Navigating Arabic text

AN INTRODUCTION TO ARABIC SYNTAX

Part 1

MT KARAAN



DUAI

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Recent years have seen a marked slant away from formal grammar in the teaching of the Arabic language. A continuing track record of unsatisfactory results combines with advances in linguistic theory to condemn as inept traditional methods of teaching Arabic to non-speakers of the language. So does a grammatical approach to teaching Arabic have a future?

The study of Arabic cannot conceivably be reduced to one single universal purpose. Every student of the language would be motivated by reasons of his own. As such, it would not make good sense to adopt a one-size-fits-all method for teaching the language. Methods of instruction should ideally be structured around, and orientated towards the purpose of study.

The prospective student of Islamic studies tends to be motivated by a dual purpose. He wishes to become proficient at speaking and writing the language; but of equal—if not greater—significance to him is the need to access the *Turāth*: the sacred texts and the written scholarly record. As many doors as might be opened to him by mastery of spoken Arabic, the door of the *Turāth* will not readily yield except to the possessor of at least a modicum of Arabic grammar.

The present offering aims at providing that modicum. Towards that aim it willingly makes a number of sacrifices:

- technical terminology, especially in definitions, is omitted in favour of simple language, unless necessary;
- higher intricacies of grammar are dispensed with;
- a few grammatical inaccuracies are willingly committed, though acknowledged.

In doing so the purpose was to impart a living, animate appreciation of grammar, and not one so stilted in archaic jargon as to render it unwieldy in application.

A study of this text (in two parts) will certainly not achieve mastery over all aspects of the language. Selections from Arabic literature will still have to be studied; a stock of vocabulary will still have to be built; expressing oneself with both tongue and pen will still have to be exercised. All that this text aims to provide is the grammatical framework within which all of that should fit.

A word of caution: Due care should be taken not to overload the creative aspects of learning the language (reading, writing and speaking) with so much of grammar that it all devolves down to simply another lesson in grammar. Grammar is not the entirety of the language; it is but the *correct use* of language. For that reason it makes good sense not to correct the beginner's every mistake in the earlier stages of learning the language. It is part of the natural order that infants who learn language at the knees of their parents commit grammatical errors. Those errors are happily tolerated, for the joy of seeing them experiment with language at this stage outweighs any concern for correct usage. There will be ample time for correcting their usage later.

Instructors should optimally aim to introduce grammar into the student's mind, not as a lumpy set of abstract terms, rules and definitions, but as an intuitively perceptible internal logic that suffuses the living fabric of language. Achieving this requires a three-pronged approach:

- 1. the generous use of examples;
- 2. exposure to grammatical constructs in other texts;
- 3. challenging the student to produce examples on his own.

Every lesson should therefore be followed by exercises that seek to create within the student the ability, firstly, to recognise the construct of grammar under study, and secondly, to use it correctly in his own speech or writing.

May Allah accept this effort.

MT KARAAN Strand, Cape Town South Africa

SECTION ONE:

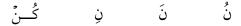
Basic concepts

Why nahw?

الكلام المصطلح عليه عند النحاة عبارة عن اللفظ المفيد فائدة يحسن السكوت عليها. فاللفظ جنس يشمل الكلام والكلمة والكلم، ويشمل المهمل كدديز»، والمستعمل كدعمرو». ودمفيد» أخرج المهمل؛ ودفائدة يحسن السكوت عليها» أخرج الكلمة وبعض الكلم، وهو ما تركب من ثلاث كلمات فأكثر ولم يحسن السكوت عليه، نحو دإن قام زيد».

The passage above comes from the beginning of Ibn 'Aqīl's commentary on Ibn Mālik's famous thousand line poem, the *Alfiyyah*. What you immediately notice about it is that not a single letter carries any sort of vowel sign. In fact, the letters of the Arabic alphabet are almost exclusively *consonants*. Consonants are letters formed through bringing certain parts of the mouth, tongue and teeth together. In the word tap, for example, the t and the p are consonants. The a between them is a vowel, a letter which represents the sound we give to a consonant.

So in English we vocalise consonants through vowels. How do we do that in Arabic? For that purpose we use the harakat, the signs above or below the letter which indicate which sound the letter must be given. There are three types of harakat, or vowel signs: the dammah ($\dot{-}$), fathah ($\dot{-}$) and harah($\dot{-}$); and when a letter is not supposed to be vocalised we place a harah har



Now, Arabic is typically written without vowel signs, as you can see in Ibn 'Aqīl's text above. So how does one know which harakah to give to which letter? This is where the rules of grammar come to our rescue. The two twin disciplines of

Arabic grammar, namely *naḥw* (syntax) and *ṣarf* (morphology) guide the process of assigning *ḥarakāt* to a text lacking vowel signs, also called *diacritics*. By mastering these two disciplines one gains the ability to correctly vowelize an unmarked text.

Comparing nahw to sarf

So why are there two separate disciplines? To understand that we need to take a step back and make a quick survey of the words that form the Arabic language. It is by no means possible to give a precise number for the words that exist in Arabic, but it is possible to classify them into three groups. This classification considers what the word indicates. Consider these groups of words:

from	مِنُ
to	إِكَ
on	عَلَىٰ

mosque	مَسْجِد
book	كِتاب
pen	قَلَم

(he) went	ذَهَبَ
(he) writes	يَكُتُبُ
(he) broke	كَسَرَ

You will notice that all the words in the group to the extreme right have something in common. They all seem to indicate *acts* or *deeds*. Furthermore, they also appear to indicate the *time* when the deed was or is done. It is either in the past or in the present. Words of this kind, that indicate *deeds* together with *time* or *tense*, are called verbs in English. In Arabic a verb is called a *fi^{cl}* and its plural is *af^cāl*.

The group of words in the middle simply indicate things: a mosque, a book or a pen. Words that indicate things are called nouns in English. In Arabic we call such a word an *ism*. Its plural is $asm\bar{a}^{2}$.

The words on the left do not indicate any particular thing or act, but they assist to tell how things relate to one another, or how acts relate to things. They connect the other words in a sentence together by telling us that the book, for example, is

on the table, or that the pen is under the book. Such words are called particles. In Arabic we speak of a harf in the singular, and $hur\bar{u}f$ in the plural.

Thus we get three types of words in Arabic: ism, fil and harf.



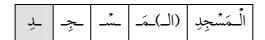
Now consider the following sentence:

Muḥammad went to the masjid.

It contains four words:

Some <code>ḥarakāt</code> in this sentence are determined by the rules of <code>ṣarf</code>; some by the rules of <code>naḥw</code>; and some by no particular set of rules. The following table shows this in detail:

	ب	ھُـ	ۮؘ	ذَهَبَ
ئے۔	\sqrt{3}	حدَ	ج_ م_	مُـكَمَّدُ
No rules			إِلَىٰ	



The shaded blocks indicate the letters affected by the rules of *naḥw*. You will notice that each one is the *last letter* in an *ism*. We may deduct from here that *naḥw* pertains to the last letter of an *ism*.

As for the remaining letters of the *ism*, they are often—but not always—governed by the rules of *ṣarf*. *Ṣarf* furthermore governs *all* the letters of the *fiq*. We may thus say that *ṣarf* is the discipline that governs all the letters of the *fiq*, and often all the letters of the *ism* except the last one.

As for the harf, the harakat of its letters are governed by neither nahw nor arf. We simply take them as they appear in the dictionary or in the spoken word.

Deeper role of nahw

So is that all that *naḥw* does: help us determine the *ḥarakah* of the last letter of the *ism*? If that was the extent of its function it would appear to be a somewhat insignificant discipline. In reality it is everything but insignificant.

A sentence is a set of words that work together to convey information. At the simplest level a sentence in Arabic will say one of two things:

➤ either	А	is, was or will be	В
> or	С	did, does or will do act ${\sf X}$	to D

These simplest of sentence structures provide us with four distinct roleplayers in the information that the sentence conveys.

In the first case we have—

- A, about whom we wish to convey the information, eg. Ahmad...
- and B, the information which we wish to convey, eg. Ahmad is intelligent.

In the second case we have—

- C, who is carrying out the action, eg. *The boy...*
- and D, upon whom the action is being done, eg. The boy eats the bread

What the discipline of *naḥw* does is to indicate the precise role a particular word plays in the sentence. As you have seen above, there are four possible basic roles a word might play: A, B, C and D. So when we encounter a word, we might ask:

- Is this word the A about whom we wish to say something?
- Or is it the information itself which we wish to convey as B?
- Is it C, the person carrying out the action described in the sentence?
- Or D, the one who finds himself on the receiving end of that action?

The manner in which <code>naḥw</code> indicates the respective roles of the role players in the sentence is through assigning a specific <code>ḥarakah</code> to the last letter of the <code>ism. Naḥw</code> is therefore not simply a set of rules to determine what <code>ḥarakah</code> the last letter takes, but at a deeper level it represents the very logic of language, the manner in which sentences come to make sense. Without the structure which <code>naḥw</code> imparts to a sentence it might as well be a meaningless jumble of words.

Let's illustrate this with a comparison. When a whole lot of labourers stand around on a construction site without anyone knowing exactly what each one is supposed to do, the intended building will probably never get done. But when each one is given his instructions and set to work, some mixing cement, others laying bricks, and yet others doing the woodwork, etc. we may soon expect to see a completed building. That set of instructions is exactly what <code>naḥw</code> is. It helps us to identify the role players of the sentence and assign to them their respective roles.

We may therefore say that *naḥw*, or Arabic syntax, is the study of the rules according to which the elements within a sentence combine in order to produce meaningful information.

Characteristics of the ism

The previous lesson introduced us to the three types of words we get in Arabic:

- the ism, or noun, that indicates a thing;
- the fiq, or verb, that indicates an act and its tense;
- and the <code>harf</code>, or particle that serves to join words together.

In *naḥw* it is with the *ism* that our primary concern lies. This does not mean that we are totally going to ignore the *fiq* and the *ḥarf* in our study of *naḥw*, but rather that when we do get to discuss them our focus will more often than not be the manner in which the *fiq* or *ḥarf* affects the *ism*. The *ism* is therefore our central point of reference.

Precisely what about the *ism* is it that we are about to learn? Grammar touches upon a range of aspects, but only four of those are of immediate interest for us. They are:

- 1. the fact that the *ism* may be either singular, dual or plural;
- 2. the fact that the *ism* may be either definite or indefinite;
- 3. the fact that the *ism* may be either masculine or feminine;
- 4. the fact that the last letter of the *ism* is either open to change (we call it *inflected*), or not (*uninflected*).

In each of the next four lessons we study one of these characteristics of the ism.

Number

All languages make adaptations to words in order to make them indicate a higher number of things. In English, for example, we add an s to the word *book* to indicate more than one book. In the case of *child* we add the suffix *-ren*; and sometimes we simply change the spelling a bit, as in *woman* and *women*.

Arabic, like most Semitic languages, employs not only singular and plural forms, but also a dual form to indicate two of a thing. In terms of number we therefore have three forms for the *ism*:

- singular, which we call mufrad (also wāḥid)
- dual or muthannā (also tathniyah)
- and plural, or jam^c.

The mufrad

There is no single standard pattern for the singular case. The basic default form in which a word appears is its singular form. Thus words such as رَجُلٌ كِتَابٌ قَلَمٌ مَسْجِدٌ are all in the *mufrad* form.

