

A Reference Grammar of Modern Hebrew

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*For Lea
For Mic*

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*For Leah, Jonah, Rachel, Aaron and Harlan
For Michal and Noa*

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Preface

The main purpose of this book is to serve as a reference grammar for Modern Hebrew. It is designed to teach about the language and to give readers a reference tool for looking up specific details of the language. The intended audience is a varied one; it includes non-native speakers who are students of Hebrew, native speakers of Hebrew who seek a comprehensive coverage of Hebrew grammar, instructors and teachers of Hebrew, students and scholars of Biblical Hebrew who would like to have a better understanding of contemporary Hebrew, students of linguistics, and the general public interested in Hebrew language and culture. Particular care was taken to make the presentation as simple as possible, and to avoid use of excessive linguistic terminology or complex linguistic analyses, in order to make this volume as accessible as possible to everyone, and to give pedagogical considerations equal weight to those of linguistic explanations and analysis.

The book is based on the study of formal Hebrew and of Hebrew as a spoken language, and it includes some historical notes on pre-modern Hebrew (Biblical and Post-Biblical). We consider the Hebrew language both as a system and as a communicative tool. Whenever possible, equivalent Hebrew terminology is given in order to facilitate use of Hebrew grammar and language textbooks.

A Reference Grammar of Modern Hebrew combines modern and traditional approaches in the description of language structures and uses. The term 'normative' is used to convey the adherence to the formal rules of grammar, while 'common use' alludes to the rules applied by educated speakers in their daily use. While most speakers perceive 'correct' Hebrew to be the language usage as prescribed by the formal rules of Hebrew, in fact their own actual language usage, particularly in informal contexts, often departs somewhat from the normative rules. The language is thus described both in its written and more formal contexts, and in the spoken conversational mode, where there is a relaxation of some of the normative rules, as is common to all languages in use.

The formal presentation of rules and tables associated with language structures uses Hebrew texts with vowels, כתיב חסר *ktiv haser*, while

the examples, on the whole, use כתיב מלא *ktiv malé*, without vowels, as in daily use in contemporary Hebrew adult texts.

A Reference Grammar of Modern Hebrew is organized according to universal structural categories. The book describes the basic structures of Modern Hebrew, and provides a generous number of examples, based on the authors' experience of teaching Hebrew to English-speaking students, and research work in the field of Hebrew linguistics.

We wish to acknowledge our colleague Robert Hoberman, Professor of Linguistics at the State University of New York Stony Brook, whose feedback comments were very insightful and helpful from both linguistic and pedagogical aspects. We also wish to acknowledge Liz Brater, who as a student of Hebrew gave us much needed insight into learners' needs, and as a professional editor, helped us with organizing the text. We are particularly thankful to her, since she found time during her busy schedule as a Michigan State Senator, to do careful reading of large parts of the text. In addition, we thank Neta Bolozky and Tris Coffin for their steady support during the writing of the book. We also wish to express our gratitude to Cambridge University Press for the opportunity to write and publish this work.

June 2004

1.1 Part

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Chapter 1

Preliminary discussion

- 1.1 Parts of speech
- 1.2 Grammatical functions
- 1.3 Words and patterns
- 1.4 Gender and number
- 1.5 Open and closed word classes
- 1.6 Phrase constituents
- 1.7 Rules of agreement

1.1 Parts of speech

One of the major issues in the presentation of grammar is the definition of language categories. Language categories can be described as parts of speech, i.e. language units in isolation, or in terms of their function in context. For instance, a noun can be described as belonging to the parts-of-speech category 'noun', and also as functioning either as a subject or an object within the clause or sentence structure, as the modifier of another noun, etc. While we recognize that all language items belong to a whole network of interrelationships, we shall limit the present discussion to context-free (i.e., parts-of-speech), and context-dependent (i.e., functional) relationships.

The following are the main traditional categories of parts of speech:

Verbs	פעלים
Nouns	שמות
Pronouns	כינויי גוף
Adjectives	שמות תואר
Adverbs	תוארי הפועל
Prepositions	מילות יחס
Conjunctions	מילות חיבור

In many cases, the distinction between the part-of-speech characterization of some item and its function in context is obvious. Thus, for instance, in the noun phrase חנות ספרים 'bookstore', we have two nouns (part of speech), and although the second one is a modifier

of the first, and thus functions as if it were an adjective, it is still a noun from the part-of-speech point of view. On the other hand, there are words that even in isolation cannot be assigned unambiguously to a single category. Every word functions as at least one part of speech, but there are words that can serve as two or more parts of speech, depending on the context. For instance, some present participle forms can function as verbs in the present tense, as nouns or as adjectives:

<u>Noun</u>	The new <u>worker</u> did not arrive at work today.	הפועל החדש לא הגיע היום לעבודה.
<u>Verb</u>	The computer does not <u>work</u> properly.	המחשב לא פועל כראוי.
<u>Adjective</u>	The <u>executive (working)</u> committee decided to raise membership fees.	הוועד הפועל החליט להעלות את דמי החבר.

