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# INTERMEDIATE BIBLICAL HEBREW GRAMMAR

A Student's Guide to  
Phonology and Morphology

Eric D. Reymond



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To Robin, Lucy, and Oliver

*ἀρχὴ γὰρ αὐτῆς ἡ ἀληθεστάτη παιδείας ἐπιθυμία*

“The beginning of wisdom is open yearning for instruction” (Wis 6:17).



# Contents

Acknowledgments.....	xi
Abbreviations.....	xiii
List of Tables.....	xix
 Preface: Transliteration, Etymological Bases, and Basic Terms.....	 1
 1. Introduction.....	 9
1.1. What Is Biblical Hebrew?	9
1.2. Varieties of Ancient Hebrew	13
 2. Phonology of Ancient Hebrew: Consonants .....	 17
2.1. Classical and Tiberian Biblical Hebrew Consonants	17
2.2. <i>Begadkepat</i>	20
2.3. Classical Hebrew /ḥ/, /ğ/, /š/	23
2.4. Pronunciation of Gutturals	29
2.5. Proto-Semitic/Proto-Northwest Semitic /t/, /d/, /ṣ/, /ṭ/	29
2.6. Proto-Semitic/Proto-Northwest Semitic /w/	37
2.7. Correspondences between Weak Roots	38
2.8. Correspondences between Roots with Similarly Articulated Consonants	43
2.9. Correspondences between Etymologically Unrelated Roots	48
2.10. Variation of Orthography and Pronunciation within Roots and Words	57
2.11. Chapter Summary	58
 3. Phonology of Ancient Hebrew: Vowels.....	 61
3.1. Tiberian Biblical Hebrew Vowels	65
3.2. Classical Biblical Hebrew Vowels	70
3.3. Developments of Individual Vowels	72

3.4. Lengthening and Lowering of Vowels in Tonic Syllables	79
3.5. Lengthening of Pretonic */i/ and */a/ and the Place of Stress	82
3.6. Vowel Reduction	85
3.7. “Attenuation” and Similar Changes	90
3.8. “Philippi’s Law” and Similar Changes	94
3.9. Canaanite Shift and Historical */ā/	96
3.10. Loss of Final Short Vowels	99
3.11. Feminine Singular *-at > *-ā	100
3.12. Triphthongs and Diphthongs	100
3.13. Compensatory Lengthening	104
3.14. Epenthesis	109
3.15. Loss of Gemination and <i>Shewa</i>	110
3.16. <i>Qamets</i> in the Tiberian Hebrew Tradition and Earlier Vowels	110
3.17. Pausal Forms	111
3.18. Chapter Summary	112
4. Morphology of Ancient Hebrew: The Noun.....	115
4.1. Morphology of the Hebrew Noun	115
4.2. Case and Number in Second-Millennium Northwest Semitic	116
4.3. Noun Patterns	122
4.4. Inflection of Basic Masculine and Feminine Nouns	123
4.5. Peculiarities of Some Possessive Suffixes	127
4.6. Biconsonantal Bases	129
4.7. Nouns of the * <i>Qatul</i> and * <i>Qatāl</i> Bases	132
4.8. Nouns of the * <i>Qutul</i> , * <i>Qitāl</i> , and * <i>Qutāl</i> Bases	132
4.9. Nouns of the * <i>Qātil</i> Base	134
4.10. Other Nouns with Long Vowels (without Gemination)	135
4.11. Nouns with Three Root Consonants, One of Which Is Geminated	136
4.12. <i>Aleph</i> -, <i>Yod</i> -, <i>Mem</i> -, and <i>Tav</i> -Preformative Nouns	139
4.13. Nouns with Affirmatives	142
4.14. I- <i>Aleph</i> , I- <i>Nun</i> , and I- <i>Vav</i> / <i>Yod</i> Nouns	144
4.15. II- <i>Vav</i> / <i>Yod</i> Nouns	144
4.16. III- <i>Vav</i> / <i>Yod</i> Nouns	145
4.17. Geminate Nouns with One Vowel in The Stem	146
4.18. Segolate Nouns	148
4.19. Suppletive Plurals and Construct Forms in Nouns	157



4.20. Aramaic-Like Forms	158
4.21. Chapter Summary	158
5. Morphology of Ancient Hebrew: The Verb .....	163
5.1. Terms for the Verb	163
5.2. History of the Verbal Forms	166
5.3. Verb with Object Suffixes	178
5.4. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: General Comments	181
5.5. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: Passive <i>Qal</i>	183
5.6. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: <i>Piel</i>	184
5.7. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: <i>Hiphil</i>	186
5.8. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: <i>Niphal</i>	190
5.9. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: <i>Pual</i> and <i>Hophal</i>	191
5.10. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: <i>Hithpael</i> and <i>Hishtaphel</i>	191
5.11. Verbs in the Non- <i>Qal</i> Conjugations: <i>Polel</i> , <i>Pilpel</i> , <i>Poel</i> , <i>Polal</i> , <i>Pilpal</i> , and <i>Poal</i>	193
5.12. Weak Roots: General Comments	194
5.13. Weak Roots: Gutturals and I- <i>Nun</i>	195
5.14. Weak Roots: I- <i>Vav/Yod</i>	198
5.15. Weak Roots: II- <i>Vav/Yod</i>	200
5.16. Weak Roots: III- <i>Vav/Yod</i>	203
5.17. Weak Roots: Geminate	208
5.18. Aramaic and Aramaic-Like Forms	213
5.19. Chapter Summary	213
6. Charts of Nouns and Verbs .....	217
Appendix: Producing Nominal and Verbal Forms .....	265
Producing Nominal Forms	265
Producing Plural Nouns	265
Producing Masculine Nouns with (Most) Suffixes	270
Producing the Construct Form of Nouns	275
Producing Masculine Singular Nouns with כֶּ- and כֵּ- and Masculine Plural Nouns with כִּ-, כֵּ-, and הֶ-, הֵ-	278
Producing Feminine Nouns with Suffixes	279
Producing the <i>Qāṭal</i> Verb Form	280
Producing the <i>Wəqāṭal</i> Verb Form	283
Producing the <i>Yiqtol</i> Verb Form	283

Producing the Short- <i>Yiqtol</i> and <i>Wayyiqtol</i> Verb Forms	283
Producing the Imperative	284
Summary for Producing Verbal Forms	285
Bibliography.....	289
Ancient Sources Index.....	299
Author Index.....	311
Word Index.....	314

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## Abbreviations

### Grammatical Abbreviations

1cp	first common plural
1cs	first common singular
2fp	second feminine plural
2fs	second feminine singular
2mp	second masculine plural
2ms	second masculine singular
3fp	third feminine plural
3fs	third feminine singular
3mp	third masculine plural
3ms	third masculine singular
abs.	absolute
acc.	accusative
adj(s).	adjective(s)
Aram.	Aramaic
cohort.	cohortative
const.	construct state
du.	dual
esp.	especially
fem.	feminine
fp	feminine plural
fs	feminine singular
gen.	genitive
impv.	imperative
inf(s).	infinitive(s)
intrans.	intransitive
l(l).	line(s)
masc.	masculine
mp	masculine plural

ms	masculine singular
nom.	nominative
pl.	plural
ptc(s).	participle(s)
sg.	singular
spec.	specifically
suf.	suffix
trans.	transitive

## Other Abbreviations

<i>AfAsL</i>	<i>Afroasiatic Linguistics</i>
<i>AfO</i>	<i>Archive für Orientforschung</i>
AKM	Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes
ANEM	Ancient Near Eastern Monographs
ANESSupp	Ancient Near Eastern Studies Supplement Series
AOAT	Alter Orient und Altes Testament
AOS	American Oriental Series
BA	Biblical Aramaic
BDB	Brown, F., S. R. Driver, and C. A. Briggs. <i>Hebrew Lexicon of the Old Testament</i> . Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1906.
BH	Biblical Hebrew
<i>BHS3</i>	<i>Biblia Hebraica Stuttgartensia</i> . Edited by Elliger, K. and W. Rudolph. 3 <sup>rd</sup> edition. Stuttgart: Deutsche Bibelgesellschaft, 1987.
BHT	Babylonian Hebrew (Pronunciation) Tradition
BibOr	Biblica et Orientalia
<i>BSOAS</i>	<i>Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies</i>
BZAW	Beihefte zur Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft
<i>C. Ap.</i>	<i>Josephus Contra Apionem</i>
<i>CEWAL</i>	<i>Cambridge Encyclopedia of the World's Ancient Languages</i> . Edited by Roger D. Woodard. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004.
<i>DCH</i>	<i>The Dictionary of Classical Hebrew</i> . Edited by David J. A. Clines. 8 vols. Sheffield: Sheffield Academic, 1993–2007.

<i>DJBA</i>	Sokoloff, Michael. <i>A Dictionary of Jewish Babylonian Aramaic of the Talmudic and Geonic Periods</i> . Ramat Gan: Bar Ilan University Press, 2002.
<i>DJD</i>	Discoveries in the Judean Desert
<i>DJPA</i>	Sokoloff, Michael. <i>A Dictionary of Jewish Palestinian Aramaic of the Byzantine Period</i> . 2nd ed. Ramat-Gan: Bar Ilan University Press, 2002.
<i>DSS</i>	Dead Sea Scrolls
<i>EHLL</i>	<i>Encyclopedia of Hebrew Language and Linguistics</i> . Edited by Geoffrey Khan. 4 vols. Leiden: Brill, 2013.
<i>Ges</i> <sup>18</sup>	<i>Hebräisches und Aramäisches Handwörterbuch über das Alte Testament</i> . Edited by Wilhelm Gesenius et al. 18th ed. Berlin: Springer, 2012.
<i>GKC</i>	<i>Gesenius' Hebrew Grammar</i> . Edited by E. Kautzsch. Translated by A. E. Cowley. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1910.
<i>HALOT</i>	Koehler, Ludwig and Walter Baumgartner. <i>The Hebrew and Aramaic Lexicon of the Old Testament</i> . Translated by M. E. J. Richardson. 5 vols. Leiden: Brill, 1994–2000.
<i>HAR</i>	<i>Hebrew Annual Review</i>
<i>HBH</i>	<i>A Handbook of Biblical Hebrew</i> . Edited by W. Randall Garr and Steven E. Fassberg. 2 vols. Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2016.
<i>HdO</i>	Handbuch der Orientalistik
<i>HGhS</i>	Bauer, Hans and Pontus Leander. <i>Historische Grammatik der hebräischen Sprache des Alten Testamentes</i> . 2 vols. Halle: Niemeyer, 1922.
<i>HSK</i>	Handbücher zur Sprach- und Kommunikationswissenschaft
<i>HSM</i>	Harvard Semitic Monographs
<i>HSS</i>	Harvard Semitic Studies
<i>IPA</i>	International Phonetic Alphabet
<i>JAOS</i>	<i>Journal of the American Oriental Society</i>
<i>JBL</i>	<i>Journal of Biblical Literature</i>
<i>JBS</i>	Jerusalem Biblical Studies
<i>JHS</i>	<i>Journal of Hebrew Scriptures</i>
<i>JNES</i>	<i>Journal of Near Eastern Studies</i>
<i>JNSL</i>	<i>Journal of Northwest Semitic Languages</i>

Joüon	Joüon, Paul. <i>A Grammar of Biblical Hebrew</i> . Translated and revised by T. Muraoka. 2 vols. Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1993.
JPS	<i>Tanakh: The Holy Scriptures: The JPS Translation according to the Traditional Hebrew Text</i>
JSJ	<i>Journal for the Study of Judaism</i>
JSJSup	Journal for the Study of Judaism Supplement
JSPSup	Journal for the Study of the Pseudepigrapha Supplement Series
LBH	Late Biblical Hebrew
LSAWS	Linguistic Studies in Ancient West Semitic
LSJ	Liddell, H. G., R. Scott, and H. S. Jones. <i>A Greek-English Lexicon</i> . Revised edition. Oxford: Clarendon, 1968.
LXX	Septuagint
MT	Masoretic Text, specifically the Leningrad Codex, as represented in <i>BHS3</i>
NJB	New Jerusalem Bible
NRSV	New Revised Standard Version
NWS	Northwest Semitic
OED	<i>Oxford English Dictionary</i> . 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992.
Or	<i>Orientalia</i> NS
OrGand	<i>Orientalia Gandensia</i>
Orientalia	<i>Orientalia: Papers of the Oriental Institute (Moscow)</i>
OTWSA	<i>Oud Testamentiese Werkgemeenskap van Suid-Afrika, Pretoria</i>
pers. comm.	personal communication
PIASH	Proceedings of the Israel Academy of Sciences and Humanities
PLO	Porta Linguarum Orientalium
PNWS	Proto-Northwest Semitic
PS	Proto-Semitic
RBS	Resources for Biblical Study
RH	Rabbinic Hebrew
SLIH	<i>The Semitic Languages: An International Handbook</i> . Edited by Stefan Weninger, Geoffrey Khan, Michael P. Streck, and Janet C. E. Watson. HSK 36. Berlin: de Gruyter Mouton, 2011.
SP	Samaritan Pentateuch



SSLL	Studies in Semitic Languages and Linguistics
STDJ	Studies on the Texts of the Desert of Judah
TDOT	<i>Theological Dictionary of the Old Testament</i> . Edited by G. Johannes Botterweck and Helmer Ringgren. Translated by John T. Willis et al. 15 vols. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans, 1974–2006.
THT	Tiberian Hebrew (Pronunciation) Tradition
ThWQ	<i>Theologisches Wörterbuch zu den Qumrantexten</i> . Edited by H.-J. Fabry and U. Dahmen. Stuttgart: Kohlhammer, 2011–.
UF	<i>Ugarit-Forschungen</i>
VT	<i>Vetus Testamentum</i>
VTSup	Vetus Testamentum Supplement Series
WS	West Semitic
ZA	<i>Zeitschrift für Assyriologie</i>
ZAH	<i>Zeitschrift für die Althebraistik</i>
ZDMG	<i>Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft</i>



## List of Tables

2.1. Consonantal Phonemes of Biblical Hebrew	17
2.2. PS/PNWS Consonantal Phonemes	34
2.3. Correspondences of Phonemes	36
3.1. Place of Articulation for the Vowels of Biblical Hebrew	62
3.2. Vocalic Phonemes of Tiberian Biblical Hebrew	66
3.3. Vowels of Biblical Hebrew	71
6.1. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 1	218
6.2. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 2	219
6.3. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 3	220
6.4. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 4	221
6.5. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 5	222
6.6. Biconsonantal Bases with Long Vowel	223
6.7. Geminate Bases, Part 1	225
6.8. Geminate Bases, Part 2	226
6.9. Segolate Bases, Part 1	228
6.10. Segolate Bases, Part 2	230
6.11. Segolate Bases, Part 3	230
6.12. Segolate Bases, Part 4	232
6.13. Segolate Bases, Part 5	233
6.14. Segolate Bases, Part 6	233
6.15. * <i>Qatal</i> Base	234
6.16. * <i>Qatil</i> Base	235
6.17. * <i>Qatul</i> , * <i>Qital</i> , * <i>Qutul</i> , * <i>Qutull</i> Bases	236
6.18. * <i>Qātīl</i> Base	237
6.19. * <i>Qatāl</i> and Aramaic-Like * <i>QVtāl</i> Bases	238
6.20. * <i>Qatīl</i> Base	239
6.21. * <i>Qatūl</i> , * <i>Qitāl</i> Bases	240
6.22. * <i>Qattal</i> and/or * <i>Qattāl</i> Base(s)	241
6.23. <i>Qal</i> , <i>Piel</i> , <i>Hiphil</i> , <i>Niphal</i> , <i>Pual</i> , and <i>Hophal</i> of Strong Roots	242
6.24. <i>Qal</i> , <i>Piel</i> , and <i>Niphal</i> of III-Guttural and III- <i>Aleph</i> Roots	244

6.25. <i>Qal</i> , <i>Hiphil</i> , <i>Niphal</i> , and <i>Hophal</i> of II- <i>Vav</i> Roots	246
6.26. Verb Forms of III- <i>Vav/Yod</i> Roots	248
6.27. Verb Forms of I-Guttural and III- <i>Vav/Yod</i> Roots	250
6.28. <i>Qal</i> , <i>Hiphil</i> , and <i>Niphal</i> of I-, II-, and III- <i>Vav/Yod</i> Roots	252
6.29. Verb Forms of Geminate Roots: סבב “to Go Around” and חמם “to Be Hot”	254
6.30. Third Masculine Singular or Unconjugated <i>Qal</i> Verb Forms	257
6.31. Third Masculine Plural <i>Qal</i> with Possessive Suffixes	258
6.32. Third Masculine Singular or Unconjugated <i>Qal</i> of עשה with Possessive Suffixes	258
6.33. Third Feminine Singular, Second Masculine Singular, Second Feminine Singular, and First Common Singular <i>Qal</i> with Possessive Suffixes	259
6.34. Third Masculine Singular <i>Qal Yiqtol</i> Energetic and Nonenergetic Verb Forms	260
6.35. The Verbs ראה “to See” and ירא “to Fear”	261
6.36. The Verbs רעע “to Be Evil”; רעה “to Graze, Shepherd”; and רוע “to Shout”	262
6.37. The Verbs חלל “to Defile, Begin”; חלה “to Be Sick”; חיל and חול “to Writhe”; and נחל “to Inherit”	263

## Preface

### Transliteration, Etymological Bases, and Basic Terms

In the course of describing Biblical Hebrew (BH), I will often transliterate the relevant Hebrew word or phrase. In relation to the Tiberian Hebrew pronunciation tradition (THT), I will attempt to represent the word(s) according to their phonemes. A phoneme is a “unit of sound in a language ... that can distinguish one word from another” (*OED*). The pair of sounds represented by the letters /l/ and /r/ are examples of two phonemes in English. The two sounds are similar (both are called liquid consonants), but English speakers hear them as meaningfully discrete sounds. This means that we can create and use individual words that differ in only this one feature. For example, we immediately recognize that “lace” and “race” are different words. Even if we did not understand the words already, we would assume that two words which differed only in this one consonant were distinct words with different meanings, as with the imaginary words “lupish” and “rupish.” Some languages, by contrast, do not distinguish these liquid consonants as distinct phonemes. Japanese, for example, has a single liquid consonant phoneme, which is commonly realized somewhat like our /r/.<sup>1</sup> For this reason, pairs of distinct words like “lace” and “race” (or “lupish” and “rupish”) would not typically appear in Japanese.

Each phoneme, however, can be articulated in a number of different ways, depending on various factors such as where it occurs in a word and the character of surrounding letters. In English, for instance, the exact pronunciation of the /l/ phoneme is different depending on the preceding vowel. To pronounce the /l/ in the word “fall,” the tongue is low, toward the base of the mouth, whereas in the word “fell,” it is considerably higher, in the middle of the mouth. Such distinct pronunciations of a single pho-

---

1. See, e.g., Laurence Labrune, *The Phonology of Japanese*, Phonology of the World's Languages (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012), 92–94.

neme are called allophones. The allophones are different realizations of a single phoneme.

Since in my transliteration of THT, I will indicate only phonemes, I will not distinguish between allophones in Hebrew, like spirantized and nonspirantized *begadkepat* letters. A *bet* with a *dagesh* will be transliterated exactly like a single *bet* without a *dagesh*: *b*. Nor will I attempt to discriminate between vowels accompanied by *matres* and those without *matres*. A *qamets* in the interior of a word will be represented in the same way as a word-final *qamets* with *mater he*: שְׁמֶרָה *šāmrā* (< \**šāmārā*) “she guarded.” Furthermore, as this example indicates, when transliterating a word in the Masoretic Text (MT; i.e., Leningrad Codex B19a), I will make a distinction where relevant between the phonemes as they would have been perceived by the Tiberian Masoretes and the vowels and consonants of pre-Masoretic times. The transliteration of words from the era(s) preceding that of the Tiberian Masoretes will also avoid any indication of obvious allophones (like the *begadkepat* distinctions) or *matres*, though, it should be admitted, the knowledge of what specifically constituted a phoneme in this period is harder to determine. Because this earlier pre-Masoretic pronunciation is not explicitly indicated by the vowel symbols in the texts that we possess, such transliterations are preceded by an asterisk. An asterisk does not imply that a form is from Proto-Semitic (PS) or Proto-Northwest Semitic (PNWS), but simply that it is not explicitly reflected in the orthography of the Tiberian Masoretes. Moreover, not every word or example is reconstructed back to its PS/PNWS form. Such reconstruction is done only where relevant. Usually, where a given word’s development is fully traced, the starting point is the hypothetical form of the word after PNWS and before the Canaanite evidenced in the Amarna correspondences (ca. 1350 BCE). In these cases, I will usually present the nouns/adjectives with the nominative case vowel (\*-u).

When I transliterate words as preserved in the MT, I will generally use the following system of transliteration: *hireq* and *hireq yod* = *i*, *sere* and *sere yod* = *e*, *segol* = *ε*, *patakh* = *a*, *qamets* = *ā*, *holem* = *o*, *qibbuts* and *shureq* = *u*. *Shewa* is not transliterated because it was not recognized as a phoneme; also, I will not transliterate epenthetic vowels, like the furtive *patakh* or the short vowel (e.g., /ε/ or /a/) in the second syllable of absolute singular nouns like מֶלֶךְ (= *melk*) “king.”<sup>2</sup> One will also notice that I do not dis-

2. See Geoffrey Khan, “Syllable Structure: Biblical Hebrew,” *EHL* 3:670–73.

tinguish between long and short vowels.<sup>3</sup> In addition, I will represent the letter *śin* (שׁ) as /s/ in transliterations of THT. This system of transliteration, it should be noted, does not exactly correspond to the pronunciation of THT, which was a good deal more complex.

Overall, the description of the language that follows in this book pertains to a version of Hebrew that precedes the time of the Tiberian Masoretes. This is the era (very roughly the Second Temple era) when many of the features we are familiar with as “Biblical Hebrew” (e.g., the spirantization of *begadkepat* consonants; merging of /ś/ and /s/; compensatory lengthening) likely developed. Usually, but not always, a word in transliteration that precedes the same word in Hebrew letters (often in parentheses) is indicating the form from the Second Temple era. The version of Hebrew described here is an ancestor of the Tiberian Masoretic pronunciation and vocalization, but not identical with it. Due to this lineage, there is often a correlation between the symbols of the Tiberian vocalization system and the vowels of this pre-Masoretic version of Hebrew, such that one will frequently observe the following correspondences: *hireq* = *i*, *hireq yod* = *ī*, *sere* = *e* or *ē*, *shewa* = *ə* or zero (i.e., no vowel), *segol* = *ε* or *e*, *patakh* = *a*, *qamets* = *ā* or *o*, *holem* = *o* or *ō*, *qibbuts* = *u* or *ū*, and *shuruq* = *ū*. Although it is counterintuitive, it is only the latter set of correspondences that coincide with the typical transliteration of BH. That is, the Hebrew of the Bible is typically transliterated (and pronounced) in a way that does not explicitly reflect the pronunciation implied by the vowel symbols. For this pre-Masoretic version of Hebrew (from the Second Temple era), I will still transliterate *śin* (שׁ) as /s/ since already by the middle of the first millennium BCE the phoneme /ś/ had begun to be pronounced as /s/. Nevertheless, when indicating forms of a given word from before 500 BCE I will indicate the phoneme as /ś/.

Since the vocalization of the Masoretes so regularly and neatly corresponds to the Hebrew of this era (i.e., the Second Temple era), it is not necessary to transliterate every word from the Masoretic Hebrew spelling into a romanized version. Only in the discussion of the vowels (in ch. 3) is it necessary to transliterate all the words, in order to clearly distinguish Masoretic from pre-Masoretic pronunciations. Thus, in that chapter the

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3. Vowel length was not regularly used to distinguish words in THT. See Geoffrey Khan, “Tiberian Pronunciation Tradition of Biblical Hebrew,” *ZAH* 9 (1996): 14–15; he writes: “Meaningful contrasts between words were not usually made by differences in vowel length alone” (14).

features discussed are always illustrated with transliterated versions of the words, with the Masoretic Hebrew spellings in parentheses. If nothing else, this should reinforce the idea that the Masoretic pointing/vocalization represents only one stage in a very long linguistic development.

The reconstruction of the history of any dead language is fraught with uncertainties. The reconstructions of particular Hebrew words in the various stages before they reached their form in the MT are quite hypothetical. I have tried to adhere to generally accepted ideas, but, due to the nature of the evidence, much remains uncertain. This is particularly true in relation to the history of the vowels and their development.

In addition, because the present work seeks to introduce students to the historical study of Biblical Hebrew, especially as a means of providing greater access to ancient Hebrew literature, I have generally avoided documenting all previous scholarship on the various phenomena described (including all competing interpretations). Instead, I have usually opted to follow the most recent conclusions by scholars as presented especially in the *Encyclopedia of the Hebrew Language and Linguistics*, where readers can find further discussion as well as references to more in-depth and detailed studies. The chronological sequence of linguistic developments presented especially in chapter 3 should be viewed as particularly tentative.

In cases where I am entirely unsure what vowel to reconstruct for a given word in a pre-Masoretic era, I use *V* to represent simply “vowel.” The symbols < and > indicate linguistic developments and derivations, respectively. They function, in essence, like arrows. The notation “x > y” indicates that x became y; conversely, “y < x” indicates that y derives from x.

In describing the morphology of BH, I will use the standard transliteration of the root \**qtl* in its earliest form. The root is realized in BH with a *tet*, קטל “to kill”; this *tet* is a later development of the root. The earlier (nonemphatic) /t/ was pronounced as *tet* (/t/) due to the influence of the preceding emphatic *q*. This root, \**qtl*, will be used to indicate the etymological bases of nouns and verbs, which reflect the early forms of nouns and verbs. In these cases, the form will be preceded by an asterisk (e.g., \**qatl*).

When I refer to a word’s “stem,” I refer to that part of a word that remains consistent throughout its inflection. For example, the word דָּבָר “word, matter” is inflected with many suffixal components, including suffixal morphemes like \*-*īm* (to make the plural form דְּבָרִים) and the set of possessive pronouns like \*-*ō* (to make the expression דְּבָרוֹ “his word”). The



stem of דְּבָרִים and דְּבָרוֹ is דָּבַר. The stem vowels of both the plural form and the singular form with the third-person masculine singular suffix are \**a-ā* (represented with the symbols *shewa-qamets* in THT). For the verbal form יִכְתְּבוּ “they will write,” the stem is כתב and the vowel of the stem is simply \**a*, while for הִגִּדְתָּ “you told,” the stem is הגיד and the vowels of the stem are *i-a*. The verbal categories *qal*, *piel*, *hiphil*, and so on are referred to as conjugations.

It is assumed that students know what the construct state is. This is not the only state for a noun, however. A noun that is not in the construct state and is not accompanied by a suffixed pronoun is said to be in the absolute state. This is essentially the form of the word found in a dictionary entry.

The word “pause” refers to a place in a verse where a person reading or reciting would extend the pronunciation of a word. This typically results in a longer form of the word, one in which the vowels are often not reduced or elided and sometimes where the vowels are lengthened. A word that appears in such a place is said to be “in pause” or to be a “pausal form.” Pause usually is marked by the *atnach* symbol, אֲ (in the middle of the verse), the *silluq* symbol, ׀ (at the end of a verse) and sometimes by the *zaqef* symbol, ׀ (at the quarter point and three-quarter point of the verse). A word that is not in pause, that is most of the words of a verse, is said to be “in context” or to be a “contextual form.” These forms often reflect vowel reduction and/or elision of vowels. All words are either pausal or contextual.

We will refer to open and closed syllables. An open syllable has the sequence consonant + vowel; a closed syllable has the sequence consonant + vowel + consonant. We will also refer to the tonic syllable, that is, the syllable that bears the tone, accent, or stress.<sup>4</sup> This will also be called the accented syllable or the stressed syllable. The syllable that precedes the tonic syllable is the pretonic syllable. The syllable that precedes the pretonic is the propretonic syllable. In פָּרָשִׁים “horse riders,” the last syllable, שִׁים-, is the tonic syllable; it is also a closed syllable. The preceding consonant and vowel, -רָ-, is the pretonic syllable; it is an open syllable. The initial -פָּ- is the propretonic syllable; it is also an open syllable.

It is also helpful to identify here four types of irregular nouns and their salient characteristics: geminate nouns (e.g., עַם “people”), segolate nouns

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4. Although tone, accent, stress can refer to different linguistic phenomena, they are used here synonymously.

(e.g., מֶלֶךְ “king”), a subcategory of which are middle-weak nouns with a diphthong (e.g., זֵית “olive”), and etymological III-*vav/yod* nouns, also commonly called III-*he* nouns (e.g., חֹזֶה “seer”). Geminate nouns are those that have a doubled consonant as part of their base, something revealed whenever a pronominal suffix or suffixal morpheme is attached to their stem: עַם “people” and עַמִּים “peoples”; חֵץ “arrow” and חֲצִים “arrows”; חֹק “statute” and חֻקִּים “statutes.” The gemination is explicit in the nouns with the feminine morpheme: חֻקָּה “statute.” Segolate nouns are those that have three different root consonants (i.e., no geminated root consonants) and that, in their historical singular form, had a single vowel (\**qatl*, \**qitl*, \**qutl*). With the exception of some III-*vav/yod* segolates, the masculine segolate nouns are all accented on their first syllables in the absolute (e.g., מֶלֶךְ “king,” סֵפֶר “book,” and קֹדֶשׁ “holy thing”), thus distinguishing them from most other nouns, which are accented on their last syllable (e.g., דְּבַר “word”). The etymological base vowel of the segolates (\**qatl*, \**qitl*, \**qutl*) is typically revealed in forms bearing a pronominal suffix: מֶלְכִּי “my king,” סֵפְרִי “my book,” קֹדֶשִׁי “my holy thing.” Feminine segolate nouns can be identified by their initial syllable, which is a closed syllable that begins with a root consonant (e.g., מַלְכָּה “queen,” where the initial *mem* is a root consonant and the first syllable is *mal-*). Almost universally, the plural forms of the absolute segolate nouns exhibit the sequence of \**ə-ā* in their stem (realized in THT spelling as *shewa-qamets*): מְלָכִים “kings” and מְלָכוֹת “queens.” Middle-weak nouns with a diphthong lose the diphthong in construct or with a pronominal suffix or suffixal morpheme: זֵית “olive” and זֵיתִים “olives”; מָוֶת “death” and מוֹתִי “my death.” Etymological III-*vav/yod* nouns exhibit an \*/e/ (> *segol* in THT) as a final vowel in the masculine absolute, קֶצֶה “end,” but an \*/ā/ (> *qamets* in THT) in the feminine absolute, קֶצֶה “end.” The final \*/e/ and *he mater* (in the masculine) are absent with a pronominal suffix or suffixal morpheme: קֶצְהוּ “his end.”

As for verbal forms, the label *qāṭal* refers to what is often referred to as the suffix-conjugation or perfect; *yiqṭol* refers to the prefix-conjugation or imperfect; *wayyiqṭol* to the *vav*-consecutive imperfect and *wəqāṭal* to the *vav*-consecutive perfect. The jussive/preterite verb form is referred to as the short-*yiqṭol*. Other verbal forms are referred to by their traditional labels (imperative, cohortative, infinitive construct, infinitive absolute, participle, and passive participle).

The following book presumes a certain familiarity with Biblical Hebrew. In particular, it presumes some knowledge of how the Hebrew

noun and verb inflect. Since students coming into an intermediate or advanced Hebrew class often have different backgrounds, it will be useful for some students to review the basics of Hebrew morphology. In the appendix, I have gathered a number of different guidelines that aid in producing the basic nominal and verbal forms.



## Introduction

### 1.1. What Is Biblical Hebrew?

When we speak about Biblical Hebrew what do we mean? Of course, we refer to the language of the Hebrew Bible/Old Testament (HB/OT). But behind this common label hides an often unacknowledged fact: the language we learn in “Biblical Hebrew” class is not really the language known to the Bible’s writers and early readers.<sup>1</sup> In relation to phonology, we often learn the pronunciation of the consonants and vowels that is current in modern Israel today. When we learn the forms of certain words, we learn how some speakers and readers in the first millennium CE read and spoke Hebrew.

For example, when we speak of the pronunciation of *ḥet* as equivalent to the *ch* in the North American English pronunciation of “Chanukkah” or in the Scottish pronunciation of “loch,” we reflect of course a pronunciation for the letter typical of modern, Israeli Hebrew. This pronunciation, contrary to what one might assume, developed at the earliest in Europe in the early second millennium CE.<sup>2</sup> Needless to say, this is well after the HB/OT had been written. In a similar manner, when we learn that the word for “king” was pronounced *mēlek* (IPA [ˈmɛlɛχ]), with the accent on the first of two syllables, we are learning the form of the word that perhaps became part of the literary register of “Biblical Hebrew” only in the first

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1. This, of course, is not a new observation; Alexander Sperber made this point many years ago in his *A Historical Grammar of Biblical Hebrew: A Presentation of Problems with Suggestions to Their Solutions* (Leiden: Brill, 1966), 17, though his analysis of how the contemporary articulation of the language differs from that of antiquity is not followed in the present work.

2. See Ilan Eldar, “Ashkenazi Pronunciation Tradition: Medieval,” *EHL* 1:188; Nimrod Shatil, “Guttural Consonants: Modern Hebrew,” *EHL* 2:169, 171.

millennium CE. Even then, speakers likely did not conceive of such words as having two syllables, in the same way that modern students do not consider a word with furtive *patakh* (e.g., רוּחַ “spirit”) to have two syllables.<sup>3</sup>

Curiously and perhaps counterintuitively, we do not even learn precisely the pronunciation of the vowels known to the scribes and scholars who innovated the vowel marks that lie beneath (and sometimes above) the consonants. For example, when we speak of the twofold pronunciation of *qamets* as either “long /ā/” or “short /o/” we reflect the modern pronunciation, which derives from Sephardic tradition.<sup>4</sup> Although this basically reflects a pronunciation of BH current at the turn of the eras, it does not reflect the manner in which the Masoretic scribes pronounced Hebrew.<sup>5</sup> When the Masoretic scribes used the *qamets* symbol, it marked what was for them, in their oral tradition, not two vowels, but a single vowel: /ā/, the “aw” in North American English “paw” (i.e., IPA [ɔ]).<sup>6</sup>

As I hope will be obvious, learning about the language in the time that it was used to write and copy the Bible (and also about the language’s development) has many benefits for the student of the Hebrew scriptures. In the first place, it allows one to get closer to the text, allowing readers to perceive more clearly the sound and rhythm of the biblical language (both in its ancient and medieval realizations). This can be both inspirational as well as instructive. In some cases, perceiving the earlier pronunciation(s) of the language can help explain apparent ambiguities in the lexicon. For example, the word הָפַר in the *qal* means “to dig, search for” and the word הִפָּר in the *qal* means “to be ashamed.” Although the verbs appear identical in many of their forms (e.g., הִפְרוּ “they dug” Gen 26:18 and הִפְרוּ “they were ashamed” Ps 71:24; יִהְפְּרוּ “they will search” Deut 1:22 and יִהְפְּרוּ “they will be ashamed” Ps 40:15), it is likely that the two words were distinguished in their pronunciation during most of the first millennium BCE. The first root (“to dig, search”) may have been real-

3. See, e.g., Choon-Leong Seow, *A Grammar for Biblical Hebrew*, rev. ed. (Nashville: Abingdon, 1995), 13.

4. Joshua Blau, *Phonology and Morphology of Biblical Hebrew*, LSAWS 2 (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2010), 108–9.

5. See “*Qamets* in the Tiberian Hebrew Tradition” in ch. 3 §16.

6. The shift in quality from what was previously /ā/ to /ā/ (= [ɔ]) was simultaneous with the shift of short /o/ or /u/ to /ā/ (= [ɔ]). The exact pronunciation of the vowel in terms of its length is much more complicated; see Khan, “Tiberian Pronunciation Tradition,” 4.

ized with a lighter, less guttural sound than the second (“to be ashamed”): \**hāpārū* versus \**ḥāpārū*.<sup>7</sup>

In addition, knowledge of the history of Hebrew helps explain certain pairs of Hebrew roots, like נטר/נצר both of which seem to derive from a PS/PNWS root *nṭr* “to guard.” At the least, knowing the link between such roots can aid in the acquisition of vocabulary. For example, it seems helpful to link in one’s mind the more common (and hopefully therefore more easily remembered) verb נצר “to guard” with the rarer נטר “to guard” (which appears with this simple sense at least three times in the Song of Songs, and with the nuance “to preserve anger” in another five passages).<sup>8</sup> Knowing the link between the two roots also helps explain the etymology of the noun מִטְרָה “guard, target” (which often occurs in the expression חֲצֵר הַמִּטְרָה “courtyard of the guard,” i.e., prison).

Pairs of antonyms with similar sounds can also be explained by means of historical phonological developments in the language, as with סָכַל = *sekl* < \**sakl* “folly” (Qoh 10:6) versus שָׁכַל = *sekl* < \**śikl* “prudence” (1 Sam 25:3) and the pair סוֹרֵר < \**sōrēr* “who are stubborn” (Isa 65:2) versus שׂוֹרֵר < \**sōrēr* < \**śōrēr* “one who rules” (Esth 1:22). Although sharing a common pronunciation in THT, these pairs of words were earlier distinguished. Such an explanation may also help the student to remember the sense of such pairs. Even if one already knows the vocabulary items individually, it is useful to set them side-by-side and consider them together.

Recognizing commonly occurring variations among roots can help explain other incongruities in the lexicon as well as facilitate sight reading. For example, being alert to the fact that sometimes the same basic root or verb will appear with different sibilants (e.g., *tsade* and *zayin*) makes reading Ps 68:4–5 all the easier (יִעֲלָצוּ “they will rejoice” [v. 4] ... וְעִלְּזוּ “rejoice!” [v. 5]). Being aware of the possibility of byforms between certain weak root classes (e.g., II-*vav/yod* and I-*vav/yod*) can also sometimes

7. See below for an explanation of the difference between /h/ and /ḥ/. Similarly, for the first half of the first millennium BCE (if not for a period after), the absence of spirantized allophones for the *begadkepat* letters would mean that words like *nimśah* “he is anointed” (1 Chr 14:8) would be distinct from \**nimśak* “he is postponed” (cf. תִּמְשָׁךְ Ezek 12:25).

8. Although נטר in the sense “to preserve anger” can be explained as derived from another root entirely, it seems likelier that this is simply a nuance of the verb נצר; one can compare, e.g., the use of שמר “to guard” in a similar sense, parallel with נטר, in Jer 3:5, as well as alone in Amos 1:11.

help one quickly identify a possible meaning of a word, such as for וְהִנֵּקְהוּ (from נוֹק or נִיק; Exod 2:9), especially where the context is clear (as in Exod 2:9, which contains the phrase וְהִנֵּקְהוּ “and nurse it!” from the more common נִיק). The phrase וְהִנֵּקְהוּ is translated “she nursed it.”

Cognizance of the phonology of ancient Hebrew can help explain certain translations, if not provide the grounds for new interpretations. Note, for instance, the translation of עֲרִי (in 1 Sam 28:16) “your adversary” in JPS and “your enemy” in NJB, NRSV. The word, however, looks like a defective spelling of the phrase “your cities,” that is, a spelling without the *yod mater* (עֲרִי\*). The dictionaries (like HALOT, Ges<sup>18</sup>) suggest that עֲרִי is derived from the Aramaic equivalent to Hebrew צָר. Evaluating this suggestion depends (at least partially) on understanding the relationship between Aramaic ע and Hebrew צ. Do other words exhibit this correspondence? If so, how frequently do such correspondences occur in the lexicon of Biblical Hebrew?

Learning more about the morphology of Hebrew in the era of the Bible’s authors is also helpful. Such knowledge makes the inflection of words more comprehensible and, thus, easier to remember. If a student learns that through the first millennium BCE the word for “king” was most likely pronounced something like *\*malk* and not “*melek*,” the forms of the word with pronominal suffix are more comprehensible: מַלְכִּי < *\*malkī* “my king,” מַלְכָּה < *\*malkāh* “her king,” מַלְכֵּנוּ < *\*malkēnū* “our king.” In addition, understanding that nouns as seemingly disparate as קִדְשׁ “holiness,” בָּאֵשׁ “stench,” and עֲנִי “poverty” all derive from the *\*qutl* base helps us predict, for example, their consistent form with suffixes: for example, קִדְשׁוֹ < *\*qodšō* < *\*qudšahu* (Isa 52:10), בָּאֵשׁוֹ < *\*bo’sō* < *\*bu’sahu* (Joel 2:20), עֲנִיו < *\*‘onyō* < *\*‘unyahu* (Job 36:15).

The following book is intended for the intermediate or advanced student who wishes to learn more about the history of the Hebrew language, specifically its phonology and morphology. But, not all historical aspects of the language are treated. I concentrate most on those aspects that will encourage a student to better remember the words and their inflection. Students should not expect to learn every detail in the book; it is most important to learn the general principles. The specific examples that can be memorized are outlined at the end of each chapter.

In addition, this book intends to provide students with a “full” picture of the language’s morphology by providing tables of the inflection of individual words for most classes of nouns/adjectives as well as tables that set similar verbal inflections side by side. The nouns/adjectives are classified



primarily according to their historical bases which usually reflect common manners of inflection. These tables can also be used by the student as an easy resource in vocalizing unpointed Hebrew texts. Ultimately, it is hoped that the study of the book will provide the student greater access to the texts of the Bible and to other early Hebrew writings.

## 1.2. Varieties of Ancient Hebrew

Before moving on to studying the sounds and forms of Biblical Hebrew, we should pause and consider the varieties of the Hebrew language in antiquity. In the first half of the first millennium BCE (1000–500 BCE), one can imagine a variety of dialects and subdialects of Hebrew spread across the southern Levant. Ultimately, these dialects, in contact with Phoenician to the north and Aramaic to the east, would have exhibited different traits, partially dependent on their proximity to these other languages.<sup>9</sup> The northern varieties of Hebrew, as attested in inscriptional material, do, in fact, seem to attest certain features common to Phoenician, but distinct from the Hebrew of the southern region, that is, Judah. For example, the word “wine” is found in ostraca from Samaria written *yn* in the absolute state, reflecting presumably a resolved diphthong, *yēn*, while the same word is found in Judean texts spelled with a medial *yod*, presuming the preservation of the diphthong, *yyn* = \**yayn*.<sup>10</sup> Scholars, especially Gary A. Rendsburg, have found traces of similar features in portions of the Bible.<sup>11</sup> The dialect of the Balaam or Deir ‘Alla inscription, on the other hand, evidences traits that are similar to Hebrew, though it mainly contains Aramaic-like features, reflecting in one way or another its presumed place of composition (and discovery): Transjordan (i.e., just east of the Jordan River, close to Aram-Damascus).<sup>12</sup> It is no wonder, therefore, that

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9. On the dialect continuum of Syria-Palestine, see W. Randall Garr, *Dialect Geography of Syria-Palestine, 1000–586 B.C.E.* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1985), 205–40.

10. See *ibid.*, 38–39, and below “Triphthongs and Diphthongs,” §3.12.

11. See Gary A. Rendsburg, “A Comprehensive Guide to Israelian Hebrew,” *Or* 38 (2003): 5–35 and the references cited there.

12. See Holger Gzella, “Deir ‘Allā,” *EHLL* 1:691–93. The inscription’s mixture of traits may reflect an archaic, rural dialect; the dialect geography between the Canaanite west and Aramaic east; the shift in political dominance from Israel to Damascus. Note also Garr, *Dialect Geography*, 223–24; John Huehnergard, “Remarks on the Classification of the Northwest Semitic Languages,” in *The Balaam Text from Deir ‘Alla Re-*

within the Bible itself we find numerous small differences between books, sources, and authors that are commonly dated to the first half of the first millennium BCE.

In addition to the different dialects reflective of geographic location, different varieties of the literary language are perceptible within the Bible. The Hebrew of the biblical corpus itself is typically divided into four different epochs: Archaic Biblical Hebrew, Standard Biblical Hebrew, Transitional Biblical Hebrew, and Late Biblical Hebrew.<sup>13</sup> The first three of these are commonly located between the years 1200–500 BCE. Standard Biblical Hebrew represents the language of most books of the Bible. Archaic Biblical Hebrew is exemplified in the the Song of Deborah (Judg 5), which contains much material that is typically considered both extremely old as well as reflective of northern Hebrew (e.g., some *qāṭal* 2fs [suffix-conjugation] verb forms end with *\*-tī* [as in Aramaic]: קָמְתִי “you [Deborah] arose” Judg 5:7).<sup>14</sup> Transitional Biblical Hebrew is found in works that were composed close to or during the exile, such as Jeremiah.<sup>15</sup> Late Biblical Hebrew is found in books such as Daniel and Ezra, and is exemplified by numerous linguistic shifts that have parallels in the Dead Sea Scrolls and in rabbinic literature.<sup>16</sup>

Still, the vocalization of the text as we have it in the MT has likely been made uniform to a degree that largely masks most dialectical and many chronological differences.<sup>17</sup> So, for example, the archaic/northern/

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*evaluated: Proceedings of the International Symposium Held at Leiden, 21–24 August 1989*, ed. J. Hoftijzer and G. van der Kooij (Leiden: Brill, 1991), 282–93; and Na‘ama Pat-El and Aren Wilson-Wright, “Deir ‘Allā as a Canaanite Dialect: A Vindication of Hackett,” in *Epigraphy, Philology, and the Hebrew Bible: Methodological Perspectives on Philological and Comparative Study of the Hebrew Bible in Honor of Jo Ann Hackett*, ed. Jeremy M. Hutton and Aaron D. Rubin, ANEM 12 (Atlanta: SBL Press, 2015), 13–23.

13. On the periodization of Biblical Hebrew and the difficulty of diachronic analysis, see Aaron Hornkohl, “Biblical Hebrew: Periodization,” *EHL* 1:315–25. Specific articles pertain to each of these varieties of the literary language.

14. Instead of קָמְתִי. See Hornkohl, “Biblical Hebrew: Periodization,” 1:318. See also Agustinus Gianto, “Archaic Biblical Hebrew,” *HBH* 1:19–29; Alice Mandell, “Biblical Hebrew, Archaic,” *EHL* 1:325–29.

15. Aaron D. Hornkohl, “Transitional Biblical Hebrew,” *HBH* 1:31–42; Hornkohl, *Ancient Hebrew Periodization and the Language of the Book of Jeremiah*, SLL 74 (Leiden: Brill, 2014).

16. See, e.g., Avi Hurvitz, “Biblical Hebrew, Late,” *EHL* 1:329–38; Matthew Morgenstern, “Late Biblical Hebrew,” *HBH* 1:43–54.

17. See Hornkohl, *Ancient Hebrew Periodization*, 19–20.

Aramaic-like *qāṭal* second feminine singular ending \*-tī found vocalized in Judg 5:7 seems also to be reflected in the consonantal text of other parts of the Bible, but frequently not in the vocalization (e.g., יִרְדְּתִי “go down!” Ruth 3:3 and הִלַּכְתִּי “you went” Jer 31:21).<sup>18</sup> In addition, even the consonantal text seems not to have been immune from alteration. It is likely that the spelling of words was also made uniform at a certain time, perhaps in the exilic era or just after.<sup>19</sup> Notice, for example, that the third masculine singular suffix on most nouns is almost uniformly marked with a *vav mater* in the MT, though in epigraphic sources from preexilic times, the same suffix is almost uniformly written with a *heh mater*. The *heh mater* as marker of the third masculine singular suffix becomes regular in epigraphic sources only in the postexilic era. This implies, of course, an updating of the orthography of biblical texts in the exilic or postexilic era.

In the second half of the first millennium BCE (ca. 500–1 BCE), in addition to LBH, one finds evidence of still other varieties of the language.<sup>20</sup> The Hebrew of the DSS evidences (in certain texts) traits that are distinct from any other dialect of Hebrew, while still maintaining a close proximity in other ways to earlier (Biblical) Hebrew.<sup>21</sup> Many of these texts were presumably written and certainly were copied in circa 200–1 BCE. Other loosely contemporary dialects were also written. The Hebrew evidenced in early rabbinic writings such as the Mishnah is foreshadowed in a few DSS (e.g., 4QMMT and 3Q15 [the Copper Scroll]). Later Judean Desert texts (e.g., the Bar Kochba texts from the 100s CE) exhibit a slightly different version of Hebrew.<sup>22</sup> In addition, Samaritan Hebrew was likely a distinct dialect (based on various textual, social, and political factors),

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18. See GKC §44h.

19. See *ibid.*, 72–73.

20. See Gary A. Rendsburg, “Biblical Hebrew: Dialects and Linguistic Variation,” *EHL* 1:338–41; Geoffrey Khan, “Biblical Hebrew: Linguistic Background of the Masoretic Text,” *EHL* 1:304–15; Khan, “Biblical Hebrew: Pronunciation Traditions,” *EHL* 1:341–52.

21. See, e.g., Elisha Qimron, *Hebrew of the Dead Sea Scrolls*, HSS 29 (Atlanta: Scholars Press, 1986); Eric D. Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew: An Overview of Orthography, Phonology, and Morphology*, RBS 76 (Atlanta: Society of Biblical Literature, 2014); Steven E. Fassberg, “Dead Sea Scrolls: Linguistic Features,” *EHL* 1:663–69; Jan Joosten, “The Hebrew of the Dead Sea Scrolls,” *HBH* 1:83–97.

22. See Uri Mor, *Judean Hebrew: The Language of the Hebrew Documents from Judea between the First and Second Revolts* (Jerusalem: Academy of the Hebrew Language, 2016) (in Hebrew); also Mor, “Bar Kokhba Documents,” *EHL* 1:254–58.

though its details only become clear from evidence recorded in the early twentieth century CE (specifically the oral reading tradition of the Samaritan Pentateuch).<sup>23</sup> Nevertheless, this version of Biblical Hebrew seems to reflect traits from a much earlier era, as demonstrated by the second feminine singular *qāṭal* (suffix-conjugation) verb forms regularly ending with \*-ti, as in the paradigmatic verb פקדת *fāqadti*.<sup>24</sup>

During the first millennium CE, in addition to the varieties of Rabbinic Hebrew, there were preserved different pronunciation traditions of Biblical Hebrew, including ones from the regions of Tiberias, Palestine, and Babylon.<sup>25</sup> The latter two are primarily known to us through their unique pointing and vocalization systems (the Palestinian and Babylonian) which reveal a different articulation of the vowels from that known to us from the Tiberian Masoretic system.<sup>26</sup>

Furthermore, for all times and places, we must recognize that the manner in which individuals read and spoke varied by context. An individual in a ritual context would speak in a manner very different from how he or she would speak in the context of discussing the weather with a friend. Similarly, that same individual would speak of the weather in one way, but probably write about it in yet another. Due to such variables, words were likely articulated in subtly different ways and sometimes these were reflected in the orthography while in other cases they were not.

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23. Moshe Florentin, "Samaritan Hebrew: Biblical," *EHLL* 3:445–52; Florentin, "Samaritan Tradition," *HBH* 1:117–32.

24. Ze'ev Ben-Ḥayyim, *A Grammar of Samaritan Hebrew: Based on the Recitation of the Law in Comparison with the Tiberian and Other Jewish Traditions* (Jerusalem: Magnes; Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2000), 108. Ben-Ḥayyim notes that, although this trait might have been preserved due to Aramaic influence, it likely originates in Hebrew (103–4).

25. See Khan, "Biblical Hebrew: Pronunciation Traditions," 1:341–52; Khan, "Tiberian Reading Tradition," *EHLL* 3:769–78; Yosef Ofer, "The Tiberian Tradition of Reading the Bible and the Masoretic System," *HBH* 1:187–202; Shai Heijmans, "Babylonian Tradition," *HBH* 1:133–45; Joseph Yahalom, "Palestinian Tradition," *HBH* 1:161–73.

26. Note too the Tiberian-Palestinian tradition (see Holger Gzella, "Tiberian-Palestinian Tradition," *HBH* 1:175–85).

## Phonology of Ancient Hebrew: Consonants

In this chapter I first describe the values for the graphic symbols familiar to us from an elementary study of Biblical Hebrew. The inventory of phonemes that these letters represent is slightly more complex than is often presented in an elementary Hebrew course. Next I describe the consonantal phonemes common to PS and PNWS before describing various relationships between roots and words based on correspondences between these phonemes. The vowels will be addressed in the next chapter.

### 2.1. Classical and Tiberian Biblical Hebrew Consonants

The number of Hebrew consonantal phonemes thought to exist for the majority of the first millennium BCE is probably the following, together with the Hebrew/Aramaic letters used to represent them. Also included in a separate column to the right, for comparison, are the phonemes of Tiberian Hebrew (ca. 800 CE); the spirantized allophones of the *begadkepat* letters are in parentheses. It should be recognized at the outset that we do not know precisely the articulation of the various phonemes; the values presented below are merely approximations.

Table 2.1. Consonantal Phonemes of Biblical Hebrew

Phonemes of Classical Biblical Hebrew, ca. 800 BCE	letter	Phonemes of (Tiberian) Biblical Hebrew, ca. 800 CE
ʾ	א	ʾ
b	ב	b (v)
g	ג	g (ʁ)
d	ד	d (ḏ)

h	ה	h
w	ו	w
z	ז	z
ḥ	ח	ḥ
ḥ	ח	ḥ
ṭ	ט	ṭ
y	י	y
k	כ	k (χ)
l	ל	l
m	מ	m
n	נ	n
s	ס	s
ʿ	ע	ʿ
ḡ	ע	ʿ
p	פ	p (f)
ṣ	צ	ṣ
q	ק	q
r	ר	r
ś	ש	s
š	ש	š
t	ת	t (t̥)

Most of the transliteration symbols for the phonemes are recognizable from a basic knowledge of our modern languages. In some cases, however, a brief explanation is helpful. The /ʔ/ (IPA [ʔ]) is the glottal stop, the momentary halting of the air flow that goes through the glottis (the opening between the vocal chords), expressed, for example, in the Cockney English pronunciation of “better,” *be’uh*, as well as in some varieties of North American English as in the pronunciation of “Bat Man” *ba’mān*, “atmosphere” *a’māsfeer*, “delightful” *dəlie’ful*.<sup>1</sup> Spirantized *gimel* in Tiberian Biblical Hebrew was pronounced like the Parisian French *ar* (i.e., a

1. See David Eddington and Michael Taylor, “T-Glottalization in American Eng-

voiced uvular fricative; see the IPA audio example  $\text{ʁ}$ .<sup>2</sup> The spirantized *dalet* ( $\text{d̥}$  = IPA  $[\delta]$ ) in THT would have been realized as the “th” in North American English “this.” The  $\text{h̥}$  (IPA  $[x]$ ), the voiceless velar fricative, represents the sound found in the North American English pronunciation of “Chanukkah” (IPA  $[\text{x}\text{a}\text{n}\text{ə}\text{k}\text{ə}]$ ) and “chutzpah” (IPA  $[\text{x}\text{ʊ}\text{t}\text{s}\text{p}\text{ə}]$ ).<sup>3</sup> This sound is very close to the voiceless uvular fricative IPA  $[\chi]$ , though the  $[\chi]$  is its own sound; it is the pronunciation of spirantized *kaph* in THT.<sup>4</sup> The degree to which ancient Hebrew speakers could distinguish the two sounds (i.e., IPA  $[x]$  and  $[\chi]$ ) is an open question. The sound of  $\text{h̥}$  (IPA  $[h]$ ) is a “lighter” sound than  $\text{h̥}$ , but more forceful (and easier to hear) than simple  $\text{h}$  (IPA  $[h]$ ). The *ayin* (IPA  $[\text{ʕ}]$ ) has been likened to “the guttural noise made by a camel being loaded with its pack saddle.”<sup>5</sup> For  $\text{g̊}$ , the voiced velar fricative, see the IPA audio example for  $[\text{ɣ}]$ . It sounds like a combination of a  $\text{g}$  and an  $\text{ʕ}$ . The  $\text{q}$  represents the sound of a uvular stop; see the IPA audio example under  $[\text{q}]$ . It is pronounced deeper in the throat than  $\text{k}$ . In Classical Hebrew the *qoph* letter represented an

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lish,” *American Speech* 84 (2009): 298; and John Goldsmith, “Two Kinds of Phonology,” <http://tinyurl.com/SBL0395b>.

2. See Khan, “Tiberian Pronunciation Tradition,” 4. Audio examples are available from the University of Victoria website: <https://web.uvic.ca/ling/resources/ipa/charts/IPALab/IPALab.htm>.

3. For the phonetic transliterations, see *OED*, s.v. That the  $\text{h̥}$  phoneme was realized as  $[x]$  is suggested by Gary A. Rendsburg, “Ancient Hebrew Phonology,” in *Phonologies of Asia and Africa*, ed. Alan S. Kaye (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 1997), 1:71 and Lutz Edzard, “Biblical Hebrew,” *SLIH*, 482–83. This seems to have been the articulation of the equivalent consonant in Ugaritic (Josef Tropper, *Ugaritische Grammatik*, AOAT 273 [Münster: Ugarit-Verlag, 2000], 121; Dennis Pardee, “Ugaritic,” *CEWAL*, 292) and in Proto-Semitic (John Huehnergard, “Afro-Asiatic,” *CEWAL*, 142).

4. See Khan “Tiberian Pronunciation Tradition,” 8. Others, however, view spirantized *kaph* as a velar fricative, i.e., IPA  $[x]$ . Edzard lists two possibilities for spirantized *kaph* in Tiberian Hebrew: “[ $x$  or  $\chi$ ]” (“Biblical Hebrew,” 482). If spirantized *kaph* represents  $[x]$ , then the  $\text{h̥}$  phoneme might have been realized as a uvular fricative, i.e.,  $[\chi]$ . These are the explicit equivalences suggested by Aron Dolgopolsky, *From Proto-Semitic to Hebrew: Phonology, Etymological Approach in a Hamito-Semitic Perspective*, Studi Camito-Semiti 2 (Milan: Centro Studi Camito-Semiti, 1999), 67.

5. C. Huart, *Littérature arabe* (Paris: Colin, 1902), 139; cited and translated by Joüon §51. Joüon also note the possibly onomatopoeic Arabic word  $\text{u'ū'}$  “vomiting” (citing W. Wright et al., *A Grammar of the Arabic Language*, 3rd ed. [Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1896–1898], 1:295).

emphatic /k/.<sup>6</sup> (For a description of emphatics, see below.) The exact pronunciation of *resh* in the first millennium BCE is unknown. In THT it may have been articulated back in the throat, as a voiced uvular roll/trill (IPA [R]), but near alveolars (/d/, /z/, /ʒ/, /t/, /ʈ/, /s/, /l/, /n/) or *shewa* as a voiced alveolar roll/trill (IPA [r]), essentially the same as the Spanish pronunciation in the word *perro* (“dog”); consult the audio examples online.<sup>7</sup> The /ś/ represents a lateral fricative (IPA [ɬ]). It is a sound between an /s/ and an /l/. Imagine holding a piece of candy to the roof of your mouth with your tongue and saying the word “slow”; the sound you produce in pronouncing the /sl-/ is close to /ś/. The phoneme is thus distinct from the /s/-sound which was represented by *samek* (IPA [s]). The spirantized *tav* in THT, /t/, would have been realized as in North American English “thin” (cf. /ð/ in “this”).

The emphatics were, in PS, pronounced with a following glottal stop (ṭ = IPA [tʔ]; ṣ = [sʔ]; ḵ = [kʔ] as in Ethiopic and Modern South Arabian).<sup>8</sup> In PNWS and later Hebrew, they were perhaps pharyngealized (i.e., pronounced with a following *ayin* sound: ṭ = IPA [tʕ]), or perhaps they remained glottalized, that is, pronounced with a following glottal stop, or even velarized (pronounced with a following /g/ sound: ṭ = IPA [tʕ]).<sup>9</sup>

## 2.2. *Begadkepat*

The spirantized versions of the *begadkepat* consonants were allophones, that is alternative pronunciations, of the relevant phonemes. These generally appear in THT after a syllable that ends with a vowel. They do not imply a different meaning for a word. The word “house” would have been pronounced *bayit* when preceded by a consonant but as *vayit* when imme-

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6. It can be pointed out here for the sake of clarity that the prototypical root *qtl* might be more accurately transliterated *ḵtl* for this reason. The spelling with “q” is used instead out of convention.

7. See Khan “Tiberian Pronunciation Tradition,” 11–12.

8. See Rendsburg, “Ancient Hebrew Phonology,” 73.

9. John Huehnergard (“Features of Central Semitic,” in *Biblical and Oriental Essays in Memory of William L. Moran*, ed. Agustinus Gianto, BibOr 48 [Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 2005], 167–68) specifies that pharyngealization may have been a feature of the even earlier Central Semitic. See also Joüon §5i; Rendsburg “Ancient Hebrew Phonology,” 75–76; P. Kyle McCarter, “Hebrew,” *CEWAL*, 324; Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 68; Leonid Kogan, “Proto-Semitic Phonetics and Phonology,” *SLIH*, 60–65.



diately preceded by a prefixed particle like ב “in” (e.g., בַּבַּיִת *bavayit* “in a house” Exod 12:46). When a word ending in a vowel (e.g., וַיָּעֲלוּ < \*wayya‘lū “they went up (to)” or תַּעֲלוּ < \*ta‘lū “you will go up (to)”) precedes such a *begadkepat* phoneme, the letter could be pronounced in either way; thus, the word “house” could be pronounced *bayit* (see, e.g., Hos 4:15) or *vayit* (see, e.g., Judg 1:22). Whether pronounced *bayit* or *vayit*, the word denoted “house.”

Since spirantization of consonants is triggered due to an immediately preceding vowel, it is assumed that where the spirantized consonant comes after a consonant an immediately preceding vowel has been lost or elided. For example, in the construct singular form בִּרְכַּת “blessing of,” the spirantized *kaph* reflects the earlier presence of a vowel before the *kaph*: \**barakatu* > \**barakat* > \**barkat* (> בִּרְכַּת). This, of course, presupposes that the *begadkepat* letters spirantized before vowel reduction became widespread (and then continued to be pronounced as spirantized consonants even when they were no longer preceded by a vowel). This sequence of developments also helps explain why the *kaph* in the expression מַלְכִּי “my king” is not spirantized (it developed from \**malkiyya*), but the *kaph* in מַלְכֵי “kings of” is (it developed from \**malakay*).

The spirantized pronunciation of the six *begadkepat* phonemes appeared probably sometime in the second half of the first millennium BCE.<sup>10</sup> When exactly this took place is, however, unclear. Many scholars suggest that it took place approximately in 400 BCE.<sup>11</sup> By contrast, some, like P. Kyle McCarter, suggest it was later. McCarter writes that spirantization may have taken place “in the second half of the first century BC,” though he cautions in relation to the *begadkepat* allophones that “their existence before the Common Era is not unambiguously documented.”<sup>12</sup>

Part of the question relates to when /ḥ/ and /ğ/ disappeared from the language (for which see below).<sup>13</sup> The spirantized pronunciation of *gimel*

10. For evidence from Greek transliterations, see Gerard Janssens, *Studies in Hebrew Historical Linguistics Based on Origen's Secunda*, OrGand 9 (Leuven: Peeters, 1982), 45–50.

11. See Gotthelf Bergsträsser, *Hebräische Grammatik* (Leipzig: Hinrichs, 1918–1929), 1:§6m; Rendsburg “Ancient Hebrew Phonology,” 75; Edzard, “Biblical Hebrew,” 483.

12. McCarter, “Hebrew,” 330.

13. Another related question is the time of spirantization in Aramaic since the spirantization in Hebrew is thought to derive from Aramaic. On Aramaic, see Klaus

(IPA [ɤ]) and *kaph* (IPA [χ]) was very close to the pronunciation of /ġ/ (IPA [ɣ]) and /ħ/ (IPA [x]), respectively. Therefore, if spirantization took place before /ġ/ merged with /ʕ/ and before /ħ/ merged with /h/, then one would expect confusion between these sounds and frequent misspellings of *gimel* for *ayin* (= /ġ/) and *ayin* for spirantized *gimel* as well as *khet* (= /ħ/) written for spirantized *kaph* and *kaph* for *khet*. Since this does not happen with any regularity, one might conclude with McCarter that spirantization did not take place before circa 50 BCE.<sup>14</sup>

Nevertheless, it remains likely that spirantization did at least begin earlier than the first century BCE. As Richard Steiner argues, speakers may have been able to distinguish between the relevant sounds (i.e., they distinguished [ɤ] from [ɣ] and [χ] from [x]) or spirantization took place in the following sequence: *bet*, *dalet*, *pe*, and *tav* spirantized initially, then /ħ/ and /ġ/ merged with /h/ and /ʕ/, and then the velars *gimel* and *kaph* spirantized.<sup>15</sup> The second possibility would imply that /b/, /d/, /p/, /t/ spirantized before circa 200 BCE and /g/ and /k/ after circa 100 BCE.<sup>16</sup> In addition, since spirantization took place before vowel reduction, and since vowel

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Beyer, *Die aramäischen Texte vom Toten Meer* (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1984–1994), 1:126–28 and note Steiner's arguments described below, n. 15.

14. Although the DSS do evidence at least three cases of misspellings related to *khet* and *kaph* יאכלו corrected to יאכלו "they will eat" 4Q514 1 I, 6; הכול corrected to החול "the sand" 4Q225 2 I, 6; נִחוּחִים corrected to נִחוּחִים "your pleasing sacrifice-odor" 4Q270 7 I, 18), only the last involves an etymological /ħ/. See Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 70–71.

15. Richard C. Steiner, "Variation, Simplifying Assumptions, and the History of Spirantization in Aramaic and Hebrew," in *Sha'arei Lashon: Studies in Hebrew, Aramaic, and Jewish Languages Presented to Moshe Bar-Asher; Vol I: Biblical Hebrew, Masorah, and Medieval Hebrew*, ed. A. Maman, S. E. Fassberg, and Y. Breuer (Jerusalem: Bialik Institute, 2007), \*52–\*65. Steiner notes (\*55–\*56) that some Caucasian languages distinguish [χ], [x], and [h]. Furthermore, he notes (\*54) that in Samaritan Hebrew, one does not see the spirantization of *gimel* and *kaph*, which might imply that these consonants spirantized at a later time. He also cites similar possible evidence for Syriac. His article emphasizes that different consonants spirantized in different places at different times. He argues against Beyer's idea that spirantization occurred in Aramaic only very late.

16. The examples יאכלו and נִחוּחִים from the DSS are compatible with this hypothesis. 4Q514 is dated to the mid-first century BCE and 4Q270 to the first half of the first century CE (see B. Webster, "Chronological Index of the Texts from the Judaean Desert," in *The Texts from the Judaean Desert: Indices and an Introduction to Discoveries in the Judaean Desert Series*, ed. E. Tov et al., DJD 39 [Oxford: Clarendon, 2002], 400 and 426).

reduction took place at the very latest in the first century BCE, spirantization must have taken place in an earlier era.

### 2.3. Classical Hebrew /ħ/, /ġ/, /š/

The inventory of Classical Biblical Hebrew phonemes listed above is three greater than the number of graphic letters used to represent these sounds. This resulted in some letters representing more than one phoneme. Specifically, three letters were used to represent two phonemes each. The *khet* represented the phonemes /ħ/ (IPA [ħ]) and /ħ/ (IPA [x]). The *ayin* represented /ʕ/ (IPA [ʕ]) and /ġ/ (IPA [ɣ]). The *sin/shin* letter represented /ś/ (IPA [ʃ]) and /š/ (IPA [ʃ]). (Recall that the dot that distinguishes *sin* from *shin* is a medieval invention.) The existence of the phonemes /ħ/, /ġ/, and /ś/ is thought to have existed in the Late Bronze Age Canaanite, as implied by names and words in the El Amarna texts as compared to Egyptian transcriptions.<sup>17</sup> The evidence for these phonemes in the first millennium BCE as well as their approximate time of merger is explained below.

The existence of a lateral fricative sound (/ś/) is suggested by words appearing in Hebrew with a *sin* and in other languages with an /l/. Note, for example, Hebrew כְּשָׁדִים “Chaldeans” versus Akkadian *kaldū* and Greek χαλδαιοι; Hebrew בָּשָׁם “balsam” versus Akkadian *baltammu* and Greek βαλσαμον.<sup>18</sup> The lateral fricative phoneme probably was lost and merged with the /s/ of *samek* some time in the mid-first millennium BCE, based on the relatively common misspellings of etymological /ś/ with *samek* in exilic and later writings (e.g., סְכָרִים “hiring” Ezra 4:5 versus the expected spelling שְׁכָרִים in 2 Chr 24:12)<sup>19</sup> and of /s/ with the *sin/shin* letter (e.g., שְׁכָלוֹת “folly” Qoh 1:17 vs. the expected spelling סְכָלוֹת in Qoh 2:3 and

17. Daniel Sivan, *Grammatical Analysis and Glossary of the Northwest Semitic Vocables in Akkadian Texts of the 15th–13th c.B.C. from Canaan and Syria*, AOAT 214 (Kevelaer: Butzon & Bercker; Neukirchen-Vluyn: Neukirchener Verlag, 1984), 50–52.

18. This and other evidence is described by Richard C. Steiner, *The Case for Fricative-Laterals in Proto-Semitic*, AOS 59 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1977) and Steiner, “Addenda to *The Case for Fricative-Laterals in Proto-Semitic*,” in *Semitic Studies in Honor of Wolf Leslau on the Occasion of his Eighty-Fifth Birthday, November 14th, 1991*, ed. Alan S. Kaye (Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 1991), 1499–1513; and with more recent evidence by Kogan, “Proto-Semitic Phonetics and Phonology,” 71–80.

19. Note also גָּרָסָה “is crushed” (Ps 119:20) and וַיִּגָּרֶס (Lam 3:16) vs. גָּרֶשׁ “grits” (Lev 2:16); הַחֲרָסוֹת “potsherds” (Jer 19:2) vs. חָרֶשׁ “potsherd” (passim); מִכְמָס “Mikhmas” (Ezra 2:27 and Neh 7:31) vs. מִכְמָשׁ (passim); see Joshua Blau, *On Pseudo-*

passim).<sup>20</sup> Students should be aware that, due to the commonness of these misspellings, the dictionaries (BDB, *HALOT*) sometimes will list verbs according to their etymology. Thus, if one encounters a word spelled with *sin* and cannot find it in the dictionary under this letter, one should look the word up under *samek*.

The merger of /g/ and /ʕ/ is thought to have taken place, according to Blau, in the spoken language some time after the Septuagint (= LXX) translation of Genesis (slightly before ca. 200 BCE) and in the reading tradition some time later; Steiner suggests that the merger had taken place at least by the first century CE.<sup>21</sup> Note, for example, the following correspondences that suggest an etymological /g/ was still recognized by the LXX translators of the Pentateuch: γομορρα for עֲמֹרָה “Gomorrhah”; γαζα for עֲזָה “Gaza”; γομop for עֹמֶר (an “omer” measure).<sup>22</sup> By contrast, etymological /ʕ/ was not represented with a corresponding Greek letter, as seen in ιακωβ for יַעֲקֹב “Jacob.”<sup>23</sup> It should be noted, however, that the evidence for the existence of /g/ in early Hebrew is not as strong as that for /h/; some of the evidence is ambiguous and there is some contradicting evidence.<sup>24</sup> All the

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*Corrections in Some Semitic Languages* (Jerusalem: Israel Academy of Sciences and Humanities, 1970), 114–20.

20. Note also נָשׁוּב “turned back” (2 Sam 1:22) vs. נָסוּב (passim); יִשְׁפֹּק “will clap” (Job 27:23) vs. יִשְׁפֹּק (Job 34:37 and passim); בָּעַשׂ (Job 17:7 and three other times in Job) vs. בָּעַס “anger” (passim). For more explanations, see Blau, *Pseudo-Corrections*, 120–25. Some cases are ambiguous, as with שׁוּך “to hedge” (Job 1:10, Hos 2:8) vs. סוּך “to hedge” (Job 3:23, 38:8); מְשׁוּכָה “hedge” (Prov 15:19) vs. מְסוּכָה “hedge” (Mic 7:4); שְׁעָר “storm” (Isa 28:2) vs. סְעָר “storm” (passim); שְׁעָרָה “storm” (Nah 1:3, Job 9:17) vs. סְעָרָה “storm” (passim); see Blau, *Pseudo-Corrections*, 115–16.

21. Joshua Blau, *On Polyphony in Biblical Hebrew*, PIASH 6/2 (Jerusalem: Israel Academy of Sciences and Humanities, 1982), 39–40, 70; Richard C. Steiner “On the Dating of Hebrew Sound Changes (\*H > H and \*G > ʕ) and Greek Translations (2 Esdras and Judith),” *JBL* 124 (2004): 247, 266; Steiner, “Variation, Simplifying Assumptions,” \*56 n. 15.

22. Blau, *Polyphony*, 33–35. Further evidence is provided by Steiner “On the Dating of Hebrew,” 229–67.

23. Blau, *Polyphony*, 21.

24. See *ibid.*, 19–20, 36, 39, 70; Dolgopolsky, *From Proto-Semitic to Hebrew*, 65–69, 154; Steiner, “On the Dating of Hebrew,” 232; Kogan, “Proto-Semitic Phonetics and Phonology,” 116. Geoffrey Khan (“Some Parallels in Linguistic Development between Biblical Hebrew and Neo-Aramaic,” in *Semitic Studies in Honour of Edward Ullendorff*, ed. Geoffrey Khan, SSSL 47 [Leiden: Brill, 2005], 92–93) emphasizes three points: (1) the existence of the relevant phonemes in one dialect (e.g., that of the LXX)

same, it seems likely that /ġ/ was articulated in some registers and dialects of Biblical Hebrew in antiquity before the Common Era.

The merger of /ħ/ and /ḥ/ began, according to Steiner, in circa 100 BCE in the spoken language and circa 100 CE in the reading tradition.<sup>25</sup> Note, for example, the following correspondences that suggest an etymological /ħ/ was still recognized by the LXX translators of the Pentateuch: *χορραι* for חֹרִי “Horite,” *χαρραν* for חָרָן “Harran,” *χετ/χεται* for חֶתִּי/חֵתִּי “Heth”/“Hittite”; and *ραχαλ* for רָחֵל “Rachel.”<sup>26</sup> By contrast, etymological /ḥ/ was not represented with a corresponding Greek letter, as seen in *ισαακ* for יִצְחָק “Isaac.”<sup>27</sup>

The fact that the letter *kheth* likely represented the phoneme /ħ/ (along with /ḥ/) for most of the first millennium BCE means that the pronunciation for at least some words in the modern classroom, although not reflecting THT, may, in fact, be the same as an even earlier pronunciation. Thus, the pronunciation of רָחֵל “Rachel” in the contemporary classroom as [raxel] is closer in some ways to the earlier first millennium *rāḥēl* [ra:xe:l] than the medieval *rāḥel* [rɔ:ħe:l].

Recognizing the existence of these three phonemes, /ħ/, /ġ/, and /ś/, helps explain some of the paradoxes of the Biblical Hebrew lexicon, especially the existence of some antonymous words with similar spelling. Two distinct pronunciations /s/ and /ś/ suggest that early speakers could distinguish words like סָכַל (= *sekl* < \**sakl*) “folly” (Qoh 10:6) and שָׁכַל (= *sekl* < \**sikl* < \**śikl*) “prudence” and similarly the *hiphil* forms of the two related verbs הִסְכַּלְתִּי (< \**hiskaltī*) “I have acted like a fool” (1 Sam 26:21) and הִשְׁכַּלְתִּי (< \**hiskaltī* < \**hiśkaltī*) “I understand” (Ps 119:99).<sup>28</sup> Note also סָרַר “to be stubborn” (e.g., סוֹרְרִים < \**sōrēr* “who are stubborn” Isa 65:2) and שָׂרַר “to act as a prince” (e.g., שֹׂרֵר < \**sōrēr* < \**śōrēr* “one who rules”

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does not necessitate the existence of the same phonemes in other dialects (e.g., that which led eventually to the Tiberian tradition); (2) conceivably the different pronunciations of Greek names reflect allophones in the underlying Hebrew dialect; (3) the articulation of Greek names may have retained a more antique pronunciation than other words in the language. In relation to this last point, however, note the pronunciation of the common noun עָמָר.

25. Steiner, “On the Dating of Hebrew,” 266.

26. Blau, *Polyphony*, 62. Blau lists many examples from the LXX. Further evidence is provided by Steiner “On the Dating of Hebrew,” 229–67.

27. Blau, *Polyphony*, 52.

28. On the phonemic contours of segolate nouns, see the subsection “Segolate Nouns” in ch. 4 §18.

Esth 1:22); סתר *niphal* “to hide” (e.g., וַיִּסְתֵּר < \*wayyissāter < \*wayyissatir “he hid” 1 Sam 20:24) and שתר *niphal* “to break out” (e.g., וַיִּשְׁתֶּר < \*wayyissātārū < \*wayyiśśatirū “they broke out” 1 Sam 5:9).<sup>29</sup>

Similarly, two distinct pronunciations for *ayin* suggest why speakers for most of the first millennium BCE could distinguish ערב = ‘rb “to stand as surety, to barter” (e.g., לָעֶרֶב < \*la‘rōb “to barter” Ezek 27:9) and ערב = \*ḡrb “to turn to evening” (e.g., לָעֶרֶב < \*laḡrōb “to turn to evening” Judg 19:9); עדר = ‘dr *niphal* “to hoe” (e.g., יַעְדֵּר < \*yē‘āder “it will [not] be hoed” Isa 5:6) and עדר = \*ḡdr *niphal* “to be lacking” (e.g., נִגְדֵּר < \*niḡdar “[nothing] was lacking” 1 Sam 30:19).

Note as well חנן = ḥnn “to show favor” (e.g., וַיַּחֲנֹנֵנִי < \*wəḥannōtī “I will be gracious” Exod 33:19) and חנן = \*ḥnn “to be loathsome” (e.g., וַיַּחֲנֹנֵנִי < \*wəḥannōtī “I am loathsome” Job 19:17); חרש = ḥrś “to plough” and in a metaphoric sense “to devise” in the *qal* and *hiphil* (e.g., מַחְרִישׁ < \*maḥriś “one devising” 1 Sam 23:9) and חרש = \*ḥrś “to be silent, dumb” in *qal* and *hiphil* (e.g., מַחְרִישׁ < \*maḥriś “[a fool] who is silent” Prov 17:28).

The distinction between these phonemes should also inform any discussion of wordplay and double entendre. Although wordplay may be only approximate (i.e., between words that merely sound similar, not identical), it is still the case that at least some speakers would have been able to distinguish more words than might at first be obvious.

In the lists above, it is assumed that a distinct pronunciation would help scribes distinguish words that were graphically identical. This is not to deny, however, that ancient Hebrew, like other languages, contained what are sometimes called “contradictanym” or “Janus words,” that is, words with the same sounds but opposite meanings (as in English “to cleave,” meaning “to divide” and “to cleave” meaning “to stick to”).<sup>30</sup> Note,

29. It should be noted that many of the examples are cited from works that do (or, at least, might) date from the latter half of the first millennium BCE when /ś/ and /s/ had merged; therefore, the writers of Qohelet, Esther, etc., might not have been aware of the phonetic difference between these words. Nevertheless, presumably these words existed in the first half of the first millennium BCE and, if so, earlier writers would have been able to distinguish them. It goes without saying, of course, that there was a distinction in this early period not only between /s/ and /ś/, but also between these phonemes and /š/, facilitating distinctions between the above words and שכל “to be childless,” שרר “to make abundant” (only once in Jer 15:11 *qere*).

30. This category of words has many unofficial labels. Dictionary.com lists “antilogy,” “autoantonym,” “contranym,” “contronym,” “enantiodrome,” “Janus word.” The label “contradictanym” is also sometimes found, as in Ben Schott, *Schott’s Original*



for example, the two words **חֶסֶד** “shame” and **חֶסֶד** “loving-kindness” have nearly opposite meanings.<sup>31</sup> In other cases, the very same word or phrase expresses apparently contradictory senses (like in English “to dust,” i.e., to clear of dust, as in “dusting” the shelf, or to introduce dust, as in “dusting” a cake with sugar). Note, for example, the Hebrew phrase **נָשָׂא עוֹן** “to lift iniquity” can mean either to bear guilt (i.e., bear responsibility for) or to forgive an offense.<sup>32</sup>

It should also be kept in mind that the exact etymology of many words is uncertain. Steiner notices, for example, that the Hebrew name **חֵבֶר** “Heber” may derive potentially from *hbr* or *hbr*.<sup>33</sup> Finally, given the numerous variables in language, even with a clear etymology, it is not certain that in any given word a particular phoneme would be pronounced according to its historical pronunciation. One may note, for example, that in Akkadian etymological /ḥ/ is usually not realized as a consonant. Thus, the etymological root \**bḥr* “to choose” is usually realized in Akkadian as a verb *bēru* “to choose.” However, in cases where Akkadian has borrowed a word from Aramaic, the etymological /ḥ/ is articulated instead as /h/, as in the alternative form for the same verb *beḥēru* “to select.”<sup>34</sup> Similarly,

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*Miscellany* (New York: Bloomsbury, 2002), 40. The two meanings of “cleave” correspond to two different roots, according to the *OED*.

31. Note also **דָּמָם** “to be silent” and **דָּמָם** “to wail” (following *HALOT*; cf. *Ges*<sup>18</sup>); and **הָוָה** “to fall” (+ **הָרָה** “destruction”) and **הָוָה** “to become.” The mergers of the phonemes discussed above meant, of course, an increase in the number of contradistincts, like **סָקַל** (*sekl* < \**sakl*) “folly” and **שָׁקַל** (*sekl* < \**sikl* < \**šikl*) “prudence.”

32. The verb **חָלַץ** means “to take off” and occurs with the word “sandal,” but as a passive participle it has the sense “to be girded for battle” (perhaps the two senses reflecting two roots, though both would be expressed in the same way with /ḥ/); the verb **חָפַשׂ** means “to search, examine” in the *qal*, but in the *hithpaal* means “to hide oneself”; **רָגַע** means “to stir up (sea)” in the *qal*, but in the *hiphil* “to make peace, linger” (the two senses here likely reflecting two different roots, though again the two roots in Hebrew would be pronounced the same). One often encounters such correspondences in etymologically related words that occur in different languages, as in **שָׁכַח** “to forget” in Hebrew but “to find” in Aramaic; similarly, **קָלַס** *piel*/D-stem “to mock” in Biblical Hebrew but “to praise” in Aramaic (which derives from Greek, according to *A Syriac Lexicon: A Translation from the Latin, Correction, Expansion, and Update of C. Brockelmann’s Lexicon Syriacum*, trans. Michael Sokoloff [Winona Lake, IN.: Eisenbrauns; Piscataway, NJ: Gorgias, 2009], s.v.).

33. Steiner, *Fricative-Laterals*, 44, 74.

34. For the examples from Akkadian, see Kathleen Abraham and Michael Sokoloff, “Aramaic Loanwords in Akkadian—A Reassessment of the Proposals,” *Afo* 52

*ḥilb* “milk” appears for etymological \**ḥlb*. Tropper notes that a nearby sibilant or sonorant in an Akkadian root seems to effect a phonetic shift from etymological /ḥ/ to /ḥ/, as in *raḥāṣu* “to flood, wash” from PS \**rḥṣ*.<sup>35</sup> All things considered, then, it is often difficult to be absolutely sure how the relevant consonants of a word were pronounced in Classical Hebrew. Therefore, when transliterating words I have marked with an asterisk words including the phonemes /ḥ/ and /ḡ/. The articulation of /ś/, on the other hand, is clear from the consistent distinction in spelling in early Hebrew (i.e., words with /ś/ are usually spelled with a *sin/shin* and not a *samek*).

Students may get a better idea about the scholarly opinion about the etymology of words spelled with *khet* and *ayin* by consulting the dictionary *Ges*.<sup>36</sup> Generally speaking, one may get a picture of the etymological root consonants by consulting cognate words in the other Semitic languages. For /ḥ/ and /ḡ/ the most helpful languages include Ugaritic, Akkadian, and Arabic.

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(2011): 28, 33. Note the criticisms in Michael P. Streck, “Akkadian and Aramaic Language Contact,” *SLIH*, 416–24. Similarly, note the appearance of /ḥ/ for Aramaic /ḥ/ in some dialects of Arabic (see Jan Retsö, “Aramaic/Syriac Loanwords,” in *Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics*, ed. K. Versteegh et al. [Leiden: Brill, 2005–2009], 1:181).

35. Josef Tropper, “Akkadisch *nuḥḥutu* und die Repräsentation des Phonems /ḥ/ im Akkadischen,” *ZA* 85 (1995): 65. John Huehnergard (“Akkadian *ḥ* and West Semitic \**h*,” in *Studia Semitica*, ed. Leonid Kogan, *Orientalia* 3 [Moscow: Russian State University Press, 2003], 102–19) criticizes Tropper’s conclusions and suggests that the evidence points to an otherwise unknown PS phoneme IPA [x] that developed into /ḥ/ in Akkadian and /ḥ/ in West Semitic. See also Alexander Militarev and Leonid Kogan, *Semitic Etymological Dictionary*, 2 vols., AOAT 278 (Münster: Ugarit-Verlag, 2000–2005), 1:lxiii–lxxv.

36. The etymological identifications in this dictionary are easy to read and comprehend. In many cases, one finds a “?” and no etymological root is suggested. *HALOT* also contains frequent references to etymological root consonants. More thorough treatments for some words are found in, e.g., Militarev and Kogan, *Semitic Etymological Dictionary*; Leonid Kogan, “Proto-Semitic Lexicon,” *SLIH*, 179–258; and David Cohen, *Dictionnaire des racines sémitiques, ou attestées dans les langues sémitiques*, 10 vols. (Leuven: Peeters, 1994–).



## 2.4. Pronunciation of Gutturals

Although the guttural consonants seem to be weakened in their pronunciation in at least some spoken dialects of ancient Hebrew by the first century CE, the gutturals continue to be distinguished in most reading traditions of BH.<sup>37</sup> One gets a sense of the relative degree to which gutturals weakened in the first century BCE by considering how often words with gutturals are misspelled in the DSS. Since *aleph* is intrinsically the most difficult of the gutturals to articulate, especially in certain positions (e.g., at the end of a syllable or word), words containing *aleph* (as well as *resh*) are the most frequently misspelled. Next in frequency are words spelled with *he*, also a consonant inherently difficult to articulate at the end of words and syllables. Words containing *ayin* are less frequently misspelled and words with *khet* are usually spelled correctly. Furthermore, evidence from the LXX, the Secunda, and Jerome's transcriptions provides indirect evidence for the existence of gutturals.<sup>38</sup>

## 2.5. Proto-Semitic/Proto-Northwest Semitic \*/t/, \*/d/, \*/ṣ/, \*/ṭ/

In addition to the phonemes listed above in the chart, PS and PNWS are thought to have contained four other phonemes.<sup>39</sup> These include the voiced and unvoiced dental fricatives (/t/ and /d/ respectively), the emphatic lateral fricative (/ṣ/),<sup>40</sup> and the emphatic interdental (/ṭ/).<sup>41</sup> These phonemes

37. See the analysis in Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 71–114.

38. Note, e.g., the spellings of /ḥ/ and /ḡ/ with χ and γ in the LXX, described above, as well as spellings with two short vowels in sequence in the Secunda (e.g., *veεμav* corresponding to *וְעָמַד* “enduring” Ps 89:38) (see Alexey Yuditsky, “Transcription into Greek and Latin: Pre-Masoretic Period,” *EHL* 3:805).

39. Technically, the phonemes in the above chart do not always represent their presumed articulation in PS/PNWS. See below for another chart that illustrates the assumed phonemes in these earlier strata of the language.

40. The PS/PNWS emphatic lateral fricative is transliterated often according to the transliteration of the Arabic letter to which it corresponds etymologically (/ḍ/). This practice is problematic for several reasons. First, the Arabic letter is only in some dialects realized phonetically as an emphatic voiced dental stop/plosive (/ḍ/); the “classical pronunciation [of *dād*, i.e., /ḍ/ or ض] is as lateral emphatic spirant (thus a sound distantly related to l)” (Gothelf Bergsträsser, *Introduction to the Semitic Languages: Text Specimens and Grammatical Sketches*, trans. Peter T. Daniels [Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 1983], 162). Second, the symbol /ḍ/ does not clearly indicate

early on merged with other Hebrew/Canaanite phonemes in the following manner: \*/t/ > /t/ (*tav*); \*/d/ > /z/ (*zayin*); \*/š/ > /s/ (*tsade*); \*/t̥/ > /š/ (*tsade*).<sup>42</sup> The dental fricatives (/t/ and /d/) are the same sounds as those realized in Tiberian Hebrew as the spirantized versions of the *tav* and *dalet*. Yet, unlike in Tiberian Hebrew, in PS/PNWS these were phonemes and, thus, meaningfully distinct from /t/ and /d/, respectively. A verb pronounced with a /d/ (e.g., \**dky* [> דָּכָה] “to crush”) would be recognized as a verb entirely distinct from another otherwise identical word with a /d̥/ (e.g., \**d̥ky* [> דָּכָה] “to be bright”). The emphatic lateral fricative and interdental (/š/ and /t̥/) are simply emphatic versions of previously described phonemes (i.e., they were articulated like the previously described phonemes /š/ and /t/ followed by a glottal stop in PS/PNWS).

Since these phonemes (\*/t/, \*/d̥/, \*/š/, \*/t̥/) are reflected to varying degrees in Ugaritic, Aramaic, and Arabic, it is presupposed that they were part of the common ancestor to these languages, in other words, the hypothetical Central Semitic as well as Proto-Northwest Semitic. Nevertheless, it would seem, based largely on the El Amarna tablets, that by the middle of the second millennium BCE they had at least partially disappeared from the southern dialect of NWS spoken in Syria/Palestine.<sup>43</sup> Specifically, the El Amarna texts suggest that \*/š/ had shifted to /s/; that \*/t̥/ also had shifted to /s/; that \*/d̥/ had perhaps shifted to /z/ (the Sumero-Akkadian cuneiform leaving things ambiguous); that \*/t/ remained in pronunciation, something revealed not through the cuneiform texts, but through Egyptian transcriptions of names and regular nouns/verbs.<sup>44</sup> Some scholars (e.g., Rendsburg), suggest that Classical Hebrew of Transjordan (that of the Gileadites) did contain etymological \*/t/, though the evidence for

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the lateral nature of the PS/PNWS phoneme. Due to such confusions, many contemporary scholars of Semitic languages prefer to render the PS emphatic lateral fricative phoneme as /š/. Alternatively, it could be represented as /t̥/.

41. The transliteration of the PS/PNWS emphatic voiceless interdental (/t̥/) is often transliterated /z/, based on the transliteration of the corresponding Arabic letter. The Arabic letter, however, is only in some dialects realized as an emphatic /z/; in other dialects it is realized as an emphatic voiced interdental fricative (whose IPA symbol is [ð̤]) (Huehnergard, “Afro-Asiatic,” 144; Bergsträsser, *Introduction to the Semitic Languages*, 161–62). One can also transliterate the /t̥/ phoneme as /θ/.

42. For a concise presentation and analysis of the evidence from the various dialects in Syria/Palestine, see Garr, *Dialect Geography*, 23–30.

43. Pardee, “Ugaritic,” 389.

44. Sivan, *Grammatical Analysis*, 38, 41, 43.

this (even he admits) is slight, existing primarily in the Shibboleth incident in Judg 12:6.<sup>45</sup> In any case, even he agrees that there is no evidence for this phoneme for most Classical Hebrew dialects.

Cognizance of these phonemes is primarily useful for the student of Hebrew in learning and understanding the vocabulary of other related languages like Aramaic and Ugaritic (as well as Arabic and other Semitic languages). All the same, knowledge of these also helps make sense of the Biblical Hebrew lexicon. For example, knowing that Hebrew /ʃ/ can derive from PS/PNWS /ʃ/, \*/tʃ/, and \*/ʃ/ helps to explain how dictionaries can distinguish between otherwise similar words, like צָרַר/צֹר “to bind” (related to Arabic *ṣarra* “to tie, bind” < PS/PNWS \*ʃrr) and צָרַר/צֹר “to attack” (related to Arabic *ḍarra* “to harm, injure” < PS/PNWS \*ʃrr).

Moreover, the fact that the PS/PNWS emphatic interdental, \*/tʃ/, corresponds to /ʃ/ (= צ) in Hebrew and to /tʃ/ (= ט) in Aramaic helps explain the existence of synonymous pairs of roots in Biblical Hebrew like נָצַר “to guard” (the expected realization of the PS/PNWS root \*nʃr in Hebrew) and נָטַר “to guard” (the expected realization of the same root in Aramaic). The verb נָטַר and its associated noun מִטְרָה “guard, target” must have been borrowed from Aramaic (or from another Canaanite dialect that experienced the same shift of \*/tʃ/ > /tʃ/ as in Aramaic).<sup>46</sup> Learning such correspondences can help the student build her vocabulary; this is particularly useful where one of the roots is relatively common (as with נָצַר).

In addition to explaining the lexicon and assisting in vocabulary learning, knowledge of these correspondences can sometimes assist in comprehending and evaluating various interpretive proposals. As noted above,

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45. Rendsburg, “Ancient Hebrew Phonology,” 69–70. He assumes that the story is based around the dual realization of the word “stream” as *sibbōlet* by the Ephraimites (according to Israelite pronunciation norms) and *ṭibbōlet* by the Gileadites (according to Transjordanian norms, which are etymologically more accurate, the word going back to a PNWS *ṭbl* root). Rendsburg’s explanation is complicated due to the apparent Arabic cognates (*sabal* meaning “flowing rain” and *sublat* “wide spread rain,” cited in *HALOT*), which suggest that the Proto-Hebrew root of the word “stream” is *šbl* and the PS/PNWS root is *sbl*. See Joshua Blau, “‘Weak’ Phonetic Change and the Hebrew *šln*,” *HAR* 1 (1977): 109.

46. As Holger Gzella remarks in relation to preexilic biblical material: “One cannot simply attribute an isolated word or form to Aramaic with any degree of certainty based on a single linguistic hallmark, because the true extent of dialect diversity in Iron-Age Syria-Palestine remains unknown” (*A Cultural History of Aramaic: From the Beginnings to the Advent of Islam*, HdO 111 [Leiden: Brill, 2015], 96).

contemporary dictionaries of Biblical Hebrew list the word עֶר\* as an Aramaic loanword “enemy,” etymologically related to Hebrew צֶר “enemy.” The word is listed as occurring as עֶרָךְ (in 1 Sam 28:16) and עֶרִיךְ (Ps 139:20).<sup>47</sup> In these passages, one can also find other explanations (e.g., עֶרָךְ may be a misspelling of עֶרֶךְ; and עֶרִיךְ may be a misspelling of עֶלִיךְ).<sup>48</sup> In part, deciding on the likelihood that these letters are examples of an Aramaic loanword (or an Aramaic-like word) involves being familiar with similar lexical pairs.

Note the corresponding roots in Biblical Hebrew that relate to the following PS/PNWS phonemes:

emphatic interdental (\*tʰ/)

- ♦ נָצַר “to guard” (the expected realization in Hebrew) versus נָטַר “to guard, preserve anger” (the expected realization of the same root in Aramaic) (+ מִטָּרָה “guard, target”)
- ♦ צָלַל *hiphil* “to shadow” (Ezek 31:3) versus טָלַל *piel* “to shadow” (Neh 3:15)
- ♦ צָעַן “to travel” (Isa 33:20) versus טָעַן “to load” (Gen 45:17)
- ♦ קוֹץ “to feel loathing” versus קוֹט “to feel loathing”<sup>49</sup>

47. See, e.g., BDB.

48. See, e.g., BDB and *HALOT*.

49. Note also the pair קָמַץ “to grasp” (Lev 2:2) vs. קָמַט “to grasp” (Job 16:8), though the etymological link is less clear. In the case of שָׁטַף “flood” and שָׁצַף “out-pouring” (Isa 54:8), the words might reflect different realizations of a common PS/PNWS root (e.g., the *shaphel* conjugation of *twp* [= צוּף in Hebrew and טוּף in Aramaic]; for which see C. J. Labuschagne, “Original Shaph’el Forms in Biblical Hebrew,” *OTWSA* 13 [1971]: 51–64, as cited in *HALOT* s.v. “שָׁטַף”). In relation to שָׁצַף, note also the RH verb with the same consonants meaning “to cut, slash,” which root with two initial sibilant consonants seems incongruous. Alternatively, BH שָׁצַף might simply be a mistake for שָׁטַף since in its one occurrence it appears adjacent to קָצַף “wrath.” That two adjacent words might affect each other’s pronunciation is suggested by the form of מְבוֹא “entrance” in the expression וּמִוֹצְאָיו וּמִבְּאֵי “its exits and entrances” (Ezek 43:11; similarly note the *qere* of 2 Sam 3:25: וְאֶת־מְבוֹאָהּ וְאֶת־מוֹצְאָהּ); also מַחְשַׁבֵּל בְּלִיעַל “thought of Belial” in 4Q177 12–13 I, 6. Some verbs that look like they are etymologically related might not be. The verbs נָטַל “to lift” and נָצַל *hiphil* “to tear, save, rescue” may be from distinct roots.

voiced dental fricative (\*/t/)

- ♦ חרש “to engrave” (the expected realization in Hebrew) versus חרת “to engrave” (the expected realization in Aramaic; Exod 32:16 and in the DSS)
- ♦ פִּשֶׁר “interpretation” (Qoh 8:1 and in the DSS) versus פתר “to interpret” and פִּתְרוֹן “interpretation”<sup>50</sup>
- ♦ שנה “to repeat, speak again” versus תנה *piel* “to recount” (Judg 5:11; 11:40)<sup>51</sup>

the unvoiced dental fricative (\*/d/)

- ♦ זלל “to be foolish, rash” *hiphil* “to treat disrespectfully” (the expected realization in Hebrew) versus דלל “to be insignificant” (the expected realization in Aramaic) (+ דל “weak, poor,” דִּלָּה “weak, poor population”)<sup>52</sup>
- ♦ נזר “to dedicate” versus נדר “to vow”<sup>53</sup>
- ♦ עזר “to help” versus עדר “to help” (1 Chr 12:34)

the emphatic lateral fricative (\*/ṣ/)

- ♦ נתץ “to pull down” (the expected realization in Hebrew) versus נתע *niphal* “to be broken” (the expected realization in Aramaic; Job 4:10)
- ♦ רבץ “to lie down, stretch out” versus רבע “to lie down”
- ♦ רעץ “to destroy” versus רעע “to smash”<sup>54</sup>
- ♦ רצה “to be pleased with” versus רעה in nouns like רְעוּת “longing.”<sup>55</sup>

50. The etymology of these words is complex. See H. J. Fabry and U. Dahmen, “פִּשֶׁר,” *TDOT* 12:152.

51. Note also עִשָּׂר “to be rich” vs. עֵתֶר in עֲתֵרֶת “abundance of” (const.; Jer 33:6). In other cases, there is not necessarily any connection between semantically similar words with corresponding consonants, as with שׁוּר “to watch, lie in wait” and תוֹר “to spy out, explore.”

52. Conceivably these are etymologically different roots. See the brief discussion of similar roots in Kogan, “Proto-Semitic Phonetics and Phonology,” 96–97, with references.

53. See the article by J. Boyd, “The Etymological Relationship between *ndr* and *nzr* Reconsidered,” *UF* 17 (1986): 61–75.

54. Note also the possibly related רָצַץ “to oppress.”

55. Note also מָחַק “to destroy” in Judg 5:26, which matches an early Aramaic orthography where /ṣ/ was marked by ק, and the more common מוֹחֵץ “to destroy,” characteristic of Hebrew. See Holger Gzella, “מָחַח,” *ThWQ* 2:638; Christian Stadel,

Table 2.2. PS/PNWS Consonantal Phonemes

	bilabial	labiodental	(inter)dental	alveolar	palatal	velar	uvular	pharyngeal	glottal
voiceless →	← voiced, for each column								
plosive	p	b		t	d	k	g	(q)	ʔ
nasal	m			n					
trill							R		
affricate				t <sub>s</sub> d <sub>z</sub>					
fricative		(f)	(v)	t	d	s	[> š/h]	(š)	
lateral						ḥ	ḡ	(χ) (ʁ)	ḥ
lateral fricative				ś					
approximant						y	w		
lateral approximant					l				
emphatic			t̤	t̤	t̤	ṣ	ṣ	k̤	

Note: For this chart, the usual Semitic transliterations are used, with the exceptions of /t̤/ for what is often /s/, /š/ for /d/ (or /ḡ/), /R/ for /r/, /ʁ/ for /s/, /d<sub>z</sub>/ for /z/, and /t̤/ for /z/. Letters in parentheses are phonemes or allophones attested in at least one stage of Hebrew; see Huehnergard, “Afro-Asiatic,” 142–43.

It does not seem surprising that words exhibiting the typical Hebrew realization of these phonemes are often more common than their corresponding Aramaic-like counterparts (e.g., חרש instead of חרת). On the other hand, it is not uncommon that the Aramaic-like word appears more often than the corresponding Hebrew realization (e.g., דלל [also דל and דלָה] instead of זלל; and פתרון instead of פֶּשֶׁר; as well as רעע instead of רעץ). In still other cases, both realizations of a root appear frequently, one taking on a particular meaning distinct from the other (e.g., נזר “to dedicate” versus נדר “to vow”).

It is important to note that the words and roots listed in the preceding section and following sections (I assume) are not examples of scribal errors or misspellings (e.g., due to a scribe’s confusion between the graphic similarity of *ayin* and *tsade*).<sup>56</sup> Related languages attest similar kinds of plurality in their lexicons so it is a fair guess that Hebrew also contained such pairs of words.<sup>57</sup> Of course, it is entirely conceivable that some rare attestations of words are due to scribal lapse. The working assumption here, however, is that they are not.

The inventory of PS/PNWS consonantal phonemes is presented in the table on page 34. The correspondences of the various early phonemes to Hebrew, Ugaritic, and Aramaic phonemes and letters are presented in the following table.

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“Aramaic Influences on Biblical Hebrew,” *EHL* 1:162. In addition, note the possible correspondence between צוק “to press” (+ מוּצָק “distress” Isa 8:23) vs. עוק “to press” (Amos 2:13) (+ מוּעָקָה “distress” Ps 66:11; עָקָה “pressure” Ps 55:4).

56. For a few examples of scribal errors, see §10 below, “Variation of Orthography and Pronunciation within Roots and Words.”

57. Sometimes a particular root appears more often in one particular dialect or register and the parallel root appears in another dialect or register (e.g., the verb זעק “to cry out” occurs primarily in later books of the Bible, while the parallel root צעק “to cry out” occurs primarily in earlier books of the Bible).

Table 2.3. Correspondences of Phonemes<sup>58</sup>

PS/PNWS	Biblical Hebrew ca. 800 BCE	Biblical Hebrew ca. 400 CE	Ugaritic	Old Aramaic ca. 800 BCE
Phoneme →	← how it was written (for polyphonous letters)			
ʾ	ʾ	ʾ	ʾ	ʾ
b	b	b	b	b
g	g	g	g	g
d	d	d	d d	d ט
ḏ	z	z	ḏ/d ḏ/d/z	ḏ ט
h	h	h	h	h
w	w	w	w	w
ḏ <sub>z</sub>	z	z	z	z
ḥ	ḥ ח	ḥ	ḥ	ḥ ח
ḥ	ḥ ח	ḥ	ḥ	ḥ ח
ṭ	ṭ	ṭ	ṭ	ṭ ט
y	y	y	y	y
k	k	k	k	k
l	l	l	l	l
m	m	m	m	m
n	n	n	n	n
ṣ	s	s	s	s
ʿ	ʿ ע	ʿ	ʿ	ʿ ע
ḡ	ḡ ע	ʿ	ḡ ḡ	ḡ ע

58. Note the following references: Huehnergard, “Afro-Asiatic,” 142–43; Kogan, “Proto-Semitic Phonetics and Phonology,” 54–151; Pardee, “Ugaritic,” 292; Stuart Creason, “Aramaic,” *CEWAL*, 396–97; Frederick Mario Fales, “Old Aramaic,” *SLIH*, 566; Holger Gzella, “Imperial Aramaic,” *SLIH*, 575–76. In Imperial Aramaic, the interdentalals (/ḏ/, /t/, /ṭ/) merged with the dentalals (/d/, /t/, /ṭ/); the Aramaic reflex of /ṣ/ (perhaps an “emphatic lateral spirant” [so Fales] or “voiced velar or uvular affricate” [so Gzella]) became /ʿ/.



p	p	p	p	p
<sup>t</sup> ṣ	ṣ	ṣ	ṣ	ṣ
k̥	k̥	q	k̥	k̥ ק
r	r	r	r	r
ś	ś ש	s ש	š	ś ש
ṣ̥	ṣ	ṣ	ṣ	ṣ ? ק
s <sup>[PS]</sup> > š/h <sup>[PNWS]</sup>	š ש	š ש	š	š ש
t	t	t	t	t
<u>t</u>	š ש	š ש	<u>t</u>	<u>t</u> ש
<u>t̥</u>	ṣ	ṣ	z/ġ z/ġ	<u>t̥</u> ט

In order to remember these unfamiliar PS/PNWS phonemes, one can associate them with the following Hebrew words:

- ♦ /d/ as in \**daqanu*; Hebrew זָקֵן “beard” versus Aramaic דָּקֵן
- ♦ /h/ as in \**harranu*; Hebrew חָרָן “Harran” versus Akkadian *harrānu* and Greek LXX to Gen. χαρραν. Note also \**hattiyyu*; Hebrew חֲתִי “Hittite” versus Ugaritic *ht* and *hty* and Akkadian *hattû* and LXX χεται
- ♦ /ġ/ as in \**gazzatu*; Hebrew עֲזָה “Gaza” versus Greek γαζα and Arabic *ġazzat*
- ♦ /ś/ as in \**kaśdu*; Hebrew כַּשְׁדִּים “Chaldeans” versus Akkadian *kaldu* and Greek χαλδαιοι
- ♦ /ś/ as in \**arśu*; Hebrew אֶרֶץ “land” versus Aramaic אַרְע
- ♦ /ṭ/ as in \**ṭalmūtu*; should be in Hebrew צִלְמוֹת “shadow” but is reanalyzed as צִלְמוֹת “shadow of death” versus Ugaritic *ḫlmt* and *ġlmt*
- ♦ /ṭ/ as in \**talgu*; Hebrew שֶׁלֶג “snow” versus Aramaic תִּלְג

## 2.6. Proto-Semitic/Proto-Northwest Semitic /w/

At some early stage in the history of Canaanite, what was /w/ in PS and PNWS shifted to /y/ at the beginning and end of roots. So, what was \**waṭiba* “to dwell” became \**yašaba* and then \**yāšab* (> יָשַׁב); similarly \**yišlawūna* became יִשְׁלְוּ “they will be at ease” (Job 12:6), even though the /w/ is still attested in the *qāṭal* form שְׁלֹחֵי “I am at rest” (Job 3:26). Medial

/w/, on the other hand, became \*/ū/ (e.g., קוּם “to arise”).<sup>59</sup> The exceptions to this shift are relatively rare (e.g., וְלֵד “child” vs. יָלַד “child, boy”; and עָנָו “afflicted” vs. עָנִי “afflicted”).

## 2.7. Correspondences between Weak Roots

In the lexicon of Biblical Hebrew, it is easy to see that certain combinations of consonants have the same or similar meanings. In fact, it is often the case that three classes of weak roots (i.e., II-*vav/yod*, III-*vav/yod*, and geminate roots), have semantically similar verbs.<sup>60</sup> In most cases, the verbs seem to be byforms of each other.<sup>61</sup> Note, for example, the following correspondences between root-types:

II-*vav/yod* and III-*vav/yod* roots

- ◆ בּוּז and בִּזָּה “to despise”<sup>62</sup>
- ◆ גּוּר “to attack” and גִּרָּה *piel* “to stir up strife”<sup>63</sup>

II-*vav/yod* and geminate roots

- ◆ מוּשׁ and מִשַּׁשׁ “to feel, grope”<sup>64</sup>
- ◆ צוּר “to bind” and צָרַר “to confine, besiege”
- ◆ צוּר and צָרַר “to attack”
- ◆ רוּם “to rise” and רָמַם “to exalt oneself”<sup>65</sup>

59. In the same way, medial /y/ became \*/i/ (e.g., שִׁים “to set”).

60. Many of the examples below are drawn from Jerzy Kuryłowicz, *Studies in Semitic Grammar and Metrics*, *Prace Językoznawcze* 67 (Wrocław: Zakład Narodowy imienia Ossolińskich, 1973), 10–12.

61. One can sometimes identify roots that have developed out of other roots, as with פּוּחַ “to breathe, blow” (Central Semitic *pwḥ*), which developed apparently from a reanalysis of the verb נָפַח “to breathe, blow” (Common Semitic *nph*) as a *niphal* or N-stem conjugation. See John Huehnergard and Saul Olyan, “The Etymology of Hebrew and Aramaic *ykl* ‘To Be Able,’” *JSS* 58 (2013): 17.

62. Contrast בּוּז “to plunder” and the related noun בִּזָּה “plunder.”

63. Contrast גּוּר “to sojourn” and גּוּר “to fear” as well as גִּרָּה “to drag away,” *niphal* “to chew cud.” Note also שׁוּט (Ps 40:5) and שָׁטָה “to turn aside” and the respective roots assumed for שׁוֹאָה “ruin” (< šwy) and שָׁאָה “ruin” (< šy).

64. Contrast מוּשָׁה “to draw out (from water).”

65. Contrast רָמָה “to throw, shoot” and רָמָה *piel* “to betray.” Note also דוּחַ “to crush” (Num 11:8) and דָּכַח as evidenced in דָּךְ “crushed” as well as דָּכָא *piel* “to crush”; טוּחַ “to plaster” and טָחַח “to be smeared” (Isa 44:18); מוּדַח “to be poor” and מָכַח “to be low”; שׁוּדַח “to fence in” and שָׁכַח “to cover” (Exod 33:22); and perhaps also שִׁית and

III-*vav/yod* and geminate roots

- ♦ דמה “to cease,” *niphal* “to be destroyed” and דמם “to be silent, dumb,” *niphal* “to be destroyed”<sup>66</sup>
- ♦ זכה “to be clear” and זכך “to be clean, pure”
- ♦ חרה “to be hot, angry” and חרר “to burn”<sup>67</sup>
- ♦ ידה and ידד “to throw”
- ♦ מסה *hiphil* “to cause to melt” and מסס *niphal* “to melt”
- ♦ ערה *piel* “to uncover” and ערר “to strip”<sup>68</sup>
- ♦ קלה *niphal* and קלל *niphal* “to be contemptible”
- ♦ קצה and קצץ “to cut off”<sup>69</sup>
- ♦ רבה and רבב “to be numerous”
- ♦ רדה “to rule” and רדד “to subjugate, conquer”
- ♦ שגה and שגג “to go astray”<sup>70</sup>

There are also cases where these weak root-classes overlap with I-*vav/yod* and I-*nun* roots. Note also the correspondences between I-*vav/yod* roots and I-*nun* roots.<sup>71</sup>

I-*vav/yod* and II-*vav/yod* roots

- ♦ יגר and גור “to be afraid”<sup>72</sup>

שַׁת “to set” (though the latter might really be a mirage, שֶׁתּוֹ of Pss 49:15 and 73:9 being an alternative form for שֶׁתּוֹ, influenced perhaps by the similarly spelled second- and first-person forms שֶׁתִּי and שֶׁתִּי).