Forming the muthannā

Adapting the *ism* to form the *muthannā* is relatively easy. All that needs to be done is to add the suffix $-\bar{a}ni$ or -ayni to the end of the word, as shown in this table:

مُثَنَّى		مُفْرَد
رَجُلَيْنِ	رَجُلاَنِ	رَجُ لُ

كِتَابَــيْنِ	كِتَابَــانِ	كِتَابٌ
قَلَمَيْنِ	قَلَمَانِ	قَلَمٌ
مَسۡجِدَيۡنِ	مَسْجِدَانِ	مَسۡجِدٌ
طَالِبَيْنِ	طَالِبَانِ	طَالِبٌ

Forming the jam'

The formation of the <code>jam^c</code> is a bit more complicated. The complexity is due to the fact that we have two distinct ways of forming the plural. One of these, similar to the <code>muthannā</code>, entails only the addition of a <code>suffix</code> to the original <code>mufrad</code> form while the other involves <code>disruption</code> of the original <code>mufrad</code> form. When we leave the <code>mufrad</code> form unchanged and simply hitch a suffix to it, we get the <code>unbroken</code> or <code>sound plural</code>; and when we disrupt the <code>mufrad</code> form we get the broken plural.

Jam' sālim, or the sound plural

In Lesson 5 we are going to come across the fact that an *ism* can be either masculine or feminine. Here we are going to jump the gun a bit by saying that the specific suffix that is added to the *mufrad* form to render it plural depends on gender. The suffix for a masculine word differs from that of a feminine word. In this way we get two types of *jam^c* sālim: *mudhakkar*, and *mu²annath*.

Jam^c mudhakkar sālim

In order to get the sound masculine plural, or $jam^c mudhakkar s\bar{a}lim$, simply add the suffix $-\bar{u}na$ or $-\bar{i}na$ to the end of the word.

جَمْعُ الْمُذَكِّرِ السَّالِم		مُفْرَد
مُسُلِمِيْنَ	مُسلِمُوْنَ	مُسَلِمٌ

مُؤَمِنِينَ	مُؤْمِنُونَ	مُؤُمِنٌ
طَالِبِیْنَ	طَالِبُوْنَ	طَالِبٌ

Jam' mu'annath sālim

In order to get the sound feminine plural, or $jam^c mu^a$ annath $s\bar{a}lim$, simply add the suffix $-\bar{a}tun$ or $-\bar{a}tin$ to the end of the word.

جَـمْعُ الْمُؤَنَّثِ السَّالِـم		مُفْرَد
مُسُلِمَاتٍ	مُسْلِمَاتٌ	مُسلِمَةٌ
مُؤُمِنَاتٍ	مُؤَمِنَاتُ	مُؤَمِنةً
طَالِبَاتٍ	طَالِبَاتٌ	طَالِبَةٌ

Jam' mukassar, the broken plural

As its name shows, the *jam^c mukassar* involves breaking or disrupting the basic form of the *mufrad*. There is, however, no single standard pattern of breaking up the *mufrad*. Instead, we have a number of patterns, some of which will be demonstrated here. The list, however, is not exhaustive.

But although the list is not exhaustive, it is still quite long. Therefore we will break it up into two separate tables, each containing six forms of the broken plural. Hopefully this will make it easier to commit these forms and their given examples to memory.

In these tables we will use the $f\bar{a}$, 'ayn and $l\bar{a}m$ as place holders in the names we give to the standard forms. Accordingly, the plural of $\bar{a}\bar{b}$ will come on the standard form of أَقْلَام , while the standard form for the plural of مَسَاجِد , giving us the plural as $\bar{a}\bar{b}$ $\bar{a}\bar{b}$.

جَمْع مُكَسَّر (۱)			مُفْرَد			
فَعَلَةٌ	فُعَلُ	فُعُوْلٌ	فِعَالُ	فُعُلُ	أَفْعَالُ	مفرد
					أَقْلَامٌ	قَلَمٌ
				كُتُبُ		كِتَابٌ
			جِبَالٌ			جَبَلٌ
		بُيُوْتٌ				بَيْتٌ
	سُوَرٌ					سُوْرَةٌ
طَلَبَةٌ						طالِبٌ

جَمْع مُكَسَّر (٢)			مُفْرَد			
فَعَالِلَةُ	مَفَاعِيْلُ	مَفَاعِلُ	أَفْعِلَةٌ	أَفْعُلُ	فُعَلَاءُ	مفرد
					عُلَمَاءُ	عَالِمٌ
				أَشْهُرٌ		شَهْرٌ
			أَسْئِلَةٌ			سُؤَالٌ
		مَسَاجِدُ				مَسْجِدٌ
	مَفَاتِيْحُ					مِفْتَاحٌ
أَسَاتِذَةُ						أُسْتَاذٌ

Definiteness

In English, when I wish to speak of a specific book, I will refer to it as *the book*, whereas it will simply be *a book* when no specific book is intended. *The book* would then be *definite*, while *a book* is *indefinite*.

In Arabic it is the definite article *al*- at the beginning of an *ism* that chiefly determines whether a word will be definite or indefinite. However, the prefix *al*-works in tandem with the use of *tanwīn* at the end of the *ism*. The cardinal rule is that when *al*- appears at the beginning of an *ism* it will not get *tanwīn* at the end, and vice versa, if it has *tanwīn* at the end it will not get *al*- at the beginning.

A word prefixed with *al*- will be definite, or *ma'rifah*. However, it does not follow automatically that it will be indefinite, or *nakirah*, simply because it has *tanwīn* at the end and lacks *al*- at the beginning. The fact is that a word may sometimes have no *al*- at the beginning, have a *tanwīn* at the end and still be *ma'rifah*. This is true of personal names or proper nouns (*'alam* in Arabic). In the sentence,

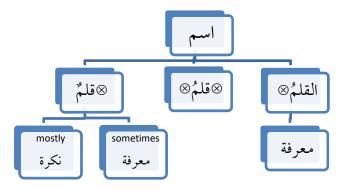
the word Muhammad can clearly be seen to carry a tanwin, and yet it is ma^crifah . This is because it is a personal name.

What we learn from here is that an *ism* either carries *al*- at the beginning, or *tanwīn* at the end.

- When it carries al- it is ma^crifah.
- When it carries tanwin it is
 - o sometimes still ma'rifah, as in the case of personal names;
 - o but mostly *nakirah*.

Now, we know that an *ism* can never have both *al*- and *tanwīn*. But does it ever happen that it becomes bereft of both *al*- and *tanwīn*, ending up with neither *al*- at the beginning nor *tanwīn* at the end? Yes, it does, and there are specific reasons for that happening. However, going into those reasons, and answering the question as to whether those cases would be considered *maʿrifah* or *nakirah* goes beyond our immediate scope for now.

In a nutshell we may represent the findings of this lesson in the following diagram where the sign \otimes will represent the absence of either *al*- at the beginning, or $tanw\bar{n}$ at the end:



Gender

Arabic, unlike, English, does not really possess a neuter gender. Every word has to be either masculine or feminine. In English one could, of course, adapt *master* to *mistress*, or *uncle* to *aunt*, but the same ease is notably absent when it comes to the masculine form for *nurse* or the feminine form for *president*.

In determining whether a word is *mudhakkar* (masculine) or *mu'annath* (feminine) there is an easy rule: begin with the assumption that the word is *mudhakkar*. Then, to determine whether the word is *mu'annath*, consider the following two questions:

- **Does it denote a female?** In other words, is the person indicated by the word a female?
- **Does it contain a sign of femininity?** The main sign of femininity is of course the $t\bar{a}$ marbūṭah (rounded $t\bar{a}$, \ddot{a}).

If the answer is no to both, the word remains mudhakkar, eg.

If the answer is yes to both, the word is definitely mu'annath, eg.

If it answers *yes* to one and *no* to the other, the rule is that **denotation trumps the sign** it contains. Thus, if it contains a sign of femininity but the person it denotes is a male, it will be *mudhakkar*, eg.

But if it denotes a female despite the lack of any sign of femininity, it will be considered *mu³annath*, eg.

This table will help setting all of this into perspective:

GENDER	FEMININE SIGN	FEMININE DENOTATION	WORD
مذكر	×	×	رَجُٰل
مؤنث	✓	√ \	مَكْتَبَة
مؤنث	✓	✓	فَاطِمَة
مذكر	×	×	مَسْجِد
مذكر	✓	×	طَلْحَة
مؤنث	×	✓	مَرْيَـم
مؤنث	×	✓	حَائِض
مذكر	×	×	ٳؚڹٛۯٙٳۿؚؽ۠ؠ

Mu'annath samā'ī, the received feminine

There are some words in Arabic that display no ostensible trace of being feminine, yet they are feminine. We call these $mu^2annath\ sam\bar{a}^c\bar{\imath}$ which means that the Arabs have been heard to treat them as feminine. Technically we will refer to these as the *received feminine*. Words such as \hat{u} (sun) and \hat{u} (fire) are received feminine words.

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¹ With inanimate things such as a library (which is what maktabah means) there is of course no way to determine whether they are biologically male or female. In such cases the mere appearance of the $t\bar{a}$ $marb\bar{u}tah$ is taken as sufficient to indicate femininity.

Inflection

The idea of inflection is foreign to English. Thus, whether Jack hits John, or John hits Jack, in a sentence describing the fact that one of them hit the other, both words will remain unchanged as they are. We will not get a case of $Jack^{un}$ hit $John^{an}$.

The Arabic noun is not as impervious to change. The *ism* changes the harakah of its last letter (we will call it the *end-case*) to denote the role it plays in the sentence. Accordingly, in respect of what he happens to be doing in the sentence, Zayd could be $Zayd^{un}$, $Zayd^{an}$, or $Zayd^{in}$ (but never just $Zayd^0$). This change in end-case is what is referred to as *inflection* in English, and *i'rāb* in Arabic.

To say that $i'r\bar{a}b$ is the very soul of nahw is an understatement. However, it remains true that not all Arabic nouns lend themselves to inflection. Some of them are every bit as impervious to change as their English counterparts. Those that lend themselves to $i'r\bar{a}b$ are called mu'rab (inflected) while those that refuse inflection are called $mabn\bar{\imath}$ (uninflected).

Differentiating mu'rab from mabnī

To the student of the language, however, the important question is how to tell $mu^c rab$ from $mabn\bar{\imath}$. So is there an easy way to determine whether an ism you encounter in a text is $mu^c rab$ or $mabn\bar{\imath}$?

The easiest way is admittedly not the technically precise way, but at this stage the beginner has a greater need for something that gives him traction (in other words, gets him going) than something that affords grammatical precision. This easy way amounts to simply identifying the major categories of uninflected *mabnī*

 $^{^2}$ I have used superscript here to denote $\textit{tanw}\bar{\textit{n}}$, The superscribed zero denotes a $\textit{suk}\bar{\textit{u}}\textit{n}$.

nouns and assuming the rest to be mu^crab . What makes this approach useful is the fact that it produces a correct result 95 percent of the time.

We will presently deal with four categories of *mabnī*. Should the word you encounter fall within any of these four categories, it will be *mabnī*; if not, you may safely assume it to be *muʿrab*. ³

Four categories of mabnī

Our four categories of mabnī are:

- 1. the $dam\bar{a}^{3}ir$, or pronouns
- 2. the asmā³ al-ishārah, or demonstrative pronouns
- 3. al-asmā' al-mawṣūlah, or relative pronouns
- 4. the numbers 11 (eleven) to 19 (nineteen).

1. The damā'ir

Pronouns are words that take the place of nouns. When speaking about someone it becomes tedious to constantly refer to him by his name, eg. *I saw Farīd and asked Farīd if Farīd had a few minutes for me*. Instead we'd say, *I saw Farīd and asked <u>him if he</u> had a few minutes for me*. The underlined words *him* and *he* in this sentence are pronouns.