The same word can also function as both an adjective and an adverb:

<u>Adjective</u>	The director is a <u>difficult</u> man.	המנהל הוא איש קשה.
<u>Adverb</u>	He makes everyone work <u>hard</u> .	הוא מעביד קשה את כולם.

Below are some illustrations of parts of speech and grammatical functions. A more detailed discussion will follow in the main chapters of the book.

Verbs

פעלים

Verbs in tense

Dan <u>hurried</u> home.	דן מיהר הביתה.
They <u>will oppose</u> the plan for ideological reasons.	הם יתנגדו לתוכנית מסיבות אידיאולוגיות.

Non-finite verbs

Dan wants <u>to run</u> in the Boston Marathon.	דן רוצה לרוץ במרתון בוסטון.
---	-----------------------------

Nouns and pronouns

שמות וכינויים

Nouns

I have <u>coffee</u> and <u>cake</u> for you.	יש לי קפה ועוגה בשבילך.
---	-------------------------

Verbal nouns

Dan is a <u>cooking</u> expert.	דן מומחה לבישול.
She proved a profound <u>understanding</u> of the subject.	היא הוכיחה הבנה עמוקה בנושא.

Personal

He likes t

Demonst

This food

Adjectiv

Adjective

He is an e

Adjective

This stude

Adverbs

He cooks

Particles

Prepositi

Dan goes

Conjuncti

Do you wa

Subordin

They went

recommen

Interrogat

Who is thi

Interjuncti

Ouch! It h

1.2 Gran

Another w

grammatic

describe th

jective, it is still a
e other hand, there
unambiguously to a
one part of speech,
re parts of speech,
ent participle forms
or as adjectives:

הפועל החדש לא הגיע
לעבודה.
המחשב לא פועל כראוי

היעד הפועל החליט לה
את דמי החבר.

ve and an adverb:
המנהל הוא איש קשה.
הוא מעביד קשה את כ

h and grammatical
n the main chapters

פעלים

דן מיתר הביתה.
הם יתנגדו לתוכנית מס
אידיאולוגיות.

דן רוצה לרוץ במרתון

שמות וכינויים

יש לי קפה ועוגה בשביל

דן מומחה לבישול.
היא הוכיחה הבנה עמוק

Personal pronouns

He likes to cook and she likes to eat.

הוא אוהב לבשל והיא אוהבת
לאכול.

Demonstrative pronouns

This food is Moroccan food.

האוכל הזה הוא אוכל מרוקאי.

Adjectives

Adjectives in noun phrases

He is an excellent cook.

הוא בשלן מצוי.

Adjectives as predicates

This student is talented.

התלמיד הזה מוכשר.

שמות תואר

Adverbs

He cooks a lot but eats little.

הוא מבשל הרבה אבל אוכל מעט.

תוארי הפועל

Particles

Prepositions

Dan goes with friends to shows.

דן הולך עם חברים להצגות.

Conjunctions

Do you want to walk or to go by car?

אתם רוצים ללכת ברגל או לנסוע?

Subordinators

They went to the restaurant that I recommended.

הם הלכו למסעדה שעליה המלצתי.

Interrogatives

Who is this?

מי זה?

Interjections

Ouch! It hurts!

אוי! זה כואב!

1.2 Grammatical functions

Another way to classify the components of an utterance is by their grammatical function. Here are some of the terms that are used to describe the roles the parts of speech play in sentences:

Subject	נושא
Predicate	נשוא
Attribute	לואי
Object	מושא
Adjunct	נספח

Subject	נושא
Noun phrases	
<u>The new cook</u> is from France.	הטבח החדש הוא מצרפת.
Subordinate clauses	
<u>That he studied cooking in France</u> is of no interest to me.	שהוא למד בישול בצרפת לא מעניין אותי בכלל.
Predicate	נשוא
Verb predicates	
Dan <u>started studying</u> in the summer.	דן התחיל ללמוד בקיץ.
Nominal predicates	
He is <u>a student</u> in law school.	הוא תלמיד בקולטה למשפטים.
Attribute	לואי
Expansion of phrases with additional information	
Dan met <u>friends from work at a pub on the beach</u> .	דן פגש חברים מהעבודה בפאב על שפת הים.
Object complement	מושא משלים
Direct object	
Dan met <u>his friends</u> .	דן פגש את החברים שלו.
Indirect object	
Dan got together <u>with his friends</u> .	דן נפגש עם החברים שלו.
Adjunct	נספח
Temporal	
Dan was not at home <u>this morning</u> .	דן לא היה בבית הבוקר.
Spatial	
Dan traveled in <u>England</u> for three months.	דן טייל שלושה חודשים באנגליה.