66. Note also דוּמָה as suggested by דוּמָה “silence.”

67. Contrast חָוֵר “to be white.”

68. Contrast עוֹר “to awake.”

69. Note also the frequently occurring nouns: קֶצֶת/קֶצֶה/קֶצֶה/קֶצֶה “end” (all from קצה) and קֶץ “end” (from קצץ). Contrast קוֹץ “to loathe,” יקץ “to awake” (intrans.), and קִיץ *hiphil* “to awake” (trans.).

70. Note also גָּזַח “to cut off” (Ps 71:6) (+ גָּזִית “hewn”) and גָּזַז “to shear” (+ גִּז “shearing”); כָּלָה “to cease” and כָּלַל “to complete, perfect” (+ כָּל “all”); מָצָה “to slurp” and מָצַץ “to lap” (Isa 66:11).

71. The one correspondence between I-*vav/yod* and III-*vav/yod* roots may be due to reanalysis: יָגַה *hophal* (2 Sam 20:13) “to be expelled” and הִגַּה “to remove.” Examples of correspondences between I-*vav/yod* and geminate roots are also relatively rare: יָחַם *piel* “to conceive” (+ חָמָה “heat”) and חָמַם “to be hot” (חָמָה “heat, sun”); יָעַז *niphal* “to be insolent” (perhaps Isa 33:19) and עָזַז “to be strong”; יָמַשׁ *hiphil* “cause to touch” (perhaps Judg 16:26) and מָשַׁח/מָשַׁח “to feel, grope”; יָרַק *hiphil* (Lev 15:8) “to spit.”

72. Contrast גִּיר “to sojourn” and גִּיר “to attack” as well as גָּרַר “to drag away,” *niphal* “to chew cud.”

- ♦ טוב and יטב “to be good”
- ♦ עיף and יעף “to be weary” (+ יָעִיף/עִיף “weary”)
- ♦ קץ “to awake” (intrans.) and קִיץ *hiphil* “to awake” (trans.)<sup>73</sup>

#### I-*nun* and II-*vav/yod* roots

- ♦ נסך “to pour” and סוך “to anoint oneself”<sup>74</sup>
- ♦ נפח and פוח “to breathe, blow”<sup>75</sup>
- ♦ נפץ and פוץ “to be scattered”<sup>76</sup>
- ♦ נצץ and צוץ “to shine, blossom”<sup>77</sup>

#### I-*nun* and III-*vav/yod* roots

- ♦ נבל “to languish, fall, be worn out” and בלה “to wither, crumble”
- ♦ נדח *niphal* “to be scattered,” *hiphil* “to expel” and דחה “to drive off” (+ דחה *niphal* “to be expelled”)

#### I-*nun* and geminate roots

- ♦ נדח *niphal* “to be scattered,” *hiphil* “to expel” and דחה *niphal* “to be expelled”<sup>78</sup>
- ♦ נסך “to weave” and סכך “to weave”<sup>79</sup>
- ♦ נקב “to bore through, slander” and קבב “to curse”<sup>80</sup>

73. Contrast קצה and קצץ “to cut off,” and קוץ “to loathe.” Note also ימר *hiphil* “to exchange” (perhaps Jer 2:11) and מור “to change”; ימש *hiphil* “cause to touch” (perhaps Judg 16:26) and מוש/מוש “to feel, grope”; ינק “to suck” and נוק or ניק “to suckle” (Exod 2:9); יעץ and עוץ “to advise”; יצת “to kindle” and צות *hiphil* “set on fire” (Isa 27:4); יקש “to trap with a snare” and קוש “to trap with a snare” (Isa 29:21) (+ נקש *niphal* “to be ensnared”). In addition, note that the verb בוש “to be ashamed” in the *hiphil* attests two forms, one clearly formed from the root בוש meaning “to make ashamed” (e.g., הִבְשִׁיזוּת) and the other formed as though from יבש meaning “to be ashamed” (e.g., הִבְשִׁיט).

74. Contrast נסך/סכך “to weave” and סכך “to cover.”

75. Note also יפח (Jer 4:31).

76. Note also פצץ *poel* “to shatter” and contrast פצה “to open (the mouth).”

77. Note also נקר “to gouge (the eyes)” and קור “to bore, dig” (perhaps 2 Kgs 19:20, Isa 37:25); נקש *niphal* “to be ensnared” and קוש “to lay a snare” (Isa 29:21) (+ יקש “to trap with a snare”).

78. Note also דחה “to drive off.”

79. Contrast נסך “to pour” and סוך “to anoint oneself,” סכך “to cover.”

80. Note also the root יקב presumed in the word יִקְבֵּי “wine vat.”

I-*vav/yod* roots and I-*nun* roots

- ♦ **יצב** *hithpael* and **נצב** “to take a stand”
- ♦ **יקע** and **נקע** “to turn away in disgust”
- ♦ **יקש** “to trap with a snare” and **נקש** *niphal* “to be ensared.”<sup>81</sup>

Note especially that geminate roots often correspond to II-*vav/yod* and III-*vav/yod* roots, less often with the others. Also, I-*vav/yod* and I-*nun* roots correspond most often with II-*vav/yod* roots.

Another common variation between synonymous roots is evidenced in the pairs of III-*aleph* and III-*vav/yod* roots. In these cases, often a *lamed* or *resh* is the second root consonant. Note the pairs, listed in alphabetical order: **ירא** versus **ירה** “to shoot”; **סלא** versus **סלה** “to weigh”; **פלא** “to be wonderful” versus **פלה** “to be separate”; **קרא** versus **קרה** “to occur”; **תלא** versus **תלה** “to hang.”<sup>82</sup> It may appear that the primary difference between the members of these pairs is only a *mater*, that is, an *aleph* used as a *mater* to mark a preceding \*/ā/ as in Aramaic versus a *he mater* (e.g., **נִקְרָא** “has been met” Exod 5:3 vs. **נִקְרָה** “has been met” Exod 3:18). Given the sparse attestation of some roots, this may be correct in certain instances. However, most ancient readers conceived of the roots (and associated verbs) as independent entities, as revealed in certain unambiguous verbal forms like **וַיִּקֶּר** “it happened” (Ruth 2:3), which is unambiguously III-*vav/yod*, and **קָרָאֵנִי** “it befell me” (Job 4:14), which is unambiguously III-*aleph*.

Some examples of correspondences without a *lamed* or *resh* include: **דכא** and **דכה** both *piel* “to crush”; **חבא** and **חבה** *niphal* “to hide oneself”; **נכא** *niphal* “be wiped out” (+ **נִכָּאִים** “stricken” Isa 16:7) and **נכה** “to strike,” *niphal* “to be struck”; **נשא** and **נשה** “to lend on interest”; **שגא** and **שגה** “to grow, increase.”<sup>83</sup>

A further set of correspondences is found between I-*aleph* and I-*vav/yod* roots. The clearest examples are relatively few: **אָחַד** “one” and **יחד** “to be united” (+ **יָחִיד** “only one,” **יָחַד** “together”); **אלה** “to wail” (Joel 1:8; +

81. Note also **קוש** “to lay a snare” (Isa 29:21). Note as well the following corresponding roots: **יאה** (Jer 10:7) and **נאה** “to be pretty, fitting”; **יפח** (Jer 4:31) and **נפח/פוח** “to breathe.”

82. Not all such pairs seem synonymous or related, as with **כלא** “to restrain” and **כלה** “to finish.” Another superficially similar example might be **ירא/ירא** “to fear,” though the latter is also listed by BDB under the root **רהה**. It occurs once, as **תִּרְהוּ** (Isa 44:8).

83. Note also **קיא** and **קיה** “to vomit.”

אֲלֵלִי “alas!”) and יָלַל *hiphil* “to wail”; אָשַׁר “to go straight” and יָשַׁר “to go straight.” In addition, note the correspondences in sense and form between אָסַף “to gather” (תִּסָּף “you gather” Ps 104:29) and יָסַף “to add,” *hiphil* “to add, do again” (תִּסָּף “do [not] add” Deut 13:1).<sup>84</sup> Finally, note how some I-*aleph* words appear to be I-*vav/yod*, like מוֹסֵר “bond.”

In some cases two roots form a suppletive paradigm. That is, one root supplies forms for one part of the verbal paradigm and another, related root supplies forms for other parts of the paradigm. Notice, for example, how the *niphal* of נָצַב supplies *qāṭal* and participial forms and the *hithpaal* of יָצַב supplies *yiqtol* forms such that we read in Num 22:22 that “the angel of the lord stood (וַיִּתְיַצֵּב) in the path” but in Num 22:23 that the ass saw “the angel of the lord standing (נֹצֵב) in the path.”<sup>85</sup> In a similar way, note how the root טוּב supplies forms for the *qāṭal*, infinitives, and participle, while the root יָטַב supplies the *yiqtol*.<sup>86</sup>

It should be quickly added, of course, that not all of the pairs of verbs listed above are necessarily related to each other etymologically (e.g., בָּלָה/נָבַל). It will not be surprising that such historically unrelated pairs are often not exact synonyms of each other. However, even verb pairs that do seem to be related etymologically do not always express the exact same sense (e.g., חָרַר/חָרַר).

Cognizance of the above correspondences is useful to intermediate students in several ways. First, it is helpful to memorize certain verbs together, as with יָצַב and נָצַב described above, since they can appear together and form one paradigm.<sup>87</sup> Second, when sight-reading, one can

84. In addition, note אָסַר “to tie, bind (as prisoner)” and יָסַר “to discipline.”

85. Although it is conceivable that the *niphal* forms like נָצַב should really be derived from יָצַב (cf. נִצְּתָה from יָצַת), note the cognate evidence from other languages for נָצַב as well as the BH nouns/adjectives like נֹצֵיב “pillar, overseer” that attest to this root. Similarly, יָקַץ supplies *qal* forms and קִיץ *hiphil* forms.

86. Note also יָגַר is used for the *qāṭal* but גָּוַר for the *yiqtol* and imperative. The roots דָּחַה and דָּחַח in the *niphal* appear only in the *yiqtol* (and perhaps in the participle), while the root נָדַח in the *niphal* appears only in the *qāṭal* and participle.

87. Notice that most vocabulary aids used by students to memorize Biblical Hebrew words list the verbs separately. Larry A. Mitchel (*A Student's Vocabulary for Biblical Hebrew and Aramaic* [Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 1984]) lists נָצַב on p. 16 but יָצַב on p. 23 without cross-reference; George M. Landes (*Building Your Biblical Hebrew Vocabulary: Learning Words by Frequency and Cognate*, RBS 41 [Atlanta: Society of Biblical Literature, 2001]) lists נָצַב on p. 73 but יָצַב on p. 84 without cross-reference; Miles V. Van Pelt and Gary D. Pratico (*The Vocabulary Guide to Biblical Hebrew*

sometimes make an educated guess about the meaning of a word based on knowledge of another word or root. For example, when one encounters unfamiliar verbal forms like וַתְּנִיקָהּוּ (Exod 2:9) in the context of “nursing” (וַהֲיִנְקָהּוּ “and nurse it!” Exod 2:9), one can make an educated guess that the unfamiliar verb (i.e., נִיק or נוּק) is a byform of יָנַק, with the same sense “she nursed it.” It must be kept in mind, of course, that not all weak roots are related to each other. Although בָּזָה and בָּזוּ both mean “to despise,” the geminate root בָּזַז means something different, “to plunder.”

In addition, the correspondences between different types of weak roots listed above are also reflective of broader similarities between the same root classes, especially in the inflection of the verbal paradigms. For example, although there are relatively few semantic correspondences between I-*vav/yod* and I-*nun* roots, it is not uncommon for *yiqṭol* forms from I-*vav/yod* roots to exhibit assimilation of the first root consonant such that they look as though they derive from I-*nun* roots. Thus, we find אָצַק “I will pour” (Isa 44:3) from צָק; also וַיִּצֹר “he formed” (Gen 2:19) from יצר.<sup>88</sup> Being familiar with the most common correspondences between weak roots helps a reader identify and quickly look up relevant verbs in the dictionary. These correspondences are addressed with greater detail in the chapters on morphology.

## 2.8. Correspondences between Roots with Similarly Articulated Consonants

In the above sections, I have listed pairs of words and roots that are not only semantically similar, but are also (for the most part) etymologically related, derived presumably from a single PS/PNWS root or word or from a biconsonantal “core.”<sup>89</sup> In the following section, I also list semantically similar words and roots. These too are often related etymologically, but sometimes are not. Occasionally, an easy historical explanation is offered (as for the pair צָעִיר/זָעִיר “little,” where the former seems influenced from Aramaic). However, the historical links between many roots and words

[Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2003]) list נָצַב on pp. 26, 116, 190, 208, 220 but יָצַב on pp. 34, 183, 215, 224 without cross-reference.

88. More regularly, the form of 3fp/2fp III-*vav/yod* roots (e.g., תִּרְאִינָה “they will see” Isa 17:7) have informed the paradigms of II-*vav/yod* (תִּעוּפִינָה “they will fly” Isa 60:8) and III-*aleph* roots (תִּמְצְאוּ “they find” Deut 31:21).

89. For the term, “core,” see Joüon §84.

(if they exist) are often rather complex and I have avoided explaining how each word or root in a pair might be related. In essence, it is most important for the intermediate student to recognize the possible interconnections between words/roots in order to facilitate the acquisition and retention of vocabulary and in order to better evaluate proposed translations and interpretations. Let me stress again that the listing of words together does not necessarily imply an etymological or historical link between them.

One of the most frequent correspondences between consonants is that between sibilants, especially when the sibilant is followed by *resh* or a guttural. Note the roots with correspondences between *zayin* and *tsade*: זעק “to cry out” and צעק “to cry out”; זַעִיר “little” and צַעִיר “little”; זרב *pual* “be scorched” (Job 6:17) and צרב *niphal* “be scorched” (Ezek 21:3) (+ צַרְבָּת “burning” Prov 16:27 and צַרְבָּת “scar, inflammation” Lev 13:23, 28). Correspondences between *tsade* and *sin* are somewhat fewer: צחק “to laugh” and שחק “to laugh” (as with the different realizations of the name “Isaac” יִצְחָק vs. יִשְׁחָק); as are those between *tsade* and *samek*: חמס “to act violently toward” and חמץ “be ruthless” (Ps 71:4); נוץ (Lam 4:15) and נוס “to flee”;<sup>90</sup> and between *tsade* and *shin*: פוץ “to be dispersed,” *niphal* “to be scattered” and פוש “to scatter,” *niphal* “to be scattered” (Nah 3:18). There are a few sets of roots that exhibit correspondences between several different sibilants: עלץ, עלס, עלץ all mean “to rejoice”; שפן, צפן, ספן (Deut 33:19) all mean “to hide;”<sup>91</sup> נתס (Job 30:13), נתץ, נתש all mean “to tear up” or “tear down.”<sup>92</sup>

In some of these cases, a straightforward historical explanation may be possible (e.g., borrowing from Aramaic in the case of זַעִיר), though in other cases such explanations become rather complex.<sup>93</sup> In rare cases, the

90. The parsing reflects that of *HALOT*. BDB parse נָצַו of Lam 4:15 not as from נוץ but from נצה “to fly (?)” This makes sense of the accent on נָצַו, which is not penultimate as we would expect if it were from נוץ. *HALOT* cites *HGHs* 398e, which lists other examples of irregular accenting for the sake of “rhythm.”

91. See Steiner, *Fricative-Laterals*, 118 nn. 3, 6.

92. Note also the etymologically related נתע *niphal* “to be broken.” Correspondences between *samek* and *sin*, if they occurred, would be obscured by the merger of originally distinct /s/ and /š/ and their subsequent confusion in spelling (see above).

93. For Aramaic borrowing, see Max Wagner, *Die lexikalischen und grammatikalischen Aramaismen im alttestamentlichen Hebräisch*, BZAW 96 (Berlin: Töpelmann, 1966), 49–50. Note Steiner’s description of how צחק and שחק are related to each other, and perhaps also to לעץ “to mock” (*Fricative-Laterals*, 111–20, esp. 112) and cf. Blau, *Polyphony*, 4. Similar senses sometimes lead speakers to select similar-sounding



meaning of the two words is only remotely related and any connection between them seems likely to be purely accidental: צרף “to smelt” and שרף “to burn.”<sup>94</sup> In still other cases, the similarity in sounds between two different words might have encouraged their use in similar contexts. The word אֶזוֹר “loincloth” is used naturally enough with the etymologically related אֶזַר “to gird” in 2 Kgs 1:8, though in Job 12:18 the noun אֶזוֹר is instead the object of the verb אָסַר “to bind.”

Sometimes one observes parallels between roots with an emphatic and corresponding nonemphatic consonant. Note, for example, the many correspondences between *tet* and *tav*: חָטַף and חָתַף (Job 9:12) “to catch, seize”; טָעָה (Ezek 13:10) and תָּעָה “to wander, err”; טָפַל “to smear” and תָּפַל in תְּפִילָּה “whitewash”; קָשַׁט in קֶשֶׁט “bow, archery” (Ps 60:6) and קָשַׁת in קֶשֶׁת “bow.”<sup>95</sup> Note the correspondences between *kaph* and *qoph*: דָּכָא *piel* “to crush” and דָּקַק “to crush” and the associated nouns/adjectives: דָּבָא “crushed” (of dust) (Ps 90:3); דָּךְ “crushed”; דָּק “thin, small, fine” (of dust in Isa 29:5).<sup>96</sup> Borrowing from Aramaic may explain some of these pairs of words (e.g., קֶשֶׁט and קֶשֶׁת). One can also find pairs of what appear to be etymologically unrelated words that exhibit vaguely similar meanings: זָכַךְ “to be pure” (+ זָךְ “pure” and זִכְכִּית “glass” Job 28:17) and זָקַק “to refine”; כָּהָה “to be dim” (said of eyes) (+ כְּהָה “dim”) and קָהָה “to be blunt” (said of teeth); מְבֹרָה “origin” and מְקוֹר “source, spring”; תָּכַן *piel* “to measure” and תָּקַן *piel* “to arrange”; שָׁחַט “to slaughter” and שָׁחַת *piel* “to annihilate, destroy.”

Other correspondences include those of the gutturals. Correspondences involving *aleph* and *ayin* include גָּאַל *niphal* “to be defiled” and גָּעַל “to loathe,” *niphal* “to be defiled”; פָּתָאם “suddenly” and פָּתָע “suddenly”; שָׂאָה *hithpaal* (Gen 24:21) and שָׂעָה “to gaze”; תָּאָב *piel* “to make repulsive”

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roots to express these senses, and, conversely, similarly formed roots sometimes lead speakers to assume a common sense shared between them (Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 52–53).

94. The semantic correspondences between other roots and words is even more remote: צָהַב *hophal* “to gleam,” said of bronze (Ezra 8:27), and זָהָב “gold”; also זָהַר *hiphil* “to shine” (+ זָהָר “shining”) and צָהָרִים “noon.”

95. Note also סָכַת *hiphil* “to keep silent” (Deut 27:9) and שָׁקַט “to be quiet,” *hiphil* “to keep quiet,” which also shows the variation in sibilants.

96. Note also דָּךְ “to pound” (Num 11:8) and the related noun מִדְּכָה “mortar” (Num 11:8). Note also the semantically and phonetically similar רָק “thin” (said of cows) in Gen 41:19, 20, 27 (vs. דָּךְ in Gen 41:3, 4). The word רָק is phonetically similar to another word used in relation to cattle: רָךְ “tender” (said of a calf in Gen 18:7).

(Amos 6:8) and תעב “to loathe.”<sup>97</sup> Those involving *aleph* and *he* include אדר *niphal*: “to be glorious” and הדר *niphal* “be honored”; אָהַב “desire” and הָוָה “desire; אֵין “power, wealth” and הֵון “wealth”; לאה and להה (Gen 47:13) “to languish.”<sup>98</sup>

Sometimes roots with bilabial consonants evidence correspondences, as with *bet* and *pe*: בֹּזַר *piel* “to scatter” and פִּזַּר *piel* “to scatter”; כָּבַשׁ “to subdue” and כִּפְּשׁ *hiphil* “to subdue” (Lam 3:16); נָשַׁב “to blow” and נָשַׁף “to blow.”<sup>99</sup> The consonants *mem* and *pe* correspond in the pair מָלַט *niphal* “to escape,” פִּיל “to deliver” and פָּלַט “to escape,” פִּיל “to deliver.” Note also the apparent correspondences between *bet* and *vav* in גֵּב “the back of a person” (Ps 129:3) and גֵּב/גֹּב “the back of a person”; in דָּאָב “to be faint” (+ דָּאָבָה “faint” Job 41:14) and דוּה “to be sick” (Lev 12:2; + דָּוָה “faint”; דָּוִי “illness; דָּוִי “faint”; מְדוּה “illness”); and in תִּאַבָּה “longing” (Ps 119:20; also תִּאַב “to desire” Ps 119:40, 174) and תִּאַוּה “longing”; the correspondences between *pe* and *vav* in גִּוְיָה “body” and גּוּפָה/גִּף “body.”<sup>100</sup>

In other cases there are semantically similar words that differ in their velar consonants, as in סָגַר “to shut up,” *niphal* “be shut up” and סָכַר *niphal* “be shut up.”<sup>101</sup> Rarely they differ in their sonorants like *mem* and

97. Note also the correspondences between nonetymologically related אָפַר “ashes” and אָפַר “dust”; יָרָא “to fear” and יָרַע “to quiver.”

98. Other correspondences between roots seem accidental: נָחַר/נָחַר “snorting” vs. נָעַר “to growl”; שׁוּחָה “pit” and שׁוּאָה “destruction.”

99. In relation to the last pair, note also נָשַׁם “to breathe, pant,” and נָפַשׁ *niphal* “to breathe.” Other words are more loosely related semantically: חָבַא *niphal*/חָבָא “to hide oneself” (Isa 26:20) and חָפַה “to cover”; צָרַב “burning” (modifying אֵשׁ “fire” in Prov 16:27) and צָרַף “to smelt, refine” (modifying אֵשׁ “fire” in Mal 3:2); קָבַץ “to gather (people),” קָפַץ “to draw together hand, mouth,” and קָמַץ “to grasp” (+ קָמָץ “handful”); רָמָה as in רָמְיָה “slackness (of hand)” and רָפַה “to relax” and in “sinking (of hands)” (Jer 47:3). Note also the pair זָרַב “to flow” and צָוַף “to flow over,” *hiphil* “make flow,” which exhibits not only different bilabial consonants, but also different sibilants.

100. Note also דָּוַב *hiphil* “to make faint” (Lev 26:16; + דָּוַב “atrophy” Job 33:19). Note the use of גִּוְיָה in 1 Sam 31:12 and גּוּפָה in the parallel account in 1 Chr 10:12. Another root pair might be עָבַת *piel* “to twist, pervert” (Mic 7:3; + עָבַת “rope”) and עוּת *piel* “to twist, pervert” (which verb derives ultimately from עוּה “to do wrong,” *piel* “to twist”).

101. Note also גָּבִיעַ “cup, bowl” and קָבַעַת “cup”; נָגַף “to strike” and נָקַף “to cut, tear”; סָכָן or סָכָן “official, attendant” and סָכָן “official”; פָּלָךְ “district” and פָּלָגָה/פָּלָגָה “subdivision (of family/tribe).”

*nun*, שטם “to have animosity toward” and שטן “to act as adversary”; and *lamed* and *resh*, אֶלְמֶן “palace” (Isa 13:22) and אֶרְמוֹן “palace.”<sup>102</sup>

Some words experience metathesis of root consonants. This results in two synonymous words with the same root consonants, but in different sequences: בְּהֵלָה “dismay, terror” and the metathesized version בְּלֵהָה “terror, calamity”; זֹעָה “terror” and the metathesized version זַעֲוָה “terror”; כִּבְשָׁה/כִּבְשָׁה/כִּבְשָׁה “lamb” and the metathesized byforms כִּשְׁבָה/כִּשְׁבָה (Lev 5:6) “lamb”; נָאָק “to groan” (+ נֶאֱקָה “groan”) and the metathesized version אָנַק “to groan” (+ אֶנְקָה “groan”); לַעַג “to mock, stammer” and עֲלֹג “stammerer” (Isa 32:4); פָּצַר and פָּרַץ, both meaning in the *qal* “to urge someone”; שִׁמְלָה “garment” and the metathesized form שְׁלֵמָה “garment.” In other cases, the apparent metathesis may really reflect two individual roots, as with כֶּסֶל/כֶּסֶל “stupidity” and כֶּכֶל “folly” (Qoh 10:6); חָפַר “to be ashamed” and חָרַף “to reproach” (+ חֲרָפָה “rebuke, shame”); and the pair פָּרַשׁ “to declare distinctly” and פִּשְׁר “interpretation.” Sometimes the etymology is unclear: עָרַף means “to drip” (+ עָרִיף and עָרְפָל “cloud”) as does רָעַף. The correspondence of יָעַף and עָיַף “to be weary” may be due to the existence of byforms between root-classes, as suggested above.

Recognition of the preceding relationships is important not only in helping to build vocabulary (and to distinguish similar sounding but distinct words), as mentioned above in chapter 1, but also in helping to comprehend various proposed emendations to the biblical text, even if a definitive evaluation of these interpretations is difficult to make. For example, in 1 Sam 21:14, we read the verb form וַיִּתֶּן; often this is understood as the *piel* form of תוּה (a byform of תִּאָה) and is translated “he marked” (see *HALOT*). On the other hand, the LXX rendering “he pounded” (ἐτυμπάνιζεν) has suggested the reconstruction וַיִּתֶּן\* “he knocked” (from תִּפַּף). Although a confusion between *vav* and *pe* is possible regardless of other evidence, its likelihood increases in the context of etymologically unrelated word pairs that seem to show a fluctuation between *vav* and other bilabial consonants. Similarly, one may better weigh different possi-

102. Note also בָּחַן “to test” and בָּחַר usually “to choose” but “to test” in Isa 48:10 (בָּחַרְתִּיךָ corresponds to בָּחַנְתִּיךָ in 1QIsa<sup>a</sup>). See Wagner, *Aramaismen*, 33–34; E. Y. Kutscher, *The Language and Linguistic Background of the Complete Isaiah Scroll*, STDJ 6 (Leiden: Brill, 1974), 223. For more possible examples, see Aloysius Fitzgerald, “The Interchange of L, N, and R in Biblical Hebrew,” *JBL* 97 (1978): 481–88. See also David Testen, “The Significance of Aramaic *r* < \*n,” *JNES* 44 (1985): 143–46. Perhaps also the pair כָּמַס “to gather” (Deut 32:34) and כָּנַס “to gather, collect” belongs here.

bilities, for example, whether *HALOT* may be correct in suggesting a connection between יִתְאַבְּכוּ “they swirled” (Isa 9:17) and the *niphal* verb אָבַק “to wrestle” (Gen 35:24–25), or whether BDB may be correct in construing the same verb (i.e., אָבַק) as a byform of הִפֵּךְ, akin to the *hithpael* of this verb in Judg 7:13, where it seems to describe a rolling motion.<sup>103</sup>

## 2.9. Correspondences between Etymologically Unrelated Roots

In the examples that follow, there is often no specific etymological connection between the words, even when the meanings are very close. In many cases, the connection between words is likely due to “lexical contamination.”<sup>104</sup> This is a phenomenon in which roots and words “similar in sound and form ... tend to attract each other,” even though the roots/words are otherwise unrelated.<sup>105</sup> It should also be recognized that the identification of common meanings is a subjective one and that another reader may organize the words in different ways.

The words listed here often have the same sequence of consonants at their beginning, as with the many words associated with spreading, dividing, tearing that begin with the sequence *pe-resh*: פָּרַד, פָּרַם, פָּרַס, פָּרַץ, פָּרַק, פָּרַשׁ, פָּרַר (see below for specific definitions).<sup>106</sup> Sometimes a sequence of consonants occurs only at the end of a root, as with כִּנֵּעַ *hiphil* “to make humble” and צִנֵּעַ *hiphil* “to make humble” (Mic 6:8).<sup>107</sup> Alternatively, the

103. It might be noted that further complicating the evaluation is the fact that in the DSS and in later Hebrew we find evidence for the root אָפַךְ as a byform of הִפֵּךְ (see Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 189).

104. See Blau “Śin,” 68. The term is from Y. Malkiel, “Weak Phonetic Change, Spontaneous Sound Shift, Lexical Contamination,” *Lingua* 11 (1962): 263–75. Blau also refers to it as “blending of synonymous or semantically related roots” (*Phonology and Morphology*, 52). Other explanations are also available; see Florin-Mihai Dat, “Métathèse et homonymie en hébreu biblique,” *Suvremena lingvistika* 67 (2009): 1–21.

105. See Blau “Śin,” 68.

106. See *ibid.*, 68 n. 3 and Kuryłowicz, *Studies*, 6. This list does not even exhaust the set of words having to do with spreading, dividing, and tearing that begin with *pe* and a liquid consonant: פָּלַח *piel* “to pierce, cut in pieces”; פָּלַג *niphal* “to be divided,” *piel* “to split.” In addition to these, note the semantically similar words that begin with *pe*: פָּאָה *hiphil* “to wipe out” (Deut 32:26); פּוֹץ “to disperse”; פּוֹשׁ “to scatter,” *niphal* “to be scattered”; פָּשַׁה “to spread.”

107. Although the root צִנֵּעַ occurs only once in the Hebrew Bible, it occurs four times in Ben Sira and over ten times in the DSS.

first and last consonants correspond: פָּקַח “to open (the eyes)” and פָּתַח “to open.”<sup>108</sup> In still other cases, the relevant consonants appear in different places and sequences, as with the words with *qoph* and *dalet* that describe burning: דָּלַק “to burn”; יָקַד “to burn”; קָדַח “to set fire to.” In some cases, it is partially due to nominal morphology that the words look and sound similar, as with פָּחַח and שָׁחַח “pit”; I have avoided listing most examples of this sort.

Note the following clusters of roots and words that seem semantically and phonetically close, only some of which are etymologically related:<sup>109</sup>

- ♦ *aleph-nun*: mourning, lamenting, groaning: אָנַח “to mourn” (+ אָנִי, אֲנִיָּה, תִּאֲנִיָּה “mourning”); אָנַח *niphal* “to sigh, groan” (+ אֲנַחָה “groan”); אָנַן *hithpoel* “to murmur, complain”; אָנַק “to groan” (+ אֲנַקָּה “groan”); נָאֵק “to groan” (+ נִאֲקָה “groan”)<sup>110</sup>
- ♦ *gimel-bet*: convex, concave things: אָרָגַב “heap”; גֵּב “back of a person, brow”; גֵּב “pit”; גָּבֵא “cistern”; גָּבַה “to be high”; גָּבִיעַ “cup, bowl”; גִּבְנִי “hunchbacked”; גִּבְעָה “hill”; מִשְׁגָּב “high point”<sup>111</sup>
- ♦ *gimel-zayin*: cutting: גָּזַח “to cut”; גָּזַז “to shear”; גָּזַר “to cut, divide,” *niphal* “be destroyed”<sup>112</sup>
- ♦ *he*: exclamations: הָא “lo”; הָאָה “aha!” (joy); הָה “ah, alas”; הֹו “ah, alas”; הֹוִי “ah, alas”
- ♦ *he-mem*: being tumultuous and loud: הוּם “to confuse”; הִמָּה “to be upset, groan”; הִמַּם “to disturb”; נָהַם “to growl” (+ נִהָמָה “growl”)<sup>113</sup>

108. Cf. also פָּצַח “to open (the mouth).”

109. Some of the examples are drawn from Dat, “Métathèse et homonymie,” 12–16. There is overlap in certain rare cases between sets of words (e.g., נָהַם appears in the set containing *he-mem* and *nun-he*).

110. Note also perhaps נִוַּח “to sigh” (Hab 3:16). Furthermore, note the parallels to the roots listed below containing the letters *nun-he* that indicate groaning, lamenting, and other inarticulate sounds (נָהַק, נָהַם, נָהַח) and those containing the letters *he-mem* that indicate being tumultuous and loud (הוּם, הִמָּה, הִמַּם, הִמָּה).

111. Note also גִּבְנִי “the back of a person.” English has a similar set of words with overlapping senses and sounds: gibbous, convex.

112. Note also the possible case of the byform גָּרַז (spec. גָּרַזְתִּי “I am cut off” Ps 31:23), unless this is a simple scribal slip.

113. Note the parallels to the roots listed above containing the letters *aleph-nun* and those below containing *nun-he*, all of which indicate groaning, lamenting, and other inarticulate sounds: אָנַח, אָנַח, אָנַק, נָאֵק and נָהַק, נָהַח, נָהַם, נָהַק.

- ♦ *zayin-resh*: scattering: בזר “to scatter,” זרה “to scatter,” and זרע “to sow, scatter seed,” זרק “to scatter, sprinkle,” פזר “to scatter”
- ♦ *khet-bet*: binding: חֶבֶל “cord”; חבק *piel* “to clasp, embrace”; חבר “to unite, be joined”; חבש “to bind up, saddle”<sup>114</sup>
- ♦ *khet-tsade*: cutting, dividing: חצב “to divide, cleave”; חצה “to divide”; חצץ “to divide” (+ חץ “arrow”); חרץ “to cut, sharpen”<sup>115</sup>
- ♦ *lamed-lamed*: being insignificant, mocking: דלל “to be insignificant”; הלל *poel* “to mock”; זלל “to be foolish, rash” *hiphil* “to treat disrespectfully”; קלל “to be insignificant,” *piel* “to curse”; *hiphil* “to mock”; תלל *hiphil* “to mock”
- ♦ *lamed-ayin*: mocking, stammering: לעב *hiphil* “to mock” (2 Chr 36:16); לעג “to mock, stammer”; לעז “to speak in an incomprehensible manner”; לעע “to talk wildly”; עלג “stammerer” (Isa 32:4)<sup>116</sup>
- ♦ *mem-khet*: destroying: מחה “to wipe out”; מחץ “to wound severely”; מחק “to annihilate”<sup>117</sup>
- ♦ *nun-dalet*: expelling, putting to flight: נדד “to flee,” *hiphil* “to put to flight”; נדה *piel* “to drive away, postpone”; נדה *niphal* “to be scattered,” *hiphil* “to expel”; נדף “to scatter, destroy”<sup>118</sup>
- ♦ *nun-he*: groaning, lamenting, and other inarticulate (nonhuman) sounds: נהג “to wail, lament”; נהה “to lament” (נִהָ, נִהָה, “lamentation”); נהם “to growl” (+ נִהָמָה “growl”); נהק “to bray”<sup>119</sup>

114. The letter *khet* in these words likely represents /h/ (based especially on the Ugaritic cognates), but for חֶבֶל and חבר there is limited contradictory evidence from Arabic and Akkadian. In relation to חבק, note דבק “to cling, keep close.”

115. The cognate evidence for *khet* in these words is often contradictory. Nevertheless, it seems the *khet* in חצב represents /h/, though the *khet* in חרץ and חצץ represents /h/ (see Ges<sup>18</sup>). Note the parallels to roots with the letters *qoph-tsade* listed below that denote cutting: קצב, קצה, קצע, קצץ, קצר.

116. Arabic cognates (listed in HALOT) suggest /ʾ/ for *ayin* in לעב and לעג, and /g/ for *ayin* in לעז and לעע.

117. Note also מחא “to clap hands.” It is often assumed that most, if not all, of these roots are related to each other from the earlier root \*mḥś (see Gzella, “מחה,” 2:638).

118. In relation to נדה, note דחה “to drive off”; דחה *niphal* “to be expelled” (all with /h/), as well as נסה “to tear away,” *niphal* “to be forcibly removed” (with /h/). In relation to נדף, note also הדף “to push away.”

119. Note also הגה “to growl, mutter” and the following words containing a *khet*: נבח “to bark” (Isa 56:10); נָחַר (Job 39:20)/נִחָרָה (Jer 8:16) “snorting.” Note the parallels to the roots listed above containing the sequence *aleph-nun* that indicate mourning,

- ♦ *nun-vav*: shaking, waving, wandering: נוד “to sway, shake (the head), be homeless”; נוט “to tremble” (Ps 99:1); נוע “to tremble, wander without home,” *hiphil* “to shake (the head)”; נוף “to move back and forth”<sup>120</sup>
- ♦ *nun-qoph*: boring, digging, cutting: נקב “to bore”; נָקִיק “cleft”; נקר “to cut, tear”; נקר “to gouge out (eyes)”<sup>121</sup>
- ♦ *nun-tav*: tearing, breaking: נתח *piel* “to cut up” (+ יֵתַח “piece of meat”); נתס “to tear”; נתע *niphal* “to be broken” (Job 4:10); נתח “to pull, break down”; נתק “to pull down, tear”; נתש “to pluck up, root out”<sup>122</sup>
- ♦ *samek-khet*: removing: נסח “to tear down” *niphal* “be removed”; סחב “to drag away”; סחה “to sweep away”
- ♦ *pe-res*: spreading, dividing, tearing: פרד “to spread,” *hiphil* “to separate”; פרס “to tear (a garment)”; פרס “to break (bread)”; פּרַץ “to break down, breach (a wall), spread out”; פרק “to tear apart”; פּרַץ *hiphil* “to break (a covenant)”; פרש “to spread out (a garment, scroll)”
- ♦ *pe-tsade*: smashing, destroying: נפץ “to smash”; נפץ *piel* “to smash” (Mi 3:3); פּצַם “to split (the earth)” (Ps 60:4); פּצַע “to crush” (פָּצַע “wound”); פּוּץ *poel* “to smash”<sup>123</sup>
- ♦ *qoph-dalet*: burning: דלק “to burn”; יקד “to burn”; קדח “to set fire to”
- ♦ *qoph-tsade*: cutting, extremity: קצב “to cut (wood), shear (sheep)” (+ קָצַב “shape, extremity”); קצה “to cut off (days)” (also קָצַה, קָצַה, קָצוּ, קָצַת “end”); קצע *hiphil* “to scrape off” (Lev 14:41); קצץ “to cut off” (+ קָץ “end”); קצר “to be short,” *piel* “to shorten (days)”<sup>124</sup>

lamenting, groaning (אנה, אנח, אנק, נאק) and those containing *he-mem* that indicate being tumultuous and loud (נהם, המם, המה, הום).

120. In relation to נוד, note רוד “to roam, wander” (+ מְרוּד “homelessness”). In relation to נוט, note מוט “to totter” and שוט “to roam about.”

121. Note the parallels to the roots below with *qoph-res* that indicate boring, digging: דקר, נקר, עקר, קור.

122. Note also the similarities between these roots and the following: נסח “to tear down,” *niphal* “to be forcibly removed” and נסע “to tear out (door, peg), journey on.”

123. Cf. נפץ “to scatter” and פוץ “to scatter.”

124. Note the parallels to the roots listed above containing the sequence *khet-tsade* that indicate cutting and dividing: חצב, חצה, חצץ, חרץ, חרץ.



- ♦ *qoph-resheh*: digging, boring: דקר “to pierce”; נקר “to gouge out (eyes),” *pual* “to be quarried”; עקר “to uproot”; קור “to dig” (+ מקור “source, spring”)<sup>125</sup>
- ♦ *resh-gimel*: churning, being upset, creating strife: גור “to attack”; גרה “to stir up strife”; רגז “to shake” (with earth as subject), “to be distressed”; רגע “to stir up (sea),” *hiphil* “to make peace”; and רגש “to be restless” (Ps 2:1; + רָגַשׁ Ps 55:15/רָגַשׁהּ Ps 64:3 “unrest”)<sup>126</sup>
- ♦ *resh-ayin*: trembling, shaking: ירע “to tremble, fear”; נער “to shake (e.g., leaves, garment)”; רעד “to tremble”; רעל “to quiver”; רעם “to thunder”; רעש “to quake”<sup>127</sup>
- ♦ *shin-khet*: lowering: חוה *hishtaphel* “to bow down”; שוח “to sink” (+ שָׁחַת “pit”); שחה “to bow down”; שחה “to be bowed down”<sup>128</sup>
- ♦ *shin-lamed*: drawing off or out: נשל “to slip off (sandal)”; שלף “to slip off (sandal), draw (sword)”; שלל “draw out (sheaves)” (+ שוֹלֵל “barefoot”)<sup>129</sup>

The above represents only a sampling of the most obvious examples; below are further examples. It is probably not possible to remember all such correspondences within the BH lexicon. The most essential thing to retain from these lists is the existence of such correspondences. Each word will usually have its own nuance and be used in a unique manner, but the general sense is sometimes easier to remember and can often be useful when sight-reading.

A few generalizations can be made about the above groupings. Roots connected with inarticulate sounds (frequently associated with mourning and lamenting) often include the letter *he* or *aleph* and either *mem* or *nun*. Presumably this is connected to the numerous interjections with the letter *he*, which are themselves presumably based in onomatopoeia. Roots

125. Note also the phonetically similar כרה “to dig.” Note the parallels to the roots above with *nun-qoph* that indicate boring, digging: נקב, נָקִין, נקר, נקב.

126. Note also גרש “to toss up, churn (mud from sea),” listed as a root separate from גרש “to drive away” in HALOT.

127. In relation to רעש, note געש “to shake.” The words above are often associated with fear; note the semantically and phonetically close ערץ “to dread.” In all the roots *ayin* may represent the /ʿ/ sound, though in רעם, it may instead represent /ġ/.

128. The *khet* in these roots represents different sounds, to judge from the comparative evidence: /ħ/ in חוה and שחה but /h/ in שוח and שחה.

129. Note perhaps also שלה “draw out (soul)” (Job 27:8). See Blau, “*Śin*,” 1 and Kuryłowicz, *Studies*, 6.



that indicate cutting often have *tsade* accompanied by either *khet* or *qoph*. The letter *qoph* with either a *nun* or *resh* often occurs in roots denoting boring and digging. *Lamed* and *ayin* often appear in roots connected with mockery.

Oftentimes only two roots with similar meanings correspond in their consonants. Those that correspond in their initial consonants include:

- ♦ בּדל “to be separated” and בָּדַל *hiphil* “to separate”
- ♦ בָּלַל “to mix, confuse” and בָּלַע “to confuse”
- ♦ שָׁלַחַבַּת/לֶהָבָה/לָהֶב “flame” and לָהֵט “flame” (Gen 3:24) (+ לָהֵט “to blaze”)
- ♦ נָשַׁךְ “to bite” and נָשַׁק “to kiss”
- ♦ עָוָה “to do wrong,” *piel* “to twist” and עָוָה *piel* “to bend”
- ♦ פָּגַע “to meet, encounter” and פָּגַשׁ “to meet, encounter” (cf. נָגַע *hiphil* “to touch, reach” and נִגַּשׁ “to approach”)
- ♦ קָשָׁה “to be hard,” *hiphil* “to harden (heart)” (+ קָשִׁי “stubborn”) and קָשַׁח *hiphil* “to harden (heart)” (Isa 63:17)
- ♦ שָׁאָג “to roar” (+ שָׁאָגָה “roaring”) and שָׁאָה “to roar” (+ שָׁאָן “roar”)
- ♦ שָׁקַד “to watch (over)” and שָׁקַף *niphal/hiphil* “to look down upon.”<sup>130</sup>

Those that correspond in their final two consonants include:

- ♦ דָּבַק “to cling to” and חָבַק “to embrace”
- ♦ זָבַח “to sacrifice” and טָבַח “to slaughter” (+ שָׁחַט “to slaughter for sacrifice”)
- ♦ חָתַם “to seal” and סָתַם “to stop up”
- ♦ חָתַת “to shatter, be terrified” and כָּתַת “to crush”
- ♦ כָּנַע *hiphil* “to make humble” and צָנַע *hiphil* “to make humble” (Mic 6:8)
- ♦ יָאֵב (Ps 119:131) and תָּאֵב “to long for” (+ אָהַב “to love”)
- ♦ נָפַל “to fall” and שָׁפַל “to sink”
- ♦ סָמַךְ “to support” and תָּמַךְ “to grasp, support”

130. Another pair of rarely occurring roots is עָצַה “to shut the eyes” (Prov 16:30) and עָצַם “to shut the eyes” (*qal* Isa 33:15 and *piel* Isa 29:10).

- ♦ פשע “to rebel” (+ פֶּשַׁע “crime”) and רשע “to be guilty, wrong” (+ רָשָׁע “offense”)
- ♦ שלה “to be quiet, at rest” (+ שָׁלוֹם, שָׁלוֹה “quietness, ease”) and שלם “to be healthy, complete,” *hiphil* “to make peace” (+ שְׁלוֹם “welfare, peace”)

Those that correspond in their first and last consonants include:

- ♦ ידה “to cast, throw” and ירה “to cast, throw”<sup>131</sup>
- ♦ ינה “to be violent,” *hiphil* “to oppress” and יגה “to suffer,” *hiphil* “to cause suffering”
- ♦ נהר “to light” (+ נֹהָרָה “light” Job 3:4) and נור in נֵר “light” and מְנוֹרָה “lampstand”
- ♦ נסך “to pour out” and נתך “to pour forth” (+ מסך “to mix, pour”)
- ♦ עלף and עטף “to wrap oneself, to faint”<sup>132</sup>
- ♦ פקח “to open (the eyes)” and פתח “to open.”

Those words whose consonants appear in different places and sequences include:

- ♦ בלע “to swallow” and לעט “to swallow” (Gen 25:30)
- ♦ דָּגָל “banners, division (of tribe)” and פְּלִגָּה/פְּלִגָּה (in 2 Chr 35:5) “subdivision (of family/tribe)”
- ♦ עיף/יעף “to be faint” and עטף “to be faint”
- ♦ קוץ “to loathe” and שקץ *piel* “to detest” (+ שְׁקוּץ “abhorrence,” שֶׁקֶץ “abomination”).<sup>133</sup>

Sometimes semantically similar roots and words contain only approximately similar sounds, as with the words associated with baldness and shaving that begin with a voiced velar consonant (/g/ or /k/) and end with a *khet* (presumably all representing /h/): גִּבְיָה “bald head,” גִּבְיָחַת “bald-

131. Note the possible confusion of ירה for ידה in 4Q169 (4QpNah) 3–4 IV, 2, listed by HALOT.

132. Note also עטה “to wrap oneself.” The *ayin* in עטה and עלף may represent /ġ/, while the *ayin* in עטף may represent /ʿ/.

133. The verb קצף “to be furious” seems semantically and phonetically close to קוץ/שקץ (note also קוט “to loathe”). Note the antonymous relationships between כרה “to purchase” and מכר “to sell”; and נשת “to dry up” and שתה “to drink.”

headed,” קָרַח “bald” (+ קרה *niphal* “to shave one’s head”), and גָּלַח *piel* “to shave” (the head, beard, etc.), the two last roots (קרה/גלח) both containing a liquid as a second root consonant. In a similar way, note the sequence of *nun* followed by a bilabial consonant (/b/, /m/, /p/) in the verbs related to blowing and breathing: נָפַח “to breathe, blow”; נִפַּח *niphal* “to breathe”; נָשַׁב “to blow”; נָשַׁם “to breathe, pant”; נָשַׁף “to blow.”<sup>134</sup> Words associated with binding and restraining often contain a sibilant and *resh*, as in אָזַר “to gird on”; אָסַר “to bind”; עָצַר “to restrain, lock up”; צָרַר/צָוַר “to bind, restrict.” Verbs that indicate languishing, drying out, weakening often have a *lamed* accompanied by a bilabial and/or an *aleph*: אָבַל “to languish”; אָמַל “to languish” (אָמַלָּל *pulal*); בָּלָה “to be worn out”; לָאָה “to languish”; נָבַל “to languish, wither.”

As with the other roots and words listed above, the relevant letters can occur in any order. Note in particular the set of words connected to hiding: טָמַן “to hide” (+ מְטֵמוֹן “treasure”) and צָפַן “to hide” (+ שָׁפֹן/סָפֹן “to cover, hide”); and the words related to flowing: נָהַר *niphal* “to flow”; נָהַר “to flow, stream” (+ נָהָר “river”); נָזַל “to flow, drip”; נָחַל “wadi.”<sup>135</sup> Certain relationships will no doubt already be familiar to the student, as with הָיָה “to be”

134. Another word of the same semantic field is expressed with similar sounds: שָׂאָה “to gasp, pant.”

135. Note also the initial-*nun* verbs נָבַע “to flow” and נָזַח “to spurt.” Note the initial *khet* (the exact realization of which is often obscure) followed by a final *resh* in verbs denoting searching and digging: חָפַר “to dig, search for”; חָקַר “to search, examine”; חָתַר “to dig, row” (+ note the similarity with חָפַשׁ “to search for, examine”). Note too אָיַל “ram” and יָעַל “mountain goat”; הָפַךְ “to turn, change” and חָלַף “to pass away,” *hiphil* “to change”; צָעַק/זָעַק “to cry out” (+ צָעָקָה/זָעָקָה “cry”) and שָׁוַע *piel* “to cry out” (+ שָׁוָעָה “cry”); חָבַק “to embrace” and חָשַׁק “to be attached to = to love” (cf. Aram. חָשַׁק “to saddle”); כָּרַע “to bow down” and קָרַס “to bend”; כָּרַת “to cut” and קָרַע “to tear”; מָאָס “to reject” and נָאָץ “to spurn”; מָסַךְ “to mix, pour,” נָסַךְ “to pour out,” נָתַךְ “to pour forth,” סָוַךְ “to anoint oneself,” and צָוַק “to melt, pour out” (+ מְצֹוֹק “molten pillar”); נָגַע “reach, attain”; נָגַשׁ “to approach,” נָשַׁג “to reach, attain”; סָכַן or סָכָן or סָכָן “official” and סָרַן “ruler, tyrant” (+ נְשִׂיאָה “prince”); סָמַל “image, statue” and סָפַסַל “idol, image” and שָׁלַם “image”; צָמַת “to destroy,” *niphal* “to be destroyed” and שָׁמַד *niphal* “to be destroyed,” *hiphil* “to exterminate,” as well as שָׁחַת *niphal* “to be destroyed,” *hiphil* “to annihilate, ruin, destroy”; רוּחַ *pual* “to be wide” (+ רֵוַח “width, space”) and רָחַב “to be broad, wide” (+ רָחַב “wide space,” רָחַב “breadth”); רָמַשׁ “to creep” and שָׂרַץ “to swarm”; שָׂבַע “to be satiated” and שָׂפַק “to be sufficient” (+ שָׂפָק/שָׂפָק “sufficiency”); שָׁקַט “to be quiet” and שָׁתַק “to be silent” (+ perhaps שָׁכַת *hiphil* “to be quiet” Deut 27:9).

and חיה “to live.” Many correspondences have already been listed above in the footnotes (e.g., קבץ, קמץ [plus קָמַץ], and קפץ).<sup>136</sup>

In certain rare cases, correspondences between roots and words may be due to their origin through onomatopoeia, as with רַקַּק/ירק (Lev 15:8) “to spit” and לַקַּק/לעע “to lick up.” Note also the verb לַחַךְ “to lick up” that is a separate root, but similar in sound to לַקַּק.

The benefit to the intermediate student of being at least familiar with some of these sets of words should be obvious. Recognizing the meanings associated with a pair of consonants can help one learn and remember vocabulary, even if not every word of a set is remembered and even if the nuances of particular words are not thrown into relief. We must remember, however, that similarity in sound does not always mean a similarity in meaning.<sup>137</sup>

In addition, being sensitive to these groups of related words helps us understand the biblical text. The similarities between these words were not ignored by the ancient writers, who sometimes used these words together, as with כָּרַע “to bow down” and קָרַס “to bend” in Isa 46:1, 2. In other passages, the similarities between the various roots seem to have led to confusion. In 2 Kgs 17:21, we find the form וַיִּדָּא, which reflects a *ketiv/qere* distinction. The *ketiv* reflects the root נָדָא, an otherwise unknown byform of נָדָה (which appears in the *piel* “to drive away, postpone” only twice, Isa

136. Even more vague associations can be noticed. E.g., note the numerous verbs having to do with breaking or shattering that involve a *tsade* as a final root consonant: נָפַץ “to smash”; נָחַץ “to tear down”; פָּצַץ “to break into pieces”; פָּרַץ “to break”; רָעַץ “to destroy”; רָצַץ “to oppress, smash” or words connected to dripping that end with a *pe*: דָּלַף “to leak, shed (tears)”; וִרְדִּיף “drop” (Ps 72:6); נָטַף “to drip”; עָרַף “to drip”; רָעַף “to drip.” Note the number of verbs denoting opening the lips or mouth that begin with a *pe*: פָּטַר “to escape,” *hiphil* “to open (lips)”; פָּעַר “to open (the mouth)”; פָּצַח “to open (the mouth)”; פָּשַׁח “to spread (the lips).” The examples are easily multiplied. Just among words beginning with *tsade*, note the numerous words having to do with dryness: צִיָּה “dryness”; צָחָה “parched”; צָמָא “to be thirsty”; צָמַק “to dry up” (Hos 9:14; + צָמוּק “raisins”); perhaps also צָנַם “to be dried out” (? Gen 41:23); and the numerous words having to do with screaming (with a guttural following the *tsade*): צָהַל “to cry out, rejoice”; צוּחַ “to cry out” (Isa 42:11; + צוּחָה “cry”); צָחַק “to laugh” [cf. שָׁחַק “to laugh”]; צָרַח “to shriek”; צָעַק “to cry out” (+ צָעָקָה “cry”).

137. Sometimes it seems even lexicographers were influenced by the similarity in sound. So, e.g., BDB glosses נָגַן as “touch (strings), play a stringed instrument,” just before the more common verb נָגַע “to touch,” though HALOT glosses the former as simply “to play a stringed instrument.” No evidence is presented in BDB to explain the gloss “touch.”

66:5; Amos 6:3), while the *qere* (together with the ancient translations) reflects the more common verb נָדַח in the *hiphil* “to expel.”

## 2.10. Variation of Orthography and Pronunciation within Roots and Words

Some of the examples from preceding sections may be due to a particular scribe’s or author’s personal predilections, the peculiar ways that one scribe or author wrote or pronounced Hebrew. In some cases these may reflect dialectal peculiarities. Although both זָעַק and צָעַק (“to cry out”) occur throughout the Bible, זָעַק appears just once in the Pentateuch, but six times in Nehemiah and 1–2 Chronicles, as well as throughout the DSS; צָעַק occurs, on the other hand, over fifteen times in the Pentateuch, but just twice in Nehemiah and 1–2 Chronicles and never in the nonbiblical DSS; זָעַק can safely be considered characteristic of LBH.<sup>138</sup>

Some variations in spelling/pronunciation no doubt reflect simple scribal mistakes. These are clearest where a particular spelling does not make sense as with Hos 5:11: צֹו “commandment (?)” for שֹׁו\* “something worthless”<sup>139</sup> and הָאֵהָל in (1 Kgs 7:45), the *ketiv* reflecting “the tent” (= הָאֵהָל\*), which makes no sense, and the *qere* reflecting “these” (= הָאֵלֶּה\*).<sup>140</sup> Often, the scribal mistakes mirror phenomena described above. Thus, שֹׁו versus שֹׁו\* is similar to the variation between sibilants; the *ketiv* and *qere* alternatives in הָאֵהָל reflects metathesis of the *he* and *lamed*. In some cases, determining what is a scribal mistake from what is a true trait of a dialect or register of the language can be hard. Note, for example, the single instance of the root זָעַךְ, thus: נִזְעְכוּ “they are extinguished” (Job 17:1). Is this root truly a byform of דָּעַךְ “to extinguish” or is it a simple mistake?

In other cases, the evidence from the MT and DSS seems to suggest that variations in the orthography/pronunciation reflect developments in the language during the course of the first millennium BCE. A particularly clear example of this is the cases where *aleph* replaces an etymological *vav*

138. See Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 188; Kutscher, *Isaiah Scroll*, 34. For a lengthy description of these byforms, see Hornkohl, *Ancient Hebrew Periodization*, 78–82.

139. Friedrich Delitzsch, *Die Lese- und Schreibfehler im Alten Testament* (Berlin: de Gruyter, 1920), 125. Note also לָהֵשִׁיב “to return” in 2 Sam 8:3 for presumably לְהָצִיב as found in 1 Chr 18:3 and with velar consonants וַיִּצְקוּ “they poured” in 2 Sam 15:24 for וַיִּצְגּוּ “they set” (ibid.).

140. Emanuel Tov, *Textual Criticism of the Hebrew Bible*, 3rd rev. ed. (Minneapolis: Fortress, 2012), 233.

or *yod*, as with פָּתִי “simple” in the plural: פְּתָאִים “simple” Ps 116:6 and passim (the *ketiv* presuming *ptā'im* < \**patā'im* and the *qere* presuming *ptāyim* < \**patāyim* [cf. פְּתָיִים in Ps 119:130]);<sup>141</sup> נָאוֹת “pasture of” (Ps 23:2) and passim instead of נֹות (Zeph 2:6). This kind of dissimilation may also appear in תִּתְּאוּ “you will mark” (in Num 34:7, 8) (as though from תָּאוָה) for תִּתְּנוּ\* “you will mark” (from תוה).<sup>142</sup> In other words, etymological *vav* and *yod* were replaced by a glottal stop in certain positions within words. Words in which this took place were spelled with *aleph* in the Second Temple era and this was preserved in the consonantal text of the MT. On the other hand, the oral tradition known to the Masoretes either preserved the earlier articulation of these words with *vav/yod* or it revocalized these words according to their perceived etymology. The reverse phenomenon, of *vav* or *yod* appearing for etymological *aleph*, is rarer: דֹּעַג “Doeg” (in Ps 52:2) instead of דֹּיִג (in 1 Sam 22:18); and רִבְאוֹת “ten thousands” (in Dan 11:12 and Ezra 2:69) for רִבּוֹת\* = \**ribbowot*.<sup>143</sup> In all these cases, the spellings represent phonetic variations of a single root and, so, are usually listed under just one root. Sometimes, however, dictionaries do list the roots separately (as in תאה and תוה).

## 2.11. Chapter Summary

### Historical Details

1. In Classical Hebrew, ח represented two phonemes /ħ/ and /h/; ע represented /ʕ/ and /g/; ש represented /š/ and /s/.
2. Classical Hebrew contained byforms reflecting different PS/PNWS phonemes (e.g., נטר/נצר “to guard”), different root classes (e.g., בזה/בוז “to despise”), and different realizations of a basic sound (e.g., bilabials: נשב/נשף “to blow”).

141. This dissimilation of /y/ > /ʔ/ likely helps preserve the syllable structure of the word (see Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 127–31). Note also חִלָּאִים Song 7:2 for חִלָּיִים\*; and עֲפָאִים Ps 104:12 for עֲפָיִים\*. This phenomenon also occurs with final *yods* that are not part of the root, as with הַהֲגָרִיאִים “the Hagarites” (1 Chr 5:19, 20) for הַהֲגָרִיִּים\*; and הָעֲרָבִיאִים “the Arabians” (2 Chr 17:11) for הָעֲרָבִיִּים\*.

142. Cf. וַיִּתֵּן “he marked” 1 Sam 21:14 (for expected וַיִּתֵּן\*) and וַיִּתֵּן “you set a mark” Ezek 9:4.

143. See Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 123–24. Note also דָּנִיֵּאל < \**dāniyyēl*/\**dāniyēl* “Daniel” Ezra 8:2 and passim vs. דָּנְאֵל < \**dānī'ēl* in Ezek 14:14 and passim.

3. Classical Hebrew often expressed a common idea through similar sounding but etymologically distinct roots (e.g., the words having to do with spreading, dividing, tearing that begin with *pe-resh*).

### Learning Tips

1. Memorize weak roots together in order to remember their similarities and disparities (e.g., בּוֹזַה/בוֹז means “to despise,” but בּוֹז means “to plunder”).
2. Memorize the most common examples of alternation between similarly articulated consonants (e.g., צַעַק/זַעַק “to cry out”; /צַעִיר/זַעִיר “little”; דָּךְ “crushed,” דָּק “thin, small, fine,” and רָק “thin”; זָכַךְ “to be pure” and זָקַק “to refine”; אָדַר/הָדַר *niphal* “be glorious/honored”; אָזַן “power, wealth” and הָוֵן “wealth”).
3. Memorize the most common examples of metathesis that result in new words (i.e., בִּלְהָה/בִּלְהָה “terror, calamity”; יָזַעָה/יָזַעָה “terror”; כָּבַשׁ/כָּבַשָׁה and כָּשָׁב/כָּשָׁבָה “lamb”; אָנַק/נָאֵק “to groan” [+ אָנָקָה/נָאֵקָה “groan”]; שָׁלַמָה/שָׁלְמָה “garment”).
4. Use the similarities between the sounds of words to help remember rarer words one encounters while reading (e.g., פָּזַר/פָּזַר *piel* “to scatter”; קָרַח *niphal* “to shave one’s head”; and גָּלַח *piel* “to shave” [the head, beard, etc.]). This is particularly useful when you know one of the words already.
5. Memorize, when practical, the sequences of letters and their semantic associations (e.g., *pe-resh*: spreading, dividing, tearing).





## Phonology of Ancient Hebrew: Vowels

As is the case with the consonants, the vowels of Biblical Hebrew differed in their articulation in different eras. However, the historical development of the vowels is more complex than that of the consonants. We begin with the vowels of the Tiberian tradition, then move backward in time to the vowels likely present at circa 200 BCE–100 CE and the correspondences between all these later vowels and the much earlier PS/PNWS set of vowels.

As stated in the preface, the central focus of this study is a form of Biblical Hebrew in Second Temple times that is an ancestor to THT. Although it may seem merely speculative to attempt to reconstruct the vocalic dimension of BH for a period in which vowels were not explicitly or consistently committed to writing, I believe it is useful. Tracing the possible development of vowels provokes us to think about the language's evolution at this crucial period of its history with more precision. Moreover, identifying common vocalic shifts allows us to perceive the underlying similarities between sets of words that we would otherwise not associate with each other. This, in turn, can make their memorization easier.

Several matters should be explained before going further. In relation to vowels, we will distinguish two general characteristics: quality and length. Quality refers to the character of the sound as determined by the manipulation of the tongue, lips, and mouth. The /i/, for example, is produced with the tongue pushed up, toward the roof of the mouth, while the /a/ is produced with the tongue low, where it usually rests. Length refers to the duration of the sound, that is, the length of time it is pronounced.<sup>1</sup> In other words, a long /ī/ has the same place of articulation in the mouth as

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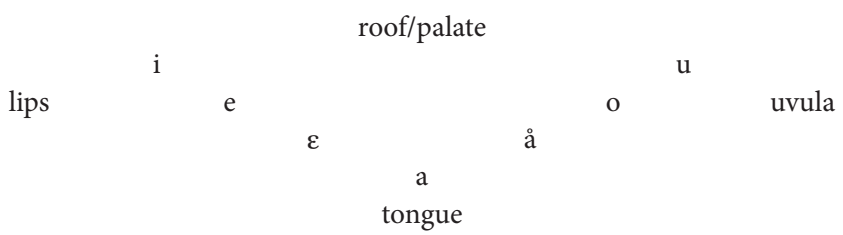
1. This is slightly different from how the term is used in primary and secondary education (in the USA), where a “short vowel” often has an entirely different manner of articulation than the same vowel when it is “long” (e.g., the “short a” in “bat” = IPA [bæt] tongue low vs. the “long a” in “ape” = IPA [eɪp] tongue slightly raised).

a short /i/, but the long /ī/ is pronounced for a longer time. Usually a long vowel is indicated with a macron (e.g., /ī/); another way of transliterating a long vowel is with the “:” symbol used with IPA symbols: /ī/ = [i:].

As just mentioned, the pronunciation of /a/ requires the tongue to lie flat, at the bottom of the mouth. The mouth is relatively open in the pronunciation of this vowel. Thus, the /a/ is often characterized as a low or open vowel. An /i/ or /u/ requires the tongue to be raised toward the roof of the mouth. Furthermore, the /i/ is produced with the tongue pressed toward the top front of the mouth and the /u/ with the tongue pressed toward the top back. The /i/ and /u/ are both high vowels, the /i/ being a high front vowel and the /u/ a high back vowel.<sup>2</sup> The common place of articulation of /i/ and /u/ means that they often will behave in a similar way, unlike the /a/ vowel. Vowels that are articulated with the tongue half-way between the bottom and roof of the mouth are called midvowels and can be described in relative terms to each other. For example, the sound of /e/ (IPA [e]; the “e” in “hey”) is higher than /ɛ/ (IPA [ɛ]; the “e” in “pet”); similarly, /o/ is higher than /a/ and lower than /u/. In Hebrew, there is evidence not only of the lengthening of vowels (e.g., \*/a/ > \*/ā/), but also of the lowering of vowels (i.e., \*/i/ > /e/, \*/i/ > /ɛ/, and \*/u/ > /o/), as explained below.

The relative place of articulation for the vowels of BH is represented in the chart below.

Table 3.1. Place of Articulation for the Vowels of Biblical Hebrew



2. In addition, it is common to see references to these vowels (/i/ and /u/) as “close” vowels, meaning that the tongue is pressed close to the roof of the mouth. This is a somewhat confusing term since, in relation to vowels, we often refer to closed syllables. In any case, “close” is the opposite of “open.”

There are three /i/-class vowels: /i/, /e/, and /ɛ/; one /a/-class vowel: /a/; and three /u/-class vowels: /u/, /o/, and /ʊ/.

It is also important to acknowledge here the place of the accent or tone in Hebrew words. As described below, the place of a syllable in relation to the accent or tone has a direct bearing on how the vowels of that syllable developed. The identification of the tonic syllable below will be based on the place of stress as implied in THT. Typically, the last syllable of an absolute noun is the tonic syllable in THT (e.g., \**dābār* “word” [> דָּבָר]). One apparent exception is the segolate nouns (in the absolute singular) that appear penultimately stressed (e.g., מֶלֶךְ “king”).<sup>3</sup> But, this is misleading. The second *segol* in מֶלֶךְ is an epenthetic vowel and, according to the Masoretic conception, it does not constitute its own syllable; thus, the word מֶלֶךְ = *melk* does not reflect an exception to the general rule.

The last syllable of many verbal forms is also accented in THT:

- ♦ the third-person forms of the *qāṭal* (e.g., \**kātab* [> כָּתַב] “he wrote,” \**kātabā* [> כָּתְבָה] “she wrote,” \**kātabū* [> כָּתְבוּ] “they wrote”)
- ♦ all forms of the *yiqṭol* except the third- and second-person feminine plurals (e.g., \**yiktob* [> יִכְתֹּב] “he will write,” \**yiktabū* [> יִכְתְּבוּ] “they will write”)
- ♦ all forms of the imperative except the feminine plural (e.g., \**katob* [> כָּתֹב] “write!,” \**kitbū* [> כָּתְבוּ] “write!”)
- ♦ infinitives (e.g., \**katōb* [> כָּתֹב] “writing” and \**kātōb* [> כָּתוּב] “write”)
- ♦ participles (e.g., \**kōtēb* [> כֹּתֵב] “one writing”).

On the other hand, most second- and first-person *qāṭal* verbs are penultimately stressed (e.g., \**kātabtā* [> כָּתַבְתָּ] “you wrote” and \**kātabtī* [> כָּתַבְתִּי] “I wrote”).

As for construct forms, no syllable is considered tonic (though in THT construct forms are supplied with accent/cantillation marks). Nor is

3. Note that in singular nouns with pronominal suffixes the final syllable is usually accented (e.g., \**dabārī* [> דָּבָרִי], \**dabārō* [> דָּבָרוֹ], \**dabārāh* [> דָּבָרָהּ], versus \**dabārēnū* [> דָּבָרֵינוּ]). In plural nouns with pronominal suffixes, the penultimate syllable is often accented, though not exclusively (e.g., \**dabārekā* [> דָּבָרֶיךָ], \**dabārehā* [> דָּבָרֶיהָ], \**dabārēnū* [> דָּבָרֵינוּ] versus \**dabāray* [> דָּבָרַי], \**dabārāw* [> דָּבָרָיו], \**dibrēkem* [> דִּבְרֵיכֶם]).

any considered pretonic, even if the noun following the construct form is accented on its first syllable.

An important source of information on the vowels is that provided by the transcriptions of Hebrew words in the LXX and in the second column of Origen's Hexapla. The words transcribed in the LXX are generally names, but some common nouns are also transcribed. Since such transcriptions were not governed by standard rules of grammar, they were easily misspelled in the course of the LXX's transmission.<sup>4</sup> The second column of Origen's six-column Hexapla is conventionally referred to as the *Secunda*. It was a full transcription of the Hebrew Bible into Greek letters. The multi-volume Hexapla is now lost. The *Secunda*, itself, exists only in extremely small fragments and in a medieval palimpsest that preserves portions of only some transcriptions of a few psalms.<sup>5</sup>

Although the *Secunda* is commonly associated with Origen and although it formed the second column of his Hexapla, he is not necessarily its author. This is implied especially by the fact that the values of the Greek letters do not seem to match the pronunciation of Greek letters at the time of Origen, in the first half of the third century CE.<sup>6</sup> At this time, for example, the *ēta* (η) was pronounced as /i/; this value for *ēta* is calculated to have become dominant in the literary register already by circa 150 CE.<sup>7</sup> This is clearly not what the *Secunda* presupposes. The Greek transcription of the Hebrew preserved in the *Secunda* seems to presuppose, in fact, a version of Greek pronunciation that dates no later than the first century CE.<sup>8</sup> In earlier Greek, including at the time of the LXX translation of Genesis, the

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4. See Yuditsky, "Transcriptions into Greek and Latin Scripts," 3:803.

5. See G. Mercati, *Psalterii Hexapli Reliquiae, pars, prima, Codex rescriptus Bybliothecae Ambrosianae O. 39 SVP: Phototypice expressus et transcriptus*. Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1958; and Alexey Yuditsky's new readings ("New Readings of MS O39 from the Ambrosian Library" [Heb.], *Leshonenu* 68 [2008]: 63–71). In addition, note the fragments, e.g., in C. Taylor, *Hebrew-Greek Cairo Genizah Palimpsests from the Taylor-Schechter Collections, Including a Fragment of the Twenty-Second Psalm according to Origen's Hexapla* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1900), 10–11.

6. See Janssens, *Studies in Hebrew Historical Linguistics*, 20.

7. See W. Sidney Allen, *Vox Graeca*, 3rd ed. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987), 63–64, 70–71.

8. Allen (*Vox*, 74) notes that Dionysius of Halicarnassus distinguishes *ēta* from *iōta* in the first century BCE.

*ēta* represented a long /ē/.<sup>9</sup> But, presumably in the following centuries (up to ca. 100 CE), the *ēta* moved closer in articulation to /ē/, on its way to being pronounced as /ī/.<sup>10</sup> As for *epsilon*, we assume a pronunciation /e/ (IPA [e]), meaning that in the Secunda *ēta* and *epsilon* were distinct primarily in length.<sup>11</sup> This distinction, however, does not necessarily reflect the vowels of the Hebrew tradition that the Secunda seeks to transcribe.

In what follows I often assume that the underlying Hebrew midvowel to which the *ēta* corresponds is /ē/ and the underlying vowels to which the *epsilon* corresponds are /e/ and /ε/.<sup>12</sup> More generally, I assume that the Hebrew pronunciation that the Secunda attempts to render is contemporary with the pronunciation of Greek letters implied by it (i.e., ca. 100 BCE–100 CE). It should be admitted here that although we will rely on the Greek transcriptions to inform our understanding of the development of Hebrew, they do not represent the direct antecedent to THT; rather, each exists as an independent tradition.

### 3.1. Tiberian Biblical Hebrew Vowels

The vowel phonemes known from Tiberian Biblical Hebrew (dating to ca. 800 CE) are listed below in the chart.<sup>13</sup> Each vowel's approximate pronun-

9. Geoffrey Khan, "The Historical Background of the Vowel *šere* in Some Hebrew Verbal and Nominal Forms," *BSOAS* 57 (1994): 135–37, esp. 136 n. 14.

10. *Ibid.*, 137.

11. Khan (*ibid.*) notes that in the Secunda *epsilon* "was pronounced [e]." Khan (141) cautions not to assume that the Secunda tradition is the "direct forbear of the medieval Tiberian pronunciation tradition" and notes that it is not clear whether the shift in quality that resulted in two /i/-class vowels, /ε/ and /e/, is evidenced in the Secunda. As stated above, I assume for this study that *ēta* and *epsilon* were distinct in quantity, not quality.

12. The *epsilon* also occurs where I assume a sophisticated pronunciation of Second Temple Hebrew had /i/ (e.g., *νεβαλ* "one terrified" Ps 30:8, cf. נִבְהַל; *βερεθεθ* "in my descent" Ps 30:10, cf. בְּרִדְהִי; *ισμωρου* "they will guard" Ps 89:32 cf. [pausal] יִשְׁמְרוּ); for the examples, see Alexy Eliyahu Yuditsky, "Hebrew in Greek and Latin Transcriptions," *HBH* 1:111 and Einar Brønno, *Studien über Hebräische Morphologie und Vokalismus auf Grundlage der mercatischen Fragmente der zweiten Kolumne der Hexapla des Origenes*, AKM 28 (Leipzig: Brockhaus, 1943), 35. As in the penultimate example, *epsilon* even appears where THT lacks a vowel.

13. See Khan, "Tiberian Pronunciation Tradition," 13–23.

ciation is made clear to us by the medieval Hebrew grammarians.<sup>14</sup> The phonemes are listed according to their place of articulation, beginning in the front of the mouth and working backward toward the throat.

Table 3.2. Vocalic Phonemes of Tiberian Biblical Hebrew

Name of Vowel Symbols	Phonemes of (Tiberian) Biblical Hebrew, ca. 800 CE	Common Transliteration	<i>matres</i> typical of the MT	Contemporary USA Classroom Pronunciation
<i>hireq</i>	i “ski”	i or ī	(י)	i and ī “ski/hit”
<i>tsere</i>	e “hey”	ē	(י)/(ה)	e
<i>shewa</i>	-	- and ə		- and ə
<i>segol</i>	ε “pet”	e	(ה)	ε and e
<i>patakh</i>	a	a		a or α
<i>qamets</i>	ā [IPA ɔ] “paw”	ā or o	(ה)	a or o
<i>holem</i>	o	ō	(י)	o
<i>shureq</i>	u	ū	י	u
<i>qibbuts</i>	u	u (and ū)		u

The symbols used to represent the sounds seem mostly self-explanatory, but this is somewhat deceiving. One should note the values described below. Of the symbols that might be unfamiliar, note that the “ā” and “ɔ” symbols represent the “aw” sound in the North American pronunciation of the word “paw” (i.e., IPA [pɔ]). The two symbols “a” and “α” represent two slightly distinct sounds, the first heard in the British pronunciation of “handle” and the second in the pronunciation of the word “car.”<sup>15</sup> The “ε” symbol represents the “e” in “pet” (IPA [pɛt]), while the “e” represents the sound of “e” in “hey” (IPA [heɪ]). The *shewa* symbol, “ə”, represents a muttered vowel; when pronounced by the Masoretes it was articulated as /a/.<sup>16</sup> The IPA [ɪ] symbol represents the sound of “i” in the word “hit.” The symbol “i” in the chart, however, represents a different sound, the sound

14. Ibid. See also Geoffrey Khan, “Karaite Transcriptions of Biblical Hebrew,” *HBH* 1:147–60.

15. See *OED*, s.v.

16. See Geoffrey Khan, “Shewa: Pre-Modern Hebrew,” *EHLL* 3:544.

of “i” in the English word “ski” (IPA [ski]) and the sound of “ee” in “street” (IPA [strit]).<sup>17</sup>

In the above chart, one will notice that for the Tiberian Masoretes there was no significant distinction between long and short vowels. The *qamets* did not represent a long /ā/ sound, but rather the sound of /ā/ (= the “aw” in “paw”). Thus, the distinction between *qamets* and *patakh* was not one between long and short /a/, but between /ā/ and /a/, sounds that are made in different parts of the mouth.<sup>18</sup> This was even the case where *qamets* corresponds to a historical short /u/, as in the word חֵכְמָה = *ḥākma* (< \**ḥukmatu*) “wisdom.”

Although it is true that depending on its place in a word, a vowel might have been pronounced for a longer or shorter time, vowel length was generally not used to distinguish different words.<sup>19</sup> This is one major distinction between the Hebrew of the Tiberian Masoretes and earlier Hebrew. In the earlier phases of Hebrew (including the dialect of Canaanite that became Hebrew), a word or form with a long vowel would mean something different from a word or form with a corresponding short vowel. For example, the base \**qatil* would imply an adjectival form while the base \**qātil* would imply a participle (often a substantivized verbal adjective). Thus, \**āminu* (> \**āmēn* > אָמֵן “truly”) would have been distinct from \**āminu* (> \**ōmēn* > אֹמֵן “foster-father”). Similarly, even in later, Second Temple times, the length of a vowel could imply a different sense for a word, as is presumed based on distinctions like \**dām* (> דָּם) “blood” and \**dam* (> דֶּם) “blood

17. For audio examples, see the website <https://web.uvic.ca/ling/resources/ipa/charts/IPAlab/IPAlab.htm> from the University of Victoria (British Columbia).

18. Similarly, the difference between *segol* and *tserē* is not the difference between short and long /e/, but rather a difference in the quality of vowels.

19. Khan, “Tiberian Pronunciation Tradition,” 14–15. Note one possible exception: אָכַלָה “food” and אֹכַלָה “she ate” (see *ibid.*, 20). In the Tiberian tradition, length was based, in part, on where the vowel occurred in a word. In a tonic syllable, the short vowels /i/, /ε/, /a/, and /u/ became long (i.e., IPA [i:], [ε:], [a:], [u:]). A similar thing happened when the following letter was a guttural or a *yod*, *lamed*, or *nun*. It should be emphasized, however, that although the pronunciation was lengthened, the symbol associated with the vowel remained the same. That is, a lengthened /a/ was still written with a *patakh*. Although the length of vowels was not commonly used to differentiate meaning, Khan does note that to discern the underlying phonological system of THT, one must discriminate between long vowels that are “invariably long” and those only long due to where they occur in a word. See Khan, “Vowel Length: Biblical Hebrew,” *EHL* 3:981–85.

of.”<sup>20</sup> For the Tiberian Masoretes, however, these words and forms were distinguished especially by the different qualities of vowel: *’āmen* versus *’omen* and *dām* versus *dam*. The loss of vowel length as a meaningful characteristic seems to have taken place sometime near the middle of the first millennium CE, just prior to the time of the Masoretes, as implied by the fact that Jerome testifies to the existence of distinctions between vowel length.<sup>21</sup>

Several other details of the above chart deserve attention. Note the disparity between the phoneme marked by *segol* in Tiberian Hebrew and the manner in which it is commonly transliterated. The common transliteration of *segol*, as “e,” partially masks the fact that the vowel for the Tiberian Masoretes (/ɛ/) was qualitatively different from *tsere* (/e/); at the time of the Masoretes, the two vowels were made in distinct parts of the mouth (/e/ is pronounced with the tongue more raised than in the pronunciation of /ɛ/). Despite their common transliteration by a single Roman letter, the two vowels (*segol* and *tsere*) are often distinguished in the classroom, corresponding with the basic phonemes of the Tiberian Masoretes.<sup>22</sup>

A similar disparity relates to the *qamets*. The vowel marked by the *qamets* in THT (/ā/ = IPA [ɔ]) is distinct in its quality from the vowel implied by its common manner of transliteration (i.e., /ā/ or /o/), not to mention how it is usually pronounced in the classroom. The distinction between /a/ and /o/ in the modern classroom derives from contemporary Modern Israeli Hebrew, which descends ultimately from Sephardic tradition.<sup>23</sup> Although this differs from the tradition of the Tiberian Masoretes, the distinction between a *qamets* that sounds like /a/ and a *qamets* that sounds like /o/ does have a legitimate BH pedigree, as described below.

Finally, notice that for the Masoretes the absence of a vowel and the presence of a muttered vowel (i.e., a *shewa* vowel) were, according to their system, phonologically identical.<sup>24</sup> Although the Masoretes, according to their own descriptions, pronounced a muttered vowel (phonetically [a]),

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20. The distinction in length may be reflected in the Secunda where יִדְּ is transcribed ιαδω (Ps 89:26) and יִדְּ is transcribed βιεδ (Ps 31:9). The Greek letter *epsilon* in the Secunda sometimes corresponds to *patakh* in THT, but not to *qamets*.

21. See Tapani Harviainen, “Transcription into Latin Script: Jerome,” *EHL* 3:823.

22. Though etymological III-*vav/yod* roots that end in *segol* are routinely pronounced as if they contained *tsere*.

23. See Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 109.

24. Khan, “Shewa,” 3:544.



they did not conceive of this vowel as part of a separate syllable. It represented essentially an epenthetic vowel, that is, a vowel secondarily inserted into the word, not unlike a furtive *patakh* (on which, see below).<sup>25</sup> Where the *shewa* would be pronounced after a guttural it had a specific quality (indicated through the *khatef*-vowels, also called composite vowels: *khatef-patakh*, *khatef-segol*, *khatef-qamets*). But, such a vowel was not part of its own syllable. For this reason, these vowels are not typically indicated in this book in the transliteration of words in THT.

If an /i/-class or /u/-class vowel precedes a guttural at the end of the word, often a *patakh* will appear between this vowel and the following guttural (e.g., גִּבִּיט “bowl,” and רוּחַ “spirit”). This is the furtive *patakh*. Here, again, the vowel did not initiate a new syllable (and is ignored in transliteration).<sup>26</sup>

The reason that we do not follow the Tiberian Masoretic pronunciation model more closely in our classrooms is not only due to the influence from the pronunciation of the living, modern language. It is also due to the complexity of the pronunciation tradition. The precise articulation of the Tiberian tradition was even difficult for near contemporaries of the Masoretes to master.<sup>27</sup>

Here, it should be remarked again that the Tiberian pronunciation represents only one tradition among many. As mentioned before, the Babylonian and Palestinian traditions both differ from the Tiberian in various ways.<sup>28</sup> For example, the Babylonian and Palestinian have no vowel symbol corresponding to THT *segol*.<sup>29</sup> Furthermore, the various transcriptions into Greek and Latin do not correspond exactly with the Tiberian tradition, each transcribed text exhibiting its own peculiarities.

25. Ibid.; Khan, “Syllable Structure,” 3:666.

26. The furtive *patakh* is not attested in the Secunda, though it does seem to be reflected in transcriptions in the LXX (like νοε for נֹחַ “Noah” Gen 5:29) (Yuditsky, “Transcription into Greek and Latin Script,” 3:805).

27. See Khan, “Tiberian Reading Tradition,” 3:770, who writes: “It appears that the Tiberian pronunciation was not fully known even to the medieval grammarians of Spain ... (eleventh century C.E.).”

28. See Khan, “Biblical Hebrew: Pronunciation Traditions,” 1:341–52; Heijmans, “Babylonian Tradition,” 1:133–45; Yahalom, “Palestinian Tradition,” 1:161–73; Gzella, “Tiberian-Palestinian Tradition,” 1:175–85.

29. The Palestinian tradition has a single symbol to mark what are in THT /ε/ and /e/, while the Babylonian has a single symbol to mark what are in THT /ε/ and /a/.

### 3.2. Classical Biblical Hebrew Vowels

The documentation of vowels for the early periods of Biblical Hebrew is complicated by the fact that the orthography did not typically indicate vowels in the interior of words. What we assume about these early eras (e.g., ca. 800 BCE) is in large measure based on historical reconstruction of the language. In the early part of the first millennium BCE, when many of the early biblical texts were first composed, it is assumed that Hebrew had the same vowels as in PNWS, in addition to a few others (e.g., /ē/, /ō/) which emerged due to various linguistic developments described below. Still, it is hard to say anything definite about the nature of vowels in this era due to the lack of evidence.

Toward the end of the first millennium BCE, the inventory would have been slightly larger.<sup>30</sup> The chart on page 71 contrasts the PS/PNWS vowels with the corresponding vowels presumed for Hebrew at circa 200 BCE–100 CE, when we have a slightly better guess as to their articulation. In this chart, the historical long vowels and their reflexes are listed first and then the short vowels.<sup>31</sup>

The vowels of PS/PNWS are assumed based on comparative evidence (e.g., Ugaritic and Arabic) and historical reconstruction.<sup>32</sup> The vowels of Hebrew from circa 200 BCE–100 CE are based on, among other things, historical considerations, spellings in the DSS, transcriptions in Greek, and later pronunciation traditions. Given the nature of this evidence (which is often contradictory), the isolation of individual phonemes is difficult. For example, it is unclear to what degree the various vowels were allophones of each other. Was /e/ simply an allophone of /ε/? Or, was /ε/ an allophone of /a/?<sup>33</sup> Was there, in addition to the short midvowel /ε/, perhaps also /ē/?

The sequence of vowels for the late Second Temple era listed in the table below is one less than the sequence sometimes assumed for pre-Masoretic Hebrew. The vowel /ē/ may have existed as a reflex of certain

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30. We assume, e.g., that vowel reduction had not taken place in the earlier period.

31. Some ambiguity pertains to some of the vowels in the second column; see below. Column 3 is informed by but not identical to the chart in Yuditsky, “Hebrew in Greek and Latin Transcriptions,” 1:103. For a summary of correspondences between the vowels of the Secunda and those of THT, see Brønno, *Studien*, 453–63.

32. See, e.g., Huehnergard, “Afro-Asiatic,” 142–43; Kogan, “Proto-Semitic Phonetics and Phonology,” 119.

33. See Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 113.

Table 3.3. Vowels of Biblical Hebrew

Phonemes of PS/ PNWS	Vowels of Bibli- cal Hebrew, ca. 200 BCE–100 CE	<i>Common Real- ization in the Secunda</i>	Phonemes of (Tiberian) Biblical Hebrew, ca. 800 CE	Name of Vowel Symbol	Contemporary USA Classroom Pronunciation
ī	ī	ι and ει	i	hireq	i
	ā	ω	o	holem	o
	ū	ου	u	shureq, qibbuts	u
	- and ə	(ι and ε [ʔ])	-	shewa	- and ə
i	i	ι and ε	i	hireq	i and ι
	ε	ε	ε	segol	ε and e
	e		e	tsere	e
	ē	η			
a	- and ə	(ι and ε [ʔ])	-	shewa	- and ə
	a	α and ε	a	patakh	a
	ā	α	ā [IPA ɔ]	qamets	a or ɑ
	- and ə	(ι and ε [ʔ])	-	shewa	- and ə
u	u	ο	u	qibbuts	u
	o		ā [IPA ɔ]	qamets	o
	ō	ω	o	holem	o

triphthong contractions, especially at the ends of III-*vav/yod* words (e.g., \**yabniyu* > *yibnē* “he will build”).<sup>34</sup> Since the final vowel of such words is represented in the Secunda by a short vowel, *epsilon*, I assume that at some point in the first millennium, the vowel had shortened (i.e., \**yibnē* > *yibne* = יִבְנֶה).

The existence of *shewa* /ə/ (or a muttered vowel) in the Hebrew of the era of circa 200 BCE–100 CE is suggested by numerous pieces of evidence. For the evidence and arguments, see §3.6 below, “Vowel Reduction.”

### 3.3. Developments of Individual Vowels<sup>35</sup>

The hypothetical transformations of the vowels are summarized initially, and then a more detailed presentation is given. Following this, more specific phenomena are described.<sup>36</sup> The goal of the illustrations here and below is not to give the student a comprehensive picture of the development of ancient Hebrew vowels (for which one may consult more in-depth treatments, such as Blau’s *Phonology and Morphology of Biblical Hebrew*), but rather to introduce the student to the basic underlying developments and to give the student the rudimentary framework that will enable them to absorb the language’s morphology and predict the inflection of nouns and verbs. Again, the hypothetical nature of the identification of vowels should be emphasized.

The historical long vowels remained long vowels; their length did not change. Their qualities were, for the most part, also stable over time. The

34. See, e.g., Joseph Lam and Dennis Pardee, “Standard/Classical Biblical Hebrew,” *HBH* 1:8.

35. The earliest forms of nouns and adjectives (including participles and infinitives) reconstructed in this section are represented with word-final historical short vowels; these word-final vowels mark the nominative case in the hypothetical second millennium version of Canaanite (see ch. 4 §2, “Case and Number in Second Millennium Northwest Semitic”).

36. Much of the following chapter, as well as material in chaps. 4–6 is informed by John Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” in Hutton, *Epigraphy, Philology, and the Hebrew Bible*, 25–64; Joshua Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, HSS 52 (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2003); and *HGhS*. In addition, I have benefited from attending historical Hebrew lessons in my training under Dennis Pardee at the University of Chicago and from consulting the unpublished manuscript by Thomas O. Lambdin and John Huehnergard, “The Historical Grammar of Classical Hebrew: An Outline” (2000), as well as earlier realizations of the same manuscript.

vowels /i/ and /ū/ continued to be articulated in the same way from earliest times to latest times in almost every environment (e.g., *\*yamīnu* > *\*yāmīn* [ > יָמִין ] “right hand” and *\*katūbu* > *\*kātūb* [ > כָּתוּב ] “written”). The PS/PNWS *\*/ā/*, however, shifted in quality to *\*/ō/* (e.g., *\*šāpiṭu* > *\*šōpēṭ* [ > שֹׁפֵט ] “judge”). This is called the Canaanite Shift and is described in greater detail below. Even here, the *\*/ō/* that is the result of the Canaanite Shift is very stable; it does not change in length or further alter in its quality (e.g., *\*šōpəṭīm* [ > שֹׁפְטִים ]).

The historical short vowels also evidence stability, but primarily in just one environment. In closed unaccented syllables, the short vowels generally did not change. Short *\*/i/* remained *\*/i/*:

- ♦ *\*ḥiṭṭīma* > *\*ḥiṣṣīm* ( > חִצִּים ) “arrows”
- ♦ *\*sipriyya* > *\*siprī* ( > סִפְרִי ) “my book”
- ♦ *\*dim<sup>c</sup>atu* > *\*dim<sup>c</sup>ā* ( > דִּמְעָה ) “tears.”

Short *\*/a/* remained *\*/a/*:

- ♦ *\*<sup>c</sup>ammīma* > *\*<sup>c</sup>ammīm* ( > עַמִּים ) “peoples”
- ♦ *\*malkatu* > *\*malkā* ( > מַלְכָּה ) “queen.”

Short *\*/u/* remained *\*/u/* before geminated consonants:

- ♦ *\*ḥuqqīma* > *ḥuqqīm* ( > חֻקִּים ) “statutes”
- ♦ *\*muṣṣalu* > *\*muṣṣāl* ( > מֻצָּל ) “one torn out” (*hoph.* part. נִצַּל).

But, in a closed nontonic syllable followed by two different consonants, *\*/u/* lowered to *\*/o/*:

- ♦ *\*ḥukmataha* > *\*ḥokmātāh* ( > חֻכְמַתָּה ) “her wisdom”
- ♦ *\*kulu ha<sup>3</sup>arṣi* > *\*kol hā<sup>3</sup>arṣ* ( > כָּל-הָאָרֶץ ) “all the land.”

In THT, this *\*/o/* lowered further to /ā/ (e.g., *ḥokmātāh* = *ḥākmātāh*).<sup>37</sup> There are some exceptions, but the regularity of these correspondences in closed, unaccented syllables should be noted.

37. For more on this, see §16 below, “Qamets in Tiberian Hebrew Tradition.” See also Joshua Blau, *A Grammar of Biblical Hebrew*, 2nd ed., PLO 12 (Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 1993), 37.

The historical short vowels evidence some consistency in their development based on the type of syllable in which they appear. Three types of syllable can be isolated: what are (in THT) the tonic syllable, the pretonic syllable, and those syllables that are both nontonic and nonpretonic.

1. In a tonic syllable, the historical short vowels usually lengthened and/or lowered in articulation, in both open and closed syllables:<sup>38</sup>

- 1.1. \*/i/ vowel

- 1.1.1. \*/i/ > \*/ē/

- ♦ *\*zaqīnu* > *\*zāqēn* (> זָקֵן) “elder”
- ♦ *\*yiqqahīnī* > *\*yiqqāhēnī* (> יִקְחֵנִי) “he will take me”

- 1.1.2. \*/i/ > \*/e/

- ♦ *\*libbu* > *\*lebb* > *leb* (= לֵב) “heart”
- ♦ *\*kabida* > *\*kabid* > *\*kābed* (> כָּבֵד) “it is heavy”
- ♦ *\*yudabbiru* > *\*yadabber* (> יִדְבֵּר) “he will speak”

- 1.1.3. \*/i/ > \*/ε/

- ♦ *\*qirbu* > *\*qerb* (= קִרְב) “midst”
- ♦ *\*tibtu* > *\*šibt* > *\*šēbt* (= שִׁבַּת) “dwelling” (inf. const. יָשַׁב)
- ♦ *\*yātibtu* > *\*yōšibt* > *\*yōšēbt* (> יוֹשְׁבַת) “one dwelling”

- 1.2. \*/a/ vowel: \*/a/ > \*/ā/

- ♦ *\*dabaru* > *\*dābār* (> דְּבַר) “word”
- ♦ *\*barakatu* > *\*bārākā* (> בִּרְכָה) “blessing”

- 1.3. \*/u/ vowel

- 1.3.1. \*/u/ > \*/ō/

- ♦ *\*gadulu* > *\*gādōl* (> גָּדוֹל) “great”
- ♦ *\*šumuru* > *\*šāmōr* (> שָׁמַר) “guarding” (inf. const.)

- 1.3.2. \*/u/ > \*/o/

- ♦ *\*uzzu* > *\*‘ozz* > *‘oz* (> זֹרַע) “strength”
- ♦ *\*qudšu* > *\*qodš* (> קֹדֶשׁ) “holiness”
- ♦ *\*yašmuru* > *\*yišmur* > *\*yišmor* (> יִשְׁמַר) “he will guard”
- ♦ *\*š(u)mur* > *\*šāmōr* > (> שָׁמַר) “guard!” (impv.).<sup>39</sup>

38. Lowering occurs in the case of an \*/i/ that becomes \*/e/ and a \*/u/ that becomes \*/o/.

39. Note also the verbs of other conjugations: *piel* *\*baqqiṣa* > *\*biqqeš* (> בִּקֵּשׁ) “he sought”; *\*yubaqqiṣu* > *\*yabbaqqeš* (> יִבְקֹשׁ) “he will seek”; *hiphil* *\*hapqida* > *\*hipqīd* (> הִפְקִיד) “he appointed”; *\*yapqidu* > *\*yapqīd* (> יִפְקִיד) “he will appoint”; *\*yapqīd* > *\*yapqed* (> יִפְקֶד) “may he appoint.”

One frequent exception is evident in the forms of *qāṭal* verbs where the /a/ vowel did not lengthen:

- ♦ *\*šamara* > *\*šāmar* (> שָׁמַר) “he guarded”
  - ♦ *\*šamarta* > *\*šāmartā* (> שָׁמַרְתָּ) “you guarded.”
2. In an open pretonic syllable, short \*/i/ and \*/a/ lengthened to \*/ē/ and \*/ā/:
- 2.1. \*/i/ > \*/ē/
- ♦ *\*libabu* > *\*lēbāb* (> לֵבָב) “heart”
  - ♦ *\*kabidīma* > *\*kəbēdīm* (> כְּבִדִּים) “heavy”
  - ♦ *\*hibīna* > *\*hēbīn* (> הֵבִין) “he understood” (*hiphil qāṭal* בִּין)
- 2.2. \*/a/ > \*/ā/
- ♦ *\*dabaru* > *\*dābār* (> דָּבַר) “word”
  - ♦ *\*dabarīma* > *\*dabārīm* (> דְּבָרִים) “words”
  - ♦ *\*dabarahu* > *\*dabarō* > *\*dabārō* (> דִּבְרֹו) “his word”
  - ♦ *\*barakatu* > *\*bərākā* (> בִּרְכָה) “blessing”
  - ♦ *\*barakatiyya* > *\*barakatī* > *\*barkātī* (> בִּרְכָתִי) “my blessing”
  - ♦ *\*šamara* > *\*šamar* > *\*šāmar* (> שָׁמַר) “he guarded”
  - ♦ *\*šamarta* > *\*šāmartā* (> שָׁמַרְתָּ) “you guarded”
  - ♦ *\*šamarti* > *\*šāmart* (> שָׁמַרְתִּי)
  - ♦ *\*šamartu* > *\*šāmartī* (> שָׁמַרְתִּי)
  - ♦ *\*yaqūmu* > *\*yaqūm* > *\*yāqūm* (> יָקוּם) “he will arise”
  - ♦ *\*yabīnu* > *\*yabīn* > *\*yābīn* (> יִבִּין) “he will understand”
  - ♦ *\*laqaḥanī* > *\*ləqāḥanī* (> לָקַחְנִי) “he took me”
  - ♦ *\*yiqqaḥinī* > *\*yiqqāḥēnī* (> יִקְחֵנִי) “he will take me.”<sup>40</sup>

In contrast to \*/i/ and \*/a/, historical short \*/u/ usually reduced in open pretonic syllables:

- 2.3. \*/u/ > \*/ə/ or ø
- ♦ *\*bukuru* > *\*bəkōr* (> בְּכֹר) “firstborn”
  - ♦ *\*mutay* > *\*matē* (> מְתִי) “men of”
  - ♦ *\*yašmurihu* > *\*yišmārēhū* (> יִשְׁמְרֵהוּ) “he will guard him”
  - ♦ *\*šumur* > *\*šāmōr* (> שָׁמַר) “guarding”

40. The above occur in open pretonic syllables. In closed pretonic syllables, the vowel must remain short (as is true for all closed, unaccented syllables), and the quality of the vowel is less likely to change (e.g., *\*šāmartem* [> שָׁמַרְתֶּם]).

- ♦ \**šumurahu* > \**šomrō* (> שְׁמָרוּ) “his guarding.”<sup>41</sup>

The primary exceptions to these tendencies occur where a short \*/i/ is preceded by a syllable that is closed or that contains a historical long vowel that does not reduce. In these cases, the /i/ reduces to *shewa* or elides:

- ♦ \**šāpiṭima* > \**šōpiṭim* > \**šōpaṭim* (> שֹׁפְטִים) “judges”
- ♦ \**wayyittinihū* > \**wayyittānehū* (> וַיִּתְּנֵהוּ)
- ♦ \**wayyubaqṣihū* > \**waybaqṣēhū* (> וַיִּבְקֹשֶׁהוּ) “he sought him.”

In other cases, the reduction of the pretonic vowel seems to be the result of the shifting place of stress in the verb.<sup>42</sup> Note that the stem vowel in *qāṭal* and *yiqtol* verb forms reduces or elides where the stem is followed by a single vowel morpheme (e.g., \*-ī, \*-ā, \*-ū):

- ♦ \**šamarat* > \**šāmarā* > \**šāmārā* (> שָׁמְרָה) “she guarded”
- ♦ \**šamarū* > \**šāmarū* > \**šāmārū* (> שָׁמְרוּ) “they guarded”
- ♦ \**tittinina* > \**tittinī* > \**tittānī* (> תִּתְּנִי) “you will give”
- ♦ \**yašmurūna* > \**yišmurū* > \**yišmārū* (> יִשְׁמְרוּ) “they will guard”
- ♦ \**yišlahūna* > \**yišlahū* > \**yišlāhū* (> יִשְׁלְחוּ) “they will send”
- ♦ \**yubaqṣiṣūna* > \**yəbaqṣiṣū* > \**yəbaqṣū* (> יִבְקֹשׁוּ) “they will seek.”

Also, the same unexpected reduction is found with the noun + second-person masculine singular suffix:

- ♦ \**dabaraka* > \**dabārakā* > \**dabārəkā* (> דְּבַרְכָּךְ) “your word.”

41. In general, this seems to reflect the tendency for any two historical high vowels (that is, /i/ and /u/) that appear in sequence to dissimilate, such that the first is no longer a high vowel (see W. Randall Garr, “Pretonic Vowels in Hebrew,” *VT* 37 [1987]: 143, 150).

42. See §5, “Lengthening of Pretonic \*/i/ and \*/a/ Vowels and the Place of Stress,” below. Another general exception to the rule that pretonic /u/ reduces to *shewa* is where the short \*/u/ vowel has been reanalyzed as a historical long vowel (e.g., \**gadulima* > \**gadōlim* > \**gadōlim* [> גְּדוֹלִים] “great”).



3. In open syllables that are both nontonic and nonpretonic, the historical short vowels reduce to *shewa* or elide entirely:

- ♦ *\*gīnabīma* > *\*ānābīm* (> עֲנָבִים) “grapes”
- ♦ *\*dabarīma* > *\*dabārīm* (> דְּבָרִים) “words”
- ♦ *\*barakatiyya* > *\*barakatī* > *\*barkātī* > (> בְּרַכְתִּי) “my blessing”<sup>43</sup>
- ♦ *\*laqaḥanī* > *\*laqāḥanī* (> לָקַחְנִי) “he took me”
- ♦ *\*buqarīma* > *\*baqārīm* (> בְּקָרִים) “mornings”
- ♦ *\*yubaqqišūna* > *\*yubaqqišū* > *\*yabaqšū* (> יִבְקְשׁוּ) “they will seek.”<sup>44</sup>

When exactly each of these developments took place is hard to know, but they are all reflected in one way or another in the Secunda. It is possible that vowels lengthened and/or lowered in the First Temple era, though this is hard to demonstrate given the nature of the evidence.<sup>45</sup> The lengthening of *\*/i/* and *\*/a/* in pretonic syllables must have taken place at the latest by circa 250 BCE, since the LXX of Genesis attests long vowels in its transcriptions of names: *\*qīdar* > *\*qēdār* > Κηδαρ “Kedar” (cf. קֶדָר; note also עֶשָׂו and Ησαυ “Esau”).<sup>46</sup> The reduction of pretonic *\*/u/* is presupposed

43. In cases where two nontonic/nonpretonic open syllables both contain a short vowel, as in *\*barakatiyya*, the second of the two short vowels elides entirely and the first often shifts to */i/* in THT and in the Babylonian Hebrew (pronunciation) tradition (BHT).

44. In closed unaccented syllables, however, the vowel must be short and is relatively stable, as explained above.

45. As a comparison, note that in the first part of the first millennium BCE Phoenician (with which Hebrew shares many traits) experienced a shift from *\*/a/* to */ō/* (or */o/*) in accented open syllables (found mostly in nouns, but not in verbs [except the 3ms suffix-conjugation form]), as evidenced, e.g., in the name “Ahirom” in cuneiform script *ḥi-ru-um-ma* (from Tiglath-Pileser III’s *Annals* 27, l. 2) and the corresponding name in Greek εἰρωμος (from Josephus, *C. Ap.* 1:105). If Phoenician experienced such a shift in nouns (but not verbs) in the era 1000–500 BCE, then it is conceivable that Hebrew did too, though we assume a raising of */a/* to */o/* for Phoenician and a lowering of */i/* to */e/* and */u/* to */o/* for Hebrew. For the connection of the Hebrew and Phoenician evidence, see Garr, *Dialect Geography*, 34, who characterizes the similarity in terms of lengthening; for the examples, see Stanislav Segert, *A Grammar of Phoenician and Punic* (Munich: Beck, 1976), 74 and Jo Ann Hackett, “Phoenician,” *CEWAL*, 371, who notes the Phoenician vowel as short */o/*.

46. Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 124. Blau (128) suggests this emerged in the Second Temple era as a means of distinguishing Hebrew from Aramaic (where pretonic vowels in open syllables reduce); for more description, see *ibid.*, 123–32.

in some words in the Secunda (e.g., \**zukur* > ζχορ “remember!” Ps 89:48 [cf. זָכַר]).<sup>47</sup> The reduction of short vowels in open nontonic/nonpretonic syllables to *shewa* is usually thought to have taken place sometime in the second half of the first millennium BCE.<sup>48</sup> The lack of clear evidence for vowel reduction in the first half of the first millennium BCE supports this.<sup>49</sup> The mixed evidence from the DSS, the Secunda, and Jerome suggests perhaps that short vowels were gradually lost over the course of the Second Temple era.

There are numerous further exceptions to the tendencies described above. But, the basic outline of these shifts and the most common exceptions should be carefully studied. Knowing something of this history helps one inflect words and predict what a given form should look like. Because the manner in which we pronounce the vowels does not precisely mirror the pronunciation of the Masoretes, there is often ambiguity in the minds of students over the exact articulation of a word's sounds and thus over the spelling of the word with Tiberian vowels. For example, if a student remembers that the *qal* third-person masculine plural *yiqtol* of שָׁמַר is phonetically *yish-me-'roo* it can be difficult to remember whether the middle vowel should be written יִשְׁמְרוּ\* or יִשְׁמְרוּ.<sup>50</sup> Similarly with noun forms such as *de-va-'reem* and *de-va-'ro*, it can be hard for a student to predict whether the first vowel should be written with a *shewa* or *sehol* and whether the second vowel should be *patakh* (דְּבַרִּים\* or דְּבָרִים\* and דְּבָרוּ\* or דְּבָרוּ\*) or *qamets* (דְּבָרִים or דְּבָרִים\* and דְּבָרוּ or דְּבָרוּ\*).

But the above rules and tendencies can help a student reproduce the proper vocalization and form of words. For *yish-me-'roo*, the vowel of “-me-” must be \*/ə/ since it is in an open pretonic syllable, where we expect a *shewa* and where we do not find (barring some exceptions) /ε/. The word *de-va-'reem* must reflect \**dā-bā-rīm* > דְּבָרִים and *de-va-'ro* must reflect \**dā-bā-rō* > דְּבָרוּ. That is, the “de-” must reflect a *shewa* since it is an open nontonic/nonpretonic syllable, where one finds only *shewa* and long vowels. The vowel of “-va-” must be \*/ā/ (> /â/) since it is in an open pretonic syllable, where we do not find \*/a/ and where we expect \*/ā/ (>

47. Brønno, *Studien*, 46.

48. See Sandra L. Gogel, *A Grammar of Epigraphic Hebrew*, RBS 23 (Atlanta: Scholars Press, 1998), 33; cf. T. Muraoka, *A Grammar of Qumran Aramaic*, ANESSup 38 (Leuven: Peeters, 2011), 31–33.

49. See §6 below, “Vowel Reduction.”

50. The mark ' precedes the accented syllable.

/â/). The following paragraphs will detail further the phonological developments outlined above.

### 3.4. Lengthening and Lowering of Vowels in Tonic Syllables

With respect to historical \*/i/ and \*/u/ vowels in tonic syllables, it seems that these short vowels sometimes lowered in their articulation but did not lengthen (i.e., \*/i/ > \*/e/, \*/i/ > \*/ε/, and \*/u/ > \*/o/).<sup>51</sup> As implied by the Secunda, this phenomenon appears primarily in nouns where the short vowel is followed in its historical form by two word-final consonants, that is, in geminate nouns:

- ♦ \*libbu > \*lebb > λεβ (cf. לֵב) “heart” Ps 32:11
- ♦ \*uzzu > \*ozz > οζ (cf. זֹר) “strength” Ps 30:8
- ♦ \*maginnu > \*magenn > μαγεν (cf. מָגֶן) “shield” Ps 18:31
- ♦ \*ma‘uzzu > \*ma‘ozz > μαοζ (cf. מְצֻדָּה) “stronghold” Ps 31:3

and in segolate nouns:

- ♦ \*sitru > \*setr > σεθρ (cf. סֵתֶר) “secret” Ps 32:7
- ♦ \*bukru > \*bokr > βοκρ (cf. בֹּקֶר) “morning” Ps 46:6.<sup>52</sup>

In addition, the Septuagint evidences similar nouns with *epsilon*: νεδερ [cf. נִדֶּר] “jar” (1 Sam 1:24) and εμακ [cf. הַעֲמָק] “Emak” or “valley” (Josh 13:19).<sup>53</sup> Contrast the realization of \*/i/ as /ē/ in words without geminated historical consonants in the Secunda:

- ♦ \*ilu > \*ēl > ηλ (cf. אֱל) “God of” Ps 29:3
- ♦ \*mahiratu > \*mahērā > μηηρα (cf. מְהֵרָה) “in haste” Ps 31:3
- ♦ \*nikaru > \*nēkār > νηχαρ (cf. נִכְרִי) “foreigner” Ps 18:46.<sup>54</sup>

51. See the summary of correspondences between the vowels of the Secunda and those of THT in Brønno, *Studien*, 453–54.

52. Examples are drawn from Brønno, *Studien*, 25 (note also ιεθεν), 120, 122, 144, 149, 175, 177.

53. See Khan, “Sere,” 140.

54. The construct state of the noun does not seem to be a relevant factor; note the absolute form with the same vowel: αηλ vs. ηἰλ “the God” Ps 18:31. The examples are again from Brønno, *Studien*, 59, 110, 155, 161. Short \*/u/ does not typically occur

The lowering of historical short vowels without lengthening also occurs regularly in finite verbal forms in context:

- ♦ *\*yittinu* > *\*yitten* > ιεθθεν (cf. יִתֵּן) “he will give” Ps 18:33
- ♦ *\*yudabbiru* > *\*yadabber* > ιδαββερ (cf. יְדַבֵּר) “he will speak” Ps 49:4
- ♦ *\*irdupu* > *\*erdop* > ερδοφ (cf. אֶרְדּוּ) “I will pursue” Ps 18:38.<sup>55</sup>

Participles and infinitives (being verbal adjectives and nouns) attest the vowels associated with nongeminate nouns and adjectives (i.e., *ēta* = /ē/ and *ōmega* = /ō/):

- ♦ *\*‘āziru* > *\*‘ōzēr* > ωζηρ (cf. עֲזֵר) “one helping” Ps 30:11
- ♦ *\*(wa)mušallimu* > *\*(ū)māšallēm* > ουσαλημ (cf. מְשַׁלֵּם) “and one preserving” Ps 31:24
- ♦ *\*(li)mušū’i* > *\*(li)mšō* > λαμσω (cf. לְמַצֹּא) “to find” Ps 36:3.<sup>56</sup>

In addition, finite verbal forms with pronominal object suffixes, attest lowering and lengthening in the tonic syllable:

- ♦ *\*imḥuṣiḥum* > *’emḥōšēm* > *emḥōšēm* > εμωσημ (cf. מְחַצֵּחֵם) “I struck them” (Ps 18:39).<sup>57</sup>

Although it might not appear obvious at first, the distribution of vowels in THT seems to confirm an earlier distinction wherein finite verbal forms

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as /ō/ in similar environments since it tends to reduce or elide (e.g., *\*bukur* > βχωρ [cf. בְּכוֹר] “firstborn” Ps 89:28 [Brønno, *Studien*, 161]). Note also the lengthening and lowering implied in the LXX: ωακηδ for נִקְדַּד “sheep-raiser” in 2 Kgs 3:4.

