

# LETTERS, PRONUNCIATION, AUXILIARY SIGNS, WRITING

Arabic has 29 characters (حَرُوفٌ ج حُرُوفٌ ج حُرُوفٌ ): 26 consonants (حَرُوفٌ سَاكِنَةٌ) and 3 vowels (حُرُوفٌ مُتَحَرِّكَةٌ). Two (و، ي) of the three, however, occur both as vowels and consonants.

#### THE CHARACTERS AND THEIR PRONUNCIATION

The following consonants have more or less similar equivalents in English.

		C	more of less similar equivalents in English.
,	۶	Hamza	like 'a in 'arm, like 'i in 'inn, like 'oo in 'ooze (initial occlusive element, glottal stop)
b	ب	Bā'	like b in big
t	ت	Tā'	like t in tea
<u>t</u>	ث	<u>T</u> ā'	like th in three
ğ	ج	Ğīm	like g in gentle
þ	ج خ د	<u>H</u> ā'	like ch in Scottish English, loch
d	د	Dāl	like d in door
$\underline{d}$	ذ	<u>D</u> āl	like th in the
r	ر	Rā'	like r in Scottish English, room
z	ز	Zāy	like z in zero
S	س	$S\bar{\imath}n$	like s in sun
š	ش ف	Šīn	like s in sure
f		Fā'	like f in fog
$\boldsymbol{k}$	<u>5</u>	Kāf	like k in key
l	ل	Lām	like l in long, live or luck
m	م	$M\bar{\imath}m$	like m in monkey
n	ن	Nūn	like n in noon
h	٥	Ηā΄	like h in hot
w	و	Wāw	like w in wall
У	ي	Yā'	like y in year

Arabic has the following long vowels:

ā	1	Alif	like a in far
ī	ي	Yā'	like ee in deer
$\bar{u}$	9	Wāw	like oo in school

The short vowels a (hut, pat), i (lift) and u (look) as well as the diphthongs ay (write) and aw (like in how, but short) are also the same as in English.



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The following letters are typical Arabic consonants which do not have equivalents in English and can only be learned through regular practice with native speakers:

ḥ	ح	Ḥā'	like h articulated with friction
r	ع	'Ayn	like a articulated in the pharynx with friction
ġ	غ	Ġayn	like the Parisian r in renaissance
ķ	ص	Ṣād	like s articulated with emphasis
d	ض	<u></u> Dād	like d articulated with emphasis
ţ	ط	Ţā'	like t articulated with emphasis
<u>z</u>	ظ	<u>Z</u> ā'	like dh articulated with emphasis
q	ق	Qāf	like $k$ articulated with emphasis

The last five of these consonants are the so-called emphatic consonants. They normally affect the pronunciation of adjacent consonants, vowels and diphthongs. Their correct pronunciation and the modifications in the adjacent sounds need special practising.

The Persian characters  $\mathfrak{E}$  for ch (chapter),  $\psi$  for p (politics),  $\mathcal{I}$  for (French) j (Jacques),  $\mathcal{L}$  for v (vehicle) and  $\mathcal{L}$  for g (go) are sometimes used to write words or names of Persian or foreign origin.