1.3 Words and patterns

מלים, בניינים ומשקלים

All verbs, many nouns, and a good number of adjectives and adverbs are based on a combination of roots and patterns. The root *shoresh* is a consonantal skeleton. It is a hypothetical sequence of consonants shared by related words. Roots do not constitute actual words. Each one is applied to a pattern, from which actual words are formed. In the verb system the pattern is called בניין *binyan*, and elsewhere it is called משקל *mishkal*.

Verbs

Gloss
wrote
dictated

Nouns and Gloss

magician
charming

There are
person sin
of these
prototypic
with the pa

pa'al
nif'al
pi'el
pu'al
hitpa'el
hif'il
huf'al

The root co
second roo
consonant i

Verb

(שילם)
(פטר)
ב
=
(הוקלט)

נושא

הטבח החדש הוא מצר

שהוא למד בישול בצרפת
אותי בכלל.

נשוא

דן התחיל ללמוד בקיץ.

הוא תלמיד בפקולטה ל

לואי

דן פגש חברים מהעבודה
שפת היס.

מושא משלים

דן פגש את החברים שלו

דן נפגש עם החברים של

נספח

דן לא היה בבית הבוקר.

דן טייל שלושה חודשים

מלים, בניינים ומשקלים

adjectives and adverbs
forms. The root שורש
metathetical sequence of
not constitute actual
which actual words are
ed בניין *binyan*, and

Verbs

Gloss	Word	בניין	שורש
wrote	כתב	פעל	כ-ת-ב
dictated	הקתיב	הפעיל	

Nouns and adjectives

Gloss	Word	משקל	שורש
magician (noun)	קוסם	פועל	ק-ס-מ
charming (adjective)	מקסים	מפעיל	

There are seven verb pattern groups (*binyanim*) in Hebrew. The third person singular in the past tense is traditionally used to represent each of these groups. To label each of these groups generically, a prototypical root is used. The generic verb פעל is used in combination with the pattern of each *binyan*, giving it its name.

	<i>Binyan's name</i>	Citation Form	Root
<i>pa'al</i>	פָּעַל	זָנַק	ז-ר-ק
<i>nif'al</i>	נִפְעַל	נִשְׁבַּר	ש-ב-ר
<i>pi'el</i>	פִּיעַל (פיעל)	סָפַר (סיפר)	ס-פ-ר
<i>pu'al</i>	פֻּעַל (פועל)	סָלַק (סולק)	ס-ל-ק
<i>hitpa'el</i>	הִתְפַּעֵל	הִתְרַגַּשׁ	ר-ג-שׁ
<i>hif'il</i>	הִפְעִיל	הִקְלִיט	ק-ל-ט
<i>huf'al</i>	הֻפְעַל (הופעל)	הֻנְצַח (הונצח)	נ-צ-ח

The root consonant is labeled פי הפועל (marked in English as C_1). The second root consonant is labeled עי הפועל (C_2) and the third root consonant is לי הפועל (C_3).

Verb form	<i>Binyan</i>	Root	ל' הפועל	ע' הפועל	פ' הפועל
שָׁתַק	פעל	ש-ת-ק	ק	ת	ש
נִכְנַס	נפעל	כ-נ-ס	ס	נ	כ
שָׁלַם (שילם)	פיעל	ש-ל-מ	מ	ל	ש
פָּטַר (פוטר)	פועל	פ-ט-ר	ר	ט	פ
הִתְכַּתֵּב	התפעל	כ-ת-ב	ב	ת	כ
הִקְתִּיב	הפעיל	כ-ת-ב	ב	ת	כ
הֻקְלַט (הוקלט)	הופעל	ק-ל-ט	ט	ל	ק

A comparative note

The verb pattern groups in Hebrew are somewhat similar to special groups of verbs in English, where the base undergoes predictable internal changes, and the modifications within the stem are regular. Some examples of such groups:

- (a) drive-drove-driven, write-wrote-written, ride-rode-ridden
 (b) speak-spoke-spoken, freeze-froze-frozen, steal-stole-stolen

Although the root does not exist on its own, many words sharing a common root tend to have a common meaning or related meaning.

