) The ortinals beyond ten have no other forms than those of the cardhals, which stand either before or after the object numbered
 severteenth day; ; בִּשְ In mambering days of the month and years, the cardinals are used evenfrom $\&$ to 10 .

## II.-PRONOUNS.

## § 1.-PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The peronal pronoun when separate, is regarded as the nominative, the other rases being expresseci by suffixes; in one case, however, the ueparable ponoun stands for an oblique case; that is, when the pronour
is repeated a second time for the sake of emphasis, the previous expression having been by means of a suffix; thus, "奖 bless me, me also: - THּ (even) yatb.

The suffix of the verb is properly regarded as the accusative after it; it sometimes has a datixe force; at least it is so found after some intransitive verbs, or werts which, from their signification, require a dative.

The accusative after a verb may be always expressed by the suffixes with תiN: this form must be used when, for the sake of emphasis, the governed pronoun precedes the verb, also when the same verb (e.g. a transitive verb in Hiphil) governs two accusatives; one only of these cam be joined as a suffix.

The suffix to a noun is regularly the possessive pronoun (genitive of the pronoun) connected with that noun; when a compound idea is expressed by a noun in the construct, followed by one in the genitive, then the latter takes the suffix which belongs to the compound idea; thus, Mountain of my holiness; i.e. my holy mountain.

It may here be mentioned, that in a few places the pronominal suffix toes not follow the gender of the noun to which it refers.

## \& 2.-DEMONSTRATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

A personal pronoun of the third person may be joined to a sub. stantive as a demonstrative, and then (like adjectives), if the substantive has the article, the pronoun should also take it. Thus, Nin win win that man.

The demonstratives ה!, A?, it are, also, sometimes (especially in poetry) used for the relative.

The interrogative " $\$$ may be used of things, when persons are really implied; thus, who is Shechem? for, who are the Shechemites? TY may be used with reference to a plural, and also in the genitive, as בַּ whose daughter $\boldsymbol{\square}$
" $\%$ is also used as an indeflnite for any one whatever, and eimilariy הTP for any thing whatener

## 3-THE RELATIVE.

$7 \boldsymbol{T}$ a relative signification to other words in the sentence, whether substantives, adverbs, or pronouns. Thus, $\square \underset{y}{j}$ there; ה whence.

It is from the ability of may follow in the sentence, that its oblique cases are supplied:-thus,



The accusative may either be represented by alone, or by a combination, such as inix him,

With prepositions, as ī therein, :

趶 is often used without the antecedent personal pronoun being expressed:-it must then be rendered, he who, she who, those who, etc., according to the manifest sense. Thus, 7 ing thou wilt curse. When ${ }^{7}$ preposition almost always belongs to the pronoun understood; as לִw to bim who. The idea to be supplied in such expressions is sometimes that of place or time.

The relative may (as in English) be omitted; this need not present any difficulty, as we are familiar with the idiom; this is the horse be bought (for which he bought); this omission of the relative is more frequent in poetry than in prose.

With regard to other relatives, besides had almost lost its use as a relative when the oldest Hebrew was written, though it is certain, from Gen. iv, 28, that it has this use in the words spoken by Eve; the prefised relative $\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\circ}$, which is only an ubbreviated form of 7 eis, has heen noticed above. (Part II. (i.) $\$ 3$.)

## 111.-THE VERB.

## G 1.-TENSES.

As the Hebrew language has bat little variety in the forms of the verb itself, to enpress divisions of relative or absolute time, the tenser which it possesses are necessarily used in many gradations of sense, as denoted by connected words, or by the form of sentences.

It need not be supposed that the dificulty and ambiguity of Hebrew are of necessity peculiar from the fact of its having only two tenses; Rnglish is similarly circumstanced; we have only formed in the werb ifself two, a present and a past; and yet by circumlocutory phrases we can express futures, imperfects, pluperfects, with all the exactitude we please.

The primary iden of the Hebrew preterite is past time; the primary idea of the future is time yet to come.

## § 2.-USE OF THE PRETERITE.

The preterite is used for-

1. Time fully past.
2. A pluperfect ; when so connected with another tense as to show that an action had not then taken place.
3. Present; when marking a condition or attribute, which has existed and does exist; or when used in connection with permanent or habitual action.
4. In protestations and assurances it is sometimes said to be used as a future; that is, a thing is said to be already done, when it is promised, fixed, determined: in most cases when so found it is God who promises, ste., and this accounts for the past tense being used. Past tenses are so used in the New Testament, but no grammarian would say they were for futures.
5. The preterite is also used for relative tenses, in which the past is the leading thought. - thus, for the imperf. subj.
been as Sodom; this sense is shown from the preceding unless, "unless the Lord had left us," etc. For the pluperf. subj. as (in the preceding
 the future perfect $\boldsymbol{f}$ often say, when he has washed).

The preterite with I conversive will be considered separately.

## § 3.-USE OF THE FUTURE.

The future in its simple use expresses -

1. Time strictly future.
2. Time present (as in Welsh, in which there is no present); this is especially the case in expressing permanent states,-things which exist now and always will exist,-general truths, or anything customary, even when such custom belongs to some time long past, but which existed as a custom at the time to which the narration belongs.
3. The future, in combination, is used to express various relations for which other languages would employ the subjunctive mood, etc. Thus-
 is that not, lest, it is used in a subjunctive sense.
b) It is used in an optative sense; this is sometimes marked by the form (apocopated or paragogic) of the fut.; and sometimes a particle, such as $\mathbb{N J}_{T}$, accompanies it.
c) In negative commands the fut. is used in an imperative sense. When simply dehortatory, it takes the negative (with which the apocopated or paragogic is the proper form) : when expressive of prohibition it takes Nל. It is used also for imperatives of the third person, and also for the imperative of those passive species which have no proper imperative in use:-thus,

d) The fut. is sometimes used in a potential sense; as with may, can, might, could.
4. With any adverbs which denote time, or refer to some particula: time, the fut, is used in the sense of the time so designated. It is thus
found denoting time past. Thus, after the part. is then (when relating


The future is also found in some cases in which the preterite might have oeen expected ; generally, however, the action is such that no ambiguity is occasioned; and often the nature of the thought involved explains why a future may be used; thus, Job says, "Perish the day in which I was born!"-"Oh that the day had perished previous to my having been born in it ${ }^{\prime}$

In conditional sentences, the future is often found as the imperf. subj; in this case the apocopated future is properly used.