55. Examples are drawn from Brønno, *Studien*, 25 (note also ιεθεν), 32, 71. Pausal forms show some variation, but frequently attest *ēta* and *ōmega* (see Khan, “*Šere*,” 137–38). Note, e.g., pausal *\*yuhallilūna* > *\*yəhallēlū* > ιαλληλου (cf. יְחַלְלֵנוּ) “they will profane” Ps 89:32 (see Brønno, *Studien*, 71). In the MT, one finds a similar discrepancy between forms that seem to be linked with a following word or phrase and exhibit /ε/ (e.g., דִּבֶּר “he spoke” passim; יְדַבֵּר־בִּי “he will speak to me” Hab 2:1; הוֹלֵד לוֹ “being born to him” Gen 21:5) and corresponding forms with /e/ where there sometimes is and sometimes is not a prosodic link with what follows.

56. Brønno, *Studien*, 56, 59, 84.

57. Brønno, *Studien*, 32. The theme vowel in the Secunda form agrees with that of the Aramaic cognate, *mḥq*, as attested, e.g., in Jewish Palestinian Aramaic and Jewish Babylonian Aramaic (see DJPA and DJBA).

had short vowels in their stem and nonfinite forms had long vowels. Note, for example, the distinction between the finite *niphal* form נֶאֱמָן “he is faithful” and the participial form נֹאֲמָן “one who is faithful.” The finite form implies a pre-Masoretic short \*/a/ and the participle a long \*/ā/. This implies an analogous distinction between finite forms and nonfinite forms, even in other conjugations (e.g., יִתֵּן < \*yitten “he will give” vs. נֹתֵן < \*nōtēn “one giving”; and אֶרְדֹּף < \*’erdop “I will pursue” vs. רֹדֵף < \*rādōp “pursuing”). Furthermore, although we might at first assume that finite forms like יִתֵּן and אֶרְדֹּף evidence both lowering and lengthening of the historical \*/i/ and \*/u/ vowels, where the stem vowel is /a/ in analogous *yiqṭol* forms, the vowel that appears in THT is not *qamets*, but *patakh*: יִשְׁלַח “he will send.” This implies that the *tsere* in יִתֵּן and the *holem* in אֶרְדֹּף reflect an earlier short /e/ and /o/, respectively.<sup>58</sup>

Finally, a small group of words evidences the further lowering of \*/i/ to /e/, especially where the historical \*/i/ is followed by two consonants in a row. In particular, this relates to some \**qitl* nouns, feminine singular participles, and *qal* infinitives construct from I-*vav/yod* roots (and I-*nun* roots): \**qirbu* > \**qerb* (= קִרְבַּ) “midst” and \**yātibtu* > \**yōsibt* > *yōšebt* (> יוֹשֶׁבֶת) “one dwelling”; \**tibtu* > \**sibt* > \**šebt* (> שְׁבֶת) “dwelling.”<sup>59</sup> In pause,

58. There is also some limited orthographic evidence that the historical /i/ vowel in finite forms was realized in a manner different from how it was realized in nonfinite forms. For example, *piel* finite forms of III-*khet* roots have a *patakh* in context (e.g., יִשְׁלַח “he will send away” Exod 3:20), reflecting an earlier short vowel, but have a *tsere* in pause (יִשְׁלַח Isa 45:13), where we would expect an earlier long vowel. On the other hand, the same vowel in the participle and infinitives is often written both in context and in pause with a *tsere*, implying an earlier long vowel. Note especially the contextual forms: מְשַׁלֵּחַ “one sending away” (Exod 8:17); inf. cstr.: זִבְחַ “making sacrifices” (1 Kgs 12:32); inf. abs.: שִׁלַּח “sending away” (1 Kgs 11:22). The exception here is the infinitive construct of שִׁלַּח which has a *patakh* (perhaps to distinguish it from the infinitive absolute [?]). But, the other seven contextual forms of the *piel* inf. const. of III-*khet* roots have *tsere*. If the finite and nonfinite verbal forms had the same vowel length in the earlier Second Temple era, then we would expect a common realization of the last stem vowel in all the forms.

59. Although it is difficult to explain all the exceptions and although there are probably multiple causes, one explanation for this vowel in \**qitl* nouns involves the quality of the second root consonant. If the second root consonant of a monosyllabic word is relatively sonorous (i.e., /l/, /m/, /n/, /r/), then the historical \*/i/ became /e/ (e.g., \**qirbu* > \**qerb* [> קִרְבַּ]). See Thomas O. Lambdin, “Philippi’s Law Reconsidered,” in *Biblical Studies Presented to Samuel Iwry*, ed. Ann Kort and Samuel Morschauser (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 1985), 139–40. Other nouns, like נֶדֶר “vow” (a byform

such vowels are represented with a *qamets* in THT (e.g., יוֹשְׁבֵת “one dwelling” Josh 2:15 and שֹׁכֵת “to dwell” Isa 40:22).<sup>60</sup> There is no clear evidence of the shift \*/i/ to /ε/ in such forms in the Secunda.<sup>61</sup>

A similar shift of historical \*/i/ to \*/ε/ and then to THT /a/ may be reflected in other types of nouns and especially in verbs like the *piel qāṭal*: \**dabbirta* > \**dibbertā* (> *dibbartā* = דִּבַּרְתָּ “you spoke” (see §8 below, “‘Phillipi’s Law’ and Similar Changes”).

The pronominal affixes for verbs וְתִּנּוּ- and וְתִּנּוּ- and for nouns כִּנּוּ- and כִּנּוּ-, marking the second-person masculine and feminine plural, reflect a similar lowering from \*/i/ to /ε/, though the context of this shift is different from that of the above words (i.e., it does not appear in a syllable followed by two consonants).

The relevance of the above comparisons with the Secunda, of course, presumes some correspondence between the Hebrew implied by this transcription and that which led to THT. It is also conceivable that these traditions reflect entirely independent vocalic developments. For the present work, however, I assume some connection between the Hebrew of the Secunda and the tradition that led to THT. I primarily indicate the historical \*/i/ and \*/u/ vowels in geminate and segolate nouns as \*/ε/ and \*/o/ respectively (i.e., without lengthening). Because we focus on the contextual forms of words from the late Second Temple era, I indicate the historical \*/i/ and \*/u/ vowels in the stem of finite verbal forms in the same manner (i.e., as \*/ε/ and \*/o/).

### 3.5. Lengthening of Pretonic \*/i/ and \*/a/ and the Place of Stress

Historical short vowels in open pretonic syllables often lengthened in BH. It is especially the case that \*/a/ lengthened to \*/ā/ (before shifting to /ā/ in THT). The historical \*/i/ vowel somewhat less frequently lengthened (and

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of יָדָר), formed on analogy to words like קָרַב. In still other cases, a given word might have had byforms from earliest times (e.g., \**dark* vs. \**dirk* > דִּרְךָ “path” [see Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 39]).

60. In some cases, \**qitl* segolates reveal a *qamets* in pause in the first syllable, as with סִתָּר “hiding place” vs. סִתֵּר in context.

61. Note some of the limited evidence from the Secunda that seems to suggest the realization of an /a/ vowel: *νεμενασθ* (cf. נִמְנָמָנָת) “something trustworthy/enduring” Ps 89:19; *σασθιβακη* (cf. שָׂאֲתִי בִחֲקִי) “my carrying in my breast” Ps 89:51; *βρεθετι* (cf. בְּרִדְתִּי) “in my descent” Ps 30:10 (for the examples, see Brønno, *Studien*, 56, 107).

lowered) to \*/ē/, while \*/u/ often did not lengthen, but instead reduced to *shewa* (see §6, “Vowel Reduction”). These tendencies have been remarked on above.

In the inflection of the *qāṭal* verb, most forms exhibit the pretonic lengthening of the first \*/a/ vowel: \*šamar > \*šāmar (> שָׁמַר). Where this historical /a/ vowel is in the propretonic syllable, it reduces to *shewa*: \*šamartumu > \*šamartem (> שָׁמַרְתֶּם). However, in the third-person feminine singular and third-person common plural, it appears that the pretonic /a/ vowel is reduced to *shewa* and the propretonic \*/a/ is lengthened: \*šāmarā > \*šāmārā (> שָׁמְרָה) and \*šāmarū > \*šāmārū (> שָׁמְרוּ). These inconsistencies are likely due to the shifting place of the stress in the history of Hebrew verbs.<sup>62</sup> When pretonic vowel lengthening was taking place, there was a full vowel in the second syllable and this penultimate syllable was accented, resulting in the pretonic lengthening of the first stem vowel (\*šamarat > \*šā'marā and \*šamarū > \*šā'marū). The penultimate accent is reflected in the pausal forms of these words (e.g., שָׁמְרוּ Num 9:23). Only later (presumably close to the end of the Second Temple era) did the accent then shift to the last syllable, resulting in the reduction of the second \*/a/ vowel (\*šāmā'rā [> שָׁמְרָה], and \*šāmā'rū [> שָׁמְרוּ]).<sup>63</sup> In the Secunda, the transcription consistently reflects the reduction of these short vowels to zero (e.g., ασσα [cf. עָשָׂה] “becomes dark” Ps 31:10 and ταμνους [cf. טָמְנוּ] “they hid” Ps 31:5).<sup>64</sup> Although the orthography of the

62. Geoffrey Khan, “Pretonic Lengthening: Biblical Hebrew,” *EHL* 3:226.

63. Blau (*Phonology and Morphology*, 128) argues that what began as \*ša-'ma-rat shifted to \*ša-'ma-rā (due to loss of *taw*) and then to \*šā-'ma-rā (due to pretonic lengthening in Second Temple times) and then to \*šā-mā-'rā (with the shift of accent to the final syllable sometime later, when pretonic vowels no longer were lengthened but reduced, as in Aramaic). See his long description of stress and syllable structure in *ibid.*, 123–29; and the description of the sequence of these changes at pp. 144–48. Alternatively, one may explain these forms by suggesting that the accent on third-person forms was initially on the first syllable; the long vowel of the first syllable (which is assumed from the THT *qamets*) is due to tonic lengthening/lowering (see Bergsträsser, *Hebräische Grammatik*, 116–18). One can imagine the development: \*ša-ma-rat > \*šā-ma-rā (due to loss of *taw* and tonic lengthening/lowering) > \*šā-mā-rā (due to vowel reduction of nontonic/nonpretonic vowels) > \*šā-mā-'rā (shift in stress, akin to the shift in stress presumed for *wəqāṭal* forms that show no vowel reduction, like וְשָׁמַרְתָּ “and observe” Deut 6:3).

64. See Brønno, *Studien*, 19 and 22. Exceptions are only found in II-guttural roots where the MT contains a *khatef* vowel: ρααθα [cf. רָאָתָה] “she saw” Ps 35:21; μααδου



DSS does not usually allow one to discern the theme vowel of *qāṭal* forms, the vowel is rarely indicated with a *mater*, implying its preservation and a penultimate accent for the verb (e.g., יָכֹלוּ *yākōlū* [cf. יָכֹלוּ] “they did [not] prevail” 11Q5 [11QPs<sup>a</sup>] at Ps 129:2).<sup>65</sup>

It seems likely that other verbal forms were similarly accented on their penultimate syllable and only subsequently did the theme vowel reduce when accent shifted from the penultimate to the final (i.e., ultimate) syllable:

- ♦ *\*yašmurūna* > *\*yišmurū* > *\*yišmarū* (> יִשְׁמְרוּ) “they will guard”
- ♦ *\*yišlahūna* > *\*yišlahū* > *\*yišlahū* (> יִשְׁלְחוּ) “they will send”
- ♦ *\*tittinīna* > *\*tittinī* > *\*tittanī* (> תִּתֶּנִּי) “you will give”
- ♦ *\*yubaqqišūna* > *\*yubaqqišū* > *\*yabaqšū* (> יִבְקְשׁוּ) “they will seek.”<sup>66</sup>

The penultimate stress of such forms is implied in the pausal forms in THT (e.g., יִשְׁמְרוּ Ezek 44:24 and יִבְקְשׁוּ Jer 4:30). In addition, the preservation of the theme vowel (and by association penultimate stress) is not infrequently reflected in the DSS (e.g., יִשְׁמְרוּ [cf. יִשְׁמְרוּ] “they will guard” 11Q5 [11QPs<sup>a</sup>] at Ps 105:45) and in the Secunda (e.g., ἐφθόλου [cf. יִפְּלוּ] “they will fall” Ps 18:39; ιουχαλευ [cf. יִכְלוּ] “they are able” Ps 18:39).<sup>67</sup> However, the final stem vowel is not always reflected in the orthography of the DSS (יִשְׁמְרוּ [cf. יִשְׁמְרוּ] “they will guard” 4Q70 [4QJer<sup>a</sup>] at Jer 8:7) or in the Secunda (e.g., *\*wəyihparū* > οὐεφρου [cf. יִוְיַחֲפְרוּ] “they will be ashamed” Ps 35:26).<sup>68</sup> As with the reduction (or nonreduction) of short

[cf. מָעַדוּ “they did not slip” Ps 18:37; οὐνααθα [cf. וְנָחְתָה] “it brings down” Ps 18:35 (ibid., 19, 22, 64).

65. See also the plene writing of the *qāṭal* of the same verb in a fragmentary context in 4Q385 6a II + 6c, 9 and 4Q401 14 II, 4.

66. Some of these forms, of course, may also be interpreted as reflecting the reduction of pretonic \*/i/ where the prepretonic vowel cannot reduce (as in שֹׁפְטִים “judges”) as well as reflecting the tendency for pretonic /u/ to reduce. Nevertheless, since the historical \*/a/ vowel also reduces in this same position (e.g., יִשְׁלְחוּ “they will send”), it seems more likely that the reduction of the pretonic theme vowel is due to the movement of stress/accent from the penultimate to the ultimate (i.e., last) syllable.

67. See Brønno, *Studien*, 35. Note also *\*yir‘ašū* > ῥερασου (cf. יִרְעֵשׁוּ) “they will shake” Ps 46:4.

68. See Brønno, *Studien*, 35 and Yuditsky, “Hebrew in Greek and Latin Transcriptions,” 2:67. Presumably the elision of the vowel has led to the emergence of an epenthetic vowel before the second root consonant in other forms: e.g., *\*(wa)yišmaḥūna* >



vowels (discussed in the following subsection), in the Hebrew of the Second Temple era, there seems to have been some variation in where such verbal forms were accented.

In the inflection of nouns, one also finds incongruity in the singular noun with second-person masculine singular suffix. In all the other forms of the noun (both masc. and fem.) that bear a nonheavy pronominal suffix, the pretonic vowel is lengthened and the propretonic is reduced according to the tendencies outlined above: *\*dabarik* > *\*dabārēk* (> דְּבָרְךָ) “your word.” The pausal form of the singular noun with second-person masculine singular suffix also exhibits the expected correspondences between syllables and vowels (i.e., *\*dabaraka* > *\*dabārakā* > *dbā'rekā* = דְּבָרְךָ “your word”). In the contextual form, however, the propretonic vowel seems to have been lengthened and the pretonic reduced to *shewa*: *\*dabārā'kā* (> דְּבָרְךָ) “your word” and *\*āṣātā'kā* (> עֲצָתְךָ) “your counsel.” This also can be explained as due to the shifting place of stress within the word. The stress must have been over the penultimate syllable when pretonic vowels were lengthening and then the stress shifted and the suffix altered its form, such that what was once a penultimate short /a/ reduced to *shewa*:

- ♦ *\*dabaraka* > *\*dabā'rakā* > *\*dabārā'kā* (> דְּבָרְךָ)
- ♦ *\*'iṭataka* > *\*'āṣā'takā* > *\*'āṣātā'kā* (> עֲצָתְךָ).<sup>69</sup>

### 3.6. Vowel Reduction

Usually, vowel reduction is learned as a phenomenon affecting *qamets* and *tserē* vowels in the transformation of singular nouns into plurals (or from absolute forms into construct forms or forms with suffixes), as if a *qamets* of an absolute noun reduced to *shewa* in the plural (or construct or with suffixes). But, this is not how vowel reduction is described from a historical perspective. Vowel reduction affected pronunciation of Hebrew vowels long before *\*/ā/* shifted to */ă/* (*qamets*). In this context, it is not correct to say that the *qamets* reduces; instead, the vowel that reduces is the histori-

<sup>69</sup> *\*(wə)yisməḥū* [> *\*(wə)yismḥū*] > *\*(wə)yisimḥū* > *ισσεμου* and *ουεισεαμου* “(and) they will rejoice” (Ps 35:24, 27 [cf. וַיִּשְׂמְחוּ]).

69. It is interesting to note that the Secunda reflects an /a/ vowel before the suffixed *kaph* and usually no /a/ vowel after the *kaph*. This is reminiscent of the Aramaic 2ms pronominal suffix. For more on this, see ch. 4 §5, “Peculiarities of Some Possessive Suffixes.”

cal short vowel that in other positions would eventually lengthen and then become *qamets*. For example, the singular form of “word” developed from a form with two short vowels in its stem, *\*dabaru*, into one with two long vowels, *\*dābār*, before becoming *dābār* = דָּבָר. The plural developed from a similar base: *\*dabarīma*, though in this form the first /a/ vowel did not lengthen into /ā/, but it instead reduced to *shewa*, resulting eventually in the form *\*dabārīm* and then *dbārīm* = דְּבָרִים.

Moreover, when we speak of vowel reduction, we speak of one of two phenomena. The full, short vowel may reduce to a *shewa* (that is, a muttered vowel). Or, the full short vowel reduces to nothing; that is, the full vowel elides.

In general, *\*/i/*, *\*/a/*, and *\*/u/* became muttered vowels (i.e., *shewa*) or elided entirely in open syllables that were both nontonic and nonpretonic. A historical *\*/i/* reduced to *shewa* or elided in an open pretonic syllable when the vowel in the preceding syllable could not reduce (either because it was historically long or because it was in a closed syllable; e.g., *\*šāpiṭīma* > *\*šōpiṭīm* > *\*šōpāṭīm* [שֹׁפְטִים] “judges”; *\*mazbiḥāt* > *\*mizbāḥōt* [מִזְבְּחוֹת] “altar”).<sup>70</sup> In addition, the *\*/u/* vowel often reduced to *shewa* in open pretonic syllables (e.g., *\*bukur* > *\*bakōr* [בָּכֹר] “firstborn” and *\*yašmurihū* > *\*yišmarēhū* [יִשְׁמְרֵהוּ] “they will guard him”).

It might be pointed out here that where *\*/u/* reduces, it is often (though not always) followed by another high vowel, an /i/- or /u/-class vowel. It seems that often there was a tendency to dissimilate two high vowels in a row, that is, to make two high vowels dissimilar to each other. For example, in cases where we presume the sequence of historical vowels *\*u-u*, we often find instead *\*a-ō* (e.g., *\*šamar* “guarding”) or *\*i-ō*, where the first vowel cannot reduce (e.g., *\*gibōr* “warrior”).<sup>71</sup>

70. Note also *\*awwirīm* > *\*iwrīm* (> עִוְרִים) “blind”; and *\*passihīm* > *\*pishīm* (> פִּשְׁחִים) “limping”; and the *piel* inf. const. plus suffix, as in *\*dabbiraha* > *\*dabbārāh* (> דְּבָרָה) “her speaking.” The loss of gemination in some forms of the plural is described below in §15, “Loss of Gemination and *Shewa*.”

71. See ch. 4 §11, “Nouns with Three Root Consonants, One of Which Is Geminated” and Garr, “Pretonic Vowels in Hebrew,” 143, 150. Several idiosyncracies and apparent anomalies should be mentioned. The *niphal* masc. pl. ptc. of מָצָא does not attest pretonic lengthening in most of its occurrences: הִנֵּמְצְאִים “those found” (vs. once as הִנֵּמְצְאִים in Ezra 8:25, in pause). Garr (ibid., 153) notes that the participle with unexpected reduction of the pretonic vowel always precedes some phrase (like a prepositional phrase) to which it is closely associated. He also cites the cases of נְבִאִים “those prophesying.”

Where short \*/a/ or \*/i/ vowels occurred in two open syllables side-by-side, both syllables being nontonic and nonpretonic, then the second short vowel elided:

- ♦ *\*malakaykum* > *\*malakēkim* > *\*malkēkem* (> מַלְכֵיכֶם) “your kings” (Jer 44:21)
- ♦ *\*šibaṭaykum* > *\*šibaṭēkim* > *\*šibṭēkem* (> שְׁבֻטֵיכֶם) “your tribes” (passim).

In the cases where \*/a/ was the vowel that remained, it often shifted to /i/ in THT (see the following subsection for more on this):

- ♦ *\*dabaray* > *\*dabrē* (> דְּבָרַי) “words of” (passim)
- ♦ *\*barakat* > *\*barkat* (> בְּרִכַּת) “blessing of” (passim).

Finally, there are also the cases where what seems to be the pretonic vowel reduces where we do not expect such reduction: *\*šāmarū* > *\*šāmārū* (> שָׁמְרוּ) “they guarded”; *\*yišlahū* > *\*yišlāhū* (> יִשְׁלְחוּ) “they will send”; and *\*dabā'arakā* > *\*dabārə'kā* (> דְּבָרְךָ). As explained in the preceding section, these likely reflect the changing place of stress (near the close of the Second Temple era).

As stated above (in §3, “Development of Individual Vowels”), there is no clear evidence for vowel reduction in the First Temple era.<sup>72</sup> Furthermore, we should admit that short vowels in open, nontonic and nonpretonic syllables may have initially reduced to a muttered vowel and then, at a later time, been entirely lost.<sup>73</sup> Also, some variation in pronunciation (between a short vowel, a muttered vowel, and no vowel) seems implied by a variation of spelling in the DSS, in the Secunda, and in the MT itself.<sup>74</sup> The presence

72. Cuneiform inscriptions from the First Temple era are difficult to interpret (see Alan Millard, “Transcriptions into Cuneiform,” *EHL* 3:838–47). Still Michael D. Coogan (*West Semitic Personal Names in the Murašû Documents*, HSM 7 [Missoula, MT: Scholars Press, 1976], 107) concludes that the Akkadian Murašû documents do not reveal any evidence for vowel reduction. See also Gianto, “Archaic Biblical Hebrew,” 1:22.

73. Aramaic may have lost short vowels gradually over the same span of time; see Stephen A. Kaufman, “On Vowel Reduction in Aramaic,” *JAOS* 104 (1984): 87–95.

74. Notice, as a comparison, that contemporary English words can be pronounced with similar variation, as with “family,” which the *OED* transcribes (for the USA pronunciation): [fæm(ə)li], presuming a pronunciation with an elided vowel (*fam-ly*) or a

of a short vowel in certain places presumes it was accented (e.g., \**yišlahū* and \**yišmurū* [יִשְׁמְרוּ] “they will guard”); in this way, the variation in spelling also reflects a variation in the place of accent (see §5, “Lengthening of Pretonic \*/i/ and \*/a/ Vowels and the Place of Stress,” above).

In the DSS, where we suppose the sequence full vowel + *aleph* + /ō/ (or /ū/) (e.g., מֵאֹר *mā’ōr* “light”), the *aleph* is almost never lost.<sup>75</sup> But in cases where the *aleph* is preceded by what we would expect to be a reduced short vowel + *aleph* + /ō/ (or /ū/), the *aleph* (and preceding *shewa*) are occasionally elided (e.g., וְנִצָּה *ūnāšā* “and contempt” [4Q175 25] for וְנִצָּה \**ūnā’āšā*; and רוּיָה *rūyā* “what was seen” [11Q19 LXVI, 9] for רֵאוּיָה \**rā’ūyā*).<sup>76</sup> This implies that all historical short vowels in open prepretonic syllables likely reduced, even where the *aleph* is preserved.

Whether short vowels in such syllables sometimes reduced to a muttered vowel or uniformly elided is another question. I assume that the vowels usually became muttered vowels and only in certain cases elided. This is based on the tendency toward unconventional (i.e., non-Masoretic) phonetic spelling in the DSS on the one hand, and the consistent (though not universal) preservation of *aleph* before historical short vowels in prepretonic syllables on the other. Examples of misspellings such as רוּיָה are

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muttered vowel (*fa-mə-ly*), though it also can be articulated with a full vowel (*fa-mi-ly*) when pronounced slowly and emphatically.

75. See Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 137–38.

76. In the second example, the vowel reduction and subsequent elision of the muttered vowel + *aleph* reflect the word’s inflection. The cases where one finds the elision of the historical short vowel as well as the *aleph* are relatively uncommon (e.g., רֹבֵן *rūbēn* “Reuben” in 4Q221 4, 9 vs. THT רֵאוּבֵן). One exception is שְׂרִית “remainder” (vs. THT שְׂאֲרִית), which occurs in about ten of its forty occurrences without *aleph* (e.g., 1QS V, 13). Conceivably, the latter word (and others phonetically similar to it: שֶׁאֵר “flesh” and בֶּאֱר “well”) had lost the *aleph* in the vernacular already by the time of the scrolls (cf. שְׂרִית “remainder” in 1 Chr 12:39; מִשְׁשֶׁרֹּם “from his flesh” 4Q386 1 II, 4; שֶׁר “flesh of” 4Q477 2 II, 8; בִּירוֹת *bērōt* “wells” 11Q20 XII, 25). A similar loss of a muttered vowel + *aleph* in THT is רִאשִׁים “heads” for an expected רִאשִׁים\*; in the DSS, however, there is only one case of the plural absolute spelled without *aleph* (4Q171 1 + 3–4 III, 5). (The *aleph* is elided elsewhere only in the const. pl., e.g., רָשִׁי “heads of” 4Q328 1, 1.) See Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 79; Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 55; Blau, *On Pseudo-Corrections*, 28–29. Other examples may reflect other phenomena: תִּקְרָאוּ *tiqqārū* “you will be called” (1QIsa<sup>a</sup> at Isa 61:6) for the pausal form in MT תִּקְרָאוּ may reflect confusion of III-*vav/yod* and III-*aleph* roots, a phenomenon among the DSS especially prominent in 1QIsa<sup>a</sup> (see Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 189–90).

uncommon. Much more common is to find the *aleph* preserved, as in the plural form מאורות (= *mə'ōrōt*) “lights.”<sup>77</sup>

On the other hand, among the DSS, spellings of *yiqṭol* forms with object suffixes (e.g., \**yīšmorkā* > יִשְׁמָרְךָ “he will guard you”) sometimes imply the presence of the historical stem vowel and sometimes imply its elision. Where a *mater vav* appears after the second root consonant, we assume the preservation of the historical vowel as in THT (e.g., יִשְׁמֹרְכָה = *yīšmorkā* or *yīšmōrekā* “he will guard you” 1QS II, 3). In other cases, however, a *mater vav* appears after the first root consonant and we assume the elision of the historical vowel and the secondary emergence of an epenthetic vowel (e.g., יִשְׁמֹרְכָה = *yašomrākā* or *yašomrekā* “he will guard you” 11Q5 [11QPs<sup>a</sup>] at Ps 121:7 for MT יִשְׁמָרְךָ).<sup>78</sup>

Contradictory evidence is also found in the Secunda. The regular elision of short vowels is implied in many spellings (e.g., ταμνου [cf. טָמְנוּ] “they hid” Ps 31:5; ασσωμιμ [cf. הַשְׁמִימִים] “those who guard/give attention to” Ps 31:7; βνη [cf. בְּנֵי] “sons of” Ps 29:1; οιβαν [cf. אוֹיְבָיו] “his enemies” Ps 89:43).<sup>79</sup> Nevertheless, in a substantial number of cases, where we would expect to find an elided vowel we find a full vowel (e.g., εφφολου [cf. יִפְּלוּ] “they will fall” Ps 18:39; βανη [cf. בְּנֵי] “sons of” Ps 18:46).<sup>80</sup> Among these, at least some *epsilon* and *iōta* vowels may mark a muttered vowel, as in:

- ♦ οἰεβαῖ (cf. אוֹיְבָי) “my enemies” (Ps 18:38)
- ♦ σεμω (cf. שְׁמוֹ) “his name” (Ps 29:2)
- ♦ γεδουδ (cf. גְּדוּד) “troop” (Ps 18:30)
- ♦ λεβουσι (cf. לְבוּשֵׁי) “my clothing” (Ps 35:13)
- ♦ χισουσ (cf. כִּסּוּס) “like a horse” (Ps 32:9).<sup>81</sup>

77. Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 51–56, 77–87. Neither for מאורות nor for many other similar words do we see frequent unconventional spellings (i.e., \**mōrōt* > מוארות\* or > מורות\*), which we might otherwise expect based on the unconventional spellings of other words (see the preceding footnote).

78. See *ibid.*, 209–21 for a review of the evidence and possible explanations.

79. Yuditsky, “Transcription into Greek and Latin Script,” 3:807. Yuditsky (808) writes that “Short vowel elision is quite common in the Hexapla.” See also Khan, “Shewa,” 3:551.

80. According to Brønno (*Studien*, 322–41), in 184 out of 270 examples vocal *shewa* in the MT corresponds with the absence of a vowel in the Secunda. See also Alexey Yuditsky, “Reduced Vowels in the Transcriptions from Hebrew in the Hexapla” (Hebrew), *Leshonenu* 67 (2005): 121–41.

81. See Khan, “Shewa,” 3:550–51. Khan (550) writes: “Both [*epsilon* and *iōta*] seem

Even the MT provides contradicting evidence. Where we usually find an elided vowel (e.g., שְׂמְחֵי “those rejoicing of [mind]” Isa 24:7) we sometimes find a full vowel (e.g., שְׂמְחֵי “those rejoicing at [my calamity]” Ps 35:26). Alternatively, where we expect an elided vowel (e.g., קְלָלָת [ < \**qalalatu*] “curse of [God]” Deut 21:23) sometimes we find a muttered vowel (e.g., קְלָלָה “curse of [Jotham]” Judg 9:57).<sup>82</sup>

Strangely, one of the latest pieces of evidence, the transcriptions and descriptions from Jerome, give no consistent evidence for muttered vowels or elided vowels.<sup>83</sup> In the version of Biblical Hebrew reflected in Jerome’s transcriptions, short vowels are generally retained. This, at the least, would seem to reflect the fact that the reduction of vowels did not follow a clean, linear path from full vowel to zero. The variation in the place of stress and in vowel reduction may reflect not only different dialects or pronunciation traditions, but also different registers spoken by single individuals.

### 3.7. “Attenuation” and Similar Changes

A relatively common shift in vowel quality is that of \*/a/ to /i/ (in what is sometimes referred to as “attenuation”).<sup>84</sup> Most often this takes place where historical \*/a/ is followed by two consonants in a row. The shift \*/a/ to \*/i/ occurred in the first syllable of *qāṭal piel* verbs and *qāṭal hiphil* verbs, as well as in some nouns:

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to reflect a realization close to that of the Palestinian and Sephardic *shewa*”; he suggests that the *alpha* that marks a historical /a/ vowel where THT has a *shewa* may be an archaism. Brønno (*Studien*, 327) notes various other factors, including the absence of a vowel in the Secunda, even where we really need one in order to pronounce the form, implying that not all vowels were transcribed. On the other hand, Yuditsky believes that “short vowels have either preserved their original quality or been elided” (“Transcription into Greek and Latin Script,” 3:807); cf. Yuditsky, “Reduced Vowels,” 121–41, where he offers more thorough explanations for his thesis.

82. Furthermore, note the presence of a muttered vowel (derived from an earlier short vowel) in other traditions of Biblical Hebrew, like that presumed for (Proto-) Samaritan: \**mal’ak* > \**mālā’ak* > \**māla’ak* > מַלְאָךְ [*mā’lā’k*] “angel” (cf. THT מַלְאָךְ). See Florentin, “Samaritan Tradition,” 1:123.

83. Yuditsky, “Transcription into Greek and Latin Script,” 3:807; Khan, “Shewa,” 3:551; Harviainen, “Transcription into Latin Script,” 3:823.

84. Aaron Koller (“Attenuation,” *EHL* 1:231–32) notes that this is not a true “law” since there are too many exceptions, but rather “the results of disparate processes.”

- ◆ \**dabbira* > \**dibber* (> דִּבֶּר in pause) “he spoke”
- ◆ \**hašlika* > \**hišlik* (> הִשְׁלִיךְ) “he threw”
- ◆ \**awwiru* > \**iwwēr* (> עִוֵּר) “blind.”

Since this shift is attested widely in different traditions, it is assumed to be a relatively early phenomenon.<sup>85</sup> In all the cases above where an initial \*/a/ shifted to /i/, the second syllable of the word contained an etymological \*/i/ vowel. This shift may be due to the initial \*/a/ assimilating in pronunciation to the following \*/i/. In addition, perhaps this development was encouraged by the fact that it helped to disambiguate otherwise similar forms in the *piel* and *hiphil*, like the infinitive construct (and in the case of the *piel*, the ms impv. and inf. abs.).

Another early shift of \*/a/ to /i/ occurs in the prefix of *qal* short-*yiqtol*, *wayyiqtol*, and *yiqtol* forms. The early PNWS forms \**yiqtal*, \**yaqtul*, and \**yaqtil* are characterized by vowels that are distinct between the prefix and stem.<sup>86</sup> At some point early in the history of Hebrew or of its ancestor, the vowel of the prefix in \**yaqtul* and \**yaqtil* forms shifted to /i/: \**yiqtul* and \**yiqtil*, perhaps on analogy to \**yiqtal*.<sup>87</sup> Weak roots still sometimes evidence this /a/ vowel, as with \**yaqum* > \**yāqom* > יָקָם “let him arise” and \**yaqūmu* > \**yāqūm* > יָקֻמוּ “he will arise.”<sup>88</sup>

Sometimes similar developments of \*/a/ > /i/ are associated primarily with THT, and appear to have occurred relatively late in time, emerging perhaps in the mid-first millennium CE. For example, the shift of \*/a/ > /i/ in the prefix component to *mem*-preformative nouns (e.g., \**madbaru* > \**madbār* > *midbār* [= מִדְבָּר] “desert”) seems at least superficially simi-

85. The same shift in vowel (/a/ > /i/) is found in the same contexts (*piel*, *hiphil* verbs, etc.) in other pronunciation traditions (e.g., Babylonian and Palestinian), as well as in the Secunda, where it is represented by *epsilon*; note the *piel* ἐλλεθ [cf. תִּלְלִית] “you profaned” (Ps 89:40); the *hiphil*: ἐσθερα [cf. הִסְתַּרְתָּ] “you hid” (Ps 30:8) (the examples are from Yuditsky, “Hebrew and Greek in Latin Transcriptions,” 1:111). It is even implied in the orthography of the DSS (e.g., הִירָאִי “I showed” in 4Q158 4, 6, if this is not a case of metathesis for \*הִרְאִיתָ). See Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 39–40.

86. This is the Barth-Ginsberg Law; see Rebecca Hasselbach, “Barth-Ginsberg Law,” *EHL* 1:258–59.

87. See also, e.g., Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 221. The identical shift happened in *wayyiqtol* and *yiqtol* forms.

88. Note also I-guttural roots like עִשָּׂה that attest /a/ in the prefix: עֲשֵׂה “let him do.”



lar to the shift \*/a/ to \*/i/ in the prefix of *qal* short-*yiqtol*, *wayyiqtol*, and *yiqtol* forms just described. However, it shows a quite different distribution among the different traditions. The shift \*/a/ > /i/ in the initial syllable of *mem*-preformative nouns appears to be primarily a feature of THT.<sup>89</sup> In earlier varieties of Hebrew and in pronunciation traditions contemporaneous with THT (like BHT), the /a/ vowel in these words was preserved (e.g., \**malḥamatu* > \**malḥāmā* > \**milḥāmā* [= מִלְחָמָה] vs. μαλαμα “war” in Secunda at Ps 18:35).<sup>90</sup> This historical \*/a/ vowel is still reflected in THT, however, in a variety of *mem*-preformative nouns like מַמְלָכָה “kingdom” and מְקוֹם “place.”

Another rather late development is the shift of \*/a/ to /i/ in cases where the original \*/a/ was followed in the next syllable by an \*/a/ that elides (e.g., \**dabaray* > \**dabrē* [> *dibre* = דִּבְרֵי] “words of” passim; \**barakat* > \**barkat* [> *birkat* = בִּרְכַת] “blessing of”).<sup>91</sup> The evidence is limited from the Secunda, but may reflect the preservation of /a/ in this context (i.e., δαβρη “words of” Ps 35:20; cf. דִּבְרֵי).<sup>92</sup>

Similarly, the shift of \*/a/ to /ε/ (as in \**malku* > \**malk* > *melk* [= מֶלֶךְ] “king”) is peculiar to THT.<sup>93</sup> In BHT and the Secunda, the vowel of these segolate nouns is usually /a/ (e.g., \**gabr* > γαβρ corresponding to גָּבֵר “man”

89. See, e.g., McCarter, “Hebrew,” 329. He refers to the phenomenon as “*qatqat* → *qitqat* dissimulation.”

90. Brønno, *Studien*, 173. Note also *madbār* in the Samaritan Tradition (SP Exod 14:11; cf. THT מִדְבָּר); *madbār* in the Old Babylonian Tradition (Deut 9:28; cf. THT מִדְבָּר). For the examples, see Florentin, “Samaritan Tradition,” 2:73; Heijmans, “Babylonian Tradition,” *HBH* 2:91.

91. The reason words like \**malkēkem* (> מַלְכֵיכֶם) “your kings” preserve the /a/ vowel is due presumably to the influence of forms like מֶלְכִי “my king.”

92. See Brønno, *Studien*, 151. The feminine attests *epsilon*: βσεδκαθαχ corresponding to בְּצִדְקָתְךָ “in your righteousness” (Ps 31:2; *ibid.*), though this is likely a reflex of the preceding sibilant (see Yuditsky, “Transcription into Greek and Latin,” 3:810) or (perhaps) the nonsonorous second root consonant (Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 39).

93. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 38–39; Lambdin, “Philippi’s Law Reconsidered,” 135–45. One assumes the same development for the second syllable of the byform of feminine *mem*-preformative nouns (used often as the construct form): \**mamlaktu* > \**mamlekt* (> מַמְלֶכֶת) “dominion of.” By contrast, Joüon (§ 29e) suggests the development of the /ε/ of the stem in מֶלֶךְ is due to assimilation to the epenthetic vowel: \**malku* > \**malek* > \**melek*. See also W. Randall Garr, “The Seghol and Segholution in Hebrew,” *JNES* 48 (1989): 109–16.



Ps 89:49).<sup>94</sup> A similar shift of \*/a/ to THT /ε/ is implied in a wide variety of other places. Note too the same shift in *hiphil* short-*yiqṭol* and *wayyiqṭol* forms from III-*vav/yod* roots: \**tarb* > *terb* = תָּרַב “may you multiply” (Ps 71:21) [*hiphil* רָבָה] and \**wayyarb* > *wayyerb* = וַיַּרְב “he multiplied” (2 Sam 18:8) [*hiphil* רָבָה]. A related phonetic shift may also be reflected in energetic verb forms: \**yašmuranhū* > \**yišmārannū* > *yišmrēnnu* = יִשְׁמְרֵנו “he will guard him” (Exod 21:29).<sup>95</sup>

The shift of a historical \*/a/ to /ε/ in THT also occurs in some cases where we presume a historical doubling of a guttural (*aleph*, *he*, *khet*, *ayin*) followed by THT /ā/. Since it is difficult to determine the presence of this shift in the Hebrew before the time of the Masoretes, it is unclear if this phenomenon was present in earlier varieties of Hebrew. Most commonly, this dissimilation is found in two environments: in the definite article before words that begin with a guttural (*he*, *khet*, *ayin*) + /ā/, and with medial-guttural words of the \**qattal(at)* base.<sup>96</sup> The most commonly occurring words associated with this phenomenon are (\**hahharrīma* >) הַהָרִים “the mountains” and (\**ha*“*arrīma* >) הָעָרִים “the cities.” Note, also, other words like הַהֶמוֹן “the tumult,” הַהָרוֹס “the (altar) that had been destroyed,” הַחֹג “the festival,” הַחֲצֵר “the court,” הָעֶנָן “the cloud,” הָעֶרְל “the uncircumcised.” Where the *he* or the *ayin* begins a tonic syllable, however, this shift does not take place (e.g., \**hahharru* > \**hāhār* [> הָהָר]; \**ha*“*ammu* > \**hā*“*ām* [> הָעָם]). Nouns of the \**qattal(at)* base exhibit simi-

94. Brønno, *Studien*, 173. Note also *napaš* (in the Old Babylonian Tradition at Deut 10:22 corresponding to נָפִישׁ), as presented in Heijmans, “Babylonian Tradition,” 2:92. It is also conceivable that in \**qatl* nouns that have a relatively nonsonorous second root consonant (i.e., not /l/, /n/, /m/, /r/), the historical \*/a/ vowel shifted to \*/i/ in forms with suffix, as with \**šadqī* > \**šidqī* (> צִדְקִי) “my righteousness” vs. the expected development in the absolute, \**šadq* > \**šedq* (> צִדֵּק) (see Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 39). On the other hand, in the Secunda, the tendency is for sibilants to shift historical \*/a/-class vowels to /ε/, as in εσδ corresponding to הָסֵד (< \**hasd*) “piety” (Ps 32:10) and in εσαδ corresponding to צִדְקִי “my righteousness” (Ps 35:27) (see Yuditsky, “Transcription into Greek and Latin,” 3:810).

95. The evidence from the Secunda is slender but seems to presuppose a shift from \*/a/ to /ε/ in energetic forms: αωδενου corresponding to אֶהוֹדְנו “I will praise you” (Ps 28:7); note also αωδεχα, which corresponds to הַיֹּדֵחַ “will he praise you” (Ps 30:10), though the transliteration seems to presuppose an energetic form, \**hīyōdē* (see Brønno, *Studien*, 195–97).

96. Given the environments in which it occurs, it seems to have been a shift that affected words relatively late (at least after the lengthening of vowels in the tonic and pretonic syllables). See Steven Fassberg, “Dissimilation,” *EHLL* 1:766–67.

lar transformations: *\*kahhāš* (> כָּהֵשׁ) “lying,” *\*bahhālā* (> בָּהֵלָה) “horror,” *\*lahhābā* (> לָהֵבָה) “flame.” Among nouns with suffixes, note the relatively frequent (*\*’ahhāyhu* >) *\*’ahhāw* (> אָחָיו) “his brothers.”

In still other cases, it is hard to know the reason for the vowel shift. Note, for example, the shift presumed in the vowel between the stem and suffix in pausal forms, like *\*dabaraka* > *\*dabārakā* (> *dbārekā* = דְּבַרְכָּךְ) “your word” (Gen 30:34).<sup>97</sup> Unlike the examples discussed above, in this case the historical *\*/a/* is not followed by two consonants.

### 3.8. “Philippi’s Law” and Similar Changes

In many other cases, historical short *\*/i/* became */a/* (in essence, the reverse of attenuation). It will be obvious to students, at the intermediate level, that often the presence of a guttural or *resh* will affect the vowel that precedes or follows it. Often, *\*/i/* shifts to */a/* (e.g., *\*di’tu* > *da’t* [= דִּיעַת] “knowledge” and *\*pārihtu* > *\*pōraht* [> פִּרְחַת] “one sprouting”). Presumably this tendency for the gutturals to attract the */a/* vowel is a relatively early phenomenon.<sup>98</sup>

A relatively late shift consists of the historical short *\*/i/* becoming */a/* in construct forms and in the stem of some verbal forms. As indicated above (in §4, “Lengthening and Lowering of Vowels in Tonic Syllables”), it is assumed that *\*/i/* initially became *\*/ε/* in these forms before then becoming */a/*.

97. Cf. the contextual form דְּבַרְכִּי (in 1 Sam 9:10). In the Secunda, one finds that the 2ms suffix on singular nouns in pause is usually marked with *-αχ*, as in *αμμαχ* corresponding to עַמְּךָ “your people” (Ps 28:9); but it appears once as *-αχα*, in *ισααχα* corresponding to יִשְׁעֶךָ “your salvation” (Ps 18:36) (see Brønno, *Studien*, 288); *-αχ* is also the most common form of the suffix on contextual nouns (ibid., 341). Similarly, on plural nouns both pausal and contextual, the 2ms suffix is usually marked with *-αχ*, as in *φαναχ* corresponding to פָּנֶיךָ “your face” (Ps 30:8) (ibid., 199). By contrast, most cases of the 2ms suffixes on *yiqtol* verbs, whether in pause or context, are *-εχ*, as in *ωδεχ* corresponding to אֶדְיִךָ “I will praise you” (Ps 35:18) but also pausal אֶדְיִךָ (Ps 30:13) (ibid., 195).

98. At the least, the */a/* vowel occurred near gutturals in the late Second Temple era, as suggested by various transcriptions, including from the Secunda. Note the theme vowel in *θεβαρ* corresponding to תִּבְעַר “it will burn” Ps 89:47 and the epenthetic vowel represented by *ουβααρ* corresponding to וְבָעַר “and idiot” Ps 49:11 (Brønno, *Studien*, 28, 139). In other cases, sometimes *\*/i/* lowered to */ε/* (e.g., חֶלְקֵם “their portion” Gen 14:24).

- ◆ \**zaqinu*- > \**zaqin*- > \**zaqen*- (> *zqan*- = זָקֵן) “elder of”
- ◆ \**zaqinta* > \**zāqentā* (> *zāqantā* = זָקַנְתָּ) “you are old”
- ◆ \**yāliditaha* > \**yōlɛdtaha* (> *yoladtāh* = יָלַדְתָּהּ) “one who bore her”
- ◆ \**dabbirta* > \**dibbertā* (> *dibbartā* = דִּבַּרְתָּ) “you spoke”
- ◆ \**haggidta* > \**higgɛdtā* (> *higgadtā* = הִגִּדְתָּ) “you told”
- ◆ \**tilikna* > \**tēlekna* (> *telaknā* = תֵּלַכְנָה) “they will go.”<sup>99</sup>

This shift is often described as a development of \*/i/ > /a/ in stressed syllables and is labeled “Philippi’s Law.”<sup>100</sup> Notice in relation to the forms above that the historical \*/i/ is, in each case, followed by two consonants in the interior of a word (assuming that the construct form זָקֵן would be pronounced with a following word).<sup>101</sup> The phenomenon, it should be noted, admits of many exceptions (e.g., \**likna* > \**lekna* [> לִכְנָה] “go!” and \**libbu* > \**leb* [> לֵב] “heart”). Although the shift \*/i/ > /a/ used to be considered an extremely early phenomenon, it is now usually thought to be relatively late (at least where it occurs in the above listed forms), appearing in different distributions in different reading traditions, but not in the Secunda.<sup>102</sup> In the Secunda, the historical \*/i/ is usually realized as *epsilon*, which likely

99. See Lambdin, “Philippi’s Law Reconsidered,” 142. The shift in words such as זָקֵן may be due to analogy with nouns of the \**qatal* base (See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 43 n. 41, who cites Thomas O. Lambdin pers. comm.). Also, \**abbida* > \**ibbid* > \**ibbed* (> אָבַד) “he destroyed” (in context), due to dominance of /a/ in stative and passive verbs (?); see Joüon § 52c.

100. See John Huehnergard, “Philippi’s Law,” *EHLL* 3:70–71 and Steven E. Fassberg, “Two Biblical Hebrew Sound Laws in Light of Modern Spoken Semitic” in *Nicht nur mit Engelszungen: Beiträge zur semitischen Dialektologie, Festschrift für Werner Arnold zum 60. Geburtstag*, ed., Renaud Kutty, Ulrich Seeger, and Shabo Talay (Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 2013), 97–99. The mnemonic “Philippi-Philappi” is sometimes used to remember the rule. Note still other isolated examples like \**bint* > \**bitt* (> בַּת) “daughter”; \**pitt* (> פֶּת) “piece” vs. פִּתִּים “pieces.”

101. The shift of \*/i/ to /ɛ/ in contextual forms but to /â/ in pausal forms is also found in fs ptcs. and in inf. const. of the I-vav/yod and I-nun roots. See above §4, “Lengthening and Lowering of Vowels in Tonic Syllables.”

102. Lambdin, “Philippi’s Law Reconsidered,” 143. Khan (“Sere,” 139–40) suggests that the Secunda is an outlier and that other traditions (like that presumed for the LXX) evidence this shift to /a/ earlier than the Secunda. Blau (*Phonology and Morphology*, 134) views it as occurring after pausal lengthening had ceased to operate. The orthography of the DSS only makes explicit an /i/ vowel in these forms, though these forms can perhaps be attributed to Aramaic influence: והוֹלִיכְתִּי “I will lead” (1QIsa<sup>a</sup> at Isa 42:16) vs. והוֹלִיכְתִּי.

reflects a Hebrew /i/, /e/, or /ε/.<sup>103</sup> Note the *piel* ελλεθ (cf. תִּלְלֶהָ) “you profaned” (Ps 89:40); the *hiphil*: εσθερθα (cf. תִּסְתֶּרְתָּ) “you hid” (Ps 30:8).<sup>104</sup>

### 3.9. Canaanite Shift and Historical \*/ā/

The term “Canaanite shift” refers to the shift of \*/ā/ to \*/ō/.<sup>105</sup> This shift is attested in the indigenous language used by some Canaanite correspondents in the Amarna letters, letters written on behalf of various city rulers (like the ruler of Jerusalem) to the Egyptian pharaoh Akhnaten (ca. 1350s–1330s BCE). The letters are written in Sumero-Akkadian cuneiform in the Akkadian language (an East Semitic language, where the historical /ā/ was preserved). Nevertheless, sometimes the scribes would include words from their own Northwest Semitic dialect, where \*/ā/ had shifted to /ō/. Thus, in the cuneiform Akkadian script, *a-nu-ki* is written for what was presumably pronounced as *’anōki* “I,” a pronoun that derives from an earlier form *’anāku*.<sup>106</sup> Similarly, *a-bu-ti-nu* was pronounced something like *’abōtinu* “our fathers” (from an earlier *’abātinu*) and *sú-ki-ni* like *sōkini* “steward” (from an earlier *\*sākinu*).<sup>107</sup> Eventually, this vowel would be represented with *holem* by the Masoretes: אָנֹכִי, אָבוֹתֵינוּ, and סֹכֵן.

103. Writing in relation to verb forms such as תִּתֵּן, Khan (“*Šere*,” 139) notes that, although Tiberian *patakh* sometimes corresponds to *epsilon* in the Secunda, this is never the case with verbal forms like תִּתֵּן; he writes: “Since *alpha* is never used in the final syllable of the verbal forms in question, it is likely that the *epsilon* here was intended to represent [sic] a closer vowel.” In the case of verbal forms like those above, the Secunda represents the last stem vowel with *epsilon* in all but one case (out of twelve examples): *μαγαρθα* (cf. תִּמְצֶרְתָּ) “you threw” Ps 89:45, which form seems like a *qal* (see Brønno, *Studien*, 64–68, 88). Not counted are the two *hithpael* forms (ibid., 107), which attest /a/-vowels perhaps reflecting the tendency for /a/-class vowels in this conjugation.

104. Cf. the *hiphil* 3ms: *εριμ* “he thundered,” Ps 29:3, corresponding to הִרְעִים. For the examples, see Yuditsky, “Hebrew and Greek in Latin Transcriptions,” 1:111.

105. Blau (*Phonology and Morphology*, 48) argues that this only took place in accented syllables. However, Fassberg (“Two Biblical Hebrew Sound Laws,” 95–97) has recently argued that it is more likely that all \*/ā/ vowels shifted to \*/ō/.

106. Sumero-Akkadian cuneiform has no independent symbols to mark the /o/ vowel and so scribes used the symbols for /u/.

107. For more examples, see Sivan, *Grammatical Analysis*, 29–34. Serpent incantations from the Pyramid Texts may suggest that the Canaanite Shift took place by at least the third millennium BCE (see Richard C. Steiner, *Early Northwest Semitic Serpent Spells in the Pyramid Texts*, HSS 61 [Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2011], 46).

Most commonly, the \*/ō/ (< \*/ā/) appears in the first syllable of the *qal* active participle: \*šāmīru > \*šōmēr (> שֹׁמֵר), and in the ending of feminine plural nouns/adjectives: \*barakātu > \*bārākōt (> בְּרָכוֹת). Note also the base \*qatāl, on which are formed nouns like \*lāšōn (> לָשׁוֹן) “tongue” and \*ādōn (> אֲדֹן) “lord,” as well as the *qal* infinitive absolute (e.g., \*šāmōr [> שֹׁמֵר]).<sup>108</sup> As with other vowels that derive from historical long vowels, the \*/ā/ that became \*/ō/ never reduced to *shewa* or further altered in quality in BH (e.g., יְדָעִי “knowers of” Isa 51:7). This is in contrast to the short /u/ that sometimes was realized as /o/, as in \*huqqu > \*hoqq > \*hoq (> חֹק) “statute” but that remains /u/ in other forms such as the plural, \*huqqīma > \*huqqīm (> חֻקִּים).<sup>109</sup> Recognizing the most common bases and forms that include the \*/ō/ (< \*/ā/) vowel can help in the comprehension and reproduction of verbal and nominal forms.

It should be noted that in some exceptional words and forms a PS \*/ā/ is not realized as \*/ō/, but seems to remain \*/ā/ and in THT is realized as /ā/ (i.e., *qamets*). In these cases, the reason may be influence from Aramaic or an Aramaic-like dialect. In ancient Aramaic, historical \*/ā/ remained \*/ā/. Influence from Aramaic gradually became stronger and stronger over the course of the first millennium BCE. All the same, some words probably migrated from Aramaic (or another similar dialect) in earlier periods.

Note the following examples, where the \*/ā/ derives from a historical long \*/ā/:

- ♦ \*yiqāru > \*yāqār (> יָקָר) “honor”
- ♦ \*kitābu > \*kātāb (> כָּתַב) “book”
- ♦ \*mašādu > \*mašād (> מָצַד) “mountain refuge”
- ♦ \*sVpāru > \*sāpār (> סָפַר) “calculation”
- ♦ \*qarābu > \*qārāb (> קָרַב) “war.”<sup>110</sup>

In these cases, the Aramaic influence is seen not only in the retention of \*/ā/, but also in the pretonic reduction of the historical short vowels \*/i/ and \*/a/. Such reduction is characteristic of Aramaic but uncharacteristic

108. Other bases like \*qattāl are less common.

109. In the construct form with the *maqṣef*, the short \*/u/ lowered further in quality to /ā/ in THT, as reflected in חֻקִּי; with suffixes the vowel sometimes appears as a short \*/u/: \*huqqī (> חֻקִּי). Similarly with the word “all”: \*kol (> כָּל) and \*kullō (כָּלּוֹ).

110. See Stadel, “Aramaic Influence on Biblical Hebrew,” 1:162–65; and Hornkohl, *Ancient Hebrew Periodization*, 152–58.

of Hebrew, where pretonic \*/i/ and \*/a/ usually lengthen to \*/ē/ and \*/ā/ (as described above). Other examples of \*/ā/ possibly derived from Aramaic influence include those Hebrew words exhibiting Aramaic infinitival patterns, like those of the D-stem infinitive \**qattālā* and the H-stem infinitive \**haqtālā*:

- ♦ \**bahhālā* (> בְּהִלָּה) “horror”
- ♦ \**baqqārā* (> בְּקָרָה\*) “care”
- ♦ \**baqqāšā* (> בְּקָשָׁה\*) “request”
- ♦ \**nahhāmā* (> נַחֲמָה\*) “comfort”
- ♦ \**hakkārā* (> הִקְרָה\*) “recognition”
- ♦ \**hānāhā* (> הִנָּחָה) “resting”
- ♦ \**hānāpā* (> הִנָּפָה) “waving”
- ♦ \**haṣṣālā* (> הִצָּלָה) “deliverance.”<sup>111</sup>

In all these cases, the \*/ā/ does not reduce in construct or in other positions with suffix:

- ♦ \**katāb* (> כְּתָב-) “writing of [the law]” (Esth 4:8)
- ♦ \**baqqārat* (> בְּקָרַת) “care of [the shepherd]” (Ezek 34:12)
- ♦ \**baqqāšātēk* (> בְּקָשְׁתֶּךָ) “your request” (Esth 5:6).<sup>112</sup>

In addition, II-*vav/yod* roots also attest what at first glance appears to be a historical \*/ā/ which developed due to various triphthong contractions:

- ♦ \**ḡawabu* > \**ḡāb* > \**āb* (> עָב) “cloud”
- ♦ \**rawamatu* > \**rāmā* (> רָמָה) “high place”
- ♦ \**qawamu* > \**qām* (> קָם) “one who arises”
- ♦ \**tawabu* > \**šāb* (> שָׁב) “one who returns.”<sup>113</sup>

111. Stadel, “Aramaic Influence on Biblical Hebrew,” 1:162–65. Huehnergard (“Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 51) suggests these might derive instead from \**qattalat*, based on Akkadian evidence.

112. Stadel, “Aramaic Influence on Biblical Hebrew,” 1:162–65.

113. For the adjective רָמָה, see Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 162; for the participles, see *ibid*. Another example may be the plural of עִיר “city,” \**ayarim* > \**ārīm* > עָרִים (cf. עִירִים “cities” in Judg 10:4), but note that Huehnergard and others have suggested an alternative explanation of suppletion, from another root, עָרַר (see Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 32 n. 22 with literature).

As in the cases of the apparent Aramaisms above, in these Hebrew words the \*/ā/ does not reduce:

- ♦ \**ābē* (> עֲבִי) “clouds of [the heaven]” (Ps 18:12)
- ♦ \**rāmātēk* (> רָמַתְךָ) “your high place” (Ezek 16:31)
- ♦ \**qāmēhem* (> קָמִיהֶם) “those rising against them” (Exod 32:25)
- ♦ \**šābē* (> שָׁבִי) “those returning from [transgression]” (Isa 59:20).<sup>114</sup>

This \*/ā/ is analogous to the \*/ē/ that appears in words like \**mēt* (> מֵת) “dead one” (\**mētē* [> מֵתִי] “dead ones of”).<sup>115</sup> Huehnergard and others categorize these words as from the Proto-Hebrew base \**qal* and \**qil* respectively.<sup>116</sup> All things being equal, the \*/ā/ resulting from contractions should have become /ō/ in Hebrew through the Canaanite Shift, suggesting a sequence of changes like the following: \**qawama* > \**qāma* > \**qama* (time of Canaanite Shift) > \**qām* > קָם.<sup>117</sup>

In only very rare cases does a historical short \*/a/ not reduce in an open syllable. The most notable example is found in the *niphal yiqtol* and related forms, like the imperative: \**hiššamirū* > \**hiššāmərū* (> הִשְׁמְרוּ) “be attentive!” (Exod 19:12).

### 3.10. Loss of Final Short Vowels

Most words in the precursor to Hebrew in the second millennium BCE would have ended with a short vowel. Singular nouns and adjectives would have ended in case vowels consisting of a single short vowel (e.g., \**malku* “king” in the nominative case vs. \**malka* “king” in the accusative case).<sup>118</sup> Verbs, too, often ended in short vowels, as with the *yiqtol* form \**yašmuru*

114. Note also the potential parallel \**ārē* (> עָרֵי) “cities of [the Levites]” Lev 25:32 (see the preceding footnote).

115. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 29 and his article “Features of Central Semitic,” 176–78.

116. See Huehnergard, “Features of Central Semitic,” 176–78; Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 29.

117. Further inconsistencies are found in other traditions; in Samaritan Hebrew, e.g., the PNWS \*/ā/ does not shift to /ō/ in various words where the shift does happen in THT: [ānāki] (cf. אֲנִי “I”; [lā] (cf. לֹא “no” (see Florentin, “Samaritan Tradition,” 1:124).

118. See ch. 4 §4, “Inflection of Basic Masculine and Feminine Nouns,” for an elaboration of the case system.



“he will guard” (vs. short-*yiqtol* \**yašmur*). At some point near the beginning of the first millennium, these short vowels were lost from the ends of words. This contributed to a number of further changes that are documented below, including the obsolescence of the case system (\**malk* could function as a nominative or accusative), and the general loss of distinction between the regular *yiqtol* and the short-*yiqtol*.

### 3.11. Feminine Singular \*-at > \*-ā

In the second millennium BCE, the feminine morpheme on singular nouns was often *-at*. Thus, a typical word like “queen” \**malkā* (> מַלְכָּה) would have had the form \**malkat* followed by a case vowel (e.g., \**malkatu*). By the first millennium BCE, case vowels were lost and the feminine morpheme \*-at had shifted to \*-a and later \*-ā. In essence, the *taw* was lost and the preceding vowel was preserved as short and later lengthened.<sup>119</sup> Cognizance of this earlier form for feminine singular nouns is helpful since it explains the form of feminine nouns in construct and with suffixes. It is helpful to remember that words with endings are often closer to their historical, etymological forms.<sup>120</sup> Thus, one finds the construct form *malkat* (= מַלְכַּת) “queen of” and we would expect to find, based on analogous nouns with suffixes, \**malkātō* (> מַלְכָּתוֹ\*) “his queen” and \**malkātakā* > \**malkātakā* (> מַלְכָּתְּךָ\*) “your queen.”<sup>121</sup>

### 3.12. Triphthongs and Diphthongs

At a relatively early date, by at least the beginning of the first millennium BCE, certain sequences of vowels and semivowels (i.e., /w/ and /y/) had contracted.<sup>122</sup> We have just described the early resolution of triphthongs in II-*vav/yod* roots that are eventually realized in BH as \*/ā/ and then /ā/.

119. See Geoffrey Khan, “Compensatory Lengthening,” *EHL* 1:501.

120. Words in construct are similar to words bearing suffixes since the construct word is essentially attached to the following word. The linking of words means that the second (nonconstruct) word essentially functions like a suffix to the first word.

121. Cf. מַלְכָּתוֹ “his love” and מַלְכָּתְּךָ “your love.”

122. The two sounds /w/ and /y/ are called semivowels because they share qualities of both vowels and consonants. Note the examples of resolved diphthongs and triphthongs assembled by Sivan, *Grammatical Analysis and Glossary*, 12–19 (from the second millennium BCE) and Millard, “Transcriptions into Cuneiform,” 3:838–47 (from the first millennium BCE).



In general, triphthongs that ended with \*/a/ became \*/ā/ and then /ā/ in THT; triphthongs that ended with a short \*/i/ or \*/u/ developed into \*/ē/, which then became /ē/ by the time of the Secunda. In the latter case, the exact sequence of changes is hard to trace.<sup>123</sup>

- ♦ *\*banaya* > *\*banā* > *\*bānā* (> בָּנָה) “he built” (passim)
- ♦ *\*yabniyu* > *\*yibnē* > *yibne* (= יִבְנֶה) “he will build”
- ♦ *\*yagluwu* > *\*yagluyu* > *\*yiglē* > *yigle* (= יִגְלֶה) “he will reveal”
- ♦ *\*ma<sup>ʿ</sup>sayu* > *\*ma<sup>ʿ</sup>sē* > *ma<sup>ʿ</sup>se* (= מַעֲשֶׂה) “deed.”

Where a triphthong ended in a long vowel, that long vowel eclipsed the preceding vowel and semivowel and the long vowel is all that remains:

- ♦ *\*yagluwūna* > *\*yaglu<sup>y</sup>ūna* > *\*yigluyū* > *\*yiglū* (> יִגְלוּ) “they will reveal”
- ♦ *\*qašiyīma* > *\*qāšīm* (> קָשִׁים) “hard”
- ♦ *\*qašiyātu* > *\*qašiyōt* > *\*qāšōt* (> קָשׁוֹת) “hard.”

For nouns, one assumes a contraction with a case vowel (e.g., see *\*ma<sup>ʿ</sup>sayu* above).<sup>124</sup> That the contraction of triphthongs involved case vowels implies the early date of these contractions since the case vowels (and all final short vowels) dropped off words relatively early in the history of Hebrew (by around the first millennium BCE).<sup>125</sup>

123. The contraction of triphthongs should result in a long vowel (e.g., /ē/). This seems to be evidenced in cuneiform transcriptions of Hebrew names (from ca. 800s–600s BCE), as with *mi-na-si-i*, *me-na-se-e*, *me-na-si-i*, *mi-in-se-e*, *mu-na-se-e*, and *me-na-se-e* (for מְנַשֶּׁה “Manasseh”), where the sequence of consonant-vowel + vowel signs implies a long, final vowel (see Millard, “Transcriptions into Cuneiform,” 3:840–41). This is also suggested by the transcription of III-*vav/yod* words in the LXX with final *ēta* (representing /ē/); see Khan, “*Ṣere*,” 136–37. Were these resolved triphthongs always pronounced /ē/? In any case, the Secunda represented the vowel in question with *epsilon* (e.g., *μασε* [cf. מַחֲסֶה] “refuge” Ps 46:2).

124. On case vowels, see below in chapter 4 §4, “Inflection of Basic Masculine and Feminine Nouns.” See, e.g., Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 98.

125. Although some words, such as חַי “alive,” צִו “command!” (the apocopated form of the *piel* imperative), and קו “line,” might seem at first to be exceptions, these actually attested geminated *vavs/yods* (e.g., *\*ḥayyu*) at the time when the language had case vowels. The gemination of the consonant preserved the historical vowels (see Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 99–100).

Diphthong contraction (i.e., \*/ay/ > \*/ē/ and \*/aw/ > \*/ō/) is seen in THT in the inflection of short words such as יַיִן “wine,” בַּיִת “house,” זֵית “olive,” מוֹת “death,” and also in verbs:

- ♦ \*yaynu > \*yayn > \*yēn (> יַיִן) “wine of”
- ♦ \*baytiyya > \*baytī > \*bētī (> בַּיִת) “my house”
- ♦ \*mawtu > \*mawt > \*mōt (> מוֹת) “death of”
- ♦ \*hawšī‘a > \*hōšī‘ (> הוֹשִׁיעַ) “he delivered” [*hiphil* יִשַׁע]
- ♦ \*hayṭiba > \*hēṭib (> הֵיטִיב) “he treated well” [*hiphil* יִטַּב].

One frequently sees contraction of diphthongs in the plural noun plus pronominal suffix (e.g., \*dabaraykumu > \*dabrēkem [> דְּבָרֵיכֶם] “your words”). Only exceptionally does the /ay/ diphthong appear to have contracted to short /e/: \*dabarayka > \*dābārekā (> דְּבָרַיְכָא) “your words” and \*dabarayha > \*dābārehā (> דְּבָרַיְהָ) “her words.”<sup>126</sup>

For the southern version of Classical Hebrew of the first part of the first millennium BCE the diphthongs /ay/ and /aw/ would have been preserved, presumably even when unaccented. This is suggested by the spelling of certain words in texts dating to the 700s–580s BCE. For example, in Hebrew letters from Arad (ca. 600 BCE) and Lachish (586 BCE), the word “wine” is spelled with a medial *yod*, *yyn*, both in the absolute state and in the construct state, implying the preservation of a diphthong: \*yayn.<sup>127</sup> Since *matres* are not predictably found within words in inscriptions to indicate /ē/ at this time, it is easier to argue that the second *yod* of *yyn* is a true consonant, not a *mater* for a resolved diphthong.<sup>128</sup> The THT version of the word in the absolute, יַיִן, is essentially the same, with an epenthetic vowel, /i/, inserted between the final two consonants (though in construct the diphthong resolves, as noted above). In addition, Neo-Assyrian cuneiform transcriptions sometimes reveal the presence of diphthongs, as in the

126. Is it perhaps a case of dissimilation (i.e., \*dabarayaha > \*dabarāhā > dābārehā [= דְּבָרַיְהָ]), akin to the dissimilation in הֶהָרִים (see §7 above, “Attenuation’ and Similar Changes”)?

127. On the dates, see Shmuel Ahituv, *Echoes from the Past: Hebrew and Cognate Inscriptions from the Biblical Period*, trans. Anson Rainey, Carta Handbook (Jerusalem: Carta, 2008), 59, 92. The word *yyn* is found in Lachish letter 25 and Arad 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 11. See also F. W. Dobbs-Allsopp et al., eds., *Hebrew Inscriptions: Texts from the Biblical Period of the Monarchy with Concordance* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 2005).

128. For the evidence, see Gogel, *Grammar of Epigraphic Hebrew*, 66–67.

transliteration of “Hosea” (THT הוֹשֵׁעַ) *a-ú-se-ʿ* (reflecting something like *\*hawšeʿ*).<sup>129</sup> In later times (probably by the middle of the first millennium BCE), these diphthongs were preserved only in stressed position. Thus, “wine” was *\*yayn* in the absolute, but *\*yēn* in construct or with pronominal suffixes.

In the north, however, it seems that these diphthongs had contracted early on, even in the accented syllable of the absolute noun. The same word “wine” is found in inscriptions from the north (in Samaria), dating approximately to 780–740 BCE; in these texts the diphthong did resolve as implied by the spelling with just one *yod*: *yn* (*\*yēn*) “wine.”<sup>130</sup> A reduction of diphthongs is also found in dialects and languages of NWS even further north, as in Phoenician and Ugaritic. This small disparity between the northern and southern dialects of Hebrew is not preserved in the MT, but it is useful to know that within the time that the biblical texts were being written distinct dialects coexisted. Moreover, the resolution of accented diphthongs appears to have survived into Samaritan Hebrew, where, for example, “water” appears as [mem] (cf. THT מַיִם).<sup>131</sup>

129. See Millard, “Transcriptions into Cuneiform,” 3:840. Note that the same name is also spelled without a diphthong as *ú-se-ʿ*. In addition, the name of a Samaritan, אֶהֱיָהּ, is spelled *ahī-i-ú*, presuming a pronunciation something like *ʾahhiyyō*, where the *he* of the earlier *-yahū* has elided and the resulting diphthong has resolved (see *ibid.*, 3:841).

130. On the date, see Ahituv, *Echoes from the Past*, 259; and Dobbs-Allsopp et al., *Hebrew Inscriptions*, 423. The word *yn* is found in Samaria Ostraca 5, 12, 13, 14, 53, 54. See Garr, *Dialect Geography*, 38–39. Naʾama Pat-El (“Israelian Hebrew: A Re-Evaluation,” *VT* 67 (2017: 227–63) emphasizes that there is counterevidence for this dialectal trait (i.e., the preservation of the diphthong /ay/ seems to be evidenced in the orthography of *byt* “house of” in two inscriptions from the north [from Beth Shean, Bshn 1:2, and Tell Qasil, Qas 2:1]; and the apparent resolution of the diphthong in the orthography of *qš* (< *\*qys*) “summer” in a southern text [Gezer Calendar, Gez 7]). As Pat-El herself observes, however, the spellings with the diphthong in the north (with *byt*) are part of names and thus “less convincing” (*ibid.*, 244 n. 49). See Garr (*Dialect Geography*, 38–39) for possible explanations of *byt* and for another anomaly from the south. Despite the inconsistencies with other words, the spelling of the word “wine” appears to reflect this distinction between the north and south regularly.

131. See Florentin, “Samaritan Tradition,” 1:123. Note, too, that *\*ay* > *\*i* in certain environments; see Richard C. Steiner, “On the Monophthongization of *\*ay* to *i* in Phoenician and Northern Hebrew and the Preservation of Archaic / Dialectal Forms in the Masoretic Vocalization,” *Orientalia* 76 (2007): 73–83.

## 3.13. Compensatory Lengthening

Compensatory lengthening refers to the lengthening (and sometimes lowering) of a vowel due to the loss of a following consonant. This is found not only in later varieties of Hebrew, but is already presupposed in the Canaanite pronunciation reflected in certain spellings of words in the Amarna correspondence, mentioned above (ca. 1350–1330 BCE). For example, the word “head,” based on comparative evidence, would have been *\*raʿšu* in an early stage of the language. The word is found spelled with the first-person common plural pronominal suffix in the Amarna letters: *ru-šu-nu* “our head,” reflecting the pronunciation *rōšu* for the word without suffix.<sup>132</sup> This presumes the development of *\*raʿšu* > *\*rāšu* (compensatory lengthening) > *\*rōš* (Canaanite shift) (> רֹאשׁ).<sup>133</sup>

Compensatory lengthening continued to operate in specific environments at specific times. Generally, compensatory lengthening is associated with guttural consonants (as well as *resh*), where these consonants should be pronounced at the end of a syllable. Compensatory lengthening was especially common before geminated gutturals, where the first of the two gutturals was lost and the preceding vowel lengthened. In essence, the difficulty of extending the articulation of a guttural consonant after a short vowel led to the shortening of the consonant and the lengthening of the vowel. Stated in another way, the loss of one component of a word (a consonant) led to its replacement with another component (the length of the vowel) such that the word retained its basic syllable structure and rhythm. Blau suggests that this took place in the syllable that bore the stress.<sup>134</sup>

The phenomenon seems, at first blush, to appear only randomly in the language and this can cause confusion for the student. Why, one may ask, does compensatory lengthening appear in (*\*birrika* >) *\*bērek* (> בִּרְךָ) “he blessed” and (*\*yubarriku* >) *\*yabārek* (> יְבָרֵךְ) “he will bless” but not in (*\*biʿira* >) *\*biʿer* (> בִּיעַר) “he kindled” and (*\*yubaʿiru* >) *\*yabaʿer* (> יְבַעַר) “he will kindle”? Or, why does the etymological short *\*/i/* of the *niphal* *yiqtol* prefix become lengthened, as reflected in (*\*yihḥašibu* >)

132. See Sivan, *Grammatical Analysis*, 29–30. The final /u/ vowel is the nominative case vowel.

133. A similar development pertains to the word *šú-ú-nu*, pronounced *šōnu* “small herd animal” and eventually written צֶאֱנָן. See also Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 78. See more on this word in ch. 4 §18, “Segolate Nouns.”

134. Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 87.

\**yēhāšeb* (> יִחָשֵׁב) “it will be considered,” but the same vowel remain short in the *piel* *qāṭal* (\**šahhita* >) \**šihhet* (> שִׁחַת) “he destroyed”?<sup>135</sup>

At least some of these inconsistencies can be explained by noting the place of articulation of the three short vowels and by postulating a specific sequence of developments related to the pronunciation of gutturals (+ *resh*). The short \*/i/, being a front vowel, is furthest in its place of articulation from the gutturals. It lengthens/lowers least often. On the other hand, short \*/u/, being a back vowel, is closest in its place of articulation to the gutturals; it lengthens/lowers most often. As for the gutturals themselves, they seem to have ceased gemination at different times.

At the earliest stages, the *aleph* and *resh* ceased being geminated (and, in the case of *aleph*, ceased being pronounced within a word in certain environments [e.g., \**raʿšu*]) and this led to compensatory lengthening before *aleph* and *resh*.<sup>136</sup> As a consequence, compensatory lengthening is most common before these letters, resulting in the development of long-vowel versions of each of the short vowels:

- ♦ \*/i/ > \*/ē/ as in (\**birrika* >) \**bērek* (> בִּרֶךְ) “he blessed”;
- ♦ \*/a/ > \*/ā/ as in (\**yubarriku* >) \**yābārek* (> יִבָּרֶךְ) “he will bless”;
- ♦ \*/u/ > \*/ō/ as in (\**yuburraku* >) \**yābōrak* (> יִבָּרֹךְ) “he will be blessed.”<sup>137</sup>

At a later time, *ayin* ceased being pronounced as a geminated consonant.<sup>138</sup> Due to the relative lateness of this cessation and/or due to the inherent qualities of this consonant, compensatory lengthening appears only sporadically with *ayin* and only in association with certain vowels. The vowel \*/i/ often did not develop into \*/ē/ (e.g., the initial vowel in \**biʿira* > \**biʿer* [> *biʿer* = בִּיעֵר] “he kindled”). Short \*/a/ only sometimes developed into \*/ā/, as evidenced by contrasting the *piel* *yiqtol* form \**yubaʿiru* > \**yābaʿer* (> \**ybaʿer* = יִבְעֵר) “he will kindle” with the *piel* infinitive construct (= inf.

135. For more examples, see Sperber, *Historical Grammar*, 434.

136. On compensatory lengthening and its development, see Blau (*Phonology and Morphology*, 83) and Khan (“Compensatory Lengthening,” 1:501).

137. Similarly with *aleph*, note \**bēʿer* (> בִּיַּעַר) “he explained”; \**bāʿer* (> בִּיאַר) “explain!” Still, there are cases where compensatory lengthening did not take place: \**baʿer* (> בִּיאַר) “clearly.” Often the *piel* of נִאֵץ “to spurn” does not evidence compensatory lengthening.

138. I assume that this is after /ʿ/ and /ġ/ had merged.

abs.) of the same verb *\*ba<sup>c</sup>ira* > *\*bā<sup>c</sup>ēr* (> בָּעַר) “to kindle.”<sup>139</sup> However, one regularly finds compensatory lengthening of historical *\*/a/* before *ayin* in the definite article (e.g., *\*ha<sup>c</sup>iru* > *\*hā<sup>c</sup>ir* [> הָעִיר] “the city” and *\*ha<sup>c</sup>abdu* > *\*hā<sup>c</sup>abd* [> הָעֶבֶד] “the servant”). In contrast to */i/* and */a/*, the vowel *\*/u/* regularly develops into *\*/ō/*, as with pausal (*\*mubu<sup>c</sup>irtu* >) *\*mabō<sup>c</sup>art* (> מְבַעֲרַת) “was kindled.”

At the same time or a little later, *he* ceased being geminated. Neither *\*/i/* nor *\*/a/* regularly lengthen before this guttural (e.g., [*\*mihhara* >] *\*mihhar* [> *\*mihar* = מָהַר] “he hastened”; [*\*mu<sup>a</sup>ahhibu* >] *\*mā<sup>a</sup>ahhēb* [> *\*m<sup>a</sup>aheb* = מְאַהֵב] “lover”; [*\*hahhōliku* >] *\*hahhōlēk* [> *\*haholek* = הַהֹלֵךְ] “the one going”).<sup>140</sup> Only short *\*/u/* regularly lengthens to *\*/ō/*, as with (*\*mubuhhalīma* >) *\*mabōhālīm* (> מְבַהֵלִים) “making haste.”

Finally, *khet* ceased being geminated.<sup>141</sup> Compensatory lengthening is relatively rare with this consonant (*\*yahhīlnū* > *\*yihhālνū* [> *yihalnu* = יִהְלְנוּ] “we hoped”; *\*uyahhīlu* > *\*āyahhel* [> *\*yahel* = אֵיחַל] “I will hope” and *\*hahhūšku* > *\*hahhōšk* [> *hahōšk* = הַחֹשֶׁךְ] “the dark”; pausal *\*nuhḥāmā* [> *nuḥāmā* = נִחְמָה] “was not comforted”). This reflects the fact that it ceased gemination only at a very late date.<sup>142</sup> The label “virtual doubling” is used to describe the apparent gemination of *ayin*, *he* and *khet* in some of the above THT forms, where compensatory lengthening is not in evidence. Although it is “virtual” for THT, and thus the letters are not marked with a *daghes*h by the medieval scribes, the gutturals *ayin*, *he*, and *khet* were likely really geminated in the last centuries of the first millennium BCE, and *khet* likely into the Common Era.

Nevertheless, a consistent place where one does see compensatory lengthening, even with *ayin* (perhaps also */ġ/*), *he*, and *khet*, is with pre-

139. Not all verbs with middle *ayin* attest this clear distinction in the paradigm between finite and infinitive forms. The point is that sometimes you find compensatory lengthening, though usually you do not. Note, e.g., that the verb תֵּעַב “to abhor” occurs in the *piel* twelve times in *yiqṭol*, participial, and infinitival forms and attests compensatory lengthening of *\*/a/* to *\*/ā/* only four times (once in a ptc., once in a *yiqṭol* form, and twice in a *wayyiqṭol* form); it does not attest the lowering/lengthening of *\*/i/* to *\*/ē/* in the three attested *qāṭal* forms.

140. The singular absolute form of the second to last word is based on the numerous attestations of the plural with suffix, e.g., מְאַהֲבֵי.

141. I assume that this is after */h/* and */ħ/* had merged.

142. Note that the Secunda may reflect the gemination of *khet* by way of lack of compensatory lengthening in *σεωθι* corresponding to שָׁוֹתִי “I bowed down” (Ps 35:14) (see Yuditsky, “Transcription into Greek and Latin,” 3:806).

fixes containing the sequence *-in-*, either those associated with the *niphal* *yiqtol* or the *min* preposition. Thus, one sees the historical \*/i/ vowel of the *niphal* *yiqtol* prefix regularly realized as *tsere* (implying an earlier \*/ē/) in verbs beginning with not only *aleph* and *resh*, but also with *ayin*, *he*, and *khet*:

- ♦ \**yē'ākel* (> יֵאָכֵל) “it will be eaten”
- ♦ \**tērā'ε* (> תֵּרָאֶה) “it will appear”
- ♦ \**yē'āse* (> יֵעָשֶׂה) “it will be done”
- ♦ \**yēhāpek* (> יֵהָפֵךְ) “it will be turned”
- ♦ \**yēhāšeb* (> יֵחָשֵׁב) “it will be considered.”<sup>143</sup>

Note also the relatively consistent presence of \*/ē/ with the *min* preposition:

- ♦ \**mē'is* (> מֵאִישׁ) “from a man”
- ♦ \**mērāḥōq* (> מֵרָחֹק) “from a distance”
- ♦ \**mēgarb* (> מֵעָרֶב) “from evening”
- ♦ \**mēhayyōm* (> מֵהַיּוֹם) “from the day”
- ♦ \**mēhālāb* (> מֵחָלָב) “than milk.”<sup>144</sup>

Note the set of geminate nouns/pronouns that begin with *he* and exhibit compensatory lengthening in the singular with the definite article:

- ♦ (\**harru*/\**hahharu*) > \**har*/\**hāhār* (> הַר/הָאָר) “(the) mountain”
- ♦ (\**himm*/\**hahhim*) > \**hēm*/\**hāhēm* (> הֵם/הָאָהֵם) “they”
- ♦ (\**himma*/\**hahhimma*) > \**hēmā*/\**hāhēmāmā* (> הֵמָּה/הָאָהֵמָּה) “they”
- ♦ (\**hinna*/\**hahhinna*) > \**hēnā*/\**hāhēnnā* (> הֵנָּה/הָאָהֵנָּה) “they.”<sup>145</sup>

All the examples above derive from environments where the guttural (or *resh*) was initially doubled. Compensatory lengthening also took place where the guttural came at the end of an accented syllable, but where it was not doubled. For example, in the verbal form \**maša'ta* > \**mašāta* > \**māšātā* (> מָצָאתָ) “you found,” the second syllable experiences com-

143. Curiously, this does not occur with the *qāṭal* of נָחַם, which appears as נָחַם (< \**nihḥam* < \**ninḥam*) “he was comforted.”

144. Note, however, the consistent presence of *hireq* in מִחוּץ “from the outside.”

145. Similarly, note the independent pronoun “they” with definite article הֵם, but cf. הֵיאָ, הֵהוּא, הֵהוּא (Joüon, § 35d).



pensatory lengthening when the *aleph* dropped from pronunciation. It is retained in writing presumably because it is retained in pronunciation in other parts of the paradigm, like \**maṣa'u* > \**māṣa'u* > \**māṣa'u* (> מָצְאוּ) “they found.”

Vowels lengthened to compensate for the absence of a geminated guttural (or *resh*) do not reduce, even in a propretonic syllable. This helps explain the difference between such forms as \**pārātō* (> פָּרְתוֹ) “his cow” (Job 21:10) and \**šānātō* (> שָׁנָתוֹ) “his year” (Num 6:12). If one just knew the singular absolute form of both nouns (\**pārā* [> פָּרָה] and \**šānā* [> שָׁנָה]), one might believe that they derive from the same base and that they should inflect in a similar manner. However, \**pārā* (> פָּרָה) is really a geminate noun (from an earlier \**parratu*) while \**šānā* (> שָׁנָה) is not (it is from an earlier \**šanatu*). A vowel compensatorily lengthened at the end of a word will even be retained in construct: (\**mawṣa'* >) \**mōṣā ham-mayim* (> מוֹצֵא הַמַּיִם) “the spring of water” (2 Kgs 2:21); and (\**kussi'* >) \**kissē bēt yisrā'el* (> כִּסֵּא בֵּית־יִשְׂרָאֵל) “the throne of the house of Israel” (Jer 33:17).<sup>146</sup>

Given the precedent of \**ra'su* > \**rāšu* > \**rōš* (> רֹאשׁ) “head” where the lengthened \*/ā/ shifts to \*/ō/ as part of the Canaanite Shift, one may also wonder: Why did the forms \**maṣāta* and \**mōṣā* not shift to \**māṣōtā* and \**mōṣō* through the Canaanite Shift? One explanation is that the syllable -*ṣa'*(-) was not accented and so did not experience compensatory lengthening when the Canaanite Shift was taking place. Only at a later time did the accent move to the syllable -*ṣa'*- and result in the shift to -*ṣā*-. Notice also that the initial syllable in the word \**ma'kalu* > \**ma'kāl* (> מֵאֲכָל) “food” does not experience compensatory lengthening at all. Again, presumably this reflects the fact that the initial syllable was never accented.

In the Secunda, vowels are compensatorily lengthened in the manner reflected in THT.<sup>147</sup> In the DSS, the frequency of spelling mistakes involving gutturals parallels the frequency with which gutturals ceased being geminated. That is, words with *aleph* and *resh* are relatively often misspelled (often where the relevant letter is left out); words with *ayin* are misspelled slightly less often; and words with a *khet* are only very rarely misspelled.<sup>148</sup>

146. In contrast to, e.g., מוֹשֵׁב בְּנֵי יִשְׂרָאֵל “the dwelling of the children of Israel” (Exod 12:40); עֶקֶשׁ־לֵב “crooked of mind” (Prov 17:20).

147. Khan, “Compensatory Lengthening,” 1:502–503.

148. Raymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 71–114.



## 3.14. Epenthesis

At a relatively late date (in the last centuries of the first millennium BCE into the first centuries CE), vowels were sometimes added between consonants at the end of words to help break up clusters of consonants.<sup>149</sup> In most cases no vowel had previously existed where the epenthetic vowel appeared. The end result in the following forms is usually a sequence of two short vowels in the MT only the first of which was present in earlier varieties of Hebrew: (1) singular segolate nouns (e.g. מֶלֶךְ “king” and מַעַל “master”); (2) *qal* infinitives construct from I-*vav*/*yod* and I-*nun* roots (e.g., שָׁבַת “dwelling”); (3) feminine singular participles (e.g., נִפְלְתָה “one falling” and בָּרַחְתָּה “one fleeing”); and (4) the short-*yiqtol* form of III-*vav*/*yod* roots (e.g., יִבְנֵה “let him build”).

Another example of epenthesis is the furtive *patakh* that appears between a high or midvowel (/i/, /e/, /o/, /u/) and a following guttural (e.g., כֹּחַ “strength”). Epenthetic vowels also sometimes occur after gutturals in some verbs (e.g., the /ā/ of יַעֲמֹד “he will stand” and the second /a/ of יַעֲמֹדוּ “they will stand”). Even the vocal *shewa* functions as an epenthetic consonant, as in the case of יִשְׁמְרוּ “they will guard,” where the *shewa* breaks up the cluster of *mem* followed by *resh*. In none of these cases, however, did the Masoretes consider the epenthetic vowel as constituting its own syllable.<sup>150</sup>

In separate traditions, the epenthetic vowel comes before the cluster of consonants, not between them, as reflected, for example, in the Secunda (e.g., \*[wa]yisimhū > σεσεμου and ουεισεαμου “(and) they will rejoice” Ps 35:24, 27; cf. [וַיִּשְׁמְחוּ]) and in BHT (e.g., *tiqirbu* “you will approach” Lev 18:6).<sup>151</sup> Even the name of Jeremiah in the LXX reflects this tendency: ιερεμιας < \*yirimyāhū (cf. יֵרֵמְיָהוּ where the second *shewa* constitutes the epenthetic vowel).<sup>152</sup>

149. See Geoffrey Khan, “Epenthesis: Biblical Hebrew,” *EHL* 1:831–33. Epenthetic vowels are attested in some LXX transliterations (e.g., γομορ corresponding to עֹמֶר “omer measure” [Exod 16:16]) as well as in some DSS forms (e.g., פועול “work of” 1QIsa<sup>a</sup> at Isa 59:6, corresponding to פָּעַל) but not in most forms in Origen (e.g., γαβρ corresponding to גִּבְרָה). See, e.g., Kutscher, *Isaiah Scroll*, 502; Qimron, *Hebrew of the Dead Sea Scrolls*, 37; Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 181–88; John Huehnergard, “Segholates: Pre-modern Hebrew,” *EHL* 3:520–22.

150. Geoffrey Khan, “Shewa,” 3:544; Khan, “Syllable Structure,” 3:666

151. Heijmans, “Babylonian Tradition,” 1:142.

152. See Khan, “Epenthesis,” 1:832.

3.15. Loss of Geminata and *Shewa*

When certain geminated consonants follow a *shewa*, the gemination may be optionally lost together with the *shewa*, at least in THT. For example, \**min* + *lāma*‘*lā* > \**millāma*‘*lā* > \**milma*‘*lā* > מִלְמַעְלָה “from above” versus \**millāmaṭṭā* > מִלְמַטָּה “from below”; \**iwwēr* > עִוֵּר “blind” but \**iwrīm* > עִוְרִים.<sup>153</sup> The phenomenon is associated with several colloquial phrases, created ostensibly for mnemonic purposes, including “Skin ‘em alive” and “Skin ‘em Levi.” Although these may help one remember that the set of consonants that may lose gemination in this way includes sibilants (“s”), liquids (“l,” “m” and “n”), as well as *vav* (“v”), one might be forgiven for believing that *kaph* (“k”) and *bet* (“v”) are also included in this set of consonants. They are not. A more useful mnemonic makes explicit the consonants that are part of this set.<sup>154</sup>

3.16. *Qamets* in the Tiberian Hebrew Tradition and Earlier Vowels

The articulation of *qamets* in THT, as indicated above, was /ā/ (= IPA [ɔ]). This vowel developed from two different historical vowels. The PS/PNWS short /a/ shifted to a long /ā/ at some point in the first millennium BCE. Its further transformation into /ā/ took place sometime in the first millennium CE. Simultaneously, PS/PNWS short /u/ shifted first to /o/ in certain environments and then shifted further to /ā/, making it identical in its articulation to the etymological \*/a/. Since the Tiberian Masoretes heard only one sound, they represented these two historical vowels with one symbol, the *qamets*. If we followed the Tiberian tradition more closely in our classroom pronunciation, we would not distinguish between *qamets gadol* (/a/) and *qamets qaton* or *qamets khatuf* (/o/). As mentioned earlier, our classroom pronunciation is influenced by modern Israeli Hebrew, which is, in turn, influenced by Sephardic tradition, which preserved the distinction between /a/ and /o/.

153. Cited in Joüon, §18m. Note the similar loss of gemination and elision of the vowel “e” in the two alternative pronunciations of the participial form of English “listen”: *lis-sen-ing* vs. *lis-ning*.

154. I use the phrase “Shy queens swim alone,” which, although not based in a colorful biblical act of mutilation, does include all the relevant letters (except *tsade*): *shin*, *yod*, *qoph*, *nun*, *samek/sin*, *vav*, *mem*, *lamed*.

That the two vowels (\*/ā/ [< \*/a/] and \*/o/ [< \*/u/]), which would eventually be represented by *qamets* in the Tiberian tradition, were still distinguished in the first millennium BCE is reflected in, among other places, the orthography of the Dead Sea Scrolls. Note, for example, that nouns that are spelled with an initial *qamets* in THT but which we pronounce with an initial /o/ are spelled with a *vav mater* in the Scrolls. Consider the instances in the Temple Scroll (11Q19), where we find, for example, אוכלה “food” in LIX, 7 (cf. אָכַלָה in THT); חורבה “ruin” in LIX, 4 (cf. חָרְבָה in THT). By contrast, the verbs that are spelled with an initial *qamets* but which we pronounce as /a/ are spelled universally without a *vav mater*. In the same scroll (11Q19), we find, for example, אסרה “she binds” in LIII, 16 and passim (cf. אָסְרָה in THT); געלה “it loathes” in LIX, 9 (cf. גָּעַלָה in THT).

### 3.17. Pausal Forms

As mentioned in the preface, pausal forms usually occur at the end of a verse (marked with the *silluq* symbol, ׀), in the middle of the verse (marked by the *atnach* symbol, ׃), and sometimes at the quarter point and three-quarter point of the verse (marked by the *zaqef* symbol, ׀). Often pausal forms are accented on the penultimate syllable. If the word in pause is inflected in a way that would typically result in reduction of the historical short vowel in the penultimate syllable, the vowel is preserved and was (earlier) long: יִשְׁבְּתוּ “it will not stop” (Gen 8:22); יֵצְאוּ “they will go forth” (Gen 17:6); תִּסְחָרוּ “you will trade” (Gen 42:34); דְּבַרְךָ “your word” (Gen 30:34); שְׁלַחוּ “send!” (2 Kgs 2:17; cf. contextual שְׁלַחוּ). Also, in pause a short /a/ vowel that is accented will lengthen to \*/ā/ as reflected in תִּסְחָרוּ as well as in אָכַלְתָּ “you eat” (Gen 3:11); אֲבֹתַי “my fathers” (Gen 49:29); and דְּבַרְיָךְ “your words” (1 Kgs 1:14). That such lengthening is not just a phenomenon connected with the Tiberian tradition but has roots in earlier stages of Hebrew is hard to determine but seems implied by the spellings in the Secunda (e.g., *ισμωρου* [יִשְׁמָרוּ], and *αλληλου* [יְהִלְלוּ] [Ps 89:32]).<sup>155</sup> Pausal forms of \**qatl* segolates sometimes exhibit the original vowel, lengthened: נַפְשׁ “soul” (Job 3:20).<sup>156</sup> Conventionally it is believed

155. Khan (“*Šere*,” 142) writes that “Pausal lengthening of the stressed vowel took place sometime before the general lengthening of stressed vowels.”

156. This commonly occurs with other nouns, but curiously, this does not happen with others like מֶלֶךְ “king,” which exhibit both *segols* in pause. Steven Fassberg (“Why Doesn’t *Melex* Appear as *Ma:lex* in Pause in Tiberian Hebrew?” [Hebrew], *Lešonenu*

that the pausal forms represent a slightly more archaic version of words. This is true especially as regards vowel reduction in verbs and the place of stress. That is, the pausal forms reflect the preservation of penultimate vowels in verbs and penultimate word stress, both of which would have been part of an earlier stage of Hebrew. However, as the above examples demonstrate, pause does not result in the retention of short vowels in propretonic syllables, nor in the preservation of vowels that are reduced already in the absolute form (e.g., וְגִבּוֹל “and border” Josh 15:47). Furthermore, it is not always the case that the penultimate vowel that is lengthened in pause reflects the quality of the etymological vowel. Contrast \*’*ākīlatu* > אוֹכֵלָה “one eating” (Isa 30:30), above the *atnach* and \*’*ākiltu* > אֹכֵלֶת (Isa 30:27), above the *silluq*.<sup>157</sup>

### 3.18. Chapter Summary

#### Historical Details

1. The vowels of the Tiberian system are not exactly the ones we typically use in class. Nor do the vowels of the Tiberian system (or the ones we use in class) mirror exactly the vocalic system of earlier phases of Hebrew.
2. Historical long vowels remained long in Biblical Hebrew (\* /ō/ [< PNWS \* /ā/], \* /ī/ , \* /ū/).
3. Historical short vowels \* /a/ , \* /i/ , and \* /u/ lengthened and/or lowered in tonic syllables in most nouns and some verbs: \* *dābaru* > \* *dābār* (> דָּבַר) “word” and \* *barakatiyya* > \* *barkātī* (> \* *birkātī* > בִּרְכָתִי “my blessing”; \* *kabida* > \* *kābed* (> כָּבֵד) “it is heavy” (*qal* 3ms *qāṭal*/ms adj.) and \* *yaktubu* > \* *yiktob* (> יִכְתֹּב) “he will write.” (Note the exceptions: in many verb forms, historical /a/ remained /a/, e.g., \* *kataba* > \* *kātab* [> כָּתַב] “he wrote,” \* *yikbad* [> יִכְבֹּד] “it will be heavy”).

64 [2002]: 207–19) has proposed that this is in order to avoid a pronunciation of the word that would make it too close to the word “Moloch.”

157. Notice also that although the verbs in pause often seem to reflect a more archaic morphology (שִׂמְחָהוּ “it gladdened him” Jer 20:15 instead of *i-*), such archaic features may in fact be secondary, as is suggested in places where a *nun* does not assimilate (e.g., תִּנְצְרֵנִי “you guard me” Ps 140:2). For more on pause, see the article (with references) by Steven E. Fassberg, “Pausal Forms,” *EHLL* 3:54–55.

4. Historical short \*/a/ and \*/i/ lengthened to \*/ā/ and \*/ē/ respectively in pretonic open syllables: \**dabaru* > \**dābār* (> דָּבָר) “word,” \**dabarīma* > \**dābārīm* (> דְּבָרִים) “words,” \**kabidīma* > \**kābēdīm* (> כְּבִידִים) “heavy”; \**kataba* > \**kātab* (> כָּתַב) “he wrote” and \**yaqūmu* > \**yāqūm* (> יָקוּם) “he will arise.”
5. Historical short vowels reduced to *shewa* or elided in open syllables that were both nontonic and nonpretonic: \**dabarīma* > \**dābārīm* (> דְּבָרִים) “words” and \**barakatiyya* > \**barkātī* (> בִּרְכָתִי = *birkāti*) “my blessing.”
6. Compensatory lengthening occurred most regularly with *aleph* and *resh* and then, in order of decreasing frequency, with *ayin*, *he*, and *khet*. If a vowel was compensatorily lengthened, it did not reduce in an open prepretonic syllable.
7. A very hypothetical sequence of some of the phenomena discussed above is presented here:

Canaanite Shift	ca. 1500 BCE
Triphthong contraction	ca. 1500 BCE
Loss of final short vowels	ca. 1000 BCE
Feminine *-at > *-a > *-ā	ca. 1000–500 BCE
Tonic lengthening/lowering	ca. 800–300 BCE
Merger of /š/ and /s/	ca. 600–400 BCE
Pretonic lengthening/lowering	ca. 500–300 BCE
Spirantization	ca. 500 BCE–200 CE
Vowel reduction	ca. 400 BCE–400 CE
Compensatory lengthening of geminated gutturals	ca. 300 BCE–100 CE
Epenthesis	ca. 300 BCE–200 CE
Merger of /ġ/ and /ʕ/	ca. 200 BCE–1 BCE
Merger of /ħ/ and /h/	ca. 100 BCE–200 CE.

### Learning Tips

1. Memorize the basic rules for syllables and vowels for Biblical Hebrew, especially the fact that:
  - 1.1. a nontonic open syllable can have only a *shewa* (\**lammālākīm* [> לְמַלְכִים] “for the kings”) or a long vowel (\**lammālākīm* [> לַמְלָכִים])
  - 1.2. a nontonic closed syllable can have only a short vowel (\**lammālākīm* [> לַמְלָכִים])

- 1.3. often, a tonic syllable will have a long vowel (reflected in THT by *qamets*, *tsere*, *hireq*, *holem*, *shureq*) (\**lammālākīm* [> לְמַלְכִּים])
- 1.4. often, a pretonic open syllable will contain \*/ā/ or \*/ē/ (THT *qamets* or *tsere*) (\**lammālākīm* [> לְמַלְכִּים]).
2. Remember that when a word bears a pronominal suffix or morpheme at its end, it typically will exhibit a form closer to its older, historical form. This is mentioned in relation to the shift from \*/-at/ of feminine singular nouns to \*/-ā/, where the earlier ending emerges in the construct and with suffixes (e.g., מְלֻכַּתָּהּ\* “her queen” [< \**malkatah*]), but this also occurs with geminate nouns (e.g., חֻקִּים “statutes” [< \**huqqīma*]) and with singular segolate nouns with suffixes (e.g., מְלֻכִּי “my king” [< \**malkiyya*]), as detailed in the next chapter.
3. Learn the basic rudiments of the PS/PNWS vowel system: three long vowels (\*/ī/, \*/ā/, \*/ū/) and three short vowels (\*/i/, \*/a/, \*/u/).
4. Learn to recognize the origin of most Tiberian vowels:
  - 4.1. *hireq* (with *yod*) usually derives from \*/ī/ while *hireq* (without *yod*) derives from \*/i/
  - 4.2. *tsere* derives from \*/i/ (or the contraction of \*/ay/)
  - 4.3. *segol* derives from \*/i/ (or from \*/a/ in segolate nouns like מִלֶּךְ)
  - 4.4. *patakh* and *qamets* derive from \*/a/ (unless the *qamets* occurs in a closed, unaccented syllable, in which case it derives from \*/u/, as in חֵכְמָה “wisdom”)
  - 4.5. *shureq* derives usually from \*/ū/
  - 4.6. *qibbuts* usually derives from \*/u/ and somewhat less often from \*/ū/
  - 4.7. a muttered vowel (*shewa*) may derive from any short vowel in a historical open syllable.
5. Mnemonic Aids
  - 5.1. “Shy queens swim alone”—the consonants (+ *tsade*) that optionally lose their *daghesh* when followed by a *shewa*.
  - 5.2. הֶהָרִים exhibits the shift of historical \*/a/ to /ε/.

## Morphology of Ancient Hebrew: The Noun

### 4.1. Morphology of the Hebrew Noun

In Biblical Hebrew, the morphology of the noun overlaps with the morphology of adjectives, with that of some adverbs, as well as with that of *qal* participles and infinitives. Here and in the charts that follow in chapter 6, these categories of words will be treated together. Moreover, the following pages categorize these words according to which abstract pattern they belong (i.e., *\*qal*, *\*qil*, *\*qul*, etc.), patterns that reflect their etymological bases. The abstract patterns, however, are not necessarily identical to their earliest forms. This pertains especially to II-*vav/yod* roots. For example, the *qal* participle of II-*vav/yod* roots is categorized under *\*qal* (e.g., *\*qam*) not *\*qatal* (*\*qawam*) or *\*qāl* (*\*qām*).<sup>1</sup> At the same time, the abstract patterns represent a form of the words long before the vowel reduction and lengthening associated with BH (e.g., דָּבַר is categorized as a *\*qatal* noun, not *\*qāṭāl* or *qāṭāl*).<sup>2</sup>

It should be admitted at the beginning that attributing a given noun to a particular base is difficult because the different traditions of Hebrew often do not reveal consistency. What appears to be of the *\*qatl* base in THT (e.g., גֶּפֶן “vine”) appears to be of the *\*qutl* base in the DSS (גופן in 1QIsa<sup>a</sup> at Isa 34:4).<sup>3</sup> In truth, even the Hebrew Bible reveals different bases

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1. This follows the method of Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 29–30. If the vowel was long in the immediate ancestor to BH, it would have presumably become /ō/ through the Canaanite Shift. Still, such forms would have contained a long vowel in an earlier version of Northwest Semitic (see *ibid.*, 29 n. 7).

2. As noted in the preface, the paradigmatic root is *\*qtl* (and not *\*qtl̥*), since the form with *tav* is likely the earliest form of this root (reflected in, e.g., Akkadian, Arabic, and Ethiopic).

3. See Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 171–74.

for what seems to be the same word: חָסַר “lack” (\**qatl* or \**qitl*) versus חָסַר “lack” (\**qutl*).<sup>4</sup> When comparative evidence from other languages is considered, categorization becomes even more complex. In what follows, I make an educated guess about the base of the words informed especially by Hebrew evidence. It seems possible that at least for some words there were byforms from earliest times (e.g., דֶּרֶךְ “way” < \**dark* and/or < \**dirk*).<sup>5</sup>

Although learning the base of words along with their meaning and inflection seems like an added burden for the student, these base patterns are rather limited in number and offer at least two advantages to the intermediate student. First, learning the basic outline of the system will allow the student to more easily remember vocabulary. For example, learning that short words ending in *tav*, like דָּעַת, are often from I-*vav/yod* roots helps to recall that this word is from יָדַע and means “knowledge.” Second, nouns of a common base pattern inflect in the same way; thus, learning that the segolate nouns (those of the \**qatl*, \**qitl*, and \**qutl* bases) exhibit the sequence of vowels \**a-ā* in the absolute plural allows one to predict the correct plural form for a diverse set of nouns including חָלִי “sickness,” מֶלֶךְ “king,” בֹּקֶר “morning” as well as feminine nouns like מַלְכָּה “queen,” דְּמָעָה “tears,” and הֶרְבָּה “waste.” All the same, it should be recognized that it is likely impossible to remember all the details laid out in the following pages.

#### 4.2. Case and Number in Second-Millennium Northwest Semitic

In addition to those phonological developments mentioned in the preceding chapter, morphological developments mark a distinction between second-millennium BCE Canaanite languages and first-millennium BCE Hebrew. First, the earlier languages or dialects would have had three numbers: singular, dual, and plural. Although Hebrew preserves some examples of the dual (e.g., יָדַיִם “two hands” vs. יָדוֹת “[multiple] hands”), this would have presumably been a more productive category in the second millennium BCE and would have also been reflected in verbal morphology, through which it would have been possible to communicate not only the ideas “s/he wrote” and “they wrote,” but also “two (people) wrote.”

In addition, the earlier second-millennium NWS languages had a case system. This system allowed speakers to distinguish three basic functions

4. See the list of similar forms in Sperber, *Historical Grammar*, 30–31. Similarly, the MT evidences many words that differ essentially only in their gender (ibid., 22–30).

5. Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 39.



of nouns in a sentence. Nouns that functioned as the grammatical subject of a verb were marked as distinct from nouns that functioned as the grammatical object of the verb and these were both distinct from nouns that were the last in a construct chain or that came after prepositions.<sup>6</sup> In outline, the case system for this version of proto-Hebrew would be similar to the case system known from Ugaritic.<sup>7</sup> The grammatical subject of a sentence is said to be in the nominative case, the grammatical object in the accusative case; the word after a construct form or after a preposition is in the genitive case. With respect to Ugaritic, on masculine singular absolute nouns, final short *-u* marked the nominative, *-i* marked the genitive, and *-a* the accusative (e.g., *\*malku*, *\*malki*, *\*malka* “king”); on masculine dual absolute nouns final *-āmi* marked the nominative and *-ēmi* (from < *\*-aymi*) marked the genitive and accusative (*\*malkāmi*, *\*malkēmi* [*< \*malkaymi*] “two kings”).<sup>8</sup> Feminine nouns in the singular and dual absolute had endings analogous to those of the masculine singular and dual absolute, though the feminine nouns incorporated the feminine morpheme *-at* or *-t*. As for the plurals, on masculine plural absolute nouns *-ūma* marked the nominative and *-īma* marked the genitive/accusative (*\*malakūma*, *\*malakīma* “kings”); on feminine plural absolute nouns *-ātu* marked the nominative and *-āti* the genitive/accusative.<sup>9</sup> The case vowels also appeared on nouns in the construct state. For the singular noun, they were the same as the absolute form; for the dual and the masculine plural,

6. In the sentence, אֶת־הַפְּלִשְׁתִּי אֵל־מִצָּחַי “he (i.e., David) struck the Philistine (i.e., Goliath) on his forehead” (1 Sam 17:49), the grammatical subject is “he (i.e., David)”; the grammatical object is “the Philistine (i.e., Goliath)”; the word “his forehead” follows the preposition “on.”

7. The vowels of Ugaritic are known not only from Sumero-Akkadian cuneiform transliterations of Ugaritic words, but also the Ugaritic cuneiform script that marks the vowel following any *aleph* consonant; i.e., in Ugaritic cuneiform there is one symbol for *aleph* followed by /a/, another symbol for *aleph* followed by /i/, and a third symbol for *aleph* followed by /u/. For examples of ancient word lists from Ugarit written in Sumero-Akkadian cuneiform, where individual words are listed in different columns according to language (like a primitive dictionary), see John Huehnergard, *Ugaritic Vocabulary in Syllabic Transcription*, 2nd ed., HSS 32 (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2008).

8. The endings on the dual are also attested, respectively, as *-āma* and *-ēma* (see *ibid.*, 298–99, 402). I have based this paradigm on that of Pierre Bordreuil and Dennis Pardee, *A Manual of Ugaritic*, LSAWS 3 (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2009), 32.

9. Alternatively, there was just one vowel within the stem of such plural nouns: *\*malkūma*, *\*malkīma* (see Bordreuil and Pardee, *Manual of Ugaritic*, 34).

the construct forms lost the final *-mi* or *-ma*: dual *-ā* (nom.), *-ē* (< *\*-ay*) (gen./acc.) and masculine plural *-ū* (nom.), *-ī* (gen./acc.).<sup>10</sup> It is likely that in the southern dialect of NWS spoken near the end of the second millennium BCE, the diphthongs were still preserved, unlike in Ugaritic. Thus, the dual genitive/accusative ending on a masculine dual noun would have been *-aymī* in the absolute and *-ay* in the construct.

Presuming a stem *\*dabar*, one may postulate the following hypothetical paradigm for the absolute and construct forms, based on the Ugaritic paradigm for nouns. The *\*ā* reflects the PS/PNWS vowel, before the Canaanite Shift.

Masculine absolute				
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	<i>*dabarū</i>	nom.	<i>*dabarāmi</i>	<i>*dabarūma</i>
gen.	<i>*dabari</i>	gen./acc.	<i>*dabaraymi</i>	<i>*dabarīma</i>
acc.	<i>*dabara</i>			
Feminine absolute				
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	<i>*dabaratu</i>	nom.	<i>*dabarātāmi</i>	<i>*dabarātu</i>
gen.	<i>*dabarati</i>	gen./acc.	<i>*dabarātaymi</i>	<i>*dabarāti</i>
acc.	<i>*dabarata</i>			
Masculine construct				
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	<i>*dabarū</i>	nom.	<i>*dabarā</i>	<i>*dabarū</i>
gen.	<i>*dabari</i>	gen./acc.	<i>*dabaray</i>	<i>*dabarī</i>
acc.	<i>*dabara</i>			
Feminine construct				
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	<i>*dabaratu</i>	nom.	<i>*dabarātā</i>	<i>*dabarātu</i>
gen.	<i>*dabarati</i>	gen./acc.	<i>*dabarātay</i>	<i>*dabarāti</i>
acc.	<i>*dabarata</i>			

10. See *ibid.*

In essence, the inflected forms of the noun were composed of the stem (*\*dabar*) followed by the appropriate suffixal morpheme.

At some point close to the end of the second millennium BCE, the final short vowels on nouns and verbs ceased being pronounced. As described above in chapter 3, this meant that there was no longer a distinction in the singular noun between the different cases. This, in turn, led to the obsolescence of the entire case system (even though it would have been possible to continue distinguishing certain forms in the dual and plural, e.g., where the form ended with a long vowel). In short, speakers used fewer forms to communicate. Instead of having two forms to express the masculine plural absolute, speakers used just one. They ended up using the form that had previously marked the genitive/accusative case (i.e., *\*dabarīm* [*< \*dabarīma*]). Similarly, instead of four forms to express the masculine dual and plural construct, speakers used just one. Again, they ended up using the form that had marked the genitive/accusative case, specifically the form that once marked exclusively the dual (i.e., *\*dabaray*).

The new forms and their relationship to the preceding paradigm can be more easily grasped from looking at the following chart that duplicates the earlier paradigm, though in the following the obsolete aspects of the paradigm have been crossed out. Forms that are identical to other forms are put in parentheses after their first appearance.