Verbs

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Citation form</u>	<u>binyan</u>	<u>Root</u>
tie	קשר	פעל	ק-ש-ר
be tied	נקשר	נפעל	
get in touch; get connected	התקשר	התפעל	

Nouns and adjectives

<u>Gloss</u>			<u>Root</u>
tied, connected (adj.)	קשור	תואר	ק-ש-ר
tie, connection (noun)	קשר (ז)	שם	
context (noun)	הקשר (ז)	שם	

1.3.2 Deriving new words**גזירת מילים חדשות**

New words in Hebrew, as in other Semitic languages, are formed in two ways:

1. Linearly, without affecting the base for derivation. For instance, the adjective ציבורי 'public, in the public domain' is derived from the noun ציבור 'the public'.

There are also cases of chains of derivations.

Noun	child	ילד
Abstract noun derived from ילד-	childhood	ילדות
Adjective derived from ילדות:	childish	ילדותי
Abstract noun derived from ילדותי:	childishness	ילדותיות

2. New verbs can also be derived from an existing root, by combining it with an existing derivation pattern. For instance, the following recent verbs were formed with existing roots and their new combination with patterns:

Existing v
 New verb
 Existing v
 New verb

1.4 Gen

Nouns, a
 gender is
 between
 entities:
 features,
 and abstra
 The biolo
 feminine
 Other nou
 and canno

There are
 singular n
 feminine s
 ה- -a or a
 suffixes
 frequently
 nouns, w
 necessarily

Verb form
 past and
 personal p
 verb forms

1.5 Oper

The parts
 categories:
 consist of
 various par

Existing verb	write	כתב
New verb in <i>shif'el</i> pattern	rewrite	שכתב
Existing verb	act, do	פעל
New verb in <i>tif'el</i> pattern:	operate, activate	תפעל

1.4 Gender and number

מין ומספר

Nouns, adjectives and verbs have gender and number features. The gender is either masculine זכר or feminine נקבה. A distinction is made between two major noun categories: [1] nouns that represent living entities: human beings and other living beings with biological gender features, and [2] nouns that represent other entities, mostly inanimate and abstract nouns (for example, objects, concepts, plants and others). The biological gender of living beings and their inherent masculine or feminine features are reflected in their grammatical gender features. Other nouns have an assigned grammatical gender, which is prescribed and cannot be predicted.

There are regular number features, which indicate whether a noun is a singular noun יחיד/יחידה or whether it is a plural noun רבים/רבות. The feminine singular noun endings (יחידה) are frequently marked by a final ה- *-a* or a final ת- *-t*. The plural noun endings are represented by the suffixes ים- *-im* and ות- *-ot*. In nouns the plural ending ים- *-im* most frequently but not necessarily reflects the masculine gender of the nouns, while the plural ending ות- *-ot* most frequently but not necessarily reflects the feminine gender of the nouns.

(See pp.130-139 for more information)

Verb forms in Hebrew also have gender and number features. In most past and future tenses they also have subject person features, i.e. personal pronoun features (I, you, he), which are often affixed to the verb forms.

(See pp.36-38 for more information)

1.5 Open and closed word classes

The parts of speech can be classified as belonging to two large categories: to 'open' classes or to 'closed' classes. The open classes consist of these parts of speech: verb, noun, adjective, and adverb. The various particles (prepositions and conjunctions and others) are closed

classes. The closed classes are fixed sets of a limited number of function words, whereas the open classes have a large membership.

1.5.1 Open classes

These are productive classes to which new words are continuously added, responding to the need for new vocabulary to serve the changing times. The new words are added either according to existing rules of morphology for the formation of new words, or by borrowing words from other languages and either leaving them as they are, or adapting them to Hebrew structures and patterns. The closed classes resist the addition of new members.

Formation of verbs

Adaptation from existing words:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Derived Verb</u>	<u>Derived Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
to market	לְשׂוֹק	ש-ו-ק <	market	שׂוֹק
to report	לְדַוֵּחַ	ד-ו-ח <	report	דַּוִּיחַ

-t- prefix added to existing roots:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Derived Verb</u>	<u>Derived Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>
to communicate	לְתַקֵּשֶׁר	ת-ק-ש-ר <	tie	ק-ש-ר
to brief	לְתַדְרִיךְ	ת-ד-ר-כ <	guide	ד-ר-כ

-sh- prefix added to existing roots:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Derived Verb</u>	<u>Derived Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>
to subjugate	לְשַׁעֲבֵד	ש-ע-ב-ד <	work	ע-ב-ד
to rewrite	לְשַׁכְּתֵב	ש-כ-ת-ב <	write	כ-ת-ב