In Arabic there are altogether 14 pronouns, or damā'ir (singular: damīr). The differentiation comes about due to three factors:⁴

- person (first, second, third)
- gender (masculine, feminine)
- number (singular, dual, plural)

³ There are, of course, $mabn\bar{\imath}$ nouns other than the ones listed here, but listing them all will defeat the present pedagogical purpose. Instructors are encouraged at this point to simply indicate the existence of other types of $mabn\bar{\imath}$ nouns, and then to identify them as they occur to the student in the course of his studies.

 $^{^4}$ Read more about these concepts in Lessons 7 and 8 of Forming the Arabic word Part 1.

The table below sets out the 14 damā'ir.

هُوَ	مفرد		
هُــمَا	مثنى	مذكَّر	
هُمْ	جمع		غَائِب
هِيَ	مفرد		3 rd person
هُمَ	مثنى	مؤنَّث	
هُن	جمع		
أَنْتَ	مفرد		
أنْتُمَا	مثنى	مذكَّر	
أنشي	جمع		مخاطَب
أَنْتِ	مفرد		2 nd person
أنْتُمَا	مثنى	مؤنَّث	
أنْـــتُـنَّ	جمع		
أنَـا	مفرد		مُتكلِّم
نَحْنُ	جمع		1 st person

2. The asmā' al-ishārah

The $asm\bar{a}^{\gamma}$ al- $ish\bar{a}rah$ are basically the words that correspond to this, that, these and those in English. There are twelve of them in all, since they accommodate changes in gender and number and have separate forms for what is near $(qar\bar{\imath}b)$ and what is far $(ba^{\zeta}\bar{\imath}d)$.

The table for the asmā' al-ishārah looks like this:

يب بعيد		قر		
مؤنث	مذكر	مؤنث	مذكر	
تِلْكَ	ذٰلِكَ	هٰذِهِ	هٰذَا	مفرد
تَانِكُ/ تَيْنِكَ	ذَانِكَ/ ذَيْنِكَ	هَاتَانِ/هَاتَيْنِ	هٰذَانِ/ هٰذَيْنِ	مثني
أُولٰئِكَ		هٰؤُلَاءِ		جمع

3. al-Asmā' al-mawṣūlah

Relative pronouns serve the purpose of connecting a noun to a phrase. For example, if I saw a man yesterday and I now wish to describe him by the fact that I saw him yesterday, I will say, *The man who I saw yesterday is your uncle*. The underlined word who serves the purpose of connecting the noun man to the phrase I saw yesterday. In Arabic we call them al- $asm\bar{a}$ al- $maws\bar{u}lah$.

There are 8 of them: 3 masculine, 3 feminine, and 2 additional ones. Of the two additional ones, one is used for humans (man = the person who), and the other for non-humans ($m\bar{a} =$ the thing which).

مَنْ
مَا

مؤنث	مذكر	
الَّتِيْ	الَّذِيْ	مفرد
اللَّتَانِ/ اللَّتَيْنِ	اللَّذَانِ/ اللَّذَيْنِ	مثني
اللَّاتِيْ اللَّوَاتِيْ	الَّذِيْنَ	جمع



4. The numbers 11 to 19

The words used to denote the eight numbers from 11 to 19 consist of two parts. The first one indicates the additional number and the other denotes the ten. The end casings of both these words will always carry a *fatḥah*, no matter what the grammatical situation might be. Since it is *mabnī* it is impervious to change.

The numbers from 11 to 19 are set out in the table below.

سِتَّةَ عَشَرَ	١٦
سَبْعَةَ عَشَرَ	١٧
ثَـمَانِيَةَ عَشَرَ	١٨
تِسْعَةَ عَشَرَ	١٩

أَحَدَ عَشَرَ	11
إثْنَا عَشَرَ	١٢
ثَلاَثَـةَ عَشَرَ	۱۳
أَرْبَعَةَ عَشَرَ	١٤
خُمْسَةً عَشَرَ	10

The 30 words in these four categories are the most commonly occurring examples of the $mabn\bar{\imath}$ noun. They are the ones that refuse to adapt their end-cases for inflection. They maintain the same end-case under all circumstances.

You might have noticed that the dual forms for both the $asm\bar{a}$ al-ishārah and al-asmā al-mawṣūlah reveal a certain amount of adaptability. If we had to subtract them from the list of 30 we are left with only 24.

The purpose for knowing them is to help us decide whether a word we encounter is $mu^c rab$ or $mabn\bar{\imath}$. If it happens to be any of these two dozen words it will of course be $mabn\bar{\imath}$, and you would not have to worry with giving any $i^c r\bar{a}b$. If it is not one of these 24, you have a very good chance that it will be $mu^c rab$.

With that decision behind you, you will then be able to go on and apply the rules of $i^c r \bar{a} b$ which follow in Sections Two and Three.

SECTION TWO:

Sentence structure

The jumlah ismiyyah (nominal sentence)

When words stand in isolation and do not interact with one another they are not susceptible to $i'r\bar{a}b$. It is only in the context of a sentence, or jumlah, where the various components start exerting an influence upon one another, that the phenomenon of $i'r\bar{a}b$ arises. Sentence structure is therefore of crucial importance to nahw.

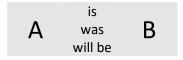
The most basic thing to consider when analysing sentence structure is the word with which the sentence begins. Sentences basically begin with either an *ism* or a fi¹. Already we have two categories of sentences:

- The sentence that begins with an *ism* is called a *jumlah ismiyyah* (nominal sentence)
- and the one which begins with a fill is called a jumlah filiyyah (verbal sentence).

Having now identified the two types of sentences, we proceed with the *jumlah* ismiyyah.

1. Structure of the jumlah ismiyyah

At the most fundamental level the *jumlah ismiyyah* is a sentence which makes the statement,



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⁵ When a sentence happens to begin with a harf, you simply disregard the harf and the word/s directly connected to it, and consider the ism or fiq that then follows as an essential of the sentence.

Its basic components are therefore two:

A the SUBJECT about whom information is conveyed

 $\, B \,$ the PREDICATE, which is the conveyed information about A

The subject, A, is called the *mubtada*², and the predicate, B, is called the *khabar*.

We may thus analyse examples of the jumlah ismiyyah as follows:

جملة اسمية		
خبر	مبتدأ	
مُفِيدٌ	الكِتَابُ	
مُدَرِّسُ	أُحْمَدُ	
كلامُ الله	القُرِّآنُ	
ۮؘڮؚ؎ۣ۠	الطَّالِبُ	
جَالِسٌ	الـمُدَرِّسُ	

Now look closely: Do you notice anything about the <code>ḥarakah</code> of the last letter of every word, in both columns (with the exception of the word الله in the middle of the second column)? What do they all have in common? The vowel sign <code>ḍammah</code>, or its doubled form, the <code>ḍammatayn</code>.

You might remember the discussion in Lesson 6 about the change in the harakah of the last letter of a noun, which we called the end-case or $i^c r \bar{a}b$. You might also recall that words receive $i^c r \bar{a}b$ on account of the respective roles they play in the

sentence. So what would happen if you brought that knowledge to bear upon the *jumlah ismiyyah* and its parts, the *mubtada^c* and the *khabar*?

Would you able to conclude that simply being the *mubtada*^c or the *khabar* of a sentence is reason enough to give the *ism* a *ḍammah* or *ḍammatayn*? And in the next few lessons you will soon notice other patterns of the end-case emerging. So what is the link between these various parts of the sentence and the *ḥarakah* of the end-case?

For the answer to these tentative questions, let's wait till we get to Section Three.

Modifying the jumlah ismiyyah through kāna

The *jumlah ismiyyah* makes a simple statement. The simplicity of the statement lies in two things:

o firstly, it is located in the present tense, eg.



The door is open.

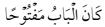
o and secondly, it carries no emphasis, eg.



Allah is Oft-forgiving.

But how does one go about if you wanted to place the statement in the past tense, or if you wanted to add emphasis? To bring about this type of modification, the Arabic language provides us with two devices. One of them takes the sentence into the past tense, while the other adds emphasis.

The subject of our present lesson is the device $k\bar{a}na$. This word, which means was, takes the statement from the present tense to the past tense. So, when we add $k\bar{a}na$ to our example above, we get the following:



The door was open.

But while the addition of $k\bar{a}na$ changed the meaning of the sentence, you might also have noticed that it modified the $i^c r\bar{a}b$ of the khabar. In the original sentence, the khabar carried a dammah. Now, after $k\bar{a}na$ was added, it carries a fathah.

There is another change which you will not quite see in the sentence. While each part of the *jumlah ismiyyah* has a particular $i^c r \bar{a}b$, which you can see, each part also has its own specific name. The first part is, of course, the *mubtada*² and the second part the *khabar*. This is the other area where the addition of $k\bar{a}na$ has an effect. It gives new names to both parts. The *mubtada*² now becomes the *ism* of $k\bar{a}na$, while the *khabar* becomes the *khabar* of $k\bar{a}na$.

This table demonstrates the modifications brought about by kāna.

TENSE	The tense changes from the PRESENT to the PAST tense.
NAMES	The $MUBTADA$ ' now becomes the ISM OF $K\bar{A}NA$. The $KHABAR$ now becomes the $KHABAR$ OF $K\bar{A}NA$.
I'RĀB	The I'RĀB of the KHABAR OF KĀNA changes from a <code>DAMMAH</code> to a FATḤAH.

After modification through *kāna*, the previous examples will now look like this:

خبر کان	اسم کان	کان
مُفِيۡدًا	الكِتَابُ	كَانَ
مُدَرِّسًا	أُحْمَدُ	كَانَ
كَلَامَ الله	القُّرُآنُ	كَانَ
ذَكِــيًّا	الطَّالِبُ	كَانَ
جَالِسًا	الـمُدَرِّسُ	كَانَ

The sisters of kāna

You have seen the effects that $k\bar{a}na$ has on the *jumlah ismiyyah*. Like $k\bar{a}na$ there are a group of other words—just about a dozen of them—that have a similar effect on the sentence structure, though not with exactly the same meaning. Since they resemble $k\bar{a}na$ in effect, they are called *the sisters of k\bar{a}na*.

Presently we will look at just a few of these. They are the seven listed in the table below.

is not	لَيْسَ
became	صَارَ
became (by morning)	أُصْبَحَ
became (by evening)	أمسك
remained	ظُلَّ
spent the night	بَاتَ
as long as	مًا دَامَ

The following examples demonstrate the use of the sisters of $k\bar{a}na$ in context.

The man <u>is not</u> energetic.	لَيْسَ الرَّ جُلُ نَشِيطًا.
Muḥammad <u>became</u> a doctor.	صَارَ مُحَمَّدٌ طَبِيبًا.
The boy <u>became</u> ill <u>(by morning)</u> .	أَصْبَحَ الْوَلَدُ مَرِيْضًا.
The worker became tired (by evening).	أَمْسَنِي الْعَامِلُ مُتَّعَبًا.

The wall remained upright.

The student spent the night studying.

ظَلَّ الْحِدَارُ قَائِمًا بَاتَ التَّلْمِيذُ مُطَالِعًا. وَقُتُ الْمَغْرِبِ مَا دَامَ الشَّفَقُ The time of Maghrib remains as long as the afterglow is apparent.

The complete kānā

You have learnt that kāna means was. This is the most common meaning of the word. It can also have another shade of meaning. Sometimes it means, not simply was, but there was.

What is the difference between was and there was? We use was when we want to describe, in the past tense, something about someone. For example, Zayd was tall, 'Umar was strong, 'Abdullah was kind. In these sentences you will notice that there are words on both sides of kāna. To the left of kāna stands the someone (Zayd, 'Umar, 'Abdullāh) about whom we are speaking, and to the right there is the information (tall, strong, kind) that we are imparting about each of them.