In general, when this tense expresses actual futurity, the actual time, whether fuiure, or future-perfect, is pointed out by the connection of the sentence, and more particularly by the introductory particles, such as until, when, etc.

The cases in which the paragogic and apocopated future (when such forms exist) are used, have been shown in the mention now made of the tense, as well as in what has been said above (Part II. (ii.) \$§ 39, 40): --this variation in form materially extends the use of the tense.

## § 4.-THE FUTURE WTTH ; CONVERSIVE.

it must be remembered that the notion of time, in the mere tense of a Hebrew verb, is always less forcible than any other indications of time which a sentence may contain ; any adverb of time will mark the time so absolutely, that the verb must conform to it in signification.

This principle will explain most of the difficulty which otherwise would have been felt with regard to converted tenses.

The future, with 1 conversive ( $\cdot 1$ ), is contemplated, as so connected with what has preceded, that the time becomes that of the general narration. The most simple use of a converted future is to continue a narration,-taking up the train of events which the principal verb has enunciated in the preterite. But as the 1 conversive has a different form from the mere copulative conjunction, we find that the idea of past time is so strongly impressed upou the form, that an hiktorical narratior
may even commence with a converted future : in practice it becomes the Hebrew historical tense.

The future, with I conversive, often strongly marks the consecution of events ; thus, after because it becomes equivalent to therefore.

Care must be taken not to confound a common future with the copulative ' with a converted future.

It may here be repeated that a conversive $\%$ takes the apocopated future (when such a form exists), and that it draws back the accent.

## § 5.-THE PRETERITE CONVERTED.

When a preterite is closely connected with a preceding future by the conjunction \%, it takes the time of such future, and the particular shade of meaning which it may have, according to all the variety of which the future is capable.

The has no particular form when thus changing a preterite; but it may be stated us a general rule, that when a preterite is joined to another verb by the conjunctive $!$, it takes the tense and mood of the verb going before, and it shifts the accent forward.

It occurs occasionally that a preterite, changed into future time, is followed by a converted future; in such a case, the converted future is subjected to the preterite as converied, and it refers itseif to future time, being altogether conformed to the verb on which it depends.
§ 6.-THE IMPERATIVE.

The imperative is used not only in commands, but aiso in exhortstion, entreaty, wish; and sometimes it is considered to imply permission, and sometimes strong assurance; this latter appears, however, to be simply a doomed futurily; compare, in the New Testament, "Ftll ye wh the measure of your fathers !"

The imperative, in thus marking what is certainty future, may be connected with future tenses; and a future or preterite (with ) foliowing may become altogether imperative in signtication.

When two imperatives are joined by the copulative 1, the second may
often imply a consequence resulting from the first, without, however, losing sight of the true imperative signification; thus, this do, and live:-the second imperative implies a promise of the strongest kind, resulting from obedience to the former.

## § 7.-THE INFINITIVE ABSOLUTE.

The inflitive absolute is used when the action of the verb has to be zxpressed, neither depending on a preceding noun or participle, nor yet connected with something following.

It is used--
 not willing to go.
D) Adverbially for the sake of giving emphasis to the finite verb; this
 When the infinitive stands after the finite verb, it commonly indicates emphasis in the way of continued or lasting action.
c) This infinitive is sometimes used instead of the finite verb: this frequently occurs when a finite verb bas preceded to which it is joined by the copulative; in such a case it takes the idea of tense, person, ete., from the preceding verb. When the infinitive is used at the beginning of a sentence for the finite verb, it presents an action vividly sketched, while the circumstances of the case supply the needful particulars. It more often, in such a use, stands as an emphatic imperative.

## § 8.-THE ANFINITIVE CONSTRUCT.

The infinitive construct is used as a verbal substantive, and is in most respects so treated:-thus it is used-
a) As the subject of a sentence; as, "for man to be alone is not good."
 ent on a preposition.
 come in. (The infinitive absolute may also be used in this sense.) When the infinitive construct is joined with a prep., it would commonly be rendered in English by the finite verb with a conj; thus,范 is lit. on account of thy saying; i.e. because thou sayest.

In transitive verbs the infinitive construct may take the accusative of the object, whether the object be a substantive or a pronoun; as הָקָּ to establish thee; with a pronoun as the object, either the separable form with $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$, may be used (as in the above example), or a suffix.

With verbal nouns (analogous to infinitives) the same construction with an accusative may be used.

The infinitive construct may be used as a noun with another noun dependent upon it; this connection is manifest in infinitives with a fem termination.

The infinitive thus used with a subject may also take an accusative; and very often the infinitive is not treated as though it had a genitive dependent on it.

## § 9.-THE PARTICIPLE.

The active participle, in Hebrew, is used in an abstract sense; thus, ל is one who falls, has fallen, or will fall:-the present is, however, the more ordinary signification.

The participle is often used instead of a tense of a verb; thus,
 with the pretente of the verb ${\underset{T}{T}}_{\sim}^{\sim}$ to be, the active participle is used to rapress the imperfect (as in Engiish).

The passive participles may be su used, in an abstract sense, as to express the force of the Iatin participle in dus ; as $\boldsymbol{y}$ פוֹרָ metuendus, to be feared.

An active participle may, of course, take the accusative nfter it, the same as its verb; or, instead of this, it may be treated as a noun, and the word connected with it may be regarded as a genitive dependent upon it. In the same way the participle may either take the nomind
suffixes (genitive of the pronoun), or the verbal (accusative of the gronoun:

## \& 10.-THE ACCUSATIVE AFTER A VERB.

It must be observed that many verbs, in Hebrew, take an accusative after them, although it would seem as though, in other languages, they would not be transitive. This is explained by the fact of such Hebrew verbs including more than what we should regard as the mere verbal idea,- the preposition, which we might deem necessary to connect the verb with an object, being comprised in the very meaning of the verb itself.

Hebrew verbs which signify clolhing or unclathing, fulness or defi. siency, most verbs of duelling in or with, and those which express combing or guing, are followed by an accusative.

As so many verbs take an accusative, it is common in lexicons to express whether a verb is construed immediately, or with a preposition, and if so, with what preposition.

The passives of causative species, in transitive verbs, will take an accusative of the person or thing affected by the action; as, he was caused to kill me.