Formation of nouns

Derived from verbs

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Derived Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>	<u>Root</u>
frame	מִסְגָּרָה	close	סָגַר	ס-ג-ר
guard, watch	מִשְׁמָר	guard	שָׁמַר	ש-מ-ר

Derived from other nouns

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Derived Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
brotherhood	אֲחֻוּהַ	brother	אָח
privacy	פְּרִיבָטִיוּת	individual	פְּרָט

Derived f

Gloss

permissiv

health

Borrow

Direct bo

high tech

prime tim

boss

Deriving r

Gloss

subsidize

sympathiz

Borrowed

Plural Su

Feminine

Adjective

Note that

languages

little alte

'television

borrowed

system. Fo

vowel mo

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1.5.2 Clo

The closed

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limited number of
ge membership.

ds are continuously
o serve the changing
to existing rules of
y borrowing words
hey are, or adapting
ed classes resist the

Gloss Base
market שוק
report דו"ח

Gloss Root
ie ק-ש-ר
guide ד-ר-כ

Gloss Root
work ע-ב-ד
write כ-ת-ב

Base Root
קָנָה ס-ג-ר
שָׁמַר ש-מ-ר

Base
אָח
פָּרַט

Derived from adjectives

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Derived Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
permissiveness	מתיקנות	permissive	מתיקני
health	בריאות	healthy	בריא

Borrowing words from other languages

Direct borrowing of nouns:

high tech	היי-טק
prime time	פריים טיים
boss	בוס

Deriving new verbs from borrowed words:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Derived Verb</u>	<u>Extracted Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
subsidize	סִבְּסַד	ס-ב-ס	subsidy	סובְּסִידָה
sympathize	סִמְּפַט	ס-מ-פ	sympathy	סימְּפָטָה

Borrowed words with Hebrew suffixes

<u>Plural Suffixes</u>	intellectuals	אינטלקטואלים
<u>Feminine ending</u>	Practice	פרקטיקה
<u>Adjective endings</u>	digital	דיגיטלי/דיגיטלית

Note that the noun system is the most open, and nouns from other languages can be adopted into the language without alterations or with little alteration, such as אטום 'atom', טלפון 'telephone', טלוויזיה 'television', טכנולוגיה 'technology', and many others. However, new borrowed verbs and adjectives require adaptation into the existing system. For instance, the verb סִבְּסַד *sibsed* 'to subsidize' above requires vowel modification from the borrowed noun סובְּסִידָה *subsidya* 'subsidy' in order to fit into a Hebrew verb pattern.

1.5.2 Closed classes

The closed classes of words consist of the grammatical function words, such as:

1. Pronouns אני, הוא, זה
2. Prepositions עם, אצל, ל-, ב
3. Conjunctions ו, אבל
4. Determiners ה-
5. Quantifiers כל, הרבה, או מספרים
6. Subordinators ש, אשר

All of the above do not have gender or number features, and as a general rule, do not fill the slot of the head of a phrase. They are called closed because they contain a limited number of items, and their membership is not likely to be expanded. Function words are hardly ever borrowed from other languages.

Prepositions

מילות יחס

Prepositions are usually followed by a noun phrase or by a pronoun suffix. Prepositions function as heads of prepositional phrases. Some verbs must be followed by obligatory prepositions. Some prepositions are followed by a subordinating particle -ש that introduces a subordinate clause.

Prepositional phrase

After the holiday meal

אחרי הארוחה של החג

Subordinating item: preposition + clause

After they ate the holiday meal.

אחרי שהם אכלו את הארוחה.

Determiners, articles and quantifiers

מילות יידוע

Articles, determiners, and quantifiers precede and modify nouns:

Not everyone agrees with you.

לא כל האנשים מסכימים אתך.

He is a billionaire! He has lots of money.

הוא ביליונר! יש לו המון כסף.

Each person brought something.

כל אחד הביא משהו.

Coordinators

מילות חיבור

Common coordinators are ו 'and' and כי 'because' and או 'or'. They can be found in several levels of the hierarchy: words, phrases, or clauses.

Phrases

Who is the boss here, you, or your brother?

מי הבוס כאן, אתה או אחיך?

Are you and your brother going to the office?

אתה ואחיך הולכים למשרד?

Clauses
There is e
come and

Subordi

The most
which a s
object (co
but only i
clause, שר

Reporting

We all kno
say this.
At a press
Secretary
important
place.

Introducing

The girl wh
is my cous
The patient
became val
in its field.

Introducing

He did not
plane was l
He came to
was sick.