What would happen if we removed the information? Then the sentences would look like this: Zayd was..., 'Umar was..., `Abdullāh was... Very obviously, there is something missing here. Because the sentence lacks completeness, this particular kāna is called kāna nāqiṣah, or the incomplete kāna. Together with its sisters, it constitutes a certain class of fi^c called the fi^c nāgis, or incomplete verb. They are incomplete because they need a khabar to complete the sentence.

But in the Arabic language we do encounter the verb kāna standing on its own, and needing no khabar to complete it. For example,

So what type of *kāna* is this? This particular *kāna* is called the *kāna tāmmah*, or complete *kāna*. What makes it complete is the fact that it does not need a *khabar* to complete the sentence. It is not intended to convey any information about a person or thing, but rather just the fact that it simply *existed*. This is why we translate it, not simply as was, but rather, *there was*.

The sentence above therefore translates into, *There was a man in the house.*

Therefore, take care when you come across $k\bar{a}na$ in text. It may be the normal incomplete $k\bar{a}na$ in which case you may go ahead and look for its ism and khabar. But it may also be the complete $k\bar{a}na$ which, like any other $fi^{c}l$, will simply have a $f\bar{a}^{c}il$.

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 $^{^{6}}$ You will learn more about the $f\!\bar{a}^{c}\!il$ in Lesson 10.

Modifying the jumlah ismiyyah through inna

The previous lesson introduced you to the idea of modifying the *jumlah ismiyyah*. There we looked in detail at modifying the sentence to place it in the past tense. In this lesson we deal with modifying the *jumlah ismiyyah* to add emphasis.

The device we use to add emphasis is the particle *inna*—a word that we will translate, for the sake of convenience and lack of an adequate equivalent, as *verily*. In terms of nomenclature, the addition of this word has an effect upon the sentence similar to that of *kāna*: it turns the *mubtada*² into the *ism* of *inna*, and the *khabar* into the *khabar* of *inna*. When it comes to *i'rāb*, however, its effect is the inverse of *kāna*'s effect. It changes the *i'rāb* of the *mubtada*²/*ism* of *inna* from *ḍammah* to *fatḥah*, while the *i'rāb* of the *khabar* is left unchanged.

This table sets out the effects that the addition of inna has upon the jumlah ismiyyah:

MEANING	Emphasis is added to the sentence.
NAMES	The MUBTADA' now becomes the ISM OF INNA. The KHABAR now becomes the KHABAR OF INNA.
I'RĀB	The <i>I'RĀB</i> of the <i>ISM</i> OF <i>INNA</i> changes from a <i>DAMMAH</i> to a <i>FATḤAH</i> .

After modification with inna the jumlah ismiyyah would now look like this:

خبر إنَّ	اسم إنَّ	إنَّ
مُفِيدُ	الكِتَابَ	ٳڹۜ
مُكرِّسُ	أُحْمَدَ	ٳڹۜ
كَلَامُ الله	القُرِّآنَ	ٳڹۜ
ۮؘکِ؎ۣؖ۠	الطَّالِبَ	ٳڹۜ
جَالِسٌ	الـمُدَرِّسَ	ٳڹۜ

The sisters of inna

Like $k\bar{a}na$, inna also has sisters. They are a group of words that have the same effect upon the sentence as inna. They also have an ism whose $i^cr\bar{a}b$ they change to a fathah, and a khabar whose $i^cr\bar{a}b$ remains a dammah.

These are the sisters of inna:

that	أُنَّ
because	لِأَنَّ
as if	كَأَنَّ
but	لٰكِنَّ
perhaps	لَعَلَ
if only	لَيْتَ

A few examples will demonstrate the use and effect of these sisters of inna.

Know <u>that</u> Allah is severe in punishment, and <u>that</u> Allah is oft-forgiving, most merciful.	﴿ اِعْلَمُوا أَنَّ اللهَ شَدِيْدُ الْعِقَابِ وَأَنَّ اللهَ غَفُورٌ رَّحِيْمٌ ﴾
The student did not come <u>because</u> his mother is ill.	مَا حَضَرَ الطَّالِبُ لِأَنَّ أُمَّهُ مَرِيْضَةُ.
The trader does not leave his shop, <u>as if</u> the shop is his house.	لَا يَتُرُكُ التَّاجِرُ دُّكَّانَهُ، <u>كَأَنَّ</u> اللَّكَّانَ بَيْتُهُ. الدُّكَّانَ بَيْتُهُ.
Aḥmad is present, <u>but</u> Muḥammad is absent.	أَحْمَدُ حَاضِرٌ، لَكِنَّ مُحَمَّدًا غَائِبٌ.
<u>Perhaps</u> the student is successful.	لَعَلَّ الطَّالِبَ نَاجِحٌ.
If only the question was easy!	لَيْتَ السُّوَّالَ سَهُلُّ!

The jumlah fi'liyyah (verbal sentence)

The *jumlah fi'liyyah*, as stated before, is a sentence that begins with a *fi'l*. The *fi'l*, as we have learnt, indicates an act that is carried out. Now, that act has to be carried out by someone, and often—though not always—the sentence might even mention the party who is on the receiving end of that act.

Structure of the jumlah fi^cliyyah

Accordingly, we may expect at least two, but sometimes even three parts to the jumlah fi'liyyah:

the verb denoting the act: the FI'L

the person carrying out the act: the FĀ'IL (agent)

In tabular form, this is what the analysis of the jumlah fi^cliyyah would look like:

مفعول به	فاعل	فعل
خُبزًا	الُّوَلَدُ	أُكَلَ
الْكَلْبَ	الرَّجُلُ	قَتَلَ
الكِتَابَ	التِّلُمِيۡذُ	يَفْتَحُ

مفعول به	فاعل	فعل
	سَعِيلٌ	جَاءَ
عَمُرًوا	زَيُّذُ	ضَرَبَ
	الخَطِيْبُ	قَامَ

If you take careful note of the i' $r\bar{a}b$ of both the $f\bar{a}$ 'il and the maf' $\bar{u}l$ $bih\bar{\iota}$ you will begin to notice the emergence of a certain consistent pattern. You will notice that the $f\bar{a}$ 'il displays a constant fammah or fammatayn in its end-case, while the fa'il $bih\bar{\iota}$ shows an equally constant fathah or fathatayn.

What does this tell you? Refresh your memory of what you learnt in Lesson 6: words receive their $i'r\bar{a}b$ (i.e. the $\dot{h}arakah$ of the last letter) on account of the role that they play in the sentence. Do you see a rule or two taking shape here? The word that acts out the deed constantly receives the $\dot{q}ammah$ sign while the one on the receiving end of the deed receives a $fat\dot{h}ah$.

For the moment it is enough to simply anticipate and adumbrate this rule without going into its actual details. The details will follow soon enough in Section Three.

Modifying the jumlah fi'liyyah

In a sentence that possesses both a $f\bar{a}^{c}il$ and a $maf^{c}\bar{u}l$ $bih\bar{\iota}$ it is possible to bring about a certain modification. This modification entails changing the voice of the $fi^{c}l$ from active to passive. In other words,

- اَگل (he ate) is changed to أُكِل (it was eaten)
- شرب (he hit) is changed to ضرب (he was hit)

After this modification the table now looks like this:

مفعول به	فاعل	فعل مجهول
عَمُرًوا		ڞؙڔؚٮؘ
خُبِزًا		أُكِلَ
الْكَلْبَ		قُتِلَ
الكِتَابَ		ئۇتىخ ي ف تىخ

But we are not yet done. You would have noticed that changing the $fi^{i}l$ to the passive voice ($majh\bar{u}l$) causes the space for the $f\bar{a}^{i}l$ to become vacated. Two things will now happen:

- One, the *maf^cūl bihī* will move into the space of the *fā^cil*.
- Two, when it does so, it will leave its old *i'rāb* behind and adopt the *i'rāb* particular to the new position it now occupies, which is the *i'rāb* of the *fā'il*.

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⁷ Read more about this in Lesson 9 of Forming the Arabic word Part 1.

• However, since it is not really the $f\bar{a}^{c}il$, but rather just substitutes for the $f\bar{a}^{c}il$ by filling its space, we call it the $n\bar{a}^{c}ib$ (surrogate agent).

Our table now changes to the following:

نائب الفاعل	فعل مجهول
عَمُرُّو	خُوِبَ
جُومِ	أُكِلَ
الْكَلْبُ	قُتِلَ
الكِتَابُ	وځي يفتح

SECTION THREE:

Causes of i^crāb (inflection)

Causes of raf (the nominative case)

Types of i'rāb

As many as the causes of *i'rāb* may be—and we will be discussing 19 of them— the last letter of the *ism mu'rab* could only conceivably carry one of three *ḥarakāt*: either a *ḍammah*, a *fatḥah*, or a *kasrah*. The 19 causes soon to come under discussion are distributed between these three cases.

For the sake of ease each case is referred to by a particular term:

- The <code>dammah</code> case is referred to as <code>raf</code>, and when a word happens to be in the <code>raf</code> case it is called <code>marfū</code>. In English we call this case the nominative case.
- The *fatḥah* case is referred to as *naṣb*, and a word in the *naṣb* case is termed *manṣūb*. The corresponding English term is *the accusative case*.
- The *kasrah* case is referred to as *jarr*, and when a word is in the *jarr* case it is *majrūr*, or in English, *the genitive case*.

Having now properly identified and named the three cases of *i'rab*, we may proceed to the causes of each case.

Causes of raft (the nominative case)

1. From the jumlah ismiyyah

The previous lesson would already have alerted you to the causes of *raf*^c which we are about to discuss. The gist of that lesson was

• that the *jumlah ismiyyah* has two basic components, the *mubtada*³ and the *khabar*;

- and the *jumlah ismiyyah* may be modified through the addition of either *kāna* or *inna*
- in which case the *mubtada*² will become the *ism* of *kāna/inna*, while the *khabar* becomes the *khabar* of *kāna/inna*.

That much about what names to give to the parts. Now, what about the $i^c r \bar{a} b$ of those parts? You would have been alert enough to notice that—

- the mubtada' was constantly marfū^c
- the khabar was constantly marfū^c
- the ism of $k\bar{a}na$ remained $marf\bar{u}^c$ after modification
- as did the *khabar* of *inna*
- and that it was only the *khabar* of *kāna* and the *ism* of *inna* that underwent a change in *i*^c*rāb* due to modification.

What we learn from here is that the *jumlah ismiyyah* in its simple and modified forms provides us with 4 causes of raf^{c} . Since there are only 6 in all, this is a major step forward.

We may set this information in the following table where the shaded areas indicate the causes of *raf*^c arising out of the *jumlah ismiyyah*.

جملة اسمية		
خبر	مبتدأ	
خبر کان	اسم کان	کان
خبر إن	اسم إن	إن

2. From the jumlah filiyyah

The structure of the simple jumlah fi'liyyah provided us with the following parts:

- a fiq
- its fā'il
- and often even a maf^cūl bihī

The $f\bar{a}^c$ il, as you would have noticed from the examples, constantly remains $marf\bar{u}^c$ while the $maf^c\bar{u}l$ $bih\bar{i}$ becomes $mans\bar{u}b$.

However, when we change the fill from the active voice to the passive voice—

- the $f\bar{a}^{c}il$ disappears
- the maf \bar{u} bih \bar{u} steps into the position earlier occupied by the $f\bar{a}$ il
- and then sheds its own i^crab of $na\dot{s}b$ and adopts the $i^cr\bar{a}b$ of raf^c originally possessed by the $f\bar{a}^cil$,
- thus becoming known as the $n\bar{a}^{\gamma}ib$ al- $f\bar{a}^{c}il$.