## § 11.—VERBS WITH TWO ACCUSATIVES.

The causative species, Hiphil (and Piel when so used), take two accusatives, when the verb in Kal takes one.

Also verbs which have a causative signification in Kal take two accusatives in that species; such as to clothe any one with anything, to sow, to plant, to anoint, to fill, to beetow, to deprive, to make something to be (or into) anything. This is merely what is found in other languages when a verb takes two sccuatives, one of the person and one of the thing.

## 5 12.-VERBS USED IMPERSONALLY

We frequently find the third person singular of a verb used impersonally; thus, \$गִ?. he shall call, may be used for, one will call, they ahall call, on appellera; active forms of this kind are often equivalent to passives in an inverted construction; thus, יקרְ (he shall call him), one shall call him, on l'appellera, would be more fitly rendered in English, " he shall be called."

## § 13.-PASSIVE VOICES.

The agent of a passive verb frequently takes the preposition ?, as blessed by God; -sometimes the origin from which the action proceeds; sometimes $\underset{\sim}{3}$ is used. Sometimes the instrument is denoted by a noun put absolutely without any governing preposition.

## 6 14.-CONNECTION OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE: CONCORD.

When the verb to be would express simply the connection of the sub ject and predicate, it is commonly omitted in Hebrew; as an Jehovah (is) God.

A personal pronoun may be used after the subject for emphasis, or as though it carried with itself the idea of the verb substantive.

The common rule is that the predicate (that is whatever is asserted, denied, or defined, with regard to the subject of the sentence) shall conform to the subject in gender and number; and that, whether the predicate be expressed by a verb, adjective, or substantive with copula.

To this rule of concord there are, however, many exceptions.
a) Collectives, and nouns used as such, commonly are joined to plurals; fem. collectives, which represent masc. individuals, take the masc.
b) Plurals which denote animals or things, whether masc. or fem., sill often take the fem. sing.
c) Plurals which relate to persons will be found united to singulars, when the attention is rather directed to each one, individually.
d) If the predicate (verb, participle, adjective, etc.) stand at the beginning of the sentence, a verb will often take the masc. sing., whatever be the gender and number of the subject:一an adjective or participle may thus stand without inflection in the sing. masc.: but if in such cases there are words which, forming part of the predicate, follow the subject, they must conform to it in gender anà number.
The idea which explains this usage is, that when no governing word has been as yet expressed, a verb or adjective is stated in its most simple uninflected form.
e) When a nominative and genitive form the subject together, the verb sometimes conforms to the gender and number of the noun governed, especially when it contains the principal idea; thus,
 (pl) wisdom.
f) When several nouns are joined by the conjunction ? and, these forming one united subject, the verb, etc., may be in the plural, especially if it follows them: when it precedes, it often agrees with the nearest in gender and number:-a preference for the mase. is rarely seen.
g) It must be noticed that there is ofton a kind of neglect of the gender of the verb,-the masc. being sometimes found where the fem. would be expected; this is generally (if not always) in passages in which no ambiguity could arise; and the masc. is taken as the simpler and first occurring form.
IV.-PARTICLES.

## § 1.-CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

The remarks to be made on the particles, in this place, must be brief (from the nature of the case), because the peculiarities in the usage of each belong rather to lexicography than to grammar.
a) Adverbs may qualify sentences, or even sing words; sud the word so qualitied may be even a substantive; a blood:-the sense is then equivalent to that of an adjective in other languages.
b) An adverb is repeated te denote intensity, or continued accession.
c) Two negatives in Hebrew do not destroy one another; that is, they do not, as in English, qualify the one the other, but they both qualify the same clause or word.
d) A negative is often expressed in the former member of a sentence, and its force is carried forward by the copulative 1 into a following nember; the adverb, in such cases, qualifies the whole sentence.
a) The more important negatives are not (absolute negative) not
 also (mostly in poetic usage)
Positive interrogations are often so put as to imply strong negations : -canst tbou make? for, thou canst not make;-negative interrogutions may, on the other hand, imply strong assertions; as, are they not written 1 i. e. they are writen.

## § 2.-PREPOSITIONS.

The varied usages of the prepositions, simple and compounded, must be learned from the lexicon, as each one is met with; it would be mere repetition for a statement on the subject to be given here.

The compound prepositions, formed by simple prepositions with prefixes, etc., enable very minute shades of meaning to be expressed; each part of the compound form retains its own meaning, the one part so qualifying the other as to produce a nicety of distinction in the shade of thought that can hardly be shown in translation :-hence, the idea has arisen that some of the compound forms are really pleonastic.

A preposition, which is expressed in the first member of a sentence, often has its force carried on by the copulative $\boldsymbol{1}$ to a following word or phrese.

## 5 3.-CONJUNCTIONS.

Ne conjunction has so frequent a use as 1 , nor is there any of which she meaning appears to be so various.

It is properly, simply, a connective link; but if the nature of the sentence require, this link will be rendered very variously.

If a reason has been given, and an inference is drawn, it will be equivalent to therefore; thus, "Because I am Jehovah, I change not, and ye sons of Jacob are not consumed" $=$ " therefore ye are not," etc.

1 may be simply explicative: we may thus use and in English; " he uttereth his voice, and that a migbty voice": When $\mid$ is simply explicative, it will commonly be rendered in English by even.

When ! introduces a reason, it will commonly be rendered by bscause
These instances of rendering are given, not as showing the varied uses of the copulative, but as informing the learner of what otherwise might occasion surprise, and as illustrating the principles which explain this paried use.

To the negative adverbs mentioned above ( $\$ 1$ ), may be added the following negative conjunctions : צַ, (as a conj.), all signifying, that not, lest.

A conjunction is sometimes omitted by a certain brevity of expression; thus, Drive them hard, then they will die; for, If they drive them hard, etc. The connection will easily enable a reader to supply such ellipses; the hypothetical $i f$ is the word commoniy understood.

## \$ 4.-INTERJECTIONS.

Such interjections as answer to the English, ah I oh : alas ! woe ! expressing not merely lamentation, but also denunciation, will take after them the prepositions 6 y upon, $5 \times, ?$ unto, to connect them with the object of the denunciation : or this object may follow without any connecting particle; as veople!

## V.-THE ACCENTS.

## $\oint$ 1.-THE GENERAL USE OF THE ACCENTS.

As yet but little allusion has been made to the accents, except af nariving the syllable of each word on which the stress must be laid.