Interrogat

Interrogativ
statements
'who?' or
about time
pose questio
ask to quanti

Clauses

There is enough food, and you can all come and eat.

יש מספיק אוכל, וכולכם יכולים לבוא לאכול.

Subordinators

The most frequently used subordinator is the particle ש 'that', after which a subordinate clause follows. When the subordinate clause is an object (complement) clause, the word כי can be used as a subordinator but only in higher registers. When the subordinate clause is a relative clause, אשר may be used in higher registers.

מילות שעבוד**Reporting**

We all know that you did not mean to say this.

כולנו יודעים שאתה לא התכוונת לומר את זה.

At a press conference the American Secretary of State said that an important strategic change has taken place.

במסיבת עיתונאים אמר שר החוץ האמריקני כי חל שינוי אסטרטגי חשוב.

Introducing a relative clause

The girl who is walking towards us is my cousin.

הבחורה שבאה לקראתנו היא בת-דודתי.

The patient's rights law, which became valid in 1996, is a pioneer in its field.

חוק זכויות החולה, אשר נכנס לתוקפו בשנת 1996, הינו חלוץ בתחומו.

Introducing an adverbial clause

He did not arrive on time because his plane was late.

הוא לא הגיע בזמן מכיוון שמטוסו איחר.

He came to the office even though he was sick.

הוא בא למשרד למרות שהיה חולה.

Interrogatives

Interrogatives are question words or phrases used to transform statements to questions. They can be pronoun question words מיהו 'who?' or מהו 'what?'. They can also be adverbial question words about time מתי 'when?' or about location איפה 'where?'. They can pose questions about the reason for doing something למה 'why?' or ask to quantify things כמה 'how much? how many?'.

מילות שאלה**מילות יחס**

use or by a pronoun of items, and their on words are hardly

אחרי הארוחה של החג

אחרי שהם אכלו את הא

מילות יידוע

modify nouns:

לא כל האנשים מסכימים הוא ביליונר! יש לו המון כל אחד הביא משהו.

מילות חיבור

'and' and 'or'. They words, phrases, or

מי הבוס כאן, אתה או

אתה ואחידך הולכים למ

Questions about the subject or object:

Who called you? מי טלפן אליך?

What did he tell you on the phone? מה הוא אמר לך בטלפון?

Questions about time or location:

When is Dan coming? מתי דן חושב לבוא?

Where is he going? לאן הוא הולך?

Where will he be this evening? איפה הוא יהיה הערב?

Questions about cause or reason:

Why doesn't Dan want to come? למה דן לא רוצה לבוא?

Why was he so late? מדוע הוא אחר כל כך?

Questions with prepositions:

The question words מי and מה can be preceded by prepositions, as in על 'about what?', or עם מי 'with whom?'.

About whom did you talk? על מי דיברתם?

With whom did you go to the movies? עם מי הלכתם לקולנוע?

Interjections

מילות קריאה

Interjections are words or phrases used to exclaim or protest or command. They sometimes stand by themselves, but they are often contained within larger structures. Most interjections are usually used in speech.

Nice! You finished everything on time. יפה! סיימתם הכל בזמן.

Wow! I won the lottery! מהמם! הרווחתי את הלוטו!

We won - Hallelujah! ניצחנו - הללויה!

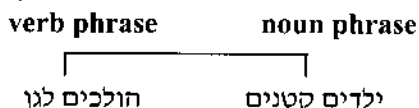
How awful! Everything is lost. אוי ואבוי! הכל הלך לאיבוד.

1.6 Phrase constituents

Observe the following sentence:

Small children go to kindergarten. ילדים קטנים הולכים לגן.

The sentence can be clearly divided into two main constituents:



Each of form the is a verb while the central it the prep kindergar

A phrase, call the he the syntac Only wor combine v they cons organized. componen

Types of p Head word In context

Types of p Head word In context

1.7 Rules

The head of determines r forms in the head noun o between any or beyond. Let's see how features of so

- Head
- Adjec

Each of these constituents is a phrase and the two of them together form the sentence. The first one is a noun phrase, while the second one is a verb phrase. The central item of the noun phrase is ילדים 'children', while the modifying item is קטנים 'small'. In the verb phrase, the central item is the verb הולכים 'go', and the destination is indicated by the prepositional phrase that completes the verb phrase לגן 'to kindergarten'.

A phrase, as we saw above, consists of an obligatory item, which we call the *head* or *nucleus*, and it is always essential to the phrase. It sets the syntactic category of that phrase. Other elements may be optional. Only words that belong to open classes can be heads of phrases. They combine with other words to form larger units, and within the phrase they constitute the central item around which the other words are organized. Head nouns determine the gender and number of the other components in the phrase, as well as in the sentence.