Remember what we said earlier about there being 6 causes of raf^c all in all, of which we had only learnt 4? Well, we have just discovered the remaining two in the jumlah fi'liyyah. They are the $f\bar{a}^c$ il and the $n\bar{a}^i$ ib al- $f\bar{a}^c$ il.

The causes of *raf*^c emerging out of the *jumlah fi^cliyyah* are the ones shaded in this table:

	جملة فعلية	
مفعول به	فاعل	فعل معروف
- نائب الفاعل	\rightarrow	فعل مجهول

We have now completed the causes of *raf*^c. In terms of what we have learnt, an *ism* could be *marfu*^c for any of the following reasons:

- it is the mubtada' in a jumlah ismiyyah
- it is the khabar in a jumlah ismiyyah
- it is the ism of kāna in a modified jumlah ismiyyah
- it is the khabar of inna in a modified jumlah ismiyyah
- it is the fā'il in a jumlah fi'liyyah
- or it is the nāʾib al-fāʿil in a modified jumlah fiʿliyyah

It might be a good idea to begin keeping a progress chart for the causes of $i^c r \bar{a} b$ as we proceed with learning them. We might jump the gun a bit and say that—

- for raf there are 6 causes (and we have learnt them all)
- for nașb we will be dealing with 9 cases (3 of which we have already come across)
- and jarr has only 2 causes.

This allows us to draw our progress chart (in which will take the slight liberty of foreshadowing the three causes of *naṣb* that we have already come across, but which actually form part of the next lesson):

I'RĀB PROGRESS CHART

		أسباب الإعراب	
سببا الجر		أسباب النصب	أسباب الرفع
		خبر کان	مبتدأ
		اسم إنَّ	خبر
	•	مفعول به	اسم کان
			خبر إنَّ
			فاعل
			نائب الفاعل

Causes of nașb (the accusative case) I

The previous lesson has already exposed us to 3 of the 9 cases of *naṣb* with which we will be dealing. Two of them arose from the modified *jumlah ismiyyah* and one from the simple *jumlah fi'liyyah*.

From the modified jumlah ismiyyah we had—

- the khabar of kāna
- and ism of inna:

while the simple jumlah fi'liyyah gave us—

• the maf^tūl bihī.

With this information we were able to fill three spots of the nine positions under the causes of $na\bar{s}b$ on our $i^cr\bar{a}b$ progress chart.

Before continuing on the remaining six, let us look at a few examples that display these cases of *naşb*.

I'RĀB PROGRESS CHART

	أسباب الإعراب	
سببا الجر	أسباب النصب	أسباب الرفع
	خبر کان	مبتدأ
	اسم إنَّ	خبر
	مفعول به	اسم کان
		خبر إنَّ
		فاعل
		نائب الفاعل

Now, on to the remaining six causes of naṣb.

Causes of nașb (the accusative case) II

Non-essential components of a sentence

At the simplest level, a sentence can either be a jumlah ismiyyah consisting of nothing but a bare $mubtada^{3}$ and khabar, or a jumlah fi'liyyah comprising of only a fi'l, $f\bar{a}'il$ and occasionally a $maf'\bar{u}l$ $bih\bar{\iota}$. However, anyone who has seen what Arabic text looks like would know for a fact that sentences are rarely as simple as that.

While the $mubtada^2$ —khabar combination, or the $fi^{c}l$ — $f\bar{a}^cil$ — $maf^c\bar{u}l$ $bih\bar{\iota}$ structure, form the core essentials of a sentence, there are additional, non-essential elements that may be included into the sentence for a range of purposes. Quite a number of these happen to be in the $man\bar{\imath}\bar{u}b$ case. In this lesson we begin our acquaintance with three of them, leaving the remaining three for the lesson that follows.

The other mafails

In the simple *jumlah fi'liyyah* we came across the $maf^{\epsilon}\bar{u}l$ $bih\bar{\iota}$, the patient upon whom action is carried out. There are, however, three other types of $maf^{\epsilon}\bar{u}l$ with which we will become acquainted in the present lesson. They are:

- the maf^cūl muṭlaq
- the mafūl lahū (or mafūl li-ajlihī)
- and the **maf^al fihi** (or **zarf**)

1. The maf^tūl muṭlaq (absolute object)

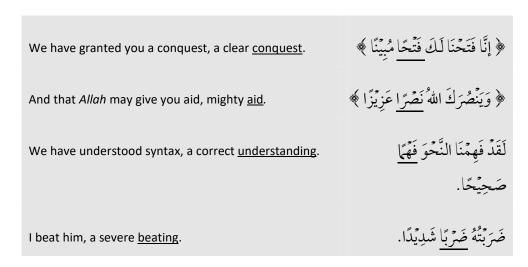
The maftal muṭlaq is a usage somewhat unique to the Arabic language. It is sometimes translated as the absolute object. To get an idea of what this usage entails, consider what a typical jumlah fi'liyyah does: it relates the doing of a deed.

On occasion, however, a speaker might want to do one of two things:

- he might want to add a description of the deed mentioned;
- or he might just want to add emphasis to his narration of the deed.

He faces a bit of a problem here: descriptions are usually added to nouns, and not to verbs. Thus, the *sky* (a noun) can be *blue* (an adjective), but in the sentence, *The bird flew in the blue sky*, how do I describe the bird's flight (i.e. the verb *flew*) in the sentence?

This is where a particular device of the Arabic language called the *maṣdar*, or verbal noun, becomes of use.⁸ The very name of this device affords a glimpse into its role. As a verbal noun, it is the bridge between the world of verbs and the world of nouns. Therefore, when the need arises to add an adjective to a verb, the *maṣdar* bridge is adjoined to the verb, and then the adjective is simply added to the *maṣdar*. You can see this in the examples below.



You would of course have noticed that the translation above does not reflect the way we would typically express ourselves in English. Instead of repeating the word conquest we would simply say, We have granted you a clear conquest. And we

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 $^{^{\}rm 8}$ See more about the masdar in Lesson 15 of Forming the Arabic word Part 1.

would say, We have understood syntax correctly instead of repeating a correct understanding. The awkward translation above was employed only to convey a sense of the structure of the sentence in the original Arabic.

What we have learnt here is that the $maf^{r}\bar{u}l$ $mu\dot{t}laq$ is added to the verb to add a description of the verb. Sometimes, however, it is added simply to add emphasis to the sentence, without any further description. And providing an adequate direct translation for this type of emphasis then becomes even more elusive. Have a look at these examples.

The $maf\bar{u}l$ mutlaq may therefore be said to be a non-essential component of the sentence in which the $ma\bar{s}dar$ is repeated after the fil, either for the sake of emphasis, or description. And in terms of $i^c r\bar{a}b$, it will always be $man\bar{s}\bar{u}b$.

2. The mafūl lahū (causative object)

If a typical jumlah filiyyah describes the doing of a deed, then the next type of $maf^c\bar{u}l$ is one that advances a reason or cause for why that deed was done. This is why it is called the $maf^c\bar{u}l$ $lah\bar{u}$ or $maf^c\bar{u}l$ li- $ajlih\bar{l}$, which translates literally into "done for that reason". More properly it is referred to as the causative object.

The examples which follow demonstrate the use of the $maf^c\bar{u}l\,lah\bar{u}$.

I hit the boy <u>in order to teach (him) manners</u> .	ضَرَبْتُ الْوَلَدَ تَأُدِيبًا.
--	--------------------------------

The trader travelled <u>to seek</u> sustenance.	سَافَرَ التَّاجِرُ <u>طَلَبًا</u> لِلرِّزْقِ.
The soldier fought <u>in defence</u> of his country.	قَاتَلَ الْجُنُدِيُّ دِفَاعًا عَنْ بَلَدِهِ.
We prevented him from travelling <u>for fear</u> of criminals.	مَنَعْنَاهُ مِنَ السَّفَرِ خَوْفًا مِنَ السَّفَرِ خَوْفًا مِنَ السَّفَرِ خَوْفًا مِنَ السَّفَرِ مِيْنَ.
I gave charity to the beggar <u>out of desire</u> for reward.	تَصَدَّقُتُ عَلَىٰ السَّائِلِ رَغْبَةً فِي الشَّائِلِ رَغْبَةً فِي الشَّائِلِ رَغْبَةً فِي الثَّوَابِ.

You would have noticed that all the underlined words (in order to, to seek, in defence of, for fear, out of desire) advance reasons for the deeds described in their respective sentences. The $maf^c\bar{u}l\ lah\bar{u}$ may therefore be defined as **a non-essential component of the sentence that answers to the question,** *Why?*. And in terms of $i^cr\bar{a}b$, it will always be $mans\bar{u}b$.

3. The maf^cūl fihi or zarf (adverb)

Another non-essential part of the sentence is the *maf^cūl fīhi*. This term literally means "that in which [the deed] is done". It is also called the *zarf*, meaning "container". The corresponding grammatical term for it is the *adverb*. It describes either the time or the place in which the deed takes place. As such we may speak of two types of *zarf*:

- a zarf makān, or locative adverb (i.e. adverb of place);
- and a *zarf zamān*, or temporal adverb (i.e. adverb of time).

In the simplest of terms, a *zārf* is an addition to a sentence that answers to the questions of *Where?* or *When?*

The table below presents a few examples of the zarf makān.

The foundation is <u>under</u> the house.	الأَسَاسُ تَحْتَ الْبَيْتِ.
The roof is <u>above</u> the house.	السَّقُفُ <u>فَوْقَ</u> الْبَيْتِ.
The pilgrims prayed <u>at</u> the Kaʿbah.	صَلَّىٰ الْحُجَّاجُ عِنْدَ الْكَعْبَةِ.
Do not pray <u>before</u> a grave.	لاَ تُصَلِّ أَمَامَ قَبْرٍ.
The student hides <u>behind</u> the wall.	يَخْتَفِي الطَّالِبُ <u>وَرَاءَ</u> الجِّدارِ.

Now we look at examples of the zarf zamān.

The traveller returned <u>after</u> a year.	رَجَعَ الْـمُسَافِرُ بَعُدَ عَامٍ.
Pray Fajr <u>before</u> sunrise.	صَلِّ الْفَجْرَ قَبْلَ طُلُوْعِ الشَّمْسِ.
They came to their father in the evening.	﴿ وَجَاءُوا أَبِاهُمُ عِشَاءً ﴾.
We will visit you <u>on Friday</u> .	سَنُرُ وَرُكُمُ يَوْمَ الْجُكُمُعَةِ.
ʿAbdullah fasted <u>for a</u> full <u>month</u> .	صَامَ عَبْدُ اللهِ شَهْرًا كَامِلاً.

To sum up, we may define the $maf^c\bar{u}l$ fihi or zarf as a non-essential component of the sentence that describes either the place or time of the action described in the sentence. In terms of $i^cr\bar{u}b$ it will never be anything but $mans\bar{u}b$.



We are now able to record some progress on our $i^c r \bar{a} b$ progress chart.

You will notice that a distinction has been maintained between the essential and non-essentials of the sentence. The non-essentials appear in italics.

I'RĀB PROGRESS CHART

أسباب الإعراب				
سببا الجر		أسباب النصب		أسباب الرفع
		خبر کان		مبتدأ
		اسم إنَّ		خبر
		مفعول به		اسم کان
		مفعول مطلق		خبر إنَّ
		مفعول له/لأجله		فاعل
		مفعول فيه/ ظرف		نائب الفاعل

Causes of nașb (the accusative case) III

Further non-essentials of the sentence

Among the $man s\bar{u}b\bar{a}t$, we have thus far dealt with three cases of essentials, and three cases of non-essentials. There are no further essentials to be discussed, neither $mar f\bar{u}^c$ nor $man s\bar{u}b$. In this lesson we deal with the few remaining non-essential $man s\bar{u}b\bar{a}t$. They are—

- the hāl
- the tamyīz
- and the ism of lā li-nafyi l-jins.