With regard to this it must be remembered that if a word be found with two accents, the stress must be laid on the laiter syllable thus marked; but observe that if a word has the same accent repeated, the former then marks the tone-syllable.

The accented syllable is most frequently the last; such a word it termed by the Hebrew grammarians philray (from below); if the accented syllable be the penultimate, the word is termed (from above); farther back than the penultimate the tone-syliable cannot be.

The mark Metheg, which has been previously mentioned (or an accent used instead of it) is often placed on syllables nearer the beginning of the word; its object is, to rest the voice, to end syllables which have short vowels and no closing consonant, and to prevent Kā-mets from oeing confounded with Kā-mets Khatēph.

The accents, as signs of the tone-syliable, are often useful in distinguishing words which are alike in spelling and in vowel-points; thus,
 kä'-māh, is pret. 3 pers. fem. sing. of D p to stand; but kā-māh' is the part. ferm.

But besides the tonic use, the accents have also another, as aigns of interpunction, and as marking the connection and distinction of words and members of a sentence.

## 5 2.-TABLE OF THE ACCENTS IN THE HEBREW BIBLF IN GENERAL. <br> 1.-Dibtinctive Accents. (Domine.)

a) Greatest distinctives. (Imperatores.)

1. Silluik' (end) - (at the end of a verse, and followed by : Söph-pà-sừ').
2. Athnākh' (respiration) -
b) Great distinctives. (Reges.)
3. Seghol'tā† 4
4. Zäkēph Kätōn' :
5. Zākēph' Gãdhōr '-
6. Tiphkhä -
c) Smaller distinctives. (Duces.)
7. Reviăy -
8. Shalebéleth, followed by Pesily, [1
9. Zarkä $\dagger \stackrel{\text { - }}{ }$
10. Pashtá $\dagger$ 2
11. P'thiv" $=$
12. T'vī -
13. Mercā K'phülā
4) Smallest distinctives. (Comites.)
14. Pazer'
15. Karnẽ Phāráa
16. T'lishāt Gh'dölāh'* ${ }^{\text {P }}$
17. Gérësh -
18. Gerasha'yim -
19. Pesik' - - between words (if preceded by - called Legarme),
M.-Conunctive Accents. (Sebvi.)
20. Mërkā ${ }^{\prime}$,
21. Mūnakh ${ }^{\prime}$ -
22. Mahpach' -
23. Kadmä́ -
24. Dargá -
25. Yérach $\bar{v}$
26. T'lishã K'tannāh'† -

To these may be added -
The euphonic Metheg - (in form like Silluk'), and the word-con-


The accents marked * are called prepositives, i.e. instead of marking the tone-syilable, they are placed at the beginning of the word.

Those marked $\dagger$ are post-positives, standing at the end of the ward.
It will be observed that Pashta' (a lesser distinctive), and Kadmä' ( conjunctive), have the same form ; they are distinguished by Pastara' being always written on the last letter of the word. So, also, Mabpach', conjunctive, and Y'thirv, distinctive, are only distinguished by position.

The accent, Mercā K'phüläa' $\overline{\text {, }}$, which is here placed among the smaller distinctives, is reckoned by some amorg the conjunctives.

## § 3-REMARKS ON THE ACCENTS.

As marks of interpunction, the greatest distinctives are equivalent to our longer stops; the great distinctives are also often similarly used for smaller pruses.

It is as marking pauses that the greatest distinctive accents lengthen vowels, and sometimes change the tone-syllable: this is regularly the effect of : - and $\frac{-}{\Delta}$; often also of $\stackrel{\dot{-}}{ }$ and $\underset{-}{-}$; sometimes of $\dot{-}$.

With regard to a change in the accented sylable, it should be observed that if two accented syllables would come together in a sentence, one of them will often, for the sake of euphony, shift the accent to enother syllable.

When the distinctives do not precisely answer to our ideas of a grammatical pause, admitted by the construction of the seatence, then they do imply pauses of emphasis at least.

To understand the uses of the accents, in connecting and distinguisiing the parts of a sentence, we must always take a whole verse: we shall then commonly find that Athnākh' divides it into two parts; we may then examine the members backuards, and we shall find that distinctive accents separate it (especially if pretty long) into many smaller members:-we shall also often find that the word which is marked with a distinctive accent is preceded by one with a conjunctive; in such a case, the word which has a conjunctive is very closely connected with that which follows it; it may often be also in some measure connected with the preceding word, but such preceding word will be found with uome distinctive accent (a small one probably) to show that it is lest
closely joined to the word with the conjunctive, than that isself is joined to that which follown.

Two conjunctives, as such, cannot follow each other; if three words or more are to be most closely united, all of them lut one must be connected by Makkaph.
ln very short verses fer conjunctives are found; a small distinctive before a great one has then a conjunctive force; for ererything depends upon the relative power of these accents.

In very long verses, sometimes, instead of the snuliest distinctives, conjunctives will be found.

These remarks will explsin the fact mentioned above as to the different arrangement which has been assigned to Merā K'phüla'; this smaller distinctive, if standing between two greater ons, would (like any other in such a situation) conneet its word more with that which follows than with that which precedes.

The order in which the members of a sentence receve the distinctives is subject to certain rules which are of very great onvenience in the investigation of the construction indicated by the accents.

Each distinctive, likewise, if the preceding word is joined with it, han a peculiar conjunctive, which will be lued to precede $t$.

8 4.-TABLE OF CONSECUTION OF ACCENTS.


## § 5.-EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE.

The left hand column gives the distincties in their classes, with the conjunctive aceent which each takes when the preceding word is connected with 1 r .

Across the table are given the distinctive in the order in which they commonly stand in dividing the clauses of : verse.

It may be stated generally, that if two conjunctives come together, the latter is treated as a very slight distinctive

In many Hebrew Bibles, considerable irregularities are found in the order of the accents, particularly of the conjunctives; these irregularities must mostly be regarded as mere errata. The edition of the Hebrew Bible which is considered as most correct, with regard to the accents, is the valuable one of Jablonsgy, Beriin, 1699.