Masculine absolute				
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	<i>*dabarū</i>	nom.	<i>*<del>dabarā</del>mi</i>	<i>*<del>dabarū</del>ma</i>
gen.	( <i>*dabarī</i> )	gen./acc.	<i>*dabaraymi</i>	<i>*dabarīma</i>
acc.	( <i>*dabarā</i> )			
Feminine absolute				
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	<i>*dabarātū</i>	nom.	<i>*<del>dabarātā</del>mi</i>	<i>*<del>dabarātū</del></i>
gen.	( <i>*dabarātī</i> )	gen./acc.	<i>*<del>dabarātay</del>mi</i>	( <i>*dabarātī</i> )
acc.	( <i>*dabarātā</i> )			
Masculine construct				
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	<i>*dabarū</i>	nom.	<i>*<del>dabarā</del></i>	<i>*<del>dabarū</del></i>

gen.	(* <i>dabarî</i> )	gen./acc.	* <i>dabaray</i>	* <i>dabarî</i>
acc.	(* <i>dabarā</i> )			
<hr/>				
		Feminine construct		
	singular		dual	plural
nom.	* <i>dabaratu</i>	nom.	* <i>dabarata</i>	* <i>dabarātu</i>
gen.	(* <i>dabarati</i> )	gen./acc.	* <i>dabaratay</i>	(* <i>dabarāti</i> )
acc.	(* <i>dabarata</i> )			

The absolute form of masculine plural nouns in the genitive/accusative case developed into the absolute form of masculine plural Hebrew nouns: \**dabarîma* > \**dabarîm* > \**dabārîm* > דְּבָרִים “words.” In a similar way, the genitive/accusative ending for dual nouns in construct (\*-ay) became the standard ending for masculine plural nouns in construct in Hebrew as well as for masculine plural nouns with pronominal suffixes. That is, what would have been \**dabaray* “two words of” (in the gen./acc. case) became the basis of the plural construct: \**dabaray* “(multiple) words of,” which through the process of diphthong contraction and vowel reduction would have subsequently become \**dabrē* and then in THT (as well as BHT) דְּבָרֵי. This same form was used also for the plural form with pronominal suffixes: \**dabarayya* “my two words” (in the gen./acc. case) became \**dabaray* and then \**dabāray* “my (multiple) words,” before finally becoming דְּבָרַי.<sup>11</sup> Due to the ubiquity of this *yod* in the masculine noun, even feminine plural nouns bear the same *yod*, though this has no precedent in the earlier morphology of NWS: \**barakātaka* > בְּרָכוֹתַי “your blessings.”

As illustrated below, the singular noun with pronominal suffixes also seems to retain some vestige of the older morphology. The initial vowels of the pronominal suffixes likely derive from the earlier case vowels on the singular noun. Thus, the vowel of the genitive case seems to have led to the initial /ē/ of the first-person common plural suffix: \**dabar* + *i* + *nū* > \**dabarinū* > \**dabārēnū* (> דְּבָרֵנוּ) “our word.”

This historical explanation also helps make sense of the form of dual nouns in later Hebrew. The Biblical Hebrew absolute form (יָדַי “two hands”) derives from the genitive/accusative form of the absolute (i.e., \**yadaym* vs. the abs. dual nom. \**yadāmi*). The BH construct form (יָדַי “two hands of”) derives from the construct form of the genitive/accusative case

11. See Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 170.

(i.e., *\*yaday* vs. the const. dual nom. *\*yadayā*); the dual with suffix derives from the same historical form (*\*yadayya* > יָדַי “my two hands”).<sup>12</sup> In Biblical Hebrew, the dual construct and the dual with pronominal suffix look like the corresponding masculine plural forms, such that sometimes they are confused. For example, יָדֵיהֶם will sometimes be translated by students as if it meant “their (multiple) hands” and not more specifically “their two hands.” (The pl. would be יָדוֹתָם “their [multiple] hands”). The fact that the dual + suffix looks like the plural + suffix in BH is no coincidence; the masculine plural endings in BH derive from the earlier (second millennium BCE) dual endings.<sup>13</sup>

The transformation of the feminine forms is less confusing than that of the masculine. First, note that in the above charts, the vowel in the feminine plural morpheme is *\*/ā/*; by the time of Hebrew in the first millennium BCE (and likely much earlier), that vowel had shifted to *\*/ō/* through the Canaanite Shift. Thus, the plural absolute and construct forms would both be *\*dabarōt* (not *\*dabarāt*). Other than this, however, the feminine nouns are easy to understand. In essence, with the loss of case vowels, the singular forms (both absolute and construct) sounded the same; similarly, all the feminine plural forms sounded the same.

Although the exact realization of these words might have been different in the early first millennium BCE, it is pedagogically useful to imagine them in this hypothetical way since it helps make sense of their later forms, especially in light of the phonological shifts described earlier. Each of these basic entities (i.e., sg. abs., sg. + pronominal suf., sg. const., pl. abs., etc.) experienced the phonological shifts described in the preceding chapter. For example, *\*dabarīm* “words,” *\*dabarēnū* “our words,” and *\*dabarē* (const.) “words of” all experienced vowel reduction of *\*/a/* and *\*/i/* to *shewa* in open syllables that were nontonic and nonpretonic, as well as lengthening of *\*/a/* and *\*/i/* vowels in open pretonic syllables. Thus, *\*dabarīm* became *\*dabarīm* (vowel reduction) and then *dabārīm* (pretonic lengthening) (> דְּבָרִים).<sup>14</sup> Similarly, *\*dabarēnū* became *\*dabarēnū* and then *\*dabārēnū* (> דְּבָרֵינוּ), while the construct form *\*dabarē-* became *\*dabrē-*

12. These may be contrasted with the plural forms of the same word: abs. יָדוֹת “hands”; const. יָדוֹת; suf. יָדוֹתַי.

13. It goes without saying that the BH dual endings also derive from the earlier second millennium BCE dual endings.

14. These different shifts are imagined as occurring in this sequence simply for the sake of clarity.

(as reflected in  $\delta\alpha\beta\rho\eta$  “words of” in the Secunda at Ps 35:20) which, in turn, became דְּבָרַי (perhaps due to analogy with other nominal forms).

### 4.3. Noun Patterns

As explained above, nouns/adjectives in this study are categorized according to their etymological base patterns, since this helps elucidate certain underlying semantic and inflectional similarities and allows the student who has learned these patterns to more easily inflect the related words.<sup>15</sup> Hebrew nouns are categorized according to how many root consonants they attest and the number and nature of their vowels. (E.g., one category consists of nouns with two root consonants and a short vowel between them, another of nouns with two root consonants and a long vowel between them, yet another of nouns with three root consonants and a single short vowel between them, etc.) Each of these general categories is then broken down into subcategories, reflecting the etymological PNWS vowels, usually listed in the sequence according to the vowel: \*/a/, \*/i/, \*/u/ (e.g., \**qal*, \**qil*, \**qul*; \**qāl*, \**qīl*, \**qūl*; \**qatal*, \**qatil*, \**qatul*; \**qital*, \**qutal*, \**qutul*). With each of these smaller subcategories are associated feminine forms, that are derived from these bases through the suffixing of a -t or \*-at morpheme (e.g., \**qalt* and \**qalat*, \**qilt* and \**qilat*, \**qālat*, \**qīlat*, \**qūlat*; \**qatalat*, \**qatilt* and \**qatilat*).

In most cases, each general category of noun exhibits a common inflection. For example, all segolate nouns/adjectives, that is, those of the base pattern \**qatl* (e.g., מֶלֶךְ “king”), \**qitl* (סֵפֶר “book”), \**qutl* (בֹּקֵר “morn-ing”), exhibit the vowel sequence \**ə-ā* (corresponding to the symbols *shewa-qamets* in THT) in the absolute plural. This also includes feminine forms and words from weak roots. Usually, where there is some distinction among the different subcategories of bases, it is the form with an \*/a/ vowel that exhibits idiosyncracies. Forms with an \*/i/ or \*/u/ vowel usually have similar inflections, reflecting the vowels’ common place of articulation, with the tongue raised to the roof of the mouth.

In the charts in chapter 6, the various forms of nouns and adjectives (as well as *qal* verbal nouns and adjectives = infinitives and participles) are documented, beginning with the shortest (\**qal*) and progressing to the

15. Another method is to list the nouns/adjectives according to their realization in BH.

more complex (e.g., *\*qātil*). The pages that follow in this chapter, however, follow a different sequence. First, I illustrate the inflection of three of the most common nominal base patterns in both their masculine (*\*qatal*, *\*qatil*, *\*qital*) and feminine forms (*\*qatalat*, *\*qatilat*). Next, I detail the inflection of bases with just two attested root consonants (*\*qal*, *\*qil*, *\*qul*, etc.), before addressing other base patterns with three root consonants (e.g., *\*qatul*, *\*qatāl* and *\*qutul*, *\*qitāl*, *\*qutāl*). In the next sections, I address nouns with preformative and affirmative elements. Next, common features of weak roots are isolated. Then, I address two idiosyncratic noun classes: geminate nouns (e.g., *\*qall*) and segolate nouns (e.g., *\*qatl*).

#### 4.4. Inflection of Basic Masculine and Feminine Nouns (Tables 6.15, 6.16, 6.17)

Here and in what follows, a basic masculine noun refers to a noun of a strong root with one of the base patterns *\*qatal*, *\*qatil*, or *\*qital*. Although classified as “nouns,” note that many words of these bases are better construed as adjectives (e.g., חֲזָק “strong”; חָכָם “wise”; כָּבֵד “heavy”; עָיֵף “weary”). In particular, the *\*qatil* base is associated with adjectives and the participle of stative verbs (e.g., כָּבֵד “one who is heavy”; זָקֵן “one who is old”).

In most cases, the nouns of the *\*qatal*, *\*qatil*, or *\*qital* bases follow predictably the vowel shifts outlined in the previous chapter: loss of final short vowels, tonic-vowel lengthening/lowering, pretonic-vowel lengthening/lowering, vowel reduction in open syllables that are both nontonic and nonpretonic. As illustrated above, these vowel shifts affect both singular and plural forms, as well as nouns in construct and with suffixes. For construct forms (both sg. and pl.), nouns appear as though all their syllables are nontonic and nonpretonic. For singular nouns with suffixes, a vowel intercedes between the stem and the pronoun, likely deriving from the earlier genitive or accusative case vowel. For most plural nouns with pronominal suffixes, the genitive/accusative case ending of the masculine dual construct, *\*-ay-*, intercedes between the stem and pronoun. Note the following examples, which represent a simplified way of reconstructing the forms.

*\*dabaru* > *\*dābār* (> דָּבָר) “word”

*\*dabaru* > *\*dabar* (> דָּבַר) “word of”

*\*dabar* + *i* + *ya* > *\*dabariy* > *\*dabarī* > *\*dābārī* (> דְּבָרִי) “my word”

\**dabar* + *a* + *ka* > \**dabaraka* > \**dabārakā* > \**dabārəkā* (> דְּבָרְךָ) “your word”<sup>16</sup>

\**dabar* + *i* + *ki* > \**dabarik* > \**dabārēk* (> דְּבָרְךָ) “your word”

\**dabar* + *a* + *hu* > \**dabarahu* (> \**dabaraw*) > \**dabārō* (> דְּבָרוֹ) “his word”<sup>17</sup>

\**dabar* + *a* + *ha* > \**dabarah* > \**dabārāh* (> דְּבָרָה) “her word”

\**dabar* + *i* + *nū* > \**dabarinū* > \**dabārēnū* (> דְּבָרֵינוּ) “our word”

\**dabar* + ? + *kum* > \**dabarkim* > \**dabarkem* (> דְּבָרְכֶם) “your word”<sup>18</sup>

\**dabar* + ? + *kin* > \**dabarkin* > \**dabarken* (> דְּבָרְכֶן) “your word”

\**dabar* + *a* + (*hu*)*m* > \**dabaram* > \**dabārām* (> דְּבָרָם) “their word”

\**dabar* + *a* + (*hi*)*n* > \**dabaran* > \**dabārān* (> דְּבָרָן) “their word”

\**dabarīma* > \**dabārīm* (> דְּבָרִים) “words”

\**dabaray* > \**dabrē* (> *dibre* = דְּבָרֵי) “words of”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *ya* > \**dabaray* > \**dabāray* (> דְּבָרַי) “my words”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *ka* > \**dabarayka* > \**dabārekā* (> דְּבָרַיְךָ) “your words”<sup>19</sup>

\**dabar* + *ay* + *ki* > \**dabarayk* > \**dabārayk* (> דְּבָרַיְכֶם) “your words”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *hu* > \**dabarawhu* (> \**dabarawwu*) > \**dabaraw* > \**dabārāw* (> דְּבָרָיו) “his words”<sup>20</sup>

\**dabar* + *ay* + *ha* > \**dabarayha* > \**dabārehā* (> דְּבָרָיָהּ) “her words”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *nū* > \**dabaraynū* > \**dabārēnū* (> דְּבָרֵינוּ) “our words”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *kum* > \**dabaraykim* > \**dabrēkem* (> *dibrekem* = דְּבָרֵיכֶם) “your words”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *kin* > \**dabaraykin* > \**dabrēken* (> *dibreken* = דְּבָרֵיכֶן) “your words”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *hum* > \**dabarayhim* > \**dabrēhem* (> *dibrehem* = דְּבָרֵיהֶם) “their words”

\**dabar* + *ay* + *hin* > \**dabarayhin* > \**dabrēhen* (> *dibrehen* = דְּבָרֵיהֶן) “their words”

16. See ch. 3 §5, “Lengthening of Pretonic \*/i/ and \*/a/ Vowels and the Place of Stress” and §5, “Peculiarities of Some Suffixes,” below.

17. See Garr, *Dialect Geography*, 103 and note the alternative explanations listed in Jeremy Hutton, “Epigraphic Hebrew: Pre-Roman Period,” *EHLL* 1:838.

18. The spirantized *kaph* of the pronoun would seem to imply a preceding vowel in this and the following form.

19. One would expect /ē/ to be the result of a contraction of /ay/, as in the 1cp pronominal suf. See ch. 3 §12, “Triphthongs and Diphthongs.”

20. See Garr, *Dialect Geography*, 108.



- \*šadaqatu > \*šadāqā (> צְדִיקָה) “righteousness”
- \*šadaqatu > \*šadqat (> šidqat = צְדִיקָת) “righteousness of”
- \*šadaqat + i + ya > \*šadqatīy > \*šadqātī (> šidqātī = צְדִיקָתִי) “my righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + a + ka > \*šadqataka > \*šadqātakā > \*šadqātəkā (> šidqātka = צְדִיקָתְךָ) “your righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + i + ki > \*šadqatik > \*šadqātēk (> šidqātek = צְדִיקָתְךָ) “your righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + a + hu > \*šadqatahu > \*šadqātau > \*šadqātō (> šidqāto = צְדִיקָתוֹ) “his righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + a + ha > \*šadqatah > \*šadqātāh (> šidqātāh = צְדִיקָתָהּ) “her righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + i + nū > \*šadqatinū > \*šadqātēnū (> šidqātenu = צְדִיקָתֵנוּ) “our righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + ? + kum > \*šadqatkim > \*šadqatkem (> \*šidqatkem = צְדִיקָתְכֶם) “your righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + ? + kin > \*šadqatkin > \*šadqatken (> šidqatken = צְדִיקָתְכֶן) “your righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + a + (hu)m > \*šadqatam > \*šadqātām (> šidqātām = צְדִיקָתָם) “their righteousness”
- \*šadaqat + a + (hi)n > \*šadqatan > \*šadqātān (> šidqātān = צְדִיקָתָן) “their righteousness”
- \*šadaqātu > \*šadāqōt (> צְדִיקוֹת) “righteousnesses”
- \*šadaqātu > \*šadqōt (> šidqot = צְדִיקוֹת) “righteousnesses of”
- \*šadaqāt + ay + ya > \*šadqōtay (> šidqotay = צְדִיקוֹתַי) “my righteousnesses”
- \*šadaqāt + ay + ka > \*šadqōtayka > \*šadqōtekā (> šidqotekā = צְדִיקוֹתֶיךָ) “your righteousnesses”
- \*šadaqāt + ay + ki > \*šadqōtayk (> šidqotayk = צְדִיקוֹתֶיךָ) “your righteousnesses”
- \*šadaqāt + ay + hu > \*šadqōtawhu (> \*šadqōtawwu) > \*šadqōtau > \*šadqōtāw (> šidqotāw = צְדִיקוֹתָיו) “his righteousnesses”
- \*šadaqāt + ay + ha > \*šadqōtayaha > \*šadqōtehā (> šidqotehā = צְדִיקוֹתֶיהָ) “her righteousnesses”
- \*šadaqāt + ay + nū > \*šadqōtaynū > \*šadqōtēnū (> šidqotenu = צְדִיקוֹתֵינוּ) “our righteousnesses”
- \*šadaqāt + ay + kum > \*šadqōtaykim > \*šadqōtēkem (> šidqotekem = צְדִיקוֹתֵיכֶם) “your righteousnesses”

\*šadaqāt + ay + kin > \*šadqōtaykin > \*šadqōtēken (> šidqoteken = צִדְקוֹתַיְכֶן) “your righteousnesses”

\*šadaqāt + a + (hu)m > \*šadqōtām (> šidqotām = צִדְקוֹתָם) “their righteousnesses”

\*šadaqāt + a + (hi)n > \*šadqōtān (> šidqotān = צִדְקוֹתָן) “their righteousnesses”

In almost all the singular forms above, the tonic syllable has a long vowel and the pretonic syllable is open and also has a long vowel. Excluding the forms plus second-person masculine singular suffix, the exceptions occur with heavy suffixes that consist of the sequence consonant + vowel + consonant (e.g., כֶּם-). In these cases, the tonic syllable has a short vowel and the preceding syllable is closed with a short vowel. The stem of the noun with a heavy suffix often matches the stem of the construct form. In most plural nouns with suffix, the pretonic syllable is also open and has a long vowel. The exceptions again occur where the suffix is heavy.

The above discussion has focused on nouns with two \*/a/ vowels in their stem (i.e., of the pattern \*qatal), but the same developments and inflections also pertain to words with the patterns \*qatil and \*qital. In the case of nouns of the \*qatil base, the singular construct form usually is (somewhat unexpectedly) like that of nouns of the \*qatal base. Thus, the singular construct form of זָקֵן is זָקֵן “elder of.” The other forms of \*qatil base nouns, however, do not exhibit the shift of /a/ to /i/ (e.g., זָקִים and the forms with suffix: זָקִי\*, זָקִיךְ\*, זָקִינִי\*, זָקִינָה\*, זָקִינִי\*, זָקִינָה\*, etc.).<sup>21</sup>

Feminine singular nouns in the construct and with suffixes generally are either marked with final -t or final \*-at. The absolute form is the only form to end with \*-ā (> -ā). Although it is not expected from its etymology, the feminine plural noun often incorporates the dual component \*-ay- before suffixes. We do not expect such a component since this is peculiar to masculine (dual) nouns (in the gen./acc. case), not the feminine. In fact, the third-person masculine plural and feminine plural suffixes often are not preceded by this syllable.

The feminine nouns (and adjs./stative ptcs.) of the \*qatilat base are unusual in that they often do not exhibit vowel reduction of the histori-

21. Singular nouns of the \*qatil base with suffixes are especially uncommon; nevertheless, note, e.g., יָרֵכִי “my thigh”; יָרֵכֶךְ “your thigh”; יָרְכוֹ “his thigh”; יָרְכָה “her thigh”; כְּתָפָם “their shoulder.” The plural forms are more common: זָקִינִי, זָקִינָה, זָקִינִי, זָקִינָה.

cal \*/i/ vowel. Thus, the noun בְּרִכָּה “pool” (pl. abs. בְּרִכּוֹת) exhibits no reduction in the singular construct form בְּרִכַּת or in the plural construct form בְּרִכּוֹת. Similarly, with suffixes, the \*/ē/ (corresponding to the symbol *tserē* in THT) appears in the propretonic open syllable: גְּנֵבְתּוֹ “his theft,” מְלֶאֱתְךָ “your full harvest.” Note also with adjectives טְמֵאָה “unclean of” (abs. טְמֵאָה) and מְלֵאָה “full of” (abs. מְלֵאָה). There are exceptions to this, including the word נִבְלָה “carcass,” which usually appears with the expected vowel elision and shift of initial \*/a/ to /i/ (e.g., const. נִבְלִית, נִבְלִיתוֹ).<sup>22</sup> Note, however, the form נִבְלִיתִי at Isa 26:19.

#### 4.5. Peculiarities of Some Possessive Suffixes

Note that although most suffixes that occur on the single consonantal prepositions (i.e., בְּ “in, with” and לְ “to”) are analogous to those suffixes that occur on singular nouns, there are four slight distinctions between the two paradigms. In each case, the suffix on the preposition takes an \*/ā/ connecting vowel and the suffix on the noun takes \*/ē/ or no vowel:

- ♦ לְךָ “to you (fs)” versus דִּמְךָ “your (fs) blood”
- ♦ לָנוּ “to us” versus יָדְנוּ “our hand”
- ♦ לָכֶם “to you (mp)” versus דִּמְכֶם (= *dimkem*) “your (mp) blood”
- ♦ לָהֶם “to them (mp)” versus יָדָם “their hand.”<sup>23</sup>

The third masculine singular suffix occasionally appears with a *he mater*, instead of a *vav mater* (e.g., כֻּלָּה “all of it” 2 Sam 2:9). This seems to be an inheritance from an earlier orthography, reflected in First Temple era ostraca and inscriptions, where the third-person masculine singular pronominal suffix was uniformly written with a *he mater*. The earlier form of the suffix, \*-*ahu* (which became \*-*ō* [perhaps due to elision of the *he* and contraction of the two vowels]), helps explain the use of *he* as a *mater* for this pronominal suffix. All the same, note that word final \*-*ō* was also marked with *he* in the infinitive absolute of III-*vav/yod* verbs (e.g., רָאָה “seeing”), as well as in words like פֶּרַעַה “Pharaoh.”<sup>24</sup>

22. Nouns of the \**qitalat* base are rare.

23. In addition, the 2fp and 3fp suffixes show a similar distribution between preposition and noun.

24. See Eric D. Reymond, “The 3ms Suffix on Nouns Written with *Heh Mater*,” in “*Like ‘Ilu Are You Wise’: Studies in Northwest Semitic Languages and Literatures in*

The second-person masculine singular suffix on prepositions and nouns exhibits different vowels depending on whether it appears in context or pause. Most students learn the contextual form as part of the paradigm:  $\text{ָלְּ}$  “to you (ms)” and  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  “your (ms) blood.” In pause, the preposition plus second-person masculine singular suffix is identical to the second-person feminine singular suffix (in pause or context):  $\text{ָלְּ}$  “to you (ms in pause or fs in pause or context).” In pause, the singular noun plus second-person masculine singular suffix attests an /ε/ (instead of *shewa*) after the last consonant of the word’s stem:  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  “your (m.s.) blood”;  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  “your word”;  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  “your counsel.”

According to the rules of vowel reduction outlined above, the contextual form of the noun plus suffix is a bit difficult to account for; that is,  $\text{ָלְּךָ} < *yāda'kā$  seems to evidence vowel reduction in the pretonic syllable and vowel lengthening in the propretonic syllable. This likely reflects an earlier form with a full short vowel in the penultimate syllable, which was accented (*\*yadaka* > *\*yā'dakā*); the accent subsequently shifted to the final syllable and the formerly accented /a/ vowel reduced (*\*yāda'kā*).<sup>25</sup> That the historical form of the suffix contained a preceding full vowel, not *shewa* (e.g., *\*-aka*) is suggested by the Secunda, where we find  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  (cf.  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  [analogous to a pausal form, though in the MT it should be a contextual form]) “your salvation” (Ps 18:36) and elsewhere a shorter form,  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  (cf.  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$ , in pause) “your righteousness” (Ps 35:28).<sup>26</sup> It seems possible that a form like  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  would have been articulated as something like *dabāarak* (with ultimate accent) in the era from 200 BCE to 100 CE (especially since this seems to reflect RH). However, the presence of a long vowel after the *kaph* in this same time period (i.e., *\*/ā/*, like that implied by the THT *qamets*) is presupposed by the many spellings of the suffix in the DSS with a final *he mater*:  $\text{ָלְּךָ}$  “your word” (e.g., 1QH<sup>a</sup> XII, 36), implying perhaps the articulation *\*dabāarakā*.

When feminine plural nouns attest a third-person masculine/feminine plural suffix, sometimes the heavy suffix characteristic of the masculine plural nouns is used (i.e.,  $\text{ָם}$ - and  $\text{ָן}$ -), though in a majority of cases (especially in earlier texts) the simple nonheavy suffix typical of singular

*Honor of Dennis G. Pardee*, ed. H. Hardy, Joseph Lam, and Eric D. Reymond (Chicago: Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, forthcoming).

25. See the explanation above in ch. 3 §5, “Lengthening of Pretonic *\*i/* and *\*a/* Vowels and the Place of Stress.”

26. Brønno, *Studien*, 144–45.

nouns appears (i.e., ם - and ן -). Some nouns attest both types of suffix: בְּנוֹתֵיהֶם “their daughters” (Judg 3:6) and בְּנֹתָם (Gen 34:21). Although it is hard to predict which suffix will appear on which noun, the longer, heavy suffix tends to occur in later texts.<sup>27</sup> For example, the plural of “father” appears with the heavy suffix (אֲבוֹתֵיהֶם) primarily in Ezra, Nehemiah, and Chronicles and with the shorter suffix (אֲבוֹתָם) throughout the MT.<sup>28</sup> On the other hand, certain words occur with primarily one suffix or the other: מִשְׁפָּחָה “clan” occurs with the short suffix over eighty times (מִשְׁפָּחוֹתָם) and with the longer heavy suffix only three times (מִשְׁפָּחוֹתֵיהֶם); contrast this with the distribution of “daughters”: בְּנֹתָם occurs just once, but בְּנוֹתֵיהֶם occurs (with and without the *vav mater*) over twenty times.

In some cases the third-person masculine plural suffix appears with a following \*/ō/ vowel. This expanded form of the pronominal suffix appears on prepositions (e.g., לָמוֹ “to them” Deut 32:35), particles (אֵינָמוּ “they are not” Ps 73:5), nouns (e.g., פְּרִימוֹ “their fruit” Ps 21:11), and verbs (e.g., שִׁיתָמוּ “set them!” Ps 83:14).

#### 4.6. Biconsonantal Bases (Tables 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5, 6.6)

Words with just two obvious root consonants are relatively common in BH. The easiest to inflect are those with historical long vowels in their middle: \*qāl, \*qīl, \*qūl. These words often have a *mater* to mark the long vowel, which never alters or reduces: טוֹב (< \*tāb), טוֹבָה, טוֹבִים, טוֹבוֹת “good”; דִּין, דִּינִי “(my) judgment”; רוּחַ, רוּחוֹת “breath.” These are classified here as from II-*vav/yod* roots, though the *vav* or *yod* is only rarely present as a consonant. *Qal* infinitives construct from II-*yod* and II-*vav* roots have the bases \*qīl and \*qūl (respectively); some of these are listed in dictionaries as nouns (e.g., גִּיל “rejoicing” from גִּל and בּוֹז “contempt” from בּוּז). Feminine versions of these bases are easy to identify (e.g., קוֹמָה “height” and קוֹמָתָה “her height”; בִּינָה “understanding” and בִּינָתִי “my understanding”; בוֹשָׁה “shame”).

Words from analogous bases with historical short vowels (\*qal, \*qil, \*qul) offer more variations, though they are comparatively fewer in number and follow the tendencies for vowels already outlined in chapter 3. However, note that the \*/a/ vowel developed in different ways in closed

27. For the appearance of the different suffixes in earlier versus later BH, see most recently Hornkohl, *Ancient Hebrew Periodization*, 135–39.

28. Ibid., 137.

unaccented syllables; it remained \*/a/ in construct forms (i.e., דָּם “blood of,” יָד “hand of”), but seems to have been /i/ or /ε/ with suffixes (דְּמָכָם, (יְדֵיכֶם).

Feminine nouns of this base, like אִמָּה “maid servant,” שֶׁפָּה “lip,” and שָׁנָה “year,” are inflected normally in the singular (אִמָּתָה “her handmaid”; שֶׁפָּתָה “their lip”; שָׁנָתוֹ “his year”). However, in the plural each of these nouns shows some irregularity. The word “maid servant” exhibits a *he* as a true consonant, אִמָּהוֹת, while “lip” attests a final *tav* as a root consonant, שֶׁפָּתוֹתַי “his lips,” and “year” has a masculine plural form, שָׁנִים, in addition to a regular feminine plural form, שָׁנוֹת.

Most \**qil* nouns attest predictable patterns (e.g., \**iʃu* > \**iʃ* > \**ēʃ* > עֵץ). In the cases of בֵּן and שֵׁם, however, the \*/i/ reduces even in an open pretonic syllable: בְּנִי “my son” and שְׁמִי “my name.”<sup>29</sup> In general, the rarity of these types of nouns means that if one encounters an unknown masculine noun with two recognizable root consonants and an \*/ē/ vowel, most commonly this will be derived from a geminate root, \**qill* (on which see below).

Feminine nouns of this base are often derived from I-*vav/yod* and I-*nun* roots. Specifically, nouns of the \**qilat* base are often from I-*vav/yod* roots:

- ♦ יָדָעָה (from יָדַע) “knowledge”
- ♦ חָמָה (from יָחַם) “rage”
- ♦ לָדָה (from יָלַד) “birthing”
- ♦ יָעָדָה (from יָעַד) “assembly”
- ♦ יָעָצָה (from יָעַץ) “advice”
- ♦ שָׁנָה (from יָשַׁן) “sleep”<sup>30</sup>

Most nouns from the \**qilt* base, on the other hand, are *qal* infinitives construct from either I-*vav/yod* or I-*nun* roots:

- ♦ גָּעַתָּה (*qal* inf. const. נָגַע) “touching”<sup>31</sup>

29. These words have been described as possibly consisting not of a consonant + vowel + consonant sequence (i.e., \**bin*, \**ʃim*), but rather as a vowel-less consonant cluster \**bn*- and \**ʃm*-. See Testen, “Significance of Aramaic *r* < \**n*,” 143–46; Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 73 n. 13.

30. Though contrast יָעָדָה “witness” from יָעַד.

31. The /a/ vowels are a reflex of the guttural.

- ♦  $\text{גָּשַׁת}$  (*qal* inf. const. גִּשׁ) “approaching”
- ♦  $\text{יָדַעַת}$  (*qal* inf. const. יָדַע) “knowing”
- ♦  $\text{טָעַת}$  (*qal* inf. const. טָעַע) “planting”
- ♦  $\text{לָכַת}$  (*qal* inf. const. הֵלַךְ) “going”
- ♦  $\text{עָת}$  (\**idt* from יָעַד or \**int* from עָנָה) “time”
- ♦  $\text{צָאָת}$  (*qal* inf. const. יָצָא) “going out”
- ♦  $\text{יָרַדָּת}$  (*qal* inf. const. יָרַד) “going down”
- ♦  $\text{רָשַׁת}$  (*qal* inf. const. יָרַשׁ) “inheriting”
- ♦  $\text{שָׁבַת}$  (*qal* inf. const. יָשַׁב) “dwelling”
- ♦  $\text{תָּת}$  (< \**tint*; *qal* inf. const. נָתַן) “giving”

Note that many of these exhibit a vowel pattern like that of segolate nouns. This extends to forms with suffixes, where the etymological vowel is usually clear (e.g.,  $\text{שְׁבִתִּי}$  “my dwelling” Ps 27:4). There is a general tendency for *qal* infinitives construct to attest segolate or segolate-like vowel patterns.<sup>32</sup>

There are very few words from the \**qul* base. One is found in the plural noun  $\text{מְתִים}$  (< \**mutim*) “men,” where the short \*/u/ vowel has reduced in an open pretonic syllable, as expected.

A subset of words from II-*vav/yod* roots exhibit an \*/ā/ or \*/ē/ (corresponding to the symbols *qamets* or *tsere* in THT) throughout their inflection; that is, there is no reduction of the vowel between the two root consonants.<sup>33</sup> Many of these words are attested as *qal* active participles of II-*vav/yod* roots. For example, the common root קוּם “to stand” attests a participle קָם, the underlying vowel of which does not reduce though it appears in an open, nontonic/nonpretonic syllable, as in קָמִיָּהם. In a similar way, the participle of מוּת “to die,” attests a participle, מָת, whose vowel does not reduce, even in the plural construct מְתִי. Nouns that seem to reflect a similar development include the plural of “city” עָרִים (e.g., עָרֵי “cities of”) and the nouns עָב “cloud” (עָבִי) as well as עֵד “witness” (עֵדִי), and נֵר “lamp” (נֵרִיתָהּ).<sup>34</sup>

Students should remember that words exhibiting the vowel pattern \*ē-ā (corresponding to the symbols *tsere-qamets*<sup>he</sup> in THT), like דָּעָה, are often from I-*vav/yod* roots, while words with the pattern a-a or ε-ε (in

32. See below on nouns of the \**qutul* base and on segolate nouns.

33. See the comments in ch. 3 §9, “Canaanite Shift and Historical \*/ā/.”

34. On the plural of “city,” see Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 32 n. 22 with literature.

THT) that end in a *tav* (e.g., יָעַת) are often *qal* infinitives construct from I-*vav/yod* or I-*nun* roots. Also, words (including participles) from II-*vav/yod* roots will usually exhibit an \*/ā/ or \*/ē/ (corresponding to the symbols *qamets* or *tserē* in THT) that does not alter or reduce in the word's inflection.

#### 4.7. Nouns of the \**Qatul* and \**Qatāl* Bases (Tables 6.15, 6.16, 6.17, 6.19)

Nouns of these bases exhibit the same forms, such that it is hard to know at first blush to which base a word belongs. In general, words of the \**qatul* (fem. \**qatulat*) base are adjectives (e.g., גְּבִהָה/גְּבִיָּה “high,” גְּדוֹלָה/גְּדוּלָה “great,” טְהוֹרָה/טְהוּרָה “clean,” קָדוֹשׁ “holy,” רְחוֹקָה/רְחוֹק “far,” קָרוֹב “near”), while words of the \**qatāl* base (excluding words with an Aramaic or Aramaic-like form [on which see below]) are usually *qal* infinitives absolute (e.g., שָׁמוֹר “guard,” בָּנוּה “build”).<sup>35</sup> In other cases what appears to be a word from the \**qatul* base appears in the plural with a doubled third root consonant and the /u/ vowel preserved: עֲמָקִים/עֲמֹק “deep.” These words are categorized here as from a similar base: \**qatull* (see §11 below, “Nouns with Three Root Consonants, One of Which Is Geminated”). That words from the \**qatul* base never exhibit vowel reduction of the historical short \*/u/ vowel is unexpected based on the relatively regular reduction of pretonic short \*/u/ in other bases. Still, note the lowering of \*/u/ to \*/o/ implied in construct forms like גְּדוֹלָה “great of (loving-kindness)” Ps 145:8; and the *ketiv* of טְהוּרָה “pure of (heart)” Prov 22:11.

#### 4.8. Nouns of the \**Qutul*, \**Qitāl*, and \**Qutāl* Bases (Tables 6.17, 6.21)

Nouns of these bases are inflected in an identical manner such that we may discuss them together. In order to determine the base of a given word, one must rely on comparative information or consult a dictionary. As examples, note the following: בְּכוֹר “firstborn” and חֲלוֹם “dream” are of the \**qutul* base, as are most *qal* infinitives construct from strong roots (e.g., שָׁמַר “guarding” and שָׁלַח “sending”). The nouns זְרוֹעַ “arm” and אֱלֹהִים “god” are of the \**qitāl* base and אָנוֹשׁ “people” and רְחוּב “plaza”

35. The word גְּבִיָּה is not written with a *vav mater*, while the other words commonly are. All the same, the other words are also sometimes written defectively (without the *vav mater*). Such disparity does not reflect distinct etymological bases.



are of the *\*qutāl* base.<sup>36</sup> Although identifying the precise historical base of words like these is difficult for the novice, inflecting these nouns is easy given the consistent vowel sequence *\*a-ō* (corresponding to the symbols *shewa-holem* in THT). This sequence of vowels is found throughout the inflection of nonverbal nouns: the absolute (e.g., בָּכּוֹר), construct singular (e.g., בְּכוֹר), construct plural (בְּכוֹרִי/בְּכוֹרוֹת), and suffixed forms (sg. בְּכוֹרִי/בְּכוֹרִי; pl. בְּכוֹרֵיהֶם). The major exception is provided by the *qal* infinitives construct with suffixes, which usually exhibit the vowels one associates with *\*qutl* segolate nouns. Note, for example, *\*šomrō* > שָׁמְרוֹ “his guarding” (1 Sam 19:11) and *\*šolhī* > שְׁלַחִי “my sending” (Num 32:8) and compare these to the *\*qutl* noun + suffix *\*qodšī* > קֹדֶשִׁי “my sanctuary” (Lev 20:3).

Nevertheless, the *qal* infinitive construct with suffix reflects the *\*qutul* base in other ways. First, note that in forms like שָׁמְרוֹ “his guarding,” the historical first *\*u/* vowel is preserved, but the second is not. This may reflect the tendency for pretonic *\*u/* to dissimilate and reduce (i.e., *\*šumurahu* > *\*šumrō* > *\*šomrō* [> שָׁמְרוֹ]). In addition, with the second-person masculine singular and plural suffix, *\*qutul* base infinitives in context sometimes (especially after the *lamed* preposition but also without a preposition) attest a */u/-*class vowel after the second root consonant (e.g., *\*lašumuraka* > *\*lišmorkā* > לְשַׁמְרֶךָ “to guard you” Prov 6:24), while *\*qutl* base nouns in context do not (e.g., *\*qudšaka* > *\*qodšakā* > *\*qodšəkā* > קֹדֶשְׁךָ “your holy place” Isa 63:15). Furthermore, with other suffixes, *\*qutul* base infinitives that have a *begadkepat* letter as a third root consonant regularly attest the spirantized allophone, implying the presence of a vowel after the second root consonant in an earlier form of the word (e.g., *\*puqudiyya* > *\*poqdī* > פָּקְדִי “my visiting” Jer 27:22; *\*nuqubahu* > *\*noqbō* > נִקְבוֹ “his blaspheming” Lev 24:16), while *\*qutl* base nouns do not (e.g., *\*ḥuškiyya* > *\*ḥoškī* > חֹשֶׁכִי “my darkness” 2 Sam 22:29; *\*ruḥbahu* > *roḥbō* > רָחְבוֹ “its breadth” Exod 25:23).

As for feminine nouns of these bases, it is again difficult to determine their original base. Those of the *\*qutult* base (some of which might actually be of the *\*qutālt* base) include בְּתוּנָה “tunic,” נְחֹשֶׁת “copper,” קְטָרֶת “smoke.”<sup>37</sup> The ending of these nouns resembles a *\*qutl* noun. Note, in particular, the presence of an epenthetic vowel (i.e., *segol* in THT) between

36. Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 45, 48–49.

37. Ibid., 45.

the last two consonants. The construct form is the same as the absolute (e.g., קָטַרַת can mean “smoke” or “smoke of”). The form with suffixes attests a *qamets* (or *qibbuts*) in place of the *holem* (e.g., \**nəḥoštī* > נְחָשְׁתִּי, נְחָשְׁתִּי, קָטַרְתִּי). Feminine nouns of the \**qitālat* base, on the other hand, are inflected in a regular manner (e.g., עֲבוֹדָה “labor”).<sup>38</sup>

In this group of bases (\**qutul*, \**qitāl*, and \**qutāl*) the initial vowel is short and the second is long, either from its origin (\**/ā/* > \**/ō/*) or through later developments (\**/u/* > \**/ō/*). The pretonic */u/* vowel reduces, as expected. As noted above, there is a tendency for two high vowels in a word’s stem to dissimilate, that is, to change such that the first high vowel becomes dissimilar to the second, in this case becoming *shewa*.<sup>39</sup> This tendency is present after the Canaanite shift has turned \**/ā/* to \**/ō/*, since */ā/* is not a high vowel and, thus, would not trigger such dissimilation.

Students should remember that the vowel underlying the *holem* in the second syllable of most of these nouns (e.g., גִּדּוֹל, חָלֶם, זָרוּעַ, אֲנָנוּשׁ) does not shift or reduce in the inflection (the primary exception being in the *qal* inf. const.).

#### 4.9. Nouns of the \**Qātil* Base (Table 6.18)

Nouns of this base are primarily associated with *qal* active participles (e.g., כָּתַב “one who writes”; שָׁמַר “one who guards”). Nevertheless, in some cases, the nouns of this base are listed as individual words in dictionaries (e.g., אֵיב “enemy”; כֹּהֵן “priest”; שֹׁפֵט “judge”); still, they inflect just like participles.

Often the feminine singular form of the participle derives from the base \**qātilt*, which results in an ending that exhibits a vowel pattern like that of a segolate noun: \**yālidt* > \**yōlidt* > \**yōledt* > יֹלֶדֶת “one who bears.” In rare cases, the feminine singular participle exhibits a form derived from \**qātīlat* (e.g., בֹּעֲרָה “one burning” Isa 30:33).

Usually, the \**/i/* of the stem (\**qātil*) reduces to *shewa* when it is in the pretonic syllable because the initial vowel cannot reduce: \**hālikīma* > \**hōlikīm* > \**hōlakīm* (> הֹלְכִים) “those going”; \**hālikāt* > \**hōlikōt* > \**hōlakōt* (> הֹלְכוֹת). One irregularity, however, appears in the contextual form of the masculine singular \**qātil* noun with second-person masculine singu-

38. Ibid., 48.

39. See ch. 3 §5, “Lengthening of Pretonic \**/i/* and \**/a/* Vowels and the Place of Stress.” See also Garr, “Pretonic Vowels in Hebrew,” 143, 150.

lar suffix. The vowel after the second root consonant is either an /i/, /ε/, or /a/ in THT: אִיבָךְ “your enemy” (Exod 23:4); יִצְרָךְ “one forming you” (Isa 43:1); בִּרְאָךְ “one creating you” (Isa 43:1).<sup>40</sup> This reflects the elision of a vowel between the stem and the suffix (i.e., \**ōyibakā* > \**ōyibkā* > אִיבָךְ). The pausal form, on the other hand, does reflect a vowel between the stem and base (i.e., \**ōyibakā* > \**ōyabakā* > \**oybekā* = אִיבְךָ). In addition, when feminine plural participles are used as substantives, the historical \*/i/ sometimes does not reduce, helping to distinguish the substantival nature of the word (e.g., הוֹלָלוֹת “madness”; עוֹלָלוֹת “gleanings”).<sup>41</sup>

In the feminine singular form with suffix, the short \*/i/ shifts to \*/ε/ then /a/ in THT: \**yālidtaha* > \**yōledtaha* (> \**yoladtāh* = יִלְדְתָהּ) “one who bore her”; \**yālidtVkum* > \**yōledtVkem* > \**yoladtakem* (> יִלְדְתְּכֶם) “one who bore you.” Nevertheless, the \**qātilat* form of the feminine singular participle often expresses the historical \*/i/ vowel clearly: יוֹלְדָהּ.

#### 4.10. Other Nouns with Long Vowels (without Gemination) (Tables 6.20, 6.21)

Many nouns with three root consonants derive from a base that includes a long vowel. Since historical long vowels never reduce, the inflection of these nouns requires little comment. Note, for example, the regular absolute forms of the *qal* passive participle which derive from the \**qatūl(at)* base: כְּתוּבָה, כְּתוּבָה, כְּתוּבִים, כְּתוּבוֹת “that which is written.” In the case of III-*vav/yod* roots, the *yod* appears as a third root consonant and the vowel sequence is preserved (e.g., בְּנוּיָה, בְּנוּיָה, בְּנוּיִם, “that which is built”).<sup>42</sup> In addition, there are many nouns of this pattern: בְּתוּלָה “maiden,” זְכוּר “remembrance,” יְשׁוּעָה “salvation,” שָׁבוּעַ “week,” שְׁבוּעָה “oath.”

Words of the \**qatīl(at)* base are often classified as adjectives: חָסִיד “pious”; יָמִין “south, right”; כָּלִיל “complete”; נָעִים “pleasant”; צָעִיר “little.” However, a fair number are also commonly used as substantives to describe a type of person: אֲסִיר “prisoner”; בָּחִיר “chosen one”; מְשִׁיחַ “anointed one”; נָבִיא “prophet”; נָגִיד “leader”; נָזִיר “Nazirite”; נָשִׂיא “prince”; סָרִיס “high official, eunuch”; פְּלִיט “survivor”; שָׁרִיד “survivor.” Other words from this base are associated with agriculture: אֲסִיף “harvest”; בָּצִיר “vintage”; זֶמֶר

40. Note also שִׁלְחָךְ “one sending you” (1 Sam 21:3).

41. See Garr, “Pretonic Vowels in Hebrew,” 145.

42. In relation to בְּנוּיָה, it was scribal convention not to include a *vav* or *yod mater* when such a *mater* would have come directly after a true *vav* or *yod* consonant.

“trimming of vines”; חָרִישׁ “ploughing”; קָצִיר “harvest.”<sup>43</sup> Roots whose third root consonant is *vav/yod* attest the same vowel sequence, though without a final root consonant: נָקִי “innocent”; עָנִי “poor.” The underlying historical vowel sequence (*\*a-ī*) is also reflected in the feminine singular, the masculine and feminine plural, and with pronominal suffixes, in each case where the historical III-*yod* is preserved through gemination: עֲנִיָּה, עֲנִיָּי, עֲנִיָּיִם, and so on.

Nouns of the *\*qutūl* base often exhibit the reduction of the first *\*u/*, as expected for a pretonic */u/* in an open syllable: גְּבוּל “territory”; גָּדוּד “band”; זָבוּב “flies”; יָבוּל “produce.” Note the plural nouns that indicate a period in a person’s life: בְּחֹרֹת “youth (i.e., time of being young)”; בְּתוּלִים “virginity”; זְקוּנִים “old age”; נְעוּרִים “youth (i.e., time of being young)”; עֲלֻמִּים “youth (i.e., time of being young).”

Nouns that look to be of the *\*qātal* base may ultimately derive from other roots (e.g., כּוֹכֵב “star” from *\*kwb*; עוֹלָם “eternity” perhaps from *\*wl*; עוֹלָל “child” from *\*wl*) or from other languages (e.g., חוֹתָם “seal” is Egyptian in origin).<sup>44</sup>

Nouns of the *\*qatāl* base often refer to occupations and may be connected to, in some remote way, a similar nominal form in Aramaic. Note, for example, אֲמֹן “craftsman”; בְּגֹדָה “traitor”; עֹשׂוֹק “oppressor”; צֹרֶף “metalsmith.”<sup>45</sup>

#### 4.11. Nouns with Three Root Consonants, One of Which Is Geminated (Table 6.22)

Nouns from strong roots sometimes attest gemination of the second or third consonant. As for those that exhibit gemination of the second root consonant, their inflection is generally easy to predict since the gemination preserves the short vowel of the first syllable throughout the inflection. The vowel of the second syllable is lengthened or reduced, depending on the normal rules for vowel lengthening/reduction outlined above.

Of these words, nouns of the *\*qattal*, *\*qattil*, and *\*qattil* bases are perhaps the most common. Words of the *\*qattal* base often indicate a

43. See HGHs, 471pa–ra. Still other words do not fit into any of these categories: הֹלֵכָה “going”; פִּתְּלִי “thread”; שְׂעִיר “billy-goat.”

44. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 49–50; also, Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 289–90.

45. On words from this base, see Hornkohl, *Ancient Hebrew Periodization*, 148–52.

person who does the activity associated with the root (e.g., גִּנְבִּי “thief”; דִּין “judge”; חָטָא “sinner”; טָבַח “cook”; עֲוֵל “criminal”). Two frequent nouns of this base have a medial *resh* that results in compensatory lengthening of the initial \*/a/: חָרַשׁ “craftsman” and פָּרַשׁ “horse rider.”<sup>46</sup> Feminine nouns of the \**qattalt* and \**qattalat* base often have negative connotations: בְּלָהָה “terror”; בְּצָרָה “drought”; חֲטָאָה/חֲטָאָת (< \**ḥaṭṭa’at*/\**ḥaṭṭa’t*) “sin”; יִבְלָת “wart”; יִלְפָת “scabs”; צִרְעָת “leprosy.”<sup>47</sup> Note also the medial guttural nouns בְּהָלָה “horror,” לִהְבֶּה “flame,” which exhibit the shift of \*/a/ to /ε/ in THT as in the word הֶהָרִים (see above).

The relatively common noun שַׁבָּת “sabbath” seems to be a masculine noun from this base; however, the final feminine /t/ morpheme has dropped off in the absolute (\**šabbattu* > \**šabbāt*). With suffixes it is preserved: שַׁבָּתוֹ “his sabbath.” The word חֲטָאָת “sin” exhibits compensatory lengthening in most singular forms (e.g., חֲטָאָתָם “their sin”), except in the construct and in related forms (e.g., חֲטָאָת “sin of” and חֲטָאָתְכֶם “your sin”). In the plural, there is no compensatory lengthening because a vowel follows the *aleph*: \**ḥaṭṭa’ātu* > \**ḥaṭṭa’ōt* > \**ḥaṭṭā’ōt* (> חֲטָאוֹת). But, another phonetic transformation is evidenced in the construct plural and in forms with suffixes: what should be a vocal *shewa* (derived from a historical short \*/a/ vowel) is elided, reflecting (all things being equal) the development: \**ḥaṭṭa’ātu* > \**ḥaṭṭa’ōt* > \**ḥaṭṭā’ōt* > ḥaṭṭōt (> חֲטָאוֹת). Note the peculiar spelling. Although both the plural absolute and plural construct are spelled in THT with a *vav mater*, the *holem* appears after the *tet* in the plural construct.

In some words, the historical \*/a/ presupposed by the THT *qamets* does not reduce, as in בִּקְרָת “care of” (Ezek 34:12); בִּקְשָׁתִי “my request” (Esth 5:7 and elsewhere); בִּקְשָׁתוֹ “his request” (Ezra 7:6); חֲרָשֵׁי “engravers of” (2 Sam 5:11 and elsewhere); מְלַחֵיהֶם “their sailors” (Ezek 27:9); נְחֻמָּתִי “my comfort” (Ps 119:50; Job 6:10). These nouns, thus, look like Aramaic words, which attest a long vowel /ā/ that derives from PS (e.g., Aramaic

46. Although the word מְלַח “sailor” is often construed as a member of this base, derived from the Hebrew word for salt (מֶלַח) like English “saltee” from “salt,” it is rather a loanword, from Aramaic *mallāḥ* (or *mallāḥ*), which language also attests a verb *mlḥ/mlḥ* “to steer, guide.” (The Aramaic word derives from Akkadian *malāḥu* which is in turn derived from Sumerian). See, e.g., Aaron D. Rubin, “Sumerian Loan-words,” *EHL* 3:665–66.

47. There are exceptions, of course, like חֲרָבָה “dry ground,” טָבַעַת “seal ring,” יִבְשָׁה/יִבְשָׁת “dry land.”

דִּינִין “judges” Ezra 7:25 and קָטַלָה [the D-stem infinitive] “to execute” Dan 2:14).<sup>48</sup>

Nonverbal words of the *\*qattil* base have undergone a shift such that the initial *\*/a/* has shifted to *\*/i/*: *‘awwir* > *‘iwwēr* > עֵוֶר “blind.” As in this example, many words of this base describe aspects of a person’s physique: אֵלֶם “dumb”; גִּבָּח “bald”; גִּבֵּן “hunch-backed”; חֵרֵשׁ “deaf”; יָהָה “dim”; פֶּסֶח “lame”; פִּקֵּחַ “able to see”; קָרַח “bald.” In other cases, the word is a simple adjective: גָּאָה “arrogant” and עֲקָשׁ “twisted.”<sup>49</sup> Often these words seem to have negative connotations. The same base supplies the forms of the *piel qāṭal*, דִּבֵּר “he spoke” (pausal), and infinitive construct, דִּבֵּר “speak.” Due to an affinity between the infinitive construct and the *yiqṭol* (e.g., יִדְבֵּר), the *piel* infinitive construct has maintained the original first stem vowel.<sup>50</sup>

Words of the *\*qattil* base are often adjectives with positive connotations: אָבִיר “strong”; אָדִיר “mighty”; אָמִיץ “strong”; בָּבִיר “great”; צַדִּיק “righteous.” As with *\*qatil* base words, some of these are used as substantives referring to persons: אֲסִיר “prisoner,” שֹׁלֵיט “ruler.”

Among the other bases with geminated middle consonants, mention should be made of the *\*quttul* base, which shifted to *\*qittul* and then to *\*qittōl*, as in גִּבּוֹר “warrior,” צִפּוֹר “bird,” and שָׁכּוֹר “drunk.”<sup>51</sup> Feminine nouns include שִׁבְלֶת “ear of grain.”<sup>52</sup> A similar shift took place with *\*quttūl* nouns, which most commonly occur in the masculine plural: בְּכוֹרִים “first fruits”; גְּדוּפִים “defamation”; כְּפָרִים “atonement”; מְלוּאִים “consecration.”

Bases of nouns whose third consonant geminates are often associated with other, previously described bases. In part, this is due to the regular loss of gemination at the end of a singular absolute word. Thus, *\*qatall* nouns became *\*qatal* in this environment and then went through the same transformations that led from *\*dabar* to דָּבָר. Subsequently, these two cat-

48. Stadel, “Aramaic Influences on Biblical Hebrew,” 1:162–65. As noted above (ch. 3 §9, “Canaanite Shift and Historical *\*/ā/*”), Huehnergard (“Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 51) suggests, based on Akkadian evidence, that such Hebrew words may ultimately derive from *\*qattal* and *\*qattalat*.

49. As with feminine plural words of the *\*qātil* base, where the pretonic *\*/i/* lowers and lengthens in substantives and does not reduce, so also with some masc. pl. words of the *\*qattil* base that function as substantives. Thus, one finds שְׁלִישִׁים “third generations” and רְבִיעִים “fourth generations” (see Garr, “Pretonic Vowels in Hebrew,” 145).

50. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 52.

51. See *ibid.*, 53–54.

52. See *ibid.*, 54.

egories of nouns (i.e., *\*qatal* and *\*qatall*) became indistinguishable in the absolute. Words that exhibit the *\*qatall* base in their paradigm include: קָטַן “small” (קִטְנָם, קִטְנָה, קִטְנִי, etc.); גָּמַל “camel” (גִּמְלָיו, גִּמְלִים).<sup>53</sup>

Similar mergers and confusion pertain to *\*qatull*, which became *\*qatul* and then *\*qātōl*, making the absolute singular of such words look identical to historical *\*qatul* nouns. Here evidence from other Semitic languages suggests that many color terms are etymologically *\*qatull* (e.g., אָדָם “red” [אֲדָמָה, אֲדָמִים]; and עֶקֶד “striped” [עֶקְדִים]; as well as שָׁחַר “black” [שְׁחָרָה, שְׁחָרִים]).<sup>54</sup>

As for other bases, the base *\*qutull* exhibits the same dissimilation of high vowels found in other nouns discussed above. Thus, the initial *\*/u/* vowel is reduced to *shewa*: לָאִם “people” (pl. לְאֻמִּים). As for the feminine base, *\*qutullat* is “found almost exclusively as an abstract action noun” (e.g., גְּאֻלָּה “redemption”; חֲנֻכָּה “dedication”).<sup>55</sup>

#### 4.12. *Aleph*-, *Yod*-, *Mem*-, and *Tav*-Preformative Nouns

Biblical Hebrew attests numerous words formed, in part, by the supplementation of a consonant to the beginning of the root. One of the rarest of these prefixal consonants is the *aleph*: אֶכְזָב “deceitful,” אִלְמָנָה “widow,” אֶשְׁכַּל “grape bunch.” In some cases, *aleph*-preformative words are byforms of words that begin with a consonant + *shewa*: אֶזְרָע/זָרַע “arm,” אֶעֱדָה “anklet”/אֶצְעָדָה “bracelet.” Also rare are those nouns with a preformative *yod*: יֶצֶהָר “oil,” יָרִיב “adversary,” and יָקֹום “existence.”

*Mem*-preformative nouns are the most frequent of this set and most fall into one of four categories, based on their historical vowels: *\*maqtal*, *\*maqtīl*, *\*maqtul*, and *\*maqtāl*. For most strong roots, the historical short *\*/a/* following the preformative *mem* has shifted to */i/* or */ε/* at a relatively late date (in the Common Era). Where the first root consonant is a guttural, however, the *\*/a/* has often been preserved (מַעֲשֵׂה “deed”); the same sometimes happens when the first root consonant is a *lamed*, *mem*, or *nun* (e.g., מַמְלָכָה “kingdom,” מִתָּן “gift”). In addition, nouns of *II-vav/yod* roots preserve the initial */a/* vowel (e.g., מְקוֹם “place”). There is also some incon-

53. See *ibid.*, 56.

54. Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 285.

55. *Ibid.*



sistency evidenced in the MT itself (e.g., מְמָרֶת “net” Isa 19:8 and מְמָרָיו “his nets” Ps 141:10).<sup>56</sup>

Words of the *\*maqṭal* base are the most frequent. With the strong roots or with gutturals, it is often clear what the relevant root consonants are and there is rarely confusion about whether or not the initial *mem* might be a root consonant. Note, for example, מֵאֵכָל “food,” מִבְּחָר “choice element,” מְבִצֵּר “fortified city,” מִבְּטָח “trust,” מִגְדָּל “tower,” מִדְּבָר “desert,” מַהֲלָךְ “passage,” מַלְאָךְ “messenger,” מִסְפָּר “number,” מִשְׁמָר “guard,” מִשְׁפָּט “judgment.” In all these cases, the inflection of the nouns is entirely predictable. The vowel of the initial syllable is in a closed syllable and so it never alters or changes from the lexical (or dictionary) form. The historical *\*a/* in the second syllable is entirely like the second short *\*a/* vowel in *\*dabar*. Note, for example, מִשְׁפָּטִיּוֹ and מִשְׁפָּטֹו, as well as מִשְׁפָּטֵיכֶם.

Feminine nouns of this base (i.e., *\*maqṭalt*, *\*maqṭalat*) are also easily recognizable with strong roots or roots with gutturals. Note that *\*maqṭalt* nouns (e.g., מֵאֵכָלֶת “food,” מִשְׁמָרֶת “guard, obligation”) seem to be fewer than *\*maqṭalat* nouns (מִחְשַׁבָּה “thought,” מִלְחָמָה “war,” מַמְלָכָה “kingdom,” מְמִשְׁלָה “dominion”). Nevertheless, the two forms of feminine nouns are closely associated with each other since nouns of the *\*maqṭalat* base appear to be of the *\*maqṭalt* base in the construct and with suffixes (e.g., מִחְשַׁבֶּת [const.] / מִחְשַׁבָּתוֹ [+ 3ms]; מִלְחָמֶת [const.] / מִלְחָמָתָהּ [+ 3fs]; מַמְלֶכֶת [const.] / מַמְלָכָתוֹ [+ 3ms]; מְמִשְׁלֶת [const.] / מְמִשְׁלָתוֹ [+ 3ms]). There is just one absolute plural form for these types of feminine noun: מִלְחָמוֹת, מֵאֵכָלוֹת.

Words from I-*nun* roots are slightly more difficult to recognize as *mem*-preformative nouns since the same sequence of vowels may also reflect a *\*qattal* base. All the same, *mem*-preformative nouns from I-*nun* roots are comparatively common (e.g., מִכָּה “wound” from נָכָה *hiphil* “to strike”; מִשָּׂא “burden” from נָשָׂא “to lift”; מִתָּן “gift” from נָתַן “to give.”).

Words from I-*vav/yod* roots exhibit a *vav* or *yod mater* after the *mem* prefix, reflecting the contraction of a diphthong. Thus, what was *\*mawṭabu* “dwelling place” has shifted to *\*mōšab*, then *\*mōšāb* and finally מוֹשָׁב. Similarly, *\*mayšarīma* “uprightness” shifted to *\*mēšarīm* before then becoming מִישָׁרִים and then מִישָׁרִים.

56. See Sperber, *Historical Grammar*, 451.



Words from II-*vav/yod* roots have shifted to *\*maqāl* and then *\*māqōl*. For example, note מְבוֹא “entrance,” מְקוֹם “place,” מְקוֹר “source,” מְרוֹם “height.” The historical *\*/ā/* that shifted to *\*/ō/* does not reduce or shift in the inflection of these nouns.

III-*vav/yod* nouns from the *\*maqtal/\*maqtal(a)t* base offer little confusion in their absolute singular forms: מְבִנָּה “building,” מַעֲלָה “ascent,” מַעְלָה “stairs,” מַעֲנָה “answer,” מַעֲשֵׂה “deed,” מַרְאֶה “appearance, seeing.” As explained above, the word-final vowel is the result of a triphthong contraction. Similar contractions have resulted in the loss of the final vowel of the original stem in the plural (and with suffixes) such that these nouns usually exhibit no trace of the third root consonant (e.g., מַעֲשֵׂהוּ, מַעֲשֵׂים, מַעֲלֹתוֹ, מַעֲלֹת; מַעֲשֵׂיוּ).

Words from other *mem*-preformative bases attest similar patterns to those outlined above for *\*maqtal*. Note *\*maqtīl* and *\*maqtīl(a)t* (מִגְפָּה [from נִגַּף] “plague,” מוֹעֵד [from יָעַד] “designated time,” מִזְבֵּחַ “altar,” מַצֵּבָה [from מָצַב] “standing stone,” מְרַפֵּא “healing,” מְשָׁאָה [from נָשָׂא] “elevation, tribute”). The short *\*/i/* vowel reduces to *shewa* in the plural of *\*maqtīl* nouns (מִזְבְּחֹת/מִזְבְּחֵי “altar”), though sometimes the *\*/i/* does not reduce (e.g., מִגְפָּתַי “my plagues” Exod 9:14). In some cases, the root is geminate. In these cases, the vowel sequence is distinct from those above, but the identification of the root and its inflection offer no problems (the initial two syllables are always the same): מְגִלָּה and construct מְגִלַּת (from גָּלַל) “scroll (of),” מְזֻמָּה and pl. abs./const. מְזֻמוֹת (from זָמַם) “plot(s [of]);” מְסֻלָּה and מְסֻלוֹתָם (from סָלַל) “(their) highway(s).”

Words associated with the *\*maqtul* base are relatively rare. It is noteworthy, however that several feminine nouns of this base (which derive from II-*vav/yod* roots) are byforms of *\*maqtal/\*maqāl* nouns: מְנוּחָה versus מְנוּחַ “resting place”; מְנוּסָה versus מְנוּס “flight”; מְצוּדָה versus מְצוּד “mountain stronghold”; מְצוּקָה versus מְצוּק “distress”; מְצוּרָה versus מְצוּר “distress.” Words of the *\*maqtāl* base, on the other hand, are sometimes byforms of strong root *\*maqtal* nouns: מְבַחֵר versus מְבַחוֹר “choice thing”; מְשָׁקָל versus מְשָׁקֶל “weight.” In other cases, no byform exists: מְזֻמּוֹר “song,” מְכֻשָּׁל “stumbling.”

*Tav*-preformative nouns are less frequent than the *mem*-preformatives. They also attest words from I-*vav* (תּוֹרָה “law”) and I-*yod* (תִּימָן “south”) roots. The same types of bases found with *mem*-preformatives are also found for *tav*-preformatives (e.g., *\*taqtalat* תְּפָאֲרָה “glory”; *\*taqtīlat* תּוֹכְחָה “rebuke” [also *\*taqtīlt* תּוֹכַחַת “rebuke”]; *\*taqtulat* from II-*vav/yod* roots תְּשׁוּבָה “return”). Note also the nouns from geminate roots: תְּחֻלָּה

“beginning,” תְּפִלָּה “prayer.” Moreover, the \**taqtūl* base (e.g., תִּעְנוּג “pleasure,” תִּחְנוּגִים “pleading,” תִּנְחוּמִים “comforts”) seems more common than the analogous \**maqtūl* base (e.g., מְלָבוּש “robe”). As can be seen from this brief list, these *tav*-preformative words are often feminine in gender and often express an act or abstraction. Like some *mem*-preformative words (מַצֵּבָה and מַצֵּבֶת “standing stone”), some *tav*-preformative nouns exhibit byforms; note especially תִּפְאָרָה and תִּפְאָרֶת “beauty.” Inflection of these nouns is entirely predictable.

Students should remember especially that feminine *mem*-preformative nouns of the \**maqtalat* pattern will often exhibit a \**maqtalt* pattern in the construct and before suffixes (מַחֲשָׁבָה vs. מַחֲשָׁבֶת [const.] and מַחֲשָׁבָתוֹ). In addition, notice that a *mater vav* or *yod* after a word-initial *mem* or *tav* often signals a I-*vav/yod* root (e.g., מוֹשֶׁב; תוֹרָה/מוֹשֶׁב; and תִּמְיוֹן/מִישָׁרִים).

#### 4.13. Nouns with Affirmatives

Hebrew nouns attest a wide variety of affirmative elements that attach to the stem of a noun. The most common is \*-*ōn* (<\*-*ān*), appearing as part of the base \**qatalān*, \**qattalān* and as part of a variety of other bases. The nouns from the \**qattalān* base almost always appear only in the absolute singular; the other forms of the noun are based on \**qatalān* (e.g., זִכְרוֹן “remembrance” vs. זִכְרוֹן [const.] and זִכְרוֹנָה as well as זִכְרוֹנוֹת [abs. pl.] and זִכְרוֹנֵיכֶם). In this and most other words of this base, the initial historical \*/a/ has shifted to /i/ (חֲזִיוֹן “vision,” נְקִיּוֹן “innocence,” עִוְרוֹן “blindness,” שִׁבְרוֹן “destruction”), though there are exceptions (שְׁבַתוֹן “rest”). Words from II-*vav/yod* roots include שִׂשׂוֹן “joy” and זִדּוֹן “arrogance.” In the inflection of these words, the historical \*/a/ of the first syllable reduces to *shewa* (e.g., שִׂשׂוֹן [const.] and זִדּוֹנָה). In some cases listed above, the III-*yod* is preserved (e.g., חֲזִיוֹן); in other cases, the III-*yod* has elided entirely and the second root consonant does not geminate (e.g., גָּאוֹן [from גָּאָה] “pride”; הָמוֹן [from הִמָּה] “turmoil, noise, crowd”; חֲזוֹן [from חָזָה] “vision”; רָצוֹן [from רָצָה] “favor”). The inflection of these III-*vav/yod* words is otherwise entirely regular. As can be seen from this list, most of these words are abstractions or intangible items.

Many adjectives are formed with the affirmative \*-*ōn* (<\*-*ān*). These include אֶבְיוֹן “poor,” אַחֲרוֹן “last,” חִיצוֹן “outside,” עֲלִיוֹן “most high,” קִדְמוֹן\* “eastern,” ראשון “first,” תִּיכוֹן “middle.” A variety of nouns also bear this suffix, including אִישׁוֹן “pupil of eye (lit., little person),” יִתְרוֹן “profit.” The inflection of these nouns is entirely regular. The vowel of the initial

closed syllable remains stable in BH (e.g., אַחֲרָנִים and אַחֲרָנָה “last”). A small minority of words contain an *\*-ān* ending (> THT *-ān*) in the suffix instead of *\*-ōn*, as though the word derives from Aramaic: בְּנִין “building”; קִנְיָן “property”; קֶרְבָּן “offering”; שִׁלְחָן “table.” However, in contrast to other forms associated with Aramaic, these nouns exhibit shortening of the vowel of the affirmative in the construct and with heavy suffixes (e.g., קִנְיָן [const.], קֶרְבַּנְכֶּם).

Other frequently encountered affirmatives include the *\*-iyy* > *\*-ī* genitive ending (e.g., אַרְמִי “Aramaean,” כְּנַעֲנִי “Canaanite,” עִבְרִי “Hebrew”). The ending is also a part of various other adjectives (e.g., אֶכְזָרִי “cruel,” חֲפֵשִׁי “free,” נִכְרִי “foreign,” שְׁלִישִׁי “third”), some of which are used as substantives (e.g., רֶגְלִי “foot soldier”). The inflection of these kinds of words usually results in the doubling of the *yod*: עִבְרִיִּים, עִבְרִיָּה, and עִבְרִיּוֹת.<sup>57</sup> Often in the masculine plural, the *\*-iyyī-* sequence of vowels and *yod* contracted to simply *\*-ī-*, as in עִבְרִים. Sometimes the feminine form of such a noun ends with *\*-īt*: מוֹאָבִית “Moabite” (vs. מוֹאָבִיָּה). In some cases, the *\*-ī* affirmative was attached to the *\*-ōn* affirmative, like קַדְמוֹנִי “eastern,” אֲדָמוֹנִי “red.”

Two endings are associated with abstract nouns, *\*-īt* (e.g., אַחֲרִית “end,” חֲתִית “terror,” רֵאשִׁית “beginning,” שְׁאֲרִית “remnant”) and *\*-ūt* (e.g., דְּמוּת “likeness,” זְנוּת “unfaithfulness,” יְלָדוּת “childhood, youth,” כְּסוּת “covering,” מַלְכוּת “kingship”). These words are regular in their inflection; usually the initial closed syllable means that there is little change in the stem with a suffix (e.g., אַחֲרִיתָהּ “its end”). In some cases, an *\*/ā/* (> THT */ā/*) appears in the initial syllable and is present throughout the inflection (e.g., גָּלוּת “exile,” גָּלוּתֵּנוּ “our exile”; חֲזוֹן “vision,” חֲזוֹתְכֶם “your vision”).

The last affirmative element we address marks adverbs and seems to be derived from the old accusative ending *\*/a/* followed by a word final *mem*.<sup>58</sup> This developed into Hebrew *\*-ām* (> *-ām*) and is found on words like אֱמָנָם/אֱמָנָם “truly,” חֲנָם “undeservedly,” יוֹמָם “daily,” פְּתָאם “suddenly,” רִיקָם “in vain.”

57. The gemination of *yod* is also found in *qatil* base nouns/adjectives from III-*vav/yod* roots: עֲנִיָּה. In these cases, the gemination helps preserve the preceding */i/* vowel. See Bergsträsser, *Hebräische Grammatik*, 1:102.

58. See IBHS, 93 n. 29. This *mem* is often called enclitic. It has no discernible semantic value in other languages, like Ugaritic.

## 4.14. I-Aleph, I-Nun, and I-Vav/Yod Nouns

Nouns from I-*aleph* roots sometimes exhibit full vowels where we would otherwise expect a *shewa* or *khatef* vowel. For example, as explained above, the initial \*/i/ of the \**qitāl* base usually is realized in BH as a *shewa* (e.g., זְרוּעַ “arm”). In the case of אֶזְזֹר “loincloth,” however, the \*/i/ has become \*/ē/. Similarly, the short \*/u/ shifts to a reduced vowel in most \**qutūl* nouns (e.g., גְּבוּל “territory”), but with a I-*aleph*, the \*/u/ shifts to \*/i/ and then to \*/ē/ (e.g., אֶסֹר “bonds”).<sup>59</sup>

Nouns from roots with a *nun* or *vav/yod* as initial root consonant exhibit peculiar forms, which can sometimes make identifying their root difficult. This, in turn, creates difficulty in making an educated guess about the meaning of an unfamiliar word. In many instances, words from I-*nun* roots have lost the initial root consonant, such that they look like they are not from a I-*nun* root. This is sometimes the case with words of the \**qilt* base (אֶפְשַׁת “approaching” *qal* inf. const. נָגַשׁ), discussed above. Where the base has a preformative *mem*, the *nun* will often assimilate: מַכָּה “wound” from נָכַה *hiphil* “to strike” and מִתָּן “gift” from נָתַן “to give.”<sup>60</sup>

Words from I-*vav/yod* roots appear from the \**qilat* (עֵדָה “assembly”) and \**qilt* bases (רָדַת “going down” *qal* inf. const. יָרַד), as discussed above, where the first root consonant has totally disappeared. Where a preformative *mem* or *tav* attaches to the beginning of such a root, one can recognize the historical root consonant. A I-*vav* root will often attest an \*/ō/ vowel with *vav mater* (e.g., מוֹשָׁב “dwelling place” from יָשַׁב “to dwell”; תּוֹדָה “thanksgiving” from יָדָה *hiphil* “to give thanks”) and a I-*yod* root will attest \*/ē/ with a *yod mater* (מִישָׁרִים “integrity” from יָשַׁר “to be straight”; תִּימָן “south” from יָמַן *hiphil* “to go to the right”).

## 4.15. II-Vav/Yod Nouns

Nouns of II-*vav/yod* roots often appear with a historical long vowel between their first and last consonants, as discussed above (e.g., טוֹב “good” from טוּב and בִּינָה “understanding” from בִּין), though there are rare exceptions (e.g., עָוֹל “iniquity”). Words from \**qal* and \**qil* bases attest \*/ā/ and \*/ē/ vowels throughout their inflection (e.g., the participles קָם and מָת as well

59. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 49.

60. On nouns with preformative elements, see above.

as the nouns עָב “cloud” and נֵר “lamp”). Note, for example, the construct form of the feminine singular participle of זָבַב in the famous expression אֶרֶץ זָבַת חֶלֶב וְדִבְשׁ “a land flowing with milk and honey.”

#### 4.16. III-*Vav/Yod* Nouns

With few exceptions, nouns from III-*vav/yod* roots are inflected in a similar way, regardless of base. Generally, masculine formed nouns will end with an /ε/, which is marked by a *he mater*. Thus, \**qatal* nouns have the vowel sequence \**ā-ε* (in THT *ā-ε*), as in חֲזָה “(animal) breast”; קִנָּה “reed(s), stem(s).”<sup>61</sup> Words of other bases often have a similar ending: \**qatil* (קָשָׁה “hard, stiff”), \**qital* (מֵעָה \* “innards” [cf. מֵעֵי]), \**qātil* (בִּנָּה “one who builds,” עָשָׂה “one who does”), \**qattil* (גָּאָה “arrogant”).<sup>62</sup>

The inflection of these more regular III-*vav/yod* words that end in /ε/ is very easy to learn. In essence, the final triphthong resolves such that only the vowel of the final morpheme remains (e.g., \**qašiyim* > \**qāšim* > קָשִׁים). Note the feminine singular forms קָשָׁה “hard, stiff” עָשָׂה “one who does”; the plural forms קָשׁוֹת/קָשִׁים and עָשׂוֹת/עָשִׁים; the suffixed forms קִנָּה “its stem(s),” עָשָׂה “who made it.”<sup>63</sup> This inflection reflects presumably the regular contractions of earlier triphthongs, as described above. One nuance in relation to the noun + possessive suffixes is the fuller form of the third-person masculine singular suffix, as seen on the word for “pasture”: נִיְהוֹ “his pasture” (abs. נִיָּה). Sometimes the third-person feminine singular has a similarly extended form: מִרְאָה “its appearance” (Lev 13:20).

The construct singular is usually distinguished from the absolute by the distinction of \*/ē/ instead of /ε/, which in Tiberian Hebrew is realized as the difference between *tserē* and *segol*. In some words that contain an etymological short vowel in an open pretonic syllable (e.g., \**qašiyu* > קָשָׁה “hard, stiff”), the construct form will also be marked by the reduction of the initial vowel, as in the adjective קָשָׁה in the expression עַם-קָשָׁה-עֹרֶף “a people, stiff of neck” (Exod 32:9). In other cases, however, the initial syllable will not contain a vowel that reduces and the only signal that the word is in construct is the \*/ē/ in place of /ε/: עָשָׂה הַשָּׁמַיִם “the maker of the heavens” (Ps 136:5).

61. Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 44.

62. Ibid., 44–53.

63. Note too the plural forms with suffix: עָשִׂיוֹ and קִנּוּתָם.

The words and bases whose last stem vowel is long exhibit different endings. In each, the vowel sequence found in nouns of the strong root is also found in the III-*vav/yod* roots, making the identification of the word usually very easy: \**qatūl* (בָּנוּי “that which is built” *qal* passive ptc.); \**qatīl* (עָנִי “poor”); \**qātōl* (בְּנוֹה “building” *qal* inf. abs.). The inflection of these nouns is often similar to the inflection of the same bases with strong roots: בְּנוֹיָה, בְּנוֹיִים and עָנִיָּה, עָנִיִּים.<sup>64</sup>

#### 4.17. Geminate Nouns with One Vowel in the Stem (Tables 6.7, 6.8)

Some geminate nouns attest a vowel between the second and third root consonants (e.g., לֵבָב “heart”). Such nouns are entirely predictable in their inflection. Another group of geminate nouns has only a single vowel in their stem. These exhibit certain characteristics that make learning them together useful. Nouns of these bases have either a historical short \*/a/, \*/i/, or \*/u/: \**qall*, \**qill*, \**qull*; \**qallat*, \**qillat*, \**qullat*. We first consider the masculine forms and then the feminine.

The above masculine singular bases (\**qall*, \**qill*, \**qull*) develop in slightly different ways in BH, depending on the vowel. First, note that the historical gemination at the end of the word is lost in the masculine absolute noun. This is due to the relative difficulty of pronouncing geminated consonants without a following vowel. During the second millennium BCE, when there was a case system, it would still be easy to articulate the gemination (e.g., ‘*ammu* “people”). With the loss of the case system, the final consonant and vowel were eventually both lost.<sup>65</sup>

The vowels shift in different ways. The vowel \*/a/ usually remains stable, while \*/i/ and \*/u/ are lowered in quality. Thus, \**ṭappu* “children” and \**kappu* “palm” became, respectively, \**ṭapp* > \**ṭap* (> טַף) and \**kapp* >

64. The gemination of *yod* in עָנִיָּה, etc. helps preserve the preceding /i/ vowel. See §13, “Nouns with Afformatives,” above. In rare cases, a final III-*vav/yod* is preserved in other bases: \**qatal* (עָנָו “humble”); \**qātilat* (עֲטִיָּה “one who wraps,” הוֹמִיָּה “one who moans/is tumultuous”); \**qattal* (דָּוִי “weak”).

65. A similar thing seems to happen in English too. In contemporary English, the noun “bed” derives from an Old English word that exhibited gemination of the “d”: *bedd*. See, e.g., Rob Getz and Stephen Pelle, *The Dictionary of Old English* (Toronto: University of Toronto), s.v. *bedd*; <http://tinyurl.com/SBL0395a>. In Old English, the final gemination was preserved due to a case system consisting of final vowels/consonants (e.g., *beddes*). The gemination is lost entirely in contemporary English except in forms of the word where there is a following syllable; contrast “beds” with “bedding.”

\**kap* (> כַּף). But, \**qinnu* “nest” and \**libbu* “heart” became, respectively, \**qenn* > \**qen* (> קֵן) and \**lebb* > \**leb* (> לֵב); similarly, \**kullu* “all” and \**huqqu* “statute” became \**koll* > \**kol* (> כָּל) and \**hoqq* > \**hoq* (> חָק).

The construct form of the singular \**qall* nouns \**ʔap*/\**kap* is identical to the absolute form in almost all circumstances (e.g., כַּף “palm of”). But, the construct forms of the other two bases show some alternation. Usually, the construct form of the \**qill* base is the same as the absolute (e.g., לֵב “heart of”). Occasionally, with *maqquph* the THT spelling with *segol* presumes a shift from \*/i/ to /ɛ/ (e.g., לֵב “heart of”); in other cases the historical \*/i/ shifted to /a/, at least in THT (e.g., קֵן “nest of”). The construct form of \**qull* nouns may also be identical to the absolute (e.g., כָּל “all of” and חָק “statute of”), but often with *maqquph*, the \*/u/ is realized in THT as /ā/ (e.g., כָּל־ and חָק־).

Vowel lengthening affects the geminate \**qall* base, at least in THT, though this is primarily restricted to where the second/third root consonant is a *mem*. Although עַם is found regularly where it is followed by an attributive adjective or relative clause, the form ʿām (= עַם) is found (even in context) where it is followed by prepositional phrases and conjunctions. In addition, ʿām always occurs when accompanied by the definite article.<sup>66</sup> The /ā/ is even more regular in other geminate \**qall* nouns that end with a *mem*: יָם “sea” (< \**yammu*) and תָּם “complete” (< \**tammu*).<sup>67</sup>

In contrast to the singular, the plural forms of the masculine geminate nouns are very straight forward. With the suffixed morpheme \*-īma, the original vowel and gemination were retained so that the historical form and the realization in BH are very close: \*ʿammīma > \*ʿammīm > עַמִּים; \*qinnīma > \*qinnīm > קִנִּים and \*huqqīma > \*huqqīm > חֻקִּים. In the construct plural, the historical vowel and gemination are also preserved, as they are in the noun with suffixes. For example, note: עַמֵּי “peoples of,” עַמּוֹ and עַמֵּיו “his people(s);” לְבָבוֹת “hearts of,” לְבָם and לְבוֹתָם “their heart(s);” חֻקֵּי and חֻקֵּי “my statute(s). Even for the heavy suffixes, the historical form is often retained: כָּלְכֶם “all of you.” Occasionally, the historical \*/u/ will appear as /ā/ in THT (e.g., חֻקְךָ and חֻקְכֶם “your statute”).

66. In this way, it is like a set of nouns that attest a *qamets* after the first root consonant in the singular only when accompanied by the definite article. Especially noteworthy are the geminate nouns הַגֵּן/הָגֵן “(the) garden” (< \**gann*); הַהָר/הָהָר “(the) mountain” (< \**harr*); הַחֵג/חֵג “(the) festival” (< \**hagg*); הַפָּר/הָפָר “(the) bull” (< \**parr*). Note too הָאָרֶץ/אֶרֶץ “(the) ark” and the ubiquitous הָאָרֶץ/אֶרֶץ “(the) land.”

67. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 36.



Variations from these basic patterns mostly involve roots with a geminated guttural root consonant, which causes compensatory lengthening. In particular, note the words *\*parru* > *\*par* > פָּר “bovine” and the plural *\*parrīma* > *\*parrīm* > *\*pārīm* > פָּרִים; and the word *\*šarru* > *\*šar* > *\*sar* > שָׂר “prince” and the plural *\*šarrīma* > *\*šarrīm* > *\*šārīm* > *\*sārīm* > שָׂרִים. When vowels are lengthened to compensate for a missing consonant, they never reduce (e.g., שָׂרִים “princes of”).

Feminine marked geminate nouns are generally easy to identify. Due to the fact that their absolute form already contains the historical vowel and gemination, it is easy to predict their inflection. For example, note אָמָה (const. אִמָּה) “cubit” and אִמּוֹת (const. אִמּוֹת) “cubits”; פִּנָּה (const. פִּנֶּה, suff. פִּנְתָּה) “corner” and פִּנּוֹת (const. פִּנּוֹת, suffix פִּנּוֹתֶי) “corners”; חֻקָּה (const. חֻקָּה) “statute” and חֻקּוֹת (const. חֻקּוֹת, suffix חֻקּוֹתֶי) “statutes.” Again, the only forms difficult to identify are those with guttural consonants, as with the masculine geminates discussed above. Note, in particular פָּרָה “cow” and שָׂרָה “princess.” The \*/ā/ (> THT /ā/) that is the result of compensatory lengthening does not reduce (e.g., שָׂרוֹתֶיהָ “her princesses”).

Students should remember that the inflected forms of these words usually always reflect their base (*\*qall*, *\*qill*, *\*qull*), with preservation of the historical short vowel and gemination of the second root consonant. This makes identification and production of these words relatively easy. Identifying the masculine absolute singular as from a geminate root, however, is more tricky. Still, (excepting the extremely frequent בֶּן “son” and שֵׁם “name”), nouns with two apparent root consonants and a *tsere* or *holem* are more often than not from a geminate root.

#### 4.18. Segolate Nouns (Tables 6.9, 6.10, 6.11, 6.12, 6.13, 6.14)

Segolate nouns are like geminate nouns in that they derive from bases with short vowels and two consecutive consonants at their end, though in the case of segolates these final, consecutive consonants are not identical: *\*qatl*, *\*qitl*, *\*qutl*. As with geminates, the segolates exhibit greater development in their absolute and construct forms than in their suffixed forms, which generally are quite similar to their historical bases. In particular, the *\*qatl* base seems to have gone through several stages of development, which (according to one model) involved a shift from *\*malku* to *\*malk* to *melk* (= מֶלֶךְ) “king.” In THT, a vowel appears between the two final consonants, though this is an epenthetic vowel that does not constitute



its own syllable, analogous in this way to the furtive patakh.<sup>68</sup> Where the second root consonant is a guttural, the \*/a/ vowel is often still attested, as with *\*ba<sup>l</sup>* (> בַּעַל “lord.” More predictably, *\*qatl* and *\*qutl* nouns seem to have developed along lines similar to geminate nouns: *\*sipru* > *sepr* = סִפְּר “book” and *\*buqru* > *boqr* = בֹּקֶר “morning.”<sup>69</sup> Nevertheless, it should be emphasized again that in different dialects and different eras a given segolate noun might have been articulated with different vowels. That is, what was a *\*qatl* noun in one era might have been a *\*qutl* noun in another (cf. גֶּפֶן “vine” in the MT with גּוֹפֶן in 1QIsa<sup>a</sup> at Isa 34:4). As mentioned above, even the MT evidences different stem vowels for what appear to be the same word (e.g., חָסֵר “lack” and חֶסֶר “lack”). Furthermore, notice that there are often discrepancies between pausal and suffixed forms of the same word; for example, נֶגַע “plague” appears with a *qamets* in pause (e.g., הַנֶּגַע Lev 13:50, implying a *\*qatl* base), but appears with a *hiriq* with suffixes (נֶגַעִי Ps 38:12, implying a *\*qitl* base).<sup>70</sup> Note similarly, פֶּשַׁע “crime,” פֶּתַח “opening,” קִדְּם “in front.”<sup>71</sup>

Similar to geminates, the construct forms of singular segolate nouns are identical in almost every case to the absolute forms (מֶלֶךְ “king” and “king of”). Also, with suffixes the segolates, like the geminates, reveal a form closer to or identical with their historical base. Thus, “my king” began as *\*malkiyya* and developed to *\*malkī* (> מַלְכִּי); “my book” began as *\*sipriyya* and developed to *\*siprī* (> סִפְּרִי). *\*Qutl* segolates offer a slight variation: “my morning” began as *\*buqriyya* and developed to *\*buqrī* then to *\*boqrī* (> בֹּקְרִי\*).<sup>72</sup> Even heavy suffixes are attached to this historical base (e.g., מַלְכֶּכֶם “your king”).

The plural forms of the segolates are easy to predict as well. Unlike other nouns whose plural form is based on the stem of the singular, most segolate nouns have separate bases for their plural forms. Thus, although the singular of “king” would have been *\*malku*, the plural seems to have

68. See the discussion in chapter 3 §3, “Developments of Individual Vowels.”

69. Note the exceptions in THT where the historical \*/i/ became eventually /ε/ (e.g., *\*qirbu* > *\*qerb* [> קִרְב]).

70. See ch. 3 §4, “Lengthening and Lowering of Vowels in Tonic Syllables.” For consideration of comparative evidence, see Lambdin, “Philippi’s Law Reconsidered,” 135–45 and Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 38–39.

71. The last word appears with *tserē*, as קִדְּמָה with the locative *he* (e.g., Num 34:3).

72. The word is used for consistency; cf. קִדְּשִׁי “my sanctuary” (Lev 20:3).

been *\*malakīma*, with two short *\*/a/* vowels in the stem. The result is that the base form develops just as *מַלְכִּים* develops: *\*malakīma* > *\*malākīm* > *מַלְכִּים*. The other segolate plural bases develop similarly:

- ♦ *\*siparīma* > *\*səpārīm* > סְפָרִים
- ♦ *\*buqarīma* > *\*bəqārīm* > בְּקָרִים

The forms with nonheavy suffixes are again similar in their development to the plural of *מַלְכִּים* with suffixes:

- ♦ *\*malakaynū* > *\*malākēnū* > מַלְכֵינוּ
- ♦ *\*siparaynū* > *\*səpārēnū* > סְפָרֵינוּ\*
- ♦ *\*buqaraynū* > *\*bəqārēnū* > בְּקָרֵינוּ\*. <sup>73</sup>

With heavy suffixes and with the construct, by contrast, the historical vowel (or, in the case of *\*qutl* bases, the *\*/o/* vowel) is retained:

- ♦ *\*malakay* > *\*malkē* > מַלְכִּי
- ♦ *\*malakaykum* > *\*malkēkem* > מַלְכֵיכֶם
- ♦ *\*siparay* > *\*siprē* > סְפָרִי\*
- ♦ *\*siparaykum* > *\*siprēkem* > סְפָרֵיכֶם\*
- ♦ *\*buqaray* > *\*buqrē* > *\*boqrē* > בְּקָרִי\*
- ♦ *\*buqaraykum* > *\*buqrēkem* > *\*boqrēkem* > בְּקָרֵיכֶם\*.

Feminine segolate nouns are identifiable in BH based on the following characteristics: the first syllable begins with a root consonant and is a closed syllable. Unlike masculine-formed segolates, the feminine-formed segolates are stressed on their second syllable. Since the initial syllable will always be closed and unaccented, it will always have a short vowel:

- ♦ *\*malkatu* > *\*malkā* > מַלְכָּה “queen”
- ♦ *\*dim‘atu* > *\*dim‘ā* > דִּמְעָה “tears”
- ♦ *\*ḥurbatu* > *\*ḥorbā* > חֲרָבָה “waste.”

73. These nouns are used for consistency and due to their lack of guttural consonants.

Like the masculine-based nouns, most feminine-based segolates attest the vowel sequence \**a-ā* for the plural:

- ♦ \**malakātu* > \**mālākōt* > מַלְכּוֹת
- ♦ \**dima'ātu* > \**dāmā'ōt* > דְּמַעוֹת
- ♦ \**ḥurabātu* > \**ḥōrābōt* > חֲרָבוֹת.

It so happens, perhaps for euphonic reasons, that most \**qutl* and \**qutlat* nouns have an initial guttural consonant, or they begin with *qoph* or *resh*. (The \*/u/, \*/o/ vowels and guttural consonants, as well as *qoph* and *resh*, are all pronounced in the back of the mouth). Due to this, where a \**qutl* base would normally take a *shewa* after the initial root consonant, the reduced vowel is represented by a *khatef-qamets* in THT (e.g., חֳדָשִׁים “months”; הַקְּדוּשִׁים “the holy things”). Where the first root consonant is not a guttural, *qoph*, or *resh*, the initial vowel may be a *shewa*: בְּקָרִים (< \**bəqārīm* < \**buqarīma*) “mornings”; or it may have a *khatef-qamets* by analogy to the many other \**qutl* nouns: גֻּרְנוֹת (< \**gōrānōt* < \**guranātu*) “threshing floors.”

Two nouns deserve separate mention for the irregular forms of their plural. These are קִדְּשׁ “holiness” and שֹׁרֶשׁ “root.” In each case, the stem of the plural form exhibits the sequence *ā-ā* (represented by *qamets-qamets*) in THT, which presumably reflects an earlier sequence \**ō-ā*; it would seem, therefore, that what was a muttered vowel has lengthened into a full vowel in THT. The word “holiness” appears as קִדְּשִׁים, and with suffixes קִדְּשֵׁי;<sup>74</sup> the word “root” appears in the plural only with suffixes שֹׁרְשֵׁי. The word קִדְּשׁ also attests the more expected plural forms with the definite article and suffixes: הַקְּדוּשִׁים and קִדְּשֵׁי. Once in 2 Chr 5:7, the word even occurs with a *shewa* beneath the *qoph*: הַקְּדוּשִׁים.<sup>75</sup>

In only very rare cases does a segolate noun attest a plural base that is analogous to the singular, that is, \**qatlim*/\**qatlōt*, \**qitlim*/\**qitlōt*, \**qutlim*/\**qutlōt*. It is this rarer plural pattern that is attested in THT in the

74. The plural form of קִדְּשׁ with suffix shows a full *qamets* in exilic (קִדְּשֵׁי Ezek 22:8, 26; 44:8, 13) and postexilic works (קִדְּשֵׁי in 2 Chr 15:18), but the expected form with *khatef-qamets* appears in Genesis–2 Kings (e.g., קִדְּשֵׁי Num 5:10 and 2 Kgs 12:19). A *metheg* accompanies the form with full *qamets* in Deut 12:26, קִדְּשֵׁי.

75. The forms with suffix and *khatef-qamets* are all preceded by some particle, while those with just *qamets* in the first syllable are not preceded by a particle. At the same time, this pattern does not hold for the plural forms of שֹׁרֶשׁ with suffix, which always attest a *qamets* under the first consonant.

following words: רְחִמִּים (sg. רָחַם and רָחַם) “bowels”; שְׁקָמָה (sg. שְׁקָמָה) “sycamores”; פְּשִׁתִּים (sg. פִּשְׁתָּה) “flax”; חֲכָמוֹת (sg. חֲכָמָה) “wisdom.”<sup>76</sup> These nouns exhibit no medial \*/ā/ (> THT /ā/) with suffixes (e.g., רַחֲמָיו and רַחֲמָיו).<sup>77</sup>

Weak root consonants (primarily *aleph*, *vav*, and *yod*) often result in masculine singular absolute forms that are unusual. In THT, they do not appear with one of the characteristic vowel sequences: *ε-ε*, *a-a*, *e-ε*, *e-a*, *o-ε*, *o-a* (מָלֵךְ, בָּעַל, סֶפֶר, קָרָח “ice,” בֹּקֶר “morning,” and פֹּעַל “deed”). Nevertheless, most nouns with weak consonants share the other characteristics of the segolate nouns: the absolute and construct forms are the same in the masculine singular; the plural (masculine and feminine) exhibits the vowel sequence \*/a-ā/; the original short vowel is preserved in the first syllable of the singular with suffix.

When *aleph* is a first root consonant, the form of the segolate sometimes exhibits a full vowel where analogous forms have a *shewa* or *khatef* vowel. For example, note אֶהְלִי (sg. abs. אֶהֱלֵה) “his tents”; אֶרְחֲמֵי (sg. abs. אֶרְחֵם) “his paths.”

When an *aleph* is a second root consonant, the form of the word usually looks like a segolate noun from Aramaic, with the sequence *shewa-sere* for \*/qitl/ bases (בְּאֵר “well,” זֶבֶד “wolf,” כְּאֵב “pain,” שָׂרָר “flesh”) or *shewa-holem* for \*/qutl/ bases (בְּאִישׁ “stench,” מְאֹד “very,” and מְלֵא “fullness”). Although it is conceivable that some of these words arrived in Hebrew as Aramaic loanwords, it also seems likely that many are the result of a more complicated process, where medial *aleph* was lost in pronunciation sometime in the first millennium BCE, but was retained in spelling with the result that the nouns appear in an Aramaic-like form in the MT.<sup>78</sup> Thus, what was earlier \*/mu’dū/ “much” and \*/šī’ru/ “flesh” (with nom. case vowels) became, respectively, \*/mōd/ and \*/šēr/; the representation of the words presumed by THT, however,

76. See Joüon § 96Ab.

77. It seems that in other traditions of Hebrew, reflected in the transcriptions of Hebrew words in Greek in passages from the church fathers, this pattern for segolates was more common. Alexey Yuditsky (“On Origen’s Transliterations as Preserved in the Works of the Church Fathers” [Hebrew], *Leshonenu* 69 [2007]: 306) cites as one example the transcription αββθ for what is חֲרָבוֹת “wastes” in the MT at Ps 9:7. For similar, but less clear examples in the Secunda, see *ibid.*, 305 and Bronno, *Studien*, 136–38. This pattern is also the common realization of segolate plurals in Aramaic.

78. Cf. Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 55; Blau, *On Pseudo-Corrections*, 28–29.

presumes the articulation of the *aleph*: *m'od* = מֵאֵד and *š'er* = שְׂאֵר.<sup>79</sup> That such elision of internal *aleph* took place at least during the first millennium BCE (if not earlier) is, in part, confirmed by spellings of these words among the DSS, where they are often written without the *aleph* (e.g., שֵׁר, שֵׁר, מֵוד).<sup>80</sup> The plurals of the Aramaic-like segolates are rare (note especially זְאֵבִים and זְאֵבִי). With suffixes, usually the word retains the vowel pattern of the absolute: כְּאֵבִי “my pain”; שְׂאֵרוֹ “his flesh”; שְׂאֵרָהּ “her flesh”; מְלֵאוֹ “its fullness,” reflecting presumably the pronunciation of these words when the *aleph* was not normally articulated (i.e., שְׂאֵרוֹ < \*šērō; cf. וּמִשְׂרֹ = ūmiššērō “and from his flesh” 4Q386 1 ii, 4). The word בְּאֵשׁ “stench” is one exception: בְּאֵשׁ “his stench” and בְּאֵשָׁם “their stench.”

A similar elision took place even earlier with \**qatl* nouns that had a historical medial *aleph*: \**ra'su* “head” and \**ša'nu* “flock” must have experienced elision of *aleph* and compensatory lengthening of /a/ to /ā/ (\**rāš*, \**šān*) before the Canaanite shift, as suggested by the spelling of these words among the Amarna tablets where the pronunciation is assumed to have been *rōšu* and *šōnu*, respectively.<sup>81</sup> The spelling with *aleph* in alphabetic orthographies (e.g., רֶאשׁ and צֶאן) was preserved presumably based on influence of its other forms, like the plural \**ra'ašim*, which seems to have experienced the loss of internal *aleph* much later, after vowel reduction and vowel lengthening: \**ra'ašim* > \**rā'ašim* > \**rāšim* (> רֶאשִׁים). The loss of an *aleph* when preceded by a reduced short vowel is attested in a variety of forms in LBH and among the DSS.<sup>82</sup>

If the middle root consonant is *vav*, the word appeared as all other segolates in pre-Masoretic Hebrew, with a short vowel followed by two different consonants (e.g., \**mawt* “death”). In THT, of course, two vowels are represented graphically, the first of which is /ā/ and the second of which

79. Nevertheless, the phonetic realization was [š'e:r] and [mo'o:d] (see Khan, “Tiberian Reading Tradition,” 3:774). The preservation of the *aleph* was perhaps due to a more conservative pronunciation in a higher register of the language in the first millennium BCE and its continued articulation into the first millennium CE is perhaps encouraged by the secondary insertion of an epenthetic vowel after the first consonant (cf. Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 55).

80. Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 185–86. Note the similar loss of *aleph* in words like שְׂאֵרִית “remainder” in late books of the Bible, as reflected in the spelling שְׂרִית in 1 Chr 12:39.

81. See ch. 3 §9, “Canaanite Shift and Historical \*/ā/”; also, Sivan, *Grammatical Analysis and Vocabulary*, 71.

82. See n. 76 in ch. 3 §6, “Vowel Reduction.” Reymond, *Qumran Hebrew*, 77–87.

is an epenthetic /ε/: \**mawt* > מָוֹת. If the middle root consonant is *yod*, the earlier form was as expected (e.g., \**zayt* “olive”); in THT again two vowels are graphically present, *a-i*: \**zayt* > זַיִת. The plural of these nouns will often look like the uncommon plural form mentioned above (with a single vowel in the historical base of the stem): \**mawtīma* > \**mōtīm* > מוֹתִים and \**zaytīma* > \**zētīm* > זֵיתִים. In both cases, notice that the relevant diphthong (\**/aw/* or \**/ay/*) has contracted where it occurs in a syllable that does not bear the tone. Sometimes, II-*vav/yod* segolates will exhibit the more common vowel sequence \**ə-ā* in the plural, in which the middle *vav/yod* is treated as a regular consonant: חֵילִים/חַיִל “strength”; עֵינֹת/עֵינַן “eye, spring”; עֵרִים/עֵיר “young donkey”; תִּישִׁים/תֵּישׁ “he-goat.”<sup>83</sup>

The construct forms of most of these nouns exhibit the same diphthong contractions seen in the absolute plural (\**mawt* [const.] > \**mōt* and \**zayt* [const.] > \**zēt*); here again, the original diphthong is not in a syllable that bears the tone. Occasional exceptions appear; for example, עוֹל “injustice” has the construct form עוֹל. This noun is also interesting in that its suffixed form does not exhibit diphthong contraction (i.e., עוֹלוֹ) and neither does its feminine cognate (i.e., עוֹלָה “injustice”).<sup>84</sup> Compare this feminine noun with the feminine nouns from II-*yod* roots: צִידָה “meat” and שִׁיבָה “old age.”<sup>85</sup>

When the third root consonant is a *vav* or *yod*, the segolate noun has yet another form. Excluding the familial terms אָב “father,” אָח “brother,” חָם “father-in-law,” as well as a few other nouns that exhibit uncommon patterns, most III-*vav/yod* segolates appear as III-*yod* and had the vowel sequence \**ə-i* in the absolute masculine singular (e.g., \**qatl*/\**qitl*: בָּכִי “weeping,” גִּדִּי “goat kid,” לָחִי “jawbone,” עֲדִי “ornament,” עֲבִי “beauty,” שְׁבִי “captivity”; \**qutl*: חָלִי “sickness,” עָנִי “affliction,” צָרִי “balsam”).<sup>86</sup> These segolates exhibit most other traits common to strong-root segolates: their absolute singular form is the same as their construct singular form; they exhibit their original vowel in the singular with suffixes (שְׁבִיָם “their captivity,” חָלִיו “his sickness,” חָלֵינוּ “our sicknesses,” עָנֵינוּ “our affliction”) and in the construct plural (צְבָאוֹת “beauty”);<sup>87</sup> these same nouns exhibited the

83. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 34–35.

84. See *ibid.*, 34 n. 26.

85. See *ibid.*, 35.

86. The noun שְׁפָתִי “simple” is also part of this group, but attests penultimate stress (as if in pause) in all its occurrences in the sg. abs. in the MT.

87. For the shift of *yod* to *aleph*, see ch. 2 §10, “Variation of Orthography and Pronunciation within Roots.”

common vowel sequence  $*a-\bar{a}$  in the absolute plural (פְּתִיִּים, עֲדִיִּים, גְּדִיִּים, חֲלִיִּים).<sup>88</sup> Notice that in both the suffixed and the plural absolute forms the final *yod* has become consonantal.

A minority of III-*yod* roots attest alternative forms. For example, the construct form of the plural would rarely retain the  $*/\bar{a}/$  (> THT  $/\bar{a}/$ ): גְּדִיִּי “kids of” and לְחֵי “jawbones of.” The III-*aleph* noun חֲטָא “sin” follows the same pattern in the plural construct, חֲטָאִי, and even with the second-person masculine plural suffix, חֲטָאִיכֶם. Note also those words that seem formed on analogy to other III-*vav/yod* nouns with final  $-\varepsilon$  in THT: בִּכְה “mourning,” הִגָּה “moaning,” קִצָּה “end.”<sup>89</sup>

In the nouns אָב “father,” אָח “brother,” and חָם “husband’s father-in-law” an  $*/-i/$  vowel is implied after the second root consonant in the singular construct and forms with suffixes (e.g., אָבִי “father of,” אָבִיו “his father”; אחִי “brother of,” אחִיךָ “your brother”; חָמִיהָ “her father-in-law”). The typical reflexes of historical  $*/a/$  help to distinguish the construct from the noun plus first-person common singular suffix: אָבִי “father of” versus אָבִי “my father.” The  $*/-i/$  vowel is either the remnant of a genitive vowel and/or a reflection of its third root consonant (reflecting an early shift from III-*w* to III-*y*). Huehnergard reconstructs the development of the Hebrew word:  $*'abwum > *'abūm > *'abum > *'ab > אָב$ .<sup>90</sup>

The absolute plural of אָב is feminine in appearance: אֲבוֹת. The word חָם in the plural mostly appears derived from a root  $*'hḥ$ , as with the absolute אחִים and with suffixes: אחִי “my brothers”; אחִיו “his brothers” (with the shift of  $*/a/$  to  $/\varepsilon/$  in THT, as with the definite article in הַהָרִים “the mountains”). But, the construct plural appears to be from the root  $*'ḥw$  (אָחִי), as does the form of the plural with heavy suffixes (אָחִיכֶם).

Nouns that clearly reflect a derivation from III-*vav* roots are comparatively fewer. Those that seem obviously derived from III-*vav* roots attest in THT a full vowel in their initial syllable and a *shuruq* at their end: אָחו “reeds, meadow”; שָׁחו “swimming”; רָהו “formlessness”; בָּהו “void.”<sup>91</sup>

88. The forms פְּתִיִּים and חֲלִיִּים are defective, but reflect the common scribal practice of not writing two *vavs* or *yods* when the first is consonantal and the second a *mater*. The words are also spelled plene: פְּתִיִּים and חֲלִיִּים.

89. See Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 37.

90. Ibid., 35. Bordreuil and Pardee ( *Manual of Ugaritic*, 294) tentatively propose an etymology for the similar Ugaritic word:  $*'ahawu > *'ahū$ .

91. For this last pair, see Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 41.



Feminine-formed segolates from III-*yod* roots are relatively rare. Note, for example, שְׁבִיָּה “captivity,” and those with final *\*-īt*, בְּכִיתָ “mourning,” בְּרִיתָ “covenant,” שְׁבִיתָ “captivity,” and final gemination, צְבִיָּה “gazelle,” and אֲנִיָּה “ship.”<sup>92</sup> Of III-*vav* roots, note the noun שְׁלֹוָה “quiet,” which exhibits a consonantal *vav*.<sup>93</sup> The feminine noun “sister” (אָחוֹת) also exhibits consonantal *yod* (from an earlier *vav*) in some of its plural forms with suffixes (e.g., אָחִיתָיו < <sup>94</sup>*ahyōtāw*).<sup>94</sup>

Although most *qal* infinitives construct derive from the *\*qutul* base, a substantial number attest a segolate or segolate-like vowel pattern. First, recall that the *qal* infinitive construct with suffix appears to be of the *\*qutl* base, though it is really of the *\*qutul* base (e.g., לְשָׁמְרוֹ “to guard him” 1 Sam 19:11; cf. the *\*qutl* noun: לְקֹדְשׁוֹ “for his holy place” Ps 114:2).<sup>95</sup> In addition, note the many cases of I-*vav/yod* and I-*nun* roots of the *\*qilt* base that bear the sequence of vowels one associates with segolates (e.g., שָׁבַת *qal* inf. const. of נָגַשׁ “approaching” and גָּשָׁתוֹ “his approaching”; שָׁבַת *qal* inf. const. of יָשַׁב “dwelling” and שָׁבַתוֹ “his dwelling”). Also, several examples of infinitives construct appear to be from feminine segolate bases (e.g., *\*qatlat*: אֲהַבָּה “loving”; *\*qitlat*: יִרְאַה “fearing”; *\*qutlat*: מְשָׁחָה “anointing”).

Students should pay close attention to this important and somewhat complex base. The masculine absolute singular forms of these nouns can appear with a variety of different vowels, the second of which is usually an epenthetic vowel that is unaccented and does not mark an independent syllable: מֶלֶךְ “king,” בֹּעַל “lord,” סֵפֶר “book,” קֶרֶח “ice,” בֹּקֶר “morning,” פֶּעַל “deed,” בְּאֵר “well,” בֹּאשׁ “stench,” מָוֶת “death,” זֵית “olive,” עוֹל “injustice,” שְׁבִי “captivity,” חֲלִי “sickness,” תֶּהוּ “formlessness,” בָּהוּ “void.” Feminine segolate nouns are usually recognizable from the word-initial closed syllable (where the initial consonant is a root consonant): מַלְכָּה “queen,” דְּמָעָה “tears,” חֲרָבָה “waste,” שְׁבִיָּה “captivity,” שְׁלֹוָה “quiet.”

Despite the apparent variety and discrepancies in the above singular forms, most of these nouns share the following characteristics:

92. See *ibid.*, 37, 42.

93. Cf. the III-*yod* אֲלִיָּה “fat tail” (*ibid.*, 35).

94. Note the forms without *yod* (e.g., אָחוֹתֶיךָ). Cf. *ibid.*

95. See the discussion of *qal* inf. const. in §8, “Nouns of the *\*qutul*, *\*qitāl*, and *\*qutāl* Bases,” above. Note also that some *qal* inf. const. attest patterns similar to those of the *\*qilt* and *\*qatl* base (e.g., מְכָרָם “their selling” Neh 13:15; רִקְעָד “your stamping” Ezek 25:6).



1. The absolute and construct forms are the same in the masculine singular and vary in the feminine singular only in their ending (\*-ā in the absolute and -at in the construct).
2. The absolute plural (in both masculine and feminine nouns) exhibited the vowel sequence \*a-ā in the stem.
3. In the singular noun with suffixes, the original short vowel is preserved in the first syllable.
4. In the construct plural the original short vowel is also preserved.

#### 4.19. Suppletive Plurals and Construct Forms in Nouns

In Hebrew, unlike in some other Semitic languages (e.g., Arabic), the plural forms for most nouns are clearly derived from the singular forms (e.g., \**dabar* + *īma* > \**dabarīm* > דְּבָרִים). However, in some cases, one finds words where the singular form is from one base and the plural is from another. The only class of nouns where this happens regularly in Hebrew is the segolates (see above: \**malk* vs. \**malakīm*). Some rarer exceptions to this rule are listed here.

Some geminate nouns that have a single vowel in their stem in the singular attest two in the plural: צֶל “shade” in the singular but צִלִּים in the plural. Sometimes even segolate nouns do not attest their expected base in the plural. Nouns of the \**qīṭl* base sometimes have plurals of the \**qaṭīl* base, as with פֶּסֶל and פְּסִילִים “idol(s)”; נְטִיעִים/נָטַע “plant(s)”; הָרִיסְתִּיו/הָרָס “destruction(s).”<sup>96</sup>

In other cases, the construct form of a word seems to be derived from a base different from that of the absolute. This is regularly the case with *mem*-preformative feminine nouns, as remarked on above (מַחְשְׁבָה, const. מַחְשְׁבָתוֹ, with 3ms מַחְשְׁבָתוֹ “thought”). But, this also occurs with other words and bases. Note the following cases where the construct form appears to exhibit a segolate-base or a segolate-like word-final consonant cluster: אֵילָת “doe of,” the construct form of אֵילָה “doe”; אֶרֶךְ “long of,” the construct form of אָרַךְ “long”; יָרֵךְ “thigh of” and יָרֵךְ “thigh”; כֶּתֶף “thigh of” and כֶּתֶף “thigh”; צֶלַע “rib of” and צֶלַע “rib.”<sup>97</sup> Among segolates, note

96. See John Huehnergard, “*Qāṭil* and *Qaṭīl* Nouns in Biblical Hebrew,” in Maman, *Sha’arei Lashon*, \*24 (with references). Perhaps also תְּרִיסִים/תָּרַס “bag(s)” (?); צֶנַח\* (< \**šinn* as suggested by צְנִיחַ “hooks, barbs”) / צְנִינִים “thorns.” See *ibid.*, \*8.