1. The hāl (circumstantial adjective)

A sentence typically makes a statement in which information is conveyed about one of the characters in the sentence. Let us take an example: Mūsā عَلَيْاللَاهُ returned to his people after forty days. If we wanted to convey the fact that Mūsā عَلَيْاللَاهُ returned, it would suffice to say,

This much is regular. But now, there is something else we want to say about Mūsā Over and above the basic fact that he returned, we want to say something about the *state* or *condition* in which he returned. He was angry and he was aggrieved. How does one add this information to the sentence without in any way detracting from its basic purpose which is to state that Mūsā returned?

circumstances of one of the characters in the sentence. We therefore refer to it as the *circumstantial adjective*.

With the device of the $h\bar{a}l$ in place we may now expand our sentence to include a description of the condition that Mūsā was in when he returned:

In terms of the basic sentence structure, the word $M\bar{u}s\bar{a}$ is the $f\bar{a}^cil.^{10}$ But in terms of being described by the $h\bar{a}l$ it carries another appellation: it is called the dhu l- $h\bar{a}l.^{11}$

We may thus define the $h\bar{a}l$ as a word that describes the condition of another word in a sentence. It will always be $man s\bar{u}b$.

Let's look at some examples of the hāl.

Indeed, We sent you <u>as a witness</u> , a giver of glad tidings, and a warner.	﴿ إِنَّا أَرْسَلُنَاكَ شَاهِدًا وَمُبَشِّرًا وَنَذِيرًا ﴾
Return to your Lord <u>as one who is pleased</u> and with whom (Allah) is pleased.	﴿ إِرْجِعِي إِلَى رَبِّكِ رَاضِيَةً مَرْضِيَّةً ﴾
I have been sent but <u>as a teacher</u> .	إِنَّا بُعِثْتُ مُعَلِّمًا.
He came to us <u>as a poor man</u> , and he went away from us <u>as a rich man</u> .	جَاءَنَا فَقِيْرًا، وَذَهَبَ عَنَّا غَنِيًّا.

¹⁰ You might be tempted to ask why, as the $f\bar{a}^c$ il, the word $M\bar{u}s\bar{a}$ does not display the dammah which is the sign of it being $marf\bar{u}^c$. The answer will come in Part 2 of this book.

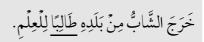
¹¹ Note, though, that being the *dhu l-ḥāl* has absolutely no bearing upon $i'r\bar{a}b$. It simply conveys the fact that its state is being described by another word elsewhere in the sentence. In this case it gets its own $i'r\bar{a}b$ from being the $f\bar{a}'il$ of the *jumlah* fi'liyyah.

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⁹ You might wonder why one of these two words (ghaḍbān) carries no tanwīn while the other (asif) carries tanwīn. This will all be discussed in Part 2 of this book.

The youth went forth from his city <u>as a seeker</u> of knowledge.



2. The tamyīz (specificative adverb)

The *jumlah ismiyyah* typically makes an association between two things, eg. *Zayd* and *student*:

Sometimes this association, instead of being simple and straightforward, becomes qualitative and comparative. Zayd is no longer just a student; he is the best of the students:

Thus far we have learnt two things about Zayd:

- he is a student:
- and of all the students he is the best one.

What is it that we don't know? We know that he is a student, and that he is better than the others, but what we do not know yet is the specific aspect in which he surpasses his fellow students.

This is where the Arabic language provides us with a device called the *tamyīz*. It is a word that is added to the sentence to specify the aspect to which a comparative assertion in the sentence applies.

Now, that is a bit of a mouthful. Let's simplify it by returning to Zayd. Our first sentence made the assertion that Zayd is a student. To this the second sentence

adds a qualitative and comparative aspect. It tells us that when you compare Zayd to the rest of the students, he is found to be a student of a better quality. All that is now left for the *tamyīz*, or specificative adverb, to do is to specify for us the precise area in which Zayd supersedes the rest. Let's assume that it is the aspect of character. We may now expand our sentence to include this specification:

If it was his voice that made him superior to his colleagues, we would have said,

or if his superiority was on account of his excellent handwriting, the sentence would have read,

In a nutshell, when a sentence makes a qualitative or quantitative assertion, the tamy $\bar{i}z$ is an addition to that sentence that answers to the question, In terms of what? Its $i^c r \bar{a}b$ will always be $man \bar{s} \bar{u}b$.

Now let's have a look at some examples of tamyīz.

And who is better <u>in terms of speech</u> than he who calls to Allah?

The marriage that is greatest <u>in terms of blessing</u>, is the one which is least <u>in terms of expense</u>.

\$\frac{3}{2}\tilde{\limbda} \tilde{\limbda} \tild

Abu I-Ṭufayl is the last of the Companions $\underline{\text{in}}$ terms of death.

أَبُو الطُّفَيْلِ آخِرُ الصَّحَابَةِ مَوْتًا. الْمَذْهَبُ الْحَنَفِيُّ أَوَّلُ الْمَذَاهِبِ

The Ḥanafī school is the first of the Four Schools in terms of existence.

لُمَذُهَبُ الْحَنَفِيُّ أَوَّلُ الْمَذَاهِبِ لَمَذَاهِبِ لَا مَذَاهِبِ لَا رَبَعَةِ وُجُودًا.



3. The ism of lā li-nafyi l-jins (lā of absolute denial)

Before going any further, there is an admission that has to be made here.

You would remember, from Lesson 6, that $asm\bar{a}^{5}$ (nouns) may be either $mu^{c}rab$ (inflected, that is, open to change in end-case) or $mabn\bar{i}$ (uninflected). At that point we identified a few common categories of nouns that are $mabn\bar{i}$, while the existence of other cases of $mabn\bar{i}$ nouns was merely hinted at.

Had grammatical precision been our overriding concern, the present case—the noun that follows the $l\bar{a}$ of absolute denial—should not have appeared under the causes of $i^c r\bar{a}b$. That is because it is not even $mu^c rab$ in the first place. It is $mabn\bar{i}$.

But although the typologies of the grammarians are undeniably important, it is with practicality that our immediate concern lies. Since this particular *ism* invariably carries a *fatḥah*, it is easier and makes for greater practicality to treat it along with all the other cases where the *ism* gets a *fatḥah*.

Having acknowledged the liberty taken, we may now proceed.

The particle $l\bar{a}$ can be used in a number of ways. It may be—

¹² Be careful to note, though: only a single *fatḥah*, and not *fatḥatayn* in *tanwīn*.

- **negative**, where it does nothing more than negate something;
- or **prohibitive**, where it forbids an act.

The $l\bar{a}$ which appears in the following sentence is the negative $l\bar{a}$, or $l\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}$ fiyah.

From the translation you will notice that it is rendered into English as not.

The prohibitive $l\bar{a}$, or $l\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}hiyah$, is translated differently. In English it would correspond to do not.

Neither of these two $l\bar{a}s$ is the focus of our present discussion. The $l\bar{a}$ which you are about to be introduced to is one that every Muslim is well aware of since it appears in the most fundamental credo of Islam:

This $l\bar{a}$ is called $l\bar{a}$ li-nafyi l-jins, the $l\bar{a}$ of absolute denial. By merely observing this example you will learn all you need to know about the noun that follows the $l\bar{a}$ li-nafyi l-jins. These are three points:

- It is nakirah (indefinite) and not ma^crifah (definite).
- It is translated as there is no.
- It carries a single fathah and not fathatayn.

Finally, some further examples of the lā li-nafyi l-jins.

There is no good in much of their private conversation.

There is no god but Allah alone; there is no partner unto Him.

There is no faith in one within whom there is no honesty.

I am the Seal of the Prophets; there is no prophet after me.

There is no salāh except with the Opening of the Book.

And herewith we come to the end of the mansūbāt.

We may thus proceed to complete the second column—causes of na\$b—of our progress chart. You will, of course, notice the differentiation between the essentials and non-essentials of the sentence, just as you will notice that the $l\bar{a}$ li nafyi l-jins has been marked with an asterisk to indicate the liberty taken of listing it along with the causes of na\$b.

Among the direct causes of i' $r\bar{a}b$, it is now only the two causes of jarr that remain, and after them we get to deal with the three indirect causes of i' $r\bar{a}b$. Those two lessons will bring us to the end of Part 1 of this book, $in sh\bar{a} All\bar{a}h$.

I'RĀB PROGRESS CHART

أسباب الإعراب				
سببا الجر	أسباب النصب	أسباب الرفع		
	خبر کان	مبتدأ		
	اسم إنَّ	خبر		
	مفعول به	اسم کان		
	مفعول مطلق	خبر إنَّ		
	مفعول له/لأجله	فاعل		
	مفعول فيه/ظرف	نائب الفاعل		
	حال			
	تمييز			
	* اسم لا لنفي الجنس			

Causes of jarr (the genitive case)

There are only two direct reasons why an ism would fall into the $majr\bar{u}r$ or genitive case. They are:

- 1. the fact that it stands after a harf al-jarr
- 2. and that it happens to be the muḍāf ilayh (possessor) in an iḍāfah (possessive construction).

1. Standing after a harf al-jarr (prepositional particle)

The very first lesson in this book made the point that the words of the Arabic language may be either—

- asmā' (nouns),
- af^tāl (verbs),
- or hurūf (particles).

Up to this point our preoccupation was with the *ism*, and for good reason. Most of the rules of syntax with which we had to deal concerned the *ism*. In the present lesson we will get better acquainted with one specific class of *ḥarf*, but only in relation to the effect that this *ḥarf* has on the *ism*. Our true focus remains the *ism*.

This particular class of harf is called the harf al-jarr. Literally this term means "the particle of the genitive case", but its proper grammatical descriptor is the prepositional particle. The effect that it has, of imparting jarr to the ism that stands after it, is probably one of the most common occurrences in Arabic text.

There are, all in all, 17 hurūf of jarr. They are all given in the table that follows, grouped according to their specific areas of use.

You might notice that the table lists 18, and not 17, $hur\bar{u}f$. This is because the particle bi- is repeated. Its repetition is on account of its use in two areas: as a common preposition, as well as a particle of oath.

جُــرُوف الْـجَــرّ						
		مُـنْذُ			in	ڣۣ
PARTICLES OF DURATION	since	مُــذُ			from	مِنُ
	until	حَـتَّىٰ			on	عَليٰ
				COMMON	to	إلى
		عَدَا		PREPOSITIONS	for	Ţ
PARTICLES OF EXCEPTION	except	خَلَا			by/with	٠٠.
		حَاشَا			like	کَـ
					from/about	عَنْ
PARTICLE OF UNDISCLOSED NUMBER	many a/an	ۯؙڹۜ				وَ
		رب		PARTICLES OF OATH	by	٦
						,.L

Before going on to look at the use of these <code>hurūf</code> in examples, there are a few important points to keep in mind about the use and effect of the <code>hurūf</code> al-jarr.

- \triangleright **Firstly,** and most importantly, the *ḥarf al-jarr* makes the *ism* following it majrūr.
- \triangleright **Secondly,** the *ism* following the *ḥarf al-jarr* will be known as the *majrūr* as well.

- > **Thirdly,** the *ḥarf al-jarr* together with the *majrūr* will form a sub-clause of the sentence to which we will apply the name, *muta^calliq* (associated sub-clause).
- ➤ **Fourthly,** the *muta^calliq* will be one of the non-essential components of the sentence that attach themselves to the essentials.