The construction of a sentence is often aided by a knowledge of the accentuation, for thus expressions which might be anbiguous are rendered definite.
 these words might be rendered (as they actually are in many versions) * the elder brother of Japheth"; but the conjunctive - shows that the following adjective belongs to it, and thus the rendering of the Engiish translation is confirmed, "the brother of Japheth the elder"; the other rendering would have required the accents thus:-:-7. In this instance it is seen that comparative closeness must be regarded in the accents; the noun on which another depends, is regarded as less closely united to it, than it is itself with the adjective qualifying it.

## § 6.-SPECIMENS OF HEBREW ACCENTUATION.

In the following examples, the accents of the Hebrew verse are first given; then the English translation, with divisions according to the degrees of the distinctive accents:-

Deut. vi. 4, : - 1——————
Hear III O-Israel IIII Jehovah our-God ||| (is) Jehovah | one |ll|

$$
5,:-7-\frac{1}{2}-=
$$

And-thou-shalt-love $\|\|$ ||l Jehovah thy-God $\| \|$ with-all-thybeart and-with-all"thy-soul ||| and with-all"thy strength- \| \| \|

Gen. xxix. $1,:-7, \quad$ :
And-lifted-up Jacob ||| his feet |ll| and-be-came fill to-tbe-land-d the-children-of the enat. [|II

$$
2,: \div 7,7 \div \frac{!}{4} \div \frac{:}{4} \div \frac{1}{5}
$$

And-he-saw | and-behold a-well | in-the-field |f and-behold-there three flocks-of-sheep II lying-down by-it ifl for II from * the-well that III they-watered III the flocks |III and-the-stone great |II on " the-mouth-of the-well. JIII

It will be seen that the sentences, in Hebrew, are so constructed that the rhythm is according to the accentual interpunction.

## § 7.-ACCENTUATION OF THE PSALMS, PROVERBS, ANT) JOB.

In these three books there is a different scale of accentuation (except in the prose beginning and end of Job; ; the accents differ both in theis arrangemest and in their consecution.

## 1.-Distinctives. Domia

1. Sillik' - (with : Sōph Pāsink)
2. Mürcā with Mahpach - *
3. Athnakh -
4. Reviă ${ }^{\text {a }}$ with Gērésh :-
5. Reviă :
6. Zarkäa
7. Tiphkhà anterior
8. Pazēr $\underline{\mu}$
9. Shalshe leth with P'sir
10. Kadmes with P'sik ${ }^{\text {. }}$.
11. Mahpach with Psik:-
II. Compremeryes
12. Mërcā -,
13. Mêreā with Zarkä' ${ }^{\infty}$
14. Mahpach -
15. Mahpach with Zarkí' $=$
16. Münach -
17. Múnacb superier -
18. Tiphkhã (not anterior) -
19. Yérach $-\underset{4}{-}$

It will be seen that, in this poetical scale, some of the accents materi, sill change their powers, and many of the combinations are wholly peculiar to this scale.

5 8. -CONSECUTION OF ACCENTS IN PSALMS, PROVERBS, AND JOB.


As in this poetical scale there are two greater divisions which can scour in the verne, more variety can be introduced as to the members
of the sentences. Also, the consecution is more varied, so that many shades of emphasis may be expressed.

## § 9.-ON THE ACCENTS AS MUSICAL SIGNS.

It will be observed that many of the disjanctives do not differ in power from one another; it may, therefore, be asked, Why is one or another in particular chosent This leads to the mention of these accents as musical signs for the regulation of the chanting of the Old Testament in the synagogue reading.

It is well known that ancient nations (as many of the Orientals do atill) always read aloud in a kind of recitative: and orators even spoke in the same manner, so that such a thing is mentioned as a flute as an accompaniment of an oration: the great variety of the Hebrew accents appear to have been invented with this object; the notes to which the Scripture was chanted had some relation to the emphasis of the parts of the sentence, and thus the grammatical and musical notation were made to coincide.

As the Psalms, etc, were chanted in a different manner from the ordinary books, so the notation is of a different kind.

We need not here consider the musical value of the different accents; all that is required in this place is to state the fact; a full illustration of it would belong rather to a history of Music than to an outline of Hebrew Grammar.

## § $10 .-\mathrm{K}^{\prime}$ RI AND K'THIV.

Besides the accents, there will also be found a sinall circle in several
 the text; in the margin is seen the word the small circle refers from the text to the margin, and the letters in the margin are to be read with the vowels of the text. The word in the text is called the $\mathbf{D}^{2} \mathbf{J}^{\prime}$ thiv (written), and the word in the margin is called the $7 p$ (read). These are, in fact, a kind of various readinge
which were noted in this way by the Jews, through whom we have received the Hebrew Scriptures.

Some of these notes relate to a redundant letter, or to one omitted; some to a large or a small letter, or one above the line, or a final in the middle of a word; these peculiarities are commonly retained in the printed editions, and these notes (called Masoretic, from the Jewish scribes, to whon they are attributed, having been called Masorites) direct the attention of the reader to such points. They require no further notice in this place.
 be read with the cowels of the text; and that, whether the margin alters the letters, adds to them, divides the word in two, reads one wholly different, directs the word not to be read at all (in which case it has no vowels in the text), or adds a word which is not in the text (in which case there are vowels in the text without letters).

In the Pentateuch the letters sind both for he and she; in the former case they are pointed according to the table, אini hü, in the latter they are pointed Ning, but this is read as though it had been (by a continual (קרח ${ }^{4}$ ) hi ; it would be considered barbarous to read it hiv. The form Nitis supposed to have been originally of the common gender; and the punctuators have indicated the grammatical distinction which sprung up in course of time.

## CONCLUSION.

## TO FIND WORDS IN THE LEXICON.

Hebrew lexicons are commonly arranged according to roots, so that every noun or other part of speech has to be traced etymologically to its root of three letters, before it can be found in the lexicon. To a mature scholar there are many advantages in getting all the derivatives together at one view, but a learner should be aided to find out worde
readily so as to save his time and to smooth his way. A different arrangement is, therefore, now sometimes adopted:-the roots and derivatives are arranged in proper alphabetic order.

But the learner must remember that a word must not be sought with prefixed letters;--and thus, if it be a verb, we must reject-


The letters inserted in the formation of a verb, and the ferminations of the persons, are of course not to be sought in a lexicon, nor the suffixes, whether of a noun or a verb.