The order of the Arabic consonants according to the place where they are articulated:

```
bilabial:
                  b. m. w
labiodental:
                  f
interdental:
                  d, t, z
dental:
                  d, t, d, t
prepalatal:
                  n, l, r, z, s, s, š, ğ, y
postpalatal:
                  k
velar:
                  ġ, q, h
pharyngeal:
                  ', h
laryngeal:
                  ', h
(أَلْحَوْ كَاتُ) AUXILIARY SIGNS
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Since Arabic expresses only long vowels by special characters, a system of auxiliary signs was developed to distinguish whether or not a consonant is followed by a short vowel. But normally these signs do not appear in printed or written texts, since the reader who is familiar with the morphology of Arabic will be able to read the words correctly without such signs.

The auxiliary signs are mainly used in the Koran, poetry and children's books. Texts which contain such signs are called vocalized or pointed texts, whereas those without them are referred to as unvocalized.



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The signs may be divided into two main groups:

a) Short wowels (for which Arabic has no characters)

Fatha = a short oblique stroke ( ) written on top of the letter  $ightharpoonup ba, ightharpoonup ba, ightharpoonup wa

denoting that the consonant is followed by a short a.

(Fatha followed by <math>Alif = long \ \bar{a}$ :  $ightharpoonup m\bar{a}$ )

**Kasra** = a short oblique stroke ( ) written below the consonant bi, bi, i, mi denoting that the consonant is followed by a short i.

(Kasra followed by  $Y\bar{a}' = \log \bar{\imath}$ : خبر  $kab\bar{\imath}r$ )

**Pamma**= a sign similar in shape to a small  $W\bar{a}w$  ( ) written on top of the letter  $\lambda \dot{\nu}$   $\lambda \dot{$ 

### b) OTHER SIGNS

 $Suk\bar{u}n = a \text{ small circle ( ) on top of the letter}$  مَنْ tahta, مَنْ nahnu, مَنْ min denoting that the consonant is not followed by any vowel.

Šadda = a small Sīn ( ) written on top of the letter denoting that the consonant is doubled, which is pronounced in a somewhat prolonged way then.
Fatha and Damma are written on top of Šadda, whereas Kasra may be placed either below Šadda or below the doubled letter:
\*\*Jan Sadda \*\* Jan Sadda \*\* Jan

مُعَلِّمٌ مُعَلِّمٌ مُعَلِّمٌ مُعَلِّمٌ مُعَلِّمٌ مُعَلِّمٌ مُعَلِّمٌ mu'allim, مُعَلِّمٌ taqaddum  $Madda = a sign on top of <math>Alif(\overline{1})$  denoting a long  $\overline{a}$ .  $al-\overline{a}na$ , الْقَرْآنَ al-qur'an

#### DIPHTHONGS:

Fatḥa followed by a g with  $Suk\bar{u}n$  denotes the diphthong aw, whereas Fatḥa followed by a g with  $Suk\bar{u}n$  denotes the diphthong ay: bayt

Hamza, which has the shape of a small 'Ayn, normally needs a character to "carry" it. The characters which carry Hamza are (Alif),  $(W\bar{a}w)$  and  $(Y\bar{a}')$ , and they are referred to as chairs of Hamza. (F Spelling of Hamza)



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At the beginning of a word, the chair of Hamza is always Alif:

The  $T\bar{a}'$  marb $\bar{u}ta$   $\ddot{\circ}$  is a special form of the  $T\bar{a}'$ . It only occurs in final position. It is pronounced as a short a when the word occurs isolated. However, if the word is the 1<sup>st</sup> term of a genitive construction, it turns into t. ( $\mathcal{F}$  Genitive)

The *Tanwīn* is used to mark that a noun is indefinite in the nominative, genitive or accusative case. The *Tā' marbūta* with *Tanwīn* turns into *t* and is pronounced – *atun*, -*atin*, -*atan*. The *Tanwīn* is also combined with *Šadda*:

n. <i>(un)</i>		g. (in)		a. <i>(an)</i>	
tālibat <b>un</b>	kitāb <b>un</b>	ṭālibat <b>in</b>	kitāb <b>in</b>	ṭālibat <b>an</b>	kitāb <b>an</b>
طَالِبَةٌ	كِتَابٌ	طَالِبَةِ	كِتَابِ	طَالِبَةً	كِتَاباً
ţibl	un	ţib	bin	ţibl	an
طِبٌ		طِبِّ		طِبًّا	

#### WRITING

Arabic is written from right to left. The letters differ in size, but there are no capitals. Each of them has a basic form, but modifications in their shapes occur according to their positions in words. Thus, each letter has a different shape in initial, medial, final and isolated position:

isolated position	final position	medial position	initial position
ب	<u></u>		<u> </u>

- The shapes of Arabic letters are generally similar both in script and printed form. However, a few differences occur.
- $Y\bar{a}'(\mathcal{S})$  without diacritical dots in final position is always preceded by Fatha and is pronounced as the long vowel  $\bar{a}$ :  $\hat{a}$   $\hat{b}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{b}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{b}$   $\hat{b}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{b}$   $\hat{b}$
- Final  $Y\bar{a}'(\mathcal{Q})$  with diacritical dots is usually preceded by Kasra:  $\tilde{f}\bar{\imath}$ ,  $\tilde{k}it\bar{a}b\bar{\imath}$ . However, many texts do not seem to be consistent in regard to the use of diacritical dots with  $\mathcal{Q}$  when it occurs in the final position.
- Allāh (God) is mostly written in the form of الله . The Šadda above the Lām shows that the Lām is doubled here; the small Alif above the Šadda means that a long ā has to be pronounced after it. This small Alif is also used in the word rahmān (the Merciful) and others.



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# ( أَلْحُرُوفُ الأَبْحَدِيَّةُ) Table I: THE ALPHABET

The first letter of the alphabet is actually *Hamza*, but since *Alif* is the chair of *Hamza* in most cases, it appears in its place as the first letter.

The alphabet in its traditional order:

name of the	translitera-	isolated	final	medial	initial
letter	tion	position	position	position	position
Alif	ā	1			١
Bā'	b	ب	ب	<del></del> -	بـــ
Τā'	t	ت			
Ţā'	<u>t</u>	ث	ــــــث		ث جہ ہے۔ ہے۔
Ğīm	ğ	ج	ج		جـــ
Ḥā'	h	ج خ د	ح	~_	_ <del>-</del> >
<u> </u> На′	b	خ	خ	خ	
Dāl	d		ــــد	ــــد	د د
<u>D</u> āl	$\underline{d}$	ذ	_ـــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ	<del>                                    </del>	ذ
Rā'	r	ر	—ر	<i></i>	ر
Zāy	z	ر ز	ـــز	ا ـــز	ر ز
$S\bar{\imath}n$	s	س	س		
Šīn	š	ش	ــشـــ		شـــ
Ṣād	Ş	ص	ص		> >
Dād	d	ض	ض	_ <u>-</u>	<u></u>
Ţā'	į t	ض ط ظ	_ط	<u>_</u>	طــ
Zā'	z.	ظ	_ظ	_ظ_	ظــ
' Ayn	ŗ	ع في			عــ
Ġayn	ġ	غ	غ		غــ
Fā'	f		_ف	<u>i</u>	فـــ
Qāf	q	ق	_ق		قـــ
Kāf	k	ك ك	_ك		کــ
Lām	1	ل	_ل		
$M\bar{\imath}m$	m	٢	<u></u>		
Nūn	n	ن	ـــن		نــ
На'	h	٥			a
Wāw	w, <i>ū</i>	و	<u> </u>	_و	و ا
Yā'	<i>y</i> , <i>ī</i>	ي	ي		<u></u>



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# Spelling of Hamza

#### SPELLING OF HAMZA

The key to the spelling of *Hamza* is to determine whether ' or 's is the chair of *Hamza* or whether *Hamza* occurs without a chair. To determine which spelling must be chosen depends on which vowel precedes or follows *Hamza*. The formal order principle for the following rules distinguishes between initial, medial and final *Hamza* in the word.

#### Initial Hamza

Alif invariably is the chair of Hamza:

to take	أُخَذُ
mother	1 1 1
production	ٳڹٛؾؘٵڿؙ
delegation	ٳؽ۠ڣؘۘٵۮؙ

This also applies if the word is preceded by a preposition which is written together with it:

*	for my mother	لأُمِّي