Indeed, the righteous shall be in gardens and rivers.	﴿إِنَّ الْـمُتَّ قِيْنَ فِي جَنَّاتٍ وَنَهَرٍ ﴾
Striking them with <u>stones</u> of <u>hard</u> <u>clay</u> .	﴿تَرْمِيْهِمُ بِحِجَارَةٍ مِنْ سِجَّيْلٍ﴾
We rely on <u>Allah</u> .	نَتَوَكَّلُ عَلَىٰ اللهِ.
I sent the book to <u>Saʿīd</u> .	بَعَثُتُ الْكِتَابَ إِلَى سَعِيْدٍ.
Have you seen anyone like <u>Zayd</u> ?	هَلْ رَأَيْتَ أَحَدًا كَ <u>زَيْد</u> ٍ؟
Religion is goodwill: for <u>Allah</u> , for <u>His Messenger</u> , for <u>His Book</u> , for <u>the leaders</u> of the Muslims, and all of them.	الدِّينُ النَّصِيَحَةُ، للهِ، وَلِرَسُولِهِ، وَلِرَسُولِهِ، وَلِرَسُولِهِ، وَلِكِتَابِهِ، وَلِأَئِمَّةِ المُُسُلِمِيْنَ، وَعَامَّتِهِمْ.
They ask you about the new moons.	﴿يَسَأَلُوۡنَكَ عَنِ الْأَهِلَّةِ﴾
By the dawn. And by the Ten Nights. And by the Even and the Odd. And by the night when it passes.	﴿ وَالْفَجْرِ، وَلَيَالِ عَشْرٍ، وَالشَّفْعِ وَالشَّفْعِ وَالْمَثْنِ ، وَاللَّيْلِ إِذَا يَسْرِ »

Peace it is until the <u>emergence</u> of dawn.	﴿سَلَـٰمٌ هِيَ حَتَّلَىٰ مَطَلَعِ الْفَجْرِ ﴾
I memorized the Qur'ān except one <u>juz</u> .	أَحْفَظُ الْقُرِّ آنَ خَلَا لِجُزَءٍ
There is many a person who recites the Qur'an while the Qur'an curses him.	رُبَّ قَارِئِ لِلْقُرُآنِ وَالْقُرآنُ يَلْعَنْهُ

There is one last important remark to make about the <code>hurūf</code> al-jarr. There are a number of words that, on account of their meaning as well as the effect they have on the <code>ism</code> following them, give every impression of being <code>hurūf</code> al-jarr—yet they are not. These are:

with	مَعَ
above	فَوَقَ
under	تُحُتَ
at	عِنْدَ
besides/ beneath	دُوُنَ

The grammatical fact is that these words are not $hur\bar{u}f$, but $asm\bar{a}^2$. Yes, there is a strong resemblance to the harf al-jarr—but that is because they are $asm\bar{a}^2$ that indicate place. In fact, they commonly come in the $mans\bar{u}b$ case precisely because of the fact that they indicate place. As you would remember from Lesson 14, the ism that indicates place is called the $maf^c\bar{u}l$ fihi or the zarf, which is one of the causes of nasb.

The other strong point of similarity between these words and the <code>hurūf</code> al-jarr lies in the effect they both have on the <code>ism</code> following: they both make that <code>ism majrūr</code>. In the case of the <code>harf</code> al-jarr the reason is understood: all <code>hurūf</code> al-jarr make the <code>ism</code>

following them $majr\bar{u}r$, for no other reason than the fact that they are by nature jarr-giving particles. So why do words such as $ma^c a$ and cinda impart jarr to the ism following them?

At the beginning of this lesson you learnt that there can only be two direct reasons for *jarr*: standing after the *ḥarf al-jarr*, and being the *muḍāf ilayh* in a possessive construction. So if it is not a case of *ḥarf al-jarr*, then it must surely be...?

2. The mudaf ilayh (possessor)

What is a possessive construction? Or, before that, what is a construction?

Words as we know them tend to be used on their own, individually. We speak of a construction when two words are joined together into some sort of unit. Possession, on the other hand, is a situation that comes about when one thing is owned by another. So, if Zayd owns a pen, Zayd is the possessor, and the pen is the possessed. If we want to speak of not just any pen, but specifically the pen that Zayd owned, we will create a unit consisting of two words: Zayd's pen. The English language provides us with two devices that allow us to express possession:

- > the apostrophe S ('s), as in Zayd's pen;
- > and the preposition of, as in the Messenger of Allah.

In Arabic, possession is indicated in a simple manner. We already know that in a case of possession there are going to be two words, one being the possessor, and the other the possessed. To form the possessive construction, which we call $i\dot{q}\bar{a}fah$, do the following:

- ightharpoonup Place the possessed first. We refer to the possessed as the muḍāf.
- Make sure the *muḍāf* never gets alif-lām at the beginning, or tanwīn at the end. This allows it to attach to the possessor and thereby form the unit.

- Place the possessor second. The possessor is called the muḍāf ilayh.
- Make sure the *muḍāf ilayh* becomes *majrūr*. This is the crucial sign that it is the possessor.

And those four simple steps give you your idafah construction.

However, they apply when you are forming sentences of your own, either in writing or in speech. If you happen to be reading an already existing text, it may be assumed that certain of these requirements will already be in place. For example—

- the muḍāf will already be first, and the muḍāf ilayh second,
- and the muḍāf will already be free from alif-lām at the beginning.

All that then remains for you to do is—

- to make sure you do not give the mudāf a tanwīn,
- and, critically, to give jarr to the muḍāf ilayh.

The *iḍāfah* construction is a very common phenomenon in the Arabic language. In reading text, therefore, you need to be on the lookout for it constantly. Wherever you see two or more nouns clustering together at one spot in a text, you have a good chance of encountering an *iḍāfah* construction.

When you do encounter one, be sure to remember that it is only the mudafilayh that takes the standard i ' $r\bar{a}b$ of jarr. Being the mudafilayh is in itself a cause of i ' $r\bar{a}b$, but being the mudaf is not. The only thing standard about the mudaf is that it gets neither alif- $l\bar{a}m$ nor $tanw\bar{n}n$. As for its i ' $r\bar{a}b$, it will be determined not by the fact that it is the mudaf, but by other factors within the sentence structure. It might, for example, be—

- $marf\bar{u}^c$ on account of being the $f\bar{a}^c$ il, or the $mubtada^o$, or the khabar;
- manṣūb due to being the khabar of kāna, or the mafʿūl bihī, or a zarf;

• or majrūr because it stands after a ḥarf al-jarr, or even since it is itself the muḍāf ilayh to an ism standing before it.

In fact, it can take its $i^c r \bar{a} b$ from any of the causes which we have been through. Take care not to make a mistake here.

What remains now is to look at some examples of the iḍāfah construction.

Muḥammad is the Messenger <u>of Allah</u> .	﴿ مُحَمَّدٌ رَسُولُ اللهِ ﴾.
Praise to Allah who inspired the messenger of the Messenger of Allah.	الْحَمَّدُ للهِ الَّذِيِّ وَفَّقَ <u>رَسُولَ رَسُولِ</u> اللهِ.
Indeed, in the Messenger <u>of Allah</u> there is for you a good example.	﴿ لَقَدُ كَانَ لَكُمْ فِي رَسُول اللهِ أُسُوةٌ حَسَنَةٌ ﴾.
Sovereign of the Day of Recompense.	﴿ مُلِكِ يَوْمِ الدِّيْنِ ﴾.
There is not şalāh except with the Opening of the Book.	لأصَلاةً إِلَّا بِفَاتِحَةِ الْكِتَابِ.

In terms of the direct causes of $i^c r \bar{a} b$, our progress chart is now complete.

There is only one single chapter left to complete Part 1 of this book, and it deals with three indirect causes of $i^c r \bar{a}b$. We will begin our preparations for that last chapter by expanding the chart to create the necessary space for the indirect causes of $i^c r \bar{a}b$.

I'RĀB PROGRESS CHART

CAUSES OF I'RĀB أسباب الإعراب						
أسباب غير مُبَاشِرَة Indirect causes		Direct causes أسباب مُبَاشِرَة				
التوابع		سببا الجر		أسباب النصب		أسباب الرفع
		مجرور		خبر كان		مبتدأ
		(بعد حرف الجر)		اسم إنَّ		خبر
		مضاف إليه		مفعول به		اسم کان
	•			مفعول مطلق		خبر إنَّ
				مفعول له/لاً جله		فاعل
				مفعول فيه/ظرف		نائب الفاعل
				حال		
				تمييز		
				* اسم لا لنفي الجنس		

LESSON 17

Indirect causes of *i'rāb* I

There is something that you might have noticed about each of the seventeen causes of $i^c r \bar{a} b$ that were discussed in the preceding lessons. In every case, the cause applies to the word *directly*. In other words—

- a word will be $marf\bar{u}^c$ because it itself is the $f\bar{a}^c$ il, the $n\bar{a}^{\gamma}$ ib $al-f\bar{a}^c$ il, the $mubtada^{\gamma}$, or the khabar of inna, as the case may be;
- or a word will be *manṣūb* due to it itself being the *mafʿūl bihī*, the *mafʿūl muṭlaq*, the *ḥāl*, or the *tamyīz*;
- or a word, on account of it itself standing after a harf al-jarr, or being a muḍāf ilayh, will be majrūr.

But in the Arabic language we also come across the phenomenon wherein a word gets a certain $i^c r \bar{a}b$, not on account of itself, but simply because it happens to follow another word in the sentence. Thus, if that other word happens to be $marf\bar{u}^c$, its follower will similarly become $marf\bar{u}^c$; if it happens to be $mans\bar{u}b$, the follower will become $mans\bar{u}b$ as well; and if that other word comes as $majr\bar{u}r$, the follower will also receive jarr.

Nouns that act in this fashion are called the *Tawābi*^c, or Followers, and it is to three cases of *Tawābi*^c that we turn our attention in this final lesson of Part 1 of this book.

The *Tawābi^c* which we discuss in this lesson are:

- the *ma*'tūf (conjunct)
- the *sifah* (adjective)
- the badal (substitute)



The ma'tūf (conjunct)

Conjoining is a common occurrence in just about every language. It happens when we take one of the existing role players of the sentence and add others to it, usually through a connecting particle called the *conjunction*.

To demonstrate, let us use a simple sentence such as *Khālid came. Khālid* is our main role player here:

Now we will add to it the fact that Maḥmūd came along with Khālid. To do that we will need to use the conjunction wa (and):

What you see here are two words conjoined through the use of the conjunction \mathfrak{g} . This conjunction \mathfrak{g} itself is called the harf al-'atf. As for the words which it connects, $Kh\bar{a}lid$ and $Mahm\bar{u}d$, the English language simply calls them a pair of conjuncts without any further differentiation. Arabic differentiates between them in name. To $Kh\bar{a}lid$ in this case it gives the name ma' $t\bar{u}f$ 'alayh, which we will render as blad blad

It is with good reason that we differentiate in name between the pair of conjuncts. From what you have already learnt you would know that $Kh\bar{a}lid$ gets its $i'r\bar{a}b$ from the fact that it stands as the $f\bar{a}'il$ of the verb f. It is therefore $marf\bar{u}'$. So from where does $Mahm\bar{u}d$ get its $i'r\bar{a}b$? From nowhere besides the fact that it stands connected through a h arf al-atf to $Kh\bar{a}lid$. And since $Kh\bar{a}lid$ already has its own $i'r\bar{a}b$, $Mahm\bar{u}d$ will simply follow the $i'r\bar{a}b$ of $Kh\bar{a}lid$.