Types of phrase: noun phrase

Head word - noun: שפה 'language'

In context: [The Hebrew language] changes. (השפה העברית) משתנה.

Types of phrase: verb phrase

Head word - verb: קנו 'bought'

In context: The children [bought ice cream]. (הילדים [קנו גלידה].)

1.7 Rules of agreement

The head of a syntactic unit, such as a phrase, a clause or a sentence determines many of the features of the other nouns, adjectives or verb forms in these units. Beyond the phrase there is agreement between the head noun of a subject and its predicate (verb, noun or adjective), or between any noun and its co-referent pronoun anywhere in the sentence or beyond.

Let's see how the head noun in the following sentence determines the features of some other components in the sentence:

ילדים קטנים הולכים לגן.

- Head noun: ילדים. Gender: masculine. Number: plural.
- Adjective reflects the features of the head noun: קטנים.

מי טלפן אליך?

מה הוא אמר לך בטלפון?

מתי דן חושב לבוא?

לאן הוא הולך?

איפה הוא יהיה הערב?

למה דן לא רוצה לבוא?

מדוע הוא אחר כל כך?

על prepositions, as in

על מי דיברתם?

עם מי הלכתם לקולנוע?

מילות קריאה

exclaim or protest or
es, but they are often
tions are usually used

יפה! סיימתם הכל בזמן.

מהמם! הרווחתי את הלוקי

ניצחנו - הללויה!

אוי ואבוי! הכל הלך לאיבוד

ילדים קטנים הולכים לגן.

in constituents:

noun phrase

ילדים קטנים

- The verb reflects the plural masculine features of the head noun: הולכים.

1.7.1 Gender agreement

1. Noun phrase: head noun + adjective

The new movie sounds interesting.

הסרט החדש נשמע מעניין.

The new exhibit is attracting a lot of visitors. They say that it is very interesting.

התערוכה החדשה מושכת מבקרים רבים. אומרים שהיא מעניינת מאוד.

2. Noun phrase: head noun + demonstrative pronoun

Since demonstrative pronouns can modify nouns in a noun phrase, they agree in gender and number with the head nouns.

This pool is an Olympic pool.

הבריכה הזאת היא בריכה אולימפית.

That game was riveting.

המשחק ההוא היה מרתק.

3. Noun phrase + verb predicate

Nira was accepted to work in the office of an architectural firm. They hired her as soon as she finished her studies.

נירה התקבלה לעבודה במשרד של ארכיטקטים. קיבלו אותה מייד עם תום לימודיה.

Noam works in a bank. Many friends of his work there.

נועם עובד בבנק. חברים רבים שלו עובדים שם.

4. Noun phrase + adjective predicate

Your choice (is) very good.

הבחירה שלך טובה מאוד.

The voting rate (is) low.

שיעור ההצבעה נמוך.

1.7.2 Number agreement

1. Noun phrase: head noun + adjective

The new plays are interesting.

המחזות החדשים מעניינים.

We strolled in the small streets of the town.

טיילנו ברחובות הקטנים של העיר.

2. Sentence: noun phrase + predicate: verb

Moshe and Danny arrived late.

משה ודני הגיעו מאוחר.

Aliza and Dina live in the dorms.

עלזיה ודינה גרות במעונות.

3. Senten

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Our Ilana is a

3. Sentence: noun phrase + predicate: adjective

These flowers are very pretty. הפרחים האלה יפים מאוד.

The girls in my class are not particularly friendly. הבנות בכיתה לא חברותיות במיוחד.

1.7.3 Agreement in person

I will finish the paper tomorrow. אני אגמור את העבודה מחר.

You didn't hear the bell? אתם לא שמעתם את הצלצול?

Personal pronouns (subject, object, possessive, etc.) reflect the person that they represent.

The girl said that she was hungry. הילדה אמרה שהיא רעבה.

Her parents also said that they were hungry. הוריה אמרו שהם רעבים.

1.7.4 Definite/Indefinite status

When the head noun is indefinite, so is the adjective that modifies it. However, when the noun modifier is a prepositional phrase, the head noun does not influence it.

Indefinite head noun

There are small and nice restaurants there. יש שם מסעדות קטנות ונחמדות.

We bought an old house. קנינו בית ישן.

Did you visit any art museums? ביקרתם במוזיאונים לאמנות?

When the head noun is definite, the adjectives that modify it are also definite. A definite concept consists of a noun introduced by a definite article, or one with a possessive suffix, or a proper name. However, when the noun modifier is a prepositional phrase, the head noun does not influence it.