97. See Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 109.

that many of the byforms that appear as construct forms are similar in pronunciation and vowel sequence to Aramaic segolates: גִּבֹּר “man of” (Ps 18:26) versus גִּבֹּר “man”; הֶבֶל “vanity of” (Qoh 1:2; 12:8) versus הֶבֶל “vanity”; חֹדֶר “room of” versus חֹדֶר “room (of)”;<sup>98</sup> שִׁבְע “seven of” versus שִׁבְע “seven”; תֵּשַׁע “nine of” versus תֵּשַׁע “nine.”<sup>99</sup>

#### 4.20. Aramaic-Like Forms

A wide variety of nouns attest Aramaic-like forms, as observed in passing in the previous pages. These may be true loans from Aramaic (as with נָצִיב “pillar, overseer”) or words formed on analogy to other words, as with אֹיִל “fool,” on analogy to כָּסִיל “stupid.”<sup>100</sup> Note also these other Aramaic-influenced words: כָּתָב “writing,” גְּלוּת “exile,” and some other nouns like זְמַן “time.”<sup>101</sup>

#### 4.21. Chapter Summary

##### Historical Details

1. In some early ancestor of Hebrew, there were three different cases in the singular (nom. [marked by word final -u], gen. [-i], and acc. [-a]) and two cases in the dual (nom. [-āmi], gen./acc. [-aymi]) and plural (masc. nom. [-ūma], masc. gen./acc. [-īma]; fem. nom. [-ātu], fem. gen./acc. [-āti]).
2. These case endings eventually contribute to the various noun forms we are familiar with from THT; for example, the masculine plural morpheme -īm derives from the absolute masculine plural genitive/accusative ending -īma: \*dabar + īma > \*dabarīma > \*dabarīm > \*dabārīm > דְּבָרִים.

98. Huehnergard, (“Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 36) lists this as a \*qīl noun, though it appears in most of its suffixed-occurrences (and in the const. pl.) with a *patakh* in the first syllable; only once does it have a *segol* (Joel 2:16).

99. In these types of words, the last letter is often a sonorous consonant (often /l/, /n/, or /r/). Note also חָסֵר “want of” const. (vs. חָסֵר abs.); שִׁגְר “offspring of” const. (vs. שִׁגְר abs.). See Richard Steiner, “On the Origin of the *Hēḏer* ~ *Hāḏār* Alternation in Hebrew,” *AfAsL* 3 (1976): 2; Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 137.

100. See Huehnergard, “Qāḏil and Qəḏil Nouns in Biblical Hebrew,” \*25.

101. See Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 284; Stadel, “Aramaic Influences on Biblical Hebrew,” 1:162–65.

3. A word with any suffix or suffixal morpheme will usually reveal a form close to its etymological origin (e.g., the *tav* in אֶהְבֵּתִי [ $< *'ahbātī < *'ahbatīyya$ ] “my love” and the vowel and gemination in עַמִּי [ $< *'ammī < *'ammiyya$ ] “my people”).

### Learning Tips

1. For most masculine nouns (excluding segolates):
  - 1.1. The vowel sequence in the stem of the plural is the same vowel sequence one sees with nonheavy suffixes.
  - 1.2. The vowel sequence associated with the construct form is the same vowel sequence one sees with heavy suffixes.
2. Most feminine singular nouns that end with  $\bar{a}$  (הָ -) in the absolute have  $\bar{a}t$ - (תָּ -) before nonheavy suffixes and  $\bar{a}t$ - (תָּ -) before heavy suffixes (e.g., צִדְקָתְךָ/צִדְקָתִי/צִדְקָתְכֶם “righteousness”). Most feminine singular nouns that end with תָּ - in the absolute, have  $\bar{a}t$ - before all suffixes (יִלְדָּתְךָ/יִלְדָּתִי/יִלְדָּתְכֶם “one bearing”).
3. For most feminine plural nouns, the vowel sequence in the stem of the construct plural is the same sequence found in the noun with suffixes (e.g., בְּרָכוֹת “blessings of” and בְּרָכוֹתִי “my blessings”).
4. The historical  $*i/i$  vowel reduces to *shewa* in the pretonic syllable in the following bases:  $*qātil$  (שֹׁפֵטִים/שֹׁפֵט “judge[s]”);  $*qattil$  (עִוְרִים/עִוְרָה “blind” and פִּסְחִים/פִּסְחָה “limping” as well as דִּבְרָה/דִּבְרָה “her speaking” *piel* inf. cons.);  $*maqtil$  (מִזְבֵּחַ/מִזְבְּחֹת “altar[s]”).<sup>102</sup>
5. If a root seems to be missing one root consonant, consider the following clues:
  - 5.1. Words similar in form to עַם “people,” קֶן “nest,” חֹק “statute” are likely geminates; their etymology is usually clear in the plural and with suffixes (עַמִּים “peoples,” עַמִּי “my people”; קְנִים “nests,” חֲצִי “my arrow”; חֻקִּים “statutes,” חֻקִּי “my statute”).
  - 5.2. The vowel sequence  $*ē\bar{a}$  (corresponding to the symbols *tsere-gamets*<sup>he</sup> in THT) in a word with two obvious root consonants (e.g., דָּעָה) usually implies a I-*vav/yod* root, while  $a\bar{a}$  or  $\varepsilon\bar{\varepsilon}$  in THT with a final *tav* (e.g., דָּעַת) often imply a *qal* infinitive construct from a I-*vav/yod* root.

102. Though contrast מִגֵּפָה “plague.”

- 5.3. A *vav* or *yod mater* in the middle of a word or even at its end will often indicate a *vav* or *yod* root consonant (e.g., מוֹשֵׁב “dwelling place” from יֹשֵׁב and מִישְׁרִים “integrity” from יֹשֵׁר; and טוב “good” from טוֹב; and שִׁיר “song” from שִׁיר; and מָקוֹם “place” from קוֹם; and מְרִיבָה “strife” from רִיב; and עָנִי “poor” from עָנָה; and עֲנִי “misery” from עָנָה; and עֲדִי “ornament” from עָדָה).
- 5.4. Words that end in -*ε* are likely from III-*vav/yod* roots (e.g., עֹשֶׂה “one who does” *qal* active ptc. from עָשָׂה). But, this vowel appears only in the absolute singular; in the construct singular one finds \*-*ē* (e.g., עֹשֶׂה “maker of”). There is no evidence of either -*ε* or \*-*ē* with plural morphemes or pronominal suffixes. Instead, these endings seem to attach directly to the stem (e.g., עֹשֶׂה “[she] makes,” עֹשִׁים “[they] make,” עֹשֶׂת “[they] make,” עֹשֶׂה “who made it”).
- 5.5. A word that begins with a *mem* and is followed by a geminated consonant likely is a *mem*-preformative noun from a I-*nun* root (e.g., מַכָּה “wound” from נָכָה and מִתֶּנַּן “gift” from נָתַן).
6. Among segolates, the historical short vowel (or something close to it) is preserved in the singular with suffixes (מֶלֶכִּי “my king,” סִפְרִי “my book,” קִדְּשִׁי “my holiness”); and in the plural construct (מְלָכִי, סִפְרִי, קִדְּשִׁי); as well as in most forms of the feminine (מַלְכָּה “queen,” מְלָכָתִי “my queen”; דְּמָעָה “tears,” דְּמָעָתִי “my tears”; חִכְמָה “wisdom,” חִכְמָתִי “my wisdom”).
7. Segolate nouns come in a variety of forms.
- 7.1. Masculine nouns usually have two Tiberian vowels with the accent on the first:
- 7.1.1. \**qatl*: מֶלֶךְ “king”; בָּעַל “master”; תָּנַךְ “midst,” בֵּית “house”; עֵין “spring, eye”; שָׁחוּ “swimming”; אָחוּ “reeds”
- 7.1.2. \**qitl*: סִפֵּר “book”; שִׁמַּע “news”; חֹדֶר “room,” זֶבַח “sacrifice”; עֲדִי “ornament”; פָּתִי “simple”; cf. בָּאֵר “well”
- 7.1.3. \**qutl*: קִדְּשׁ “holiness”; בֹּקֶר “morning”; אֶרֶח “way”; חֲלִי “sickness”; בָּהוּ “emptiness”; cf. בָּאֵשׁ “stench”
- 7.2. Feminine nouns usually have a closed first syllable that begins with a root consonant:
- 7.2.1. \**qatlat*: מַלְכָּה “queen”; אֶהָבָה “love, loving”
- 7.2.2. \**qitlat*: דְּמָעָה “tear”; יִרְאַה “fear, fearing”

7.2.3. \**qutlat*: חִכְמָה “wisdom”; טְהֵרָה “purity”; טְמֵאָה “impurity.”

7.3. most absolute plural segolates exhibit the sequence of vowel symbols *shewa-qamets* in their stems: מְלָכִים, סְפָרִים, עֲדָיִים, דְּמָעוֹת, מְלָכוֹת, חֲלָיִים, בְּקָרִים.

#### 8. Mnemonic Aids

8.1. \**qatil* in construct: “I am heavy of mouth (כְּבִד־פֶּה [abs. כָּבֵד]) and heavy of tongue (כְּבִד לְשׁוֹן)” Exod 4:10

8.2. \**qātil* with suffix: “his enemies (אֹיְבָיו [pl. abs. אֹיְבִים, sg. abs. אֹיֵב]) lick the dust” Ps 72:9

8.3. feminine noun with suffix:

8.3.1. “I await your salvation (יְשׁוּעָתְךָ [abs. יְשׁוּעָה])” Gen 49:18

8.3.2. “my hope is from him (מִמֶּנּוּ תִקְוָתִי [abs. תִּקְוָה])” Ps 62:6

8.3.3. “in your goodness (טוֹבָתְךָ [abs. טוֹבָה]) you provide for the poor” Ps 68:11

8.3.4. “trust in the lord with all your heart and do not rely on your own understanding (בִּינָתְךָ [abs. בִּינָה])” Prov 3:5

#### 8.4. III-*vav/yod* nouns

8.4.1. in construct: “a people, stiff of neck (קָשֶׁה-עֵרֶף [abs. קָשָׁה])” Exod 32:9

8.4.2. with suffix: “the lord is my shepherd (רָעִי [abs. רֹעֶה])” Ps 23:1

8.4.3. “you repay each person according to his work (כְּמַעֲשֵׂהוּ [abs. מַעֲשֵׂה])” Ps 62:13

#### 8.5. Geminate nouns

8.5.1. \**qall*

- ♦ plural: “the race does not go to the swift (קָלִים [sg. קָל]) ... but time and chance occur to all of them” Qoh 9:11

- ♦ dual/plural + suffix: “you will eat by the sweat of your brow (אֲפִיךָ [lit., your two noses = your face; dual abs. אֲפִים; sg. abs. אָף; root is אָנַף])” Gen 3:19

8.5.2. \**qill* + suffix: “I have escaped by the skin of my teeth (עוֹר שְׁנִי\* [abs. pl. שְׁנִים, abs. sg. שֵׁן])” Job 19:20 (pause שְׁנִי)

8.5.3. \**qull* + suffix: “the lord is my strength (עֲזִי) and my shield” Ps 28:7

## 8.6. Segolate nouns

8.6.1. \**qatl*

- ♦ singular construct: “the land of the living (אֶרֶץ הַחַיִּים)” Job 28:13
- ♦ plural construct: “ends of (the) earth (אֶפְסֵי אֶרֶץ)” Deut 33:17 (pause אֶרֶץ)
- ♦ singular + suffix: “for his kindness is forever (כִּי עוֹלָם חֶסֶדוֹ)” Ps 136
- ♦ singular + suffix: “let us make humans in our image (בְּצַלְמֵנוּ [abs. צֶלֶם])” Gen 1:26
- ♦ plural + suffix: “bone of my bones (עֲצָם מֵעַצְמִי)” Gen 2:23

8.6.2. \**qutl*

- ♦ singular construct: “pride (גְּבוּהַ רוּחַ) lit. haughtiness of spirit) (goes) before a fall” Prov 16:18
- ♦ singular + suffix: “my holy mountain (הַר קֹדֶשִׁי)” Isa 11:9
- ♦ \**qutlat* singular + suffix: “at their wits’ (חֲכָמָתָם) end (lit., all their wisdom was engulfed [תִּתְּבַלֵּעַ])” Ps 107:27

8.6.3. III-*vav/yod* plural + suffix: “Surely our sicknesses (חַלְיֵינוּ) [abs. pl. חַלִּים or חַלְיִים, abs. sg. חָלִי]) he lifts and our pains, he carries them. We consider him stricken, struck by God, and afflicted.” Isa 53:4

## 8.7. Irregular nouns

## 8.7.1. woman/wife (אִשָּׁה):

- ♦ construct: “wife of your bosom (אִשָּׁתְּ חֵיקְךָ) [abs. אִשָּׁה)” Deut 13:7 (pause חֵיקְךָ)
- ♦ + suffix: “a person abandons his father and mother and clings to his wife (אִשְׁתּוֹ [const. אִשָּׁת, abs. אִשָּׁה])

8.7.2. daughter (בַּת < \**bint*): “as the mother, thus is her daughter (בִּתְּהָ)” Ezek 16:44

## 8.7.3. mouth (פֶּה):

- ♦ construct: “from the mouth of children (מִפִּי עֲלָלִים) you founded a bulwark” Ps 8:3
- ♦ + suffix: “Joab put the words into her mouth (בִּפְתִּיהָ)” in 2 Sam 14:3
- ♦ + suffix: “let another praise you, not your mouth (פִּיךָ)” Prov 27:2

## Morphology of Ancient Hebrew: Verbs

### 5.1. Terms for the Verb

The verb forms described below will be referred to in relation to the THT articulation in the *qal* third masculine singular of the Hebrew root *qtl*. Thus, what is sometimes referred to as the suffix-conjugation or perfect verb form will be referred to here as *qāṭal*; the prefix-conjugation or imperfect will be referred to as *yiqtol*, the *vav*-consecutive imperfect as *wayyiqtol*, and the *vav*-consecutive perfect as *waqāṭal*. The jussive/preterite verb form (on which see below) will be referred to as the short-*yiqtol* since in weak verb classes (especially II-*vav/yod*, III-*vav/yod*) and in the *hiphil* conjugation it is phonetically and graphically shorter than the comparable *yiqtol* form.<sup>1</sup>

This language attempts to avoid the confusion inherent in many other labels, which connect the verbal form with just one function (e.g., “perfect,” as though the *qāṭal* form only represented perfect or perfective events). Since each form can express several different nuances, it makes sense to label each according to one generic phonetic contour.<sup>2</sup> Even here,

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1. Compare the *qal* short-*yiqtol* in its jussive function תִּשֶׁת “do [not] set” (Exod 23:1) with the *yiqtol* תִּשֶׁת “you will set” (Ps 21:4) (שִׁית); compare also the *qal* short-*yiqtol* in its preterite function תִּשֶׁת “he set” (Ps 18:12) with the *yiqtol* יִשֶׁת “he will set” (Gen 46:4) (שִׁית). Similarly, contrast יִבֶּן “let him build” (Ezra 3:1) with יִבְנֶה “he will build” (2 Sam 7:13) (בָּנָה) and the *hiphil* תִּשְׁחֹת “may you [not] destroy” (Ps 57:1 and passim) with תִּשְׁחִית “you will [not] destroy” (Deut 20:19) (שָׁחַת).

2. As an example of a single form being able to express different nuances, consider *qāṭal*. Although the *qāṭal* form may express the perfective nuance, it may also be used “to express events that are remote” and in this sense “its function then approaches that of the preterite” (Jan Joosten, “Verbal System: Biblical Hebrew,” *EHLL* 3:923). In addition, it can express certainty in the present tense when used in a performative expression (e.g., נָתַתִּי “I hereby give”) (see *ibid.*). It can even be used to express epistemic

however, the terms are not perfectly clear: the short-*yiqtol* will often be identical in form to the regular *yiqtol* and it seems possible that at least some (if not most) speakers would not have recognized an independent short-*yiqtol* form for most strong roots.<sup>3</sup> As for the labels of other verbal forms, there is less confusion as to the function and form of the imperative, cohortative, participle, and infinitives; thus, these labels are used.

The language employed to describe the functions of the various verbal forms should also be addressed, as should the correspondences between verbal functions and verbal forms. The terms perfective and imperfective refer to aspect, that is, how a speaker views a given event, either as complete or incomplete, respectively.<sup>4</sup> The perfective is typically communicated through the *qāṭal* and *wayyiqṭol*, the imperfective by *yiqtol*, *wəqāṭal*, and the participle. The term preterite implies a verb that indicates past time reference, irrespective of its aspect (i.e., whether or not the event is viewed as complete).<sup>5</sup> It is typically communicated by the *qāṭal*, *wayyiqṭol*, and short-*yiqtol*.<sup>6</sup> The term volitive refers to verbs that indicate

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modality: “he might ...” “he should ...” “he could ...” (see Jan Joosten, *The Verbal System of Biblical Hebrew: A New Synthesis Elaborated on the Basis of Classical Prose*, JBS 10 [Jerusalem: Simor, 2012], 208–12).

3. Nevertheless, a variety of factors (including the consistent appearance of paragogic-*nun* forms in nonvolitive contexts, e.g., *לֹא תִלָּחֲמֶנּוּ* “you will not fight” 1 Kgs 12:24 and *לֹא מוֹת תִּמָּוֶת* “you certainly will not die” Gen 3:4) imply that some sophisticated speakers/writers would have recognized the existence of such short-*yiqtol* forms, even for strong roots (at least in their jussive function in the high literary register of the language). Note also the regular distinction in word order; the short-*yiqtol* in its jussive function usually appears first in its clause, while the *yiqtol* usually appears in noninitial position (see Joosten, *Verbal System*, 12).

4. More complex definitions and descriptions are available; see Joosten, *Verbal System*, 28–31.

5. See David Crystal, *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, 6th ed. (Oxford: Blackwell, 2008), <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444302776>.

6. A more complex description of the various Hebrew forms and functions is found in Joosten, *Verbal System* and in John A. Cook, “The Hebrew Verb: A Grammaticalization Approach,” *ZAH* 14 (2001): 117–43, and Cook, *Time and the Biblical Hebrew Verb*, LSAWS 7 (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2010). For instance, Joosten writes that the *qāṭal* and *wayyiqṭol* express the same temporal and aspectual nuances, but *qāṭal* functions to indicate “anteriority with respect to the reference time” and *wayyiqṭol* indicates simply a past time (Joosten, *Verbal System*, 45); similarly, *qāṭal* can indicate (in dialogue) something that happened before the dialogue started, but *wayyiqṭol* is not used (independent of an initial *qāṭal*) for this (ibid., 48). A participle too can be used in the same context as a *qāṭal* form, though the participle implies that the action/event is



the volition of the speaker. In BH this function is expressed through the short-*yiqtol*, *waqāṭal*, the imperative, and the cohortative. The short-*yiqtol* is sometimes called the jussive when it functions as a volitive; it occurs primarily in the third- and second-persons and thus can be translated by the English expressions “let it ...,” “let her ...,” “let him ...,” “may you ...”.<sup>7</sup> The imperative, on the other hand, occurs only in the second-person and the cohortative only in the first-person. Because English does not have a form that corresponds to the cohortative, it must be translated periphrastically (like the short-*yiqtol* in its jussive function). The cohortative is often translated “let me ...,” “let us ...,” though it can also be translated by other phrases depending on the context.

Of all the forms and functions, the most uncommon is the short-*yiqtol* where it functions as a preterite. Commonly recognized short-*yiqtol* forms functioning as preterites from the Hebrew Bible include the following.

- ♦ *יָשַׁת* “he set” from *שָׁיַת* (Ps 18:12 vs. *יָשַׁת* in 2 Sam 22:12)
- ♦ *תָּשִׁי* “you forgot” from *שָׁיַה* (Deut 32:18, parallel to *וַתִּשְׁכַּח* “you forgot”)

For most strong verbs the short-*yiqtol* merged entirely in its form with the regular *yiqtol* and, as mentioned above, one cannot distinguish the two by the form alone; only context can guide one’s translation and understanding in these instances. In most cases, where one finds the negative particle *לֹא* followed by a verbal form, that verbal form should be identified as a short-*yiqtol* (in its jussive function). Identifying the short-*yiqtol* in its preterite function is more difficult. In Deut 32:10, one finds *מָצָאֵהוּ* in the context of God apportioning lots to the various nations; it is clear that it refers to an event from the past and should be construed as a short-*yiqtol*.<sup>8</sup> Thus, we translate “he found him.”<sup>9</sup>

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contemporaneous with respect to the reference time and the *qāṭal* that it was anterior (ibid., 51). In archaic texts, *qāṭal* also indicates anteriority, but functions as a “present perfect” (ibid., 418); e.g., *קָנְאוּנִי* “they have made me jealous” (Deut 32:21).

7. Verb forms bearing the characteristics of the short-*yiqtol* are also rarely found in the first-person (e.g., *וָאֲטַ* “I bent” Hos 11:4 and *וְנִשְׁאַר* “let us [not] leave” 1 Sam 14:36).

8. For the example, see Joosten, *Verbal System*, 74–75. The short-*yiqtol* with preterite function is also thought to be attested after certain particles, like *אֲזַ* and *טָרַם* (see, e.g., Seow, *Grammar for Biblical Hebrew*, 225; see Joosten, *Verbal System*, 110 n. 81 for more references). Nevertheless, constructions with *טָרַם* are perhaps better explained as having a prospective function, expressing that something “had not yet happened

## 5.2. History of the Verbal Forms

This chapter treats the morphology of verbal forms, excluding for the most part those already treated in chapter 4 (i.e., *qal* infinitives and participles).<sup>10</sup> The verbal paradigms treated here can be broken down into two basic categories: (1) *qāṭal* forms and (2) all other forms (e.g., *yiqṭol*, imperative). In most cases, the transformations experienced by the verb in its inflections are fewer and less dramatic than those of the noun and adjective. Nevertheless, some knowledge of the history of the forms helps one produce and remember the verb in its various articulations.

The Hebrew *qāṭal* derives from adjectival forms, to which pronominal suffixes were attached.<sup>11</sup> This kind of construction is attested in Akkadian, where suffixes are applied to verbal adjectives and even nouns. For example, the Akkadian word for king is *šarrum*. To say “you (ms) are king” one adds the pronominal suffix *-āta* to the end of the stem: *šarrāta*. As with the nouns studied above, there were different basic vowel patterns that led to different verb forms in later West Semitic languages. In BH, there are basically two categories of *qāṭal* verbs, active (expressed by the pattern *\*a-a* > *\*ā-a* [> *ā-a*, e.g., כָּתַב “he wrote”]) and stative (expressed by the vowel patterns *\*a-i* > *\*ā-e* [> *ā-e*, e.g., זָקֵן “he is old”] and *\*a-u* > *\*ā-o* [> *ā-o*, e.g., יָכַל “he is able”]).

Cognizance of this history for Hebrew helps make sense of the forms of the Hebrew *qāṭal*, that is, as a combination of a nominal base plus a pronominal element: *\*katab + ta = \*katabta* > *\*kātabtā* > *kātabtā* כָּתַבְתָּ “you wrote.” In addition, this background also helps explain the fact that many Hebrew adjectives and nouns have the same form in THT as the *qal* third masculine singular *qāṭal* of the same root (e.g., זָקֵן [< *\*zāqēn*] “elder” passim vs. זָקֵן [< *\*zāqēn*] “he was old,” 1 Sam 4:18 [cf. Prov 23:22 with זָקֵנָה “she is old”]; טוֹב “good” passim vs. וְטוֹב “so that it will be good” Deut 5:33;

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or that it would happen” (Joosten, *Verbal System*, 282). The constructions with זָקֵן are more difficult to explain; Joosten (*Verbal System*, 109–11) highlights the problems with previous explanations.

9. In LBH, the regular *yiqṭol* is sometimes used in this way: בָּרַךְ “you brought forth” (Ps 80:9); see Joosten, “Verbal System: Biblical Hebrew,” 3:924. For more examples, see Sperber, *Historical Grammar*, 436.

10. See especially the discussion of nouns of the *\*qilt*, *\*qutul*, and *\*qātil* bases, as well as the discussion of infinitives that appears in ch. 4 §18, “Segolate Nouns.”

11. Huehnergard, “Afro-Asiatic,” 152.

רע “evil” passim and ורע “it will be evil” Prov 24:18). That the *qāṭal* verb form developed from an adjectival/nominal form also helps make sense of certain tendencies, like the similarity between the noun + possessive suffix and *qāṭal* + object suffix. When an object suffix is attached to the third masculine singular *qāṭal* verb in Hebrew, the verb sometimes appears like a noun in its vowel pattern: חָקַרְהָ “he explored it” (Job 28:27; cf. noun + suffix הַדָּרָה “her majesty” Isa 5:14); רָאָה “he saw it” (Job 28:27; cf. קִנְיָה “its stem” Exod 25:31). Similarly, with the *piel*: שְׁלַחָהּ “he sent her away” (Deut 24:4).<sup>12</sup>

The other verbal forms all seem linked in some way. The *yiqtol*, the short-*yiqtol*, and the *wayyiqtol* all derive ultimately from the PS form corresponding most closely to the short-*yiqtol*. For this reason note the identical shape of the stem of the three forms in the strong root: יִשְׁמַר, יִשְׁמֹר, וְיִשְׁמֹר. The imperative (e.g., שְׁמֹר) is also tangentially linked to this form, as is the cohortative (e.g., אֲשַׁמְרֶה). The infinitives and participle of the derived conjugations also share the vowel sequences of the short-*yiqtol* (and *yiqtol*) forms (as explained below).

In order to understand the history of BH verbal forms, it is necessary to take a step back and consider the verbal system of PS. In PS, as it is reconstructed, it is believed that there was one verbal form that expressed the durative sense and another that expressed the preterite (or perfective aspect). Both were characterized by prefixal morphemes. The durative sense was communicated through a form having the basic pattern like \**yaqattal* “he kills” (cf. Akkadian *iparras* “he cuts off”).<sup>13</sup> No morphological counterpart is found in West Semitic (= WS). If it had continued into WS, then the BH *qal* future/modal function may have been articulated as a form such as \**yəqattal* > יִקְטֹל\*.

In PS, the preterite (or perfective) function was expressed by a verb form having the basic pattern \**yaqtul* “he killed”; this same verb form also had a jussive function “let him kill.”<sup>14</sup> This form became the BH short-

12. Though the nominal forms with this pattern (e.g., עֵוֶר “blind”) do not typically take suffixes.

13. John Huehnergard and Christopher Woods, “Akkadian and Eblaite,” *CEWAL*, 254; Joosten, *Verbal System*, 13.

14. In Akkadian, we find analogous verbal forms and functions. The preterite is expressed in forms like *iprus* “he cut off”; what is called the precative is analogous to the Hebrew jussive and has the same form as the preterite with an initial /l/: *liprus* “let him cut off.” Joosten, *Verbal System*, 15. Joosten (“Verbal System,” 3:921) refers to the

*yiqṭol*. Like its PS ancestor, the BH short-*yiqṭol* can function either as a preterite or as a jussive, but in BH the preterite function appears only rarely, and primarily in poetry.

In addition to the basic pattern *\*yaqtul*, the forms *\*yiqṭal* and *\*yaqtil* also presumably occurred in PS and were present in PNWS. The three possible theme vowels of the stem are still reflected in BH in verb forms that derive from the short-*yiqṭol* (in the following cases with jussive function): תִּזְכֹּר “do (not) remember (iniquity)” (Isa 64:8); תִּשְׁלַח “do (not) set (a hand on the lad)” (Gen 22:12); יֵצֵא “may (no fugitive) go forth” (2 Kgs 9:15). Verbs that exhibit the *\*yaqtul* pattern often are active; verbs that exhibit the *\*yiqṭal* pattern are often stative or contain a II- or III-guttural root consonant; verbs exhibiting the *\*yaqtil* pattern are usually I-*vav/yod* roots (plus הלך “to go” and נתן “to give”). As observed above, the prefix vowel shifted to *\*/i/* in *\*yaqtul* and *\*yaqtil* forms at some point early in the history of the language, though the original *\*/a/* is still reflected in some weak roots, as with the short-*yiqṭol* of קוּם: *\*yaqum* > *\*yāqom* > יָקֹם “let him arise.”<sup>15</sup>

This PS *\*yaqtul* form also lies behind BH *wayyiqṭol*. The initial component of this form consists of the *vav* conjunction followed by the vowel */a/* and a following *\*-n-* particle (or, conceivably another particle or even simply a doubling of the prefix of the verbal form in order to preserve the preceding */a/* vowel).<sup>16</sup> The *yiqṭol* component of the *wayyiqṭol* is from the PS jussive/preterite *\*yaqtul*. It is, of course, the preterite function that was retained in this BH verbal form. Thus, at least from a historical perspective, labels like “*vav*-conversive imperfect” and “converted imperfect” are really misnomers since they imply either a transformation in function (from imperfective to perfective/preterite) or a transformation in form (from a longer to a shorter verbal stem). But, there really was no conver-

“optative function of the preterite” and refers to the article by Amikam Gai, “The Connection between Past and Optative in the Classical Semitic Languages,” *ZDMG* 150 (2000): 17–28; see esp. 20–23; see also Joosten, *Verbal System*, 211.

15. See ch. 3 §7, “Attenuation’ and Similar Changes.”

16. David D. Testen (*Parallels in Semitic Linguistics: The Development of Arabic la- and Related Semitic Particles*, SSSL 26 [Leiden: Brill, 1998], 193–96) summarizes the different proposals, including *vav* + *’az* (“then”) and Testen’s own suggestion *vav* + *al*. More recently, Kryzstoff Baranowski (“The Biblical Hebrew *wayyiqṭol* and the Evidence of the Amarna Letters from Canaan,” *JHS* 16 [2016]: 12–13, <https://doi.org/10.5508/jhs.2015.v15.a12>) suggests that the prefix of the verbal component is doubled in order to preserve the distinctive */a/* vowel following the conjunction.

sion in function or form. Instead, the PS jussive/preterite *\*yaqtul* simply continued to be used as a preterite in BH when preceded by the combination *wa* plus doubled verbal prefix.

In fact, in contrast to what one might expect, it is actually the *yiqtol* that is the result of a conversion or transformation in function, not the *wayyiqtol*. In PS, verbal forms in subordinate clauses were marked with a final /u/ vowel. Thus, the PS jussive/preterite in a subordinate clause would appear as *\*yaqtulu*, *\*yiqталu*, or *\*yaqtilu* (depending on the root).<sup>17</sup> It was this form that was used to express the future or imperfective sense in WS and which became the BH *yiqtol*. In relation to when such forms were used, notice that the earlier *\*yaqtul* and *\*yaqtulu* forms seem to be reflected in the Amarna letters (i.e., in the letters sent from the rulers of Levantine cities like Jerusalem, ca. 1350 BCE).<sup>18</sup>

This history helps explain why in cases of weak roots the short-*yiqtol* and the *wayyiqtol* have a similar (if not identical) form (e.g., *יִבְנֶה* “let him build” and *יִבְנֶה* “he built”) that differs from the *yiqtol* (e.g., *יִבְנֶה* “he will build”). In weak roots, the difference in forms is the result of different phonetic developments, as explained above.<sup>19</sup> In general, the *yiqtol* is longer than the short-*yiqtol* in both its historical articulation and in its graphic representation. Compare the forms of II-*vav/yod* roots like *קוּם*: the *yiqtol* typically has a *mater vav* (*\*yāqūmu* > *יָקוּם*), while the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* do not (*\*yāqum* > *יָקַם*\* and *\*wayyāqum* > *וַיָּקַם*).<sup>20</sup>

17. Again, Akkadian offers an analogous morpheme, as with the subjunctive preterite *iprusu* “[who] cut off.” (In Akkadian, the subjunctive verb forms are used in subordinate clauses.)

18. See Anson Rainey, *Canaanite in the Amarna Letters: A Linguistic Analysis of the Mixed Dialect Used by Scribes from Canaan*, 4 vols., HdO 1.25 (Leiden: Brill, 1996), 2:221 and passim; see also Baranowski, “Biblical Hebrew *wayyiqtol*”; and Hélène Dal-laure, *Syntax of Volitives in Biblical Hebrew and Amarna Canaanite Prose*, LSAWS 9 (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2014), 184–90, 216–17.

19. For example, in the case of the III-*vav/yod* verbs, the early triphthong sequence vowel-*yod*-vowel at the end of the *yiqtol* form *\*yabniyu* contracted to a single final vowel on the *yiqtol*: *\*yibnē* > *yibne* = *יִבְנֶה*. By contrast, the shorter sequence vowel-*yod* at the end of the short-*yiqtol* form *\*yabniy* eventually dropped off entirely: (*\*yabn* >) *yibn* = *יָבַן*. Phonetically, the latter form can be represented [jiven], though again the last vowel does not constitute a separate syllable. Stated another way, the *segol* in *יִבְנֶה* is the reflex of *-iyu* and constitutes the second syllable of the verb form, while the *segol* in *יָבַן* is an epenthetic vowel, which does not reflect a separate syllable in THT or in PS.

20. The primary exceptions to this general principle are the 1cs *wayyiqtol* verbs. In III-*vav/yod* roots, first-person forms that are explicitly short-*yiqtol* and that lack

This general tendency of the *yiqtol* being acoustically and graphically longer than the short-*yiqtol* and the *wayyiqtol* is also found in the *hiphil*, where the *yiqtol* often has a *mater* (e.g., \**yašliku* > \**yašlik* > יִשְׁלִיךְ “he will throw”) and the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* do not (e.g., \**yašlik* > \**yašlek* > יִשְׁלֵךְ “let him throw” and \**wayyašlik* > \**wayyašlek* > וַיִּשְׁלֵךְ “he threw”). This superficial rule also applies to the various *hiphil* forms of the II-*vav/yod* verbs (\**yaqīmu* > \**yāqīm* > יָקִים “he will raise” vs. \**yaqim* > \**yāqem* > יָקַם “let him raise” and \**wayyaqim* > \**wayyāqem* > וַיָּקַם “he raised”) and III-*vav/yod* verbs (\**yabniyu* > \**yābnē* > יַבְנֶה “he will cause to build” vs. \**yabniy* > \**yabn* > \**yebn* > יָבֵן “let him cause to build” and \**wayyabniy* > \**wayyabn* > \**wayyebn* > וַיָּבֵן “he caused to build”).<sup>21</sup>

The distinctive brevity of the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* is only found where there is no word-final vocalic morpheme or object suffix. The short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* are often identical to the *yiqtol* where the short-*yiqtol* or *wayyiqtol* has a simple vocalic morpheme at its end, that is *-ī* (in the 2fs) or *-ū* (in the 3mp and 2mp), or where it bears an object suffix. Thus, יָקוּמוּ, which bears the final-*ū* morpheme, may either be a short-*yiqtol* or a regular *yiqtol*; the same applies to תִּקְוָמִי, as well as יִבְנוּ and תִּבְנֶנּוּ, and also יִשְׁימֵנִי [qal שִׁים] “you will set me” or “may you set me.” In the *hiphil*, the same thing happens. Any short-*yiqtol* with a suffixal component will appear as a regular *yiqtol*. Contrast, for example, the clearly marked short-*yiqtol* אַל תִּאֲמִן “do not trust!” (Jer 12:6) with the ambiguous verbal form אַל תִּאֲמִינוּ “do not trust!” (Mic 7:5). Note also the distinct form of the *hiphil wayyiqtol* וַיִּשְׁלֵךְ “he threw” (Exod 15:25) with the form וַיִּשְׁלַכֶם “he threw them” (Deut 29:27), which has the same stem vowels as the regular *yiqtol* form.

In an earlier era, a final *-na* would have distinguished the regular *yiqtol* of second feminine singular, third masculine plural, and second masculine plural (e.g., \**takrutūna* “you will cut”). In fact, sometimes BH has pre-

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the final syllable (e.g., וְאֶצְוָה “I commanded” Deut 3:18) occur with about as much frequency as forms that have a sequence of vowels like that of the regular *yiqtol* (e.g., וְאֶצְוָה Deut 1:18). In II-*vav/yod* roots, the defective orthography in early books (e.g., וָאָקַם “I arose” 1 Kgs 3:21) and plene orthography in later books (e.g., וְאָקוּם Neh 2:12) suggests that perhaps the distinction between *wayyiqtol* and *yiqtol* in the 1cs was lost in the Second Temple era.

21. The *hiphil* of בָּנָה is used for the sake of comparison; note, e.g., the forms that do occur: יִרְבֶּה “he will multiply” (Hos 12:2); תִּרְבֶּה “may you multiply” (Ps 71:21); וַיִּרְבֶּה “he multiplied” (2 Sam 18:8).

served the *nun* of this ending: \**takrutūna* > \**tikrutūn* > *tikrōtūn* (> תִּכְרֹתוֹן [in pause]) “you will cut” (Exod 34:13). The short-*yiqtol* (and by extension *wayyiqtol*) always lacked this *nun* (וַתִּכְרַתוּ “you cut” Jer 34:15). After this final *nun* was lost (from most 2fs, 3mp, 2mp *yiqtol* forms), there was no longer a clear distinction between these short-*yiqtol* and *yiqtol* forms. Where the *nun* is preserved in the MT, it is called a paragogic *nun* (on which, see below).

As for the imperative, the basic PS form was akin to that of the short-*yiqtol* (minus the prefix), which, for our purposes we can represent through the examples: \**šmur*, \**škab*, \**tin* (for the equivalent of the *qal* conjugation); alternatively the forms might have been realized as \**šumur*, \**šakab*, \**nitin*.<sup>22</sup> In either case, an initial muttered vowel is implied in the Hebrew masculine singular (e.g., שָׁמַר and שָׁכַב; but cf. תָּן) and in the far less common feminine plural (שָׁמְרָנָה\* and שָׁכְבָנָה\*). The feminine singular (שָׁמְרִי\* and שָׁכְבִי\* as well as תִּנִּי) and the masculine plural forms (e.g., שָׁמְרוּ and שָׁכְבוּ\* as well as תִּנּוּ) exhibit the reduction of the stem’s historical short vowel (as in the corresponding forms of the short-*yiqtol* and *yiqtol*); those imperatives with three root consonants attest an /i/ vowel in the first syllable.<sup>23</sup>

The cohortative likely derives from a form like PS \**yaqtul* followed by a final \*-a or \*-ā.<sup>24</sup> In an earlier era, this was part of a complete verbal paradigm (with third- and second-person forms), each form of which ended in a similar way. In the MT, third-person forms are only very rarely found (e.g., יִחְיֶשֶׁה “let him hasten” Isa 5:19 and תָּבוֹאָה “let it come” Isa 5:19).<sup>25</sup> As with the other vocalic morphemes at the end of the *yiqtol* form, this suffixed /a/-class vowel resulted in the reduction of the verb’s theme vowel (e.g., אֵלְכָה “let me go” Gen 24:56 and נִכְרְתָה “let us cut” Gen 26:28).

Several more details of *yiqtol* morphology can be explained easily by reference to the history of the language. As mentioned above, one not infrequently finds second feminine singular, third masculine plural, and second masculine plural *yiqtol* verb forms containing a final *nun* (i.e., a *nun* following the -ī or -ū morpheme).

22. Huehnergard (“Afro-Asiatic,” 152) posits for PS an epenthetic vowel (e.g., \**kutub*) or prothetic glottal stop (\**uktub*) to resolve the consonant cluster.

23. Note the evidence of the Secunda: σιμεν “hear” (cf. שָׁמְעוּ); see Brønno, *Studien*, 52.

24. Alternatively, it is related to the energetic forms. See Steven E. Fassberg, “Cohortative,” *EHL* 1:476–77.

25. Ibid. See also Job 11:17.



- ♦ תִּדְבֹקֶינָּה “you will cling” (Ruth 2:21)
- ♦ יִשְׁמָעוּן “they will hear” (Deut 2:25)
- ♦ יִהְמִיּוּן “they roar” (Isa 17:12)
- ♦ תִּכְרֹתוּן “you will cut” (Exod 34:13)
- ♦ תִּאָהֲבוּן “you will love” (Ps 4:3)<sup>26</sup>

The *nun* in these cases is referred to as a paragogic *nun* and occurs exclusively on such forms (i.e., 2fs, 3mp, 2mp *yiqtol* verbs).<sup>27</sup> There are many such examples.<sup>28</sup> How these function in BH and what significance they have for the verbal system are unclear and debated.<sup>29</sup>

As explained above, this *nun* is actually part of the older paradigm of the *yiqtol*. In an older stage of the language, the second feminine singular and third and second masculine plural *yiqtol* forms would have regularly ended with this *nun* (i.e., *-ina*, *-ūna*, *-ūna*). By contrast, the second feminine singular and third and second masculine plural forms in the short-*yiqtol* (and *wayyiqtol*) lacked this final *nun*.

26. Among BH verb forms, it is only the 3fp and 2fp that typically end in a *nun* (e.g., תִּקְטֹלֶנָּה), which may reflect either the short-*yiqtol* or regular *yiqtol*. The 3fp and 2fp *yiqtol* and related forms are used for both indicative and jussive functions (e.g., אַל-תִּשְׁלַחנָּה “do not send” Obad 13).

27. The term “paragogic” often refers to “a letter or syllable added to a word” (OED). Technically, this is an inaccurate description of the *nun* in question since verb forms with this *nun* are closer to the earlier base forms of the nonvolitive *yiqtols*; however, it should be recognized that some scribes/speakers could have added such a *nun* to the *yiqtols* for phonological reasons or due to a perceived sense that these forms were more sophisticated or “correct.”

28. See IBHS, 514–17. Tamar Zewi (*A Syntactical Study of Verbal Forms Affixed by -n(n) Endings in Classical Arabic, Biblical Hebrew, El-Amarna Akkadian and Ugaritic*, AOAT 260 [Münster: Ugarit-Verlag, 1999], 114–39 and passim) lists and discusses each example.

29. In addition to Zewi, *Syntactical Study*, see Stephen A. Kaufman, “Paragogic *Nun* in Biblical Hebrew: Hypercorrection as a Clue to a Lost Scribal Practice,” in *Solving Riddles, Untying Knots: Biblical, Epigraphic, and Semitic Studies in Honor of Jonas C. Greenfield*, ed. Ziony Zevit, Seymour Gitin, and Michael Sokoloff (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 1995), 95–99; W. Randall Garr, “The Paragogic *nun* in Rhetorical Perspective,” in *Biblical Hebrew in Its Northwest Semitic Setting: Typological and Historical Perspectives*, ed. Steven E. Fassberg and Avi Hurvitz (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2006), 65–74; V. De Caen, “Moveable *Nun* and Intrusive *Nun*: The Nature and Distribution of Verbal Nunation in Joel and Job,” *JNSL* 29 (2003): 121–32.



Proof that the origin of the *nun* is in a distinction between *yiqtol* and short-*yiqtol* paradigms comes from comparative evidence and inner-Hebrew evidence. In other languages like Aramaic and Arabic, a final *nun* on second feminine singular and third and second masculine plural verb forms marks the verb as nonvolitive (or as indicative). By contrast, the jussive or volitive forms lack the *nun* (and are, therefore, shorter than the nonvolitive forms). That the Hebrew forms with the so-called paragogic *nun* go back to such earlier (nonvolitive) *yiqtol* forms is supported by the fact that verbs with the paragogic *nun* are almost universally negated with  $\text{לֹא}$  in the MT, not with  $\text{אַל}$  (which is associated especially with the short-*yiqtol* in its jussive function). In addition, paragogic-*nun* forms are only very rarely found as *wayyiqtol* forms.<sup>30</sup>

Another feature of BH that is related to verbal endings and with which the paragogic *nun* is sometimes confused is the energetic *nun*. In BH, the energetic *nun* appears almost exclusively with *yiqtol* forms that take an object suffix.<sup>31</sup> With the first- and second-person object suffixes, the energetic *nun* usually assimilates into the following consonant of the pronominal suffix (e.g.,  $^{*}\text{ābārikan} + \text{kā} > ^{*}\text{ābārikakkā}$  [ $> \text{אֶבְרִיכְךָ}$ ] “I will bless you” Gen 26:3).<sup>32</sup> With third-person suffixes, assimilation usually happens in the opposite direction: the first consonant of the suffix assimilates backward into the *nun* (e.g.,  $^{*}\text{tabārikan} + \text{hū} > ^{*}\text{tabārikannū} > \text{תְּבָרִכְנוּ}$  “you will bless him” 2 Kgs 4:29). This assimilation is possible because no vowel ever followed the energetic *nun*.<sup>33</sup>

Like the paragogic *nun*, the energetic *nun* occurs almost exclusively on the *yiqtol* (i.e., not on the short-*yiqtol* or *wayyiqtol*).<sup>34</sup> It is distinct from

30. There are only nine examples in the MT (see Joüon §44e). Note, too, that many verb forms from III-*vav/yod* roots that attest a paragogic *nun*, also preserve a third *yod* root consonant (e.g.,  $\text{יִרְאוּן}$  “they will [not] see” Isa 26:11). Also at Deut 8:13; Isa 17:12; 21:12; 31:3; 33:7; 40:18; 41:5; Pss 36:8, 9; 39:7; 78:44; 83:3; Job 19:2; 31:38. See also Zewi, *Syntactical Study*, 73.

31. Note, however, some have proposed that certain forms that look like 3fp forms are actually energetic forms without suffix, like  $\text{תִּשְׁלַחְנָהּ}$  “she sent” (Judg 5:26). See Joüon §61f. For all the examples of the energetic *nun*, see Zewi, *Syntactical Study*, 75–114, 141–52.

32. Contrast this with the nonenergetic form:  $\text{אֶבְרִיכְךָ}$  “I will bless you” Gen 22:17.

33. In pause the *nun* sometimes does not appear to assimilate, though this is extremely rare (e.g.,  $\text{עֵבֶרְנָהּ}$  “it will [not] pass” Jer 5:22; note also in Exod 15:2, Deut 32:10, and Ps 72:15; Zewi, *Syntactical Study*, 75 n. 57).

34. The energetic *nun* occurs only three times on a verb form preceded by the nega-

the paragogic *nun* in several ways. First, whereas the paragogic *nun* occurs only on forms with a final vowel morpheme (i.e., final /ī/ or /ū/), the energetic *nun* occurs only on forms without a final vowel morpheme, including third and second masculine singular, third feminine singular, and first common singular and plural forms. Second, the energetic *nun* occurs only between the stem and object suffix. It does not occur on verbal forms without an object suffix.<sup>35</sup> The energetic *nun* is really part of an earlier and separate verbal paradigm, each verb form of which ended in \*-an or \*-n (e.g., \**yišmuran* “he will guard”). Again, it is other Semitic languages that suggest this origin. In Arabic, for example, the energetic forms constitute two entire verbal paradigms, one a long form (ending -anna) and the other a short form (ending -an). Similar forms appear in Ugaritic with suffixes. In the end, BH only seems to reflect the short form. These energetic endings in BH have no easily discernible semantic significance for the verbs to which they are attached.<sup>36</sup> One may note, however, that given the *nun*’s distribution, it can often be assumed that a verbal form with an energetic ending is a regular *yiqtol* form.<sup>37</sup>

The energetic endings are usually easy to identify since they are often analogous to the forms of suffixes attached to the preposition *min*.

- ♦ מִמֶּנִּי “from me” and יִעֲדֵנִי “he will summon me” (Jer 50:44) [*hiphil* יעד]<sup>38</sup>

tive particle אַל (all three occurrences appear in Job); the energetic *nun* appears only nine times on a *wayyiqtol* form (seven out of the nine times in poetry). In a further sixteen cases (almost all in poetry), close proximity with volitive forms suggests that the verbal form with energetic *nun* and suffix is really a short-*yiqtol* (e.g., Job 12:8). Contrast these figures with the 533 occurrences of the energetic *nun* with the regular *yiqtol*. Cf. the *wayyiqtol* + suffix, וַיִּשְׁלַחְהוּ “so, he sent him” (Gen 37:14), with the regular *yiqtol* + energetic *nun* + suffix: יִשְׁלַחֵנּוּ “he would send him” (1 Sam 18:5). See Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 172.

35. See n. 31 above for possible exceptions.

36. See Zewi (*Syntactical Study*, 75–114, 141–52) for a thorough review of where and how these forms are used.

37. This does not mean, however, that every form without an energetic *nun* is a short-*yiqtol*; the regular *yiqtol* can also occur without an energetic *nun*. But, note this significant tendency: in prose texts, the 3ms object suf. on a regular *yiqtol* will almost always have an energetic *nun* before it (See Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 172).

38. Often, however, the suffix has a *patakh*, as in תְּבַרְכֵנִי “you will bless me” (Gen 27:31).

- ♦ מִמְּךָ “from you” (pausal) and אֶצְוֶךָ “I will command you” (Exod 7:2) [*piel* צוה]
- ♦ מִמֶּנָּה “from her” and יִקְטִירֶנָּה “he will offer it” (Exod 30:7) [*hiphil* קטר]
- ♦ מִמֶּנּוּ “from him” and תִּבְרַכֶּנּוּ “you will [not] bless him” (2 Kgs 4:29) [*piel* ברך]<sup>39</sup>

Where one finds a *nun* between a third masculine plural or second masculine plural verbal stem and a suffix, it is usually identified as a paragogic *nun*, not an energetic *nun* (e.g., יִשְׁחַרְנִי “they will seek me” Prov 1:28; וְתִדְכָּאוּנִי “and you will crush me” Job 19:2).<sup>40</sup> In cases like יִשְׁחַרְנִי one assumes an earlier form with a historical short vowel after the *nun* (one assumes /a/ of the paragogic *nun*-ending, \**yušahḥirūnani*). The energetic *nun* was not followed by a short vowel and, thus, would have resulted in assimilation.<sup>41</sup> Despite the different origins, likely by the mid-first millennium BCE, the verbs with energetic *nun* + suffix and those with paragogic *nun* + suffix were conceived of as part of a single paradigm. Note, for instance, that in Jer 5:22 a pausal verb with paragogic *nun* + suffix, יַעֲבֹרְנָהוּ “they will [not] pass it,” is immediately preceded by (and is poetically parallel to) a pausal verb with energetic *nun* + suffix, יַעֲבֹרְנָהוּ “it will [not] pass it.”

39. Energetic *nun* does not appear with most plural suffixes; there is only one example of the 1cp suffix (Hab 3:16), and none of the 2mp, 2fp, 3mp, 3fp.

40. Note also יִשְׁרְתֶנּוּךָ (pause) “they will serve you” Isa 60:7; יִמְצְאוּנִי (pause) “they will find me” Prov 8:17. The energetic *nun* is never followed by a vowel. Zewi (*Syntactic Study*, 116–17) lists some of the examples (though others can be found: Hos 5:15; Ps 63:4; Prov 8:17).

41. Alternatively, examples like יַעֲבֹרְנָהוּ are representative of a second energetic paradigm, like that in Arabic, which ended in *-(a)nna* (i.e., \**yaʿburunnahū* > \**yaʿburunnāhū* > \**yaʿburunnāhū*). Or, the above pausal forms like יִשְׁחַרְנִי are due to a secondary archaizing formation of the energetic paradigm.

In outline, then, the historical development of BH finite verbs can be presented in the following manner:

Time period	<i>qāṭal</i>	short- <i>yiqtol</i>	<i>yiqtol</i>	imperative	energetic <sup>42</sup>
<b>third masculine singular</b>					
PNWS	*šamara	*yašmur	*yašmuru		*yašmuran
BH 100 BCE	*šāmar	*yišmor	*yišmor		*yišmaren(+nū)
THT	šamar	yišmor	yišmor		yišmren(+nu)
<b>third feminine singular</b>					
PNWS	*šamarat	*tašmur	*tašmuru		*tašmuran
BH 100 BCE	*šāmārā <sup>43</sup>	*tišmor	*tišmor		*tišmaren(+nū)
THT	šāmra	tišmor	tišmor		tišmren(+nu)
<b>second masculine singular</b>					
PNWS	*šamarta	*tašmur	*tašmuru	*š(u)mur	*tašmuran
BH 100 BCE	*šāmartā	*tišmor	*tišmor	*šəmor	*tišmaren(+nū)
THT	šāmartā	tišmor	tišmor	šmor	tišmren(+nu)
<b>second feminine singular</b>					
PNWS	*šamarti	*tašmurī	*tašmurīna	*š(u)murī	*tašmurin
BH 100 BCE	*šāmart	*tišmārī	*tišmārī	*šimrī	-
THT	šāmart	tišmrī	tišmrī	šimrī	-
<b>first common singular</b>					
PNWS	*šamartu	*ʾašmur	*ʾašmuru		*ʾašmuran
BH 100 BCE	*šāmartī	*ʾešmor	*ʾešmor		-
THT	šāmarti	ʾešmor	ʾešmor		-
<b>third masculine plural</b>					
PNWS	*šamarū	*yašmurū	*yašmurūna		*yašmurun
BH 100 BCE	*šāmārū	*yišmārū	*yišmārū		-
THT	šāmru	yišmru	yišmru		-

42. One could also include a separate column for the earlier paradigm from which the cohortative derived: \*yašmura, etc.

43. During this time period, this and similar forms were presumably also sometimes pronounced with a full vowel in the penultimate syllable, as reflected in some forms of the Secunda. The same applies to the 3cp *qāṭal* and the 2fs, 3mp, and 2mp short-*yiqtol*, *yiqtol*, etc.

third feminine plural					
PNWS	*šamarā	*yašmurna	*yašmurna		-
BH 100 BCE	-	*tišmornā	*tišmornā <sup>44</sup>		-
THT	-	tišmornā	tišmornā		-
second masculine plural					
PNWS	*šamartumu	*tašmurū	*tašmurūna	*š(u)murū	*tašmurun
BH 100 BCE	*šəmartem	*tišmərū	*tišmərū	*šimrū	-
THT	*šmartem	tišmru	tišmru	šimru	-
second feminine plural					
PNWS	*šamartinna	*tašmurna	*tašmurna	*š(u)murna	-
BH 100 BCE	*šəmarten	*tišmornā <sup>45</sup>	*tišmornā	*šəmornā	-
THT	*šmarten	tišmornā	tišmornā	šmornā	-
first common plural					
PNWS	*šamarnū	*našmur	*našmuru		*našmuran
BH 100 BCE	*šāamarnū	*nišmor	*nišmor		*nišməren(+nū)
THT	šāamarnu	nišmor	nišmor		nišmrən(+nu)

Although the above verbal forms are based on the strong root for the basic stem (BH *qal*), the other conjugations (*piel*, *hiphil*, etc.) would have attested similar features and paradigms. That is, the third masculine singular *hiphil qāṭal* would have ended in an /a/ vowel, \**hašmira*, just as the above third masculine singular form does. Similarly, the energetic would also have occurred in the *hiphil*, \**yašmiran*.

The most essential thing for students to remember from this history is the underlying correspondences between the short-*yiqtol*, wayyiqtol, *yiqtol*, imperative, and cohortative forms. Usually, these forms contain the same stem vowel(s) and inflect in a similar manner. From a pragmatic perspective, due to these correspondences, one can often predict the various forms of the verb based on a knowledge of just the third masculine singular and third masculine plural *yiqtol*. In addition, it is important to remember

44. The 3fp *yiqtol* begins with *tav*, due presumably to an association of this letter with feminine marked verbs. The earlier form with prefix *yod* is reflected in only three forms in the MT (e.g., וַיִּשְׁרְנוּ “they went straight” 1 Sam 6:12; see Joüon §44d).

45. The 2fp short-*yiqtol* and regular *yiqtol* are the same. Note, e.g., אַל־תִּשְׁלַחנָה “do not send” Obad 13 vs. לֹא תִחְיֶינָה “you will not see” Ezek 13:33.

the even closer connection between the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol*. In general (and as the label implies), the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* are shorter than the regular *yiqtol*. In both strong and weak roots, the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* do not typically attest the paragodic *nun* or the energetic *nun*. Graphically, the theme vowel of short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* weak verbs is often not marked with a *mater*, though such marking is regular in the *yiqtol* (e.g., יָקָם “let him arise” and יָקָם “he arose” vs. יָקוּם “he will arise”). With III-*vav/yod* roots, the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* lack all trace of the third root consonant (e.g., יָגַל “he reveals” Job 36:15 and יָגַל “he reveals” Job 36:10 vs. יִגְלֶה “he will [not] reveal” 1 Sam 20:2).

### 5.3. Verb with Object Suffixes

Object suffixes on the *qāṭal* are for the most part the same as those on the noun. The primary exceptions include the following: the first common singular suffix has a *nun* (e.g., שָׁלַחְנִי “he sent me” Num 16:28) and the third masculine singular suffix sometimes has a *he* (e.g., הָרַגְתְּהוּ “she killed him” Judg 9:54; and עָבְדוּהוּ “they did [not] serve him” Judg 10:6).<sup>46</sup> In other cases, the third masculine singular *qāṭal* has a simple vowel, like the suffix on the noun (e.g., הָרַגוּ “he killed him” Gen 4:25).<sup>47</sup> Sometimes, the vowel suffix is due to assimilation of *he* (i.e., \**gamalat* + *hū* > \**gamālattū* > גָּמְלָתוּ “she weaned him” 1 Sam 1:24).

Often, if there is a full vowel between the *qāṭal* verbal form and suffix, it matches the vowel of the earlier PNWS form. For the third masculine singular and second masculine singular *qāṭal*, the vowel is an /a/-class vowel (cf. \**šamara* and \**šamarta*).

- ♦ עָשָׂהוּ “he made it” (Ps 95:5)
- ♦ שָׁלַחְנִי “he sent me” (Gen 45:5)
- ♦ שָׁלַחְתָּנִי “you sent me” (Exod 5:22)

This is important to remember because it can sometimes help disambiguate otherwise similar forms. For example, עָנִיתָם (the 2ms of עָנָה +

46. The 3ms suffix on nouns also exhibits a *he* if the noun to which it is attached is from an etymological III-*vav/yod* root, e.g., שָׂדֵהוּ “his field.”

47. This is perhaps derived from a form with an /a/ linking vowel (i.e., \**haragahū* [> \**haragau*] > \**haragaw* > \**hārāgō* > [הָרַגוּ]); see Garr, *Dialect Geography*, 103 and note the alternative explanations listed in Hutton, “Epigraphic Hebrew,” 1:838.

the 3mp object suf.) “you answered them” (Ps 99:8) has a *qamets* and is thus distinct from the second masculine plural *qāṭal* (without object suf.) עָנִיתָם “you did (not) answer” (Isa 65:12). Similarly, the /a/-class linking vowel of the *qāṭal* + object suffix is distinct from the /i/-class linking vowel of the imperative + object suffix. Compare, for example, the *qāṭal* form שָׁלַחְנִי “he sent me” (Gen 45:5) with the imperatival form שְׁלַחְנִי “send me!” (Isa 6:8); also with weak roots: עָנַנִי “he answered me” (1 Kgs 2:30) versus עֲנֵנִי “answer me!” (1 Kgs 18:26). Because the third masculine singular /ō/ suffix (e.g., הָרַגוּ < \**haragahu* “he killed him”) is likely derived from a form with an /a/ linking vowel, one does not find it on forms ending in a historical /i/ or /u/ (e.g., וְאָכְלֶהוּ “they will eat it” Lev 24:9). Imperatives and non-*qāṭal* forms also do not attest the third masculine singular /ō/ suffix since they usually attest an /i/ linking vowel (e.g., עֲבֹדֵהוּ “serve him!” 1 Chr 28:9).

The second feminine singular *qāṭal* also seems to reflect its earlier vowel: יָלַדְתִּנִּי “you bore me” (Jer 15:10). The second masculine plural is the same: הָעֲלִיתֵנוּ “you brought us up” (Num 20:5). Of course, the final /ū/-vowel of the third common plural is preserved before suffixes (e.g., וְאָכְלֶהוּ “they will eat it”; וְשָׁבוּם “they will capture them” in 1 Kgs 8:46 [שָׁבָה]). The primary exception to this general principle is the first common singular, which shows the vowel of its later articulation (\*/i/ not \*/u/): צִוִּיתִיךָ “I commanded you” (Gen 3:11).

With these object suffixes, the *qāṭal* often reveals a vowel pattern within its stem similar to that of nouns + suffix. This is due to the common development of both categories of words. Thus, the addition of a suffix to the third masculine singular verb results in the initial sequence of vowels \**a-ā*. Note, for example, \**haragahu* > \**haragō* > \**hārāgō* > הָרַגוּ “he killed him” (Gen 4:25). Note similarly the form חָקְרָה “he explored it” (Job 28:27). The vowel patterns of these verbal forms are analogous to those of דְּבָרוֹ “his word” and דְּבָרָה “her word.” The initial sequence \**a-ā* is also found in most other *qal* third-person verbal forms with object suffixes (e.g., הָרַגְתִּהוּ “she killed him” and עֲבָדוּהוּ “they served him”). Unlike the third-person forms, the first- and second-person forms begin with the sequence \**a-a* (e.g., יָדַעְתּוּ “you do [not] know him” Deut 22:2). Remembering these vowel sequences is especially helpful for distinguishing quickly a third feminine singular verb from a second masculine singular or first common singular verb. With the weak root, the vowel sequence also resembles that of a noun: רָאָה “he saw it” (Job 28:27; cf. קִנְיָה “its stem” Exod 25:31); עָנִיתָם “you answered them” (Ps 99:8; cf. בְּרִיתוֹ “his covenant” Deut 4:13).

Usually the lexicon of BH is such that the *qāṭal* form with object suffix is not homophonous with a noun plus possessive suffix. For example, when a third-person masculine singular object suffix is added to the *yiqṭol* verb יָדַע, one gets the form יָדָעוֹ “he knew him” (Deut 34:10); no noun exists that would result in the form יָדָעוֹ. Instead, the same root attests nouns like יָדַעַת “knowledge” and מִדָּע “knowledge.”<sup>48</sup> Similarly, the verb דָּבַר is articulated in the *piel* (e.g., דִּבֶּר “he spoke” and דִּבְרוּ “he [did] not speak it” Deut 18:22) or as the *qal* in the participle (e.g., דֹּבֵר “one speaking”). This means that there is never confusion with דִּבְרוֹ “his word.”

Object suffixes on *yiqṭol* verb forms are easily recognizable and are the same as those for the *qāṭal*. If there is a full vowel linking the verbal form with the suffix, it is usually an /i/-class vowel, represented in THT by either *segol* or *tserē* (e.g., יִשְׁפָּטֵי “he will judge me” 1 Sam 24:16; תִּשְׁלַחֵנוּ “you will send us” Josh 1:16), in contrast to the /a/-class vowel commonly found between a suffix and a third masculine singular or second masculine singular *qāṭal* form.<sup>49</sup>

For those prefix verbal forms that have an /o/ theme vowel, the underlying /u/ vowel generally reduced before suffixes (e.g., יִשְׁפָּטֵי). This is consistent with the pattern we observed above, where a historical short \*/u/ will often reduce in the pretonic position.<sup>50</sup> In those cases, where the theme vowel of the *yiqṭol* is /a/ (e.g., יִשְׁלַח “he will send” and יִשְׁמַע “he will hear”), the form with suffix will reflect \*/ā/; note, for example, תִּשְׁלַחֵנוּ “you will send us” (Josh 1:16) and יִשְׁמָעֵי “he will hear me” (Exod 6:12). This also follows the vowel pattern, noted above, where a pretonic historical \*/a/ in an open syllable is usually lengthened to \*/ā/.

With suffixal morphemes and pronominal object suffixes, the short-*yiqṭol* and *wayyiqṭol* have forms identical to those of the *yiqṭol*. As mentioned above, however, in prose the regular *yiqṭol* plus third masculine

48. In a similar way, the *yiqṭol* verb יָלַד with 2ms object suffix is יָלַדְךָ “he engendered him” (Deut 32:18). The root יָלַד attests nouns that, with the application of the 2ms suffix, would not result in an analogous form (e.g., יָלַדְךָ with the 2ms would be יָלַדְךָ\* and in the plural יָלַדְכֶּם).

49. There are exceptions, of course: תִּדְבַּלֵּנִי “lest it cling to me” Gen 19:19; יִלְבָּשֵׁם “he will wear them” Exod 29:30; אֶמְלֹם “I will cut them off” Ps 118:10, 11, 12.

50. An /i/-class theme vowel will also reduce to shewa with object suffixes (e.g., יָתֵן vs. יִתְּנֵי “he will set me” Jer 9:1), again reflecting the tendency for pretonic /i/ to reduce in open syllables where the vowel of the propretonic syllable cannot reduce (cf. \*šāpīṭima > \*šōpāṭim > שֹׁפְטִים “judges”).



singular suffix usually exhibits an energetic *nun*: \*-ennū (e.g. יִשְׁלַחְנִי), while the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* appear without it: \*-ēhū (e.g., וַיִּשְׁלַחְהוּ).<sup>51</sup>

The object suffixes attached to the imperative are again those associated with the other verb forms. Since the imperative is related to the *yiqtol*, it also attests an /i/-class linking vowel between verb and suffix. This is useful in distinguishing the imperative from the *qāṭal*, as mentioned above (e.g., שְׁלַחְנִי “he sent me” vs. שְׁלַחְנִי “send me!” and עֲנֵנִי “he answered me” vs. עֲנֵנִי “answer me!”). Notice, however, that the third feminine singular object suffix often exhibits an /a/-vowel (e.g., לִקְבֹּה “take it!” 2 Sam 12:28; לִמְדָה “teach it!” Deut 31:19).

With suffixes, the stem of the *qal* imperative exhibits different forms, in each case associated with the theme vowel of the verb in the *yiqtol*. The verbs with an /o/ theme vowel in the *yiqtol* are characterized by an /o/ vowel in the first syllable of an imperative + suffix form (e.g., זָכְרֵנִי < \*zokrēnī < \*zukurini “remember me” Judg 16:28). Verbs with an /a/ theme vowel in the *yiqtol* are characterized by the same sequence of vowels as found in the *qāṭal* and suffix (e.g., שְׁמַעְנִי < \*šəmə‘ēnī < \*šama‘ini “hear me!”). This reflects the same tendencies for pretonic /u/ to reduce and for pretonic /a/ to lengthen (in open syllables) noted above.

Where the masculine singular imperative takes the long form with final \*/ā/, the verbs with an /o/ theme vowel in the *yiqtol* attest the same pattern of vowel shift in their stem as with object suffixes: שְׁמָרָה “guard!” (Ps 25:20). But, verbs with an /a/ theme vowel show a different pattern. Usually, the imperative looks like a feminine \**qāṭal* segolate (e.g., שְׁמַעָה “hear!” Ps 17:1).<sup>52</sup>

Students should remember that often the *qāṭal* + suffix contains an /a/-class vowel between the stem and suffix, but the *yiqtol* and imperative contain an /i/-class vowel.

#### 5.4. Verbs in the Non-*Qal* Conjugations (or Binyanim): General Comments

Certain consistencies between all strong and guttural roots in the different conjugations should be pointed out since this makes learning and predict-

51. See Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 172.

52. Sometimes, it reflects the same sequence of vowels as the *qāṭal* + suffix and imperative + suffix, that is, \**a-ā* (e.g., רִפְאָה “heal!” Ps 41:5; שְׁמַעָה “hear!” and סְלַחָה “pardon!” Dan 9:19).

ing the various inflections comparatively easy. These consistencies, moreover, usually have historical explanations that have already been introduced elsewhere.

1. In all conjugations (except the *qal*), the vowels of the name of the conjugation indicate the sequence of vowels in the third masculine singular *qāṭal* (e.g., *niphal* implies \**i-a* as in נִשְׁמַר).<sup>53</sup> In the *pual*, *hophal*, and *hithpael* the sequence of vowels in the name are present throughout the entire paradigm (i.e., in the *qāṭal*, [short-] *yiqṭol*, *wayyiqṭol*, impv., inf. constr., and ptc.).
2. With the exception of the *hiphil*, all conjugations (including most *qal* active roots) exhibit a *shewa* in the penultimate syllable of the third feminine singular and third common plural *yiqṭol* (e.g., *piel qāṭal*: דִּבְרָה and דִּבְרוּ).<sup>54</sup>
3. With the exception of the *hiphil*, all conjugations also exhibit a *shewa* in the penultimate syllable in the third feminine singular and third- and second-person masculine plural *yiqṭol* (and related forms) (e.g., *piel yiqṭol*: יִדְבְּרוּ).<sup>55</sup>
4. In all conjugations (including the *qal*), the last stem vowel of second- and first-person *qāṭal* forms is almost always /a/ (e.g., שָׁמַרְתָּ [*qal*]; דִּבַּרְתָּ [*piel*]; הִקְרַבְתָּ [*hiphil*]; נִשְׁמַרְתָּ [*niphal*]; שְׁלַחְתָּי [*pual*]; הִכְלַמְנוּ [*hophal*]; וְהִתְחַזְקֻתָם [*hithpael*]).<sup>56</sup>
5. If a conjugation attests an /a/-class vowel in the stem of the participle, it will always reflect \*/ā/ (e.g., נֹלָחַם “one fighting” Exod 14:25). In the *niphal*, this can distinguish the masculine singular participle from the third masculine singular *qāṭal* (נֹלָחַם vs. נָלַחַם).

53. An /a/-vowel in the name presumes a short /a/.

54. These muttered vowels likely reflect secondary vowel reduction after the place of stress in verbs had shifted from the penultimate (e.g., \**yiqṭol*) to the ultimate syllable (\**yiqṭol*).

55. The reduction is, again, likely due to a shifting place of the stress. For infinitive and participial forms (e.g., *piel* inf. constr.: יִדְבְּרוּ), this may reflect the tendency for historical \*/i/ to reduce in pretonic syllables where the vowel of the propretonic syllable cannot reduce.

56. In the case of the *qal* and conjugations associated with passivity, the /a/ vowel reflects the original vowel and was likely present in the Second Temple era and earlier. In the case of the non-*qal* conjugations associated with an active voice, the /a/ is a result of a shift (from an earlier \*/ε/ [< \*/i/]) and may be of a relatively late date. See ch. 3 §3, “Development of Individual Vowels.”

“he fought” 2 Kgs 13:12). This reflects the consistent presence of \*/ā/ in the tonic syllable of nouns and adjectives, and contrasts with the short \*/a/ found in accented syllables in finite verbs.<sup>57</sup>

### 5.5. Verbs in the Non-*Qal* Conjugations: Passive *Qal*

In Hebrew, most stems associated with an active voice have a passive counterpart. That is, the *piel* has the *pual* and the *hiphil* has the *hophal*. It is often assumed that the *niphal* is the passive of the *qal*, but this is not exactly true. The *niphal* often indicates a passive voice, but it also indicates a middle voice (i.e., a reciprocal and/or reflexive sense) and presumably this was closer to its earliest meaning. The *qal*, in fact, once had a passive version of itself, the biblical examples of which were later reinterpreted as instances of the *niphal*, *pual*, or *hophal*.<sup>58</sup> This passive *qal* stem, it should be pointed out, is entirely distinct from the verbal adjective that is referred to as the “*qal* passive participle” (e.g., שָׁמוּר “one guarded”).

The passive *qal* conjugation, as it can be perceived today, had a *qāṭal* form, a *yiqṭol* form, and a participial form. The basic vowel sequence in the stem of the passive *qal* was \**u-a*. It was distinguished from the *pual* (which had the same vowel sequence in its stem) by the fact that the passive *qal* did not exhibit doubling of the middle root consonant (as happens in the *pual*). The participle would have had the vowel sequence \**u-ā* without a prefixed *mem*, while the *yiqṭol* form would have had the form \**yuqṭal*, which would have made it virtually identical to the *hophal yiqṭol*.<sup>59</sup>

57. Other more minor consistencies can also be found. In particular, verbs with an /a/ theme vowel in the *qal yiqṭol* sometimes occur in other conjugations with an /a/ vowel in the contextual *qāṭal* 3ms, where we might expect an /i/-class vowel. For example, אָבַד “he destroyed” (note *qal* יָאבַד “he will perish”); לָמַד “he taught” (note *qal* יִלְמַד “he will learn”); קִדֵּשׁ “he sanctified” (note *qal* יִקְדִּישׁ “he will be holy”); וְהָצַר “he will cause distress” (note *qal* יִצַּר “he is pressed”); הָקַל “he treated with contempt” (note וְהִקְלָה “she was slight”). See Joüon §§ 52c and 82d.

58. For a recent summary of the passive *qal* stem, see Eric D. Reymond, “The Passive *Qal* in the Hebrew of the Second Temple Period, Especially as Found in the Wisdom of Ben Sira,” in *Sibyls, Scriptures, and Scrolls: John Collins at Seventy*, ed. Joel Baden, Hindy Najman, and Eibert Tigchelaar, JSup 175 (Leiden: Brill, 2016), 2:1110–27.

59. Though, the *hophal yiqṭol* would have been expressed with a *he* at some earlier point, i.e., \**yuhuqṭal*. Cf. the *he* found in the *hiphil yiqṭol* of some forms: אֶהוּדָנִי “I will thank him” (Ps 28:7).

In any case, almost all the forms have been reanalyzed as true *niphal*, *pual*, or *hophal* forms in the Tiberian vocalization and thus, regardless of their etymology, their passive sense is usually clear.

Essentially, the passive *qal* is identified by looking for forms that appear to be *pual* or *hophal* but that are not attested in the respective active conjugations (i.e., *piel* or *hiphil*).

- ◆ לָקַח (< \**luqaha*) “he was taken” (Gen 3:23)
- ◆ יָקַח (< \**yuqqaḥu*) “it will be taken” (Gen 18:4)
- ◆ אָכְלוּ (< \**ʾukalū*) “they are consumed” (Nah 1:10)
- ◆ תֹּאכְלוּ (< \**tuʾkalūna*) “you will be consumed” (Isa 1:20)

In addition, in their contexts, the meaning of the verbs corresponds to that of the *qal*, not to any of the senses typical of the *piel/pual* or *hiphil/hophal* (i.e., יָקַח = “it was taken,” not “it was caused to be taken”).

When the passive *qal* was lost from Hebrew is difficult to say, but at least it was lost by late Second Temple times. Its existence in the first half of the first millennium BCE is implied by various correspondences between 1–2 Samuel and 1–2 Chronicles. In the former, often one finds a passive *qal* form and in the latter a *niphal* (or something similar).

יָלְדוּ “they were born” (2 Sam 3:5)	versus	נִוְלַד (1 Chr 3:4)
יָלַד “he was born” (2 Sam 21:20)	versus	נִוְלַד (1 Chr 20:6)
יָלְדוּ “they were born” (2 Sam 21:22)	versus	נִוְלְדוּ (1 Chr 20:8)

## 5.6. Verbs in the Non-Qal Conjugations: *Piel*

The *piel* (like the *pual* as well as the *hithpael*) is morphologically distinct in containing a historical doubling of the middle root consonant. For this reason, the *piel* is sometimes referred to as the D-stem or “Double” stem. (The *pual* is referred to as the Dp-stem or “Double passive” stem, and the *hithpael* as the tD-stem.) Nevertheless, it is not uncommon for the doubling of the second root consonant not to be represented in the orthography and/or not articulated in the ancient pronunciation. This occurs with guttural roots (e.g., תִּכְחַשׁוּ “you will renounce” Josh 24:27) and with III-vav/yod roots, where one commonly finds the elision of the final syllable (e.g., וַיְצַו “he commanded” Gen 2:16 [צוה]; and וַיְגַל “he revealed” Num 22:31 [גלה]). The loss of gemination also occurs in cases where the historical \*/i/ vowel of the second syllable has elided (e.g., \**yubaqqiṣūna* > יִבְקִשׁוּ

“let them seek” 1 Sam 16:16).<sup>60</sup> For these reasons, it is better not to rely on the doubling of the middle root consonant to identify this conjugation. Far more consistent are the vowel sequences associated with the *piel*.

The vowel sequence reflected in the third masculine singular *piel* *qāṭal* is typically *\*i-e*; the short /i/ of the stem derives from /a/ (i.e., בִּקֵּשׁ < *\*biqqeš* < *\*baqqiša* “he sought”), making it analogous in its origin to nouns like עִוְר (< *\*iwwēr* < *\*awwiru*) “blind,” described above.<sup>61</sup> The stem vowels of the *yiqtol* and other forms (i.e., *\*a-e*) more clearly correspond to this earlier vowel sequence.

Although the third masculine singular *qāṭal* form is typically characterized as exhibiting the sequence of vowel symbols *hireq-tsere* in THT, the extremely frequent verbs דִּבֶּר “he spoke” and כִּפֶּר “he atoned for,” are realized instead with the sequence *hireq-segol* (= *i-ē*). This seems to reflect the fact that the verbs were so familiar that they were produced with a rushed pronunciation such that the verb was articulated without a clear stressed syllable, as though it were in construct with the following word (e.g., דִּבֶּר-לָךְ Deut 29:12 “he spoke to you”).<sup>62</sup> In other verbs, the pausal forms exhibit a *tsere* in THT, but a *patakh* in contextual forms, as with אָבַד (pause) / אֶבֶד (context) “he destroyed” and בֵּרַךְ (pause) / בִּרַךְ (context) “he blessed.”

A guttural as a third root consonant often results in the sequence *i-a* in context (e.g., פָּתַח “he opened” Job 30:11), though in pause one finds the expected /i/-class vowel (i.e., פִּתַּח “he opened” Job 12:18). With III-*aleph* roots, however, the vowel usually reflects *\*/ē/*, as in מָלֵא “he filled” (Exod 35:35), in this case long due to compensatory lengthening (*\*malli’a* > *\*milli’* > *\*millē*). In the verb בֵּרַךְ (pause) / בִּרַךְ (context) “he blessed,” the *resh* cannot double and so the preceding *\*/i/* lengthens and shifts to *\*/ē/*.<sup>63</sup>

The *piel* *yiqtol* is characterized by the vowel sequence *\*a-a-e* (e.g., יִדְבֹּר), as are the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol*. The vowels of the stem are

60. The loss of gemination occurs with the “Shy queens swim alone” consonants, as described in ch. 3 §15, “Loss of Gemination and *Shewa*.”

61. The last vowel is represented by *epsilon* in the Secunda (e.g., σπασσε [cf. וְקָצַץ] “and he will break” Ps 46:10) (see Brønno, *Studien*, 64). Alternatively, it is conceivable that the *piel* *qāṭal* originated as *\*qattala*, as in Arabic.

62. Such verb forms only rarely attest a *maqgef* and regularly bear cantillation marks. But, note that the pausal forms attest a *tsere*: דִּבֶּר. Note similar forms יְדַבֵּר-בִּי “he will speak to me” Hab 2:1; לוֹ הוּלָד “was born to him” Gen 21:5).

63. Note the long vowel, e.g., in the Secunda’s ῥηφουσ vs. ῥηφου “they reproach” Ps 89:52 (Brønno, *Studien*, 64).

also the same as those of the imperative (דָּבַר). Although the vowels of the infinitive construct (דָּבַר), infinitive absolute (דָּבַר), and participle (מְדַבֵּר) appear the same as those of the imperative in THT, the infinitives and participle presumably exhibited /ē/ as a final vowel, not /e/.<sup>64</sup>

For the *piel*, the vowel of any prefix element is always *shewa*. The word-initial vowel sequence \**a-a* is quite consistent and typifies (and thus helps one to identify) the *yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* since the second vowel of the stem (\**/i/*) will often be absent, as mentioned above (e.g., וִיצַו “he commanded” passim [צוה]; and וִיגַל “he uncovered” Isa 22:8 [גלה]).

Object suffixes on the *piel* usually do not dramatically affect the vowels of the stem, as in דָּבַר “he spoke it” (Deut 18:22) and יִשְׁלַחם “he will send them” (Exod 6:1).

### 5.7. Verbs in the Non-Qal Conjugations: *Hiphil*

The *hiphil* conjugation is formally unique among the other conjugations for several different reasons and, thus, sometimes it exhibits exceptions to some general principles. The *hiphil qāṭal* is characterized by the vowel sequence \**i-ī* (e.g., הִשְׁמִיר).<sup>65</sup> In contrast to all the other conjugations, the theme vowel is long, not short. For this reason, in the third feminine singular and third common plural, there is no reduction of the vowel (הִשְׁמִירָהּ is 3fs; הִשְׁמִירוּ is 3cp). Furthermore, unlike in the other conjugations, the stress or tone remains over this second syllable. Nevertheless, in the other parts of the *hiphil qāṭal* paradigm, the historical \**/i/* vowel of the second syllable shifts to /a/ in THT (similar to the shift from historical \**/i/* to /a/ in the *piel* conjugation): for example, \**higgidā* > \**higgēdā* > הִגַּדְתָּ “you told.” Application of object suffixes does not affect any of the vowels of the stem (e.g., הִשְׁמִידוּ “he destroyed him” Deut 4:3; הִפְקַדְתּוּ “you assigned him” 1 Sam 29:4).

Although the conjugation is easily recognizable in the *qāṭal* due to the initial *he*, this component of the conjugation is not normally present in the *yiqtol* and related forms. There was once a *he* prefix in the *yiqtol*, presumably, but this dropped off in most cases. It is only rarely attested in the MT (e.g., יְהוֹשִׁיעַ “he will deliver” 1 Sam 17:47, Ps 116:6).<sup>66</sup>

64. This is based on the tendencies observed above in ch. 3 for finite forms in the Secunda to exhibit /e/ and verbal adjectives and participles to exhibit /ē/.

65. In some cases in the *hiphil* the earlier \**/i/* is not marked with a *mater yod*.

66. Note also יְהוֹדָה Neh 11:17 and יְהִילִילוּ Isa 52:5. See Joüon §54b.

The other forms of the *hiphil* all attest an /i/-class vowel (\*i/, \*e/, or \*/ē/) in the verbal stem, and /a/ in the prefix (e.g., יִשְׁמִיר\* and יִשְׁמֹר\*), including the imperative, infinitive construct, infinitive absolute, and the participle. The short /a/ vowel of the prefix in the *hiphil yiqtol* may be contrasted with the /i/ found in the prefix of the *qāṭal* form (\*hišmīr vs. \*yašmīr). It is likely that the original sequence of vowels in the *hiphil* was actually \*a-i, even in the *qāṭal* (cf. Aramaic *haphel*: הִנֵּפֵק “he took out” Dan 5:2).<sup>67</sup>

As in the *hiphil qāṭal*, the *hiphil yiqtol* paradigm attests no reduction where one sees it in other conjugations, that is, in forms with a final vowel (תִּשְׁמִיר\* in 2fs, יִשְׁמִירו in 3mp, יִשְׁמִירו\* in 2mp). In these forms, the tone or stress remains on the penultimate syllable (like the *hiphil qāṭal* 3fs, 3cp). With object suffixes, again, there is no change in the stem vowels (e.g., יַעֲמִידֵנִי “he will make me stand” Ps 18:34).

The *hiphil* short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms are consistently distinct from the regular *yiqtol* forms, even in the strong root. The short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms attest an \*/e/ where the regular *yiqtol* has /i/. In the *wayyiqtol* we find יִשְׁבֵּת “he put an end to” versus *yiqtol* יִשְׁבִּית “he will put an end to.”<sup>68</sup> This follows the pattern, as mentioned above, wherein the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms are usually graphically shorter (if not also phonetically shorter) than regular *yiqtol* forms. But, this \*/e/ (and, by extension, the shorter form) is evidenced only where the verb has no suffixed element (i.e., no suffixed morphological component or object suffix): תִּשְׁחָת “do [not] destroy” (Deut 15:3); וַיִּבְדֵּל “he separated” (Gen 1:4). Where any type of suffix appears on the verb, the stem vowel of the verb is \*/i/ (as in the regular *yiqtol*): תִּשְׁחִיתֵהוּ “do [not] destroy him” (Isa 65:8); וַיִּבְדִּילוּ “they separated” (Neh 13:3).<sup>69</sup> In these cases, often the \*/i/ will not be represented by a *yod mater* (e.g., וַיִּשְׁלֹכוּ “they threw” Gen 37:24). In addition, note that the first common singular *wayyiqtol* forms usually do not attest the \*/e/ theme vowel, but rather the \*/i/ associated with the regular *yiqtol*, sometimes without a *mater*: וַאֲצִיל “I rescued”

67. The shift from \*/a/ to /i/ is akin to the vowel shift found in the first syllable of the *piel* perfect and of most \**qattil* nouns, as mentioned above.

68. The theme vowel would presumably be represented by *epsilon* in the Secunda (cf. the impv. form εἰλε “take hold of” Ps 35:2, corresponding to הִחִיזָק) (see Brønno, *Studien*, 100).

69. The respective verbal forms are still parsed or identified as short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol*, despite their graphic similarity to the regular *yiqtol*.



(1 Sam 10:18) and וַאֲצַל (Judg 6:9). If the third root consonant is a guttural, the theme vowel of the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* is /a/ (e.g., וַיַּצְמַח “he made sprout” Gen 2:9), but the other forms are identical to the strong root.

Unlike in the other conjugations where the imperative and the infinitive construct are identical in graphic form (differing only in the length of the final stem vowel), in the *hiphil* the imperative and infinitive construct are actually distinct graphically and phonetically, at least when the imperative lacks a suffix or word-final morpheme. Both forms have an initial *he* followed by /a/; this /a/ is identical to the vowel found after the prefix in the *yiqtol*. For the theme vowel, the imperative reflects an \*/e/ in its stem: הִרְכֵּב “mount!” (2 Kgs 13:16). The vowel sequence of the imperative, therefore, matches that of the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* (e.g., וַיַּרְכֵּב “he made [him] mount” Gen 41:43); since the short-*yiqtol* is like the imperative in indicating volition, it makes sense that the short-*yiqtol* and the imperative have a similar articulation. When it takes any type of suffix or word-final morpheme, however, the imperative attests \*/i/ in its stem (sometimes without *yod mater*: הִגִּידָה “tell!” [*hiphil* נגד + paragogic *he*] vs. הִגִּד “tell!”). The infinitive construct, by contrast, always attests an \*/i/: הַשְׁמִיד “to destroy” (2 Sam 14:16). The *hiphil* masculine singular imperative is, however, graphically identical to the infinitive absolute (again differing in pre-Masoretic Hebrew only in the length of the stem vowel). This formal similarity also overlaps with a semantic similarity since the infinitive absolute sometimes functions as an imperative.

The similarities between the different verbal forms of the *hiphil* can sometimes lead to confusion and students should notice the following distinctions. First, the key feature that helps to distinguish the *qāṭal* from the infinitives and imperative is the vowel that follows the initial *he*. Typically, if it is an /i/-class vowel, then the form is *qāṭal*, but if it is an /a/-class vowel, then the form is either an infinitive or imperative.

- ♦ הַשְׁמִיעָךְ “he made you hear” (Deut 4:36) versus הַשְׁמִיעֵנוּ “cause us to hear!” (Isa 41:22)
- ♦ הַשְׁמִידוּ “he destroyed it” (Deut 4:3) vs. הַשְׁמִידוֹ “to destroy him” (Deut 9:20) (inf.)
- ♦ הָשִׁיב “he brought back” (Gen 14:16) vs. הָשִׁיב “to bring back” (1 Kgs 12:21) (inf.)



- ♦ הָשִׁיבוּ “he brought him back” (1 Kgs 13:20) vs. הָשִׁיבוּ “to bring him back” (2 Sam 12:23) (inf.) and הָשִׁיבֵהוּ “bring him back!” (1 Kgs 22:26).<sup>70</sup>

Ambiguity is found primarily in I-*vav* roots, where the initial *he* is always followed by an \*/ō/ vowel (e.g., הוֹרְדוּהוּ “they brought him down” Gen 39:1 vs. הוֹרְדֵהוּ “bring him down!” Gen 44:21 and cf. הוֹרְדִי “my bringing down” Ezek 31:16).

Since the infinitive construct and imperative both share this initial *ha*- syllable, discriminating between them when they bear a suffix can sometimes be difficult. Usually, the type of suffix and especially the linking vowel between stem and suffix will reveal the correct identity of the form. If the vowel that links the verb to the suffix is an /i/-class vowel, then the form is likely an imperative. If the vowel is an /a/-class vowel, then the form is likely an infinitive construct. Compare הִקְרִיבֵהוּ “offer it!” (Mal 1:8) with הִקְרִיבוּ (< \**haqribahu*) “his offering” (Lev 7:16). Nevertheless, note that the first-person suffixes on infinitives construct are sometimes identical to those of the *yiqṭol* and imperative, especially when the suffix on the infinitive marks the object of the verb (e.g., הִכְעִסֵנִי “to anger me” Jer 7:18; הֵעָבֵרְנוּ “to let us pass through” Deut 2:30). Similarly, there is also ambiguity with the third feminine singular suffix (e.g., הִשְׁחִיתָהּ “destroy it!” 2 Kgs 18:25; הִשְׁחִיתָהּ “to destroy it” Isa 36:10). In these cases, only context can guide interpretation. Remember that a verb form preceded by a preposition will be either a participle or an infinitive construct. Finite forms of the verb (*qāṭal*, *yiqṭol* and impv.) are never preceded by a preposition.<sup>71</sup>

70. Very rarely the scribes got confused. In Jer 52:3, one finds a form that must be an inf. cons., but which is pointed as though it were a *qāṭal* הִשְׁלִיכוּ “his throwing”; cf. הִשְׁלִיכוּ “throw!” Gen 37:22.

71. Finite forms are preceded by conjunctions. In Hebrew, as in English, there is some overlap between prepositions and conjunctions (e.g., עַד “until” can function as either a preposition or conjunction, just like the English equivalent). But, the prepositions that attach directly to the following word, כִּי and כֵּן and לִּי, never function as conjunctions and never attach to finite verbal forms.

5.8. Verbs in the Non-Qal Conjugations: *Niphal*

The *niphal qāṭal* is characterized by the pattern *ni-a* (e.g., נִשְׁמַר, though the earlier form would have had /a/ in the prefix, as reflected in the historical form of I-*vav* roots, like \**nawlada* > *nōlad* > נוֹלַד “he was born.” The participle is like the *qāṭal* but exhibits a long vowel (e.g., נִשְׁמָר). The other forms, including the *yiqṭol*, short-*yiqṭol*, *wayyiqṭol*, and imperative are characterized by the following sequence of vowels in the prefix and stem: \**i-ā-e*, as in תִּשְׁמַר “she will be careful” (Judg 13:13).<sup>72</sup> The infinitive construct is graphically the same in THT, differing only in pre-Masoretic Hebrew by the length of the final vowel: \**i-ā-ē*. The sequence of three full vowels under three consecutive graphic consonants is rather uncommon in BH and may be remembered for this reason alone. Such a sequence is possible because the first vowel always appears in a closed syllable (due to the assimilation of the *nun* of the conjugation) and because the following \*/ā/ (< \*/a/) never reduces. What was \**tinšamiru* shifted to \**tiššāmer* and then to תִּשְׁמַר. The preservation of the \*/ā/ (< \*/a/) is unusual, but serves to distinguish the *niphal* from the *hithpael*, which shares almost the same sequence of vowels; compare \**i-a-e*, as in יִתְהַלֵּךְ “he will go around” (Prov 23:31).<sup>73</sup>

In THT, the *niphal* masculine singular imperative and infinitive construct are identical in form. Again, the infinitive construct in pre-Masoretic Hebrew was distinguished by a final long vowel: \**i-ā-ē*. In both the masculine singular imperative and infinitive construct, the first vowel of the sequence (/i/) is preserved through the addition of a word-initial *he*: הִשְׁמַר. The distinct morphological components of the prefix are the /i/ vowel followed by an assimilated *nun* (\*-in-).

At least for THT, it is often the case that the accent moves forward in the *wayyiqṭol*, imperative, and infinitive construct such that the vowel reflected in the second syllable is often /ε/, not /e/.

72. The last vowel is represented by *epsilon* in the Secunda (e.g., θεσθερ [cf. תִּסְתֵּר “you hide yourself” Ps 89:47] (see Brønno, *Studien*, 104–5; presumably a mistake for \*θεσσαθερ).

73. Since the *tav* of the *hithpael* will rarely assimilate into the first root consonant (e.g., יִדְכָּאוּ “they will be crushed” Job 5:4 [*hithpael* of דָּכָא] and תִּכְסֶּה “it will be covered” Prov 26:26 [*hithpael* of כָּסָה]), the distinction in length between \*/ā/ and \*/a/ is important for distinguishing the two conjugations. The *tav* of the *hithpael* conjugation also assimilates with a following *tet* יִטְמָא “he will [not] defile himself” Lev 21:1), and rarely *nun* תִּנְשָׂא “it will be exalted” Num 24:7). See Joüon §53e.

- ◆ וִלָּחֵם “he fought” (Josh 10:38)
- ◆ הִלָּחֵם “fight!” (Judg 9:38)
- ◆ הִלָּחֵם “to fight” (Num 22:11).

The *niphal* infinitive absolute is attested in a variety of forms (e.g., הִמּוּל “to circumcise oneself” Gen 17:13; נָכַסָּךְ “to long for” Gen 31:30; הִמָּצָא “to be found” Exod 22:3) and is harder to predict for any given verb.

### 5.9. Verbs in the Non-Qal Conjugations: *Pual* and *Hophal*

These conjugations are the passive counterparts to the *piel* and *hiphil*, respectively. All verb forms (including the *qāṭal* and the participle) are characterized by the sequence of vowels found in their respective names. Thus, the *pual* is characterized by the vowel sequence *u-a*. Like the *piel*, the vowel of any prefix element is always *shewa* (e.g., יִשְׁמַר).

The *hophal* is characterized by the vowel sequence *\*o-a* (e.g., הִשְׁמַר). A /u/-class prefix vowel is found in all forms, including in the infinitive construct where a *he* precedes the vowel (meaning that it is formally identical to the 3ms *qāṭal*). Usually, the /u/-class vowel is realized as *\*o/*, though in the case of I-*nun* roots the prefix vowel is /u/ (e.g., יָקַם “he will be avenged” Gen 4:24 [from נָקַם]) and in the case of I-*vav/yod*, II-*vav/yod*, and geminate roots it is *\*ū/* (e.g., הוּרַד “he was taken down” Gen 39:1 [יָרַד] and וּוֹשַׁב “he was returned” Exod 10:8 [שָׁוַב]). This gives rise to a limited number of ambiguous forms, such as תּוֹשַׁב “it (or, you) will be inhabited” from יָשַׁב (Isa 44:26), which might otherwise be interpreted as the *hophal* of שָׁוַב.<sup>74</sup>

### 5.10. Verbs in the Non-Qal Conjugations: *Hithpael* and *Hishtaphel*

The *hithpael* is also consistent across its different forms in its vowel sequence: *\*i-a-e* (or, *\*i-a-ē*).<sup>75</sup> In THT, the third masculine singular *qāṭal* is identical to the imperative and infinitive construct (i.e., הִתְהַלֵּךְ “he will walk around” Exod 21:19; הִתְהַלֵּךְ “walk around!” Gen 13:17; הִתְהַלֵּךְ “walking around” Zech 1:10), though in an earlier era the length of the

74. The *qamets* in this form is unusual.

75. As noted above in the discussion of the *niphal*, the *\*a/* in the stem is important in that it helps to distinguish the *hithpael* from the *niphal*, the latter which exhibits the sequence *\*i-ā-e*.

final vowel would have distinguished the infinitive construct from these other forms. The *yiqtol* is characterized by its distinctive prefixes and suffixes, but the vowels of the stem are the same as those of the other finite verbal forms (e.g., יִתְהַלֵּךְ “he will go around” Prov 23:31).

Occasionally what is ordinarily \*/e/ appears as /a/ or /ā/ in THT; usually, if this occurs, it can be attributed to pause (e.g., הִתְעַבֵּר “he became enraged” Ps 78:62). In other cases, it seems that a particular root is expressed with /ā/ (e.g., יִטְמֵא “he will make himself unclean” Lev 21:4 [in context]).<sup>76</sup>

With roots that begin with a sibilant, the *tav* of the prefix and the initial sibilant switch places (i.e., metathesize).<sup>77</sup> This metathesis in BH sometimes creates forms whose roots are difficult to recognize (e.g., וָאֶשְׁתַּמֵּר “I kept myself” Ps 18:24 [שָׁמַר]). Nevertheless, the fact that there are more than three possible root consonants leads one to suspect that one of the letters is part of the verbal paradigm.

The *hithpael* is the remnant of a broader group of conjugations that were characterized by a prefixed *tav* and that were used to indicate middle and reflexive nuances. In an earlier stage of the language, there would have been prefix-*tav* conjugations corresponding to each major active conjugation (*qal*, *piel*, *hiphil*), as there are, for example, in Aramaic and Ugaritic.<sup>78</sup> The *hithpael* is the prefix-*tav* conjugation that corresponds to the *piel*; those that corresponded with the *qal* and *hiphil* have disappeared.<sup>79</sup> The link between the Hebrew *hithpael* and the *piel* is clear in several ways. First, note that the middle root consonant in the *hithpael* is doubled, if possible, and if not, the preceding /a/ is compensatorily lengthened to \*/ā/: הִתְבָּרַךְ “he blessed himself” and יִתְבָּרֵךְ “he will bless himself.” Second, the sequence of stem vowels throughout the *hithpael* is the same sequence

76. Joüon (§ 53b–c) notes that the /a/ vowel may be due to Babylonian influence, since in the Babylonian tradition of Biblical Hebrew the \*a-a vowel sequence is the normal one in this conjugation. This Babylonian Biblical Hebrew vowel pattern may, itself, be derived from Aramaic where the conjugation corresponding to the *hithpael* has predominantly an /a/ vowel, which is, in turn, derived probably through analogy to the theme vowel of Aramaic passive stems like the *pual* and *huphal*.

77. The same phenomenon is present in English with the switching of “s” and “k” in the common pronunciation of the word “asterisk” as if it were spelled \*asteriks or \*asterix.

78. Note, e.g., Syriac’s *etqtel*, *etqaṭṭal*, and *ettaqṭal* conjugations.

79. Note, however, that some have proposed that וְיִתְפַּקֵּד “it was enrolled” (Judg 21:9) and similar examples are the remnants of a *t*-prefix *qal* stem (see Joüon § 53g).

found in the stem of the *piel* *yiqtol*, imperative, infinitives, and participle: \**a-e* (or, \**a-ē*).

Although the prefix-*tav* conjugations corresponding to the *qal* and *hiphil* are not attested in BH, there is one relic of a prefix-*tav* conjugation that corresponds to an earlier causative conjugation. This is the so-called *hishtaphel* conjugation attested primarily (if not exclusively) in the root חוה (“to bow down”), for example, וְהִשְׁתַּחֲוֶה “and he will bow down” (Ezek 46:2) and הִשְׁתַּחֲוּוּ “they bowed down” (Jer 8:2). The equivalent to the *hiphil* conjugation was, in an earlier phase of Semitic, marked not by an initial *h-*, but by an initial *š-*.<sup>80</sup> In Akkadian and Ugaritic, this is the prefix component to the causative conjugation. The prefix-*tav* conjugation that corresponded to this initial *š*-conjugation is called the *Št*-conjugation. In Ugaritic, the same verb, *ḥwy* “to bow down,” appears in this *Št*-conjugation (e.g., *tšḥwy* = *tišḥawiyā* “[they] do homage”), with the same sense as found in BH.<sup>81</sup> It is due to this correspondence that scholars recognized that the root of this word in BH must be חוה (not שחה, as listed in BDB), and that consequently the *šin* of the word was part of the conjugation, not the root. Since BH otherwise universally attests the shift from an earlier *š*-initial causative conjugation to a *he*-initial causative conjugation (i.e., the *hiphil*), it seems likely that this word is borrowed from another language (similar to Ugaritic), rather than an inheritance from an earlier stage of Hebrew.

#### 5.11. Verbs in the Non-*Qal* Conjugations: *Polel*, *Pilpel*, *Poel*, *Polal*, *Pilpal*, and *Poal*

The rarer conjugations, including the *polel*, *pilpel*, and *poel* are also associated with the *piel*. In general, these conjugations function as the *piel* for middle weak and geminate roots.

- ♦ עָרַר “he aroused” [עור] (in 2 Sam 23:18)
- ♦ יִבְלֶל “he will provide” [כול] (Zech 11:16)
- ♦ עֲוֵן “he did witchcraft” [ענן] (in 2 Kgs 21:6)

80. This shift is part of a broader shift of /š/ to /h/. Compare, e.g., the Akkadian 3ms independent pronoun *šu* with the cognate in BH: שׁוּא. See Huehnergard, “Afro-Asiatic,” 143.

81. See Bordreuil and Pardee, *Manual of Ugaritic*, 164, 166.

The *polet* and *poel* are identical superficially, though the *polet* (as its name implies) involves the reduplication of the last root consonant and the *poel* involves only a different sequence of vowels applied to three root consonants. Thus, the *polet* is the term used for middle-weak roots (since the last root consonant is reduplicated) and the *poel* for geminate roots (which have three root consonants). As in the *hithpael*, the third masculine singular form of the *qāṭal* (עָרַר “he aroused” 2 Sam 23:18), the infinitive (עָרַר “to arouse” Job 3:8), and the imperative (עָרַר\* “arouse!” [cf. כוֹנֵן “establish” Job 8:8]) look identical, differing only in the underlying length of the final vowel (\* /e/ vs. \* /ē/). In addition, these can all easily be mistaken for masculine singular *qal* participles. Of course, most other forms of the *qāṭal* will not be confused with participles (וְשׁוֹבְבָתִי “I will bring you back” [*polet waqāṭal* of שׁוֹב] Ezek 38:4). Like the *piel*, these paradigms exhibit a *shewa* as the prefix vowel for the *yiqṭol* and participle, but no prefix at all for the imperative and infinitives.

The *pilpel* is used usually with II-*vav/yod* and geminate roots. As its name implies, it involves reduplication of the two primary consonants of a root. The sequence of vowels is again analogous to the *piel* (i.e., \**i-a* appears in the second- and first-person forms of the *qāṭal*, as in וְכִלְכֵּלְתִּי “I will provide” Gen 45:11, and \**a-e* appears in the stem of the *yiqṭol*, as in וְכִלְכֵּל “it will survive” Prov 18:14).

The *polal*, *poal*, and *polpal* are the passive counterparts to these stems. Like other passive conjugations, these conjugations exhibit /a/ as a theme vowel (e.g., *polal*: כּוֹנְנִי “they were ready” Ezek 28:13 [pausal] and *poal*: נִדְד “he flutters away” Nah 3:17). The *hithpolet* (e.g., מְתַעֲרֵר “one who is excited” [עוֹר] Isa 64:6) and *hithpalpel* (e.g., הִתְמַהֲמְהוּ “they waited” [מהה] Judg 19:8) are the counterparts to the *hithpael*.<sup>82</sup>

## 5.12. Weak Roots: General Comments

Weak roots are characterized by vowel patterns that are distinct from those of the strong root. Generally, roots containing gutturals diverge least from the standard patterns. I-*nun* roots exhibit the assimilation of the *nun* in specific forms, but are otherwise similar to strong roots. The presence of a *vav* or *yod* as a historical root consonant, on the other hand, creates

82. Other conjugations also occur, but more rarely (see GKC §55).

significant variations from the basic verbal paradigm. One should keep the following three points in mind regarding these roots.

1. Originally the two letters (*vav/yod*) were distinguished in every position. However, at some point before the language was committed to writing, historical *vavs* shifted to *yods* in most words and forms. This happened especially in I-*vav/yod* roots and III-*vav/yod* roots. In II-*vav/yod* roots, on the other hand, medial *vav* or *yod* was generally lost through contractions and/or assimilation.
2. The idiosyncratic features of these roots usually derive from the contraction of diphthongs or triphthongs at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the root.

♦ \**hawṭibani* > \**hōšibānī* > הוֹשִׁיבָנִי “he caused me to dwell” (Ps 143:3)

♦ \**yaqṣwumu* > \**yaqūmu* > \**yāqūm* > יָקוּם “he will arise” (passim)

♦ \**banaya* > \**banā* > \**bānā* > בָּנָה “he built” (passim)

Vowels that are the result of contractions at the beginning or in the middle of a root are rather stable throughout a given verb’s inflection (e.g., the medial /ū/ is present throughout the *qal yiqṭol* in II-*vav* roots: יָקוּמוּ “they will arise” passim). On the other hand, at the end of the root, the triphthongs contracted in different ways, as explained above (see §3.12, “Triphthongs and Diphthongs”).

♦ \**yagluwu* > \**yagluyu* > \**yiglē* > *yigle* = יִגְלֶה “he will reveal”

♦ \**yagluwūna* > \**yagluyūna* > \**yagluyū* > \**yiglū* > יִגְלוּ “they will reveal”

3. In all roots with a historical *vav* or *yod*, but especially in II- and III-*vav/yod* roots, the short-*yiqṭol* and *wayyiqṭol* forms are typically shorter than the regular *yiqṭol*.

### 5.13. Weak Roots: Gutturals and I-Nun

Guttural root letters will sometimes result in unexpected vowels in the stem and prefix of verbs. For example, a guttural as a first root consonant, will sometimes result in /a/ beneath the prefix of the *qal yiqṭol* and related forms, as with יַעֲמֹד “he will stand.”<sup>83</sup> In the third masculine plural (and

83. In relation to I-*khet* verbs, the presence of a *khatef* vowel in THT is due to a



similar forms), two short vowels follow one another in THT (e.g., יַעֲמֹד, the second of which is an epenthetic vowel (like the *khatef-patakh* in the form יַעֲמֹד). Although the *hiphil* paradigm also exhibits /a/ in the prefix element, the *hiphil* will never attest a *shewa* between the second and third root consonants; instead it will reflect either \*/e/ or \*/i/ (e.g., יַעֲמֹד “let him cause to stand” [short-*yiqtol*] and יַעֲמִיד “he will ...” [*yiqtol*]).

In the *niphal yiqtol*, all gutturals as well as *resh* will trigger compensatory lengthening in the prefix vowel (e.g., יֵרָאֶה “it will be seen” Exod 13:7).

In the *qal*, a guttural as a second or third root consonant will result in the *yiqtol* and imperative (but not the inf. cons.) exhibiting an /a/ theme vowel: יִבְחַר “he will choose,” בְּחַר “choose!,” but the infinitive construct בְּחַר\* “choosing”; and יִשְׁלַח “he will send,” שְׁלַח “send!,” but the infinitive construct: שְׁלַח “sending.” In the *piel*, *pual*, and *hithpael*, a guttural (or *resh*) as a middle root consonant can result in compensatory lengthening (e.g., בִּרְךָ “he blessed”; יְבָרֵךְ “he will bless”; תְּבָרְכִי “may she be blessed”). In these conjugations, a guttural as a second root consonant does not affect the vowel of the last stem syllable (e.g., שָׁחַת “he acted corruptly”; contrast this with the *qal* where an /a/ vowel is always present, as in יִבְחַר “he will choose”). However, a guttural as a third root consonant will result (as in the *qal*) with a final /a/ vowel in contextual forms: שָׁלַח “he sent away”; יִשְׁלַח “he will send away”; הִתְגַּלֵּעַ “quarreling” [inf. cons.].<sup>84</sup>

An *aleph* as a root consonant is somewhat different from the other gutturals. In some *aleph*-initial roots the *qal yiqtol* exhibits \*/ō/ after the initial consonant of the prefix. The phenomenon is quite commonly found in the expression וַיֹּאמֶר “he said.” As in this example, the *aleph* has elided and receives no vowel. The verbs that often attest this \*/ō/ vowel are the following: אָבַד “to perish,” אָבָה “to be willing,” אָחַז “to seize,” אָכַל “to eat,” אָמַר “to say,” אָפָה “to bake.” The verbs can be remembered by any mnemonic that links the verbs in a single sentence.<sup>85</sup>

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shift in sonority between the first two root consonants; generally, where the second consonant is more sonorous, the guttural receives a *khatef* vowel. See the short summary in Lutz Edzard, “Phonology, Optimality Theory: Biblical Hebrew,” *EHLL* 3:134–38 and the fuller treatment in Silje Avestad and Lutz Edzard, *la-ḥšōḇ, but la-ḥāzōr? Sonority, Optimality, and the Hebrew פ"ח forms*, AKM 66 (Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 2009).

84. In pause, one finds a *tserie* in THT: אֶשְׁלַח “I will [not] send away” (Exod 5:2).

85. E.g., “Did you say you’re not willing to eat what I bake? I will seize you, and you will perish.”



As elsewhere, when the *aleph* should double, it also precipitates compensatory lengthening in the preceding vowel (e.g., יִאָסְפוּ < \*yē'āsəpū < \*yi'āsipū “they will be gathered” Gen 29:8 and יִמָּאֲנֻ < \*yəmə'anū < \*yuma'inū “they will refuse” Jer 25:28).

Similarly, like the other gutturals, the *aleph* as a second consonant precipitates an /a/ theme vowel in the stem of the *yiqtol* verb (e.g., יִשְׁאֵל “he will request” Exod 22:13). When an *aleph* is a third root consonant, this /a/ vowel lengthens to \*/ā/ (e.g., יִמָּצֵא). This compensatory lengthening is due to the *aleph*'s quiescence at the end of a syllable (i.e., יִמָּצֵא < \*yimṣā < \*yimṣa' < \*yimṣa'u). When the *aleph* initiates a syllable, we do not see (typically) such compensation (e.g., יִמָּצְאוּ < \*yimṣə'u < \*yimṣa'u “they will find” Judg 5:30).

Occasionally III-*aleph* roots appear to be vocalized on analogy to III-*vav/yod* roots (e.g., חֹטְאִים “who are sinning” 1 Sam 14:33; מְלֹאֲתַי “to be fulfilled” Num 6:13). This is found with particular frequency in the *niphal*, where one finds נִמְצָאתִי “I was found” (Isa 65:1) instead of נִמָּצָאתִי\* as one might have expected (cf. the III-*vav/yod* root: נִגְלֵיתִי “I revealed myself” 1 Sam 2:27). The *niphal* masculine plural participle consistently appears with a *shewa* where we would expect a *qamets*: הִנְמָצְאִים “those found” (2 Kgs 25:19), instead of הִנְמָצָאִים (which occurs just once at Ezra 8:25, in pause).<sup>86</sup> In other cases, as mentioned above, byforms exist in the lexicon between III-*aleph* and III-*vav/yod* roots, as with קָרָא “to encounter, meet” and קָרָה “to encounter, meet.”

A *nun* that abuts another, following consonant will often assimilate into that following consonant. This occurs frequently with verbs, as in the *qal yiqtol* form of נָתַן, for example יִתֵּן < \*yinten, or the *hiphil qāṭal* or *yiqtol* forms of נָצַל, for example יִצִּיל < \*hinṣil “he delivered” and יִצִּיל < \*yanṣil “he will deliver.” However, where a vowel comes immediately after such a *nun*, there is no assimilation, as in the *qal qāṭal* נָתַן “he gave” and the *piel yiqtol* form of נָצַל, for example יִנְצְלוּ < \*yanaṣṣəlū “they will save.” The assimilation or preservation of a first *nun* is rather regular and predictable within these parameters. One must note, however, that in cases where the

86. Does the form הִנְמָצְאִים reflect a pronunciation like that of III-*vav/yod* participles (i.e., \*hannimṣim; cf. נִרְפִּים “who are lazy” Exod 5:8) that was secondarily altered to \*hannimṣa'im? See Blau, *Phonology and Morphology*, 88. As noted above, in ch. 3 §5, “Lengthening of Pretonic \*/i/ and \*/a/ Vowels and the Place of Stress,” Garr notes that such participles always precede phrases to which they are closely linked (Garr, “Pretonic Vowels in Hebrew,” 135).

verb contains a *nun* as a first root consonant and a guttural as a second root consonant, the *nun* does not assimilate. Thus, we find in the *qal* תִּנָּאץ “do [not] spurn” (Jer 14:21); יִנְהֵג “he will lead” (Isa 20:4); נִנְחַל “we will [not] inherit” (Num 32:19); יִנָּעַם “it will be pleasant” (Prov 2:10) (pausal). The same happens in the *hiphil*: יִנְחִיל “he will dispossess” (Deut 3:28).<sup>87</sup>

Since the form of an imperative is usually directly related to the short-*yiqṭol* (and/or the *yiqṭol*) form of the verb, it is not surprising that those verbs that see assimilation of the *nun* in the (short-) *yiqṭol* attest no *nun* in the imperative: תֵּן and תִּן “give!”; also יַצֵּל and הַצֵּל “deliver!” Where the *nun* appears in the (short-) *yiqṭol*, then the *nun* appears in the imperative: נִהַג “lead” (2 Kgs 4:24).<sup>88</sup> The infinitives construct for the most common roots have a *segolate*-like (\**qilt*) base in the *qal*.