So if it were to be asked: "From where does *Khālid* as the ma'tuf' alayh or lead conjunct get its $i'r\bar{a}b$? we would have to say: "From the role it plays in the sentence." In our example the cause of its $i'r\bar{a}b$ just happens to be the fact that it is

the $f\bar{a}^{c}il$ of the sentence. Outside of this example the cause of $i^{c}r\bar{a}b$ may literally be any of the direct causes of $i^{c}r\bar{a}b$ with which we have become acquainted in the preceding lessons.

But the *i'rāb* of the $ma't\bar{u}f$, the follower conjunct ($Mahm\bar{u}d$ in our example) is another matter. None of those direct causes of $i'r\bar{a}b$ applies to it. It simply gets what the $ma't\bar{u}f'$ alayh already has. If the $m\bar{a}'t\bar{u}f'$ alayh is $marf\bar{u}'$, the $ma't\bar{u}f'$ will also become $marf\bar{u}'$; if the $ma't\bar{u}f'$ alayh is $mans\bar{u}b$, the $ma't\bar{u}f'$ will similarly become $mans\bar{u}b$; and if the $ma't\bar{u}f'$ alayh gets jarr, then so will the the $ma't\bar{u}f$. The $ma't\bar{u}f'$ is a very loyal and adaptable follower.

The particle \mathfrak{g} (and) is of course the most prominent harf al-'atf, but it is by no means the only one. The list below will introduce you to the other important particles of 'atf, after which some examples of the use of 'atf are provided.

These examples demonstrate the use of these four conjunctions.

Indeed, We sent you as a witness, <u>a giver of</u> إِنَّا أَرْسَلْنَاكَ شَاهِدًا وَمُبَشِّرًا وَنَذِيْرًا ﴾ glad tidings, and <u>a warner.</u>

An orphan of near relationship, or a <u>needy</u> اَوَ مِسْكِيْنًا ذَا مَقْرَبَةٍ، أَوْ مِسْكِيْنًا ذَا مَقْرَبَةٍ، أَوْ مِسْكِيْنًا ذَا مَثَرَبَةٍ كَالَمُ عُمَّدٌ تُفَاعًا فَمَوْزًا

Muḥammad ate the apple, then the <u>banana</u>.

Zayd entered the classroom, then <u>Muḥammad</u>.

دَخَلَ الْفَصُلَ زَيْدٌ ثُمَّ مُحُمَّدٌ.



LESSON 18

Indirect causes of i'rāb II

The sifah (adjective)

Our second case of follower is that of the sifah, or adjective. An adjective is a word that describes a noun. You may thus well expect that, as in the previous instance, you will have here a lead word, which will be the noun described by the adjective, and then the adjective itself which will follow the noun in its $i^c r \bar{a}b$.

The noun described by the adjective will be called the $maws\bar{u}f$.¹³ The sifah, on the other hand, is the name given to the describing adjective. Like the $ma^ct\bar{u}f$ alayh and the $ma^ct\bar{u}f$ —

- if the maws \bar{u} f is marf \bar{u} , the sifah will be marf \bar{u} as well;
- if the mawsūf is mansūb, the sifah will be mansūb as well;
- and if the mawṣūf is majrūr, the ṣifah will also be majrūr.

In addition to conforming to the $maws\bar{u}f$ in terms of its $i^cr\bar{a}b$, the sifah will agree to the $maws\bar{u}f$ in three other respects:

- > number,
- > gender,
- > and being definite or indefinite.

Accordingly, a mawsuf that is—

- mufrad (singular) will have a singular sifah;
- muthannā (dual) will have a dual ṣifah;
- and jam' (plural) will get a plural sifah.14

Similarly, if the mawsūf is—

 $^{^{13}}$ It is also called the $man^c\bar{u}t$, in which case the sifah will be known as the na^ct .

 $^{^{14}}$ Note that the $\it sifah$ for the $\it jam^c mukassar$ (broken plural) will come in the singular feminine form.

- mudhakkar (masculine) it will get a masculine şifah;
- mu'annath (feminine) it will get a feminine șifah.

And if the mawsūf happens to be—

- *ma^crifah* (definite), its *ṣifah* will also be definite;
- *nakirah* (indefinite), its *sifah* will also be indefinite.

Let us take a look at the operation of this rule in the context of some examples.

Indeed, We have sent it down as an Arabic Qur'ān.

Guide us to the straight path.

They were under two of Our righteous servants.

And We have certainly revealed to you manifest verses.

In which for you are abundant fruits and from which you eat.

\$\left(\frac{\lldot\



LESSON 19

Indirect causes of i'rāb III

The badal (apposition)

There is something you should observe about the *mawṣūf* and the *ṣifah*. It is about removing the *mawṣūf* from the sentence. What happens to the sentence when you remove the *mawṣūf* from it?

Between the *mawṣūf* and the *ṣifah*, the *mawṣūf* is your lead word. The *ṣifah* is merely a follower. Remove the follower, and you will still have a meaningful sentence. But what happens when the lead word is removed? Let's see.

Now let's see what happens when the lead word, the $maws\bar{u}f$ is removed from the sentence:

As you can see, the removal of the $maws\bar{u}f$ leaves you with an incomplete sentence hanging somewhere in mid-air.

The type of follower we are about to discuss is different in this regard specifically. This follower is called the *badal*, which literally means *substitute*, but whose correct grammatical name is the *apposition*.

With the *badal* we have a situation somewhat similar to the *mawṣūf* and the *ṣifah*: a lead word, followed by a word which tells us something more about the lead word.

However, in the case of the *badal*, we may remove the lead word without producing a hanging, incomplete sentence. This is because the follower in this case has enough independence to complete the sentence on its own, without its lead word.

The best way to comprehend this is through an example:

We have in this sentence two words: عَلِيُّ, the lead word, and الْمُدَرِّسُ, the follower who gives us further descriptive information on عَلِيُّ. When we remove the lead word, عَلِيٌّ, the remaining sentence does not at all appear unfinished. The follower, الْمُدَرِّسُ, is sufficiently independent to produce a complete sentence.

In this sentence, the follower word is called the *badal*, or substitute, while the lead word is known as the *mubdal minhu*, or substituted.

We may therefore conclude the following:

- Like the mawṣūf—ṣifah, the case of the badal—mubdal minhu consists of a follower word adding description to a preceding lead word.
- ➤ Unlike the <code>mawṣūf—ṣifah</code>, the removal of the <code>mubdal minhu</code> does not lead to an unfinished sentence; the <code>badal</code> is independent enough to complete the sentence on its own.
- Like the mawṣūf—ṣifah, the badal follows the mubdal minhu in $i^c r \bar{a}b$.

Types of badal

After this introduction to the concept of the *badal*, we move on to the types of *badal*. For the sake of simplification, let us pre-empt the categories of the *badal* by using a simple example.

We have a person. Let's call him Zayd. He has a brother, Ṣāliḥ. He also has quite a large head. And then he happens to have very good manners. Remember that we are about to use a *badal* for Zayd. Now, look at the three sentences that follow:

 Zayd, Sāliḥ's brother, came.
 . چاء زَیْدٌ أُخُو صَالِحٍ

 I saw Zayd, his head.
 رَأَیتُ زَیْدًا رَأُسَهُ.

 I like Zayd—his manners.
 أُحِبُّ زَیْدًا أَدَبَهُ.

1. Badal al-kull (full apposition)

In the first sentence, the words Ṣāliḥ's brother denote the very same person that the word Zayd does. It also denotes the entire person and not just a part of him. We might say that the badal (Ṣāliḥ's brother) and the mubdal minhu (Zayd) are 100% the same. When this type of relationship exists between the badal and its mubdal minhu, we refer to it as a case of badal al-kull, or full apposition.

2. Badal al-ba'd (partial apposition)

In the second sentence, I looked for Zayd, but his body was obscured from view—all of it, that is, except for his head. So I say initially that I saw Zayd, but then I specify the part of him that I saw. You can see that the relationship between the *mubdal minhu* (*Zayd*) and the *badal* (*his head*) is partial: his head is just a part of

him. When such a partial relationship exists between the *mubdal minhu* and the *badal*, we refer to it as *badal al-ba* ^{c}d , or partial apposition.

3. Badal al-ishtimāl (associated apposition)

Now look at the third sentence. Here the *mubdal minhu* is again Zayd, but the *badal* is his good manners. His manners, of course, do not constitute all of him, so it cannot be a case of *badal al-kull*. But neither do his manners form a tangible, physical part of him, so it is not *badal al-ba*^cd either. Be that as it may, what cannot be denied is that those manners are associated with him in some way or the other.

When the relationship between the *mubdal minhu* and the *badal* is not physical, neither in full nor in part, but still denotes a certain type of intangible association, we refer to it as *badal al-ishtimāl*, or the associated apposition.¹⁵

Muḥammad, your friend, came.

. نَا مُعُمَّدٌ صَدِيْقُكَ.

The imām, Abū 'Abdillāh, Muḥammad ibn Ismā'īl, al-Bukhārī said...

[All] praise is [due] to Allāh, Lord of the worlds, The Entirely Merciful, the Especially Merciful, Sovereign of the Day of Recompense.

In each of these examples, the *badal* and *mubdal minhu* refer to the same person or being in his entirety and not just in part. In other words, they are fully congruent.

o Muḥammad and your friend refer to one and the same person with full congruency.

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¹⁵ Although the term *badal al-ishtimāl* translates more directly into *inclusive apposition*, preference went to the word *associated* because it conveys a more accurate description of the relationship.

- o Each of the terms the imām, Abū ʿAbdillāh, Muḥammad, ibn Ismāʿīl and al-Bukhārī refers to the same person as does the shaykh, with full congruency.
- Each of the terms Rabb, al-Raḥmān, al-Raḥīm and Mālik refer to Allāh with full congruency.

Below follow some examples of badal al-ba'd.

The book—it's cover—impressed me.

أُعْجَبَنِي الْكِتَابُ غِلَافُهُ.

Arise [to pray] the night, except for a little—half of it.

﴿قُمِ اللَّيْلَ إِلَّا قَلِيلًا نِصُفَهُ. ﴾

Islām is based on five [principles]: testifying that there is no God except Allāh and that Muḥammad is the Messenger of Allāh; establishing ṣalāh; paying zakāh; [performing] the pilgrimage; fasting the month of Ramaḍān.

بُنِيَ الْإِسْلَامُ عَلَىٰ خَمْسٍ: شَهَادَةِ أَنُ لَا إِلَهَ اللهُ وَإِقَامِ إِلَهَ إِلَّا اللهُ وَأَنَّ مُحُمَّدًا رَسُولُ الله، وَإِقَامِ الصَّلَاةِ، وَالْحَجِّ، وَصَوْمِ الصَّلَاةِ، وَالْحَجِّ، وَصَوْمِ رَمَضَانَ.

- o In the first example, it is not all of the book that impresses the speaker, but only part of it: its cover.
- o In the second example, it is not all of the night that should be spent in prayer, but only part of it: a half or less.
- o In the third example, the word *shahādah* represents only one of five pillars

Finally, some examples of the badal al-ishtimāl.

The food—its heat—will harm you.

يَضُرُّكَ الطَّعَامُ حَرَارَتُهُ.

They ask you about the Sacred Month— fighting in it.	﴿يَسَأَلُونَكَ عَنِ الشَّهْرِ الْحَرَامِ قِتَالِ فِيهِ﴾
I dislike Khālid— <u>his bad character</u> .	أَكْرَهُ خَالِدً سُوءَ خُلُقِهِ.