In thus reducing a verb to its triliteral root, we may find that when formative letters have been cast away, we have fewer than three left; in that case the verb must be one of the defective or irregular kinds:-

It may require initial,
or "
or medial
or
or final
or the second radical to be doubled, and in one of these way we shall obtan the triliteral root which a lexicon will exhibit.

A knowledge of the forms in the tauie of the verb, will soon enable
a student to determine pretty accurately to which kind of defective verbs the one before him must belong.

An initial ' is suggested by the lengthened vowel in prefixed formatives; and initial ! (and sometimes !) by the Daghesh in the first of the remaining radicals. The vowels often indicate the forms medial 1 or ${ }^{\text {" }}$; while the general form of the word indicates a final in; and the form, and the frequently inserted Daghesh, mark verbs "yy.

Some forms might belong to more than one root; but even in such cases the limits of doubt are but narrow; and it will require but an examination of a few roots, in the lexicon, to see which is the one in question.

It must be remembered that the verb $n$ ח户 were a verb "

A new mode has been proposed of late for the urrangement of Hebrew roots; this is by simply giving them under their permanent letters; so that in all words which might come from different roots, those roots will be found near together at lenat.

But the supposed advantages of this new arrangement are utterly fallacious; for the learner is left without a clue to which of the roots he must refer a doubtful form; while, to obtain this supposed advantage, alphabetic arrangement has been discarded;-many roots have to be thrown into a class by themselves (because they cannot conform to the new arrangement), and the rules for finding the place of a root are far more difficult and complicated than the simple method presented for looking out a verb in the alphabetic lexicons.

As nouns stand in an alphabetic lexicon in their eniire form (i.e with the addition be made) no remark is needed as to how they are to be sought for; reject prefixes, suffixes, and plural terminations, and then look for the word as it remains.

But it may be that the leamer has a lexicon with the words arranged under roots, and, therefore, a word of direction may be needful with regard to nouns as well as verbs.

Reject all servile letters. (Remember, however, that letters of that olaw may be radical in the word: if rejected, they must be formation
serviles,-prefixes, suffixes, or such as are used in forming nouns, parts of verbs, etc.).

If three letters remain, you have the root. If less than three, pro coed as directed above with regard to defective verbs.

## PARADIGMS.



- The forms with an asterisk are exclusively poetioal, and those in parentheasare of rare occurrerce,

C. REGULAR VERB WITH SUFFIXES. $p p .50-53$.

Boprixis for 1 Sing. 2 Sing. m. 2 Sing. f. 3 Sing.m. 3 Sing.f. 1 Plur. 2 Plur, m. 2 Plur.f. 3 Plur. m. 3 Plur.f.












Plur.3.m.



|  | F．Verb Lamedh Gutiorad． |  |  |  | p． 39. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | K AL | NIPHAL． | PIEL． | PUAL． | HIPHIL． | HOPHAL． | hithpaEl． |
| Рает．3．т． <br> 3．$f$ ． <br> 2．m． <br> 2．f． <br> 1．e． <br> Plur．3．c． <br> 2．$m$ ． <br> 2．$f$ ． <br> 1．c． |  ה תּחְ ＊ שָׁלָחְתּ שׁen <br>  שְׁלִחְתֶּ <br>  | נִשׁׁל <br> נִּשְׁחקה <br> נִשׁׁלְחֲתּת <br> ＊ <br>  <br> נִשׁׁלִחוּ <br>  <br>  <br>  | － <br>  <br>  <br> －蓡 <br> שּׁ <br> שׁׁmen的 <br>  <br>  | שux <br> שׁׁen <br> תָּ <br> ＊ <br> שׁׁen <br> של <br> םחּ <br> ֹ <br> ix | ＊הִשׁׁליחּ <br> הִשׁׁלִיחּהּ <br>  <br> ＊הִשְׁלַחַּתּ <br>  <br>  <br> הִשׁׁלַחְחֶּם <br> הִשְׁלְחְחֵּ <br> חִשְׁלְתְּוּ | הָשָׁלִח <br> דָּשְְְׁחָה <br> חָּ <br> ＊ <br> חָּשְלְחֲתְּ <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> חָשְׁלחּגוּ |  |
| Inf．comstr． Inf．absol． | $\begin{gathered} \text { * } \\ \text { * } \end{gathered}$ | ＊הּ <br>  |  | － | ＊הַשׁל הַשְׁלִּ | הָּשְלִ | ה＂ |
| $\begin{array}{rr} \text { Im } \mathbf{P} . & m . \\ & f . \\ \text { Plur. } m . \\ & f . \end{array}$ | － <br> שְִׁלחּ <br> שׁׁלִּחּוּ <br>  |  <br> חהּ <br> חִשְׁלחּ <br> הִשִּשָּחְהָה |  | wanting | ה <br>  <br>  <br> הַשְׁלְחְּדְה | wanting | ＊ <br> הִּשְׁתַּחִּחי <br> דִּשְׁתַּחּחוּ <br>  |
| Put．3．m． <br> 3．$f$ ． <br> 2．$m$ ． <br> 2．$f$ ． <br> 1．$c$ ． <br> Plwr．3．m． <br> 3．$f$ ． <br> 2．$m$ ． <br> 2．$f$ ． <br> 1．c． |  <br>  <br> תִּשׁׁin <br>  <br> הֶשֶּלִּ <br>  <br> ＊ <br> תִּשְׁלִּ <br> תִּשְׁלְחָּנָּ <br> ִִּשְׁלִחה |  <br> חת <br>  <br> תִּשׁׁubun <br>  <br> ： <br> ＊תּ <br>  <br>  <br> Meta | ก－ תּשׁׁn תְּשׁׁhen תִּשׁ <br>  ？ ה תּשּׁ <br>  <br>  | ？ <br> คּ <br>  <br> תּשׁׁn <br> צִשִׁלִּ <br> м <br>  <br> תּשׁׁhen <br> תּשׁׁen <br> กְุ | ＊ <br> תַּשְׁלִּ <br> תַּשְׁלים <br> תַּשְׁלִיחִי <br> צֵּשְׁלִיחֵ <br>  <br>  <br> תּשׁׁen <br>  נַשְׁיִּיֶח |  תָּשְֶּׁ תָּ <br>  ה הּשְ <br>  <br>  <br>  תָּשְׁלְחּחָּה נָשְׁלִחִ | пиのथ่：＊ <br>  <br> תִּשְּחִּלִּ <br>  <br>  <br> יִשׁnent ＊ <br>  <br>  צִּשְׁnּתִּח |
| Fut．apoc． <br> Kot．with Suff． |  |  |  |  | － |  |  |
| Part．act． pas． | ：שיׁח | ņere | ＊ |  |  | M | ＊ |