- ♦ תַּת < \**tint* “to give” (+1cs תַּתִּי “my giving”)
- ♦ שָׁאֵת and שָׁאֵת < \**śi’t* “to lift” (+1cs שָׁאֵתִי)
- ♦ גָּשַׁת < \**gišt* “to approach” (+ 3ms גָּשַׁתוּ)

Most other verbs usually attest the *nun* in the infinitive construct, even where the *nun* usually assimilates in the *yiqṭol* (e.g., יִפֹּל “he will fall” but נָפַל “to fall”).

#### 5.14. Weak Roots: I-*Vav*/Yod

Roots that are originally I-*vav* are more numerous than original I-*yod* roots. The I-*vav* roots are characterized by several unexpected features in the *yiqṭol* and related forms. In the *qal*, the third masculine singular *yiqṭol* presumes the prefix-/stem-vowel sequence \**ē-e* (e.g., יִשָּׁב “he will dwell”), or, with final guttural, \**ē-a* (e.g., יִדַּע “he will know”). Neither vowel sequence is shared by other *yiqṭol* forms. At least superficially, the initial \**ē* vowel would seem to be due to the contraction of an earlier diphthong, \**yaytibū* > \**yēšeb* (> יִשָּׁב), which in turn implies the earlier transformation of the first *vav* to *yod* (\**yawtibū* > \**yaytibū*). However, we might have expected some memory of the first *vav* root consonant since we find evidence of this consonant throughout the non-*qal* conjugations that attest a prefix (through a *mater vav* or consonantal *vav*). Thus, in the *niphal* one

87. One exception to the rule is in the *niphal qāṭal* of נָחַם, where the *nun* root consonant does assimilate (e.g., נָחַם “he was consoled” 2 Sam 13:29).

88. There are several exceptions, e.g., נָפַל “fall!”

finds in the *qāṭal* נִדָּע < \**nawda*ʿa “it is known” (Exod 2:14) and in the *yiqtol* and related forms יִדָּע “it will be known” (Jer 28:9); הִנָּדַע “my being known” (Jer 31:19). In the *hiphil*, one finds הִדָּיעַ < \**hawdi*ʿa “he made known” (Ps 98:2) and יִדָּיעַ < \**yawdi*ʿu “he will make known” (Isa 38:19).<sup>89</sup> In the prefix to the *hophal*, one finds \*/ū/ instead of \*/ō/: הוּרַד < \**huwrada* “he was brought down” (Gen 39:1).

The *qal* short-*yiqtol* is often not distinguished from the regular *yiqtol* in THT,<sup>90</sup> but the *wayyiqtol* often has the accent on the prefix and a *segol* as a theme vowel (e.g., וַתֵּרַד “and she came down” Gen 24:18). The *qal* imperative exhibits the stem vowel of the *yiqtol* (שֶׁב and שְׁבִי “dwell!”); the *qal* infinitive construct exhibits the \**qilt* base, resulting in a form that looks like a segolate noun: שֹׁבֶת “to dwell” (+1cs suf. שְׁבַתִּי).<sup>91</sup>

In the *qal*, a subclass of I-*vav/yod* roots experiences the assimilation of the *vav* as though it were a *nun*. In particular, this is common with roots whose second root consonant is *tsade*: אָצַק “I will pour” (Isa 44:3) from יִצַּק; also וַיֵּצֶר “he formed” (Gen 2:19) from יִצַּר. Other roots often included in this same subclass include יָצַג *hiphil* “to set”; יָצַע *hiphil* “to make a bed”; יָצַת “to burn.”<sup>92</sup> In addition, other roots whose second root consonant is a sibilant attest similar assimilation: וַיֵּשְׂרֹנָה “they went straight” (1 Sam 6:12) [*piel* of יִשָּׂר]; and יִסְרִינִי “he will instruct me” (Isa 8:11) [*piel* of יִסֵּר].<sup>93</sup>

Verbs in the *yiqtol* with the prefix-/stem-vowel sequence \**ē-e* and \**ē-a* are originally I-*vav*. Original I-*yod* roots are comparatively rare. Joüon cites the following “primitive” I-*yod* roots: יָבַשׁ “to be dry”; יָנַק “to suck”; יָטַב “to be good”; יָקַץ “to wake up”; יָלַל *hiphil* “to wail”; יָמַן *hiphil* “to go to the right.”<sup>94</sup> The prefix-/stem-vowel sequence in the *yiqtol* of these roots is usually *ī-a*. Furthermore, the first etymological consonant usually appears graphically in the spelling of the *yiqtol*, though it is best interpreted as a *mater* in these cases: יִיבַשׁ < \**yībaš* < \**yīybaš*u “it will dry up” [*qal* יִבַּשׁ];

89. That the original vowel of the prefix of the *hiphil qāṭal* was /a/ and not /i/ is reflected in some of the above forms which presuppose a contraction of an earlier diphthong (i.e., \**aw* > \**ō*): הוּדָיעַ.

90. A rare example is יִתְרַד “may it come down” (2 Kgs 1:10).

91. This same base is used for the inf. cons. in some common I-*nun* roots like נָתַן.

92. Joüon (§77b) notes that יָצַג and יָצַת might be truly I-*nun* roots.

93. Ibid. §77a2. Note also מָסַד “foundation” (1 Kgs 7:9).

94. Joüon §76d.

and הִטִּיב < \**hēṭīb* < \**hayṭība* “he treated well” [*hiphil* יִטַּב].<sup>95</sup> In addition to these verbs, etymological I-*vav* roots that are stative appear as though they are I-*yod* in Hebrew, including יִירָא “he will fear”; יִיעָף “he will faint”; יִיקָר “he will be precious”; יִישָׁן “he will sleep.” Other verbs that appear to be (at least morphologically) stative I-*vav* roots with this same vowel pattern are translated as active verbs in English: יִירָשׁ “he will inherit” and אֵינְעָצָה “let me counsel” (Ps 32:8) [*qal* cohort. יַעַץ].

### 5.15. Weak Roots: II-*Vav/Yod*

II-*vav/yod* roots present some problems for the historical outline of Hebrew, since it seems at least possible that they ultimately derive not from a three-consonant root, but actually from a two-consonant root. In either case, a second root consonant is rarely in evidence. Instead there is almost always a full vowel (i.e., not a muttered vowel/*shewa*) that separates the first and last consonants.<sup>96</sup> For example, in the *qal* *qāṭal*, only the first and third root consonants are evidenced (e.g., קָם “he arose”).

Throughout the different conjugations, the third-person forms of the *qāṭal* are regularly different from the second/first-person forms. In II-*vav/yod* roots in the *qal*, the third-person *qāṭal* forms reflect \*/ā/ between the two stable root consonants (i.e., קָם “he arose”; קָמָה “she arose”; קָמוּ “they arose”), while the other forms attest \*/a/ (e.g., קָמַתָּ “you arose”). Notice that all these forms in the *qal* are accented on their first syllable (the exception being the 2mp/2fp forms, e.g., קָמַתֶּם). The *qal* participle is identical to the third-person masculine and feminine singular *qāṭal*, but the participle is accented on the last syllable (i.e., קָמָה vs. the 3fs *qāṭal* קָמָהּ). Here again, the participle is articulated like most other adjectives and nouns, and the *qāṭal* diverges from this pattern.

In the non-*qal* conjugations (especially the *hiphil* and *niphal*), the *qāṭal* third-person forms are again distinct from the *qāṭal* second and first-person forms.<sup>97</sup> In these conjugations, the second- and first-person forms often attest an \*/ō/ (< \*/ā/) connecting vowel, between the stem and

95. The distinction between /i/ and /iy/ would seem to be quite small (cf. Bergsträsser, *Hebräische Grammatik*, 1:102).

96. Note, however, the rare exceptions, like מוֹת in the *hophal*: יִמָּוֶתוּ “they will be put to death” (Lev 20:12).

97. When such verbs occur in the *piel*, the *vav/yod* is a regular root consonant (e.g., שָׁעַתִּי “I cried out” Jon 2:3).

the suffixed pronominal element of the verb, but the third-person forms do not.

In the *hiphil qāṭal*, the third-person forms follow the sequence  $*\bar{e}-\bar{i}$ , as in הָקִים “he raised” (Josh 5:7); הָקִימוּ “they erected” (Isa 23:13). The initial  $*\bar{e}$  in the third-person forms reflects the basic qualities of the first syllable; since the syllable in these forms is open and pretonic, we expect a long vowel, not הָקִים\*. Compare the second- and first-person forms: וְהָקַמְתָּ “you will erect” (Deut 27:2) and הָקַמְתִּי “I established” (Gen 9:17). Not only does an  $*\bar{o}/$  vowel appear between the stem and suffixal morpheme, but the initial vowel is a muttered vowel, not  $*\bar{e}$ . (Note also the alternation between  $*\bar{i}/$  and  $*\bar{e}/$  in the stem.)

For the *niphal qāṭal*, the third-person forms exhibit the sequence  $*\bar{a}-o$ , without a connecting vowel (e.g., נָסַג “it turned back” Ps 44:19 and נָסַגוּ “they turned back” Isa 42:17), but the second- and first-person forms exhibit  $*\bar{a}-\bar{u}$  followed by the connecting vowel  $*\bar{o}/$  (e.g., נָסַגְתִּי “I did [not] turn back” Isa 50:5).<sup>98</sup> Again, the initial vowel of the prefix has reduced to *shewa* and an  $\bar{o}/$  follows the stem.

In the *hophal qāṭal* of II-*vav/yod* roots one finds the sequence  $*\bar{u}-a$ : וְהוּבָן “it will be established” (Isa 16:5); יוּמָת “he will be put to death” (Judg 6:31, *passim*). The participle, since it follows the morphology of nouns and adjectives, contains an  $*\bar{a}/$  in its stem: מוּבָן “one made ready” (Prov 21:31).

II-*vav/yod* roots are relatively easy to identify in their *yiqtol* and related forms since they often have a full vowel with *mater* between the first and third root consonants.

### *qal*

יָקוּם	“he will arise”
יָבִין	“he will understand”

### *niphal*

יִבֹּן	“he will be established” (Ps 102:29)
יִבְנוּ	“they will be established” (Prov 4:26)
הִבֹּן	“be ready!” (Amos 4:12).

98. The short  $/o/$  is assumed based on the *niphal yiqtol* of יִבֹּן in the Secunda:  $\epsilon\epsilon\chi\chi\sigma\nu$  (Ps 89:38) (see Brønno, *Studien*, 104).

*hiphil*

תָּקִים	“you will erect” (Exod 40:2)
תִּקְיֶמוּ	“you will erect” (Lev 26:1)
הָקִים	“the erecting of” (Num 9:15)

II-*vav* and II-*yod* roots can be distinguished from each other only in the *qal yiqtol* and related forms (short-*yiqtol*, and *wayyiqtol*, as well as in the imperative and infinitives). In the *qal yiqtol*, the II-*yod* roots will look identical to corresponding *hiphil* forms. Because בִּין occurs in both the *qal* and *hiphil* with the sense “to understand,” it is difficult to be sure of the parsing of given forms (e.g., וַיֵּבֶן “he understood” 2 Sam 12:19 [*qal* or *hiphil*?]).

In the *qal*, the stative pattern is exhibited especially by בּוֹשׁ “to be ashamed.” In this case, the *qāṭal* and *yiqtol* both retain a long /ō/ vowel in the stem: בָּשׂ “he was ashamed,” בָּשׂוּ “they were ashamed,” בָּשָׁתִּי “I was ashamed,” and יִבֹּשׂ “he will be ashamed,” יִבְשׂוּ “they will be ashamed.” Notice that in the *yiqtol*, the prefix reflects \*ē. The other verbal forms of this root are predictable, each exhibiting the long /ō/ vowel, even the participle (בּוֹשִׁים “those ashamed” Ezek 32:30).

In the *qal*, the three forms *yiqtol*, short-*yiqtol*, and *wayyiqtol* can be imagined in sequence progressing from longer to shorter forms: יָקִים to יִקֵּם and יִבִּין to יִבֶּן. The short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* are distinguished from each other basically just by the place of the accent in THT. The historical form of both would have been the same: \**yaqwum* > \**yaqum* > \**yāqom* and \**yabyin* > \**yabin* > \**yāben*. In the *hiphil*, the three forms are similarly distributed and resemble *qal* II-*yod* roots: יָקִים versus יִקֵּם versus יִקְּם. Although the imperative of the *qal* is related to that of the *yiqtol* (i.e., קוּם → יָקוּם “rise”), in the *hiphil*, the vowels of the imperative (e.g., הָקֵם “erect!”) match those of the short-*yiqtol*.

As noted above in relation to the strong root in the *hiphil*, the form of the short-*yiqtol* is identical to that of the regular *yiqtol* in the second feminine singular, and third and second masculine plural, as well as when the short-*yiqtol* occurs with object suffixes. Similarly, with the *wayyiqtol* and the imperative. Thus, one finds the *wayyiqtol* with a long middle vowel (sometimes written without a *mater*) in the third masculine plural *qal* וַיִּקְוּמוּ or וַיִּקְמוּ (instead of וַיִּקְמוּ\*) and in the *hiphil* וַיִּקְיֶמוּ or וַיִּקְמוּ (instead of וַיִּקְמוּ\*). In the *hiphil* imperative, one finds הִקְיֶמוּ (instead of הִקְמוּ\*).

Although most *hiphil* participles typically exhibit the vowel sequence found in the *yiqtol* (i.e., \**a-i*, as in מְשַׁמֵּעַ), with the II-*vav/yod* roots, the

vowel sequence is that of the *qāṭal* (e.g., הָבִין “he understood” and מְבִין “one who understands”). As elsewhere, the vowel of the prefix is a *shewa* in the prepretonic syllable: מְבִינִים “those who understand.”

Another peculiarity of II-*vav/yod* roots, found in all the different conjugations, is the ending of many third- and second-person feminine plural *yiqṭol* (and *wayyiqṭol*) forms. Often, but not always, these forms will attest an ending that is more common with etymological III-*vav/yod* roots (\*-ēnā > -enā = יָנָה -). Thus, one finds in the same verse (e.g., Ezek 16:55) a form without this ending and a form with this ending: תָּשֻׁבִּין “they will return” and תָּשׁוּבִינָה “you will return.” Similarly, note תָּבֹאֲנָה “they will come” (Isa 47:9) and תָּבֹאֲיִנָה “they will come” (Ps 45:16).

Although II-*vav/yod* roots sometimes appear in the *piel* (e.g., שָׁוַעְתִּי “I cried out” Hab 1:2), more often these roots occur in the *polet* (in an active sense: וַתִּרְוֹמֶם “you lifted up” Ps 107:25) and *polal* conjugations (in a passive sense: וַתִּרְוֹמְנָה “they were exalted” Ps 75:11). Similarly, the *hithpolel* (in a reflexive sense: יִתְרוֹמֶם “he will exalt himself” Dan 11:36) occurs more commonly than the *hithpael*. These conjugations are extremely regular and the vowels often change very little in their inflection.

#### 5.16. Weak Roots: III-*Vav/Yod*

Etymological III-*vav/yod* roots are regular at their beginning and exhibit all the characteristic prefix vowels of the various verb forms and conjugations associated with the strong root. It is primarily in relation to their endings that these roots look unusual. The endings are the result of contractions involving diphthongs and triphthongs. In general, there is consistency among the endings; each particular verbal form ends in the same way across all the different conjugations. For example, all third masculine singular *qāṭal* verbs end in the same way, even though they derive from slightly different triphthongs.

- ♦ \*-aya > \*-ā (e.g., \*banaya > \*banā > \*bānā > בָּנָה “he built”)
- ♦ \*-iya > \*-ā (e.g., \*galliya > \*gillā > גָּלָה “he revealed”)

The endings on third masculine singular *yiqṭol* forms are also consistent.

- ♦ \*-iyu > -ε (e.g., \*yabniyu > yibnē > yibne = יָבֵנָה “he built”)
- ♦ \*-ayu > -ε (e.g., \*yuputtayu > \*yuputtē > \*yεputte > יִפְתָּה “he will be persuaded”)



- ♦ \*-uyu > -ε (e.g., \*yagluyu > yiglē > yigle = יגלה “he will reveal”)

When a long vowel comes last in a triphthong, the long vowel is preserved and the preceding sounds are lost.

- ♦ \*-ayū > \*-ū (e.g., \*banayū > \*bānū > בנו “they built”)
- ♦ \*-iyū > \*-ū (e.g., \*yabniyūna > \*yabniyū > \*yibnū > יבנו “they will build”)
- ♦ \*-iyī > \*-ī (e.g., \*tabniyīna > \*tabniyī > \*tibnī > תבני “you will build”)

The consistency with which these contractions take place at the ends of words means that memorizing the endings in one conjugation (e.g., the *qal*) can help predict the endings in all the other conjugations.

This consistency is also reflected where contractions have taken place within a word or form. For example, second- and first-person *qāṭal* forms show the expected contractions of \*/iy/ to \*/i/ and \*/ay/ to \*/ē/.

- ♦ \*-iy > \*-ī (e.g., \*galliytu > \*gillitī > גליתִי “I revealed”)<sup>99</sup>
- ♦ \*-ay > \*-ē (e.g., \*naglaytu > \*niglētī > נגליתִי “I revealed myself”)

Due perhaps to different bases or due to analogy, not infrequently there is some variation such that what should be \*/i/ is instead \*/ē/ (e.g., גליתִי) and vice versa, what should be \*/ē/ is instead \*/i/ (ונגליתִינו and also \*banaytu > \*banītī > בניתִי “I built”).

Triphthongs also contract in a regular manner within verbs with object suffixes. In these cases, nothing remains of the third root consonant.

- ♦ \*ra’ayam > \*rā’ām > רָאָם “he saw them” (Gen 32:3)
- ♦ \*ra’ayūka > \*rā’ūkā > רָאוּךָ “they saw you” (Ps 77:17)
- ♦ \*ya’niyuka > \*ya’nēka > \*ya’neka > \*ya’naka > יַעֲנֶךָ “he will answer you” (1 Sam 20:10)<sup>100</sup>

In addition to reflecting various contractions, III-*vav/yod* roots also exhibit other peculiar characteristics. First, note that the final *yod* of the

99. If the *piel* base is, instead \*qattal, then the /ē/ would be expected and the /i/ would not.

100. Note the pausal form יִרְבֶּךָ “may he multiply you” Gen 28:3.



regular *yiqtol* is preserved in rare cases (e.g., יִשְׁלֹוּ “they will be at ease” Job 12:6 [*qal* שִׁלָּה]; and יֵאָתִיּוּ “they will come” Job 16:22 [*qal* אָתָה]). This also happens with the paragogic *nun* (e.g., יִבְכְּיוּן “they will weep” Isa 33:7 [*qal* בָּכָה]; and תִּזְגִּיּוּן “you will torment” Job 19:2 [*hiphil* יָגַה]).

The third feminine singular *qāṭal* seems to have ended with a *tav* in the early part of the first millennium BCE (e.g., הִיִּת [= *hayāt* ? < \**hayiyat*] “it was” Siloam Tunnel Inscription, l. 3). Such forms are occasionally found in the MT, too (e.g., וְעָשָׂתָּ “and it will make” Lev 25:21; וְהִיִּתָּ [ketiv] “and it will be” 2 Kgs 9:37; וְהִרְצָתָּ “it will enjoy” Lev 26:34).<sup>101</sup> But, by the latter part of the first millennium BCE, the third feminine singular contained two feminine morphemes: a *tav* and a final \*/ā/, גָּלְתָּהּ “she revealed.”

The third common plural *qal qāṭal* is exemplified by גָּלוּ “they revealed”; the only difference from the third common plural of a II-*vav/yod* root is the accent on the first syllable in the II-*vav/yod* form: קָמוּ “they arose.” In other conjugations the ending on III-*vav/yod* roots is the same, but there is less confusion with other forms: נִגְלוּ “they were revealed”; הִגְלוּ “they exiled.”

As with II-*vav/yod* roots, there is a distinction between *yiqtol* and short-*yiqtol* (= *wayyiqtol*) forms among III-*vav/yod* roots. The short-*yiqtol*, as described above, began as the PS jussive/preterite and, in the singular, lacked a final vowel. In the case of III-*vav/yod* roots, this means that the preterite would have ended with a *vav* or *yod* (e.g., \**yagluw* and \**yabniy*). In these cases, the sequence of a vowel followed by word-final semivowel eventually was lost, leaving a single syllable consisting of the prefix followed by the first and second root consonants (\**yagl* > \**yigl* and \**yabn* > \**yibn*). In THT, such forms are often realized with a *hireq* in the prefix and an epenthetic vowel between first and second root consonants (e.g., a *segol*: יִגְלֵ “let him reveal” and יִבְנֵ “let him build”). The same form appears in the *wayyiqtol* וַיִּגְלֵ “he revealed” and וַיִּבְנֵ “he built”).<sup>102</sup> These short-*yiqtol* forms contrast with the longer regular *yiqtol* יִגְלֶה “he will

101. Note also הִלָּאָתָּ “it wearies” Ezek 24:12.

102. The cases where no epenthetic vowel is written in THT are also cases where the first root consonant is of a greater sonority than the second and pronouncing them without an epenthetic vowel is comparatively easy (e.g., וַיִּשְׁתֵּ “he drank” Gen 9:21). See the short summary in Lutz Edzard, “Phonology, Optimality Theory: Biblical Hebrew,” *EHL* 3:134–38. In either case, these short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms of III-*vav/yod* roots are considered monosyllabic at the phonological level (see Khan, “Shewa,” 3:544; Khan, “Syllable Structure,” 3:666, 669).

reveal” and יִבְנֶה “he will build.” As explained above, the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* with a suffixal morpheme or pronoun appear the same as the *yiqtol*. Thus, a form like יִגְלוֹ can be, on formal grounds, either a *yiqtol* or short-*yiqtol*. Historically, they would have been distinguished through a (paragogic) *nun* at the end of the *yiqtol* form.

Distinct short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms appear in all the conjugations. Since the endings are often lost, one must rely on the initial sequence of vowels to identify the conjugation.

### *qal*

רַב־	“let it be many” (Gen 1:22)
וַרַב־	“it was numerous” (Gen 43:34)

יַעַל־	“let him go up” (Gen 44:33)
וַיַּעַל־	“he went up” (Gen 13:1)

יְהִי־	“let it be” (Gen 1:3)
וַיְהִי־	“it was” (passim)

### *piel*

יִצַּו־	“may he command” (Deut 28:8)
וַיִּצַּו־	“he commanded” (passim)

### *hiphil*

תִּרְב־	“may you increase” (Ps 71:21)
וַיִּרְב־	“he increased” (2 Sam 18:8)

וַיִּשְׁק־	“he supplied drink” (Ps 78:15)
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יַעַל־	“let him offer up” (2 Sam 24:22)
וַיַּעַל־	“he offered up” (Gen 8:20)

תִּרְב־	“may you increase” (Ps 71:21)
וַיִּרְב־	“he multiplied” (Lam 2:5)

### *hithpael*

תִּתְחַר־	“do [not] be angry” (Ps 37:7)
וַיִּתְכַס־	“he covered himself” (2 Kgs 19:1)

*niphal*

- יִרְא      “let it appear” (Lev 9:6)  
וַיֵּרֶא    “he appeared” (Gen 18:1)

Note, in particular, that the *qal* will usually reflect /i/ in the prefix (but also /e/, /a/, and \*/ə/), while the *hiphil* will usually reflect /a/ (rarely /ε/). In most of these cases the vowel sequence is similar to that of segolate nouns. The same even applies to the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* of הִיה “to be” and חִיה “to live” (compare יְהִי “let it be” Gen 1:3 with בָּכִי “weeping”).

Some verbs are particularly difficult to recognize. The combination of a *nun* as first root consonant and *vav/yod* as third consonant result in short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms that attest just one root consonant. For example, the *qal* of נָטָה appears as תַּט “do (not) stretch” (Prov 4:5) and וַיִּט “he stretched” (Gen 12:8); the *hiphil* appears as תַּט “do (not) stretch” (Ps 141:4) and וַיִּט “he stretched” (Ezra 9:9). The root נָכָה appears in the *hiphil*: יֵךְ “it will strike” (Hos 14:6) and וַיֵּךְ “it struck” (Exod 9:25). With suffixes, the *dagesh* is present, hinting at the missing *nun*: יִכּוּ “it will strike them” (Isa 49:10).

Those roots which are both I-*vav/yod* and III-*vav/yod* are also difficult to recognize in the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms. In the *hiphil*, the initial \*/ō/ of the prefix is not always marked by a *mater* (e.g., וַיִּיר “he shot” 2 Kgs 13:17; וַיִּירֶם “he shot them” Ps 64:8; וַיִּירוּ “they were shooting” 2 Sam 11:20 [*hiphil* יִירָה]).

As with other verb types, the vowels of the *yiqtol* stem usually allow one to predict the vowels of the imperative and infinitive construct. For III-*vav/yod* roots, the imperative masculine singular is distinct from the *yiqtol* stem only in the length of the vowel. The *yiqtol* reflects \*/e/ and the imperative \*/ē/: \*tīgē > תִּגְלֶה versus \*gālē > גִּלֶּה “reveal!”<sup>103</sup> However, in many cases, the vowels of the imperative masculine singular match the vowels of the short-*yiqtol* (and *wayyiqtol*).<sup>104</sup> Note, for example, the shortened forms of the imperative.

103. The same distinction is also implied in the Secunda ερε (יִרְאֶה Ps 49:10) vs. αη (הִיֶּה Ps 30:11) (see Brønno, *Studien*, 25, 47). Note also in other conjugations: יִקְנֶה “he will await” (Mal 5:6) vs. קָנָה “await” (Ps 27:14); תִּטָּע “you will extend” (Prov 2:2) vs. הִטָּע “extend” (Ps 33:3); יִרְאֶה “it will be seen” (Gen 22:14) vs. הִרְאֶה “be seen” 1 Kgs 18:1)

104. In the *hiphil* impv. masc. sing. one also sees this in the strong root: e.g., הִרְכֵּב “mount!” (2 Kgs 13:16) and וַיִּרְכֵּב “he made [him] mount” (Gen 41:43).

חל	“appease!” (1 Kgs 13:6 [ <i>piel</i> חלה])
ויחל	“he entreated” (2 Kgs 13:4)
צו	“command!” (Lev 6:2 [ <i>piel</i> צוה])
ויצו	“he commanded” (Gen 2:16)
העל	“bring up!” (Exod 8:1 [ <i>hiphil</i> עלה])
יעל	“let him bring up” (2 Sam 24:22)
הך	“strike!” (Exod 8:12 [ <i>hiphil</i> נכה])
יך	“let him strike” (Hos 14:5)
הרף	“leave (us) alone!” (1 Sam 11:13 [ <i>hiphil</i> רפה])
תרף	“do [not] let go” (Josh 10:6).

The infinitive construct, however, shows a clear distinction from the *yiqtol*. The *qal* infinitive construct of III-*vav/yod* roots reflects the sequence of vowels found with the strong root (e.g., \**a-ō*; cf. שָׁמַר), though with an extra final /t/: גָּלוּת “exiling,” the result of which is that the infinitives construct look at first glance like feminine plural nouns.<sup>105</sup> The same ending also appears in all the derived conjugations (e.g., הַגָּלוּת “to exile”). The infinitive absolute often reflects the vowel sequence associated with the strong root. Thus, the *qal* reflects the sequence \**ā-ō* (but with a *he mater*), גָּלָה “reveal” (cf. שָׁמֹר “guard”), but the *hiphil* the sequence \**a-ē*, הִכָּה “strike” and הִרְבָּה “many” (cf. הִשְׁלִךְ “throw”). The participles in all conjugations end like other etymological III-*vav/yod* nouns.

### 5.17. Weak Roots: Geminate

Verbs from geminate roots are the most complex of the root types. In part, this is due to the fact that they reflect different patterns of assimilation. As in the strong root, the geminates reflect two basic paradigms, associated with active and stative verbs. Verbs with an active sense often exhibit a *qal qāṭal* form that is analogous to the strong root in the third-person (e.g.,

105. Recall that *qal* inf. cons. from weak roots often bear a feminine morphological feature, usually a final *tav* (שָׁכַת “dwelling”), but also sometimes a final *-ā* (e.g., יִרְאָה “fearing”).

סָבַב “he went around” and סָבְבוּ “they went around”), but a form closer to II-*vav/yod* roots in the second- and first-person forms (e.g., סָבֹוֹתִי “I went around”; cf. קָמָתִי “I arose” [*qal* קוּם] and הִקְמַתִּי “I established” [*hiphil* הָקֵם]).<sup>106</sup> Notice the \*/ō/ (< \*/ā/) linking vowel between stem and suffix.

The stative verbs in the *qal qāṭal* seem more consistent and most often do not exhibit forms based on the strong root. Instead, these verb forms look like adjectives from geminate roots (e.g., רָע “it [ms] is evil” vs. רָע “evil”; רָעָה “it [fs] is evil” vs. רָעָה “evil”; רַבָּה “it [fs] is many” vs. רַבָּה “many”). The form of the third common plural *qāṭal* exhibits the same /a/ vowel and gemination (e.g., רָעוּ [< \*rā’ū < \*ra’ū] “they are evil” and רַבּוּ “they are many”). Second- and first-person forms are analogous to the active verbs, with gemination and the \*/ō/ (< \*/ā/) linking vowel (e.g., קָלוֹתִי “I am small”).

The *qal yiqṭol* also exhibits separate patterns based on the active/stative dichotomy, with the /u/ theme vowel associated with active verbs and /a/ with stative verbs. In addition, the *yiqṭol* attests two alternative forms. (This means that there are essentially two patterns for the active *yiqṭol* and two for the stative.) Most often, the geminate consonants in the *yiqṭol* appear in Hebrew without a vowel separating them.

- ♦ \**yasubbūna* > \**yāsobbū* (> יָסְבוּ) “they will go around” (Job 16:13)
- ♦ \**yīḥammūna* > \**yēḥammū* (> יִחָמוּ) “they will be hot” (Hos 7:7)<sup>107</sup>

In the singular, the doubling of the second and third root consonants is lost due to the lack of a final vowel (similar to how there is no gemination in singular nouns like עַם [< \*‘amm] “people”): \**yasubbu* > \**yasobb* > \**yāsob* (> יָסַב) “he will go around” (1 Kgs 7:15) and \**yīḥammu* > \**yīḥamm* > \**yēḥam* יָחַם “he will be hot” (Deut 19:6).<sup>108</sup> This is often characterized as the “true” Hebrew manner of inflecting geminate roots.

Somewhat less frequently in these verbs, the theme vowel separates the two geminate consonants and the first of these (i.e., the second root consonant) assimilates backwards into the first root consonant. The vowel

106. There are numerous exceptions, where, e.g., the 3cp exhibits a geminated consonant: יָדוּ “they threw” (Joel 4:3); שָׁחוּ “they bowed down” (Hab 3:6).

107. In pause, the stative pattern appears as יִקְלוּ “they will be light” (1 Sam 2:30). Note also the form with suffixes: \**yasubbanhū* > \**yasubbennū* (> יִסְבְּנוּ) “it will go around it” (Jer 52:21).

108. Note also the form יַרַע “he will do evil” (2 Sam 20:6).

of the prefix is expressed as /i/ in the closed, unaccented syllable. This is often referred to as an Aramaic-like inflection (since this is the characteristic inflection of geminate roots in Aramaic), but the resulting verbal forms appear in Hebrew like I-*nun* roots.

- ♦ *\*yasbubu* > *\*yassub* > *\*yissob* (> יָסַב) “he will go around” (2 Sam 14:24)
- ♦ *\*yihmamu* > *\*yihham* (> יָחַם) “it will be warm” (1 Kgs 1:1)<sup>109</sup>
- ♦ *\*yadmumūna* > *\*yaddumū* > *\*yddamū* (> יָדְמוּ) “they will be silent” (Ps 31:18)
- ♦ *\*(way)yitmamū* > *\*(way)yittamū* > *\*(way)yittamū* (> יָיָתְמוּ) “they were complete” (Deut 34:8)<sup>110</sup>

Notice that where a *dagesh* appears in these forms, it does not reflect the assimilation of a preceding *nun* but the backward assimilation of the second root consonant (identical to that of the last root consonant).

The student of Hebrew will perhaps not find it surprising that some forms in the MT evidence mixing of these two basic types, where one too many consonants has been doubled: תִּדְמִי “you will be silent” (Jer 48:2) and יָיָתְמוּ “they will be complete” (Jer 44:12). In these cases, it seems possible that some confusion with the *niphal* paradigm has taken place (cf. יָסְבוּ “they went around” Ezek 1:12 [*niph.* סָבַב]).

In THT, the *qal* short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms are sometimes accented on their prefix if the form lacks any suffixal morpheme or pronoun (e.g., וַיָּסֶב “he went around” Judg 11:18; וַיָּמַד “he measured” Ezek 40:8; וַיֵּצֵר “it was distressing” Gen 32:8; וַיֵּצֵר “it was distressing” Job 20:22; וַיִּרְדֵּי “he subdued” Isa 41:2). However, the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* are often identical to the *yiqtol*, especially with stative verbs (e.g., וַתִּקַּל “she

109. Note also *\*yadmumu* > *\*yaddum* > *\*yddom* (> יָדָם) “he will be silent” (Amos 5:13) and *\*yimlalu* > *\*yimmal* (> יָמַל) “it will wither” (Job 18:16).

110. Note also the *wayyiqtol* form, וַיִּקְדּוּ “they bowed down” (Exod 4:31) and the pausal form: *\*yimlalū* > *\*yimmalū* (> יָמְלוּ) “they will wither” (Job 24:24). There are still other forms, more difficult to explain: תִּזְלִי “you act gluttonously” (Jer 2:36) and תִּצְרִי “you will be limited” (Isa 49:19); יִרְעוּ “they will be evil” (Neh 2:3). Usually, the different manners of inflecting these roots do not imply different senses, though in סָבַב there does seem to be some consistency between form and meaning, with the Hebrew type of inflection being used in an active transitive sense and the Aramaic-like inflection being used in a reflexive sense (see Joüon §82h).

treated lightly” Gen 16:4) and those forms that have an Aramaic-like (or I-*nun*-like) form (e.g., וַיִּסָּב “he turned away” Gen 42:24).

The imperative has the stem vowel of the *yiqtol* form and usually exhibits a doubling of the second and third consonants like that of the “true” Hebrew pattern of the *yiqtol* (e.g., סָב and סָבוּ). The infinitive construct attests an \*/ō/ vowel (e.g., סֵב) even in stative verbs (e.g., הָם).

The non-*qal* conjugations exhibit different reflexes with respect to geminate roots. Geminate roots are entirely regular in the *piel* (e.g., חָלַלְתִּי “I profaned” Isa 47:6). In the *hiphil qāṭal* third masculine singular, geminate roots exhibit no gemination (e.g., חָלַל “he began”), though gemination does reemerge in the third feminine singular and third common plural forms, where one finds penultimate stress (e.g., חָלְלָה “she began” and חָלְלוּ “they began”). In the second- and first-person forms, the linking vowel \*/ō/ (< \*/ā/) is also attested (e.g., הִסְבַּתָּ “you turned around”), as with II-*vav/yod* roots (e.g., הִקְמַתִּי “I established”). Here again, the vowel of the prefix reduces.

The *hiphil yiqtol* again exhibits two basic patterns, one associated with Hebrew morphology, where the two geminate consonants are not separated and the other associated with Aramaic, where a vowel separates the two geminate consonants, the first one assimilating backward into the first root consonant.

- ♦ \**yaḥillu* > \**yaḥell* > \**yāḥel* (> יַחֵל) “he will begin” (Judg 13:5) (*hiphil* חָלַל)
- ♦ \**taḥillūna* > \**taḥillū* > \**tāḥellū* (> תַּחֲלוּ) “you will begin” (Ezek 9:6) (*hiphil* חָלַל)

versus

- ♦ \**tatmimu* > \**tattem* (> תַּתֵּם) “you will make blameless” (Job 22:3) (*hiphil* תָּמַם)

The *wayyiqtol* forms are sometimes accented on the prefix in THT (e.g., וַיִּחַל “he began” Gen 9:20), though this does not happen with forms that attest the gemination pattern typical of Aramaic (e.g., וַיִּסָּב “he made go around” Josh 6:11). The imperative (ms) and infinitive construct are identical in THT (e.g., הִסָּב), differing in Second Temple times just in the vowel of the last syllable (/e/ for the imperative and /ē/ for the infinitive construct). The participle exhibits the vowels associated with the *qāṭal* (e.g., מַסֵּב “one making go around” Jer 21:4), in a manner similar to that

of II-*vav/yod* roots in the *hiphil* (e.g., מִבִּין “one who understands” [*hiphil* (בִּין)]).<sup>111</sup>

The *niphal* of geminate roots shows diverse vowel patterns, in part influenced by the vowels of other verb forms. Most commonly, the *qāṭal* third-person form reflects the sequence of \**ā-a*, as in נָסַב “it changes direction” (Josh 16:6) and וְנָסְבוּ “they will be turned over” (Jer 6:12).<sup>112</sup> However, note how the *niphal* of מָסַס only sometimes appears with the expected sequence of vowels (e.g., נָמָס “it melted” Exod 16:21 [in pause]); elsewhere, it also appears as though it were a *qal* stative verb from the root מָסַס, as with נָמַס “it melts” (Ps 22:15). More dramatic (and confusing) are those cases where the geminate verb is inflected as though it were from another existing Hebrew root, as with וְנִחְלוּ “they will be profaned” [חָלַל] (Ezek 7:24) vs. the *piel* נִחְלוּ “they distributed” [נָחַל] (Josh 19:51).<sup>113</sup> In other cases, the *niphal* of geminate roots follows the vowel sequence of the II-*vav/yod* roots, as with נָזְלוּ “they shook” (Isa 64:3); נִבְּזוּ “they will be ransacked” (Amos 3:11); נִגְזְזוּ “they will be cut off” (Nah 1:12); and וְנִרְץ “it will be crushed” (Qoh 12:6).<sup>114</sup>

In the *niphal yiqṭol* and related forms, the vowels of the prefix and stem are typically \**i-a* (e.g., יִגַּל “let it roll” Amos 5:24; יִסְבּוּ “they turn around” Ezek 1:9).<sup>115</sup> As is common with other roots, an initial guttural root consonant will trigger compensatory lengthening, such that the \*/i/ becomes \*/ē/, as with יִחַת “he will be in awe” (Isa 30:31) and יִחַתּוּ “they will be in awe” (1 Sam 2:10). Rarely, the vowel of the stem will be /o/, following the pattern of II-*vav/yod* roots (e.g., תִּבְּזוּ “she will be plundered” Isa 24:3 [בָּזַז]).

111. Again, we presume /e/ for the final syllable of the *qāṭal* and /ē/ for the participle.

112. Second- and first-person forms are much less frequent, but usually attest an \*/ō/ linking vowel, as in the other conjugations.

113. Both roots presumably reflect /ḥ/. Note also נִחַת “he was in awe of” (Mal 2:5) [*niphal* וַחַתָּה] vs. נָחַת “he bent” (in 2 Sam 22:35) [*piel* of נָחַת].

114. Here, there is sometimes some similarity with other roots. Note, e.g., נָזַל “they dripped” (Judg 5:5) [*qal* of נָזַל]; and גָּזַי “[you] cut me” (Ps 71:6) (*qal* ptc. גִּזְה). Although בָּזַז “to despise” does not occur in the *niphal*, as a *qāṭal* 3cp it would be נִבְּזוּ\* “they were despised”; similarly, רָצָה “to delight” occurs in the *niphal qāṭal* only in the 3ms, but the 3cp would be נִרְצוּ\*.

115. In יִסְבּוּ, the *dagesh* in the *samek* derives from the *nun* prefix of the *niphal* and the *dagesh* in the *bet* derives from the geminated consonants of the root. Contrast with the *qal* יִסְבּוּ, described above, where the *dagesh* in the *bet* is perhaps just due to confusion with the *niphal* paradigm.



Like II-*vav/yod* roots, geminate roots sometimes appear in the *polel* (מְקַשֵּׁשׁ “one gathering” Num 15:32) and *hithpolel* (in a reflexive sense: הִתְקוֹשְׁשׁוּ “gather yourself” Zeph 2:11). However, unlike the II-*vav/yod* roots, geminate roots frequently appear in the *piel* (especially with roots ending with *lamedh*, like הָלַל “to praise,” חָלַל “to profane,” and פָּלַל “to pray”) and the *hithpael* (וַיִּתְפַּלֵּל “he prayed” Num 21:7). These conjugations are extremely regular and the vowels often change little in the inflection.

### 5.18. Aramaic and Aramaic-Like Forms

As was the case for nouns, certain verbal forms seem to derive from Aramaic or, at the least, appear like corresponding Aramaic forms. We have just mentioned the cases of geminate verbs that seem to exhibit patterns more commonly found with Aramaic verbs. In addition, there are a limited number of *qāṭal* second feminine singular forms with final *yod* (e.g., the *ketiv* of וַיִּרְדְּתִי “you will go down” Ruth 3:3). These match what we would expect in Aramaic. Furthermore, various historical features of BH are shared with Aramaic. For example, the rare third feminine singular *qāṭal* forms of III-*vav/yod* roots that end with final *tav* (e.g., וַיַּעֲשֶׂת “and it will make” Lev 25:21) are presumably typical of First Temple era Hebrew, but are also typical of Aramaic. Note also that the paragogic *nun*, which appears on second feminine singular, and third and second masculine plural *yiqṭol* verbs in BH, is commonly found on nonjussive forms in Aramaic.

### 5.19. Chapter Summary

#### Historical Details

1. The *qāṭal* form of the verb derives from a verbal adjective to which suffixes were attached. This helps explain the similarity in form between stative *qāṭal* verbs, participles, and adjectives (e.g., זָקֵן “he is old” and “elder”; מֵת “he is dead” and “dead one”).
2. The short-*yiqṭol* and *wayyiqṭol* derive from a preterite/jussive form (e.g., \**yaqtul*). In weak roots, the stem of short-*yiqṭol* and *wayyiqṭol* verbs are often shorter (graphically and phonetically) than the regular *yiqṭol* (e.g., יָעַשׂ and וַיַּעֲשֶׂ vs. וַיַּעֲשֶׂה).
3. The regular *yiqṭol* is also derived from the preterite/jussive form \**yaqtul* plus a final /u/ vowel (which marked the verb of a subordinate clause in PS): \**yaqtulu*.

4. The initial vowel of the *hiphil qāṭal* likely originated as /a/, as did that of the *niphal*. This is based, in part, on the resolved diphthongs in I-vav/yod roots (הוֹשִׁיעַ [< \*hawši'a]; הִיטִיב [< \*hayṭiba]; נִוֹדַע [< \*nawda'a]).

### Learning Tips

1. The verb forms with object suffixes tend to reflect vowel tendencies typical of the noun and adjective. The *qal qāṭal* plus object suffix often exhibits the sequence of stem vowels \*ā-ā (*shewa-qamets*) in the third-person and \*ā-a (*shewa-patakh*) for second- and first-person forms.
2. The third masculine singular *qāṭal* plus object suffix uses an /a/-class linking vowel between the verbal stem and the suffix, while the imperative (like the *yiqṭol*) exhibits an /i/-class linking vowel.
3. In all conjugations with an /a/-class vowel in the stem (i.e., the *niphal*, *pual*, *hophal*), the participle exhibits \*/ā/ (*qamets*) but \*/a/ (*patakh*) in the *qāṭal*. This can be used to distinguish the *niphal qāṭal* from the *niphal* participle.
4. The *yiqṭol*, short-*yiqṭol*, *wayyiqṭol*, imperative, and infinitive construct (and sometimes inf. abs. and ptc.) usually share a similar if not identical vowel pattern, finite forms usually exhibiting a final short stem vowel and nonfinite forms a long vowel.
5. Vowel sequences are useful in distinguishing between different conjugations (more so than other features like the doubling of the middle consonant of the *piel* or the initial *he* of the *hiphil qāṭal*).
  - 5.1. The third-person *qāṭal* forms of both the *piel* and *hiphil* exhibit the sequence of two /i/-class vowels (*piel*: \*i-e [> *hireq-tsere*]; *hiphil*: \*i-ī [> *hireq-hireq<sup>yod</sup>*]).
  - 5.2. Second- and first-person *qāṭal* forms (for strong roots) almost universally contain short /a/ as the last stem vowel.
  - 5.3. The vowel sequences characteristic of the *yiqṭol*, short-*yiqṭol*, *wayyiqṭol*, imperative, and infinitive construct in the derived conjugations are the following.
    - 5.3.1. *piel*: \*a-e or \*a-ē (> *patakh-tsere*)
    - 5.3.2. *hiphil*: \*a-ī (> *patakh-hireq<sup>yod</sup>*); the short-*yiqṭol*, *wayyiqṭol*, and imperative have instead \*a-e (> *patakh-tsere*), without suffixed morpheme or pronoun.
    - 5.3.3. *niphal*: \*i-ā-e or \*i-ā-ē (> *hireq-qamets-tsere*)

6. The *pual* (\**u-a*), *hophal* (\**o-a*), *hithpael* (\**i-a-e*[/ē]), *polel* (\**o-e*[/ē]), *pilpel* (\**i-e*[/ē]), and related conjugations exhibit the vowel sequence implied in their names in every verbal form (*qāṭal*, *yiqṭol*, ptc., etc.), except where pretonic vowels reduce.
7. Weak roots containing a *vav/yod* usually exhibit in THT a form of the short-*yiqṭol* and *yiqṭol* that is accented on the prefix and that has a short vowel in the stem.
8. Mnemonic Aids
  - 8.1. *qal* I-*vav/yod*
    - 8.1.1. *yiqṭol*: “as one has come, so one will go (יָלַךְ [from הָלַךְ])” Qoh 5:15
    - 8.1.2. *yiqṭol*: “the meek will inherit (יִירָשׁוּ) the earth” Ps 37:11
    - 8.1.3. infinitive construct: “teach them to your children, speak them when you dwell (שִׁבְתֶּךָ) in your house” Deut 6:7
  - 8.2. *qal* II-*vav/yod*
    - 8.2.1. *waqāṭal*: “set (וְשַׁמְתָּם) these, my words on your heart” Deut 11:18
    - 8.2.2. imperative (fs): “rise and shine (קוּמִי אוֹרִי)” Isa 60:1
    - 8.2.3. *wayyiqṭol*: “Joab put (וַיִּשֶׁם) the words into her mouth” 2 Sam 14:3
  - 8.3. III-*vav/yod*
    - 8.3.1. *qal waqāṭal*: “the anger of the Lord will burn (וַחַרָּה) against you” Deut 11:17
    - 8.3.2. *qal* short-*yiqṭol*: “let there be light (יְהִי אוֹר)” Gen 1:3
    - 8.3.3. *qal* cohortative: “let us make (נַעֲשֶׂה) humans in our image” Gen 1:26
    - 8.3.4. *qal yiqṭol*: “the race does not go to the swift ... but time and chance occur (יִקְרָה) to all of them” Qoh 9:11
    - 8.3.5. *piel qāṭal*: “I await (קָוִיתִי) your salvation” Gen 49:18
    - 8.3.6. *piel* participle + suffix: “These words that I am commanding you (מְצַוִּי) today must be kept over your heart” Deut 6:6
    - 8.3.7. *hophal* and *pual* participles: “Surely our sicknesses he lifts and our pains, he carries them. We consider him stricken, struck (מְבִיָּה) by God, and afflicted (מְעַנֶּה)” Isa 53:4.



## 6

### Charts of Nouns and Verbs

It is sometimes difficult for a student to grasp the principles of the morphological system by being given just a few examples in the paragraphs of a grammar. The following charts, therefore, are provided in order for the student to see for him/herself the inflection of different common Biblical Hebrew nouns and verbs.<sup>1</sup> I spell and vocalize words as they occur in the MT, even if this means that a given form does not exactly match what we might expect. It will be immediately obvious that not all the forms are attested and those that are not are marked with an asterisk (\*). The vocalization of these unattested forms is made possible first by analogy to other words from the same base with the same vowels and, if these are absent, by analogy to other words from the same base with different vowels. The words used to help pinpoint a particular vocalization are often, but not always, supplied in the footnotes. With certain suffixes I have neglected to offer reconstructions given the absence of adequate data. If a form is attested in its pausal form, I present it in its contextual form in the tables. In some cases, a word is chosen due to its convenience (e.g., because it has both a singular and plural form or because it is clearly related to another noun that is listed), even though it is not well attested with suffixes. The spelling is generally plene in the charts (except in the geminate verbs), though I do write forms defective if they are only attested in this way. The reconstructed historical forms of the nouns are not cited with the final short vowels marking case, but the reconstructed historical forms of verbs are cited with their final short vowels.

Because most elementary grammars include charts of the verbs according to their root type and conjugation, I have not included a com-

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1. Much of the following is informed by Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns”; Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*; and *HGhS*.

prehensive set of similar charts here. Instead, many of the verbal charts below juxtapose paradigms of different verbs in order to highlight commonalities and distinctions between them. Due to the predictable nature of verbal inflection, verbal forms that are unattested can be reconstructed with some confidence based on the expectations of the paradigm. Where there are uncertainties, I have indicated specific parallels in the footnotes. Especially in the case of geminate verbs I have listed specific passages where the verb forms are found. In cases of inadequate data, I have not reconstructed anything.

I have listed forms of the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* together, separate from the *yiqtol*, if the the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* have similar forms and are distinct from those of the regular *yiqtol*. Since the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* forms of the second-person feminine singular, third-person masculine/feminine plural, and second-person masculine/feminine plural are identical to the regular *yiqtol*, they are never listed separately. If a given verb occurs in the short-*yiqtol* in a form distinct from the *wayyiqtol*, then the two forms are listed separately.

Table 6.1. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 1<sup>2</sup>

	<i>*qal</i> sg./pl. “blood”		<i>*qalat</i> sg./pl. “year”		<i>*qalt</i> sg./du./pl. “door”		
	<i>*dam</i> / <i>*damīm</i>		<i>*šanat</i> / <i>*šanīm</i> and <i>*šanāt</i>		<i>*dalt</i> / <i>*dalataym</i> / <i>*dalatāt</i> <sup>3</sup>		
abs.	דָּם	דָּמִים	שָׁנָה	שָׁנִים	דֶּלֶת	דֶּלֶתַיִם	דֶּלֶתוֹת
const.	דָּם	דָּמִי	שָׁנָת	שָׁנִי / שָׁנוֹת	דֶּלֶת*	דֶּלֶתִי	דֶּלֶתוֹת
+1cs	דָּמִי	דָּמִי*	שָׁנָתִי*	שָׁנוֹתִי	דֶּלֶתִי*	דֶּלֶתִי	דֶּלֶתוֹתִי
+2ms	דָּמְךָ	דָּמֶיךָ	שָׁנָתְךָ*	שָׁנוֹתֶיךָ	דֶּלֶתְךָ*	דֶּלֶתְךָ	דֶּלֶתוֹתְךָ*
+2fs	דָּמְךָ	דָּמֶיךָ	שָׁנָתְךָ*	שָׁנוֹתֶיךָ	דֶּלֶתְךָ*	דֶּלֶתְךָ	דֶּלֶתוֹתְךָ*

2. The chart is supplemented by the following forms: שְׁדֵי “my breasts”; אֲמָתִי “my handmaiden”; אֲמָתְךָ “your handmaiden”; שְׁפָתָם “their tongue”; קֶשֶׁת “bow of”; קֶשֶׁתִּי “my bow”; קֶשֶׁתְךָ “your bow”; קֶשֶׁתוֹ “his bow”; קֶשֶׁתָם “their bow.”

3. The word דֶּלֶת is like other *\*qal* words ending in a feminine *tav* morpheme. That is, when these words are pluralized, the feminine *tav* morpheme is treated as though it were part of the root. Note, e.g., וּקְשָׁתוֹת (Isa 13:18, *passim*); וּקְשָׁתֶיךָ (Isa 5:28, and other forms *passim*). See HGHs, 610t for other examples.

+3ms	דְּמוּ	דְּמִיּוֹ	שְׁנָתוֹ	שְׁנוּתָיו	דְּלָתוֹ*	דְּלָתָיו*	דְּלִיתוֹתָיו
+3fs	דְּמָהּ	דְּמִיָּהּ	שְׁנָתָהּ	שְׁנוּתֶיהָ*	דְּלָתָהּ*	דְּלָתֶיהָ*	דְּלִיתוֹתֶיהָ*
+1cp	דְּמָנוּ*	דְּמִינוּ*	שְׁנָתָנוּ*	שְׁנוּתֵינוּ	דְּלָתָנוּ*	דְּלָתֵינוּ*	דְּלִיתוֹתֵינוּ*
+2mp	דְּמַכֶּם	דְּמִיכֶם*	שְׁנָתְכֶם*	שְׁנוּתֵיכֶם*	דְּלָתְכֶם*	דְּלָתֵיכֶם*	דְּלִיתוֹתֵיכֶם*
+2fp	דְּמַכֶּן*	דְּמִיכֶן*	שְׁנָתְכֶן*	שְׁנוּתֵיכֶן*	דְּלָתְכֶן*	דְּלָתֵיכֶן*	דְּלִיתוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	דְּמָם	דְּמֵיהֶם	שְׁנָתָם*	שְׁנוּתָם	דְּלָתָם*	דְּלָתֵיהֶם*	דְּלִיתוֹתֵיהֶם*
+3fp	דְּמָן*	דְּמֵיהֶן*	שְׁנָתָן*	שְׁנוּתָן	דְּלָתָן*	דְּלָתֵיהֶן*	דְּלִיתוֹתֵיהֶן*

More Examples (see also table 6.2)

- ♦ \**qal*: דָּג “fish”; יָד “hand” (see below); שֶׁה “sheep” (< \**śay*);<sup>4</sup> שֶׁד “breast”
- ♦ \**qalat*: אִמָּה “handmaid” (pl. אִמָּהוֹת); and שֶׁפָּה “lip”
- ♦ \**qalāt*: אָחוֹת “sister”; and חֲמוֹת “husband’s mother-in-law”<sup>5</sup>
- ♦ \**qalt*: קֶשֶׁת “bow”; נַחַת “rest”; שַׁחַת “pit”<sup>6</sup>

Table 6.2. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 2<sup>7</sup>

	* <i>qal</i> sg./pl.		* <i>qalat</i> sg./pl.		* <i>qal</i> sg./du./pl.		
	“one who arises”		“one who arises”		“hand”		
	* <i>qam</i> /* <i>qamīm</i>		* <i>qamat</i> /* <i>qamāt</i>		* <i>yad</i> /* <i>yadaym</i> /* <i>yadāt</i>		
abs.	קָם*	קָמִים	קָמָה	קָמוֹת*	יָד	יָדִים	יָדוֹת
const.	קָם*	קָמִי*	קָמַת*	קָמוֹת*	יָד־	יָדִי־	יָדוֹת־
+1cs	—	קָמִי	קָמַתִּי*	קָמוֹתִי*	יָדִי	יָדִי	יָדוֹתִי*
+2ms	—	קָמִיךָ	קָמַתְךָ*	קָמוֹתְךָ*	יָדְךָ	יָדֶיךָ	יָדוֹתְךָ*

4. The forms of שֶׁה “sheep” are: const. sg. שֶׁה (Deut 14:4); + 3ms שִׁי (Deut 22:1) and שִׁיָּהּ (in 1 Sam 14:34).

5. The fem. familial terms: אָחוֹת “sister” and חֲמוֹת “husband’s mother-in-law” have an etymological -*āt* ending, which, in these cases, does not indicate plurality.

6. The last two examples derive from II-*vav/yod* roots; see Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 30.

7. The chart is supplemented by the following forms: עָב “cloud of” (const.); שָׁבִי “those returning of”; זָבַת “flowing with”; רָמַתְךָ “your height”; עָלוֹת “those suckling”; רָמוֹתֶיךָ “your heights.”

+2fs	—	קָמְיָךְ*	קָמְתָךְ*	קָמוֹתֶיךָ*	יָדְךָ	יָדֶיךָ	יָדוֹתֶיךָ*
+3ms	—	קָמִי	קָמְתוּ	קָמוֹתֵי	יָדוּ	יָדִיו	יָדוֹתָיו
+3fs	—	קָמְיָהּ*	קָמְתֶהּ*	קָמוֹתֶיהָ*	יָדֶהּ	יָדֶיהָ	יָדוֹתֶיהָ*
+1cp	—	קָמִינוּ	קָמְתֶנוּ*	קָמוֹתֵינוּ*	יָדָנוּ	יָדֵינוּ	יָדוֹתֵינוּ*
+2mp	—	קָמִיכֶם*	קָמְתֶכֶם*	קָמוֹתֵיכֶם*	יָדְכֶם	יָדֵיכֶם	יָדוֹתֵיכֶם*
+2fp	—	קָמִיכֶן*	קָמְתֶכֶן*	קָמוֹתֵיכֶן*	יָדְכֶן	יָדֵיכֶן*	יָדוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	—	קָמִיהֶם	קָמְתֵם*	קָמוֹתֵם*	יָדָם	יָדֵיהֶם	יָדוֹתֵם*
+3fp	—	קָמִיהֶן*	קָמְתֵן*	קָמוֹתֵן*	יָדָן*	יָדֵיהֶן	יָדוֹתֵן*

### More Examples

- ♦ *\*qal*: עָב “cloud”; *qal* participles of II-*vav/yod* roots (like בּוֹא “to enter”; גּוֹר “to sojourn”; זּוֹב “to flow”; סוֹר “to turn back”; עוֹל “to nurse”; שׁוֹב “to return”)
- ♦ *\*qalat*: רָמָה “height”

Table 6.3. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 3<sup>8</sup>

	<i>*qil</i> sg./pl. “tree” (עֵצָה?) <i>*‘iṣ/*‘iṣīm</i>		<i>*qilat</i> sg./pl. “counsel” (יֵעָץ) <i>*‘iṭat/*‘iṭāt</i>		<i>*qilt</i> sg. “dwelling” (יֵשֶׁב) <i>*tibṭ</i>
abs.	עֵץ	עֵצִים	עֵצָה	עֵצוֹת	יֵשֶׁבֶת
const.	עֵץ	עֵצִי	עֵצַת	—	יֵשֶׁבֶת
+1cs	עֵצִי*	עֵצִי*	עֵצָתִי	—	יֵשֶׁבֶתִי
+2ms	עֵצְךָ	עֵצֶיךָ	עֵצָתְךָ	—	יֵשֶׁבֶתְךָ
+2fs	עֵצְךָ*	עֵצֶיךָ	עֵצָתְךָ*	—	יֵשֶׁבֶתְךָ*
+3ms	עֵצוֹ	עֵצָיו	עֵצָתוֹ	—	יֵשֶׁבֶתוֹ

8. The chart is supplemented by the following forms: אֱלֹי “my God”; שְׁמִיכֶם “your name” (see table 6.4). The form of certain words is ambiguous. Words like רַעֲיָה (pausal רַעֲיָה) may be from רָעָה or רָעָה (from *\*ri‘ay*, i.e., the *\*qīṭal* base). Note the form רַעֲיָהֶם “their friends” (Jer 29:23; Ps 28:3).



+3fs	עָצָה	עָצִיה	עָצָתָה*	—	שְׁבִתָּה
+1cp	עָצָנוּ*	עָצִינוּ	עָצָתָנוּ*	—	שְׁבִתָּנוּ
+2mp	עָצְכֶם*	עָצִיכֶם*	עָצָתְכֶם*	—	שְׁבִתְכֶם
+2fp	עָצְכֶן*	עָצִיכֶן*	עָצָתְכֶן*	—	שְׁבִתְכֶן*
+3mp	עָצָם*	עָצִיהֶם*	עָצָתָם	—	שְׁבִתָּם
+3fp	עָצָן*	עָצִיהֶן*	עָצָתָן*	—	שְׁבִתָּן*

More Examples (see also tables 6.4–6.5)

- ♦ *\*qil*: אֱלֹ “god”; גֵּר “sojourner”; מֵת “dead one”; נֵר “lamp”
- ♦ *\*qilat*: חֲמָה (from יָחַם “rage”; מֵאָה “one hundred”; עֵדָה (from יָעַד “assembly”; עֵדָה (from עוֹד “witness”; פֶּאֶה “corner”
- ♦ *\*qilt*: גָּעַת (*qal* inf. const. נִגַּע “touching”; גָּשָׁת (*qal* inf. const. נִגַּשׁ “approaching”; יָדָעַת (*qal* inf. const. יָדַע “knowing”; טָעַת (*qal* inf. const. נִטַּע “planting”; יָצָא (*qal* inf. const. יָצָא “going out”; לָכַת (*qal* inf. const. הִלָּךְ “going”; עָת (*\*int* from עָנָה or *\*idt* from יָעַד) “time”; יָרַדַת (*qal* inf. const. יָרַד “going down”; רָשָׁת (*qal* inf. const. יָרַשׁ “inheriting”; שָׁבַת (*qal* inf. const. יָשַׁב “dwelling”; תָּת (< *\*tint*; *qal* inf. const. נָתַן “giving”<sup>9</sup>

Table 6.4. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 4

	<i>*qil</i> sg./pl. “son” <i>*bin/*banīm</i>		<i>*qil</i> sg./pl. “name” <i>*šim/*šimāt</i>		<i>*qul</i> pl. “man” <i>*mutīm</i>
abs.	בֵּן	בָּנִים	שֵׁם	שְׁמוֹת	מְתִים
const.	בֶּן/בִּן	בְּנֵי	שֵׁם/שָׁם	שְׁמוֹת	מְתֵי
+1cs	בְּנִי	בְּנִי	שְׁמִי	שְׁמוֹתִי*	מְתִי*
+2ms	בְּנֶךָ	בְּנֵיךָ	שְׁמֶךָ	שְׁמוֹתֶיךָ*	מְתֵיךָ*

9. The words עָת “time” (< *\*itt* < *\*int* or *\*idt*) and תָּת “giving” (< *\*titt* < *\*tint*) exhibit forms akin to the geminate *\*qill* nouns due to the assimilation of their third root consonant into the feminine *tav* morpheme (e.g., עָתָם and עָתוּ, תָּתָם and תָּתוּ). For עָת, the *tav* is taken as a root consonant in the plural forms (e.g., עָתִים and עָתוֹת), similar to the *tav* in *qalt* nouns like קָשָׁת “bow.”

+2fs	בְּנִיךָ	בְּנִיךָ	שְׁמֶךָ	*שְׁמוֹתֶיךָ	מְתִיךָ
+3ms	בְּנוֹ	בְּנוֹ	שְׁמוֹ	*שְׁמוֹתָיו	מְתִיו
+3fs	בְּנָהּ	בְּנָהּ	שְׁמָהּ	*שְׁמוֹתֶיהָ	*מְתֶיהָ
+1cp	בְּנִינוּ	בְּנִינוּ	שְׁמֵנוּ	*שְׁמוֹתֵינוּ	*מְתֵינוּ
+2mp	*בְּנֶכֶם	בְּנִיכֶם	שְׁמֶכֶם	*שְׁמוֹתֵיכֶם	*מְתֵיכֶם
+2fp	*בְּנֶכֶן	*בְּנִיכֶן	*שְׁמֶכֶן	*שְׁמוֹתֵיכֶן	*מְתֵיכֶן
+3mp	*בְּנֶם	בְּנֵיהֶם	שְׁמָם	שְׁמוֹתָם	*מְתֵיהֶם
+3fp	*בְּנֶן	בְּנֵיהֶן	*שְׁמָן	*שְׁמוֹתָן	*מְתֵיהֶן

### More Examples

- ♦ \**qul*: תֶּר/תֹּר “dove”

Table 6.5. Biconsonantal Bases with Short Vowel, Part 5<sup>10</sup>

	* <i>qil</i> sg./pl. “mouth” * <i>piy</i> /* <i>piyāt</i>		* <i>qil</i> sg./pl. “one dead” * <i>mit</i> /* <i>mitīm</i>		* <i>qil</i> sg./pl. “witness” * <i>‘id</i> /* <i>‘idīm</i>	
abs.	פֶּה	פִּי/פִּיּוֹת	מֵת	מֵתִים	עֵד	עֵדִים
const.	פִּי	—	מֵת	מֵתִי	עֵד	עֵדִי
+1cs	פִּי	—	מֵתִי	*מֵתִי	עֵדִי	עֵדִי
+2ms	פִּיךָ	—	מֵתְךָ	מֵתֶיךָ	*עֵדְךָ	עֵדֶיךָ
+2fs	פִּיךָ	—	*מֵתְךָ	*מֵתֶיךָ	*עֵדְךָ	*עֵדֶיךָ
+3ms	פִּיו/פִּיהוּ	—	מֵתוֹ	*מֵתָיו	*עֵדוֹ	*עֵדָיו
+3fs	פִּיהָ	—	*מֵתָהּ	*מֵתֶיהָ	*עֵדָהּ	*עֵדֶיהָ

10. The table is supplemented by the following forms: גֶּרְךָ “your stranger”; גֶּרִי “his stranger”; נֶרְהָ “her lamp.” On פֶּה and its classification, see Huehnergard, “Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 31 and references. Although שֶׁה “sheep” has a similar abs. sg. form, its const. sg. form (שֶׁה Deut 14:4) and form with suffixes (שֶׁיוֹ Deut 22:1 and שֶׁיהוּ in 1 Sam 14:34) suggests it is of the \**qal* base. In addition, although the abs. and const. sg. form of words like אֵי “coastland” look like the const. sg. of פֶּה, nouns like אֵי are classified with the \**qill* base, as their pl. forms imply (e.g., אֵיִם).

+1cp	פִּינוּ	—	מִתְּנוּ*	מִתְּינוּ*	עֲדָנוּ*	עֲדִינוּ*
+2mp	פִּיכֶם	—	—	מִתִּיכֶם*	—	עֲדִיכֶם*
+2fp	פִּיכֶן*	—	—	מִתִּיכֶן*	—	עֲדִיכֶן*
+3mp	פִּיהֶם <sup>11</sup>	—	מִתָּם*	מִתִּיהֶם*	עֲדָם*	עֲדִיהֶם
+3fp	פִּיהֶן*	—	מִתָּן*	מִתִּיהֶן*	עֲדָן*	עֲדִיהֶן*

Table 6.6. Biconsonantal Bases with Long Vowel<sup>12</sup>

	*qāl sg./pl. “beloved” *dād/*dādīm		*qīl sg./pl. “song” *šīr/*šīrīm	
abs.	דוּד	דוּדִים	שִׁיר	שִׁירִים
const.	דוּד	דוּדִי*	שִׁיר	שִׁירִי
+1cs	דוּדִי	דוּדִי	שִׁירִי	שִׁירִי*
+2ms	דוּדְךָ	דוּדְךָ	שִׁירְךָ*	שִׁירְךָ
+2fs	דוּדְךָ	דוּדְךָ	שִׁירְךָ*	שִׁירְךָ
+3ms	דוּדוּ	דוּדִיו*	שִׁירוּ	שִׁירָיו*
+3fs	דוּדָה	דוּדִיָּה*	שִׁירָה*	שִׁירִיָּה*
+1cp	דוּדָנוּ*	דוּדִינוּ*	שִׁירָנוּ*	שִׁירִינוּ*
+2mp	דוּדְכֶם*	דוּדִיכֶם*	שִׁירְכֶם*	שִׁירִיכֶם
+2fp	דוּדְכֶן*	דוּדִיכֶן*	שִׁירְכֶן*	שִׁירִיכֶן*
+3mp	דוּדָם*	דוּדִיהֶם*	שִׁירָם*	שִׁירִיהֶם*
+3fp	דוּדָן*	דוּדִיהֶן*	שִׁירָן*	שִׁירִיהֶן*

11. Note also פִּימוּ “their mouth” Ps 59:13.

12. The table is supplemented by the following forms: קוֹלָנוּ “our voice”; קוֹלְכֶם “your voice”; קוֹלִם and קוֹלֵן “their voice”; אִישְׁךָ “your man”; אִישָׁה “her man”; רִיבְכֶם “your dispute”; רִיבָם “their dispute”; בִּינְתִּי “my understanding”; בִּינְתְּךָ “your understanding”; בִּינְתֶּם “your understanding”; קִינוֹתֵיהֶם “their laments”; טוֹבִי “my goodness”; טוֹבְךָ “your goodness”; טוֹבוּ “his goodness”; טוֹבָה “her goodness”; טוֹבָם “their goodness”; רוּחְכֶם “your spirit.”

	*qīlat sg./pl. “song” *šīrat/*šīrāt		*qūl sg./pl. “horse” *sūs/*sūsīm	
abs.	שִׁירָה	*שִׁירוֹת	סוֹס	סוֹסִים
const.	שִׁירַת	שִׁירוֹת	סוֹס	סוֹסִי
+1cs	*שִׁירָתִי	*שִׁירוֹתִי	*סוֹסִי	סוֹסִי
+2ms	*שִׁירָתְךָ	*שִׁירוֹתֶיךָ	*סוֹסְךָ	סוֹסֶיךָ
+2fs	*שִׁירָתְךָ	*שִׁירוֹתֶיךָ	*סוֹסְךָ	*סוֹסֶיךָ
+3ms	שִׁירָתוֹ	שִׁירוֹתָיו	סוֹסוֹ	סוֹסָיו
+3fs	*שִׁירָתָהּ	*שִׁירוֹתֶיהָ	*סוֹסָהּ	*סוֹסֶיהָ
+1cp	*שִׁירָתֵנוּ	*שִׁירוֹתֵנוּ	*סוֹסָנוּ	*סוֹסֵינוּ
+2mp	*שִׁירָתְכֶם	*שִׁירוֹתֵיכֶם	*סוֹסְכֶם	סוֹסֵיכֶם
+2fp	*שִׁירָתְכֶן	*שִׁירוֹתֵיכֶן	*סוֹסְכֶן	*סוֹסֵיכֶן
+3mp	*שִׁירָתָם	*שִׁירוֹתֵיהֶם	*סוֹסָם	סוֹסֵיהֶם
+3fp	*שִׁירָתָן	*שִׁירוֹתֵיהֶן	*סוֹסָן	*סוֹסֵיהֶן

### More Examples

- ♦ \*qāl: חוֹל “sand”; טוֹב “good”; כּוֹס “cup”; קוֹל “voice”
- ♦ \*qīl: אִישׁ “man”; גִּיל “rejoicing”; דִּין “judging” (qal inf. const.) and “judgment”; עִיר “city”; קִיר “wall”; רִיב “contending” (qal inf. const.) and “strife”; רִיק “emptiness”; שֵׁים “setting” (qal inf. const.); שִׁית “setting” (qal inf. const.) and “garment”
- ♦ \*qīlat: בִּינָה “understanding”; גִּילָה “rejoicing”; קִינָה “lament”
- ♦ \*qūl: אֹר “fire”; טוֹב “goodness”; כּוּר “furnace”; לֻחַ “tablet”; נוֹן “fish”; קוֹם “rising” (qal inf. const.); רוּחַ “spirit”; שׁוּק “street”; שׁוֹר “row” and “wall”

Notes: Relatively rare feminine forms of \*qāl and \*qūl bases also occur: טוֹבָה “good” and סוּפָה “stormwind.”

Table 6.7. Geminate Bases, Part 1<sup>13</sup>

	<i>*qall</i> sg./pl. “people” <i>*‘amm / *‘ammīm</i>		<i>*qallat</i> sg./pl. “daughter-in-law” <i>*kallat/*kallāt</i>	
abs.	עַם	עַמִּים	כָּלָה	כָּלוֹת*
const.	עַם	עַמִּי	כָּלֶת*	כָּלוֹת*
+1cs	עַמִּי	עַמִּי*	כָּלֶתִי*	כָּלוֹתִי*
+2ms	עַמָּךְ	עַמִּיךְ	כָּלֶתְךָ	כָּלוֹתְךָ*
+2fs	עַמָּךְ	עַמִּיךְ*	כָּלֶתְךָ	כָּלוֹתְךָ*
+3ms	עַמּוֹ	עַמִּיו	כָּלֶתוֹ	כָּלוֹתֵיו*
+3fs	עַמָּהּ	עַמִּיהָ	כָּלֶתָּהּ	כָּלוֹתֶיהָ
+1cp	עַמָּנוּ	עַמִּינוּ*	כָּלֶתָּנוּ*	כָּלוֹתֵינוּ*
+2mp	עַמְכֶּם*	עַמִּיכֶם*	כָּלֶתְכֶם*	כָּלוֹתֵיכֶם
+2fp	עַמְכֶּן*	עַמִּיכֶן*	כָּלֶתְכֶן*	כָּלוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	עַמָּם	עַמִּיהֶם*	כָּלֶתָם*	כָּלוֹתֵיהֶם*
+3fp	עַמָּן*	עַמִּיהֶן	כָּלֶתָן*	כָּלוֹתֵיהֶן*

	<i>*qall</i> sg./pl. “prince” <i>*šarr/*šarrīm</i>		<i>*qallat</i> sg./pl. “distress” <i>*šarrat/*šarrāt</i>	
abs.	שָׂר	שָׂרִים	צָרָה	צָרוֹת
const.	שָׂר	שָׂרִי	צָרַת	צָרוֹת
+1cs	שָׂרִי*	שָׂרִי	צָרַתִּי	צָרוֹתִי*
+2ms	שָׂרְךָ*	שָׂרְךָ*	צָרַתְךָ*	צָרוֹתְךָ*

13. The chart is supplemented by the following forms: אַפְּכֶם “your nose”; חַגֵּיךְ “your festivals”; חַגֵּיכֶם “your festivals.” In some cases gemination does not occur with the masc. sg. form of the word with 2m/fp suffix (e.g., שָׂרְכֶם “your prince” Dan 10:21). The form חִיתּוֹ “its wild animal” (Zech 2:14; Ps 50:10; 79:2; 104:11, 20) is anomalous and is in construct with a following word in each passage.

+2fs	שָׁרָךְ*	שָׁרִיךְ	צָרְתָּךְ*	צָרוֹתֶיךָ*
+3ms	שָׁרוֹ*	שָׁרִיו	צָרְתּוֹ	צָרוֹתָיו
+3fs	שָׁרָה*	שָׁרִיָּה	צָרְתָּה*	צָרוֹתֶיהָ*
+1cp	שָׁרְנוֹ*	שָׁרִינוֹ	צָרְתָּנוֹ	צָרוֹתֵינוֹ*
+2mp	שָׁרְכֶם	שָׁרִיכֶם	צָרְתֶּכֶם	צָרוֹתֵיכֶם
+2fp	שָׁרְכֶן*	שָׁרִיכֶן*	צָרְתֶּכֶן*	צָרוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	שָׁרֵם*	שָׁרִיהֶם	צָרְתֶּם	צָרוֹתֶם
+3fp	שָׁרוֹן*	שָׁרִיהֶן*	צָרְתֶּן*	צָרוֹתֶן*

### More Examples

- ♦ *\*qall*: אָף “nose” (< *\*’anp*); גֶּן “garden”; דָּל “poor”; חַג “festival”; חַי “alive”; כַּף “palm”; מָר “bitter”; עָז “mighty”; פָּר “male bovine”; צָר “enemy”; רַב “numerous”; רָע “evil”; שָׂר “prince”
- ♦ *\*qallat*: אַמָּה “cubit”; חַיָּה “wild animal”; חֲלָה “circle-shaped bread”; חֲמָה “glow, sun”; צָרָה “distress”; צָרָה “concubine”; קָרָה “cold”; שָׂרָה “princess”

Table 6.8. Geminate Bases, Part 2<sup>14</sup>

	<i>*qill</i> sg./pl. “arrow” <i>*ḥittl/*ḥittim</i>		<i>*qillat</i> sg./pl. “corner” <i>*pinnat/*pinnāt</i>	
abs.	חֵץ	חֲצִים	פְּנָה	פְּנוֹת
const.	חֵץ	חֲצִי	פְּנָת	פְּנוֹת
+1cs	חֲצִי	חֲצִי	פְּנָתִי*	פְּנוֹתִי*

14. The chart is supplemented by the following forms: צֶלֶךְ “your shade”; קֵצְךָ “your end”; צֶלֶה “her shade”; אֲשַׁכֶּם “your fire”; אִמְכֶם and אִמְכֶן “your mother”; קִצְּנוֹ “our ends”; שִׁנֵּיהֶם “their teeth”; רִנָּתִי “my cry”; רִנָּתָם “their cry”; מְדוֹתֶיהָ “its measurements”; עֲזִי “my strength”; עֲזְךָ “your strength”; עֲזָה “its strength”; and כֻּלָּה “all of it”; גִּזְכֶּם “your strength” כֻּלְּכֶם “all of you”; תְּמַתִּי “my integrity”; תְּמַתְּךָ “your integrity” (pausal); סִבְתּוֹ “his booth.” In some cases gemination does not occur with the masc. sg. form of the word with 2ms and 2m/fp suffix (e.g., חֲקָךְ “your statute” Lev 10:13; אֲשַׁכֶּם “your fire” Isa 50:11; חֲקָכֶם “your statute” Exod 5:14).

+2ms	חָצֵף*	חָצִיף	פְּנִתָּף*	פְּנוּתִיף*
+2fs	חָצֵף*	חָצִיף*	פְּנִתָּף*	פְּנוּתִיף*
+3ms	חָצוּ	חָצִיו	פְּנִתּוּ*	פְּנִתִּיו
+3fs	חָצָה*	חָצִיָּה*	פְּנִתָּה*	פְּנוּתִיָּה*
+1cp	חָצֵנּוּ*	חָצִינּוּ*	פְּנִתְנּוּ*	פְּנוּתִינּוּ*
+2mp	חָצְכֶם* / חָצְכֻם*	חָצִיכֶם*	פְּנִתְכֶם*	פְּנוּתִיכֶם*
+2fp	חָצְכֶן* / חָצְכֻן*	חָצִיכֶן*	פְּנִתְכֶן*	פְּנוּתִיכֶן*
+3mp	חָצִם	חָצִיָּהֶם*	פְּנִתָּם*	פְּנוּתָם
+3fp	חָצִן*	חָצִיָּהֶן*	פְּנִתָּן*	פְּנוּתָן*

\*qull sg./pl.

“statute”

\*qullat sg./pl.

“statute”

\*ḥuqq/\*ḥuqqīm

\*ḥuqqat/\*ḥuqqāt

abs.	חֻק	חֻקִּים	חֻקָּה	חֻקּוֹת*
const.	חֻק/חֻקֶּה	חֻקִּי	חֻקֶּת	חֻקּוֹת
+1cs	חֻקִּי* / חֻקִּי	חֻקִּי	חֻקֶּתִי*	חֻקּוֹתִי
+2ms	חֻקְךָ* / חֻקְךָ	חֻקֶּיךָ	חֻקֶּתְךָ*	חֻקּוֹתֶיךָ
+2fs	חֻקְךָ	חֻקֶּיךָ*	חֻקֶּתְךָ*	חֻקּוֹתֶיךָ*
+3ms	חֻקּוֹ	חֻקִּיו	חֻקֶּתּוֹ*	חֻקּוֹתִיו
+3fs	חֻקָּה*	חֻקֶּיָּה*	חֻקֶּתָּה*	חֻקּוֹתֶיָּה*
+1cp	חֻקְנֵנוּ*	חֻקֶּינֵנוּ*	חֻקֶּתְנֵנוּ*	חֻקּוֹתֵנֵנוּ*
+2mp	חֻקְכֶם* / חֻקְכֻם*	חֻקֶּיכֶם*	חֻקֶּתְכֶם*	חֻקּוֹתֵיכֶם*
+2fp	חֻקְכֶן* / חֻקְכֻן*	חֻקֶּיכֶן*	חֻקֶּתְכֶן*	חֻקּוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	חֻקָּם	חֻקֶּיהֶם*	חֻקֶּתָּם*	חֻקּוֹתֵיהֶם / חֻקֶּתָּם
+3fp	חֻקָּן*	חֻקֶּיהֶן*	חֻקֶּתָּן*	חֻקּוֹתֵיהֶן* / חֻקֶּתָּן*

## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qill*: אִם “mother”; אֵשׁ “fire”; חֵן “grace”; לֵב “heart”; צֶל “shade”; קֵץ “end”; שֵׁן “tooth”
- ♦ III-*vav/yod*: אֵי “coastland”; אֵי “hyena”; הֵי “lamentation”; עֵי “ruin”; צֵי “ship”; יֵי “desert animal”; רֵי “moisture”<sup>15</sup>
- ♦ *\*qillat*: מִדָּה “measure”; רִנָּה “cry, celebration”
- ♦ *\*qull*: דָּב “bear”; כָּל “all”; מֵר “myrrh”; עֵז “might”; תָּם “integrity”; רַב “multitude”; רָע “evil”
- ♦ *\*qullat*: אָמָה “people”; סִכָּה “booth”; תָּמָה “integrity”

Table 6.9. Segolate Bases, Part 1<sup>16</sup>

	<i>*qatl</i> sg./pl. “king” <i>*malk/*malakīm</i>		<i>*qatlat</i> sg./pl. “queen” <i>*malkat/*malakāt</i>		<i>*qatl</i> sg./pl. “death” <i>*mawt/*mawtīm</i>	
abs.	מֶלֶךְ	מְלָכִים	מַלְכָּה	מְלָכוֹת	מָוֶת	מוֹתִים*
const.	מֶלֶךְ	מְלָכִי	מַלְכַּת	מְלָכוֹת	מוֹת	מוֹתִי
+1cs	מְלָכִי	מְלָכִי*	מַלְכָּתִי	מְלָכוֹתִי*	מוֹתִי	מוֹתִי*
+2ms	מְלָכְךָ	מְלָכְךָ*	מַלְכָּתְךָ	מְלָכוֹתְךָ*	מוֹתְךָ	מוֹתְךָ*
+2fs	מְלָכְךָ	מְלָכְךָ*	מַלְכָּתְךָ	מְלָכוֹתְךָ*	מוֹתְךָ	מוֹתְךָ*
+3ms	מְלָכוֹ	מְלָכָיו*	מַלְכָּתוֹ	מְלָכוֹתָיו*	מוֹתוֹ	מוֹתָיו
+3fs	מְלָכָה	מְלָכֶיהָ	מַלְכָּתָהּ	מְלָכוֹתֶיהָ*	מוֹתָהּ	מוֹתֶיהָ*
+1cp	מְלָכֵנוּ	מְלָכֵינוּ	מַלְכָּתֵנוּ	מְלָכוֹתֵנוּ*	מוֹתֵנוּ	מוֹתֵנוּ*

15. III-*vav/yod* words like אֵי “coastland” have pl. forms revealing a doubled *yod*: אֵיִים. The words are not attested with suffixes. However, these derive ultimately from a *\*qall* base (see Steiner, “On the Monophthongization,” 73–83).

16. The table is supplemented by the following forms: אֶהְבֵּתִי “my love”; אֶהְבֵּתְךָ “your love”; אֶהְבֵּתוֹ “his love”; אֶהְבֵּתָהּ “her love”; אֶהְבֵּתָם “their love”; נַעֲרֹתַי “his young women”; נַעֲרֹתֶיהָ “her young women.” Unlike most other Hebrew nouns, the class of segolate nouns has one base pattern for the sg. and another base pattern for the pl. While the sg. pattern has just one vowel, the pl. base pattern almost always has two. There are, however, some exceptional pl. segolate nouns that attest an alternative form with just one historical vowel in the stem: חֲכָמוֹת “wisdom”; רַחֲמִים “bowels, compassion”; שִׁקְמוֹם “sycamores”; פִּשְׁתִּים “flax.” These nouns exhibit no medial *\*ā/* (> THP */ā/*) with suffixes (e.g., רַחֲמָיו and רַחֲמֵיךָ).



+2mp	מִלְכָּכֶם	מִלְכֵיכֶם	מִלְכַּתְכֶם*	מִלְכוּתֵיכֶם*	מוֹתְכֶם*	מוֹתֵיכֶם*
+2fp	מִלְכָּכֶן*	מִלְכֵיכֶן*	מִלְכַּתְכֶן*	מִלְכוּתֵיכֶן*	מוֹתְכֶן*	מוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	מִלְכָּם	מִלְכֵיהֶם	מִלְכַּתָּם*	מִלְכוּתָם*	מוֹתָם	מוֹתֵיהֶם*
+3fp	מִלְכָּן*	מִלְכֵיהֶן*	מִלְכַּתָּן*	מִלְכוּתָן*	מוֹתָן*	מוֹתֵיהֶן*

## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qatl*: אֶבֶן “stone”; אֶלֶף “thousand”; אֶרֶז “cedar”; אֶרֶץ “earth”; גֶּבֶר “man”; גֶּפֶן “vine”; דֶּרֶךְ “path”; זֶרַע “seed”; חֶסֶד “kindness”; חֶרֶב “sword”; יֶלֶד “boy”; כֶּסֶף “silver”; כֶּרֶם “vineyard”; לֶחֶם “bread”; נֶפֶשׁ “soul”; עֶבֶד “slave”; עֶצֶם “bone”; עֶרֶב “evening”; צֶלֶם “image”; קֶרֶן “horn”; רֶגֶל “foot”; שֶׁמֶן “oil”
- ♦ II-*vav/yod* roots: תָּוֹךְ “midst”; בַּיִת “house”; עַיִן “spring, eye” (see table 6.14); אֵיל “ram”
- ♦ III-*yod* roots: see below under *\*qitl*
- ♦ III-*vav* roots: שָׂחוּ “swimming”; אָחוּ “reeds”
- ♦ Aramaic-like forms: בָּעַד “behind” (const.); גִּבֹּר “man of” (const., vs. גִּבֹּר abs.); הִבֵּל “vanity of” (const., vs. הִבֵּל abs.); הִדַּס “myrtle”; חִדָּר “room of” (const., vs. חִדָּר abs./const.);<sup>17</sup> זָמַן “time”;<sup>18</sup> סֹחֵר “merchant of” const.; שִׁכָּם “shoulder”<sup>19</sup>
- ♦ *\*qatl* in pause, but with *\*qitl*-base for suffixes: פִּסְלֵי “image of divinity”; קִבְרֵי “grave”; רִכְבֵי “chariotry”; שִׁבְרֵי “break”; שֶׁמֶשׁ “sun”
- ♦ *\*qatl*: אֶהְבֵּה “love, loving” (*qal* inf. const.); בִּבְשָׁה (vs. בִּבְשָׁה) “young ram”; נַעֲרָה “girl”; עֲלָמָה “marriageable girl”; עוֹלָה “injustice”

17. Huehnergard, (“Biblical Hebrew Nominal Patterns,” 36) lists this as a *\*qitl* noun, though it appears in most of its suffixed-occurrences (and in the const. pl.) with a *patakh* in the first syllable; only once does it have a *segol* (Joel 2:16).

18. This is an Aramaic loanword; note BA זָמַן (Dan 2:16) but זָמַן (Dan 7:12) and the emphatic form זָמַנָּה. The *qamets* in the Hebrew form is presumably an accommodation to Hebrew sound rules. Fox (*Semitic Noun Patterns*, 137) suggests that the form of the Aramaic noun, זָמַן, suggested to Hebrew speakers that the final *nun* was geminated with endings, thus leading to forms like זָמַנָּה (Esth 9:27), akin presumably to עָם and עָמִים. Similarly, for הִדַּס in the plural הִדָּסִים.

19. On שִׁכָּם, see Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 136. Note also חָסַר “want of” (const., vs. חָסַר abs.); שִׁגְרֵי “offspring of” (const., vs. שִׁגְרֵי abs.).

Table 6.10. Segolate Bases, Part 2

	<i>*qatl</i> sg./pl. “father” <i>*’ab/’ābāt</i>		<i>*qatl</i> sg./pl. “brother” <i>*’ah/’ah(h)īm</i>	
abs.	אָב	אָבוֹת	אָח	אָחִים
const.	אָבִי	אָבוֹת	אָחִי	אָחִי
+1cs	אָבִי	אָבוֹתִי	אָחִי	אָחִי
+2ms	אָבִיךָ	אָבוֹתֶיךָ	אָחִיךָ	אָחִיךָ
+2fs	אָבִיךָ	אָבוֹתֶיךָ*	אָחִיךָ	אָחִיךָ
+3ms	אָבִיו / אָבֵיו	אָבוֹתָיו	אָחִיָּהוּ / אָחִיו	אָחָיו
+3fs	אָבִיהָ	אָבוֹתֶיהָ*	אָחִיהָ	אָחִיהָ
+1cp	אָבֵינוּ	אָבוֹתֵינוּ	אָחֵינוּ	אָחֵינוּ
+2mp	אָבֵיכֶם	אָבוֹתֵיכֶם	אָחֵיכֶם	אָחֵיכֶם
+2fp	אָבֵיכֶן	אָבוֹתֵיכֶן*	אָחֵיכֶן*	אָחֵיכֶן*
+3mp	אָבֵיהֶם	אָבוֹתֵיהֶם / אָבוֹתָם	אָחֵיהֶם	אָחֵיהֶם
+3fp	אָבֵיהֶן	אָבוֹתֵיהֶן* / אָבוֹתָן	אָחֵיהֶן*	אָחֵיהֶן*

Table 6.11. Segolate Bases, Part 3<sup>20</sup>

	<i>*qitl</i> sg./pl. “book” <i>*sipr/’sīparīm</i>		<i>*qitlat</i> sg./pl. “tears” <i>*dim’at/’dīmā’āt</i>		<i>*qitl</i> sg./pl. “ornament” <i>*’idy/’īdayīm</i>		<i>*qitl</i> sg. “captivity” <i>*šiby</i>
abs.	סֵפֶר	סִפְרִים	דְּמָעָה	דְּמָעוֹת	עֲדִי	עֲדָיִים	שְׁבִי
const.	סֵפֶר	סִפְרִי*	דְּמָעַת	דְּמָעוֹת*	עֲדִי	עֲדָיִי*	שְׁבִי

20. The following chart is supplemented by the following forms: זְכָרִי “his memory”; עֲמָקְךָ “your valley”; שְׁמָעָה “her news”; זְכָרָם “their memory”; אִמְרִי “my words”; שְׁבִטֶיךָ “your tribes”; אִמְרָיו “his words”; אִמְרֶיהָ “her words”; שְׁבִטֵיכֶם “your tribes”; שְׁבִטֵיהֶם “their tribes”; pausal דְּמָעָתְךָ “your tears”; מִנְחָתוֹ “his offering”; מִנְחָתָם “their offering”; מִנְחָתֵיכֶם “their offerings”; פְּרִיכֶם “your fruit”; גְּדָיִי “kids of”; לְחִי “my jaws”; לְחִיךָ “your jaws”; לְחִיךָ “your jaws”; לְחִיו “his jaws”; לְחֵיהֶם “their jaws.” The word שְׁבִי shows a peculiar form with the 2mp suffix, what is essentially the const. form + suffix: שְׁבִיכֶם.

+1cs	סִפְּרִי	סִפְּרִי*	דְּמַעְתִּי	דְּמַעְוֹתִי	עֲדִי	עֲדִי*	שְׁבִי*
+2ms	סִפְּרָךְ	סִפְּרִיךְ*	דְּמַעְתְּךָ	דְּמַעְוֹתֶיךָ	עֲדֶיךָ	עֲדִיךָ*	שְׁבִיךָ
+2fs	סִפְּרֶיךָ	סִפְּרִיךָ*	דְּמַעְתְּךָ	דְּמַעְוֹתֶיךָ	עֲדֶיךָ	עֲדִיךָ*	שְׁבִיךָ
+3ms	סִפְּרוֹ	סִפְּרָיו	דְּמַעְתּוֹ	דְּמַעְוֹתָיו	עָדִיו	עֲדִייו	שְׁבִיו
+3fs	סִפְּרָהּ	סִפְּרֶיהָ	דְּמַעְתָּהּ	דְּמַעְוֹתֶיהָ	עָדֶיהָ	עֲדִיָּהּ*	שְׁבִיָּהּ
+1cp	סִפְּרִנּוּ	סִפְּרִינוּ*	דְּמַעְתֵּנוּ	דְּמַעְוֹתֵינוּ	עֲדִינוּ	עֲדִינּוּ*	שְׁבִינוּ*
+2mp	סִפְּרַכֶּם	סִפְּרִיכֶם*	דְּמַעְתְּכֶם	דְּמַעְוֹתֵיכֶם	עֲדִיכֶם	עֲדִיכֶם*	שְׁבִיכֶם
+2fp	סִפְּרֶכֶן	סִפְּרִיכֶן*	דְּמַעְתְּכֶן	דְּמַעְוֹתֵיכֶן	עֲדִיכֶן	עֲדִיכֶן*	שְׁבִיכֶן
+3mp	סִפְּרָם	סִפְּרֵיהֶם*	דְּמַעְתָּם	דְּמַעְוֹתָם	עָדִים	עֲדִיהֶם*	שְׁבִים
+3fp	סִפְּרָן	סִפְּרֵיהֶן*	דְּמַעְתָּן	דְּמַעְוֹתָן	עָדִין	עֲדִיהֶן*	שְׁבִין

### More Examples

- ♦ \**qitl*: זִכָּר “memory”; שִׁמְע “news”; אָמַר “word”; חָטָא “sin”; סִתָּר “hiding place”; עֵמֶק “valley”; שִׁבְט “tribe”; לֵעָד “herd”; חֶלֶב “fat”; חֶלֶק “share”; לַעֲגֹל “calf”; לַעֲזָר “help”; עֵשֶׁב “herbage”; תִּשְׁע “nine”
- ♦ with initial *segol*: זָבַח “sacrifice”; קֶרֶב “midst”; שִׁבְע “seven”; שֶׁקֶל “shekel”
- ♦ mixed type: נָדַר/נִדָּר “vow”; שָׁבַר/שִׁבְר “breach”
- ♦ III-*yod* roots (some perhaps originally \**qatl*): בָּכִי “weeping”; גָּדִי “kid”; לָחִי “jawbone”; פְּרִי “fruit”; צָבִי “beauty”; צִבְי “gazelle”; שָׁבִי “captivity”
- ♦ Aramaic-like forms: בָּאָר “well”; דְּבֵשׁ “honey”;<sup>21</sup> שִׁבְע “seven of” (const., vs. שִׁבְעָה abs.); תִּשְׁע “nine of” (const., vs. תִּשְׁעָה abs.)
- ♦ \**qitlat*: גִּבְעָה “hill”; יִרְאָה “fear, fearing” (*qal* inf. const.); מְנַחָה “gift”; שִׂמְחָה “joy”; שִׁמְלָה “cloak”; שִׁפְחָה “maidservant”

21. See Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 136; Alexey Yuditsky, “דְּבֵשׁ and Similar Forms,” *Leshonenu* 71 (2009): 281–86 (Hebrew).

Table 6.12. Segolate Bases, Part 4<sup>22</sup>

	<i>*qutl</i> sg./pl. “holiness” <i>*qudš / *qudašim</i>			<i>*qutlat</i> sg./pl. “foreskin” <i>*ğurlat / *ğuralât</i>	
abs.	קֹדֶשׁ	קֹדְשִׁים / קֹדְשִׁים / קֹדְשִׁים		עֶרְלָה	עֶרְלוֹת*
const.	קֹדֶשׁ	קֹדֶשִׁי		עֶרְלַת	עֶרְלוֹת
+1cs	קֹדֶשִׁי	קֹדֶשִׁי	קֹדֶשִׁי*	עֶרְלָתִי*	עֶרְלוֹתִי*
+2ms	קֹדֶשְׁךָ	קֹדֶשְׁיָךְ*	קֹדֶשְׁיָךְ	עֶרְלַתְךָ*	עֶרְלוֹתְךָ*
+2fs	קֹדֶשְׁךָ*	קֹדֶשְׁיָךְ*	קֹדֶשְׁיָךְ*	עֶרְלַתְךָ*	עֶרְלוֹתְךָ*
+3ms	קֹדֶשׁוֹ	קֹדֶשָׁיו	קֹדֶשָׁיו	עֶרְלָתוֹ	עֶרְלוֹתָיו*
+3fs	קֹדֶשָׁה*	קֹדֶשֶׁיהָ*	קֹדֶשֶׁיהָ*	עֶרְלָתָהּ*	עֶרְלוֹתֶיהָ*
+1cp	קֹדֶשְׁנוּ	קֹדֶשְׁשֵׁנּוּ*	קֹדֶשְׁשֵׁנּוּ*	עֶרְלָתֵנוּ*	עֶרְלוֹתֵינוּ*
+2mp	קֹדֶשְׁכֶּם*	קֹדֶשֶׁיכֶם		עֶרְלַתְכֶם	עֶרְלוֹתֵיכֶם*
+2fp	קֹדֶשְׁכֶּן*	קֹדֶשֶׁיכֶן*		עֶרְלַתְכֶן*	עֶרְלוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	קֹדֶשָׁם*	קֹדֶשֶׁיהֶם		עֶרְלָתָם	עֶרְלוֹתֵיהֶם
+3fp	קֹדֶשָׁן*	קֹדֶשֶׁיהֶן*		עֶרְלָתָן*	עֶרְלוֹתֵיהֶן*

## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qutl*: אֹכֶל “food”; אֹרֶחַ “way”; בֹּקֶר “morning”; גֶּרֶן “threshing floor”; חֹדֶשׁ “month”; חֹרֶב “dryness”; חֹשֶׁךְ “darkness”; עֹרֶף “neck”; שֹׁרֶשׁ “root”; רָחֶב “breadth”
- ♦ III-*yod* roots: חָלִי “sickness”; עָנִי “affliction” (see table 6.13); צָרִי “balsam”
- ♦ III-*vav* roots: בָּהוּ “emptiness”; תָּהוּ “formlessness”
- ♦ Aramaic-like forms: בָּאֵשׁ “stench” (see table 6.13); מְאֹד “very much”
- ♦ *\*qutlat*: אֹכְלָה “food”; טְהֹרָה “purity”; טְמֵאָה “impurity”; קַרְחָה “bald patch”; חֲרָבָה “ruins”; עֲרָמָה “cleverness”

22. The chart is supplemented by the following forms: אֹכְלֵכֶם “your food”; אֹכְלֵם “their food”; שְׁרָשֶׁיהָ “her roots”; חֲרָבְתֶיךָ “your ruins”; חֲרָבְתָיו “his ruins”; חֲרָבְתֶיהָ “her ruins.”

Table 6.13. Segolate Bases, Part 5

	<i>*qutl</i> sg./pl. “tent” <i>*<sup>ʔ</sup>ahl</i> / <i>*<sup>ʔ</sup>ahalim</i> <sup>23</sup>		<i>*qutl</i> sg. “iniquity” <i>*<sup>c</sup>uny</i>	<i>*qutl</i> sg. “stench” <i>*buʔš</i>	<i>*qutl</i> sg. “fullness” <i>*mul<sup>ʔ</sup></i>
abs.	אָהֶל	אֹהֶלִים	עֲנִי	בָּאֵשׁ*	מָלֵא*
const.	אָהֶל	אֹהֶלִי	עֲנִי	בָּאֵשׁ	מָלֵא
+1cs	אֹהֶלִי	אֹהֶלִי	עֲנִי	בָּאֵשִׁי*	מָלֵאִי*
+2ms	אֹהֶלְךָ	אֹהֶלְךָ	עֲנִיְךָ*	בָּאֵשְׁךָ*	מָלֵאְךָ*
+2fs	אֹהֶלְךָ	אֹהֶלְךָ*	עֲנִיְךָ	בָּאֵשְׁהָ*	מָלֵאְךָ*
+3ms	אֹהֶלּוּ	אֹהֶלּוּ	עֲנִיו	בָּאֵשׁוֹ	מָלֵאוֹ
+3fs	אֹהֶלְהָ*	אֹהֶלְהָ*	עֲנִיהָ	בָּאֵשְׁהָ*	מָלֵאָהָ
+1cp	אֹהֶלְנֵנוּ*	אֹהֶלְנֵנוּ*	עֲנִינוּ	בָּאֵשְׁנֵנוּ*	מָלֵאֲנֵנוּ*
+2mp	—	אֹהֶלְכֶם	עֲנִיכֶם*	—	—
+2fp	—	אֹהֶלְכֶן*	עֲנִיכֶן*	—	—
+3mp	אֹהֶלָם*	אֹהֶלָם	עֲנִים	בָּאֵשָׁם	מָלֵאָם*
+3fp	אֹהֶלָן*	אֹהֶלָן*	עֲנִין*	בָּאֵשָׁן*	מָלֵאָן*

Table 6.14. Segolate Bases, Part 6

	<i>*qatl</i> sg./du./pl. “eye” <i>*<sup>c</sup>ayn</i> / <i>*<sup>c</sup>aynaym</i> / <i>*<sup>c</sup>ay(a)nāt</i>			<i>*qutl</i> sg./du. “ear” <i>*<sup>ʔ</sup>uḏn</i> / <i>*<sup>ʔ</sup>uḏnaym</i>	
abs.	עֵין	עֵינִים	עֵינֹת	אָזֶן	אָזְנִים
const.	עֵין	עֵינִי	עֵינֹת	אָזֶן	אָזְנִי
+1cs	עֵינִי	עֵינִי	עֵינֹתִי*	אָזְנִי	אָזְנִי
+2ms	עֵינְךָ	עֵינְךָ	עֵינֹתְךָ*	אָזְנְךָ	אָזְנְךָ
+2fs	עֵינְךָ	עֵינְךָ	עֵינֹתְךָ*	אָזְנְךָ	אָזְנְךָ

23. The etymology of “tent” is hard to piece together; perhaps *\*<sup>ʔ</sup>ahl* > *\*<sup>ʔ</sup>āl* > *\*<sup>ʔ</sup>ol* > *\*<sup>ʔ</sup>ohl* (?) (see Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 74 and references).

+3ms	עִינוּ	עֵינָיו	*עֵינוֹתָיו	אָזְנוּ	אָזְנוֹ
+3fs	עֵינָהּ	עֵינֶיהָ	*עֵינוֹתֶיהָ	*אָזְנָהּ	*אָזְנֶיהָ
+1cp	עֵינָנוּ	עֵינֵינוּ	*עֵינוֹתֵינוּ	*אָזְנָנוּ	*אָזְנֵינוּ
+2mp	עֵינְכֶם	עֵינֵיכֶם	*עֵינוֹתֵיכֶם	אָזְנֵיכֶם	אָזְנֵיכֶם
+2fp	עֵינְכֶן	*עֵינֵיכֶן	*עֵינוֹתֵיכֶן	*אָזְנֵיכֶן	*אָזְנֵיכֶן
+3mp	עֵינָם	עֵינֵיהֶם	עֵינוֹתָם	אָזְנָם	אָזְנֵיהֶם
+3fp	*עֵינָן	עֵינֵיהֶן	*עֵינוֹתָן	*אָזְנָן	*אָזְנֵיהֶן

Table 6.15. \**Qatal* Base<sup>24</sup>

	* <i>qatal</i> sg./pl. “word” <i>*dabar/*dabarim</i>		* <i>qatalat</i> sg./pl. “righteousness” <i>*šadaqat/*šadaqāt</i>		* <i>qatal</i> sg. “field” <i>*šaday</i> <sup>25</sup>	* <i>qatal</i> pl. “face” <i>*panayim</i>
abs.	דָּבָר	דְּבָרִים	צְדָקָה	צְדָקוֹת	שָׂדֵה	פָּנִים
const.	דָּבַר	דְּבָרִי	צְדָקַת	צְדָקוֹת	שָׂדֵה	פָּנִי
+1cs	דְּבָרִי	דְּבָרִי	צְדָקָתִי	*צְדָקוֹתִי	שָׂדִי	פָּנִי
+2ms	דְּבָרְךָ	דְּבָרְךָ	צְדָקָתְךָ	צְדָקוֹתְךָ	שָׂדֶךָ	פָּנֶיךָ
+2fs	דְּבָרְךָ	דְּבָרְךָ	צְדָקָתְךָ	*צְדָקוֹתֶיךָ	*שָׂדֶךָ	פָּנֶיךָ
+3ms	דְּבָרוֹ	דְּבָרָיו	צְדָקָתוֹ	צְדָקָתוֹ	שָׂדֵהוּ	פָּנָיו
+3fs	*דְּבָרָהּ	דְּבָרֶיהָ	*צְדָקָתָהּ	*צְדָקוֹתֶיהָ	שָׂדֵה	פָּנֶיהָ
+1cp	דְּבָרָנוּ	*דְּבָרֵינוּ	*צְדָקָתָנוּ	צְדָקָתֵנוּ	*שָׂדֵינוּ	פָּנֵינוּ
+2mp	*דְּבָרְכֶם	דְּבָרֵיכֶם	*צְדָקָתְכֶם	*צְדָקוֹתֵיכֶם	—	פָּנֵיכֶם
+2fp	*דְּבָרְכֶן	*דְּבָרֵיכֶן	*צְדָקָתְכֶן	*צְדָקוֹתֵיכֶן	—	*פָּנֵיכֶן
+3mp	*דְּבָרָם	דְּבָרֵיהֶם	צְדָקָתָם	*צְדָקוֹתָם	*שָׂדָם	פָּנֵיהֶם
+3fp	*דְּבָרָן	*דְּבָרֵיהֶן	*צְדָקָתָן	*צְדָקוֹתָן	*שָׂדָן	*פָּנֵיהֶן

24. The table is supplemented by the following forms: בָּשָׂרָם “their flesh”; בָּשָׂרְכֶם “your flesh”; אֲדָמְתְּכֶם “your earth.”

25. The plural of “field” is usually fem. in form: שָׂדוֹת (pl. abs.), שָׂדוֹת (pl. const.), שְׂדֵתֶיהָ “her fields,” though masc. forms also occur: שָׂדִי (pl. const.), שְׂדֵיךָ “your fields,” שְׂדֵינוּ “our fields.”

## More Examples

- ♦ \**qatal*: אָדָם “human”; בָּשָׂר “flesh”; זָקָן “beard”; חָדָשׁ “new”; חָכָם “wise”; יָשָׁר “straight”; כְּנָף “wing”; מָטָר “rain”; נָהָר “river”; צָמָא “thirst”; רָעָב “hunger”
- ♦ III-*vav/yod* roots: פָּנָה (in pl.) “face”; קָנָה “reed”; קָצָה “end”; שָׂדֵה “field”
- ♦ \**qatalat*: אֲדָמָה “earth”; בְּרָכָה “blessing”; זַעֲקָה “screaming”; סְעָרָה “storm”; צַעֲקָה “screaming”; קָלְלָה “cursing”; רַבְבָּה “many”; שִׁאָגָה “roaring”
- ♦ III-*vav/yod* roots, only Aramaic-like forms: מִנָּת “portion” and קָצַת “end”

Table 6.16. \**Qatil* Base<sup>26</sup>

	* <i>qatil</i> sg./pl. “old” * <i>daqin</i> /* <i>daqinīm</i>	* <i>qatilat</i> sg. “corpse” * <i>nabilat</i>
abs.	זָקָן	נְבִילָה
const.	זָקָן	נְבִילָת
+1cs	זָקִי*	נְבִילָתִי
+2ms	—	נְבִילָתְךָ
+2fs	זָקִיךָ*	נְבִילָתְךָ*
+3ms	זָקִינוּ*	נְבִילָתוֹ
+3fs	זָקִינָה*	נְבִילָתָהּ
+1cp	זָקִינוּ*	נְבִילָתֵנוּ*
+2mp	—	נְבִילָתְכֶם*
+2fp	—	נְבִילָתְכֶן*
+3mp	זָקִינָם*	נְבִילָתָם
+3fp	זָקִינָן*	נְבִילָתָן*

26. The table is supplemented by the following forms: יָרִכִי “my thigh”; יָרִיכְךָ “your thigh”; יָרִכוֹ “his thigh”; יָרִכָהּ “her thigh”; כְּתָפָם “their shoulder.” Other nouns of the \**qatilat* base do not often occur with suffixes.

## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qatil*: *qal* participles of stative verbs; אָמֵן “true”; חָסֵר “lacking”; טָמֵא “impure”; יָבֵשׁ “dry”; יָפֵחַ “witness” (Hab 2:3 and וִיפֵחַ “and witness of” [const.] Ps 27:12); יָשֵׁן “old”; כָּבֵד “heavy”; מָלֵא “full”; רָעֵב “hungry”
- ♦ Aramaic-like form: יָפִיחַ “witness of” (const.), e.g., Prov 6:19 and passim<sup>27</sup>
- ♦ *\*qatilat*: *qal* participles of stative verbs; בְּרִיכָה “pool”; גְּנוּבָה “theft”

Table 6.17. *\*Qatul*, *\*Qital*, *Qutul*, *Qutull* Bases<sup>28</sup>

	<i>*qatul</i> sg./pl. “great” <i>*gadul</i> / <i>*gadulim</i>		<i>*qital</i> sg. “heart” <i>*libab</i>	<i>*qitalim</i> pl. “guts” <i>*mi‘ayim</i>	<i>*qutul</i> sg. “first born” <i>*bukur</i>	<i>*qutullat</i> “greatness” <i>*gudullat</i>
abs.	גָּדוֹל	גְּדוּלִים	לִבָּב	מַעִים*	בָּכֹר	גְּדֻלָּה
const.	גָּדוֹל	גְּדוּלִי	לִבָּב	מַעִי	בָּכֹר	גְּדֻלַּת
+1cs	גָּדוֹלִי*	גְּדוּלִי*	לִבָּבִי	מַעִי	בָּכֹרִי	גְּדֻלַּתִּי
+2ms	גָּדוֹלְךָ*	גְּדוּלְךָ*	לִבָּבְךָ	מַעִיךָ	בָּכֹרְךָ	גְּדֻלַּתְךָ*
+2fs	גָּדוֹלְךָ*	גְּדוּלְךָ*	לִבָּבְךָ	מַעִיךָ	בָּכֹרְךָ*	גְּדֻלַּתְךָ*
+3ms	גָּדוֹלוֹ	גְּדוּלוֹ	לִבָּבוֹ	מַעִיו	בָּכֹרוֹ	גְּדֻלָּתוֹ
+3fs	גָּדוֹלָה*	גְּדוּלָּה*	לִבָּבָה*	מַעִיָּה*	בָּכֹרָה*	גְּדֻלָּתָה*
+1cp	גָּדוֹלָנוּ*	גְּדוּלָּנוּ*	לִבָּבָנוּ	מַעִינוּ*	בָּכֹרָנוּ*	גְּדֻלָּתָנוּ*
+2mp	גָּדוֹלְכֶם*	גְּדוּלְכֶם*	לִבָּבְכֶם	מַעִיכֶם*	בָּכֹרְכֶם*	גְּדֻלָּתְכֶם*
+2fp	גָּדוֹלְכֶן*	גְּדוּלְכֶן*	לִבָּבְכֶן*	מַעִיכֶן*	בָּכֹרְכֶן*	גְּדֻלָּתְכֶן*
+3mp	גָּדוֹלָם	גְּדוּלָּהֶם*	לִבָּבָם	מַעִיהֶם	בָּכֹרָם*	גְּדֻלָּתָם*
+3fp	גָּדוֹלָן*	גְּדוּלָּהֶן*	לִבָּבָן*	מַעִיהֶן*	בָּכֹרָן*	גְּדֻלָּתָן*

27. See Dennis Pardee, “Yph ‘Witness’ in Hebrew and Ugaritic,” *VT* 28 (1978): 204–13. The form in Proverbs is apparently assimilated to the spelling of the *hiphil* imperfect of פוּחַ, found, e.g., in Prov 29:8: יָפִיחוּ “will blow against (a city).”