	by the production of the cars	بِإِنْتَاجِ السَّيَّارَاتِ

#### Medial Hamza

a) If Hamza is not followed by a vowel, the chair of Hamza is determined by the vowel immediately preceding Hamza, i.e. Alif is used with  $a/\bar{a}$ ,  $W\bar{a}w$  with  $u/\bar{u}$  and  $Y\bar{a}'$  (without diacritical dots) with  $i/\bar{\imath}$ :

opinion	ڔۘٲ۠ێؙ
well/spring	، بئر ً
(infinitive of رَأَى)	رُ وُ يَةً

b) If *Hamza* is followed by a vowel, but if the consonant immediately preceding *Hamza* is vowelless, the chair of *Hamza* is determined by the vowel which follows *Hamza*:

he asks	يَسْأَلُ
questions	أُسْئِلَةٌ
responsible	مَسْؤُولٌ



# Spelling of Hamza

Exception: If the vowelless consonant preceding Hamza is a  $Y\bar{a}'$ , the chair of Hamza is  $Y\bar{a}'$  as well: Aubsilon = Aubsil

c) If Hamza is preceded by a vowel as well as followed by a vowel, Alif is the chair of Hamza if both vowels are a,  $W\bar{a}w$  is the chair of Hamza if one of the two vowels is u and  $Y\bar{a}'$  is the chair of Hamza if one of the two vowels is i.

If u and i meet,  $Y\bar{a}'$  is the chair of Hamza:

he has asked	سَأَلَ
presidents	رُؤَسَاءُ
question	سؤالٌ
hundred	مئة مئة
president	رَ ئِيسٌ
he was asked	سُئِلَ

If the sequence of vowels is  $-\bar{a}$  a,  $-\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$  or  $-\bar{u}$  a, Hamza is written in its isolated form on the line:

reading (infinitive of أقرأ	قِرَاءَةٌ
experts, chief performers	كُفَاءَاتٌ
manliness	رُدُو عَدِّ مُرُو ءِهُ

#### Final Hamza

a) If *Hamza* is preceded by a short vowel, this vowel determines the chair of *Hamza*:

he has read	ِ قرأ
he reads	يَقُرُأ
it was read	قُرِئَ
to be manly	مَرُوۡ

b) If *Hamza* is preceded by a long vowel or a vowelless consonant, *Hamza* occurs without a chair:

friends	أصدقاء

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# Spelling of Hamza

read (pass. part.)	مَقْرُوءٌ
coming (infinitive of جاء)	مُجِيء
one (impers. pron.), man	أَلَمْوْءُ
building	بِنَاءٌ

c) The following applies to the spelling of the indefinite accusative of nouns with final *Hamza*:

The Alif of the indefinite accusative is omitted if the chair of Hamza is an Alif or if Hamza follows Alif (= long vowel  $\bar{a}$  without chair أَبْتُذَاءً، مُبْتَدَاءً، وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمَاعِينَ الْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَلِي وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينِ وَالْمُعْمِينَ وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَا وَالْمُعْمِينَ

The Alif of the indefinite accusative is used if Hamza occurs without chair (except after the long vowel  $\bar{a}$ ) ( $\stackrel{\circ}{\leftarrow}$ : ).

It has  $Y\bar{a}'$  as its chair if it is preceded by  $(\hat{m}_{a})$ .

d) Final *Hamza* may become medial *Hamza* by means of a suffix. In this case the rules for *Hamza* in medial position apply:

friends	أَصْدِقَاءُ
your friends	أَصْدِقَاؤُكَ
with your friends	مَعَ أَصْدِقَائِكَ
he reads	يَقْرَأُ
they read	ؘؽؘڡۨ۫ڔۘٷؙۅڹۘ
you (f.) read	تَقْرُ ئِينَ

e) Hamza together with the long vowel  $\bar{a}$  following is written as Madda ( $\bar{1}$ ):

August	ب	١	
minarets	نآذِنُ	á	

This rule does not apply if Hamza is also preceded by the long vowel  $\bar{a}$ :

experts, chief performers	كَفَاءَاتٌ
measures	إِجْرَاءَاتٌ
exemptions, excuses	إعْفَاءَاتٌ



Stress 9

#### **STRESS**

Stress, i.e. to pronounce a syllable with more emphasis, is regular in Arabic. In general, it is not difficult to stress the Arabic words in the correct way. The stressed syllable is shown in italics in the following rules and examples:

- 1. Only the last three syllables of a word can be stressed. If *Nunation* is pronounced, it is included.
- **2.** The last syllable that contains a long vowel is stressed:

ki-*tāb* ki-*tā*-bun ǧa-*dīd* ǧa-*dī*-dun ma-*ḥā*-zin ma-*ḥā*-zi-nu

however, the vocalic final sound of the word is never stressed:

*hu*-nā *kur*-sī *(but:* kur-*sī*-yun*)* 

**3.** If the last three syllables do not contain a long vowel, the second to last syllable is stressed if it is a closed syllable (sequence of sounds: consonant - short vowel - consonant):

mu-*'al-*lim mu-*tar-*ğim,

and the same applies if the word consists of only two syllables:

*an-*ta *ra-*ğul

Otherwise the third to last syllable is stressed, regardless of its structure:

mu-*'al-*li-ma muğ-*ta*-hi-dun

**4.** It is accepted in modern Arabic language that the stress may not advance beyond the last syllable but two. This requires the stress to be shifted if the number of syllables changes, when the *Nunation* is pronounced or suffixes are added.

 tā-li-ba
 ṭā-li-ba-tun

 mu-'al-li-ma
 mu-'al-li-ma-tun

 ku-tu-bun
 ku-tu-bu-nā (our books)

 mu-'al-li-mun
 mu-'al-li-mu-nā (our teacher)

 ṭā-li-ba
 ṭa-li-ba-tun

 ṭā-li-ma
 mu-'al-li-ma-tun

 mu-'al-li-ma
 (our teacher (f.))

**5.** The definite article, and the first syllable of verbal Forms VII, VIII, IX and X are never stressed.



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Radical, Root, Pattern

#### RADICAL, ROOT, PATTERN

The majority of Arabic words can be reduced to a triliteral root consisting of three consonants (تُلاثِيّ). They are called *radicals* (R1, R2 and R3). There is also quite a number of quadriliteral roots (رُبَاعيّ).

The root expresses a certain conceptual content, e.g. the meaning "to write" is inherent in the root K-T-B ( $\psi - \psi - \psi - \psi$ ), "to go" in D - H - B ( $\psi - \psi - \psi - \psi$ ), and "to drink" in Š - R - B ( $\psi - \psi - \psi - \psi$ ).

This conceptual content is specified by short and long vowels between the consonants and by prefixes, infixes and suffixes regarding the part of speech (verb, noun, adjective) as well as regarding the grammatical category (tense, mood, number, case etc.). Simplified, one can say that the root consonants (*Radicals*) fulfil a semantic and the vowels a grammatical function in the Arabic word:

<b>К</b> а <b>Т</b> а <b>В</b> а	(كَتَبَ)	= he wrote / has written
<b>K</b> ā <b>T</b> i <b>B</b>	(كَاتِب)	= writing; writer, author
KiTāB	(كتَاُب)	= book
KuTuB	(كُتُب)	= books
ma <b>KT</b> ū <b>B</b>	(مَكْتُوب)	= written; letter
ma <b>KT</b> a <b>B</b> a	(مَكْتَبَة)	= library, bookshop

The Arab grammarians use  $\dot{\omega}$  for R<sub>1</sub> (1st Radical),  $\varepsilon$  for R<sub>2</sub> (2nd Radical) and  $\dot{\omega}$  for R<sub>3</sub> (3rd Radical) in order to describe the numerous word forms systematically.  $F\bar{a}'$ , 'Ayn and  $L\bar{a}m$  fulfil the function of variables in the patterns, for which theoretically any consonant can be substituted.

فَعَلَ	fa'ala	is the pattern used for the perfect tense (3rd p.sg.m.):	كَتَبَ، ذَهَبَ
فَاعِلٌ	fā'il	is the pattern used for the active participle:	كَاتِبٌ، طَالِبٌ
فَعيلٌ	fa'īl	is a typical pattern of the adjective:	كَبِيرٌ، صَغِيرٌ
فعَالٌ	fi'āl	is a typical pattern of the broken plural:	كِبَارٌ، طِوَالٌ
أَفْعَالً	afʻāl	is another typical pattern of the broken plural:	أَقْلامٌ، أَعْوَامٌ

A reliable knowledge of the patterns and their general meaning is very useful for obtaining a good command of the language, and enables the learner to deduce the meanings of derived nouns and verbal forms by knowing the meaning of the root.