|  | KAL． | NIPHAL． | HIPHIL． | HOPHAL． |
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| Prit．3．m． | ¢17\％ | נ3＊ | ＊ | ＊＊a＊＊ |
| 3．$f$ ． |  |  |  |  |
| 2．${ }^{\text {m }}$ ． |  | נִ |  |  |
| 2．f． |  |  |  | הֻ |
| 1．c． | regular |  | הַגְּשְִּׁ |  |
| Plur．3．c． |  |  |  | הָּנְ |
| 2．$m$ ． |  |  |  |  |
| 2．f． |  | ִי3 | הַנְ |  |
| l．c． |  |  | ה－ |  |
| Ime．constr． Inf．absé． | กever | ה | ＊הִנִּ | ＊inc＊＊＊ |
|  | נָּ |  |  |  |
| Imp． | via＊ | הִגִּ |  |  |
|  | 熍 |  |  | wanting |
|  | 萑 |  | הַ？ |  |
|  | ה |  |  |  |
| Fot． | Eis：＊ | ＊ | שip＊ | viar＊ |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |
|  | 분구 |  | 以枵 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | \％ | regular |  | 家家 |
|  | ง⿻上丨？ |  |  | 管只 |
|  |  |  |  | 隹 |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 阿 |  |  | 隹 |
| 1．c． | ］ |  | גַגְ | ن⿺辶 |
| Fut．apoc． | שise＊ |  |  |  |
| Part．act． pass． | 䍜 | * | ＂מַנִּ | ＊ |




| ＊，${ }_{\text {a }}$ | ジロヒ เง゙ヒ |  | ＊CUREE | －¢ | 425 <br> 4 |  | ＇suod <br> F20D IIAYd |
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| ＊＂ |  |  |  <br> ＊い |  | －Tuncter | －awos | $\begin{aligned} & 14 \mu n \cdot a_{d} \\ & \cdot 50 d p \cdot \tau a_{d} \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | ¢® | ¢ฺゼロ | ち¢゙® | $6{ }^{4}$ | \％ | － 1 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | せR゙¢¢し | 76 |
| ビ，ゼッロ！ |  |  | 4，4，¢1， 5 |  |  | Wixt | ＇4＇8 |
|  |  |  |  | Étûtitu |  |  | \％ 6 |
| ＂，${ }^{\text {ajut }}$ | ＂W่ち | － | 4， | 凩边 | いLut |  | ＇tu＇g＇swid |
|  | N．${ }^{\text {cint }}$ | Numb | Numb |  | 内ita |  | －${ }^{\text {\％}}$ |
|  | む心ら゙く | 它安㐫家， | ビ保安， |  | ぜ心込 |  | －f 8 |
| 区゙ロビヒ | ciaric | い6边 | ヒリバ以 |  |  | 國號 | －u＇z |
| 区．．．．6 | 㙖因5 | U！ 4 |  |  | 内い家 | 4RT5 | \％ 8 |
|  | － CH | －4 4 ¢ | － 5 | －ithe | － | ＊ |  |
|  | ？${ }^{\text {chtita }}$ |  |  |  | ＇ |  | $\gamma$ |
|  | －${ }_{\text {a }}$ | ชшиия | แ边56 |  | － | 亩尤 |  |
| Ц̈，ゼィ ¢ ¢ | －ベ¢。 | 2upuex | 以迷安安， |  | －Lam | ¢ ¢ |  |
| －し̈，${ }^{\text {che }}$ | \％${ }^{\text {cit }}$ |  | －L＂ |  | ＊ | －atc | ＇wild ${ }^{\text {dra }}$ |
| －せ̈،ゼち | that |  | －L |  |  |  | rosqu－im1 |
|  | ：ผ่̣¢ | ＊L L 4 ¢ | －L |  |  |  | $\cdot 278400 \cdot 3011$ |
|  |  | 4 L6\％ |  |  |  |  | $0 \cdot 1$ |
|  |  | L！ |  | C！axtell |  |  | 17 |
| ジ，セitita |  | L4 |  |  |  |  | $\cdots \cdot \bar{z}$ |
| แ̈，¢ึ．5\％ |  | L |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0 It |
|  |  | － |  | ¢ |  |  | $\boldsymbol{f}$＇3 |
|  |  |  | 以边安它 |  |  |  | \％${ }^{\text {\％}}$ |
|  |  | L！ | － |  |  |  | $\bigcirc 8$ |
|  | ＊＊＊ |  | ＊Lᄂバッ5 | －c｜ata | \％it |  |  |
| ＇TIHdIH | TVM | ＇TVHdOH | ${ }^{\text {TILHdIH }}$ | TVHAIN | ＇TV |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |



|  | KAL. | NIPHAL. | PIEL | PUAL. | HIPHIL. | HOPHAL. | HITHPAEL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pelt. 3. m. <br> 3. $f$. <br> 2. m. <br> 2. $f$. <br> 1. c. <br> Plur. 3. c. <br> 2. $m$. <br> 2. $f$. <br> 1. $c$. | * prsin מָּאָה * מָזָאָ <br> טָ טָּאת <br> מָצָאחֵּ <br> קַּצְאוֹ <br> מְצָּאֶּ <br> מְצָאתָּ <br> מָּ | נִמְּאָא <br> נִמִצִאזה <br>  <br>  <br> ַַמְּנֵּאִּ <br> נִמִצִּאּה <br> פִמְצֵאתֶּם <br>  <br> נִמְּצֵאנוּ | מקצN ְִִּאֶּה <br>  מִצֵּאת מִצִּאחֵּ4 מִצְּאֵ מִצּאחֵם מִצֵּאָּ מִצֵּאנוּ |  <br> מְִּּאֶה <br> תָּ <br> מיםֵּ <br> מִצּאחֵּ <br> משֶּׁאּאּה <br> מְצֵּאתָּם <br> מֶּ <br>  | הִמְמֶּיָא <br> הִמְצְיאָה <br>  <br> הַמִּצֵּאת <br> הְְִּצִּאֵּי <br>  <br> הִמְצֵּאֶּם <br>  <br> הִמְצֵאוּ |  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> הָמְצֵאנוּ | חִתְּמַּקּ <br>  <br>  <br>  הִחְמֶּצֵּאתּ <br> הִתְטְצִּאּאּ הִחְמְצֵּאֵּתֶּם הִתְמַּתָּתָּ הִחמַמּ:אנוּ |
| lwi. constr. <br> INF. absol. | $$ | הָמָּצֵּא נִִִצּצֹא | טַעִַּּאּא | Nצָ | הַמְצֵּאיא <br> הַמְצֵּ |  | הִתְמקֹאֵ |
| Imp. m. <br> Plur. m. <br> $f$. | N <br> ְְְֵֵֶ <br> ִִלְּאוּ <br>  | דֶּקָּ <br> הִשְׁקִּ <br>  <br>  | טַ <br> Dַצְּיֵּ <br> מַּבְּאּ <br> * מַצֵּאנָה | wanting | הַמְיֵא <br> הַמְץִיִּיֵּ <br> הַמְצִּיאּ <br> *הַמְצֵּנָה | wanting | הִתְמֵַּּ <br> הִתְמְצְּקּה <br> הִתְמַצְּאְּ <br>  |
| Fut. 3. $m$. <br> 3. $f$. <br> 2. $m$. <br> 2. $f$. <br> 1. c. <br> Plut. 3. m. <br> 3. $f$. <br> 2. $m$. <br> 2. $f$ <br> 1. e. | אציֶ:? <br> תִּ <br> ת <br> תִּמְצִּאי <br> אֶpֶּ <br>  <br> * <br>  <br>  <br> נִמְצx |  <br> NTּ <br> תִּשָּקֵּ <br> " <br> Nָּ <br>  <br>  <br> תִּפְּצִּ <br>  <br> נִּפָּא | N:ִּ <br> תnn <br> תּמֵּאּא <br>  <br> Nַּ <br>  <br> * <br> תּמַּנְ <br> תֶּמַּאנֵּ <br> נְטַּ | אָּּ: <br> Nּק <br> תֶּקצּ <br> תמצִּיֵי <br> אִּקִּ <br> "מֶּקִּ <br> * <br> תֶּקְּקִּ <br> הנָּ <br> נְמִּה: |  <br> תַּמצִיא <br> תַּמְצִּיָ <br> תַּמְצִּאִּ <br> אַמְצִּ <br> -ַמַצִּיאּ <br>  <br>  <br> תַּקֶּאנָּ <br> נַמְּצִּא | י <br> אּקֶ א תֵּקְצְאֵ Nַּ יֵּ * תֶּמְצִּאּ ה ְִִ |  <br>  תּ <br>  אֶמֶּאּ : " תחתְמַּאִּאוּ <br>  נִתְמַּאֵ |
| Fut. apoc. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Fut. with Suff. |  |  | " |  |  |  |  |
| Рart. act. ран. |  OTM | Kyp | טְטֵיֵN |  | אַצp | NYセ̧ | טִחְ |


|  | KAL | NIPHAL． | PIEL． | pual． | HIPHIL． | HOPHAL． | hithpakl． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pamt． 3 m． | ה放＂ |  | ה ${ }^{\text {and }}$ | nh＊ |  |  |  |
| 3．$f$ ． | ה－ |  | 品 | הTre＊ |  |  |  |
| 2．m． |  | 䍖＊ | Mas： |  | \％הִגל |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | \％ | יִיְ | \％ | 管 | הִנְלִים | הָהִ |  |
| 1．a． | \％ | נילְיִיִי | ת צִּ | 品 |  | הדנִליִיִי |  |
| Plur．3．c． | 将： |  | 为 | ， |  | הָּרד | תחתֶּ |
| 2．m． |  |  | ם | － | התנִלִיתֶם | הָנְלֵיחֶם | התִּנְיֵֶם |
| 2．$f$ ． | \％ |  | \％ | 10 ${ }^{\text {da }}$ |  | הדנִל |  |
| 1．. | \％ | ？ | 1 | 13 | הנִֵלים |  |  |
| Inf．constr． | nib：＊ | ＊ | nib：＊ | תib＊ |  | ת－הָּ |  |
| Inv．absol． | － |  | －${ }^{\text {P1 }}$ | 解＊ | הַנְלֵה |  |  |
| Imp．m． | 家： | ＊ | तb＂ |  | ＊הַנִלה＂ |  | ＊ |
|  | ， | ， | ，${ }^{1}$ | wanting |  | wanting |  |
| Plus，m． | ？ | חִּ | 嗗 |  | הַנְּלוּ |  | הִחְּמַּ |
| $f$. |  | *חִּתְּלָיָה | －3， |  | ＊הַנְלוּנָה＊ |  |  |
| Fot．3．m． | ה！ִ？：＊ | ה产：＊ | －יְ | 为貼＊ |  |  |  |
| 3．$f$ ． | תֵּנִל |  | － |  |  | 隹 | תִּתְּ |
| 2．m． | תִּנְ | ת |  | חתֶּלִּ |  | 的䍖 |  |
| 2．f． | ＊ |  |  | ＊ | ＊ | ＊ | 的为 |
| 1．c． | ＊ | \％ | \％ | Hex | N | Nָּ | \％ |
| Plur．3．m． | ：10， | ，${ }_{\text {Pa }}$ ？ | \％ | \％ | －1י1 | 㫛 | ： |
| 3．$f$ ． | ＊ | ， | ＊＊ | ＊＊＊ |  |  |  |
| 2．m． | תִּלִוּ | － |  | ת | 留 |  | תִּתְּמַּ |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | תִa |  | ת תn |  | ， |  |
| 1．c． | 9נִ | 313 | ？ | ？ | ַינְ | ניָּ |  |
| Fur．apmas． | לッי\％ | ל京＊ | 氷＊ |  | ל＊＊ |  | ， |
| Fot．with Suff． | － |  | ， |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { PART. act. } \\ \text { pass. } \end{gathered}$ | 角方 * |  | 号荷＊ | － |  |  | ה－ |





[^0]:    * This Manual, the "Hebrew Reading Lessons" has been adopted as one of the books used in the "Honour Course". at St. Aidan"s College, Birkenhead. We take this opportunity of atating that the Grammatical Remarks preficed to them are by another author.

[^1]:    *The Tables will be found at the end of the Vokmes.