28. The table is supplemented by the following forms: קֹדְשִׁי “my holy one”; קְרֹבִי “his neighbor”; קֹדְשְׁכֶם “your holy one”; קְרֹבֵינוּ “my neighbors.”



## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qatul*: טָהוֹר “pure”; קָדוֹשׁ “holy”; קָרוֹב “near”; רָחוֹב “far”; יָתוֹם “orphan”; גְּבוּהָה “high”
- ♦ *\*qital*: נָכָר “foreigner”; צֵלַע “rib”; עֵנָב “grapes”; רֵעָה “companion”; שֵׁעָר “hair”
- ♦ *\*qutul* (see *\*qitāl*): *qal* infinitives of strong and guttural roots; חֲלוֹם “dream”<sup>29</sup>
- ♦ *\*qutullat*: אֲחֻזָּה “possession”
- ♦ The *qatul* base is similar to *qatul* in the masculine singular: אָדָם “red”; נָאִים “terrible”; נֶקֶד “speckled.”

Table 6.18. *\*Qātil Base*<sup>30</sup>

	<i>*qātil</i> sg./pl. “one who creates” <i>*yāšir</i> / <i>*yāširīm</i>		<i>*qātilt</i> sg. “one who bears” <i>*yālid</i> <sup>31</sup>	<i>*qātil</i> sg./pl. “one who makes” <i>*‘āšiy</i> / <i>*‘āšiyīm</i>	
abs.	יָצַר	יֹצְרִים*	יֹלֶדֶת	עָשָׂה	עֹשִׂים
const.	יָצַר	יֹצְרִי	יֹלֶדֶת	עָשָׂה	עֹשִׂי
+1cs	יֹצְרִי	יֹצְרִי*	יּוֹלְדֹתִי*	עֹשִׂנִי	עֹשִׂי
+2ms	יֹצְרֶךָ	יֹצְרֶיךָ*	יּוֹלְדֶתְךָ	עֹשֶׂיךָ	עֹשִׂיךָ*
+2fs	יֹצְרֶיךָ	יֹצְרֶיךָ*	יּוֹלְדֶתְךָ	עֹשֶׂיךָ*	עֹשִׂיךָ
+3ms	יֹצְרוֹ	יֹצְרָיו*	יּוֹלְדֹתוֹ	עֹשֶׂהוּ	עֹשִׂיו
+3fs	יֹצְרָהּ	יֹצְרֶיהָ*	יּוֹלְדֶתָּהּ	עֹשֶׂהָ	עֹשִׂיהָ*
+1cp	יֹצְרֵנוּ	יֹצְרֵינוּ*	יּוֹלְדֹתֵנוּ	עֹשֵׂנוּ	עֹשִׂינוּ*

29. See Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 205.

30. The table is supplemented by the following forms: גֹּאֲלֵכֶם “your (pl.) redeemer” (cf. גֹּאֲלֶיךָ “your [sg.] redeemer”); רֹדְפָם “their pursuer”; רֹדְפֵי “my pursuers”; אֲרֹרְיָךְ “your cursers”; יֹשְׁבָיו “his dwellers”; יֹשְׁבֶיהָ “her dwellers”; רֹדְפֵינוּ “our pursuers”; שֹׁפְטֵיכֶם “your judges”; שֹׁפְטֵיהֶם “their judges”; רֹכֵלְתְּךָ “one who traded you”; רֹצֵם “one accepting them” (pausal). There is some variety expressed in words of this base with suffix: note also אֲסַפְּךָ “your gatherer”; שְׁלִיחְךָ “your sender”; רֹאִי “one who sees me”; רֹאֵנִי “one who sees me”; עֹטְךָ “one covering you”; רֹדֵם “one ruling them”; רֹאֵיךָ “those seeing you”; רֹאֵיהָ “those seeing her”; שׁוֹטְפֵינוּ “our plunderers.”

31. Note also the absolute form יּוֹלְדָה, reflecting *\*qatilat*.

+2mp	יִצְרְכֶם*	יִצְרִיכֶם*	יּוֹלְדֵתְכֶם	—	עֲשִׂיכֶם*
+2fp	יִצְרְכֶן*	יִצְרִיכֶן*	יּוֹלְדֵתְכֶן*	—	עֲשִׂיכֶן*
+3mp	יִצְרֶם*	יִצְרִיהֶם*	יּוֹלְדֵתָם*	עֲשֶׂם*	עֲשִׂיהֶם*
+3fp	יִצְרֶן*	יִצְרִיהֶן*	יּוֹלְדֵתָן*	עֲשֶׂן*	עֲשִׂיהֶן*

## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qātīl*: *qal* participles of active verbs; אֹיֵב “enemy”; כֹּהֵן “priest”; שֹׁפֵט “judge”

Table 6.19. *\*Qatāl* and Aramaic-Like *\*QVtāl* Bases<sup>32</sup>

	<i>*qatāl</i> sg./pl. “lord” <i>*ʿadān/*ʿadānīm</i>	<i>*qVtāl</i> sg. “writing” <i>*katāb</i>	
abs.	אֲדוֹן	אֲדָנִים	כָּתַב
const.	אֲדוֹן	אֲדָנִי	כָּתַב
+1cs	אֲדוֹנִי	אֲדָנִי	כָּתַבְתִּי*
+2ms	אֲדוֹנְךָ*	אֲדָנֶיךָ	כָּתַבְתָּ*
+2fs	אֲדוֹנֶיךָ*	אֲדָנֶיךָ	כָּתַבְתְּ*
+3ms	אֲדוֹנוֹ*	אֲדָנִיו	כָּתַב*
+3fs	אֲדוֹנֶיהָ*	אֲדָנֶיהָ	כָּתַבָּה
+1cp	אֲדוֹנֵנוּ*	אֲדָנֵינוּ	כָּתַבְתֶּם*
+2mp	אֲדוֹנֵיכֶם*	אֲדָנֵיכֶם	—
+2fp	אֲדוֹנֵיכֶן*	אֲדָנֵיכֶן*	—
+3mp	אֲדוֹנֵם*	אֲדָנֵיהֶם	כָּתַבְתֶּם
+3fp	אֲדוֹנֵן*	אֲדָנֵיהֶן*	כָּתַבְתֶּן*

32. The table is supplemented by the following forms: לְשׁוֹנִי “my tongue”; לְשׁוֹנְךָ “your tongue”; לְשׁוֹנְךָ “your tongue”; לְשׁוֹנוֹ “his tongue”; לְשׁוֹנָה “her tongue”; לְשׁוֹנֵנוּ “our tongue”; לְשׁוֹנְכֶם “your tongue”; לְשׁוֹנָם “their tongue”; יְהִבְךָ “your burden”; יְקָרוֹ “his honor”; note also אֲדָנִי a pausal form used also in context, always in reference to God.

## More Examples

- ♦ \**qatāl*: שָׁלוֹשׁ “three”; לָשׁוֹן “tongue”; *qal* infinitives absolute (e.g., שָׁמֹר)
- ♦ Aramaic forms: יָהַב “burden”; יָעַף “weariness”; יָקַר “honor”; סָפַר “enumeration”; עָבַד “deed”; קָרַב “war”; שָׂרַד “plaited work”; שָׂאָר “remainder”
- ♦ Aramaic-like *nomen agentis* nouns of the *qātāl* type are associated with this base; בַּחוּן “checker”; חֲמוּץ “oppressor”; עָשׂוֹק “oppressor”; בְּגוּדָה “treacherous”<sup>33</sup>

Table 6.20. \**Qatīl* Bases<sup>34</sup>

	* <i>qatīl</i> sg./pl. “prophet” * <i>nabī</i> / <sup>3</sup> * <i>nabī</i> ’im		* <i>qatīl</i> sg./pl. “afflicted” * <sup>c</sup> <i>anīy</i> / <sup>c</sup> * <i>anīy</i> im	
abs.	נְבִיא	נְבִיאִים	עָנִי	עָנִיִּים
const.	נְבִיא*	נְבִיאִי	עָנִי*	עָנִיִּי
+1cs	נְבִיאִי*	נְבִיאִי		
+2ms	נְבִיאָךְ	נְבִיאֶיךָ		
+2fs	נְבִיאֶיךָ*	נְבִיאֶיךָ		עָנִיֶּיךָ
+3ms	נְבִיאָו	נְבִיאָיו		עָנִיו
+3fs	נְבִיאָהּ*	נְבִיאָהּ		
+1cp	נְבִיאָנוּ*	נְבִיאָנוּ		
+2mp	נְבִיאְכֶם	נְבִיאֵיכֶם		
+2fp	נְבִיאְכֶן*	נְבִיאֵיכֶן*		
+3mp	נְבִיאָם*	נְבִיאֵיהֶם		
+3fp	נְבִיאָן*	נְבִיאֵיהֶן*		

33. See Fox, *Semitic Noun Patterns*, 184.

34. The table is supplemented by the following forms: יְמִינִי “my right hand”; יְמִינוֹ “his right hand”; יְמִינָהּ “her right hand”; יְמִינָם “their right hand”; נָקִי “innocent of”

## More Examples

- ♦ \**qatīl*: יָמִין “right hand/side”; כָּלִיל “whole”; צָעִיר “small”; אָסִיר “prisoner”; מְשִׁיחַ “anointed”; נָשִׂיא “prince”; נָגִיד “prince”; נָזִיר “one devoted”; פֶּקִיד “overseer”; פִּלְיֹט “fugitive”; סָבִיב “around”
- ♦ III-*vav/yod* roots: נָקִי “innocent, clean”
- ♦ Aramaic-like forms: בְּדִיל “tin, dross”; בָּרִיחַ “bar”; גָּבִיר “lord”; דְּבִיר “holy of holies”; כָּסִיל “fool”; נָצִיב “prefect”; עוּל “young boy”; כִּפִּיר “lion”

Table 6.21. \**Qatūl*, \**Qitāl* Bases<sup>35</sup>

	<i>*qatūl</i> sg./pl. “one numbered” <i>*paqūd</i> / <i>*paqūdim</i>		<i>*qatūlat</i> sg./pl. “strength” <i>*gabūrat</i> / <i>*gabūrāt</i>		<i>*qitāl</i> sg./pl. “arm” <i>*zīrā</i> / <i>*zīrā’āt</i>	
abs.	פָּקוּד*	פָּקֻדִים*	גְּבוּרָה	גְּבוּרוֹת	זְרוּעַ	זְרוּעוֹת*
const.	פָּקוּד*	פָּקֻדִי	גְּבוּרַת	גְּבוּרוֹת	זְרוּעַ	זְרוּעוֹת
+1cs	פָּקוּדִי*	פָּקֻדִי	גְּבוּרָתִי	גְּבוּרָתִי*	זְרוּעִי	זְרוּעוֹתִי
+2ms	פָּקוּדְךָ*	פָּקֻדֶיךָ*	גְּבוּרָתְךָ	גְּבוּרָתְךָ*	זְרוּעֶךָ	זְרוּעוֹתֶיךָ*
+2fs	פָּקוּדְךָ*	פָּקֻדֶיךָ*	גְּבוּרָתְךָ	גְּבוּרָתְךָ*	זְרוּעֶךָ*	זְרוּעוֹתֶיךָ*
+3ms	פָּקוּדוֹ*	פָּקֻדָיו	גְּבוּרָתוֹ	גְּבוּרָתוֹ	זְרוּעוֹ	זְרוּעוֹתָיו
+3fs	פָּקוּדָה*	פָּקֻדֶיהָ	גְּבוּרָתָהּ	גְּבוּרָתָהּ*	זְרוּעָה*	זְרוּעוֹתֶיהָ
+1cp	פָּקוּדֵנוּ*	פָּקֻדֵינוּ	גְּבוּרָתֵנוּ*	גְּבוּרָתֵנוּ*	זְרוּעֵנוּ*	זְרוּעוֹתֵנוּ*
+2mp	פָּקוּדְכֶם*	פָּקֻדֵיכֶם	גְּבוּרָתְכֶם	גְּבוּרָתְכֶם*	זְרוּעֵכֶם*	זְרוּעוֹתֵיכֶם
+2fp	פָּקוּדְכֶן*	פָּקֻדֵיכֶן	גְּבוּרָתְכֶן*	גְּבוּרָתְכֶן*	זְרוּעֵכֶן*	זְרוּעוֹתֵיכֶן*
+3mp	פָּקוּדֵם*	פָּקֻדֵיהֶם	גְּבוּרָתֶם	גְּבוּרָתֶם*	זְרוּעֵם	זְרוּעוֹתֶם
+3fp	פָּקוּדֵן*	פָּקֻדֵיהֶן	גְּבוּרָתָן	גְּבוּרָתָן*	זְרוּעָן*	זְרוּעוֹתָן*

35. The table is supplemented by the following forms: בְּרוּךְ “blessed”; בְּרוּךְ “blessed of”; יְצוּעִי “my couch”; זְכוּרְךָ “your male”; זְכוּרָה “her male”; עֲלֵמֵנוּ “our secret”; יְצוּעִי “my couches” (pausal); בְּתוּלָתִי “my young women”; בְּתוּלָתֶיהָ “her young women”; זְרוּעוֹתִי “my arms” (pausal).

## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qatūl*: *qal* passive participles (אָרור “cursed” [ms], אָרוּרָה [fs], אָרוּרִים [mp], אָרוּרוֹת\* [fp]); זָכוּר “male”; חָרוּץ “gold”; יָצוּעַ “couch”; עָצוּם “mighty”; עָרוּם “clever”; שָׁבוּעַ “week”
- ♦ III-*vav/yod* roots: *qal* passive participles: בָּנוּי “what is built” (ms), בְּנוּיָה (fs), בְּנוּיִם (mp), בְּנוּיוֹת\* (fp)
- ♦ *\*qatūlat*: אֱמוּנָה “faithfulness”; בְּתוּלָה “young woman”; יְשׁוּעָה “salvation”; מְלוּכָה “kingship, royalty”
- ♦ *\*qitāl* (see *\*qutūl*): תְּהוֹם “deep”; אֱלֹוֹהַּ “God”

Table 6.22. *\*Qattal* and/or *\*Qattāl* Base(s)<sup>36</sup>

	<i>*qattalt</i> sg./pl. “sabbath” <i>*šabbatt/*šabbatāt</i>		<i>*qattalt</i> sg. “sin” <i>*ḥaṭṭa’t/*ḥaṭṭa’āt</i>		<i>*qattalat</i> or <i>*qattālat</i> sg. “request” <i>*baqqāṣat</i> or <i>*baqqāṣat</i>
abs.	שַׁבָּת	שַׁבָּתוֹת	חַטָּאת	חַטָּאוֹת	בְּקָשָׁה*
const.	שַׁבַּת	שַׁבָּתוֹת	חַטָּאת	חַטָּאוֹת	בְּקָשָׁת*
+1cs	שַׁבָּתִי*	שַׁבָּתוֹתִי	חַטָּאתִי	חַטָּאוֹתִי	בְּקָשָׁתִי
+2ms	שַׁבָּתְךָ*	שַׁבָּתוֹתְךָ*	חַטָּאתְךָ	חַטָּאוֹתְךָ	—
+2fs	שַׁבָּתְךָ*	שַׁבָּתוֹתְךָ*	חַטָּאתְךָ*	חַטָּאוֹתְךָ*	בְּקָשָׁתְךָ
+3ms	שַׁבָּתוֹ	שַׁבָּתוֹתָיו*	חַטָּאתוֹ	חַטָּאוֹתָיו	בְּקָשָׁתוֹ
+3fs	שַׁבָּתָהּ	שַׁבָּתוֹתֶיהָ*	חַטָּאתָהּ*	חַטָּאוֹתֶיהָ*	בְּקָשָׁתָהּ*
+1cp	שַׁבָּתֵּנוּ*	שַׁבָּתוֹתֵינוּ*	חַטָּאתֵנוּ	חַטָּאוֹתֵינוּ	בְּקָשָׁתֵנוּ*
+2mp	שַׁבָּתְכֶם	שַׁבָּתֵיכֶם	חַטָּאתְכֶם	חַטָּאוֹתֵיכֶם	—
+2fp	שַׁבָּתְכֶן*	שַׁבָּתֵיכֶן*	חַטָּאתְכֶן*	חַטָּאוֹתֵיכֶן*	—
+3mp	שַׁבָּתָם*	שַׁבָּתוֹתָם*	חַטָּאתָם	חַטָּאוֹתָם	בְּקָשָׁתָם*
+3fp	שַׁבָּתָן*	שַׁבָּתוֹתָן*	חַטָּאתָן*	חַטָּאוֹתָן*	בְּקָשָׁתָן*

## More Examples

- ♦ *\*qattalt*: יִבְלָת “wart”; יִלְפָּת “scabs”; צָרַעַת “leprosy”
- ♦ *\*qattalat*: בְּלָהָה “terror”; בַּצָּרָה “drought”; חַטָּאָה “sin”

36. The table is supplemented by the following forms: בְּקָרָת “care of.”

Table 6.23. *Qal, Piel, Hiphil, Niphal, Pual, and Hophal* of Strong Roots

שִׁמַּר <i>qāṭal</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i> <sup>37</sup>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	שָׁמַר	שָׁמַר*	הִשְׁמִיר*	נִשְׁמַר	שָׁמַר*	הִשְׁמַר*
3fs	שָׁמְרָה	שָׁמְרָה*	הִשְׁמִירָה*	נִשְׁמְרָה*	שָׁמְרָה*	הִשְׁמְרָה*
2ms	שָׁמַרְתָּ	שָׁמַרְתָּ*	הִשְׁמַרְתָּ*	נִשְׁמַרְתָּ	שָׁמַרְתָּ*	הִשְׁמַרְתָּ*
2fs	שָׁמַרְתְּ	שָׁמַרְתְּ*	הִשְׁמַרְתְּ*	נִשְׁמַרְתְּ	שָׁמַרְתְּ*	הִשְׁמַרְתְּ*
1cs	שָׁמַרְתִּי	שָׁמַרְתִּי*	הִשְׁמַרְתִּי*	נִשְׁמַרְתִּי	שָׁמַרְתִּי*	הִשְׁמַרְתִּי*
3cp	שָׁמְרוּ	שָׁמְרוּ*	הִשְׁמִירוּ*	נִשְׁמְרוּ	שָׁמְרוּ*	הִשְׁמְרוּ*
2mp	שָׁמַרְתֶּם	שָׁמַרְתֶּם*	הִשְׁמַרְתֶּם*	נִשְׁמַרְתֶּם	שָׁמַרְתֶּם*	הִשְׁמַרְתֶּם*
2fp	שָׁמַרְתֶּן	שָׁמַרְתֶּן*	הִשְׁמַרְתֶּן*	נִשְׁמַרְתֶּן	שָׁמַרְתֶּן*	הִשְׁמַרְתֶּן*
1cp	שָׁמַרְנוּ	שָׁמַרְנוּ*	הִשְׁמַרְנוּ*	נִשְׁמַרְנוּ	שָׁמַרְנוּ*	הִשְׁמַרְנוּ*
<i>yiqṭol</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	יִשְׁמַר	יִשְׁמַר*	יִשְׁמִיר*	יִשְׁמַר*	יִשְׁמַר*	יִשְׁמַר*
3fs	תִּשְׁמַר	תִּשְׁמַר*	תִּשְׁמִיר*	תִּשְׁמַר*	תִּשְׁמַר*	תִּשְׁמַר*
2ms	תִּשְׁמַר	תִּשְׁמַר*	תִּשְׁמִיר*	תִּשְׁמַר*	תִּשְׁמַר*	תִּשְׁמַר*
2fs	תִּשְׁמְרִי	תִּשְׁמְרִי*	תִּשְׁמִירִי*	תִּשְׁמְרִי*	תִּשְׁמְרִי*	תִּשְׁמְרִי*
1cs	אֶשְׁמַר	אֶשְׁמַר*	אֶשְׁמִיר*	אֶשְׁמַר*	אֶשְׁמַר*	אֶשְׁמַר*
3mp	יִשְׁמְרוּ	יִשְׁמְרוּ*	יִשְׁמִירוּ*	יִשְׁמְרוּ*	יִשְׁמְרוּ*	יִשְׁמְרוּ*
3fp	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה* <sup>38</sup>	—	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה*	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה*	—
2mp	תִּשְׁמְרוּ	תִּשְׁמְרוּ*	תִּשְׁמִירוּ*	תִּשְׁמְרוּ	תִּשְׁמְרוּ*	תִּשְׁמְרוּ*
2fp	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה*	—	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה*	תִּשְׁמַרְנָה*	—
1cp	נִשְׁמַר	נִשְׁמַר*	נִשְׁמִיר*	נִשְׁמַר*	נִשְׁמַר*	נִשְׁמַר*

37. In the *piel*, only a few roots evidence the elision of one of the geminated continuant consonants and shewa: מָלֵאוּ “they filled”; קָנְנוּ “they made nests”; בָּקְשׁוּ “they sought.” The unattested forms of the verb are based on the relatively well-attested forms of other verbs. In particular, note לִמְדָּנָה “teach!”; הִאֲזִנָּה “give ear!”; note also the two alternative forms of the *niphal* inf. const. הִלָּחֶם and הִלָּחִם “to fight.”

38. Pausal forms often evidence a *patakh* in the accented syllable (e.g., תִּרְטֹשְׁנָה “they will crush” Isa 13:18).

Short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol*<sup>39</sup>

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms			יִשְׁמַר*	יִשְׁמָר*
3fs			תִּשְׁמַר*	
2ms			תִּשְׁמַר*	
1cs			וְאֶשְׁמַר*	
1cp			נִשְׁמַר*	

## Imperative

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
ms	שְׁמַר	שְׁמַר*	הִשְׁמַר*	הִשְׁמָר	—	—
fs	שְׁמְרִי*	שְׁמְרִי*	הִשְׁמְרִי*	הִשְׁמְרִי	—	—
mp	שְׁמְרוּ	שְׁמְרוּ*	הִשְׁמְרוּ*	הִשְׁמְרוּ	—	—
fp	שְׁמְרֶנָּה*	שְׁמְרֶנָּה*	הִשְׁמְרֶנָּה*	—	—	—

## Infinitives

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
const.	שְׁמַר	שְׁמַר*	הִשְׁמַר*	הִשְׁמָר*	—	הִשְׁמָר*
abs.	שְׁמֹר	שְׁמַר*	הִשְׁמַר*	הִשְׁמָר <sup>40</sup>	שְׁמַר*	הִשְׁמָר*

## Participles

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
ms	שֹׁמֵר	מְשַׁמֵּר*	מְשַׁמֵּר*	נֹשֵׁמֵר*	מְשַׁמֵּר*	מְשַׁמֵּר*
fs	שֹׁמֶרֶת*	מְשַׁמֶּרֶת*	מְשַׁמֶּרֶת*	נֹשֵׁמֶרֶת*	מְשַׁמֶּרֶת*	מְשַׁמֶּרֶת*
mp	שֹׁמְרִים	מְשַׁמְּרִים	מְשַׁמְּרִים	נֹשֵׁמְרִים*	מְשַׁמְּרִים*	מְשַׁמְּרִים*
fp	שֹׁמְרוֹת*	מְשַׁמְּרוֹת*	מְשַׁמְּרוֹת*	נֹשֵׁמְרוֹת*	מְשַׁמְּרוֹת*	מְשַׁמְּרוֹת*

39. This portion of the table is supplemented by the following forms: וְאֶשְׁמַד “I destroyed” (Amos 2:9); נִשְׁאַר “let us leave over” (1 Sam 14:36) and וְנִקְרַב “we brought near” (Num 31:50); וַיִּלָּחֶם “he fought” (Exod 17:8). In relation to the following categories, note the alternative forms to the feminine singular *niphal* (נִשְׁמָרֶת), *pual* (מְשַׁמְּרֶת) participles.

40. Also הִשְׁמָר and נִשְׁמָר.

Table 6.24. *Qal*, *Piel*, and *Niphal* of  
III-Guttural and III-Aleph Roots<sup>41</sup>

	שִׁלַּח		מִצָּא		מָלֵא	
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>
3ms	שִׁלַּח	שִׁלַּח	מִצָּא	נִמְצָא	מָלֵא	מָלֵא
3fs	שִׁלְּחָהּ	שִׁלְּחָהּ	מִצָּאָהּ	נִמְצָאָהּ	מָלְאָהּ	מָלְאָהּ*
2ms	שִׁלַּחְתָּ	שִׁלַּחְתָּ	מִצָּאתָ	נִמְצָאתָ*	מָלַאתָ	מָלַאתָ
2fs	שִׁלַּחְתְּ*	שִׁלַּחְתְּ*	מִצָּאת	נִמְצָאת	מָלַאת*	מָלַאת*
1cs	שִׁלַּחְתִּי	שִׁלַּחְתִּי	מִצָּאתִי	נִמְצָאתִי	מָלַאתִי	מָלַאתִי
3cp	שִׁלְּחוּ	שִׁלְּחוּ	מִצָּאוּ	נִמְצָאוּ	מָלְאוּ	מָלְאוּ
2mp	שִׁלַּחְתֶּם	שִׁלַּחְתֶּם	מִצָּאתֶם	נִמְצָאתֶם*	מָלַאתֶם*	מָלַאתֶם
2fp	שִׁלַּחְתֶּן*	שִׁלַּחְתֶּן*	מִצָּאתֶן	נִמְצָאתֶן*	מָלַאתֶן*	מָלַאתֶן*
1cp	שִׁלַּחְנוּ	שִׁלַּחְנוּ	מִצָּאנוּ	נִמְצָאנוּ*	מָלַאנוּ*	מָלַאנוּ

	יָשַׁלַּח		יָמַצָּא		יָמָלֵא	
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>
3ms	יָשַׁלַּח	יָשַׁלַּח	יָמַצָּא	יָמַצָּא	יָמָלֵא*	יָמָלֵא
3fs	יָשַׁלְּחָהּ*	יָשַׁלְּחָהּ	יָמַצָּאָהּ	יָמַצָּאָהּ	יָמָלְאָהּ*	יָמָלְאָהּ
2ms	יָשַׁלַּחְתָּ	יָשַׁלַּחְתָּ	יָמַצָּאתָ	יָמַצָּאתָ*	יָמָלַאתָ*	יָמָלַאתָ
2fs	יָשַׁלַּחְתְּ*	יָשַׁלַּחְתְּ*	יָמַצָּאת	יָמַצָּאת*	יָמָלַאת*	יָמָלַאת*
1cs	אֶשַׁלַּח	אֶשַׁלַּח	אֶמַצָּא	אֶמַצָּא*	אֶמָלֵא*	אֶמָלֵא
3mp	יָשַׁלְּחוּ	יָשַׁלְּחוּ	יָמַצָּאוּ	יָמַצָּאוּ	יָמָלְאוּ	יָמָלְאוּ
3fp	יָשַׁלְּחֶנָּה	יָשַׁלְּחֶנָּה	יָמַצָּאֵנָּה	יָמַצָּאֵנָּה	יָמָלְאֵנָּה*	יָמָלְאֵנָּה
2mp	יָשַׁלַּחְתֶּם	יָשַׁלַּחְתֶּם	יָמַצָּאתֶם	יָמַצָּאתֶם*	יָמָלַאתֶם*	יָמָלַאתֶם
2fp	יָשַׁלַּחְתֶּן	יָשַׁלַּחְתֶּן*	יָמַצָּאתֶן*	יָמַצָּאתֶן*	יָמָלַאתֶן*	יָמָלַאתֶן*
1cp	נִשְׁלַחְנוּ	נִשְׁלַחְנוּ*	נִמַצָּאנוּ	נִמַצָּאנוּ*	נִמָלֵאנוּ*	נִמָלֵאנוּ

41. The table is supplemented by this form: שָׁכַחְתָּ “you forgot” (Isa 17:10).



Imperative						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>
ms	שְׁלַח	שְׁלַח	מִצֵּא	הִמָּצֵא*	מִלֵּא*	מִלֵּא
fs	שְׁלַחִי*	שְׁלַחִי	מִצְאִי	הִמָּצְאִי	מִלֵּאִי	מִמְלֵאִי*
mp	שְׁלַחוּ	שְׁלַחוּ	מִצְאוּ	הִמָּצְאוּ	מִלְאוּ	מִמְלְאוּ
fp	שְׁלַחְנָה*	שְׁלַחְנָה	מִצְאֻנְךָ	הִמָּצְאֻנְךָ	מִמְלְאֻנְךָ	—

Infinitives						
const.	שְׁלַח	שְׁלַח	מִצֵּא	הִמָּצֵא	מִלֵּאת	מִמְלֵאוֹת and מִמְלֵא
abs.	שְׁלַח	שְׁלַח	מִצֵּא*	הִמָּצֵא*	מִלֵּא*	מִמְלֵא*

Participles						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>
ms	שֹׁלֵחַ	מְשַׁלֵּחַ	מוֹצֵא	נִמְצָא	מִלֵּא	מִמְלֵא
fs	שֹׁלַחַת*	מְשַׁלַּחַת*	מוֹצֵאת	נִמְצָאָה	מִמְלֵאת*	מִמְמִלֵּאת*
mp	שֹׁלְחִים	מְשַׁלְּחִים	מוֹצְאִים	נִמְצָאִים	מִמְלֵאִים	מִמְמִלֵּאִים
fp	שֹׁלְחוֹת*	מְשַׁלְּחוֹת*	מוֹצְאוֹת	נִמְצָאוֹת	מִמְלֵאוֹת*	מִמְמִלֵּאוֹת

Table 6.25. *Qal*, *Hiphil*, *Niphal*, and *Hophal* of II-Vav Roots<sup>42</sup>

	II-vav: קום “to rise”			II-vav: בוא “to enter”	II-vav: כון “to establish”
	<i>qāṭal</i>				
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms	קָם	הִקִּים	הוּקַם	הִבִּיאַ	נִכּוֹן
3fs	קָמָה	הִקִּימָה	—	הִבִּיאָה	נִכּוֹנָה
2ms	קָמַתָּ	הִקִּמַּתָּ	—	הִבִּיאַתָּ	—
2fs	קָמַתְּ*	הִקִּמַּתְּ*	—	הִבִּיאַתְּ*	—
1cs	קָמַתִּי	הִקִּמַּתִּי	—	הִבִּיאַתִּי	—
3cp	קָמוּ	הִקִּימוּ	הוּקְמוּ*	הִבִּיאוּ	נִכּוֹנוּ
2mp	קָמַתֶּם	הִקִּמַּתֶּם*	—	הִבִּיאַתֶּם	—
2fp	קָמַתְּן*	הִקִּמַּתְּן*	—	הִבִּיאַתְּן*	—
1cp	קָמָנוּ*	הִקִּמָּנוּ	—	הִבִּיאָנוּ*	—
	<i>yiqṭol</i>				
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms	יָקוּם	יָקִים	יִוָּקַם*	יָבִיאַ	יִכּוֹן
3fs	תָּקוּם	תָּקִים*	תִּוָּקַם*	תָּבִיאַ	תִּכּוֹן
2ms	תָּקוּם	תָּקִים	—	תָּבִיאַ	תִּכּוֹן
2fs	תָּקוּמִי	תָּקִימִי	—	תָּבִיאִי*	תִּכְנִי*
1cs	אָקוּם	אָקִים	—	אָבִיאַ	אָכּוֹן*
3mp	יָקוּמוּ	יָקִימוּ	יִוָּקְמוּ*	יָבִיאוּ	יִכּוֹנוּ
3fp	תָּקִימְנָה*	תָּקִימְנָה*	—	תָּבִיאֵינָה	—
2mp	תָּקוּמוּ	תָּקִימוּ	—	תָּבִיאוּ	תִּכְנֹנוּ*
2fp	תָּקִימְנָה*	תָּקִימְנָה	—	תָּבִיאֵינָה*	—
1cp	נָקוּם	נָקִים*	—	נָבִיאַ	נִכּוֹן*

42. The table is supplemented by the following forms: תִּשְׁבֹּן “they will return” (Ezek 16:55); יִשָּׁב “let it return” (Num 25:4); הִשְׁבַּתָּם “you returned” (1 Sam 6:8); הוּסְלוּ “they were hurled” (Jer 22:28); יוּמַת “he will [not] be put to death” (1 Sam 11:13); יוּמַתּוּ “they will [not] be put to death” (2 Kgs 14:6); וַיִּשָּׁב “he was returned” (Exod 10:8); מוּמַת “one to be put to death” (1 Sam 19:11); מוּשָׁבִים “those brought back” (Jer 27:16); הִמּוּל “circumcise yourself!” (Jer 4:4); הִמּוּל “to circumcise yourself” (Gen 34:17); הִמּוּל “circumcising oneself” (Gen 17:13 [*niph.* inf. abs.]).

Short-*yiqtol*

	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms	יִקַּח*	יִקַּח	—	—	—
3fs	תִּקַּח*	תִּקַּח	—	—	—
2ms	תִּקַּח*	תִּקַּח	—	—	—

*wayyiqtol*

3ms	וַיִּקַּח	וַיִּקַּח	וַיִּקַּח*	וַיִּבֹא	וַיִּבֹּן
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## Imperative

	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>
ms	קוּם	הִקַּם	—	הִבֵּא	הִבֹּן
fs	קוּמִי	הִקַּמִּי*	—	הִבֵּאִי	—
mp	קוּמוּ	הִקַּמוּ	—	הִבֵּאוּ	הִבֹּנוּ*
fp	קוּמְנָה	—	—	—	—

## Infinitives

	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>
const.	קוּם	הוֹשִׁיב	—	הִבֵּא	הִבֹּן*
abs.	קוּם	הוֹשִׁיב*	—	הִבֵּא	הִבֹּן*

## Participles

ms	קֹמֵךְ*	מוֹשִׁיב	מוֹקֵךְ*	מִבֵּיֵא	נִבֹּן
fs	קֹמֶה	מוֹשִׁיבַת*	—	—	נִבֹּנָה
mp	קֹמִים	מוֹשִׁיבִים*	מוֹקֵמִים*	מִבֵּיֵאִים	נִבְנִים
fp	קֹמֹת*	מוֹשִׁיבוֹת*	מוֹקֵמוֹת*	—	נִבְנוֹת*

Table 6.26. Verb Forms of III- *Vav/Yod* Roots<sup>43</sup>

גלה <i>qāṭal</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	גָּלָה	גָּלָה	הִגָּלָה	נִגָּלָה	גָּלָה*	הִגָּלָה
3fs	גָּלְתָה	גָּלְתָה	הִגָּלְתָה*	נִגָּלְתָה	גָּלְתָה	הִגָּלְתָה <sup>44</sup>
2ms	גָּלִיתָ	גָּלִיתָ*	הִגָּלִיתָ	נִגָּלִיתָ*	גָּלִיתָ*	הִגָּלִיתָ*
2fs	גָּלִיתְּ*	גָּלִיתְּ	הִגָּלִיתְּ*	נִגָּלִיתְּ*	גָּלִיתְּ*	הִגָּלִיתְּ*
1cs	גָּלִיתִי	גָּלִיתִי	הִגָּלִיתִי	נִגָּלִיתִי	גָּלִיתִי*	הִגָּלִיתִי*
3cp	גָּלוּ	גָּלוּ	הִגָּלוּ	נִגָּלוּ	גָּלוּ*	הִגָּלוּ
2mp	גָּלִיתֶם*	גָּלִיתֶם	הִגָּלִיתֶם	נִגָּלִיתֶם*	גָּלִיתֶם*	הִגָּלִיתֶם*
2fp	גָּלִיתֶן*	גָּלִיתֶן	הִגָּלִיתֶן*	נִגָּלִיתֶן*	גָּלִיתֶן*	הִגָּלִיתֶן*
1cp	גָּלִינוּ*	גָּלִינוּ	הִגָּלִינוּ*	נִגָּלִינוּ	גָּלִינוּ*	הִגָּלִינוּ*

<i>yiqṭol</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	יִגָּלָה	יִגָּלָה	יִגָּלָה*	יִגָּלָה	יִגָּלָה*	יִגָּלָה*
3fs	תִּגָּלָה*	תִּגָּלָה	תִּגָּלָה*	תִּגָּלָה	תִּגָּלָה*	תִּגָּלָה*
2ms	תִּגָּלָה*	תִּגָּלָה	תִּגָּלָה*	תִּגָּלָה*	תִּגָּלָה*	תִּגָּלָה*
2fs	תִּגָּלִי*	תִּגָּלִי	תִּגָּלִי*	תִּגָּלִי*	תִּגָּלִי*	תִּגָּלִי*
1cs	אֶגָּלָה	אֶגָּלָה	אֶגָּלָה*	אֶגָּלָה*	אֶגָּלָה*	אֶגָּלָה*
3mp	יִגָּלוּ	יִגָּלוּ	יִגָּלוּ*	יִגָּלוּ	יִגָּלוּ*	יִגָּלוּ*
3fp	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*
2mp	תִּגָּלוּ*	תִּגָּלוּ	תִּגָּלוּ*	תִּגָּלוּ*	תִּגָּלוּ*	תִּגָּלוּ*
2fp	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*	תִּגָּלְיֶנָּה*
1cp	נִגָּלָה*	נִגָּלָה	נִגָּלָה*	נִגָּלָה*	נִגָּלָה*	נִגָּלָה*

43. The table is supplemented by these forms: וָאֶפְּנָה “I turned”; וָאֶפְּנִינוּ “we turned.”

44. Note also הִגָּלְתָּ.

Short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol*

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	יָגַל	יָגַל	יָגַל	יִיגַל*		
3fs	תָּגַל*	וּתָגַל	תָּגַל*	תִּגַּל		
2ms	תָּגַל*	תָּגַל	תָּגַל*	תִּגַּל*		
1cs	וַאֲנִי*	—	—	—		
1cp	וְאֲנִי*	—	—	—		

## Imperative

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
ms	גַּלְה	גַּל / גַּלְה*	הַגְלִי*	הִגְלֵה		
fs	גַּלִּי*	גַּלִּי	הַגְלִי*	הִגְלִי*		
mp	גַּלּוּ*	גַּלּוּ*	הַגְלוּ*	הִגְלוּ		
fp	גַּלְיִנָּה*	גַּלְיִנָּה*	הַגְלִינָּה*	הִגְלִינָּה*		

## Infinitives

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
const.	גַּלּוֹת	גַּלּוֹת	הַגְלוֹת	הִגְלוֹת		
abs.	גַּלְה	גַּלְה*	הַגְלִי*	נִגְלֵה		

## Participles

ms	גַּלְה	מְגַלֵּה	מְגַלֵּה*	נִגְלֵה*	מְגַלֵּה*	מְגַלֵּה*
fs	גַּלְה*	מְגַלֵּה*	מְגַלֵּה*	נִגְלֵה*	מְגַלֵּה	מְגַלֵּה*
mp	גֹּלִים	מְגַלִּים*	מְגַלִּים*	נִגְלִים*	מְגַלִּים*	מְגַלִּים
fp	גַּלּוֹת*	מְגַלּוֹת*	מְגַלּוֹת*	נִגְלֹת	מְגַלּוֹת*	מְגַלּוֹת*

Table 6.27. Verb Forms of I-Guttural and III-*Vav/Yod* Roots<sup>45</sup>

עשה						
<i>qāṭal</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	עָשָׂה	עָשָׂה*	הָעִשָּׂה*	נִעְשָׂה	עָשָׂה*	הָעִשָּׂה*
3fs	עָשְׂתָה	עָשְׂתָה*	הָעִשְׂתָה*	נִעְשְׂתָה	עָשְׂתָה*	הָעִשְׂתָה*
2ms	עָשִׂיתָ	עָשִׂיתָ*	הָעִשִׂיתָ*	נִעְשִׂיתָ*	עָשִׂיתָ*	הָעִשִׂיתָ*
2fs	עָשִׂיתְּ	עָשִׂיתְּ*	הָעִשִׂיתְּ*	נִעְשִׂיתְּ*	עָשִׂיתְּ*	הָעִשִׂיתְּ*
1cs	עָשִׂיתִי	עָשִׂיתִי*	הָעִשִׂיתִי*	נִעְשִׂיתִי*	עָשִׂיתִי	הָעִשִׂיתִי*
3cp	עָשׂוּ	עָשׂוּ	הָעִשׂוּ*	נִעְשׂוּ	עָשׂוּ*	הָעִשׂוּ*
2mp	עָשִׂיתֶם	עָשִׂיתֶם*	הָעִשִׂיתֶם*		עָשִׂיתֶם*	הָעִשִׂיתֶם*
2fp	עָשִׂיתֶן	עָשִׂיתֶן*	הָעִשִׂיתֶן*		עָשִׂיתֶן*	הָעִשִׂיתֶן*
1cp	עָשִׂינוּ	עָשִׂינוּ*	הָעִשִׂינוּ*	נִעְשִׂינוּ*	עָשִׂינוּ*	הָעִשִׂינוּ*
<i>yiqṭol</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	יַעֲשֶׂה	יַעֲשֶׂה*	יַעֲשֶׂה*	יַעֲשֶׂה	יַעֲשֶׂה*	יַעֲשֶׂה*
3fs	תַּעֲשֶׂה	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*
2ms	תַּעֲשֶׂה	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*
2fs	תַּעֲשִׂי	תַּעֲשִׂי*	תַּעֲשִׂי*	תַּעֲשִׂי*	תַּעֲשִׂי*	תַּעֲשִׂי*
1cs	אֶעֱשֶׂה	אֶעֱשֶׂה*	אֶעֱשֶׂה*	אֶעֱשֶׂה*	אֶעֱשֶׂה*	אֶעֱשֶׂה*
3mp	יַעֲשׂוּ	יַעֲשׂוּ*	יַעֲשׂוּ*	יַעֲשׂוּ	יַעֲשׂוּ*	יַעֲשׂוּ*

45. The unattested forms of the verb are based on the relatively well-attested forms of other verbs like עלה “to go up.” In addition, the following rare forms help to complete the table: אָחַז “I saw” (pausal from חזה “to see”); בָּכִינָה “weep!”; אֶעֱנֶנְךָ “I will afflict you”; תִּפְעֹר “do (not) strip.” Note also the appocopated form of the *piel* and *hiphil* masc. sg. impv.: צו “command”; גַּל “uncover”; הָעֵל “bring up”; the alternative forms of the *hiphil* perfect of עלה “to go up”: הָעִלְתִּי vs. הָעִלְתִּית and הָעִלְתִּית vs. הָעִלְתִּית; and the *wayyiqṭol* forms: וָאֶצַּו “I commanded” (Deut 3:18) vs. וָאֶצְוָה (Deut 1:18); וָאֶעֱלֵךְ “I offered up” (Num 23:4) vs. וָאֶעֱלֵה “I offered up” (1 Sam 13:12); וָאֶרְאָה “I was seen” (Exod 6:3).

3fp	תַּעֲשִׂינָה	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*	תַּעֲשִׂינָה	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*
2mp	תַּעֲשׂוּ	תַּעֲשׂוּ*	תַּעֲשׂוּ*	תַּעֲשׂוּ	תַּעֲשׂוּ*	תַּעֲשׂוּ*
2fp	תַּעֲשִׂינָה	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*	תַּעֲשִׂינָה	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*	תַּעֲשִׂינָה*
1cp	נַעֲשֶׂה	נַעֲשֶׂה*	נַעֲשֶׂה*	נַעֲשֶׂה	נַעֲשֶׂה*	נַעֲשֶׂה*

## Short-yiqtol and wayyiqtol

3ms	יַעֲשֶׂה	יַעֲשֶׂה*	יַעֲשֶׂה*	יַעֲשֶׂה*
3fs	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה
2ms	תַּעֲשֶׂה	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*	תַּעֲשֶׂה*
1cs	וְאֶעֱשֶׂה	וְאֶעֱשֶׂה	וְאֶעֱשֶׂה*	וְאֶעֱשֶׂה*
1cp	וְנַעֲשֶׂה	וְנַעֲשֶׂה*	וְנַעֲשֶׂה*	וְנַעֲשֶׂה*

## Imperative

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
ms	עֲשֵׂה	עֲשֵׂה*	הַעֲשֵׂה*	הַעֲשֵׂה*		
fs	עֲשִׂי	עֲשִׂי*	הַעֲשִׂי*	הַעֲשִׂי*		
mp	עֲשׂוּ	עֲשׂוּ*	הַעֲשׂוּ*	הַעֲשׂוּ*		
fp	עֲשִׂינָה*	עֲשִׂינָה*	הַעֲשִׂינָה*	הַעֲשִׂינָה*		

## Infinitives

	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>pual</i>	<i>hophal</i>
const.	עֲשׂוֹת	עֲשׂוֹת*	הַעֲשׂוֹת*	הַעֲשׂוֹת	עֲשׂוֹת*	
abs.	עֲשֵׂה	עֲשֵׂה*	הַעֲשֵׂה*	הַעֲשֵׂה*		

## Participles

ms	עֹשֶׂה	מַעֲשֶׂה*	מַעֲשֶׂה*	נֹעֲשֶׂה	מַעֲשֶׂה*	מַעֲשֶׂה*
fs	עֹשֶׂה	מַעֲשֶׂה*	מַעֲשֶׂה*	נֹעֲשֶׂה*	מַעֲשֶׂה*	מַעֲשֶׂה*
mp	עֹשִׂים	מַעֲשִׂים*	מַעֲשִׂים*	נֹעֲשִׂים	מַעֲשִׂים*	מַעֲשִׂים*
fp	עֹשׂוֹת	מַעֲשׂוֹת*	מַעֲשׂוֹת*	נֹעֲשׂוֹת	מַעֲשׂוֹת*	מַעֲשׂוֹת*

Table 6.28. *Qal*, *Hiphil*, and *Niphal* of I-, II-, and III-*Vav/Yod* Roots<sup>46</sup>

	I- <i>vav/yod</i> : יֵשֵׁב “to dwell”			II- <i>vav</i> : שׁוּב “to return”		III- <i>vav/yod</i> : שָׁבָה “to capture”	
	<i>qāṭal</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms	יָשַׁב	הִשִּׁיב	נִשְׁבַּח*	שָׁב	הִשִּׁיב	שָׁבָה	נִשְׁבְּחָה
3fs	יָשְׁבָה	הִשִּׁיבָה*	נִשְׁבְּחָה	שָׁבָה	הִשִּׁיבָה*	שָׁבְתָה*	נִשְׁבְּתָה*
2ms	יָשַׁבְתָּ	הִשִּׁיבְתָּ*	נִשְׁבַּחְתָּ*	שָׁבְתָּ	הִשִּׁיבְתָּ	שָׁבִיתָ*	נִשְׁבַּחְתָּ*
2fs	יָשַׁבְתְּ	הִשִּׁיבְתְּ*	נִשְׁבַּחְתְּ*	שָׁבְתְּ*	—	שָׁבִיתְּ*	נִשְׁבַּחְתְּ*
1cs	יָשַׁבְתִּי	הִשִּׁיבְתִּי	נִשְׁבַּחְתִּי	שָׁבְתִּי	הִשִּׁיבְתִּי	שָׁבִיתִי*	נִשְׁבַּחְתִּי*
3cp	יָשֻׁבוּ	הִשִּׁיבוּ	נִשְׁבְּחוּ	שָׁבוּ	הִשִּׁיבוּ	שָׁבוּ	נִשְׁבְּחוּ
2mp	יָשַׁבְתֶּם	הִשִּׁיבְתֶּם*	נִשְׁבַּחְתֶּם*	שָׁבְתֶם	הִשִּׁיבְתֶּם	שָׁבִיתֶם*	נִשְׁבַּחְתֶּם*
2fp	יָשַׁבְתֶּן	הִשִּׁיבְתֶּן*	נִשְׁבַּחְתֶּן*	שָׁבְתֶן	הִשִּׁיבְתֶּן*	שָׁבִיתֶן*	נִשְׁבַּחְתֶּן*
1cp	יָשֻׁבּוּ	הִשִּׁיבּוּ*	נִשְׁבְּחוּ	שָׁבוּ	הִשִּׁיבּוּ	שָׁבּוּ*	נִשְׁבְּחוּ*
	<i>yiqṭol</i>						
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms	יֵשֵׁב	יִשְׁיֵב*	יִשְׁבַּח*	יָשׁוּב	יִשְׁיֵב	יִשְׁבָּה*	יִשְׁבְּחָה*
3fs	תֵּשֵׁב	תִּשְׁיֵב*	תִּשְׁבַּח*	תֵּשׁוּב	תִּשְׁיֵב	תִּשְׁבָּה*	תִּשְׁבְּחָה*
2ms	תֵּשֵׁב	תִּשְׁיֵב	תִּשְׁבַּח	תֵּשׁוּב	תִּשְׁיֵב	תִּשְׁבָּה*	תִּשְׁבְּחָה*
2fs	תֵּשְׁבִי	תִּשְׁיֵבִי*	תִּשְׁבַּחִי*	תֵּשְׁוִי	תִּשְׁיֵבִי	תִּשְׁבְּבִי*	תִּשְׁבְּחִי*
1cs	אֵשֵׁב	אִשְׁיֵב*	אִשְׁבַּח*	אֵשׁוּב	אִשְׁיֵב	אִשְׁבָּה*	אִשְׁבְּחָה*
3mp	יֵשֻׁבוּ	יִשְׁיֻבוּ	יִשְׁבְּחוּ*	יֵשׁוּבוּ	יִשְׁיֻבוּ	יִשְׁבּוּ*	יִשְׁבְּחוּ*
3fp	תֵּשְׁבֶנָּה	—	—	תֵּשְׁוֶנָּה	תִּשְׁיֶנָּה	תִּשְׁבְּנָה*	תִּשְׁבְּחֶנָּה*
2mp	תֵּשְׁבוּ	תִּשְׁיֻבוּ*	תִּשְׁבְּחוּ*	תֵּשְׁוּבוּ	תִּשְׁיֻבוּ	תִּשְׁבּוּ*	תִּשְׁבְּחוּ*

46. The table is supplemented by the following forms: צָאֲיָנָה “go forth” (Song 3:11); יִסֵּף “may he do it again” (Gen 30:24); אֵסֵף “I will do it again” (Deut 18:16); הִוָּחַח “reproving” (Lev 19:17); יִלָּד “it will be born” (Lev 22:27); הוֹשָׁעוּ “be saved!” (Isa 45:22); בְּהוֹלֵד לוֹ “when he was born to him” (Gen 21:5); אֵסֵף “I bring to an end” (Zeph 1:2); וַיִּשְׁבּוּ “they captured” (Num 31:9); וּשְׁבָה “and capture!” (Judg 5:12).



2fp	תִּשְׁבֶּנָּה*	—	—	תִּשְׁבִּינָה	תִּשְׁבֶּנָּה*	תִּשְׁבִּינָה*	תִּשְׁבִּינָה*
1cp	נִשֵּׁב	נוֹשִׁיב*	נִוְשֵׁב*	נָשׁוּב	נָשִׁיב	נִשְׁבָּה	נִשְׁבָּה*
Short-yiqtol							
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms		יֹשֵׁב*		יֹשֵׁב	יִשֵּׁב	—	יִשְׁבָּ*
3fs		תִּשְׁבֵּ*		תִּשְׁבֵּ	תִּשְׁבָּ*	—	תִּשְׁבָּ*
2ms		תִּשְׁבֵּ*		תִּשְׁבֵּ	תִּשְׁבֵּ	—	תִּשְׁבָּ*
1cs		אֲשֵׁב*				—	אֲשָׁב*
1cp		נִשֵּׁב				—	נִשְׁבָּ*
wayyiqtol							
3ms	וַיֵּשֶׁב	וַיֹּשֶׁב		וַיִּשֶׁב	וַיִּשֵּׁב	וַיִּשְׁבֵּ	וַיִּשְׁבָּ*
Imperative							
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>
ms	שֵׁב	הוֹשֵׁב	הִוְשֵׁב*	שׁוּב	הִשֵּׁב	שְׁבָה*	הִשְׁבָּה*
fs	שְׁבִי	הוֹשִׁיבִי*	הִוְשִׁיבִי*	שׁוּבִי	הִשְׁיִיבִי*	שְׁבִי	הִשְׁבִּי
mp	שְׁבוּ	הוֹשִׁיבוּ	הִוְשִׁיבוּ	שׁוּבוּ	הִשְׁיִיבוּ	שְׁבוּ*	הִשְׁבִּיבוּ*
fp	שְׁבִינָה*	—	—	שְׁבִינָה	—	שְׁבִינָה*	הִשְׁבִּינָה*
Infinitives							
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>
const.	שֵׁבַת	הוֹשִׁיב	הִוְשֵׁב*	שׁוּב	הִשִּׁיב	שְׁבוּת	הִשְׁבוּת*
abs.	יֹשֵׁב	הוֹשֵׁב*	—	שׁוּב	הִשֵּׁב	שְׁבָה*	הִשְׁבָּה*
Participles							
ms	יֹשֵׁב	מוֹשִׁיב	נוֹשֵׁב*	שֹׁב	מְשִׁיב	שֹׁבָה*	נִשְׁבָּה*
fs	יֹשֶׁבֶת	מוֹשֶׁבֶת*	נוֹשֶׁבֶת	שֹׁבָה	מְשִׁיבָה	שֹׁבָה*	נִשְׁבָּה*
mp	יֹשְׁבִים	מוֹשִׁיבִים*	נוֹשְׁבִים*	שֹׁבִים	מְשִׁיבִים	שֹׁבִים	נִשְׁבָּיִם*
fp	יֹשְׁבוֹת	מוֹשִׁיבוֹת*	נוֹשְׁבוֹת	שֹׁבוֹת*	מְשִׁיבוֹת*	שֹׁבוֹת*	נִשְׁבוֹת*

Table 6.29. Verb Forms of Geminate Roots: סבב “to Go Around”  
and חמם “to Be Hot”<sup>47</sup>

	סבב	חמם	סבב		
	<i>qal</i>	<i>qal</i> -stative	<i>qāṭal</i> <i>niphal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>
3ms	סָבַב	חָם	נָסַב	הִסָּב	הוּסַב*
3fs	סָבְבָה	חָמָה*	נָסְבָה	הִסָּבָה*	הוּסְבָה*
2ms	סָבַבְתָּ*	חָמַמְתָּ*	—	הִסָּבַתְּ	—
2fs	סָבַבְתְּ*	חָמַמְתְּ*	—	הִסָּבַתְּ*	—
1cs	סָבַבְתִּי	חָמַמְתִּי	—	הִסָּבַבְתִּי	—
3cp	סָבְבוּ	חָמוּ*	נָסְבוּ	הִסָּבוּ	הוּסְבוּ
2mp	סָבַבְתֶּם	חָמַמְתֶּם*	נָסְבַתֶּם*	הִסָּבַבְתֶּם*	—
2fp	סָבַבְתֶּן*	חָמַמְתֶּן*	נָסְבַתֶּן*	הִסָּבַבְתֶּן*	—
1cp	סָבַבְנוּ*	חָמַמְנוּ*	—	—	—

47. The table is supplemented by the following forms: דָּלוּנוּ “we are brought low” (Ps 79:8); קָב “cursing” (Num 23:25 [*qal* inf. abs.]); שָׁדוּד “destroying” (Mic 2:4); שֹׁגְגָת “one who errs” (Num 15:28); קָלוּת “you are insignificant” (Nah 1:14); יָדְמוּ “they will be silent” (Ps 31:18); וַיִּתְּמוּ “they were complete” (Deut 34:8); וַיִּצָּר “it was distressing” (Judg 2:15); וַיִּמְקָתֶם “and you will pine away” (Ezek 24:23); תִּמָּק “it will rot” (Zech 14:12 [*niph.*]); תִּמְקָה “they will rot” (Zech 14:12); הִבּוֹק “being destroyed” (Isa 24:3 [*niph.* inf. abs.]); נָבַר “one pure” (2 Sam 22:27 [*niph.* ptc.]); נִשְׁמָה “that which is desolate” (Ezek 36:34); נִמְקִים “rotten” (Ezek 33:10); נִשְׁמוּת “desolated” (Ezek 30:7); תִּסְדּוּ “you will crush” (Mic 4:13); תִּרְעוּתֶם “you have done bad” (Jer 16:12); תִּסְדּוּ “you will cover” (Ps 5:12 [*hiphil* *yiqtol*]); אֶחָל “I will begin” (Josh 3:7); יִהְיֶה “they will make shine” (Isa 13:10); יָסָד “it covered” (Ps 91:4 [*hiphil* short-*yiqtol*]); תִּהְיֶה “it shone” (Job 41:10); הִבְרִי “sharpen!” (Jer 51:11); הִתֵּם “completing” (Ezek 24:10 [*hiphil* inf. abs.]); מְסִבֵּי “those surrounding me” (Ps 140:10); מַצָּרָה “who is in labor” (Jer 49:22); מְרַעִים “those doing evil” (Isa 1:4); יִתֵּם “he will complete” (2 Kgs 22:4); וַיִּכְתּוּ “they thrashed” (Deut 1:44); הוּתַל “it was deceived” (Isa 44:20); הוּחַדָּה “it was sharpened” (Ezek 21:14).

<i>yiqtol</i>								
	<i>qal</i> active		<i>qal</i> stative		<i>niphal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>	
	Aramaic-like		Aramaic-like			Aramaic-like		
3ms	יָסַב	יָסַב	יָחַם	יָחַם	יָסַב*	יָסַב*	יָסַב*	יּוֹסַב
3fs	תָּסַב*	תָּסַב	—	—	תָּסַב*	תָּסַב*	תָּסַב*	תּוֹסַב*
2ms	תָּסַב*	תָּסַב	—	—	תָּסַב*	תָּסַב*	תָּסַב*	תּוֹסַב*
2fs	תָּסַבִּי*	תָּסַבִּי*	—	—	—	—	—	—
1cs	אָסַב*	אָסַב*	—	—	—	—	—	—
3mp	יָסְבוּ	יָסְבוּ*	יָחֲמוּ	יָחֲמוּ*	יָסְבוּ	יָסְבוּ* <sup>48</sup>	יָסְבוּ*	— <sup>49</sup>
3fp	תָּסַבְינָה	—	—	—	תָּסַבְנָה*	—	—	—
2mp	תָּסְבוּ	תָּסְבוּ*	—	—	תָּסְבוּ*	תָּסְבוּ*	תָּסְבוּ*	—
2fp	תָּסַבְינָה*	—	—	—	תָּסַבְנָה*	—	—	—
1cp	נָסַב*	נָסַב*	—	—	—	נָסַב	—	—

Short- <i>yiqtol</i> and <i>wayyiqtol</i>			
	<i>qal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>
3ms	וַיָּסַב	וַיָּחַם	וַיָּסַב*
3fs	וַתָּסַב*	—	וַתָּסַב*
2ms	וַתָּסַב*	—	וַתָּסַב*
1cs	—	—	—
1cp	וַנָּסַב	—	—

48. Note also the combination of Hebrew and Aramaic patterns: וַיָּסְבוּ “they made go around” (1 Sam 5:8).

49. Note again the combination of Hebrew and Aramaic patterns: וַיִּכְתּוּ “they were beaten” (Mic 1:7).

## Imperative

	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>
ms	סֵב		הִסֵּב
fs	סִבִּי		הִסִּבִּי
mp	סִבּוּ		הִסִּבּוּ*
fp	—		—

## Infinitives

const.	סֵב and סִבֵּב	—	הִסֵּב
abs.	סֵב* and סִבֵּב*	הִסֵּב	הִסֵּב*

## Participles

	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>hophal</i>
ms	סֹבֵב	נֹסֵב*	מִסֵּב	מוֹסֵב*
fs	סֹבֶבֶת*	נֹסֶבֶת*	מִסֵּבֶת*	מוֹסֶבֶת*
mp	סֹבְבִים	נֹסְבִים*	מִסֵּבִים*	מוֹסְבִים*
fp	סֹבְבוֹת*	נֹסְבוֹת*	מִסֵּבוֹת*	מוֹסְבוֹת

Table 6.30. Third Masculine Singular or Unconjugated *Qal*  
Verb Forms with Possessive Suffixes<sup>50</sup>

	<i>qāṭal</i> 3ms	inf. cons.	impv. ms	ptc.	<i>qāṭal</i> 3ms	inf. cons.	impv. ms
	*šamara	*šumur	*š[u]mur	*šāmīr	*šama <sup>ʕ</sup> a	*š[u]mu <sup>ʕ</sup>	*š[a]ma <sup>ʕ</sup>
suffix	שָׁמַר	שָׁמַר	שָׁמַר	שָׁמַר	שָׁמַע	שָׁמַע	שָׁמַע
+1cs	שָׁמַרְנִי	שָׁמַרְנִי	שָׁמַרְנִי	שָׁמַרְנִי*	שָׁמַעְנִי	שָׁמַעְנִי	שָׁמַעְנִי
+2ms	שָׁמַרְךָ*	שָׁמַרְךָ		שָׁמַרְךָ*	שָׁמַעְךָ*	שָׁמַעְךָ	
+2fs	שָׁמַרְךָ*	שָׁמַרְךָ*		שָׁמַרְךָ*	שָׁמַעְךָ*	שָׁמַעְךָ*	
+3ms	שָׁמַרוּ	שָׁמַרוּ	שָׁמַרְהוּ*	שָׁמַרוּ*	שָׁמַעוּ*	שָׁמַעוּ	שָׁמַעְהוּ*
+3fs	שָׁמַרְהָ	שָׁמַרְהָ	שָׁמַרְהָ*	שָׁמַרְהָ*	שָׁמַעְהָ*	שָׁמַעְהָ*	
+1cp	שָׁמַרְנוּ*	שָׁמַרְנוּ*	שָׁמַרְנוּ*	שָׁמַרְנוּ*	שָׁמַעְנוּ*	שָׁמַעְנוּ*	שָׁמַעְנוּ*
+2mp	—	שָׁמַרְכֶּם*		שָׁמַרְכֶּם*	—	שָׁמַעְכֶּם	
+2fp	—	שָׁמַרְכֶּן*		שָׁמַרְכֶּן*	—	שָׁמַעְכֶּן*	
+3mp	שָׁמַרְם*	שָׁמַרְם	שָׁמַרְם	שָׁמַרְם*	שָׁמַעְם*	שָׁמַעְם	שָׁמַעְם*
+3fp	שָׁמַרְןָ*	שָׁמַרְןָ*	שָׁמַרְןָ*	שָׁמַרְןָ*	שָׁמַעְןָ*	שָׁמַעְןָ*	שָׁמַעְןָ*
cf. long impv., ms only			שָׁמַרְהָ				שָׁמַעְהָ

50. The table is supplemented by the following forms: שָׁפֹטְךָ “he judged you”; שָׁבַרְךָ “he broke you”; נָטַשְׁנוּ “he forsook us”; מָכַרְם “he sold them”; עָזַבְךָ “your leaving”; אָכַלְכֶם “your eating”; עָבַדְהוּ “serve him!”; לָכַדְהָ “capture her!”; עֲזָרְנוּ “help us!”; מָצָאִי “one finding me”; נָתַנְךָ “one who gives you”; גָּאֻלְךָ “one redeeming you”; מִשְׁלֹו “his ruler”; שָׁמַעְהָ “one hearing her”; יָצַרְנוּ “our creator”; גָּאֻלְכֶם “one redeeming you”; נִתְשָׁם “one who uproots them”; מְנַעְנִי “he withheld me”; מְנַעְךָ “he withheld you”; שָׁלַחְךָ “he sent you”; יָדַעוּ “he knew him”; יָדַעְהָ “he knew her”; יָדַעְנוּ “he knew us”; לָקַחְם “he took them”; בָּקַעְהוּ “split it!”; קָרָאֶנָּה “call her!”; כָּלְאֵם “restrain them!” Note also these unusual forms of the inf. const. with 2ms/p suffix: אָסַפְךָ “your gathering”; אָסַפְכֶם “your gathering”; קָצַרְכֶם “your reaping”; מָצָאֶכֶם “your finding.”

Table 6.31. Third Masculine Plural *Qal* with Possessive Suffixes<sup>51</sup>

	<i>qāṭal</i> 3cp	impv. mp	<i>qāṭal</i> 3cp	impv. mp
	*šamarū	*š[u]murū	*šama'ū	*š[u]murū
	שָׁמְרוּ	שָׁמְרוּ	שָׁמְעוּ	שָׁמְעוּ
+1cs	שָׁמְרוּנִי*	שָׁמְרוּנִי*	שָׁמְעוּנִי*	שָׁמְעוּנִי*
+2ms	שָׁמְרוּךְ*		שָׁמְעוּךְ*	
+2fs	שָׁמְרוּךְ*		שָׁמְעוּךְ*	
+3ms	שָׁמְרוּהוּ*	שָׁמְרוּהוּ*	שָׁמְעוּהוּ*	שָׁמְעוּהוּ*
+3fs	שָׁמְרוּהָ*	שָׁמְרוּהָ*	שָׁמְעוּהָ*	שָׁמְעוּהָ*
+1cp	שָׁמְרוּנוּ*	שָׁמְרוּנוּ*	שָׁמְעוּנוּ*	שָׁמְעוּנוּ*
+2mp	—		—	
+2fp	—		—	
+3mp	שָׁמְרוּם*	שָׁמְרוּם*	שָׁמְעוּם*	—
+3fp	שָׁמְרוֹן*	שָׁמְרוֹן*	שָׁמְעוֹן*	—

Table 6.32. Third Masculine Singular or Unconjugated *Qal* of עָשָׂה with Possessive Suffixes<sup>52</sup>

	<i>qāṭal</i> 3ms	inf. cons./ <i>qal</i> -impv. ms	ptc.
	עָשָׂה	עֹשֶׂה	עֹשֶׂה
+1cs	עָשָׂנִי	עֹשֶׂתִי	עֹשֶׂנִי
+2ms	עָשָׂךְ	עֹשֶׂתְךָ	עֹשֶׂךָ
+2fs	—	עֹשֶׂתְךָ	עֹשֶׂךָ*

51. The table is supplemented by the following forms: הִרְגוּנִי “they killed me”; עֲבָדוּךְ “they serve you”; שִׁפְטוּךְ “they judged you”; עֲבָדוּהוּ “they served him”; חֲפְרוּהָ “they dug it”; עֲבָדוּם “they served them”; עֲזָרֵנִי “help me!”; אָכְלוּהוּ “eat it!”; אָכְלוּהָ “eat it!”; תִּפְשׁוּם “seize them!”; יָדְעוּךְ “they knew you”; יָדְעוּם “they knew them”; בָּלְעוּנוּ “they swallowed us”; קָרָאָהוּ “call him!”; סָחַרְהָ “trade it!”

52. The historical reconstruction of the verb is complex. The table is supplemented by the following forms: רָאָה “he saw her”; חָנְתֵּנוּ “our camping”; עֲנֵנִי “answer me!”; עֲנֵנוּ “answer us!”; רָעָם “shepherd them!”; for the forms of עָשָׂה see table 6.27 above.

+3ms	עָשָׂהוּ	עָשְׂתוּ	—	עָשָׂהוּ
+3fs	עָשָׂה*	עָשְׂתָה	—	עָשָׂה
+1cp	עָשִׂינוּ	עָשׂוּתָנוּ*	עָשִׂינוּ*	עָשִׂינוּ
+2mp	—	עָשְׂתֶכֶם	—	—
+2fp	—	עָשְׂתֶכֶן*	—	—
+3mp	עָשָׂם	עָשְׂתֶם	—	עָשָׂם*
+3fp	עָשִׂן*	עָשְׂתֶן*	—	עָשִׂן*

Table 6.33. Third Feminine Singular, Second Masculine Singular, Second Feminine Singular, and First Common Singular *Qal* with Possessive Suffixes<sup>53</sup>

	3fs <i>*šamarat</i>	2ms <i>*šamarta</i>	2fs <i>*šamarti</i>	1cs <i>*šamartu</i>
	שָׁמְרָה	שָׁמְרָתְךָ	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*	שָׁמְרָתִי
+1cs	שָׁמְרָתְנִי*	שָׁמְרָתְנִי	שָׁמְרָתְנִי*	שָׁמְרָתְנִי*
+2ms	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*
+2fs	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*	שָׁמְרָתְךָ*
+3ms	שָׁמְרָתְהוּ / שָׁמְרָתְהוּ*	שָׁמְרָתוֹ*	שָׁמְרָתְהוּ*	שָׁמְרָתִיהוּ*
+3fs	שָׁמְרָתְהָ*	שָׁמְרָתְהָ*	שָׁמְרָתְהָ*	שָׁמְרָתִיהָ*
+1cp	שָׁמְרָתָנוּ*	שָׁמְרָתָנוּ*	—	—
+2mp	—	—	—	—
+2fp	—	—	—	—
+3mp	שָׁמְרָתָם*	שָׁמְרָתָם*	שָׁמְרָתָם*	שָׁמְרָתָם*
+3fp	שָׁמְרָתָן*	שָׁמְרָתָן*	שָׁמְרָתָן*	שָׁמְרָתָן*

53. The table is supplemented by the following forms: יָלְדְתִנִּי “she bore me”; יָלְדְתְּךָ “she bore you”; אָהַבְתְּךָ “she loves you”; יָלְדְתוֹ “she bore him” and אָכַלְתְּהוּ “she ate him”; אָחַזְתָּה “she held her”; מָצָאתָנוּ “she found us”; אָכַלְתָּם “she ate them”; יָדַעְתָּה “you know him”; נָטַשְתָּה “you abandoned her”; עָבַדְתָּם “you served them”; יָלְדְתִנִּי “you bore me”; נָתַתְּהוּ “you gave him”; מָצָאתָם “you found them”; עֲזַרְתִּיךָ “I helped you”; נָתַתִּיו “I gave him”; נָתַתְּךָ “I gave her”; עָזַבְתָּם “I abandoned them.”

Table 6.34. Third Masculine Singular *Qal Yiqtol*  
Energic and Nonenergic Verb Forms<sup>54</sup>

	3ms <i>*yašmuru</i>	3ms <i>*yašmuran</i>	3ms <i>*yišma'u</i>	3ms <i>*yišma'an</i>	3ms <i>*yantinu</i>	3ms <i>*yantinan</i>
	יִשְׁמֹר	—	יִשְׁמַע	—	יִתֵּן	—
+1cs	יִשְׁמְרֵנִי	יִשְׁמְרֵנִי*	יִשְׁמַעְנִי	יִשְׁמַעְנִי*	יִתְּנֵנִי	—
+2ms	יִשְׁמְרֶךָ	יִשְׁמְרֶךָ*	יִשְׁמַעְךָ	יִשְׁמַעְךָ*	יִתְּנֶךָ	—
+2fs	יִשְׁמְרֶךָ*	—	יִשְׁמַעְךָ*	—	יִתְּנֶךָ*	—
+3ms	יִשְׁמְרֶהוּ	יִשְׁמְרֶנּוּ	יִשְׁמַעְהוּ*	יִשְׁמַעְנּוּ*	יִתְּנֶהוּ*	יִתְּנֶנּוּ
+3fs	יִשְׁמְרֶהָ*	יִשְׁמְרֶנָּה*	יִשְׁמַעְתָּה*	יִשְׁמַעְתָּנָה*	יִתְּנֶהָ*	יִתְּנֶנָּה
+1cp	יִשְׁמְרֵנוּ	—	יִשְׁמַעְנּוּ*	—	יִתְּנֵנוּ*	—
+2mp	—	—	—	—	—	—
+2fp	—	—	—	—	—	—
+3mp	יִשְׁמְרֵם*	—	יִשְׁמַעְמֵם*	—	יִתְּנֵם	—
+3fp	יִשְׁמְרֵן*	—	יִשְׁמַעְנָן*	—	יִתְּנֵן*	—

54. For the verbs שמר and שמע, I cite the *wayyiqtol* form (without conjunction) when the *yiqtol* form is lacking. Some forms listed that are nonenergic may, in fact, be short-*yiqtol* forms (as in יִשְׁמְרֵנִי Job 29:2). The table is further supplemented by the following forms: תֹּאכְלֶךָ “she will eat you”; יַעֲזֹרָה “he will help her”; תִּשְׁמְרֵם “you will guard them”; תְּבַרְכֵּנִי “she will bless me” (*piel*); תִּשְׁמְרֶךָ “she will guard you”; אֶשְׁמְרֶנָּה “I will guard her”; יִשְׁבַּעְךָ “he will weary you”; יִגְאֹלְךָ “he will redeem you”; יִמְצֹאֶהוּ “he will find him”; יִקְרַעָהּ “he will tear her”; יִפְגַּעֲנוּ “he will meet us”; יִרְפֹּאֵם “he will heal them”; יִקְרָאֵנוּ “he will call him”; נִשְׁמַעְנָה “we will hear her”; תִּתְּנֶהוּ “may you [not] give him”; תִּתְּנֵנוּ “you gave us”; וַתִּתְּנָה “you gave it”; תִּשְׁבֹּדְךָ “she will capture you”; תַּעֲשֵׂנוּ “you will make it.” Note also: יִשְׁמְרֶךָ “he will guard you” (pausal); יַעֲבֹדְךָ “he will trouble you”; אֶזְכָּרְכִּי “I will remember you”; תִּשְׁמֹרֵם “she will guard them.”



Table 6.35. The Verbs ראה “to See” and ירא “to Fear”

	ראה			ירא	
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>niphal</i>
3ms	רָאָה	הִרְאָה	נִרְאָה	יָרָא	—
3fs	רָאָתָהּ	—	נִרְאָתָהּ	יָרָאָהּ	—
2ms	רָאִיתָ	הִרְאִיתָהּ	—	יָרָאתָ	—
<i>yiqtol</i>					
3ms	יִרְאֶה	יִרְאֶה	יִרְאֶה	יִירָא	יִנְרָא
3mp	יִרְאוּ	יִרְאוּ	יִרְאוּ	יִירְאוּ/יִנְרְאוּ	יִנְרְאוּ
<i>short-yiqtol</i>					
3ms	יִרְאֶי	—	יִרְאֶי	—	—
<i>wayyiqtol</i>					
3ms	וַיִּרְא	וַיִּרְא	וַיִּרְא	וַיִּרְא	—
Imperative					
ms	רְאֵה	הִרְאֵה	הִרְאֵה	יִרְא	—
Infinitives					
const.	רְאוֹת	הִרְאוֹת	הִרְאוֹת	יִרְאֶה	—
abs.	רְאֵה	—	—	—	—
Participles					
ms	רֹאֶה	מִרְאֶה	נִרְאֶה	יֹרֵא	נוֹרֵא

Table 6.36. The Verbs רעע “to Be Evil”;  
רעה “to Graze, Shepherd”; and רוע “to Shout”<sup>55</sup>

	רעע		רעה	רוע
	<i>qāṭal</i>			
	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>hiphil</i>
3ms	רַע	הִרַע	רָעָה	הִרְיַע*
3fs	רָעָה	הִרְעָה*	רָעַתָּה*	הִרְיַעָה*
2ms	—	הִרְעֵתָ	רָעִיתָ*	הִרְיַעֵתָ*
	<i>yiqṭol</i>			
3ms	יִרַע	יִרַעַ	יִרְעָה	יִרְיַעַ
3mp	יִרְעוּ	יִרְעוּ	יִרְעוּ	יִרְיַעוּ
	Short- <i>yiqṭol</i>			
3ms	—	—	יִרַע־	—
	<i>wayyiqṭol</i>			
3ms	וִירַעַ	וִירַעַ	וִירַעַ*	וִירַעַ
	Imperative			
ms	—	הִרַע*	רָעָה	הִרַעַ
	Infinitives			
const.	—	הִרַעַ	רָעוֹת	הִרְיַעַ
abs.	—	הִרַעַ	רָעָה*	—
	Participles			
ms	—	מִרַעַ	רָעָה	מִרְיַע*

55. The table is supplemented by these forms: הִחֲלָה “she began”; הִשָּׁע “smear over!”; רָאָתָה “she saw”; רָאִיתָ “you saw”; רָאָה “seeing”; הִנִּיחַ “he caused to rest”; הִרְיַעו “they shouted”; הִנְעוֹתִי “I shook”; הָסֵר “turn back!”; מָסִיר “one who turns back.”

Table 6.37. The Verbs חלל “to Defile, Begin”; חלה “to Be Sick”; חיל and חול “to Writhe”; and נחל “to Inherit”<sup>56</sup>

	חלל				חלה		חיל / חול	נחל	
					<i>qāṭal</i>				
	<i>piel</i>	<i>hiphil</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>	<i>niphal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>qal</i>	<i>piel</i>
3ms	חָלַל	הִחָל	נָחַל	חָלָה	חָלָה	נִחָלָה*	חָל*	נָחַל	נָחַל
3fs	חָלְלָה	הִחָלָה	נִחָלָה*	חָלְתָה*	חָלְתָה*	—	חָלָה	נִחָלָה*	נִחָלָה*
2ms	חָלַלְתָּ	הִחָלְתָּ	נָחַלְתָּ*	חָלִיתָ*	חָלִיתָ*	נִחָלִיתָ*	חָלַתָּ*	נָחַלְתָּ*	—
<i>yiqṭol</i>									
3ms	יִחָלֵל	יִחָל	יִנָּחַל*	—	יִחָלָה*	—	יִחֹל / יִחָלֵל	יִנָּחַל	—
3mp	יִחָלְלוּ	יִחָלוּ	יִנָּחְלוּ*	—	יִחָלוּ	—	יִחָלוּ / יִחָלִילוּ	יִנָּחְלוּ	—
<i>wayyiqṭol</i>									
3ms		וַיִּחָל	וַיִּנָּחַל*	וַיִּחָל	וַיִּחָל	—	וַיִּחָל / וַיִּחָלֵל*	—	—
Imperative									
ms	—	הִחָל	—	—	חָל	—	חָלִי*	—	—
Infinitives									
const.	חָלַל	הִחָל	הִחָל	חָלּוֹת*	חָלּוֹת	—	חֹל	נָחַל	נָחַל
abs.	—	הִחָל	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Participles									
ms	מְחָלֵל	מִּחָל	—	חָלָה	—	נִחָלָה*	—	—	—

56. The table is supplemented by the following forms: חָלְלוּ “they profaned”; נָחַל “it was profaned” (pausal); נָחְלוּ “they were profaned”; נָחַלְתָּ “you were profaned”; יִחָל “it will be profaned” (pausal); יִשָּׁפוּ “they will be plundered”; וַאֲחָל “I am profaned”; חָלִיתָ “you were sick”; חָלּוֹת “his being sick”; חָלִיתִי “I entreat”; נָחְלָה “what is sick” [*niphal* ptc. fem. sg.]; נִחָלִיתִי “I was sick”; חָלַתִּי “I writhed”; וַתִּחָל “it writhed” (pausal); חָלִי “writhe”; נָחְלוּ “they inherited”; נָחְלוּ “they distributed.”



## Appendix

### Producing Nominal and Verbal Forms

#### Producing Nominal Forms

The noun has four basic forms, differentiated based on endings and the sequence of vowels in the noun's stem: absolute singular, absolute plural, construct singular, and construct plural. The sequence of vowels in nouns with pronominal suffixes follows one of these four forms.

In the following, I first address masculine nouns (i.e., those that inflect as masc. nouns). Furthermore, I distinguish between nonexceptional and exceptional nouns. Exceptional nouns are the geminate nouns (e.g., עַם “people”), the segolate nouns (e.g., מֶלֶךְ “king”), one variety of which is middle-weak nouns with a diphthong (e.g., זֵית “olive”), and etymological III-*vav/yod* nouns, also commonly called III-*he* nouns (e.g., חֹזֶה “seer”). Nonexceptional nouns are all the other types. For each category, we first address the nonexceptional nouns. The nouns are described in terms of their number of syllables in THT. All forms occur in the Hebrew Bible, unless preceded by an asterisk. An attempt has been made to cite nouns that appear relatively frequently.

#### Producing Plural Nouns

The following is a self-consciously simplified description of how to produce particular nominal and verbal forms. The underlying historical changes that led to these forms are described in greater detail in chapters 2–5. I refer in this section only to the Tiberian vowels and symbols.

Due to the manner of our pronunciation, it is often the case that students find it difficult to predict where a word should exhibit a *patakh* and where it should exhibit a *qamets*. Keep these general rules in mind:

1. A tonic syllable in a noun will often have a *qamets* (e.g., the second syllable of דָּבָר “word”), while a tonic syllable in a verb will often have a *patakh* (e.g., the second syllable of שָׁמַע “he heard”).
2. An open pretonic syllable in both a noun and verb will often have a *qamets* (e.g., the first syllable of דָּבָר “word” and שָׁמַע “he heard”).

When one adds the masculine plural morpheme יִם- to a nonexceptional noun that has only one syllable, usually no other change takes place in the word:

“good”	טוֹבִים	=	יִם -	+	טוֹב
“light”	אוֹרִים	=	יִם -	+	אוֹר
“one who arises”	קָמִים	=	יִם -	+	קָם*
“song”	שִׁירִים	=	יִם -	+	שִׁיר
“flame, Urim”	אוֹרִים	=	יִם -	+	אוֹר
“blood, spilled blood”	דָּמִים	=	יִם -	+	דָּם

Exceptional nouns of one syllable include the geminates, which, when a syllable is added to their end, reveal their etymological vowel and their etymological gemination (that is, the doubling of their second consonant). To produce the plural form of such words, one must first know that they are from a geminate base. Most nouns of two consonants with *patakh*, *tsere*, or *holem* are geminate nouns (the *patakh* reflecting historical /\*a/, *tsere* /\*i/, and *holem* /\*u/).

“people”	עַמִּים	=	יִם -	+	עַמ-	←	עַם
“prince” <sup>1</sup>	שָׁרִים	=	יִם -	+	שָׁר-	←	שָׁר
“arrow”	חֲצִים	=	יִם -	+	חֲצ-	←	חֶץ
“statute”	חֻקִּים	=	יִם -	+	חֻק-	←	חֹק

Nonexceptional masculine nouns that contain two syllables in their stem often exhibit further changes in their vowel patterns when pluralized. This

1. Note the compensatory lengthening in the word שָׁר; the *resh* cannot double and, as if in place of this, the preceding vowel appears as *qamets*, not *patakh*.

is due to the fact that one is usually adding an extra syllable to the end of the word and thus causing a preceding syllable to shorten, if possible. After applying the plural morpheme (ים. -), if the propretonic syllable contains a *qamets* or *tsere*, this vowel reduces to *shewa* or a muttered vowel:

<i>qamets</i> > ə// <i>tsere</i> > ə						
“word”	דְּבָרִים	←	דְּבָרִים*	=	ים. -	+ דְּבָר
“elder”	זָקֵנִים	←	זָקֵנִים*	=	ים. -	+ זָקֵן
“full”	מָלְאִים	←	מָלְאִים*	=	ים. -	+ מָלֵא
“pious”	חֲסִידִים	←	חֲסִידִים*	=	ים. -	+ חֲסִיד
“written”	כְּתוּבִים	←	כְּתוּבִים*	=	ים. -	+ כְּתוּב
“grape”	עֲנָבִים	←	עֲנָבִים*	=	ים. -	+ עֲנָב

If a noun does not contain a *qamets* or *tsere* in its propretonic syllable, but it does contain a *tsere* in its pretonic syllable, then, this *tsere* reduces to *shewa* or a muttered vowel:

“judge”	שֹׁפְטִים	←	שֹׁפְטִים*	=	ים. -	+ שֹׁפֵט
“blind”	עוֹרִים	←	עוֹרִים*	=	ים. -	+ עוֹר

A *tsere* does not reduce in the pretonic syllable if a vowel has reduced in the propretonic (cf. מָלְאִים “full”). Most other nouns of this category do not exhibit any change in their stem vowels.

“eternity”	עוֹלָמִים	=	ים. -	+ עוֹלָם
“thief”	גִּנְבִּים	=	ים. -	+ גִּנֵּב
“righteous”	צַדִּיקִים	=	ים. -	+ צַדִּיק
“God” <sup>2</sup>	אֱלֹהִים	=	ים. -	+ אֱלֹהֶ
“cherub”	כְּרוּבִים	=	ים. -	+ כְּרוּב
“border” <sup>3</sup>	גְּבוּלִים*	=	ים. -	+ גְּבוּל
“judgment, justice”	מִשְׁפָּטִים	=	ים. -	+ מִשְׁפָּט

2. The plural is spelled defectively.

3. The plural absolute is not attested.

Among exceptional nouns, those with an etymological III-*vav/yod* often have a *segol* in the masculine singular form as a final vowel. To pluralize such nouns, one subtracts this ending and supplies the masculine plural morpheme יָם־. Since one has not added another syllable, the vowels of the singular stem are usually the vowels of the plural stem too.

“beautiful”	יָפִים	=	יָם־	+	יָפ־	←	יָפָה
“one making”	עָשִׂים	=	יָם־	+	עָש־	←	עָשָׂה
“seer”	חֹזִים	=	יָם־	+	חֹז־	←	חֹזָה
“deed”	מַעֲשִׂים	=	יָם־	+	מַעֲש־	←	מַעֲשָׂה

Sometimes the noun ends with an etymological *vav* or *yod*; in these cases, the noun inflects like any other noun of this category.

<i>qamets</i> > <i>a</i> /t <i>sere</i> > <i>ə</i>							
“built” <sup>4</sup>	בָּנוּיִם	←	בָּנוּיִם*	=	יָם־	+	בָּנוּי

The other major category of exceptional noun is the segolates. Almost universally, to pluralize segolates one supplies the vowel symbols *shewa-qamets* to the stem consonants and then adds the plural morpheme יָם־.

“king”	מְלָכִים	=	יָם־	+	מְלָכ־*	=	מְלָכִי
“masters”	בָּעָלִים	=	יָם־	+	בָּעָל־*	=	בָּעָלִי
“book”	סִפְרִים	=	יָם־	+	סִפְר־*	=	סִפְרִי
“morning”	בֹּקְרִים	=	יָם־	+	בֹּקְר־*	=	בֹּקְרִי
“holy” <sup>5</sup>	קִדְּשִׁים	=	יָם־	+	קִדְּש־*	=	קִדְּשִׁי
“ornament”	עֲדִיִּים	=	יָם־	+	עֲדִי־*	=	עֲדִי

4. By convention, a *mater yod* is not written after a consonantal *yod* at the end of a word.

5. The *hatef-qamets* appears in place of a regular *shewa* due to the guttural pronunciation of the *qoph* as well as the underlying historical /u/ vowel, as explained above. This plural form of “holiness” is found especially where the word bears the definite article. Without the article the plural form is קִדְּשִׁים.



“sickness” <sup>6</sup>	חָלִי	=	חָלִי*	=	חָלִי	←	חָלִי
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Among the larger category of segolate nouns, there are a limited number that exhibit in their singular absolute form a *patakh* or *qamets* followed by a *yod* or *vav* as a second root consonant (i.e., not a *mater*). An extra *hireq* or *segol* is also present after the *yod* or *vav*. The historical diphthong (\**ay* or \**aw*) resolves when it is not accented, or, in other words, in almost every case when an ending is added.

	* <i>ay</i> > <i>tserē</i> , * <i>aw</i> > <i>holem</i>					
“olive”	זַיִתִּים	←	זַיִתִּים*	=	זַיִת	←
“death”	מָוֶתִים	←	מָוֶתִים*	=	מָוֶת	←

Generally, when one inflects feminine nouns (i.e., those marked as feminine) for plurality, one subtracts the morpheme הַ- and supplies the ending וֹת-. Since, in essence, one syllable is exchanged for another, the accent does not shift and the vowels of the singular stem are usually the vowels of the plural stem too:

“good”	טוֹבוֹת	=	טוֹת-	+	טוֹב-	←	טוֹבָה
“one who arises”	קָמוֹת	=	קָמוֹת-	+	קָמ-	←	קָמָה
“song”	שִׁירוֹת	=	שִׁירוֹת-	+	שִׁיר-	←	שִׁירָה
“counsel”	עֲצוֹת	=	עֲוֹת-	+	עֶצ-	←	עֲצָה
“cubit”	אַמוֹת	=	אַמוֹת-	+	אַמ-	←	אַמָּה
“princess”	שָׁרוֹת	=	שָׁרוֹת-	+	שָׁר-	←	שָׁרָה
“corner”	פָּנוֹת	=	פָּנוֹת-	+	פָּנ-	←	פָּנָה
“statute”	חֻקּוֹת	=	חֻקּוֹת-	+	חֻק-	←	חֻקָּה
“blessing”	בְּרָכוֹת	=	בְּרָכוֹת-	+	בְּרַכ-	←	בְּרָכָה
“full”	מְלֵאוֹת	=	מְלֵאוֹת-	+	מְלֵא-	←	מְלֵאָה

6. The *hatef-qamets* appears in place of a regular *shewa* due to the guttural pronunciation of the *khet* as well as the underlying historical /u/ vowel.

“war”	מִלְחָמֹת	=	וֹת-	+	מִלְחָמ-	←	מִלְחָמָה
“beautiful”	יְפֹת	=	וֹת-	+	יַפ-	←	יְפָה
“one who goes up”	עֹלֹת	=	וֹת-	+	עַל-	←	עֹלָה

The most common exception to this rule is the feminine segolate nouns. As with the masculine segolate nouns, one supplies the vowel symbols *shewa-qamets* to the stem consonants and then adds the plural morpheme (in this case וֹת-).

“queen”	מַלְכֹּת	=	וֹת-	+	מַלְכ־*	=	ַ :	+	מַלְכ-	←	מַלְכָּה
“tears”	דְּמְעוֹת	=	וֹת-	+	דְּמַע־*	=	ַ :	+	דְּמַע-	←	דְּמְעָה
“waste”	חֲרָבוֹת	=	וֹת-	+	חֲרַב־*	=	ַ :	+	חֲרַב-	←	חֲרָבָה

### Producing Masculine Nouns with (Most) Suffixes

The pronominal suffixes on singular nouns are most commonly the following, listed as attached to the word קוֹל “voice”: קָלִי “my voice”; קוֹלְךָ “your (ms) voice”; קוֹלְךָ “your (fs) voice”; קוֹלוֹ “his voice”; קוֹלָהּ “her voice”; קוֹלֵנוּ “our voice”; קוֹלְכֶם “your (mp) voice”; קוֹלְכֶן “your (fp) voice”; קוֹלָם “their (mp) voice”; קוֹלָן “their (fp) voice.”<sup>7</sup> Pronominal suffixes on plural nouns are actually composed of a historical dual ending \*-ay- plus a pronominal element (as explained in ch. 4): סוּסֵי “my horses”; סוּסֵיךָ “your (ms) horses”; סוּסֵיךָ\* “your (fs) horses”; סוּסָיו “his horses”; סוּסֵיהָ\* “her horses”; סוּסֵינוּ “our horses”; סוּסֵיכֶם “your (mp) horses”; סוּסֵיכֶן “your (fp) horses”; סוּסֵיהֶם “their (mp) horses”; סוּסֵיהֶן “their (fp) horses.” All these suffixes can be broken apart into two categories: those that are “heavy” and those that are not. Heavy suffixes are those having a sequence of consonant + vowel + consonant = the second masculine/feminine plural on the singular noun (בָּם- and בֵּן-) and the second masculine/feminine plural (בָּם- and בֵּן-) and third masculine/feminine plural (הֶם-, הֵן-)

7. The forms are listed as they appear in the Hebrew Bible, though there is sometimes variation in spelling. Only the form of the noun “voice” with 2fp suffix is unattested. Note that it is common to find a word in the absolute with an internal *mater*, but the same word with no internal *mater* when it has a suffix. In general, the scribes seemed reluctant to use more than one *mater* per word.

on plural nouns.<sup>8</sup> This section deals only with the forms of the masculine noun without heavy suffixes; a subsequent section treats the masculine noun with heavy suffixes.

For most masculine nouns, the stem vowels of the absolute plural are the same as the stem vowels of the noun with nonheavy possessive suffixes. Thus, the production of the noun plus suffix is normally no more complicated than taking the stem and stem vowels of the plural absolute and then adding the correct suffix. Or, in other words, one subtracts ים - and adds the appropriate suffix. By using this shortcut, one can produce both the masculine singular noun plus suffix and the masculine plural noun plus suffix (including for geminate nouns, II-*vav/yod* nouns with diphthongs, and III-*vav/yod* nouns). In essence, the only difference between a singular noun + suffix and a plural noun + suffix lies in the form of the suffix, not in the stem vowels of the noun (i.e., the suffix י- “his” indicates a singular noun, but the suffix י׳ - “his” indicates a plural noun).

#### To Produce the Masculine Singular Noun + Suffix

“his light”	אורו	=	י-	+	אור-	←	אורים
“your (fs) light”	אורך	=	ך-	+			
“his song”	שירו	=	י-	+	שיר-	←	שירים
“my song”	שירי	=	י׳-	+			
“his blood”	דמו	=	י-	+	דם-	←	דמים
“her blood”	דמה	=	ה-	+			
“his people”	עמו	=	י-	+	עם-	←	עמים
“your (ms) people”	עמך	=	ך-	+			
“his arrow”	חצו	=	י-	+	חץ-	←	חצים
“their arrow”	חצם	=	ם-	+			
“his statute”	חקו	=	י-	+	חק-	←	חקים
“their statute”	חקם	=	ם-	+			

8. The term “heavy” reflects the fact that these suffixes attract the tone, unlike the other suffixes which are often penultimately stressed. The term is used by many grammars, e.g., Thomas O. Lambdin’s (*Introduction to Biblical Hebrew* [New York: Scribners, 1971], 87).

“his word”	דְּבָרָיו	=	יו-	+	דְּבָר-	←	דְּבָרִים
“your (ms) word”	דְּבָרְךָ	=	ךָ-	+			
“his pious one”	חַסִּידוֹ	=	יו-	+	חַסִּיד-	←	חַסִּידִים
“your (ms) pious one”	חַסִּידְךָ	=	ךָ-	+			
“my judge”	שֹׁפְטִי	=	י-	+	שֹׁפֶט-	←	שֹׁפְטִים
“our judge”	שֹׁפְטֵנוּ	=	נוּ-	+			
“his eternity”	עוֹלָמוֹ	=	יו-	+	עוֹלָם-	←	עוֹלָמִים
“his God”	אֱלֹהָיו	=	יו-	+	אֱלֹה-	←	אֱלֹהִים
“its border”	גְּבוּלוֹ	=	יו-	+	גְּבוּל-	←	גְּבוּלִים*
“your (fs) border”	גְּבוּלְךָ	=	ךָ-	+			
“his judgment”	מִשְׁפָּטוֹ	=	יו-	+	מִשְׁפֵּט-	←	מִשְׁפָּטִים
“my judgment”	מִשְׁפָּטִי	=	י-	+			
“your (ms) olive”	זֵיתְךָ	=	ךָ-	+	זֵית-	←	זֵיתִים
“his death”	מוֹתוֹ	=	יו-	+	מוֹת-	←	מוֹתִים
“her death”	מוֹתָהּ	=	הָ-	+			
“one making it (ms)” <sup>9</sup>	עָשָׂו	=	יו-	+	עָש-	←	עָשִׂים
“one making it (fs)”	עָשָׂהּ	=	הָ-	+			
“our deed”	מַעֲשֵׂנוּ	=	נוּ-	+	מַעֲש-	←	מַעֲשִׂים

### To Produce the Masculine Plural Noun + Suffix

“your (ms) songs”	שִׁירְךָ	=	יְךָ-	+	שִׁיר-	←	שִׁירִים
“his enemies”	קָמִיו	=	יו-	+	קָמ-	←	קָמִים
“our enemies”	קָמֵינוּ	=	נוּ-	+			
“his spilled blood”	דָּמִיו	=	יו-	+	דָּמ-	←	דָּמִים
“her spilled blood”	דָּמֶיהָ	=	יָהּ-	+			

9. For this form, see Job 40:19. Usually, however, the 3ms suffix on singular III-vav/yod nouns/participles is הוּ- (e.g., עֲשֵׂהוּ).

“his peoples”	עָמִיּוֹ	=	יָ -	+	עַמ-	←	עָמִים
“your (ms) peoples”	עָמִיָּךְ	=	יָ -	+			
“my princes”	שָׂרִי	=	יָ -	+	שָׂר-	←	שָׂרִים
“your (ms) arrows”	חֶצִיָּךְ	=	יָ -	+	חַצ-	←	חֶצִים
“your (ms) statutes”	חֻקֶּיךָ	=	יָ -	+	חַק-	←	חֻקִּים
“his words”	דְּבָרָיו	=	יָ -	+	דְּבַר-	←	דְּבָרִים
“your (ms) words”	דְּבָרֶיךָ	=	יָ -	+			
“your (ms) pious ones”	חֲסִידֶיךָ	=	יָ -	+	חֲסִיד-	←	חֲסִידִים
“his judges”	שֹׁפְטָיו	=	יָ -	+	שֹׁפֵט-	←	שֹׁפְטִים
“your (fs) judges”	שֹׁפְטֶיךָ	=	יָ -	+			
“your (fs) sailors”	מַלְחָיֶיךָ	=	יָ -	+	מַלַּח-	←	מַלְחִים
“his gods”	אֱלֹהָיו	=	יָ -	+	אֱלֹה-	←	אֱלֹהִים
“your (ms) gods”	אֱלֹהֶיךָ	=	יָ -	+			
“its borders”	גְּבוּלֶיהָ	=	יָ -	+	גְּבוּל-	←	*גְּבוּלִים
“your (ms) borders”	גְּבוּלֶיךָ	=	יָ -	+			
“his judgments”	מִשְׁפָּטָיו	=	יָ -	+	מִשְׁפָּט-	←	מִשְׁפָּטִים
“my judgments”	מִשְׁפָּטִי	=	יָ -	+			
“his deaths”	מוֹתָיו	=	יָ -	+	מוֹת-	←	מוֹתִים
“ones making it”	עֹשֵׂיו	=	יָ -	+	עֹש-	←	עֹשִׂים
“ones making you”	עֹשֶׂיךָ	=	יָ -	+			
“his deeds”	מַעֲשָׂיו	=	יָ -	+	מַעֲש-	←	מַעֲשִׂים
“our deeds”	מַעֲשֵׂינוּ	=	יָ -	+			

The only group of exceptional nouns not included in the above lists are the segolates. Because the segolates have one base for their singular forms (\**qatl*, \**qitl*, \**qutl*) and another base for their plural forms (\**qatalīm*, \**qitalīm*, \**qutalīm*), the kind of correspondences one sees in the above words is not found in this group of nouns. Instead, the singular + suffix is formed by taking the base form and adding a suffix to it. In essence, \**malk* + *ī* = \**malkī* (> מֶלֶכִּי) “my king”; \**sipr* + *ī* = \**siprī* (> סִפְרִי) “my book”; \**qudš* + *ī* = \**qudšī* > \**qodšī* (> קֹדֶשִׁי) “my holiness.” Due to this, it is essen-

tial to know first the base of a segolate noun before producing its form plus a suffix. The historical vowel is often implicit in the absolute singular (an initial *patakh* signals a historical \*/a/, *tsere* \*/i/, and *holem* \*/u/; a *segol* may reflect a historical \*/a/ or \*/i/; a *shewa* usually reflects historical \*/i/).

“my king”	מֶלֶךְי	=	יְ -	+	מֶלֶךְ*	←	מֶלֶךְ
“our king”	מֶלֶכֶּנּוּ	=	נֹ -	+			
“his master”	בַּעֲלֹ	=	וְ -	+	בַּעַל*	←	בַּעַל
“her master”	בַּעֲלָהּ	=	הָ -	+			
“her midst”	קִרְבָּהּ	=	הָ -	+	קִרְבַּ*	←	קִרְבַּ
“your (ms) midst”	קִרְבְּךָ	=	ךָ -	+			
“my book”	סֵפֶרִי	=	יְ -	+	סֵפֶר*	←	סֵפֶר
“your (ms) book”	סֵפֶרְךָ	=	ךָ -	+			
“his rod, tribe”	שִׁבְטֹ	=	וְ -	+	שִׁבֵּט*	←	שִׁבֵּט
“your (ms) rod, tribe”	שִׁבְטְךָ	=	ךָ -	+			
“my holy thing”	קֹדֶשִׁי	=	יְ -	+	קֹדֶשׁ*	←	קֹדֶשׁ
“your holy thing”	קֹדֶשְׁךָ	=	ךָ -	+			
“his captivity”	שִׁבְיֹ	=	וְ -	+	שִׁבְיָ*	←	שִׁבְיָ
“her captivity”	שִׁבְיָהּ	=	הָ -	+			
“sickness”	חֲלִי	=	וְ -	+	חֲלִי*	←	חֲלִי

The plural forms of the segolates with suffixes look, for the most part, like the plural forms of words like דְּבָר “word”; recall that similar vowel patterns appear in the absolute plural forms of both types of nouns: דְּבָרִים “words” and מְלָכִים “kings.” Thus, to produce the proper form of the masculine plural segolate plus suffix, one can (in most cases) simply add the appropriate suffix to the plural stem.

“her kings”	מְלָכֶיהָ	=	הָ -	+	מְלָכֶ -	←	מְלָכִים
“our kings”	מְלָכֵנּוּ	=	נֹ -	+			
“his masters”	בַּעֲלֵיו	=	וְ -	+	בַּעֲלֵ -	←	בַּעֲלִים*
“her masters”	בַּעֲלֶיהָ	=	הָ -	+			

"his rods, tribes"	שִׁבְטָיו	=	יו -	+	שִׁבְט- ←	שִׁבְטִים
"your (ms) rods, tribes"	שִׁבְטֶיךָ	=	יְךָ -	+		
"his holy things"	קֳדָשָׁיו	=	יו -	+	קֳדָש- ←	קֳדָשִׁים
"my holy things"	קֳדָשִׁי	=	י -	+		
"our sicknesses"	חֲלָינוּ	=	ינו -	+	חֲלִי- ←	חֲלָים

The preceding correspondences, it should be emphasized again, do not pertain to the noun with heavy pronominal suffixes (i.e., for singular nouns with כֶּם- and כֶּן-; and for plural nouns with כֶּם- and כֶּן- and הֶם-, הֵן-). In each case, where these suffixes are used, they appear on the construct form of the noun. Thus, to produce such forms, one can simply add the suffix to the construct form. Before addressing the form of nouns with heavy suffixes, we will look at producing the construct form of nouns. The inflection of feminine nouns with suffixes also reflects the construct form of nouns and is treated after the following section.

### Producing the Construct Form of Nouns

The construct is the shortest form of a Hebrew noun. Its brevity reflects the fact that it is pronounced together with a following word, as essentially one long word. In general, in an open syllable, a *qamets* or *tseré* in the absolute is turned to *shewa* in the construct. In closed syllables, these same vowels are turned to *patakh*. In the list below, the absolute is found in the far right column and to the left of this is the form of the word with vowels reduced and to the left of this, the form of the word with shortened vowels.

	construct		closed syllable $\bar{a} > a, \bar{e} > a$		open syllable $\bar{a} > \bar{a}, \bar{e} > \bar{e}$		absolute
"blood of"	דָּם	=	דָּם			←	דָּם
"word of"	דְּבַר	=	דְּבַר		דְּבַר*	←	דְּבַר
"elder of"	זָקֵן	=	זָקֵן		זָקֵן*	←	זָקֵן
"heart of"	לֵב	=	לֵב		לֵב*	←	לֵב
"ruler of"	נָגִיד	=			נָגִיד	←	נָגִיד
"blessed of"	בְּרוּךְ	=			בְּרוּךְ	←	בְּרוּךְ

No shift in the *tsere* takes place in the *qal* masculine singular participle (as well as in similarly formed nouns). For these nouns, the absolute and the construct are identical in the singular: שֹׁפֵט “judge” or “judge of,” and שֹׁמֵר “guard” or “guard of.”

Nonexceptional masculine singular nouns that lack *qamets* or *tsere* usually have construct forms identical to their absolute forms, such as טוב “good” and “good of,” אֹר “light (of),” שִׁיר “song (of),” אֲדִיר “majestic (of),” גְּבוּל “boundary (of).” In addition, most masculine singular exceptional nouns have construct forms also identical to their absolute forms, even when they contain a *tsere*: עַם “people” and “people of,” שָׂר “prince (of),” חֵץ “arrow (of),” חֹק “statute (of),” מֶלֶךְ “king (of),” בָּעַל “master (of),” סֵפֶר “book (of),” קֹדֶשׁ “holy thing (of),” גִּדִּי “kid (of),” עָנִי “affliction (of).”<sup>10</sup> II-*vav/yod* nouns with a diphthong show resolution of the diphthong: בַּיִת “house” versus בֵּית “house of” and מָוֶת “death” versus מוֹת “death of.” In III-*vav/yod* masculine singular nouns (and participles), the absolute contains a *segol* and the construct a *tsere*: עֹשֶׂה “maker” versus עֹשֶׂה “maker of” and מַעֲשֶׂה “deed” versus מַעֲשֶׂה “deed of.”

In the masculine plural construct, one applies the same rules of vowel reduction (*qamets* and *tsere* in open syllables reduce to *shewa*). In addition, one replaces the plural absolute ending, יִם, with יַ- (which does not reduce). Occasionally, after the reduction of vowels, two consecutive syllables would each contain a *shewa*; in these cases, the first *shewa* is changed to *hireq*. Segolate nouns, on the other hand, reveal their historical first vowel (מַלְכֵי < \**malakay* “kings of”; אִמְרֵי < \**imaray* “words of”; חֳדָשֵׁי < \**hodašay* < \**hudaṭay* “months of”).

	construct	$\text{ə} + \text{ə} >$ $i, a, \text{ or } o$	open syllable				absolute
“blood of”	דָּמִי		דָּמִי	←	דָּמִי*	=	יַ- + דָּמ- ← דָּמִים
“words of”	דְּבָרִי	דְּבָרִי	דְּבָרִי*	←	דְּבָרִי*	=	יַ- + דְּבַר- ← דְּבָרִים
“elders of”	זָקְנִי	זָקְנִי	זָקְנִי*	←	זָקְנִי*	=	יַ- + זָקַנ- ← זָקְנִים
“kings of”	מַלְכֵי	מַלְכֵי	מַלְכֵי*	←	מַלְכֵי*	=	יַ- + מַלְכ- ← מַלְכִּים
“words of”	אִמְרֵי	אִמְרֵי	אִמְרֵי*	←	אִמְרֵי*	=	יַ- + אִמְר- ← אִמְרִים
“months of”	חֳדָשֵׁי	חֳדָשֵׁי	חֳדָשֵׁי*	←	חֳדָשֵׁי*	=	יַ- + חֳדַש- ← חֳדָשִׁים

10. In the case of geminate nouns with *maqep*, the vowel will sometimes be short, as with לֵב versus לֶב “heart of” and חֹק versus חָק “statute of.”



Many other nouns are identical in their absolute and construct forms, except for the ending  $\eta$ -. For example, note שֹׁפְטִים versus שֹׁפְטֵי “judges of”; עַמִּים versus עַמֵּי “peoples of”; חֻקִּים versus חֻקֵּי “statutes of”; נְגִידִים versus נְגִידֵי “leaders of”; עֲשִׂים versus עֲשֵׂי “makers of”; מַעֲשִׂים versus מַעֲשֵׂי “deeds of.”

For feminine singular nouns in the construct state, one replaces the absolute ending  $\eta$  - with word-final  $\tau$ -. One applies the same rules of vowel reduction: *qamets* and *tsere* in open syllables are reduced to *shewa*. As with the masculine plural, where two consecutive syllables would attest *shewas*, the first changes to *hireq*.

	construct	$\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{a}$ $> i$	$\bar{a} > \mathfrak{a}, \bar{e} > \mathfrak{a}$		absolute
“sleep of”	שֵׁנָה		שֵׁנָה* ← שֵׁנָה + תֵּ -		שֵׁנָה
“year of”	שָׁנָה		שָׁנָה* ← שָׁנָה + תֵּ -		שָׁנָה
“blessing of”	בְּרָכָה	בְּרָכָה	בְּרָכָה* ← בְּרָכָה + תֵּ -		בְּרָכָה

Most other nouns (including exceptional nouns) show only the shift from  $\eta$  - to  $\tau$  -, as with טוֹבָה versus טוֹבָת “good of”; שִׁירָה versus שִׁירָת “song of”; אַמָּה versus אַמָּת “cubit of”; פִּנָּה versus פִּנָּת “corner of”; חֻקָּה versus חֻקָּת “statute of”; מַלְכָּה versus מַלְכָּת “queen of”; דְּמְעָה versus דְּמְעָת “tears of”; חֲכָמָה versus חֲכָמָת “wisdom of”; מְגִלָּה versus מְגִלָּת “scroll of”; עֲבוּדָה versus עֲבוּדָת “labor of”; עֹלָה versus עֹלָת “burnt offering of.” Nouns with a prefix *mem* often exhibit a segolate pattern in the singular construct: מַמְלָכָה versus מַמְלָכָת “kingdom of.”

For feminine plural nouns, one again reduces *qamets* and *tsere* in open syllables to *shewa*; when two *shewas* would appear in adjacent syllables, the first is changed to *hireq*. No other changes are made. These nouns exhibit the same ending in the absolute and construct:  $\tau$ i-.

	construct	$\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{a} > i$	open syllable $\bar{a} > \mathfrak{a}, \bar{e} > \mathfrak{a}$	
“years of”	שָׁנוֹת	=	שָׁנוֹת ← שָׁנוֹת*	
“kingdoms of”	מַמְלָכוֹת	=	מַמְלָכוֹת ← מַמְלָכוֹת*	
“blessings of”	בְּרָכוֹת	=	בְּרָכוֹת ← בְּרָכוֹת*	
“tears of”	דְּמְעוֹת	=	דְּמְעוֹת ← דְּמְעוֹת*	

Again, other nouns show no distinction between construct and absolute: אַמּוֹת “cubits (of)”; פְּנוֹת “corners (of)”; מִצְוֹת “commandments (of).”

Producing Masculine Singular Nouns with כֶּן- and כֶּן- and Masculine Plural Nouns with כֶּן-, כֶּן- and הֶם, הֵן-

To form masculine singular nouns with the second masculine/feminine plural suffixes (כֶּן- and כֶּן-), one takes the construct form of the singular noun and adds the appropriate suffix. To form the masculine plural with the second masculine/feminine plural or third masculine/feminine plural suffixes (כֶּן-, כֶּן- and הֶם, הֵן), one takes the construct form of the plural noun and adds the appropriate suffix.

Singular Noun with Second Masculine/Feminine Plural Suffix

					construct	absolute
“your voice”	קוֹלְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	קוֹל	קוֹל
“your dispute”	רִיבְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	רִיב	רִיב
“your flesh”	בָּשָׂרְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	בָּשָׂר	בָּשָׂר
“your heart”	לִבְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	לֵב	לֵב
“your glory”	כְּבוֹדְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	כְּבוֹד	כְּבוֹד
“your dwelling”	מִשְׁכְּבְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	מִשְׁכָּב	מִשְׁכָּב
“your house”	בֵּיתְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	בֵּית	בֵּית
“your midst”	תּוֹכְכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	תּוֹךְ	תּוֹךְ

Plural Noun with Second Masculine/Feminine Plural, Third Masculine/Feminine Plural Suffix

					construct	absolute
“your songs”	שִׁירֵיכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	שִׁירִי*	שִׁירִים
“your words”	דְּבָרֵיכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	דְּבָרִי	דְּבָרִים
“their words”	דְּבָרֵיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+		
“your enemies”	אֹיְבֵיכֶם	=	כֶּן-	+	אֹיְבִי	אֹיְבִים
“their enemies”	אֹיְבֵיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+		

“your God”	אֱלֹהֵיכֶם	=	כֶּם-	+	אֱלֹהֵי	אֱלֹהִים
“their God”	אֱלֹהֵיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+		
“their makers”	עֲשִׂיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+	עֲשִׂי	עֲשִׂים
“your deeds”	מַעֲשֵׂיכֶם	=	כֶּם-	+	מַעֲשִׂי	מַעֲשִׂים
“their deeds”	מַעֲשֵׂיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+		
“your olives”	זֵיתֵיכֶם	=	כֶּם-	+	זֵיתִי*	זֵיתִים
“their olives”	זֵיתֵיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+		
“your kings”	מַלְכֵיכֶם	=	כֶּם-	+	מַלְכִּי	מַלְכִּים
“their kings”	מַלְכֵיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+		
“your tribes”	שְׁבֻטֵיכֶם	=	כֶּם-	+	שְׁבֻטִי	שְׁבֻטִים
“their tribes”	שְׁבֻטֵיהֶם	=	הֶם-	+		
“your months”	חֳדָשֵׁיכֶם	=	כֶּם-	+	חֳדָשִׁי	חֳדָשִׁים

Exceptional nouns in the above lists include those with II-*vav/yod* consonants (זֵיתִים, תְּנוּךְ, בְּרִית); those with etymological III-*vav/yod* consonants (מַעֲשִׂים, עֲשִׂים); and the plural segolate nouns. Those not yet mentioned include the geminates and the singular segolates. The geminates exhibit gemination and retention of their historical vowel, as when other suffixes are attached to them (e.g., טַפָּכֶם “your children,” חַיִּיכֶם “your life”; לִבָּכֶם “your heart”; כָּלְכֶם “all of you”). The segolates exhibit their historical vowel, revealing their historical base, as when other suffixes are attached to them (\**qatl* [e.g., מַלְכָּכֶם “your king”] \**qitl* [e.g., קִרְבָּכֶם “your midst”], \**qutl* [e.g., אִכְלָכֶם “your food”]).

### Producing Feminine Nouns with Suffixes

To form the feminine singular noun with (non-“heavy”) suffixes, begin with the construct singular form. Change the final ת - to תַּ - and add the appropriate suffix.

						construct	absolute
"my sleep"	שְׁנָתִי	=	י' - +	-שְׁנָת*	←	שְׁנַת	שְׁנָה*
"their sleep"	שְׁנָתָם	=	ם - +	-שְׁנָת*	←		
"her year"	שְׁנָתָהּ	=	הּ - +	-שְׁנָת*	←	שְׁנַת	שְׁנָה
"his year"	שְׁנָתוֹ	=	וֹ - +	-שְׁנָת*	←		
"my blessing"	בְּרָכָתִי	=	י' - +	-בְּרָכָת*	←	בְּרַכַת	בְּרָכָה
"your (ms) blessing"	בְּרָכָתְךָ	=	ךָ - +	-בְּרָכָת*	←		
"my labor"	עֲבֹדָתִי	=	י' - +	-עֲבֹדָת*	←	עֲבֹדַת	עֲבֹדָה
"their labor"	עֲבֹדָתָם	=	ם - +	-עֲבֹדָת*	←		
"my tears"	דְּמָעָתִי	=	י' - +	-דְּמָעָת*	←	דְּמָעַת	דְּמָעָה
"her tears"	דְּמָעָתָהּ	=	הּ - +	-דְּמָעָת*	←		
"his burnt offering"	עֹלָתוֹ	=	וֹ - +	-עֹלָת*	←	עֹלַת	עֹלָה*

*Mem*-prefix nouns have a segolate-like ending in the construct (abs. מַמְלָכָה "kingdom," const. מַמְלֶכֶת "kingdom [of]") and the form with suffixes also has a segolate-like ending (מַמְלֶכֶתִּי). To form the feminine noun with heavy suffixes, begin with the construct singular form and add the second masculine/feminine plural suffix: עֲבֹדָתְכֶם → עֲבֹדַת "your (mp) labor."

To form feminine plural nouns with suffixes (whether heavy or not), take the construct form of the plural noun and simply add the suffixes that occur on the masculine plural noun (including the reflex of the historical \*-ay- dual ending): דְּמָעוֹת "tears of" → דְּמָעוֹתֶיךָ "your (ms) tears"; עֹלֹת "burnt offerings of" → עֹלֹתֶיךָ "your (ms) burnt offerings"; בְּרָכוֹת "blessings of" → בְּרָכוֹתֶיכם "your blessings."

### Producing the *Qâṭal* Verb Form

Usually, producing verbal forms is much easier than producing nominal forms. The finite verbs are inflected for person, number, and gender through suffixal and prefixal components on the verbal stem that are consistent across different verb classes and conjugations (or, *binyanim*).

The paradigm of the *qâṭal* (or, perfect) can be divided into two basic parts: third-person forms and everything else (i.e., second- and first-per-

son forms). The third-person forms are also divisible into two parts: the third masculine singular, on the one hand, and the third feminine singular/third common plural on the other. The third masculine singular form is the “dictionary form” of the word (i.e., the form that is listed in the dictionary and which is memorized in vocabulary lessons [e.g., שָׁמַר “he guarded”]); the third masculine singular, therefore, often constitutes the point of comparison for the other forms. The third feminine singular and third common plural of any given verb differ only in their ending (*qamets<sup>he</sup>* for 3fs and *shureq* for 3cp). In other respects they are almost always identical and can be thought of as a pair. They almost always exhibit the same vowel sequence within the verbal stem. If one knows the form of the third feminine singular, one will be able to predict the form of the third common plural and vice versa. In most cases, the last syllable of these forms bears the tone/stress and the vowel of the penultimate and pretonic syllable reduces (e.g., שָׁמְרָה “she guarded” and שָׁמְרוּ “they guarded”).

The other major category of the *qāṭal* is represented by the second- and first-person forms. Most second- and first-person forms attest the same vowel sequences within the verbal stem. The forms are usually penultimately accented and exhibit a *patakh* in the last syllable of the stem (e.g., שָׁמַרְתָּ). This is incredibly regular, across all the different conjugations (e.g., שָׁמַרְתָּ “you guarded” [*qal*]; דִּבַּרְתָּ “you spoke” [*piel*]; הִקְרַבְתָּ “you brought near” [*hiphil*]; נִשְׁמַרְתָּ “you were on guard” [*niphal*]; שְׁלַחְתָּ “I was sent away” [*pual*]; הִכְלַמְנוּ “we were humiliated” [*hophal*]; וְהִתְחַזְקֶתָם “you should take courage” [*hithpael*]). The same regularity is found in the other second- and first-person forms. The one exception to this regularity is the pair of second plural forms (2mp/2fp), which are accented on the final, suffixal element (תִּם- and תֵּן-). In these forms (e.g., שָׁמַרְתֶּם), the initial syllable of the word will contain a *shewa* (unless it is a closed syllable, as in the *piel*, e.g., שָׁמַרְתֶּם). The reason that the verbal suffixes תִּם- and תֵּן- attract the tone or stress is that they are heavy suffixes, composed of the sequence consonant-vowel-consonant, just like the suffixes כֶּם- and כֵּן- on nouns.

The predictability of the paradigms means that often it is enough to memorize the first three forms of any *qāṭal* paradigm (i.e., the 3ms, 3fs, 2ms).<sup>11</sup> The third masculine singular is important because it is the “dictionary form” and will sometimes exhibit a vowel different from the

11. Although organizing the verbal paradigm so that it begins with the 1cs form and then continues to the 2ms, 2fs, 3ms and 3fs has become more popular in recent grammars due to the familiarity of this sequence in other modern languages (as well as

second- and first-person forms (e.g., כָּבַד and שָׁמַר). From the third feminine singular one can predict the third common plural (from שָׁמְרָה one can predict שָׁמְרוּ and from שָׁמְרָה one can predict שָׁמְרוּ); the second masculine singular will demonstrate the vowel sequence for most of the other forms (from שָׁמְרָת one can predict שָׁמְרָתִי and from שָׁמְרָת one can predict שָׁמְרָתִי, etc.).

The vowel patterns of the different conjugations or *binyanim* are also important to memorize. Since the Hebrew conjugations or *binyanim* (aside from the *qal* = “simple [conjugation]”) are named after the form of the verb פָּעַל “to do, make” in the third masculine singular *qāṭal*, these names (*piel*, *hiphil*, etc.) can serve as ready mnemonic devices for recalling the vowels of the *qāṭal* third masculine singular (as well as sometimes the *yiqṭol* and related forms). Thus, the *piel* (פָּעַל) exhibits the sequence *hireq-tsere* in the *qāṭal*; the *hiphil* (הִפְעִיל) the sequence *he-hireq-hireq<sup>od</sup>*; the *niphal* (נִפְעַל) the sequence *nun-hireq-patakh*; the *pual* (פֻּעַל) the sequence *qibbutz-patakh*; the *hophal* (הֻפְעַל) the sequence *he-qamets khatuf-patakh*; the *hithpael* (הִתְפַּעֵל) the sequence *he-hireq-tav-patakh-tsere*. Other common features, include the following.

1. The conjugations associated with an active sense (*piel*, *hiphil*, *hithpael*) are characterized by an /i/ class vowel in the last syllable of the third masculine singular *qāṭal*, whereas those associated with passivity (*niphal*, *pual*, and *hophal*) have a *patakh* in the last syllable.
2. In the *qāṭal*, the /i/ class vowel associated with “active” stems appears only in the third masculine singular.
  - 2.1. In the third feminine singular and third common plural one usually finds a *shewa* (e.g., דִּבְרָה and דִּבְרוּ).
  - 2.2. In the second- and first-person forms, a *patakh* appears in this same slot (e.g., דִּבֵּר vs. דִּבְרָתִי, etc.).

Furthermore, it should be noted that the vowel sequences for the *pual*, *hophal*, and *hithpael* are the same in all verbal forms (not only *qāṭal* and *yiqṭol*, but also the impv., inf., and ptc.). In essence, if you can remember the name of the stem, you have a good chance of being able to produce the vowels of the verbal form.

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for other reasons), the above observation suggests that organizing the verbal paradigm beginning with the 3ms also has its pedagogical benefits.

Producing the *Wəqāṭal* Verb Form

This verb form is identical to that of the *qāṭal*, with one slight exception. In the second masculine singular and first common singular forms, the accent falls on the final syllable (not the penultimate syllable). This usually has no effect on the vowels. That is, the initial vowel does not reduce, as one might expect. Thus, we find *וְאַמַּרְתָּ* “you will say.” Rarely one does see a slightly different form, as with the *wəqāṭal* form *וְיִכְלֹתָ* (Exod 18:23) versus the comparable first-person regular *qāṭal* form *יִכְלֹתִי* (e.g., Ps 40:13).

Producing the *Yiqṭol* Verb Form

The inflection of the imperfect or *yiqṭol* forms is even more straightforward than that of the *qāṭal*. Only the final stem vowel of the *yiqṭol* reduces to *shewa* and then only where the suffixal element of the verb form consists exclusively of a vowel. This applies to all the conjugations except the *hiphil*. For example, note the *qal* forms: *יִכְתֹּב* “he will write” (the 3ms), versus *תִּכְתְּבִי* (the 2fs), *יִכְתְּבוּ* (the 3mp), and *תִּכְתְּבוּ* (the 2mp); the *niphal* forms: *יִכְתֹּב* “it will be written” (the 3ms) versus *יִכְתְּבוּ*, *תִּכְתְּבִי*, and *תִּכְתְּבוּ*; and the *piel* forms: *יִכְתֹּב* versus *יִכְתְּבוּ*, *תִּכְתְּבִי*, and *תִּכְתְּבוּ*. In the *hiphil*, even this vowel does not reduce: *יִכְתִּיב* and compare *יִכְתְּיבוּ*, *תִּכְתְּיבִי*, and *תִּכְתְּיבוּ*. Where this vowel reduction occurs, it is the same for all three forms and it is often sufficient to memorize just two forms of the paradigm (the 3ms and the 3mp). From these, one can predict the vowel sequences of the other forms.

The *piel*, *hiphil*, and *niphal* all attest a sequence of vowels in the *yiqṭol* and related forms that is distinct from that of the *qāṭal*. The *piel* attests (*shewa*)-*patakh-tserē* (e.g., *יִשְׁמֹר*); the *hiphil* *patakh-hireq<sup>vod</sup>* (e.g., *יִשְׁמִיר*); and the *niphal* *hireq-qamets-tserē* (e.g., *יִשְׁמֹר*). In the graphic realization of the first syllables in the *yiqṭol*, the *piel* appears to be the reverse of the *hiphil*: while the *piel* has a *shewa* followed by a *patakh*, the *hiphil* has a *patakh* followed by a silent *shewa*.

Producing the Short-*Yiqṭol* and *Wayyiqṭol* Verb Forms

For most strong roots (and roots with gutturals) in the *qal*, the short-*yiqṭol* (used primarily in its jussive function and seldom in its preterite function) and the *wayyiqṭol* (or *vav*-consecutive imperfect) are identical to the form of the regular *yiqṭol* (e.g., *יִשְׁמֹר*, *יִשְׁמֹר*, *וַיִּשְׁמֹר*; “he will guard,” “let him

guard,” and “he guarded.”). In weak roots (especially II- and III-*vav/yod* roots) and throughout the *hiphil*, however, the short-*yiqtol* and *wayyiqtol* are graphically and phonetically shorter than the *yiqtol* (יָקוּם, יָקָם, יִקְמוּ; “he will arise,” “let him arise,” and “he arose” [*\*wayyāqom*] and יַעֲשֶׂה, יַעֲשֶׂה, יַעֲשֶׂה; “he will do,” “let him do,” and “he did”).

### Producing the Imperative

The BH imperative is based on the second-person forms of the (short-) *yiqtol*. Essentially, the imperative is the *yiqtol* minus the prefix. Thus, if one starts with תִּשְׁמֹר “you will guard,” to form the imperative one simply subtracts the prefix, resulting in שְׁמֹר “guard!” Similarly, the feminine plural תִּשְׁמְרֶנָּה becomes שְׁמְרֶנָּה. Following this method, in the *qal* the feminine singular and masculine plural result in a sequence of two *shewas* that reduce according to the “rule of *shewa*” (i.e., *a-a > i*): תִּשְׁמְרִי “you will guard” minus the prefix results in שְׁמְרִי\* which resolves into שְׁמְרִי “guard!”; similarly the masculine plural: תִּשְׁמְרוּ minus the prefix results in שְׁמְרוּ\* which resolves into שְׁמְרוּ “guard!” These will sometimes resemble the *piel* perfect (e.g., שָׁלַח); the context usually implies the proper form.

The same patterns are found for *yiqtol* verbs with *patakh* and *tserē* theme vowels in the *qal*. With *patakh*: תִּשְׂמַח “you will rejoice” and the imperative שְׂמַח “rejoice!”; תִּשְׂמְחוּ and שְׂמְחוּ. With *tserē*: תִּתֵּן “you will give” and the imperative תֵּן “give!”; תִּתְּנוּ and תֵּנוּ. In the latter case, the *yiqtol* form attests the assimilation of the *nun*, though in the imperative the *nun* is lost altogether. The same principle, however, seems to be at work: the prefix component of the *yiqtol* is subtracted to form the imperative.

These patterns are consistent for most derived conjugations, including the *niphal*, the *piel*, and *hithpael*. Note, for example, the *piel yiqtol* and imperative: תִּדְבֹּר “you will speak” and דְּבֹר “speak!” In the case of the *niphal* and *hithpael*, the imperative loses the consonantal component of the prefix, but retains its vowel by means of an initial *he*. Thus, the *niphal yiqtol* and imperative: תִּתְּשַׁמֵּר “you will be on your guard” and הִתְּשַׁמֵּר “be on guard!”; the *hithpael*: יִתְּהַלֵּךְ “it will go” and הִתְּהַלֵּךְ “go!” The *niphal* imperative is also frequently attested with penultimate accent הִשְׁמֹר “be on guard” (Deut 24:8 and passim), probably related to the accentuation found sometimes in the *wayyiqtol*. Compare, for example, הִלָּחֶם “fight” (Judg 9:38) and וַיִּלָּחֶם “he fought” (Josh 10:38).

In essence, since the third masculine singular/plural *yiqtol* forms are similar to the corresponding second-person forms in all but the conso-



nantal prefix element (e.g., יִשְׁמַר [3ms] vs. תִּשְׁמַר [2ms]; יִשְׁמְרוּ [3mp] vs. תִּשְׁמְרוּ [2mp]), one can simply remember the third masculine singular/plural forms and derive from these the basic forms of the imperative (e.g., שְׁמַר and יִשְׁמַר; as well as שְׁמְרוּ and יִשְׁמְרוּ).

### Summary for Producing Verbal Forms

The following chart summarizes the basic correspondences discussed in the preceding paragraphs.

<i>Qāṭal</i>			
2ms (+ other forms)	3fs and 3cp	3ms	conjugation
שְׁמַרְתָּ שְׁמַרְתָּ שְׁמַרְתִּי שְׁמַרְנוּ שְׁמַרְתֶּם // שְׁמַרְתִּין	שְׁמַרְתָּ שְׁמְרוּ	שְׁמַר	<i>qal</i>
שְׁמַרְתָּ שְׁמַרְתָּ שְׁמַרְתִּי שְׁמַרְנוּ שְׁמַרְתֶּם // שְׁמַרְתִּין	שְׁמַרְתָּ שְׁמְרוּ	שְׁמַר	<i>piel</i>
הִשְׁמַרְתָּ הִשְׁמַרְתָּ הִשְׁמַרְתִּי הִשְׁמַרְנוּ הִשְׁמַרְתֶּם // הִשְׁמַרְתִּין	הִשְׁמַרְתָּ הִשְׁמְרוּ	הִשְׁמַר	<i>hiphil</i>

Qal Yiqtol, Imperative, Infinitive Construct			
Forms Ending with <i>-ū</i> or <i>-ī</i>	Forms ending with Consonant or <i>-nā</i>		
	יִשְׁמְרוּ	יִשְׁמַר	<i>yiqtol</i>
תִּשְׁמְרוּ	תִּשְׁמַר		
תִּשְׁמְרוּ	אֲשְׁמַר		
	תִּשְׁמְרֶנָּה		
	נִשְׁמַר		
		יִשְׁמַר	short- <i>yiqtol</i>
	תִּשְׁמַר		
שְׁמְרוּ	שְׁמַר		imperative
שְׁמְרוּ	שְׁמַרְנָה		
		שְׁמַר	infinitive construct
Piel Yiqtol, Imperative, Infinitive Construct			
Forms Ending with <i>-ū</i> or <i>-ī</i>	Forms ending with Consonant or <i>-nā</i>		
	יִשְׁמְרוּ	יִשְׁמַר	<i>yiqtol</i>
תִּשְׁמְרוּ	תִּשְׁמַר		
תִּשְׁמְרוּ	אֲשְׁמַר		
	תִּשְׁמְרֶנָּה		
	נִשְׁמַר		
		יִשְׁמַר	short- <i>yiqtol</i>
	תִּשְׁמַר		
שְׁמְרוּ	שְׁמַר		imperative
שְׁמְרוּ	שְׁמַרְנָה		
		שְׁמַר	infinitive construct
		שְׁמַר	infinitive absolute
		מְשַׁמֵּר	participle

<i>Hiphil Yiqtol</i> , Imperative, Infinitive Construct			
Forms Ending with <i>-ū</i> or <i>-ī</i>	Forms ending with Consonant or <i>-nā</i>		
	יִשְׁמְרוּ	יִשְׁמֹר	<i>yiqtol</i>
תִּשְׁמְרוּ	תִּשְׁמֹר		
תִּשְׁמְרוּ	אֲשִׁמֹּר		
	נִשְׁמֹר		
		יִשְׁמֹר	short- <i>yiqtol</i>
	תִּשְׁמֹר		
הִשְׁמְרוּ	הִשְׁמֹר		imperative
הִשְׁמְרוּ	הִשְׁמֹרְנָה		
		הִשְׁמֹר	infinitive construct
		הִשְׁמֹר	infinitive absolute
		מִשְׁמֹר	participle



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## Ancient Sources Index

Genesis		22:11	168
1:3	206–7, 215	22:14	207 n. 103
1:4	187	22:17	173 n. 32
1:22	206	24:18	199
1:26	162, 215	24:21	45
2:9	188	24:56	171
2:16	184, 208	25:30	54
2:19	43, 199	26:3	173
2:23	162	26:18	10
3:4	164 n. 3	26:28	171
3:11	111, 179	27:31	174 n. 38
3:19	161	28:3	204 n. 100
3:23	184	29:8	197
3:24	53	30:24	252 n. 46
4:24	191	30:34	94, 111
4:25	178–79	31:30	191
5:29	69 n. 26	32:3	204
8:20	206	32:8	210
8:22	111	34:17	246 n. 42
9:17	201	34:21	129
9:20	211	35:24	48
9:21	205 n. 102	35:25	48
12:8	207	37:14	174 n. 34
13:1	206	37:22	189 n. 70
13:17	191	37:24	187
14:16	188	39:1	189, 191, 199
14:24	94 n. 98	41:3	45 n. 96
16:4	211	41:4	45 n. 96
17:6	111	41:19	45 n. 96
17:13	191, 246 n. 42	41:20	45 n. 96
18:1	207	41:23	56 n. 136
18:4	184	41:27	45 n. 96
18:7	45 n. 96	41:43	188, 207 n. 104
19:19	180 n. 49	42:24	211
21:5	80 n. 55, 185, 252 n. 46	42:34	111

<i>Genesis (cont.)</i>		19:12	99
43:34	206	21:19	191
44:21	189	21:29	93
44:33	206	22:3	191
45:5	178–179	22:13	197
45:11	194	23:1	163
45:17	32	23:4	135
46:4	163 n. 1	25:23	133
47:13	46	25:31	167, 179
49:18	161, 215	29:30	180 n. 49
49:29	111	30:7	175
		32:9	145, 161
<i>Exodus</i>		32:16	33
2:9	12, 40 n. 73, 43	32:25	99
2:14	199	33:19	26
3:18	41	33:22	38 n. 65
3:20	81 n. 58	34:13	171–72
4:10	161	35:35	185
4:31	210 n. 110	40:2	202
5:2	196 n. 84		
5:3	41	<i>Leviticus</i>	
5:8	197 n. 86	2:2	32 n. 49
5:14	226 n. 14	2:16	23 n. 19
5:22	178	5:6	47
6:1	186	6:2	208
6:3	250 n. 45	7:16	189
6:12	180	9:6	207
7:2	175	10:13	226
8:1	208	12:2	46
8:12	208	13:20	143
8:17	81 n. 58	13:23	44
9:14	141	13:50	149
9:25	207	14:41	51
10:8	191, 246 n. 42	15:8	39 n. 71, 56
12:40	108 n. 146	18:6	109
12:46	21	19:17	252 n. 46
13:7	196	20:3	133, 149
14:11	92 n. 90	20:12	200 n. 96
14:25	182	21:1	190
15:2	173 n. 33	21:4	192
15:25	170	22:27	252 n. 46
16:16	109 n. 149	24:9	179
16:21	212	24:16	133
17:8	243 n. 39	25:21	205, 213
18:23	283	25:32	99 n. 114



26:1	202	6:7	215
26:16	46 n. 100	8:13	173 n. 30
26:34	205	9:20	188
		9:28	92 n. 90
Numbers		10:22	93 n. 94
5:10	151 n. 74	11:17	215
6:12	108	11:18	215
6:13	197	12:26	151 n. 74
9:15	202	13:1	42
11:8	38 n. 65, 45 n. 96	13:7	162
15:28	254 n. 47	14:4	219 n. 4, 222 n. 10
15:32	213	15:3	187
16:28	178	18:16	252 n. 46
20:5	179	18:22	180, 186
21:7	213	19:6	209
22:11	191	20:19	163 n. 1
22:22	42	21:23	90
22:23	42	22:1	219 n. 4, 222 n. 10
22:31	184	22:2	179
23:4	250 n. 45	24:4	167
23:25	254 n. 47	24:8	284
24:7	190 n. 73	27:2	201
25:4	246 n. 42	27:9	45 n. 95, 55 n. 135
31:9	252 n. 46	28:8	206
31:50	243 n. 39	29:12	185
32:8	133	29:27	170
32:19	198	31:19	181
34:3	149 n. 71	31:21	43
34:7	58	32:10	165, 173 n. 33
34:8	58	32:18	165, 180 n. 48
		32:21	165 n. 6
Deuteronomy		32:26	48 n. 106
1:18	170 n. 20, 250 n. 45	32:34	47 n. 102
1:22	10	32:35	129
1:44	254 n. 47	33:17	162
2:25	172	33:19	44
2:30	189	34:8	210, 254 n. 47
3:18	170 n. 20, 250 n. 45	34:10	180
3:28	198		
4:3	186, 188	Joshua	
4:13	179	1:16	180
4:36	188	2:15	82
5:33	166	3:7	254 n. 47
6:3	83 n. 63	5:7	201
6:6	215	6:11	211

<i>Joshua (cont.)</i>		5:9	26
10:6	208	6:8	246 n. 42
10:38	191, 284	6:12	177 n. 44, 199
13:19	79	9:10	94 n. 97
15:47	112	11:13	208, 246 n. 42
16:6	212	13:12	250 n. 45
19:51	212	14:33	197
24:27	184	14:34	219 n. 4, 222 n. 10
		14:36	165 n. 7, 243 n. 39
<i>Judges</i>		16:16	185
1:22	21	17:47	186
2:15	254 n. 47	17:49	117 n. 6
3:6	129	18:5	174 n. 34
5:5	212 n. 114	19:11	133, 246 n. 42
5:7	14–15	20:2	178
5:11	33	20:10	204
5:12	252 n. 46	20:24	26
5:26	33 n. 55, 173 n. 31	21:3	135 n. 40
5:30	197	21:14	47, 58 n. 142
6:9	188	22:18	58
6:31	201	23:9	26
7:13	48	24:16	180
9:38	191, 284	25:3	11
9:54	178	26:21	23
9:57	90	28:16	12, 32
10:4	98 n. 113	30:19	26
10:6	178	31:12	46 n. 100
11:18	210		
11:40	33	2 Samuel	
12:6	31	1:22	24 n. 20
13:5	211	2:9	127
13:13	190	3:5	184
16:26	39 n. 71, 40 n. 73	3:25	32 n. 49
16:28	181	5:11	137
19:8	194	7:13	163 n. 1
19:9	26	8:3	57 n. 139
21:9	192 n. 79	11:20	207
		12:19	202
<i>1 Samuel</i>		12:23	189
1:24	79, 178	12:28	
2:10	212	13:29	198 n. 87
2:27	197	14:3	162, 215
2:30	209 n. 107	14:16	188
4:18	166	14:24	210
5:8	255 n. 48	15:24	57 n. 139

18:8	93, 170 n. 21, 206	13:17	207
20:6	209 n. 108	14:6	246 n. 42
20:13	39 n. 71	17:21	56
21:20	184	18:25	189
21:22	184	19:1	206
22:12	165	19:20	40 n. 77
22:27	254 n. 47	21:6	193
22:29	133	22:4	254 n. 47
22:35	212 n. 113	25:19	197
23:18	193–94		
24:22	206, 208	Isaiah	
		1:4	254 n. 47
1 Kings		1:20	184
1:1	210	5:6	26
1:14	111	5:14	167
2:30	179	5:19	171
3:21	170 n. 20	5:28	218 n. 3
7:9	199 n. 93	6:8	179
7:15	209	8:11	199
7:45	57	8:23	35 n. 55
8:46	179	9:17	48
11:22	81 n. 58	11:9	162
12:21	188	13:10	254 n. 47
12:24	164 n. 3	13:18	218 n. 3, 242 n. 38
12:32	81 n. 58	13:22	47
13:6	208	16:5	201
13:20	189	16:7	41
18:1	207 n. 103	17:7	43 n. 88
18:26	179	17:10	244 n. 41
22:26	189	17:12	172, 173 n. 30
		19:8	140
2 Kings		20:4	198
1:8	45	21:12	173 n. 30
1:10	199 n. 90	22:8	186
2:17	111	23:13	201
2:21	108	24:3	212, 254 n. 47
3:4	80 n. 54	24:7	90
4:24	198	26:11	173 n. 30
4:29	173, 175	26:19	127
9:15	168	26:20	46 n. 99
9:37	205	27:4	40 n. 73
12:19	151 n. 74	28:2	24 n. 20
13:4	208	29:5	45
13:12	183	29:10	53 n. 130
13:16	188, 207	29:21	40 nn. 73 and 77, 41 n. 81

<i>Isaiah (cont.)</i>		59:6	109 n. 149
30:27	112	59:20	99
30:30	112	60:1	215
30:31	212	60:7	175 n. 40
30:33	134	60:8	43 n. 88
31:3	173 n. 30	61:6	88 n. 76
32:4	47, 50	63:15	133
33:7	173 n. 30, 205	63:17	53
33:15	53 n. 130	64:3	212
33:19	39 n. 71	64:6	194
33:20	32	64:8	168
34:4	115, 149	65:1	197
36:10	189	65:2	11, 25
37:25	40 n. 77	65:8	187
38:19	199	65:12	179
40:18	173 n. 30	66:5	56–57
40:22	82	66:11	39 n. 70
41:2	210		
41:5	173 n. 30	Jeremiah	
41:22	188	2:11	40 n. 73
42:16	95 n. 102	2:36	210 n. 110
42:17	201	3:5	11 n. 8
43:1	135	4:4	246 n. 42
44:3	43, 199	4:30	84
44:8	41 n. 82	4:31	40 n. 75, 41 n. 81
44:18	38 n. 65	5:22	173 n. 33, 175
44:20	254 n. 47	6:12	212
44:26	191	7:18	189
45:13	81 n. 58	8:2	193
45:22	252 n. 46	8:7	84
46:1	56	8:16	50 n. 119
46:2	56	9:1	180 n. 50
47:6	211	10:7	41 n. 81
47:9	203	12:6	170
48:10	47 n. 102	14:21	198
49:10	207	15:10	179
49:19	210 n. 110	15:11	26 n. 29
50:5	201	16:12	254 n. 47
50:11	226 n. 14	19:2	23 n. 19
51:7	97	20:15	112 n. 157
52:5	186 n. 66	21:4	211
52:10	12	22:28	246 n. 42
53:4	162, 215	25:28	197
54:8	32 n. 49	27:16	246 n. 42
56:10	50 n. 119	27:22	133

28:9	199	34:12	98, 137
29:23	220 n. 8	36:34	254 n. 47
31:19	199	38:4	194
31:21	15	40:8	210
33:6	33 n. 51	43:11	32 n. 49
33:17	108	44:8	151 n. 74
34:15	171	44:13	151 n. 74
44:12	210	46:2	193
44:21	87		
47:3	46 n. 99	Hosea	
48:2	210	2:8	24 n. 20
49:22	254 n. 47	4:15	21
50:44	174	5:11	57
51:11	254 n. 47	5:15	175 n. 40
52:3	189 n. 70	7:7	209
52:21	209 n. 107	9:14	56 n. 136
		11:4	165 n. 7
Ezekiel		12:2	170 n. 21
1:9	212	14:5	208
1:12	210	14:6	207
7:24	212		
9:4	58 n. 142	Joel	
9:6	211	1:8	41
12:25	11 n. 7	2:16	158, 229 n. 17
13:10	45	2:20	12
13:33	177 n. 45	4:3	209 n. 106
14:14	58 n. 143		
16:31	99	Amos	
16:44	162	1:11	11 n. 8
16:55	203, 246 n. 42	2:9	243 n. 39
21:3	44	2:13	35 n. 55
21:14	254 n. 47	3:11	212
22:8	151 n. 74	4:12	201
22:26	151 n. 74	5:13	210 n. 109
24:10	254 n. 47	5:24	212
24:12	205 n. 101	6:3	56–57
24:23	254 n. 47	6:8	45–46
25:6	156 n. 95		
27:9	26, 137	Obadiah	
28:13	194	13	172 n. 26, 177 n. 45
30:7	254 n. 47		
31:3	32	Jonah	
31:16	189	2:3	200 n. 97
32:30	202		
33:10	254 n. 47		

Micah		8:3	162
1:7	255 n. 49	9:7	152 n. 77
2:4	254 n. 47	17:1	181
4:13	254 n. 47	18:12	99, 163 n. 1, 165
6:8	48, 53	18:24	192
7:3	46 n. 100	18:26	158
7:4	24 n. 20	18:28	80 n. 54
7:5	170	18:30	89
		18:31	79, 79 n. 54
Nahum		18:33	80
1:3	24 n. 20	18:34	187
1:10	184	18:35	84 n. 64, 92
1:12	212	18:36	94 n. 97, 128
1:14	254 n. 47	18:37	84 n. 64
3:17	194	18:38	80, 89
3:18	44	18:39	80, 84, 89
		18:46	79, 89
Habakkuk		21:4	163 n. 1
1:2	203	21:11	129
2:1	80 n. 55, 185 n. 62	22:15	212
2:3	236	23:1	161
3:6	209 n. 106	23:2	58
3:16	49 n. 110, 175 n. 39	25:20	181
		27:4	131
Zephaniah		27:12	236
1:2	252 n. 46	27:14	207 n. 103
2:6	58	28:3	220 n. 8
2:11	213	28:7	93 n. 95, 161, 183 n. 59
		28:9	94 n. 97
Zechariah		29:1	89
1:10	191	29:2	89
2:14	225 n. 13	29:3	79, 96 n. 104
11:16	193	30:8	65 n. 12, 79, 91 n. 85, 94 n. 97,
14:12	254 n. 47	96	
		30:10	65 n. 12, 82 n. 61, 93 n. 95
Malachi		30:11	80, 207 n. 103
1:8	189	30:13	94 n. 97
2:5	212 n. 113	31:2	92 n. 92
3:2	46 n. 99	31:3	79
5:6	207 n. 103	31:5	83, 89
		31:7	89
Psalms		31:9	68 n. 20
2:1	52	31:10	83
4:3	172	31:18	210, 254 n. 47
5:12	254 n. 47	31:23	49 n. 112

31:24	80	60:6	45
32:7	79	62:6	161
32:8	200	62:13	161
32:9	89	63:4	175
32:10	93 n. 94	64:3	52
32:11	79	64:8	207
33:3	207 n. 103	66:11	35 n. 55
35:2	187 n. 68	68:4–5	11
35:13	89	68:11	161
35:14	106 n. 142	71:4	44
35:18	94 n. 97	71:6	39 n. 70, 212 n. 114
35:20	92, 122	71:21	93, 170 n. 21, 206
35:21	83 n. 64	71:24	10
35:24	85 n. 68, 109	72:6	56 n. 136
35:26	84, 90	72:9	161
35:27	93 n. 94, 109	72:15	173 n. 33
35:28	128	73:5	129
36:3	80	73:9	39 n. 65
36:8	173 n. 30	75:11	203
36:9	173 n. 30	77:17	204
37:7	206	78:15	206
37:11	215	78:44	173 n. 30
38:12	149	78:62	192
39:7	173 n. 30	79:2	225 n. 13
40:5	38 n. 63	79:8	254 n. 47
40:13	283	80:9	166 n. 9
40:15	10	83:3	173 n. 30
41:5	181 n. 52	83:14	129
44:19	201	89:19	82 n. 61
45:16	203	89:26	68 n. 20
46:2	101 n. 123	89:32	65 n. 12, 80 n. 55, 111
46:4	84 n. 67	89:38	29 n. 38, 201 n. 98
46:6	79	89:40	91 n. 85, 96
46:10	185 n. 61	89:43	89
49:4	80	89:45	96 n. 103
49:10	207 n. 103	89:47	94, 190 n. 72
49:11	94 n. 98	89:48	78
49:15	39 n. 65	89:49	92–93
50:10	225 n. 13	89:51	82 n. 61
52:2	58	89:52	183 n. 63
55:4	35 n. 55	90:3	45
55:15	52	91:4	254 n. 47
57:1	163 n. 1	95:5	178
59:13	223 n. 11	98:2	199
60:4	51	99:1	51

*Psalms (cont.)*

		6:10	137
99:8	178-79	6:17	44
102:29	201	8:8	194
104:11	225 n. 13	9:12	45
104:12	58 n. 141	9:17	24 n. 20
104:20	225 n. 13	11:17	171 n. 25
104:29	42	12:6	37, 205
105:25	84	12:8	174 n. 34
107:25	203	12:18	45, 185
107:27	162	16:8	32 n. 49
114:2	156	16:13	209
116:6	58, 186	16:22	205
118:10	180 n. 49	17:1	57
118:11	180 n. 49	17:7	24 n. 20
118:12	180 n. 49	18:16	210 n. 109
119:20	23 n. 19, 46	19:2	173 n. 30, 175, 205
119:40	46	19:17	26
119:50	137	19:20	161
119:99	25	20:22	210
119:130	58	21:10	108
119:131	53	22:3	211
119:174	46	24:24	210 n. 110
121:7	89	27:8	52 n. 129
129:2	84	27:23	24 n. 20
129:3	46	28:13	162
136	162	28:17	45
136:5	145	28:27	167, 179
139:20	32	29:2	260 n. 54
140:2	112 n. 157	30:11	185
140:10	254 n. 47	30:13	44
141:4	207	31:38	173 n. 30
141:10	140	33:19	46 n. 100
143:3	195	34:37	24 n. 20
145:8	132	36:10	178
		36:15	12, 178
Job		38:8	24 n. 20
1:10	24 n. 20	39:20	50 n. 119
3:4	54	40:19	272 n. 9
3:8	194	41:10	254 n. 47
3:20	111	41:14	46
3:23	24 n. 20		
3:26	37	Proverbs	
4:10	33, 51	1:28	175
4:14	41	2:2	207 n. 103
5:4	190 n. 73	2:10	198



3:5	161	4:15	44, 44 n. 90
4:5	207		
4:26	201	Esther	
6:19	236	1:22	11, 25–26
6:24	133	4:8	98
8:17	175 n. 40	5:6	98
15:19	24	5:7	137
16:18	162	9:27	229 n. 18
16:27	44, 46 n. 99		
16:30	53 n. 130	Daniel	
17:20	108 n. 146	2:14	138
17:28	26	2:16	229 n. 18
18:14	194	5:2	187
21:31	201	7:12	229 n. 18
22:11	132	9:19	181 n. 52
23:22	166	10:21	225 n. 13
23:31	190, 192	11:12	58
24:18	167	11:36	203
26:26	190 n. 73		
27:2	162	Ezra	
29:8	236 n. 27	2:27	23 n. 19
		2:69	58
Ruth		3:1	163 n. 1
2:3	41	4:5	23
2:21	172	7:6	137
3:3	15, 213	7:25	138
		8:2	58 n. 143
Song of Songs		8:25	86 n. 71, 197
3:11	252 n. 46	8:27	45
7:2	58 n. 141	9:9	207
Qoheleth		Nehemiah	
1:2	158	2:3	210 n. 110
1:17	23	2:12	170 n. 20
2:3	23	3:15	32
5:15	215	7:31	23 n. 19
8:1	33	11:17	186 n. 66
9:11	161, 215	13:3	187
10:6	11, 25, 47	13:15	156 n. 95
12:6	212		
12:8	158	1 Chronicles	
		5:19	58 n. 141
Lamentations		5:20	58 n. 141
2:5	206	10:12	46 n. 100
3:16	23 n. 19, 46	12:34	33

<i>1 Chronicles (cont.)</i>		4Q270	
12:39	88 n. 76, 153 n. 80	7 I, 18	22 n. 14
14:8	11 n. 7		
18:3	57 n. 139	4Q328	
28:9	179	1, 1	88 n. 76
2 Chronicles		4Q385	
5:7	151	6a II + 6c, 9	84 n. 65
15:18	151 n. 74		
17:11	58 n. 141	4Q386	
24:12	23	1 II, 4	88 n. 76, 153
35:5	46 n. 101, 54		
36:16	50	4Q401	
		14 II, 4	84 n. 65
Dead Sea Scrolls		4Q477	
1QS		2 II, 8	88 n. 76
II, 3	89		
V, 13	88 n. 76	4Q514	
		1 I, 6	22 n. 14
1QHa			
XII, 36	128	11Q19 (Temple Scroll)	
		LIII, 16	111
4Q158		LIX, 4	111
4, 6	91 n. 85	LIX, 7	111
		LIX, 9	111
4Q169 (4QpNah)		LXVI, 9	88
3–4 IV, 2	54 n. 131		
		11Q20 (Temple Scroll)	
4Q171		XII, 25	88 n. 76
1 + 3–4 III, 5	88 n. 76		
		1QIsa <sup>a</sup>	
4Q175		at Isa 34:4	115, 149
25	88	at Isa 42:16	95 n. 102
		at Isa 48:10	47 n. 102
4Q177		at Isa 59:6	109 n. 149
12–13 I, 6	32 n. 49	at Isa 61:6	88 n. 76
4Q221		4Q70 (4QJer <sup>a</sup> )	
4, 9	88 n. 76	at Jer 8:7	84
4Q225		11Q5 (11QPs <sup>a</sup> )	
2 I, 6	22 n. 14	at Ps 105:45	84
		at Ps 121:7	89
		at Ps 129:2	84

## Author Index

- |                        |   |                        |  |
|------------------------|---|------------------------|--|
| Abraham, Kathleen      | 27 n. 34  | Crystal, David         | 164 n. 5   |
| Aḥituv, Shmuel         | 102 n. 127, 103 n. 130  | Dahmen, U.             | 33 n. 50   |
| Allen, W. S.           | 64 nn. 7–8,   | Dat, Florin-Mihai      | 48 n. 104  |
| Avestad, Silje         | 196 n. 83   | DeCaen, V.             | 172 n. 29  |
| Baranowski, Kryzstoff  | 168 n. 16, 169<br>n. 18   | Delitzsch, Friedrich   | 57 n. 139  |
| Ben-Ḥayyim             | 16 n. 24  | Dobbs-Allsopp, F. W.   | 102 n. 127, 103 n.<br>130  |
| Bergsträsser, Gotthelf | 29 n. 40, 30 n.<br>41, 83 n. 63, 143 n. 57, 200 n. 95   | Dolgopolsky, Aron      | 19 n. 4, 24 n. 24  |
| Beyer, Klaus           | 22 n. 13  | Eddington, David       | 18 n. 1  |
| Blau, Joshua           | 10 n. 4, 20 n. 9, 23<br>n. 19, 24, 24 nn. 20–23, 25 nn. 26–27,<br>31 n. 45, 44 n. 93, 48 nn. 104–5, 52 n.<br>129, 68 n. 23, 70 n. 33, 72, 73 n. 37, 77<br>n. 46, 83 n. 63, 88 n. 76, 91 n. 87, 95 n.<br>102, 96 n. 105, 101 nn. 124–25, 104,<br>104 n. 134, 105 n. 136, 120 n. 11, 152<br>n. 78, 153 n. 79, 174 nn. 34 and 37, 180<br>n. 51, 197 n. 86, | Edzard, Lutz           | 19 nn. 3–4, 21 n. 11,<br>196 n. 83, 205 n. 102   |
| Bordreuil, Pierre      | 117 nn. 8–9, 155 n. 90,<br>193 n. 81,   | Eldar, Ilan            | 9 n. 1   |
| Boyd, J.               | 33 n. 53  | Fabry, H. J.           | 33 n. 50   |
| Brockelmann, C.        | 27 n. 32  | Fales, Frederick Mario | 36 n. 58   |
| Brønno, Einar          | 65 n. 12, 70 n. 31, 78<br>n. 47, 79 nn. 51–52 and 54, 80 nn.<br>55–57, 82 n. 61, 83 n. 64, 84 n. 67–68,<br>89 n. 80, 90 n. 81, 92 n. 90, 92 n. 92,<br>93 nn. 94–95, 94 nn. 97–98, 96 n. 103,<br>128 n. 26, 152 n. 77, 171 n. 23, 185 n.<br>61 and 63, 187 n. 68, 190 n. 72, 201 n.<br>98, 207 n. 103  | Fassberg, Steven E.    | 15 n. 21, 22 n. 15,<br>93 n. 96, 95 n. 100, 96 n. 105, 111 n.<br>156, 112 n. 157, 171 n. 24, 172 n. 29   |
| Cohen, David           | 28 n. 36  | Fitzgerald, Aloysius   | 47 n. 102  |
| Coogan, M. D.          | 87 n. 72  | Florentin, Moshe       | 16 n. 23, 90 n. 82, 92<br>n. 90, 99 n. 117, 103 n. 131,  |
| Cook, John A.          | 164 n. 6  | Fox, Joshua            | 72 n. 36, 98 n. 113,<br>104 n. 133, 130 n. 29, 136 n. 44, 139 n.<br>54, 157 n. 97, 158 nn. 99 and 101, 217<br>n. 1, 229 nn. 18–19, 231 n. 21, 233 n.<br>23, 237 n. 29, 239 n. 33 |
| Creason, Stuart        | 36 n. 58  | Gai, Amikam            | 168 n. 14  |
|                        |   | Garr, W. Randall       | 13 nn. 9 and 12, 30<br>n. 42, 76 n. 41, 77 n. 45, 86 n. 71, 92 n.<br>93, 103 n. 130, 124 nn. 17 and 20, 134<br>n. 39, 135 n. 41, 138 n. 49, 172 n. 29,<br>178 n. 47, 197 n. 86   |
|                        |   | Getz, Rob              | 146 n. 65  |
|                        |   | Gianto, Agustinus      | 14 n. 14, 20 n. 9,<br>87 n. 72   |
|                        |   | Gogel, S. L.           | 78 n. 48, 102 n. 128   |

- Goldsmith, John 19 n. 1  
 Gzella, Holger 13 n. 12, 16 n. 26, 31  
 n. 46, 33 n. 55, 36 n. 58, 50 n. 117, 69  
 n. 28  
 Hackett, Jo Ann 14 n. 12, 77 n. 45  
 Harviainen, Tapani 68 n. 21, 90 n. 83  
 Heijmans, Shai 16 n. 25, 69 n. 28, 92 n.  
 90, 93 n. 94, 109 n. 151  
 Hornkohl, Aaron D 14 nn. 13–15  
 and 17, 57 n. 138, 129 n. 27, 136 n. 45,  
 97 n. 110  
 Huart, C. 19 n. 5  
 Huehnergard, John 13 n. 12, 19 n. 3,  
 20 n. 9, 28 n. 35, 30 n. 41, 34, 36 n. 58,  
 38 n. 61, 70 n. 32, 72 n. 36, 82 n. 59, 92  
 nn. 92–93, 93 n. 94, 95 nn. 99–100, 98  
 nn. 111 and 113, 99, 99 nn. 115–16,  
 109 n. 149, 115 n. 1, 116 n. 5, 117 n.  
 7, 131 n. 34, 133 n. 36, 136 n. 44, 138  
 n. 48, 138 n. 50, 144 n. 59, 145 n. 61,  
 147 n. 67, 149 n. 70, 154 n. 83, 155,  
 155 nn. 89 and 91, 157 n. 96, 158 nn.  
 98 and 100, 166 n. 11, 167 n. 13, 171  
 n. 22, 193 n. 80, 217 n. 1, 219 n. 6, 222  
 n. 10, 229 n. 17  
 Hurvitz, Avi 14 n. 16, 172 n. 29  
 Hutton, Jeremy 124 n. 17, 178 n. 47  
 Janssens, Gerard 21 n. 10, 64 n. 6  
 Joosten, Jan 15 n. 21, 163 n. 2, 164  
 nn. 2–4 and 6, 165 n. 8, 166 nn. 8–9,  
 167 nn. 13–14  
 Kaufman, Stephen A. 87 n. 73, 172 n. 29  
 Khan, Geoffrey 2 n. 2, 3 n. 3, 10 n. 6,  
 15 n. 20, 16 n. 25, 19 nn. 2 and 4, 20  
 n. 7, 24 n. 24, 65 nn. 9, 11, and 13, 66  
 n. 14, 66 n. 16, 67 n. 19, 68 n. 24, 69  
 nn. 25 and 27–28, 79 n. 53, 80 n. 55,  
 83 n. 62, 89 n. 79, 89 n. 81, 90 n. 83,  
 95 n. 102, 96 n. 103, 100 n. 119, 101  
 n. 123, 105 n. 136, 108 n. 147, 109 nn.  
 149–50 and 152, 111 n. 155, 153 n. 79,  
 205 n. 102  
 Kogan, Leonid 20 n. 9, 23 n. 18, 24  
 n. 24, 28 nn. 35–36, 33 n. 52, 36 n. 58,  
 70 n. 32  
 Koller, Aaron 90 n. 84  
 Kuryłowicz, Jerzy 38 n. 60, 48 n. 106, 52  
 n. 129  
 Kutscher, E. Y. 47 n. 102, 57 n. 138, 109  
 n. 149  
 Labruno, Laurence 1  
 Labuschagne, C. J. 32 n. 49  
 Lam, Joseph 23 n. 19, 72 n. 34, 128  
 n. 24  
 Lambdin, Thomas O. 72 n. 36, 81  
 n. 59, 92 n. 93, 95 nn. 99 and 102, 149  
 n. 70, 271 n. 8,  
 Landes, George M. 42 n. 87  
 Malkiel, Y. 48 n. 104  
 Mandell, Alice 14 n. 14  
 McCarter, P. Kyle 20 n. 9, 21–22, 21  
 n. 12, 92 n. 89  
 Mercati, G. 64 n. 5  
 Militarev, Alexander 28 nn. 35–36  
 Millard, Alan 87 n. 72, 100 n. 122,  
 101 n. 123, 103 n. 129  
 Mitchel, Larry A. 42 n. 87  
 Mor, Uri 15 n. 22  
 Morgenstern, Matthew 14 n. 16  
 Muraoka, T. 78 n. 48  
 Ofer, Yosef 16 n. 25  
 Olyan, Saul 38 n. 61  
 Pardee, Dennis 19 n. 3, 30 n. 43, 36 n.  
 58, 72 nn. 34 and 36, 117 nn. 8–9, 155  
 n. 90, 193 n. 81, 236 n. 27  
 Pat-El, Na'ama 14 n. 12, 103 n. 130  
 Pelle, Stephen 146 n. 65  
 Pratico, Gary D. 42 n. 87  
 Qimron, Elisha 15 n. 21, 109 n. 149  
 Rainey, Anson 102 n. 127, 169 n. 18  
 Rendsburg, Gary A. 13, 13 n. 11, 15  
 n. 20, 19 n. 3, 20 nn. 8–9, 21 n. 11, 30,  
 31 n. 45  
 Retsö, Jan 28 n. 34  
 Reymond, Eric D. 15 n. 21,  
 22 n. 14, 29 n. 37, 48 n. 103, 57 n. 138,  
 58 nn. 141 and 143, 88 nn. 75–76, 89  
 n. 77, 91 n. 85, 108 n. 148, 109 n. 149,  
 115 n. 3, 127 n. 24, 153 nn. 80 and 82,  
 183 n. 58

- Rubin, Aaron D. 137 n. 46  
 Schott, Ben 26 n. 30  
 Segert, Stanislav 77 n. 45,  
 Seow, Choon-Leong 10 n. 3, 165 n. 8  
 Shatil, Nimrod 9 n. 2  
 Sivan, Daniel 23 n. 17, 30 n. 44, 96 n.  
 107, 100 n. 122, 104 n. 132, 153 n. 81  
 Sokoloff, Michael 27 nn. 32 and 34,  
 172 n. 29  
 Sperber, Alexander 9 n. 1, 105 n. 135,  
 116 n. 4, 140 n. 56, 166 n. 9  
 Stadel, Christian 33 n. 55, 97 n. 110,  
 98 nn. 111–12, 138 n. 48, 158 n. 101  
 Steiner, Richard C. 22, 22 nn. 13 and  
 15, 23 n. 18, 24, 24 nn. 21–22 and 24,  
 25, 25 nn. 25–26, 27, 27 n. 33, 44 nn.  
 91 and 93, 96 n. 107, 103 n. 131, 158 n.  
 99, 228 n. 15  
 Streck, Michael P. 28 n. 34  
 Taylor, C. 64 n. 5  
 Taylor, Michael 18 n. 1  
 Testen, David 47 n. 102, 130 n. 29,  
 168 n. 16  
 Tov, Emanuel 57 n. 140  
 Tropper, Josef 19 n. 3, 28, 28 n. 35  
 Van Pelt, Miles V. 42 n. 87  
 Yahalom, Joseph 16 n. 25, 69 n. 28  
 Yuditsky, Alexey (Eliyahu) 29 n. 38, 64  
 nn. 4–5, 65 n. 12, 69 n. 26, 70 n. 31, 84  
 n. 68, 89 nn. 79–80, 90 nn. 81 and 83,  
 91 n. 85, 92 n. 92, 93 n. 94, 96 n. 104,  
 106 n. 142, 152 n. 77, 231 n. 21  
 Wagner, Max 44 n. 93, 47 n. 102  
 Webster, B. 22 n. 16  
 Wilson-Wright, Aren 14 n. 12  
 Woods, Christopher 167 n. 13  
 Wright, W. 19 n. 5  
 Zewi, Tamar 172 nn. 28–29, 173 nn.  
 30–31 and 33, 174 n. 36, 175 n. 40

## Word Index

אב	96, 111, 129, 154–55, 230	אָחות	156, 219
אבד	95 n. 99, 183 n. 57, 196	אחז	196, 259 n. 53
אבה	196	אַחֲזָה	237
אַבְיוֹן	142	אַחֲזָהוּ	103 n. 129
אַבִּיר	138	אַחֲרוֹן	142
אבך	48	אַחֲרִית	143
יְתֹאבָבוּ	48	אִי	222 n. 10, 228
אבל	55	אַיב	89, 134–35, 161, 238, 278
אַבֵּן	229	אֵיל	55 n.135, 229
אבק	48	אֵילָה	157
אַדוֹן	97, 238	אִים	237
אַדִּיר	138	אֵין	129
אַדָם	235	אִישׁ	107, 223 n. 12, 224
אַדָם	139, 237	אִישׁוֹן	142
אַדְמָה	235	אַכְזָב	139
אַדְמוֹנִי	143	אַכְזָרִי	143
אדר	46,59	אכל	2 n. 14, 67 n. 19, 107, 111, 112, 179, 184, 196, 257 n. 50, 258 n. 51, 259 n. 53, 260 n. 54
אהב	53, 106, 159, 172, 259 n. 53	אכל	232
אַהֲבָה	100 n. 121, 156, 160, 228 n. 16, 229	אַכְלָהּ	67 n. 19, 111, 232
אַהֲלִי	57, 152, 233	אַל	173, 174 n. 34
אוה	46	אַל	79, 220 n. 8, 221
אָוִיל	158	אלה	41
און	46, 59, 233–34	אֵלָה	57
אור	266, 271	אֵלֹהֶי	132, 241, 267, 272–73, 279
אור	224, 266	אֵלֶיהָ	156 n. 93
אז	165 n. 8	אֵלֶי	42
אָזֹר	45, 144	אֵלִם	138
אזן	242 n. 37	אֵלְמֶן	47
אָזֶן	233–34	אֵלְמֶנָה	139
אזר	45, 55	אֵלֶף	229
אַזְרוּעַ	139	אָם	226 n. 14, 228
אח	94, 154–55, 230	אַמָּה	130, 218 n. 2, 219
אַחַד	41	אַמָּה	148, 226, 269
אָחוּ	155, 160, 229		

אָמָה	228	אָשֶׁר	42
אָמוֹן	136	אֶתָּה	205
אָמוֹנָה	241		
אָמִיץ	138	בֶּ	127, 189 n. 71
אִמֶּל	55	בָּאֵר	105 n. 137
אִמֶּן	29 n. 38, 81, 82 n. 61, 170	בָּאֵר	88 n. 76, 152, 156, 160, 231
אָמֶן	67, 236	בָּאֵשׁ	12, 152–53, 156, 160, 232–33
אִמֶּן	67	בְּגֹדָה	136, 239
אָמְנָם	143	בִּדָּד	53
אָמְנָם	143	בְּדִיל	240
אִמֶּר	196	בִּדֵּל	53, 187
אָמֶר	230 n. 20, 231, 276	בְּהוּ	155–56, 160
אִנָּה	49	בֶּהֱלֵל	65 n. 12, 106
אָנוּשׁ	132, 134	בְּהִלָּה	47, 59, 94, 98, 137
אִנַּח	49	בּוֹא	171, 203, 220, 246–47
אִנְחָה	49	בּוֹז	38, 43, 58, 59, 212 n. 114
אִנִּי	49	בּוֹז	129
אִנְיָה	49	בּוֹשׁ	40 n. 73, 202
אִנְיָה	156	בּוֹשָׁה	129
אִנְכִּי	96, 99 n. 117	בִּזָּה	38, 43, 58, 59
אִנֵּן	49	בִּזָּה	38 n. 62
אִנֶּק	47, 49, 59	בִּזָּז	38 n. 62, 43, 59, 212
אִנְקָה	47, 49, 59	בִּזֹּר	46, 50, 59
אִסּוּר	144	בְּחוֹן	239
אִסְיָף	135	בְּחוּרוֹת	136
אִסִּיר	135, 138, 240	בְּחִיר	135
אִסָּף	42, 197, 237 n. 30, 257 n. 50	בַּחֵן	47 n. 102
אִסָּר	42 n. 84, 45, 55, 111	בַּחֹר	47 n. 102, 196
אִף	161, 225 n. 13, 226	בִּין	75, 201–203, 212
אִפָּה	196	בִּינָה	129, 144, 161, 223 n. 12, 224
אִפָּר	46 n. 97	בֵּית	102, 160, 229, 278
אִפְעָדָה	139	בִּכָּה	205, 250 n. 45
אִרְגָּב	49	בִּכָּה	155
אִרְזֹן	147 n. 66	בְּכוּרִים	138
אִרְזֹן	229	בְּכִי	154, 207, 231
אִרְחָה	152, 160, 232	בְּכִית	156
אִרְדָּה	157	בְּכֹר	75, 80 n. 54, 86, 132–33, 236
אִרְמוֹן	47	בְּלָה	40, 42, 55
אִרְמִי	143	בְּלָהָה	47, 59, 137, 241
אִרְעָה	37	בְּלָל	53
אִרְץ	37, 147 n. 66, 162, 229	בְּלַע	53, 258 n. 51
אִרְרָה	241	בֵּן	89, 130, 148, 221–22
אִשָּׁה	226 n. 14, 228	בְּנָה	72, 101, 109, 132, 135, 145–46, 163
אִשָּׁה	162		n. 1, 169–70, 195, 203–206, 241, 268
אִשְׁכָּל	139	בְּנִין	143

בָּעַד	229	גְּבֵעָה	49, 231
בָּעַל	109, 149, 156, 160, 268, 274	גְּבֵר	92, 109 n. 149, 158, 229
בַּעַר	94 n. 98, 104–6, 134	גְּדוּד	89, 136
בָּצִיר	135	גְּדוּל	74, 76 n. 42, 132, 134, 236
בָּצָרָה	137, 241	גְּדוּפִים	138
בַּקַּע	257 n. 50	גְּדִי	154–55, 230 n. 20, 231
בַּקַּק	254 n. 47	גְּדִלָה	236
בָּקָר	77, 79, 116, 122, 149–51, 156, 160–61, 232, 268	גֹּ	46
בָּקָרָה	98, 137	גֹּ	46
בַּקֶּשׁ	74 n. 39, 76, 77, 84, 184–85, 242 n. 37	גְּוִיה	46, 46 n. 100
בַּקֶּשָׁה	98, 137, 241	גּוֹפָה	46, 46 n. 100
בְּרָא	135	גּוֹר I	38 n. 63, 39 n. 72, 220
בִּרְח	109	גּוֹר II	38, 39 n. 72, 52
בְּרִיחַ	240	גּוֹר III	38 n. 63, 39, 42 n. 86
בְּרִית	156	גֹּז	39 n. 70
בִּרְךְ	104, 105, 173, 175, 185, 192, 196, 240 n. 35, 260 n. 54, 275	גֹּזָה	39 n. 70, 49, 212
בִּרְכָה	21, 74, 75, 77, 87, 92, 97, 112–13, 120, 159, 235, 277, 280	גֹּזִי	39 n. 70, 49, 212
בִּרְכָה	127, 236, 269	גֹּזִית	39 n. 70
בִּרְר	254 n. 47	גֹּזֵר	49
בִּשָּׁם	23	גִּיל	129, 224
בִּשָּׂר	234 n. 24, 235, 278	גִּילָה	224
בֵּת	95 n. 100, 129, 162	גִּלָּה	101, 178, 184, 186, 195, 197, 203–8, 248–49
בְּתוּלָה	135, 240 n. 35, 241	גִּלּוֹת	143, 158
בְּתוּלִים	136	גִּלַּח	55, 59
		גִּלְעָד	196
		גִּמְלָה	178
		גִּמְלָה	139
		גִּן	147 n. 66, 226
גָּאָה	138, 145	גִּנְבָּה	137, 267
גָּאֵל	45, 237 n. 30, 257 n. 50, 260 n. 54	גִּנְבָּה	127, 236
גָּב	46, 49	גִּנְבָּה	139
גָּב	49	גִּנְבָּה	45, 111
גָּבָא	49	גִּנְבָּה	52 n. 127
גָּבָה	49	גִּנְבָּה	46
גָּבָה	132, 237	גִּנְבָּה	115, 149, 229
גָּבָה	162	גִּנְבָּה	221, 222 n. 10
גָּבֹל	112, 136, 144, 267, 272–73	גִּנְבָּה	38, 52
גָּבוּר	86	גִּנְבָּה	49 n. 112
גָּבוּרָה	240	גִּנְבָּה	232
גָּבִחַ	54, 138	גִּנְבָּה	23 n. 19
גָּבִחַת	54	גִּנְבָּה	38 n. 63, 39 n. 72
גָּבִיעַ	46 n. 101, 49, 69	גִּנְבָּה	23 n. 19
גָּבִיר	240	גִּנְבָּה	52 n. 126
גָּבִיר	49, 138		



דאב	46	דמס II	27 n. 31
דאָבאָ	46	דמָעָה	73, 116, 150–51, 160–61, 230–31,
דב	228		270, 277, 280
דביר	240	דנאַל	58 n. 143
דבק	53, 172	דנִיאַל	58 n. 143
דבר	74, 75, 80, 82, 86 n. 70, 87, 91, 95,	דעָה	130, 160
	138, 159, 180, 182, 185–86, 281–82	דעך	57
דָּבָר	5, 63 n. 3, 74–78, 85–86,	דק	45, 45 n. 96, 59
	92, 94, 102, 111–13, 115, 118–24, 128,	דקֹן	37
	138, 157–8, 179–80, 234, 267, 272–73,	דקק	45, 254 n. 47
	275–76, 278	דקר	52
דבֿש	231	דָּרָד	82 n. 59, 116, 229
דג	219		
דואַג	58	ה־	107
דוב	46 n. 100	הא	49
דוב	46 n. 100	האָה	49
דוד	223	הבֿל	158, 229
דוה	46	הגה	39 n. 71, 50 n. 119
דוה	46	הגָה	155
דני	46	הדס	229
דני	46, 146 n. 64	הדר	46, 59
דוֹיג	58	הָדָר	167, 229
דוך	38 n. 6, 45 n. 96	הָה	49
דום	39 n. 66	הו	49
דומָה	39 n. 66	הוא	107 n. 145, 193 n. 81
דחה	40, 40 n. 78, 42 n. 86	הוי	49
דחח	40, 42 n. 86	הוה I	27 n. 31
דִּין	137–38	הוה II	27 n. 31
דִּין	129, 224	הוָה	46
דִּךְ	38 n. 65, 45, 59	הולָלוֹת	135
דכא	38 n. 65, 41, 45, 175, 190 n. 73	הום	49
דָּכאַ	45	הון	46, 59
דכה	30, 41, 45	הושַע	103
דכך	38 n. 65	הי	228
דל	33, 226	היא	107 n. 145
דלָה	33	היה	55, 205–207, 215
דלל	33, 50, 254 n. 47	הכָּרָה	98
דלף	56 n. 136	הִלְיָכָה	136 n. 43
דלק	49, 51	הלך	95, 106, 134, 168, 171, 190–92, 215,
דָּלָת	218–19		284
דָּם	67, 127–28, 130, 218–19, 266, 271–	הלכָתי	15
	72, 275–76	לָכָת	131, 221
דמה	39	הלל	50, 111, 213, 254 n. 47
דמות	143	הם	107
דמס I	27 n. 31, 39, 210, 254 n. 47	המה	49, 146 n. 64, 172

הַמֶּזֶן	93, 142	זָקֵן	74, 95, 126, 166, 213, 235, 267, 275–
הַמֶּסֶךְ	49		76
הַנֶּחֱזָה	98	זָקָה	45, 59
הַנֶּחֱפָה	98	זָרַב	44
הַפֶּךְ	48, 55 n.135, 107	זָרַח	50
הַפְּלָה	98	זָרַעַ	132, 134, 139, 144, 240
הָרָה	93, 102 n. 126, 107, 114, 137, 147	זָרַיִף	56 n. 136
n. 66		זָרַעַ	50
הָרַג	178–79	זָרַעַ	229
הָרַס	93	זָרַק	50
וּלְדָה	38	חָבֵא	41, 46 n. 99
זָאֵב	152–53	חָבֵה	41, 46 n. 99
זָבוּב	136	חָבֵל	50
זָבַח	53, 81 n. 58	חָבַק	50, 53, 55 n.135
זָבַח	160, 231	חָבַר	50
זָדוֹן	142	חָבֵר	27
זָהָב	45 n. 94	חָבֵשׁ	50
זָהָר	45 n. 94	חָג	93, 147 n. 66, 225 n. 13, 226
זָהָר	45 n. 94	חָגְרִי	58 n. 141
זָהָר	45 n. 94	חָדַד	254 n. 47
זָוַב	46 n. 99, 220	חָדַר	158, 160
זָבַת	145, 219 n. 7	חָדָשׁ	235
זָוָעָה	47, 59	חָדָשׁ	151, 232, 276, 278
זָיִת	6, 154, 156, 269, 272, 278	חֹהֶה	52, 193
זָיָד	45	חֹלֵל	263
זָכָה	30, 39	חֹלֵל	22 n. 14, 224
זָכוּכִית	45	חֹנֵן	107 n. 144
זָכוּר	135, 240 n. 35, 241	חֹרֵר	39 n. 67
זָכָךְ	39, 45, 59	חֹשֶׁשׁ	171
זָכָר	78, 168, 181, 260 n. 54	חֹתֶם	136
זָכָר	230 n. 20, 231	חֹזֵה	173 n. 30, 177 n. 45, 250 n. 45, 268
זָכְרוֹן	142	חֹזֶה	145
זָלָל	33, 50, 210 n. 110, 212	חֹזֵן	142
זָמִיר	135–36	חֹזֶת	143
זָמֵן	158	חֹזֵן	142
זָנוּת	143	חֹזֵק	182, 281
זָעָה	47, 59	חֹזֵק	123
זָעִיר	43, 44, 59	חֹטֵא	197
זָעַךְ	57	חֹטֵא	155, 231
זָעַק	35 n. 57, 44, 55 n.135, 57, 59	חֹטֵא	137
זָעָקָה	55 n. 135, 235	חֹטֵאָה	137, 241
זָקוּנִים	136	חֹטֵאָת	137, 241
זָקֵן	95, 166, 213	חֹטֵף	45
זָקָן	37, 123, 235	חֵי	101 n. 125, 226

חֵיה	225 n. 13, 226	חָץ	6, 50, 73, 159, 226–27, 266, 271, 273
חיה	56, 207	חצב	50
חיל	263	חצה	50
חִיל	154	חצץ	50
חִיצוֹן	142	חָצֵר	11, 93
חָכֶם	123, 235	חָק	6, 73, 97, 114, 147, 159, 226 n. 14, 227, 266, 271, 273
חֲכָמָה	67, 114, 152, 160, 162, 228 n. 16, 229	חָקָה	6, 148, 227, 269
חֶלֶב	107	חָקֵר	55 n. 135, 167, 179
חלה	208, 263	חָרָב	229
חֶלֶה	226	חָרֵב	232
חֲלוּם	132, 134, 237	חָרְבָה	137 n. 47
חֲלִי	58 n. 141	חָרְבָה	111, 116, 150–51, 152 n. 77, 270
חֲלִי	116, 154–55, 160–62, 232, 269, 274–75	חָרָה	39, 42, 206, 215
חֵלֶל	80 n. 55, 91 n. 85, 96, 211–13, 254 n. 47, 262 n. 55, 263	חָרוּץ	241
חֶלֶף	55 n. 135	חָרֵט	157 n. 96
חֶלֶץ	27 n. 32	חָרִי	25
חֶלֶק	94 n. 98, 231	חָרִישׁ	136
חֶסֶם	154–55	חָרוֹן	25, 37
חֲמָה	39 n. 71, 226	חֲרָסוֹת	23 n. 19
חֲמָה	39 n. 71, 130, 221	חָרַף	47
חֲמוּץ	239	חָרְפָה	47
חֲמוֹת	219	חָרִץ	50
חָמֶם	39 n. 71, 209, 254–55	חָרַר	39, 42
חָמֶס	44	חָרַשׁ	23 n. 19, 137
חָמֵץ	44	חָרַשׁ I	26, 33
חֵן	228	חָרַשׁ II	26
חֲנָה	258 n. 52	חָרַשׁ	137
חֲנֻכָּה	139	חָרַשׁ	138
חֲנָם	143	חָרַת	33
חֲנָן I	26	חָשַׁב	105, 107
חֲנָן II	26	חָשָׁד	106, 133, 232
חֲסֵד I	27, 93 n. 94, 162, 229	חָשַׁק	55 n. 135
חֲסֵד II	27	חָת	25
חֲסִיד	135, 267, 272–73	חָתִי	25, 37
חָסֵר	236	חָתִית	143
חָסֵר	116, 149, 158 n. 99	חָתֶם	53
חָסֵר	116, 149	חָתַף	45
חֲפָה	46 n. 99	חָתַר	55 n. 135
חָפֵר	10, 47, 84	חָתַת	53, 212
חָפֵר	10, 55 n. 135	טָבַח	53
חֲפֹשׁ	27 n. 32, 55 n. 135	טָבַח	137
חֲפָשִׁי	143	טָבַעַת	137 n. 47
		טָהוֹר	132, 237

טָהֳרָה	161, 232	יֵזֶן	102
טוֹב	40, 42, 166	יָכַח	252 n. 46
טוֹב	129, 144, 160–61, 166, 224, 266, 269	יָכַל	84, 166
טוֹב	223 n. 12, 224	יָלַד	80 n. 55, 95, 134–35, 159, 179, 180
טוֹחַ	38 n. 65		n. 48, 184, 190, 237–38, 252 n. 46, 259
טוֹל	247 n. 42		n. 53
טוֹף	32 n. 49	יָלַד	38, 180 n. 48, 229
טַחַח	38 n. 65	יָלְדוּת	143
טָלַל	32	יָלַל	42, 186 n. 66, 199
טָמֵא	190 n. 73, 192	יָלַפַּת	137, 241
טָמֵא	236	יָם	147
טָמְאָה	127	יָמִין	73, 135, 239 n. 34, 240
טָמְאָה	161, 232	יָמֹן	199
טָמַן	55, 83	יָמַר	40 n. 73
טָעָה	45	יָמַשׁ	39 n. 71, 40 n. 73
טָעַן	32	יָנָה	54
טָרַם	165 n. 8	יָנַק	12, 40 n. 73, 43, 199
		יָסַף	42, 252 n. 46
יָאֵב	53	יָסַר	42 n. 84, 199
יָאָה	41 n. 81	יָעַד	174
יָבֹול	136	יָעַז	39 n. 71
יָבִילַת	137, 241	יָעַל	55 n. 135
יָבֵשׁ	40 n. 73, 199	יָעַף	40, 47, 200
יָבֵשׁ	236	יָעַף	40
יָבֵשָׁה	137 n. 47	יָעַף	239
יָבֵשֶׁת	137 n. 47	יָעַץ	40 n. 73, 200
יָגָה	39 n. 71, 54, 205	יָעֲקֹב	24
יָגַר	39, 42 n. 86	יָפָה	268, 270
יָד	68 n. 20, 116, 120–21, 128–29, 219–20	יָפַח	40 n. 75, 41 n. 81
		יָפַח	236
יָדַד	39, 209 n. 106	יָפִיחַ	236
יָדָה	39, 54, 93 n. 95, 94 n. 97, 183 n. 59, 186 n. 66	יָצָא	111, 168, 252 n. 46
יָדַע	97, 179–80, 198–99, 214, 257 n. 50, 258 n. 51, 259 n. 53	יָצָאת	131, 221
יָדַעַת	94, 116, 131–32, 159, 180, 221	יָצַב	41, 42, 42 nn. 85 and 87
יָהֵב	238 n. 32	יָצַג	57 n. 139, 199
יָוֹם	107	יָצָהֲרָה	139
יָוָמָם	143	יָצוּעַ	240 n. 35, 241
יָחַד	41	יָצָחַק	25, 44
יָחַד	41	יָצַע	199
יָחִיד	41	יָצַק	43, 57 n. 139, 199
יָחַל	106	יָצַר	43, 135, 199, 237–38, 257 n. 50
יָחַם	39 n. 71	יָצַת	40 n. 73, 199
יָטַב	40, 42, 102, 199–200, 214	יָקַב	40 n. 80
		יָקַד	49, 51
		יָקוּם	139

יקע	41	כָּהֵן	134, 238
יקץ	39 n. 69, 40, 42 n. 85, 199	כּוֹכֵב	136
יקר	200	כּוֹל	193–94
יָקָר	97, 238 n. 32, 239	כּוֹן	194, 201, 246–47
יקש	40 nn. 73 and 77, 41	כּוֹס	224
ירא	41, 41 n. 82, 46 n. 97, 200, 261	כּוֹר	224
יִרְאֶה	156, 160, 231	כָּח	109
ירד	65 n. 12, 82 n. 61, 189, 191, 199	כחש	184
יִרְדְּתִי	15, 213	כָּחַשׁ	94
רָדַת	131, 144, 221	כָּל	39 n. 70, 73, 97 n. 109, 127, 147, 226 n. 14, 228
ירה	41, 41 n. 82, 54, 207	כלא	41 n. 82, 257 n. 50
יָרִיב	139	כלה	39 n. 70, 41 n. 82
יָרַד	126 n. 21, 157, 235 n. 26	כָּלָה	225
יִרְמְיָהוּ	109	כָּלִיל	135, 240
ירע	46 n. 97, 52	כלל	39 n. 70
ירק	39 n. 71, 56	כלם	182, 281
ירש	215	כמס	47 n. 102
רָשַׁת	131, 221	כנס	47 n. 102
יִשְׁחַק	44	כנע	48, 53
ישב	37, 81, 82, 191, 195, 198–99, 237 n. 30, 252–53	כְּנַעֲנִי	143
שָׁבַת	74, 81, 82, 109, 131, 156, 208 n. 105, 215, 220–21	כְּנָף	235
יִשׁוּעָה	135, 161, 241	כְּסָא	108
ישן	200	כסה	190 n. 73, 206
יִשָּׁן	236	כְּסוּת	143
ישע	102, 214	כְּסִיל	158, 240
יִשַׁע	94 n. 97, 128	כְּסָל	47
ישר	42, 177 n. 44, 199	כסף	191
יִשָּׂר	235	כְּסָף	229
יָתוֹם	236	כעס	189
יִתְרוֹן	142	כָּעַס	24 n. 20
		כַּעַשׂ	24 n. 20
		כָּף	147, 226
כָּ	189 n. 71	כָּפִיר	240
כָּאֵב	152–53	כפר	185
כבד	74, 112–13, 282	כְּפָרִים	138
כָּבַד	75, 123, 161, 236	כפש	46
כְּבוֹד	278	כרה I	52 n. 125
כְּבִיר	138	כרה II	54 n. 133
כָּבַשׁ	47, 59	כְּרוֹב	267
כְּבָשָׁה	47, 59, 229	כָּרַם	229
כְּבָשָׁה	47, 229	כרע	55 n. 135, 56
כבש	46	כרת	55 n. 135, 171–72
כהה	45	כָּשַׁב	47, 59
כָּהֵה	45, 138	כְּשָׁבָה	47, 59

בְּשָׁדִים	23, 37	מִבְּחֹר	140–41
כְּתָב	5, 63, 73, 112–13, 134–35, 166, 267, 283	מִבְּחָט	140
כְּתָב	97–98, 158, 238	מִבְּנָה	141
כְּתָנֶת	133	מִבְּצָר	140
כְּתוּף	126 n. 21, 157, 235	מִגְדָּל	140
כְּתָב	53, 254 n. 47, 255 n. 49	מִגְלָה	141
לְ	127–28, 189 n. 71	מִגֵּן	79
לֹא	99 n. 117, 173	מִגְפָּה	141, 159 n. 102
לֹאֵה	46, 55, 205 n. 101	מִגֵּר	96 n. 103
לֹאֵם	139	מִדְּבָר	91, 92 n. 90, 140
לֵב	74, 79, 95, 147, 228	מִדָּד	210
לֵבָב	75, 146, 236, 275, 278	מִדָּה	228
לְבוּשׁ	89	מִדּוּה	46
לָדָה	130	מִדְּכָה	45 n. 96
לְהַב	53	מִדְּעָ	180
לְהַבָּה	53, 94, 137	מִהָה	194
לֵהָה	46	מִהֶלֶד	140
לֵהָט	53	מִהָר	106
לֵהָט	53	מִהָרָה	79
לֹחַ	224	מוֹאֲבִי	143
לְחִי	154–55, 230 n. 20, 231	מוֹבָא	32 n. 49
לֶחֶד	56	מוֹד	38 n. 65
לֶחֶם	182, 191, 242 n. 37, 243 n. 39, 284	מוֹל	191, 247 n. 42
לֶחֶם	229	מוֹסֵר	42
לֶכַד	181, 257 n. 50	מוֹעֵד	141
לִמְדָה	181, 183 n. 57, 242 n. 37	מוֹעֶקֶה	35 n. 55
לֵעָב	50	מוֹצָא	32 n. 49, 108
לֵעָג	44 n. 93, 47, 50	מוֹצֵק	35 n. 55
לֵעֹז	50	מוֹר	40 n. 73
לֵעַע	50, 56	מוֹשׁ	38, 39 n. 71, 40 n. 73
לִקַּח	74, 75, 77, 184, 257 n. 50	מוֹשֵׁב	108 n. 146, 140, 142, 144, 160
לִקַּק	56	מוֹת	200 n. 96, 201, 213, 247 n. 42
לְשׁוֹן	97, 238 n. 32, 239	מֵת	131, 144, 213, 221–23
מֵאֵד	152–53, 232	מֵוֹת	6, 102, 154, 156, 228–29, 269, 272–73
מֵאָה	221	מִזְבֵּחַ	86, 141, 159
מֵאוֹר	88–89	מִזְמָה	141
מֵאֲכָל	108, 140	מִזְמוֹר	141
מֵאֲכָלֶת	140	מַחָא	50 n. 117
מֵאֵן	197	מַחָה	33 n. 55, 50
מַאֲסָ	55 n. 135	מַחֲסָה	101 n. 123
מַבּוֹא	32 n. 49, 141	מַחֲשָׁבָה	140, 142, 157
מִבְּחֹר	141	מַחֲזֵק	33 n. 55, 50, 80
		מַחֲקָ	33 n. 55, 50
		מַטָּה	110

מְטֹמֶזֶן	55	מסה	39
מָטָר	235	מְסֻכָּה	24 n. 20
מִטָּרָה	11, 31	מִסָּךְ	54, 55 n.135
מִים	103	מִסְלָה	141
מִישָׁרִים	140, 142, 144, 160	מסס	39, 212
מִכָּה	140, 144, 160	מִסְפָּר	140
מְכוּרָה	45	מַעַד	84 n. 64
מכד	38 n. 65	מַעָה	145, 236
מִכְמָס	23 n. 19	מַעֲזֵז	79
מִכְמַר	140	מַעַל	110
מִכְמַרְת	140	מַעֲלָה	141
מִכְמֶשׁ	23 n. 19	מַעֲנָה	141
מכר	54 n. 133, 257 n. 50	מַעֲשֵׂה	101, 139, 141, 161, 268, 272–73, 279
מִכְשׁוֹל	141	מצא	80, 86 n. 71, 107–08, 175 n. 40, 191, 197, 244–45, 257 n. 50, 259 n. 53, 260 n. 54
מלא	185, 244–45	מַצֵּבָה	141–42
מָלָא	236, 267, 269	מַצֵּבָת	141–42
מָלָא	152, 233	מַצֵּד	97
מִלְאָה	127	מצה	39 n. 70
מִלְאָד	90 n. 82, 140	מַצִּיד	141
מִלְבוּשׁ	141	מַצִּידָה	141
מִלּוּאִים	138	מַצּוֹק	141
מְלוּכָה	241	מַצּוֹק	55 n.135
מִלַּח	137 n. 46, 273	מַצּוֹקָה	141
מִלְחָמָה	92, 140, 270	מַצּוֹר	141
מלט	46	מַצּוֹרָה	141
מִלָּד	2, 6, 12, 21, 87, 92, 109, 111	מצץ	39 n. 70
	n. 156, 113–14, 116, 122, 148–50, 156,	מָקוֹם	92, 139, 141, 160
	160–61, 228–29, 268, 274, 276, 278	מָקוֹר	45, 52, 141
מִלְכָּה	6, 73, 100, 114, 116, 150–51,	מקק	254 n. 47
	160–61, 228–29, 270	מר	226
מִלְכוּת	143	מר	228
מלל	210 nn. 109 and 110	מִרְאָה	141, 145
מִמְלָכָה	92, 139–40, 277	מְרוֹם	141
מְמַשְׁלָה	140	מְרִיבָה	160
מֶזֶן	107, 110, 174–75	מִרְפָּא	141
מְנוּחַ	141	מִשָּׂא	140
מְנוּחָה	141	מִשְׁאָת	141
מְנוּס	141	מִשְׁנָב	49
מְנוּסָה	141	מְשׁוּכָה	24 n. 20
מְנוּרָה	54	משה	38 n. 64
מְנַחָה	230 n. 20, 231	מְשַׁחָה	156
מנע	257 n. 50	מְשִׁיחַ	135, 240
מְנַשָּׂה	101 n. 123		
מְנַת	235		
מִסָּד	199 n. 93		

משך	11 n. 7	נהם	49, 50
משכב	278	נהמה	49, 50
משל	257 n. 50, 257 n. 50	נהק	50
משמר	140	נהר I	55
משמרת	140	נהר II	54
משפחה	129	נהר	55, 235
משפט	140, 267, 272–73	נהרה	54
משקול	141	נוד	51
משקל	141	נוה	58
משש	38, 39 n. 71, 40 n. 73	נוה	145
מתים	75, 131, 221–22	נוח II	49 n. 110
מתן	139–40, 144, 160	נוט	51
		נון	224
נאה	41 n. 81	נוס	44
נאץ	55 n.135, 88, 105 n. 137, 198	נוע	51, 262 n. 55
נאק	47, 49, 59	נוף	51
נאקה	47, 49	נוץ	44, 44 n. 90
נבא	86 n. 71	נוק	12, 40 n. 73, 43
נבח	50 n. 119	נור	54
נביא	135, 239	נזה	55 n.135
נבל	40, 42, 55	נזיר	135, 240
נבלה	127, 235	נזל	55, 212 n. 114
נבע	55 n.135	נזר	33
נגד	5, 95, 186, 188	נחל	198, 212, 263
נגיד	135, 240, 275	נחל	55
נגן	56 n. 136	נחם	106, 107 n. 143, 198 n. 87
נגע	53, 55 n.135, 56 n. 136	נחמה	98, 137
נעת	131, 198, 221	נחר	46 n. 98, 50 n. 119
נגע	149	נחרה	46 n. 98, 50 n. 119
נגף	46 n. 101	נחשת	133–34
נגר	55	נחת	84 n. 64, 212 n. 113
נגש	53, 55 n.135	נחת	219
נשת	131, 144, 156, 221	נטה	165 n. 7, 207
נדא		נטל	32 n. 49
נדא	56	נטע	
נדד	50, 194	טעת	131, 221
נדה	50	נטע	157
נדח	40, 42 n. 86, 50, 57	נטף	56 n. 136
נדף	50	נטר	11, 31, 32, 58
נדר	33	נטש	257 n. 50, 259 n. 53
נדר	81–82 n. 59, 231	ני	50
נהג	50, 198	ניחוח	22 n. 14
נהה	50	נכא	41
נהי	50	נכה	41, 207–208, 215
נהיה	50	נכר	79237 n



נָכְרִי	143	נִשְׁף	46, 55, 58
נִסְגַּ	24 n. 20	נִשְׁקָה	53
נִסְחָה	51	נִשְׁתָּה	54 n. 133
נִסְדָּה	40, 40 n. 79, 54, 55 n. 135	נִתָּה	51
נִסְעָה	51 n. 122, 166 n. 9	נִתָּה	51
נִעֲוִירִים	136	נִתָּה	54, 55 n. 135
נִעִים	135	נִתָּה	76, 80, 81, 84, 96 n. 103, 163 n. 2,
נִעַם	198	נִתָּה	168, 171, 197–98, 257 n. 50, 259 n. 53,
נִעַר I	46 n. 98	נִתָּה	260, 284
נִעַר II	52	נִתָּה	131
נִעֲרָה	228 n. 16, 229	נִתָּה	44, 51
נִפְחָה	38 n. 61, 40, 41 n. 81, 55	נִתָּה	33, 44 n. 92, 51
נִפְלָה	53, 109, 198	נִתָּה	33, 44, 51, 56 n. 136
נִפְזָה	40, 51, 56 n. 136	נִתָּה	51
נִפְקָה	187	נִתָּה	44, 51
נִפְשָה	46 n. 99, 55	נִתָּה	
נִפְשָה	93 n. 94, 111, 229	נִתָּה	
נִצָּב	41, 42, 42 nn. 85 and 87, 57 n. 139	נִתָּה	209–12, 254–56
נִצָּה	44	נִתָּה	240
נִצִּיב	158, 240	נִתָּה	46 n. 101, 55 n. 135
נִצָּל	32 n. 49, 73, 187–88, 197–98	נִתָּה	46 n. 101, 55 n. 135
נִצָּץ	40	נִתָּה	46
נִצָּר	11, 31, 32, 58, 112 n. 157	נִתָּה	201
נִקָּב	40, 51, 133	נִתָּה	24 n. 20, 40, 40 n. 79, 55 n. 135
נִקָּד	237	נִתָּה	89, 224, 270
נִקָּד	80 n. 54	נִתָּה	224
נִקִּי	136, 240	נִתָּה	220, 262 n. 55
נִקְיוֹן	142	נִתָּה	51
נִקְיָה	51	נִתָּה	51
נִקָּם	191	נִתָּה	111, 258 n. 51
נִקָּע	41	נִתָּה	226 n. 14, 228
נִקָּף	46 n. 101, 51	נִתָּה I	40 nn. 74 and 79, 254 n. 47
נִקָּר	40 n. 77, 51, 52	נִתָּה II	40, 40 n. 74
נִקָּשָה	40 n. 73, 41	נִתָּה	25
נִרָה	54, 131, 145, 221	נִתָּה	11, 25, 27 n. 31, 47
נִשָּׂא		נִתָּה	23
נִשָּׂא	198	נִתָּה	46 n. 101, 55 n. 135, 96
נִשָּׂא	24 n. 20, 55 n. 135	נִתָּה I	46
נִשָּׂא	55 n. 135, 135, 240	נִתָּה II	23
נִשָּׂא	41, 190 n. 73	נִתָּה	45 n. 95, 55 n. 135
נִשָּׂב	46, 55, 58	נִתָּה	41
נִשָּׂה	41	נִתָּה	41
נִשָּׂד	53	נִתָּה	181 n. 52
נִשָּׁל	52	נִתָּה	53
נִשָּׁם	46 n. 99, 55	נִתָּה	55 n. 135
		נִתָּה	24 n. 20

סְעָרָה	24 n. 20, 235	עֲוֹנוֹן	142
סִפָּן	44, 55	עוֹת	46 n. 100, 53
סִפְק	24 n. 20	עֹז	226
סִפְק	55 n. 135, 122	עֹז	74, 79, 161, 226 n. 14, 228
סִפְר	6, 73, 149–50, 156, 160–61, 230–31, 268, 274	עֹזב	257 n. 50, 259 n. 53
סִפְר	97, 239	עֹזָה	24, 37
סְרִיס	135	עֹז	39 n. 71
סָרֹן	55 n. 135	עֹר	33, 80, 257 n. 50, 258 n. 51, 259 n. 53, 260 n. 54
סִר	11, 25	עֹטָה	54 n. 132, 146 n. 64, 237 n. 30
סִתָּם	53	עֹטָף	54
סִתָּר	26, 91 n. 85, 96, 190 n. 72	עִי	228
סִתָּר	79, 82 n. 60, 231	עִין	154, 160, 229, 233–34
עֵב	98–99, 131, 145, 219 n. 7, 220	עִיף	40, 47
עֵבֶד	178–79, 257 n. 50, 258 n. 51, 259 n. 53	עִיף	40
עֵבֶד	239	עִיר	12, 32, 93, 98 n. 113, 106, 131, 224
עֵבֶד	106, 229	עִיר	154
עֵבֹדָה	134, 280	עִלָּג	47, 50
עֵבֶר	173 n. 33, 175, 189, 192	עִלָּה	21, 179, 206, 208, 250 n. 45, 270
עֵבְרִי	143	עִלָּה	280
עֵבֶת	46 n. 100	עִלּוּמִים	136
עֵבֶת	46 n. 100	עִלּוֹ	11, 44
עֵגֶל	231	עִלּוֹן	142
עֵד	131, 221–22	עִלָּם	240 n. 35
עֵדָה I	130, 221	עִלָּמָה	229
עֵדָה II	130 n. 30, 221	עִלָּס	44
עֵדִי	154–55, 160–61, 230–31, 268	עִלָּף	54
עֵדֶר I	33	עִלָּץ	11, 44
עֵדֶר II	26	עֵם	5, 6, 73, 93, 94 n. 97, 147, 159, 209, 225, 266, 271, 273
עֵדֶר III	26	עֵמֶד	109, 187, 195–96
עֵדֶר	231	עֵמֶק	132
עוֹה	46 n. 100, 53	עֵמֶק	230 n. 20, 231
עוֹיֵל	240	עֵמֶר	24, 25 n. 24, 109 n. 149
עוֹל	219 n. 7, 220	עֵמֶרָה	24
עוֹל	137	עֵנָב	77, 237, 267
עוֹל	144, 154, 156	עֵנָה I	178–79, 181, 204, 258 nn. 51–52
עוֹלָה	154, 229	עֵנָה II	215, 250 n. 45
עוֹלָל	136	עֵנֹ	38, 146 n. 64
עוֹלָלוֹת	135	עֵנִי	38, 136, 146, 160, 239
עוֹלָם	136, 267, 272	עֵנִי	12, 154, 160, 232–33
עוֹק	35 n. 55, 40 n. 73	עֵנֹן	193
עוֹר	39 n. 68, 193–94	עֵנֹן	93
עוֹר	86 n. 70, 91, 110, 138, 159, 185, 267	עֵפִי	58 n. 141
		עֵפֶר	46 n. 97

עץ	220–21	פזר	46, 50, 59
עצה	53 n. 130	פָּחַת	49
עֲצָה	85, 128, 130, 220–21, 269	פטר	56 n. 136
עָצוּם	240	פלא	41
עצם	53 n. 130	פֶּלֶג	48 n. 106
עָצָם	162, 229	פֶּלֶגָה	46 n. 101
עצר	55	פֶּלֶגָה	46 n. 101
עָקָד	139	פלה	41
עָקָה	35 n. 55	פלח	48 n. 106
עקר	52	פלט	46
עָקָשׁ	108 n. 146, 138	פָּלִיט	135, 240
עָר/ער	12, 32	פָּלֶדֶךְ	46 n. 101
ערב I	26	פלל	213
ערב II	26	פנה	248 n. 43
עָרַב	93	פָּנָה	94 n. 97, 234
עָרַב	107, 229	פָּנָה	148, 226–27, 269
עָרַבִי	58 n. 141	פָּסַח	86 n. 70, 138, 159
ערה	39, 250 n. 45	פָּסַל	55 n. 135, 157, 229
עָרוּם	241	פעל	282
עָרִיף	47	פָּעַל	109 n. 149, 156
עָרְלָה	232	פער	56 n. 136
עָרְמָה	232	פצה	40 n. 76, 49 n. 108, 56 n. 136
ערף	47, 56 n. 136	פצח	51
עָרַף	232	פצם	51
עָרְפָּל	47	פצע	51
ערץ	52 n. 127	פָּצַע	51
ערר	39	פצץ	40 n. 76, 51, 56 n. 136
עָשָׁב	231	פצר	47
עשה	91 n. 88, 107, 145, 160, 178, 205, 213, 215, 237–38, 250–51, 258–59, 260 n. 54, 268, 272–73, 279	פקד	74 n. 39, 133, 186, 192 n. 79, 240
עֲשׂוּק	136, 239	פקח	49
עִשָּׂר	33 n. 51	פָּקַח	138
עִשָּׂשׁ	83	פָּקִיד	240
עת	131, 221	פר	147 n. 66, 148, 226
עֲתָרָת	33 n. 51	פרד	48, 51
פאה	48 n. 106	פָּרָה	108, 148
פָּאָה	221	פרח	94
פגע	53, 260 n. 54	פָּרִי	129, 230 n. 20, 231
פגש	53	פרם	48, 51
פָּה	162, 222–23	פרס	48, 51
פוח	38 n. 61, 40, 41 n. 81	פָּרְעָה	127
פּוֹץ	40, 44, 48 n. 106, 51 n. 123	פרץ	47, 48, 51, 56 n. 136
פוש	44, 48 n. 106	פרק	48, 51
		פרר	48, 51
		פרש	48, 51
		פרש	47

פֶּרֶשׁ	5, 137	צֶלַע	157, 226 n. 14, 228
פֶּשֶׁה	48 n. 106	צֶלֶל	32
פֶּשֶׁק	56 n. 136	צֶלֶם	55 n. 135, 162, 229
פֶּשַׁע	54	צִלְמוֹת	37
פֶּשַׁע	54149 n	צֶלַע	157, 237
פֶּשֶׁר	33, 47	צִמָּא	56 n. 136, 235
פִּשְׁתָּ	152, 228 n. 16	צִמּוֹק	56 n. 136
פֶּת	95 n. 100	צִמַּח	188
פֶּתָאִם	45, 143	צִמָּק	56 n. 136
פֶּתָה	203	צִמַּת	55 n. 135
פֶּתַח	49, 185	צֶן	157 n. 96
פֶּתַח	149	צִנֵּעַ	48, 53
פֶּתִי	58, 154 n. 86, 155, 160	צִעֲדָה	139
פֶּתִיל	136 n. 43	צִעִיר	43, 44, 59, 135, 240
פֶּתַע	45	צִעֵן	32
פֶּתַר	33	צִעַק	35 n. 57, 44, 55 n.135, 56 n. 136, 57, 59
פֶּתְרוֹן	33	צִעָקָה	55 n.135, 56 n. 136, 235
צֶאֱן	153	צִפֵּן	44, 55
צָבִי I	154, 231	צָר	12, 226
צָבִי II	231	צָרַב	44
צָבִיָּה	156	צָרַב	46 n.99
צָדִיק	138, 267	צָרֶכֶת	44
צָדֵק	93 n. 94	צָרָה I	225–26
צָדִיקָה	92 n. 92, 125–26, 128, 159, 234	צָרָה II	226
צָהַב	45 n. 94	צָרוּף	136
צָהַל	56 n. 136	צָרִי	154, 232
צָהָרִים	45 n. 94	צָרַח	56 n. 136
צֹו	57, 101 n. 125	צָרַעַת	137, 241
צוּה	170 n. 20, 175, 179, 184, 186, 206, 208, 215, 250 n. 45	צָרַף	45, 46 n. 99
צוּח	56 n. 136	צָרַר I	31, 38, 55, 183 n. 57, 210, 254 n. 47
צוּחָה	56 n. 136	צָרַר II	31, 38
צוּף	32 n. 49, 46 n. 99	קָבַב	40, 254 n. 47
צוּץ	40	קָבַעַת	46 n. 101
צוּק	35 n. 55, 55 n.135	קָבַץ	46 n. 99, 56
צוּר I	31, 38, 55	קָבַר	229
צוּר II	31, 38	קָדַד	210 n. 110
צוּת	40 n. 73	קָדוּשׁ	132, 236 n. 28, 237
צָחָה	56 n. 136	קָדַח	49, 51
צָחַק	44, 44 n. 93, 56 n. 136	קָדַם	149
צִי I	228	קָדְמוֹן	142
צִי II	228	קָדְמוֹנִי	143
צִידָה	154	קָדַר	77
צִיָּה	56 n. 136		

- קִדְשׁ 6, 12, 74, 133, 149 n. 72, 151,  
 156, 160, 162, 183 n. 57, 232, 268,  
 274–75  
 קוהה 45  
 קו 101 n. 125  
 קוה 215  
 קוט 32, 54 n. 133  
 קול 223 n. 12, 224, 270, 278  
 קום 38, 75, 91, 98–99, 113, 168–70,  
 178, 195, 200–202, 209, 211, 215, 224,  
 246–47  
 קם 131, 144, 219–20, 266, 269, 272  
 קומה 129  
 קוץ 32, 39 n. 69, 40 n. 73, 54  
 קור 40 n. 77, 52  
 קוש 40 nn. 73 and 77, 41 n. 81  
 קטל 167  
 קטלה 138  
 קטן 139  
 קטר 175  
 קטרת 133–34  
 קיא 41 n. 83  
 קיה 41 n. 83  
 קינה 223 n. 12, 224  
 קיץ 39 n. 69, 40, 42 n. 85  
 קיר 224  
 קל 161  
 קלה 39  
 קלל 39, 50, 183 n. 57, 209, 254 n. 47  
 קללה 90, 235  
 קלס 27 n. 32  
 קמט 32 n. 49  
 קמץ 32 n. 49, 46 n. 99, 56  
 קמץ 46 n. 99, 56  
 קז 147, 159, 228  
 קנא 165 n. 6  
 קנה 145, 167, 235  
 קנין 143  
 קנן 242 n. 37  
 קפץ 46 n. 99  
 קץ 39 n. 69, 51, 56, 226 n. 14  
 קצב 51  
 קצה 39, 40 n. 73, 51, 212 n. 114  
 קצה 6, 39 n. 69, 51  
 קצה 6, 39 n. 69, 51, 235  
 קצה 39 n. 69, 51, 155  
 קצו 39 n. 69, 51  
 קציר 136  
 קצע 51  
 קצף 54 n. 133  
 קצף 32 n. 49  
 קצץ 39, 40 n. 73, 51, 185 n. 61  
 קצר 51, 257 n. 50  
 קצת 39 n. 69, 51, 235  
 קרא I 88 n. 76, 257 n. 50, 258 n. 51,  
 260 n. 54  
 קרא II 41, 197  
 קרב 182, 189, 243 n. 39, 281  
 קרב 74, 81, 149 n. 69, 231, 274  
 קרב 97, 239  
 קרבן 143  
 קרה 41, 197, 215  
 קרה 226  
 קרוב 236  
 קרח 55, 59  
 קרח 55, 138, 156  
 קרהה 232  
 קרן 229  
 קרס 55 n. 135, 56  
 קרע 55 n. 135, 260 n. 54  
 קשה 53, 101  
 קשה 145, 161  
 קשח 53  
 קשט 45  
 קשי 53  
 קשש 213  
 קשת 218 n. 2, 219, 221 n. 9  
 ראה 83 n. 64, 88, 91 n. 85, 107,  
 127, 167, 196, 204, 207, 237 n. 30, 250  
 n. 45, 258 n. 52, 261, 262 n. 55  
 ראובן 88 n. 76  
 ראש 88 n. 76, 104, 108, 153  
 ראשון 142  
 ראשית 143  
 רב 226  
 רב 228  
 רבאות 58  
 רבב 39, 209  
 רבבה 235

רבה	39, 93, 170 n. 21, 204 n. 100, 206, 208	רְבֵה	226 n. 14, 228
רבות	58	רַע	167, 226
רבע	33	רָע	220 n. 8
רְבָעִים	138 n. 49	רָעַב	228
רבץ	33	רָעַב	235
רגו	52	רָעַב	236
רָגַל	229	רַעַד	52
רָגְלִי	143	רעה	33, 258 n. 52, 262
רגע	27 n. 32, 52	רָעָה	220 n. 8, 237
רגש	52	רָעָה	161
רָגַשׁ	52	רַעוּת	33
רָגַשָׁה	52	רַעַל	52
רדד	39, 210	רַעַם	52, 96 n. 104
רדה	39, 237 n. 30	רַעַע I	167, 209, 210 n. 110, 254 n. 47, 262
רדף	80, 81, 237 n. 30	רַעַע II	33
רהה	41 n. 82	רַעַף	47
רוח	55 n. 135	רַעֵץ	33, 56 n. 136
רוֹחַ	55 n. 135	רַעֵשׁ	52, 84 n. 67
רוּחַ	69, 129, 223 n. 12, 224	רַפָּא	181 n. 52
רום	38, 203	רַפָּה	46 n. 99, 197 n. 86, 208
רוע	262	רַצָּה	33, 205
רחב	55 n. 135	רַצּוֹן	142
רַחֵב	55 n. 135	רַצֵּץ	33 n. 54, 56 n. 136, 212
רַחֵב	55 n. 135, 133, 232	רַק	45 n. 96, 59
רַחֲוֹב	132, 237	רַקַּק	39 n. 71, 56
רַחֲזֹק	107, 132	רַשַׁע	54
רַחֵל	25	רַשַׁע	54
רַחֵם	152, 228 n. 16	שָׁבַע	55 n. 135, 260 n. 54
רַחֵם	152, 228 n. 16	שָׁגָא	41
רַטֵּשׁ	242 n. 38	שָׁגָה	41
רִי	228	שָׁדָה	178 n. 46, 234–35
רִיב	223 n. 12, 224, 278	שָׁה	219, 219 n. 4, 222 n. 10
רִיק	224	שָׁוֹט	38 n. 63
רִיקָם	143	שָׁוֹךְ	24 n. 20, 38 n. 65
רִדָּ	45 n. 96	שָׁחוּ	155, 160, 229
רכב	188	שָׁחַק	44, 44 n. 93, 56 n. 136
רָכַב	229	שָׁטָה	38 n. 63
רכל	237 n. 30	שָׁטַם	47
רמה I	38 n. 65	שָׁטַן	47
רמה II	38 n. 65	שִׁיבָה	154
רָמָה	98–99, 219 n. 7, 220	שִׁים	38 n. 59, 170, 215
רָמִיָּה	46 n. 99	שִׁים	224
רמס	38	שִׁכַּךְ	38 n. 65
רמש	55 n. 135		

שכל	25	שִׁבַּע	158, 231
שָׁכַל	11, 25, 27 n. 31	שִׁבְר	257 n. 50
שְׁכָלוֹת	23	שִׁבְר	229, 231
שכר	23	שִׁבְרוֹן	142
שְׁלָמָה	47, 59	שִׁבַּת	111, 187
שמח	85 n. 68, 90, 109, 112 n. 157, 284	שִׁבָּת	241
שְׁמָחָה	231	שִׁבְתוֹן	142
שְׁמָלָה	47, 59, 231	שִׁגָּג	39, 254 n. 47
שְׁעִיר	136 n. 43	שִׁגָּה	39
שֶׁעַר	24 n. 20	שִׁגָּר	158 n. 98, 229
שְׁעָר	237	שִׁד	218 n. 2, 219
שְׁעָרָה	24 n. 20	שִׁדָּד	254 n. 47
שָׁפָה	130, 218 n. 2, 219	שִׁו	57
שָׁפָן	44, 55	שִׁוְאָה	38 n. 63, 46 n. 98
שִׁפָּק	24 n. 20, 55 n. 135	שִׁוֵּב	57 n. 139, 98–99, 188–89, 191, 194, 203, 220, 247 n. 42, 252–53
שִׁפָּק	55 n. 135	שִׁוַּח	52
שֶׁר	148, 225–26, 266, 273	שִׁוְחָה	46 n. 98
שֶׁרֶד	239	שִׁוְלָל	52
שָׁרָה	148, 226, 269	שִׁוַּע	55 n. 135, 200 n. 97
שְׁרִיד	135	שִׁוְעָה	55 n. 135
שָׁרָף	45	שִׁוָּק	224
שָׁרַר	11, 25	שִׁוֹר	33 n. 51
שִׁשׁוֹן	142	שִׁוֹר	224
שֶׁתַּר	26	שִׁחָה	52, 193
שאג	53	שִׁחַח	52, 106 n. 142, 209 n. 106
שָׁאָגָה	53, 235	שִׁחַט	45, 53
שָׁאָה	45, 53	שִׁחַר	175
שָׁאוֹן	53	שִׁחַר	139
שָׁאִיָּה	38 n. 63	שִׁחַת	45, 55 n. 135, 105, 163 n. 1, 189, 196
שָׁאֵל	197	שִׁחַת	49, 52, 187, 219
שָׁאָף	55 n. 134	שִׁטָּף	32 n. 49
שָׁאָר	243 n. 39	שִׁיָּה	165
שָׁאָר	239	שִׁיר	160, 223, 266, 271–72, 278
שָׁאָר	88 n. 76, 152–53, 165 n. 7	שִׁירָה	224, 269
שָׁאֲרִית	88 n. 76, 143, 153 n. 80	שִׁית	38 n. 65, 129, 163 n. 1, 165
שָׁבָה	179, 252–53, 260 n. 54	שִׁית	224
שָׁבוּעַ	135	שִׁית	224
שָׁבוּעָה	135, 241	שִׁכָּב	171
שָׁבָט	87, 230 n. 20, 231, 274–75, 279	שִׁכַּח	27 n. 32, 244 n. 41
שָׁבִי	154, 156, 230–31, 230 n. 20, 231, 274	שִׁכַּל	26 n. 29
שָׁבִיָּה	156	שִׁכָּם	229
שִׁבִּית	156	שִׁלָּג	37
שִׁבְלָת	138	שִׁלָּה I	37

שלה II	52 n. 129, 54, 205	שקה	206
שְׁלֶהֶבָה	53	שְׁקוּץ	54
שָׁלוֹ	54	שקט	45 n. 95, 55 n. 135
שָׁלוּ	54	שָׁקֵל	231
שָׁלוּה	54, 156	שְׁקָמָה	152, 228 n. 16
שְׁלוּשׁ	239	שקף	53
שֹׁלַח	76, 81, 84, 87, 111, 132–33, 135 n. 40, 167–68, 172 n. 26, 173 n. 31, 174 n. 34, 177 n. 45, 178–81, 182, 186, 196, 237 n. 30, 244–45, 257 n. 50, 281	שקץ	54
שֹׁלַחַן	143	שָׁקֵץ	54
שְׁלִיט	138	שָׁרֵץ	55 n. 135
שְׁלִישִׁי	143	שרר	26 n. 29
שֹׁלֵךְ	91, 170, 187, 208	שָׁרֵשׁ	151, 232
שֹׁלֵל	52	שרת	175 n. 40
שלם	54, 80	שתה	54 n. 133, 205 n. 102
שְׁלוֹם	54	שתק	55 n. 135
שֹׁלֵף	52	שתת	39 n. 65
שְׁלִשִׁים	138 n. 49	תאב	45, 46, 53
שֵׁם	89, 130, 148, 220 n. 8, 221–22	תֹּאבָה	46
שִׁמְדָּה	55 n. 135, 186, 188, 243 n. 39	תאה	47, 58
שִׁמְם	254 n. 47	תֹּאנָה	46
שִׁמֹּן	229	תֹּאנִיָּה	49
שִׁמְעָה	171 n. 23, 172, 180–81, 188, 202, 257–58, 260 n. 54	תהו	155–56, 232
שִׁמְעָה	160, 230 n. 20, 231	תהום	241
שִׁמְרָה	11 n. 8, 65 n. 12, 74–78, 83–84, 86–89, 93, 97, 99, 109, 111, 132–34, 156, 167, 171, 181–83, 186–87, 190– 92, 208, 239, 242–43, 257–60, 281–87	תֹּדֶה	144
שִׁמְשׁ	229	תוה	47, 58, 58 n. 142
שִׁן	161, 226 n. 14, 228	וַיִּתֵּן	47
שנה	33	תִּנְדָּה	160, 229, 278
שְׁנָה	108, 130, 218–19, 277, 280	תֹּכְחָה	141
שְׁנָה	130, 277, 280	תֹּכַחַת	141
שְׁסָה	237 n. 30, 263 n. 56	תור	33 n. 51
שעה	45	תֹּר	222
שִׁעַע	262 n. 55	תֹּרָה	141–42
שִׁפָּחָה	231	תִּחְלָה	141
שִׁפְטָה	84 n. 66, 180, 257 n. 50, 258 n. 51	תִּחְנוּנִים	142
שִׁפְטָה	73, 76, 86, 134, 159, 237 n. 30, 238, 267, 272–73	תִּיכּוֹן	142
שפל	53	תִּימֹן	141–42, 144
שָׁצַף	32 n. 49	תִּישׁ	154
שָׁקַד	53	תכן	45
		תלא	41
		תִּלָּג	37
		תלה	41
		תלל	50, 254 n. 47
		תם	147
		תם	228
		תִּמָּה	226 n. 14, 228



תמד	53
תמם	210–11, 254 n. 47
תנה	33
תעב	46, 106 n. 139
תעה	45
תענוג	142
תפארה	142
תפארת	141–42
תפל	45
תפלה	142
תפף	47
ויתף	47
תפש	258 n. 51
תקנה	161
תקן	45
תשובה	141
תשע	158, 231