Definite head noun

The blossoming trees are apple trees. העצים הפורחים הם עצי תפוחים.

His second wife was born in Canada. אשתו השנייה נולדה בקנדה.

Our Ilana is a gifted musician. אילנה שלנו היא מוסיקאית מחוננת.

Chapter 2

Writing and pronunciation

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Consonants and their corresponding sounds
- 2.3 The Hebrew vowel system
- 2.4 Texts with vowels and without vowels
- 2.5 Diacritic marks other than vowels
- 2.6 Syllables
- 2.7 Stress patterns
- 2.8 Dialectal variation in consonant articulation

2.1 Introduction

In Hebrew, as in other Semitic languages, consonants are regarded as the primary units that compose a word. There are twenty-two letters in the Hebrew alphabet, with eight additional variations. Each consonant is assigned a letter of the alphabet. Four consonants may also represent vowels, but generally, vowel signs are marked by dots and short lines inserted below, above, and inside the consonants.

In contemporary Hebrew texts, sequences of consonants represent words. Vowel signs are not used in most texts, with the exception of poetry, children's literature, textbooks for early grades, and liturgical literature. In writing without vowels, each sequence of consonants can have more than one vowel pattern assigned to it, and thus has several possible pronunciations and consequently several possible meanings, e.g., in a sequence like ספר:

<u>Gloss</u>		<u>With vowels</u>	<u>Without vowels</u>
book; literary work	<i>séfer</i>	סֵפֶר	ספר
(1) tell, narrate; talk about	<i>sipér</i>	סִפֵּר	סיפר
(2) to cut hair			
be recounted, be narrated	<i>supár</i>	סִפַּר	סופר
count, enumerate	<i>safár</i>	סָפַר	ספר
count!	<i>sfór</i>	סִפֹּר	ספור
barber	<i>sapár</i>	סָפַר	ספר
border, edge, fringe	<i>sfár</i>	סָפַר	ספר

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Gloss
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2.2 Cons

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Note

Single Heb
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of letters is t
neither an ap
there is no c
table.

The consonantal skeleton of a word carries its basic sense, and the vowel string usually identifies the word grouping to which a particular word belongs. Pattern recognition is aided by affixes (attachments), which facilitate the reconstruction of the associated vowel configuration. The following example demonstrates the combination of a consonantal skeleton with two different word patterns.

Gloss	Patterns		Root	Prefix
number	<i>mispar</i>	מִסְפָּר	ס-פ-ר	מ-
narrator	<i>mesaper</i>	מְסַפֵּר	ס-פ-ר	מְ-

2.2 Consonants and sounds

עיצורים וצלילים

In the table below, you will find the Hebrew consonantal alphabet, traditionally arranged. Five consonants have a special form when they come at the end of the word (פ' פִי; צ' צִי; נ' נִי; מ' מִי; כ' כִי). Note that *shin* and *sin* are represented by the same symbol (a dot is used to distinguish between them); and that some consonants were modified with diacritics to also represent non-native sounds (ג' גִי, ז' זִי). The letters are displayed in both print and script forms. The transcription sign is displayed under the sound column, referring to the sound realization of that letter and the conventional way to transcribe it in English. Short notes about pronunciation are added in a separate column next to each letter.

Note

Single Hebrew letters in isolation are marked with an apostrophe. When the letters are referred to by name in texts, they often have an inverted double comma inserted in between the last two letters, such as in the following examples: אֵלֶיךָ, בֵּיתִי, וַיֵּיךְ, כִּיף, צְדִיק, תַּיִם. The reason for inserting the double inverted comma into the spelling of the names of letters is to avoid confusion with actual words. In the following table neither an apostrophe nor a double-inverted comma are inserted, since there is no confusion as to what they stand for when they appear in a table.

With vowels	Without vowels
סָפַר	ספר
סִפֵּר	סיפר
סִפְּרָה	סופרה
סִפְּרָה	ספר
סִפְּרוּ	ספור
סִפְּרָה	ספר
סִפְּרָה	ספר

Consonants

Letter	Sound	Notes on pronunciation	Name
א	א	Ø	'álef אֵלֶף
		It carries the sound of the following vowel, as in אָבִיב <i>aviv</i> . It is never realized at the end of words: קָרָא <i>kara</i> , בָּרִיא <i>bari</i> .	
		• In deliberate speech it is realized as a glottal stop with a stressed vowel: קָרָאָה <i>kar'á</i> .	
ב	ב	<i>b</i>	<i>bet</i> בֵּית
		<i>b</i> , as in the first sound of <i>boy</i> , word initially: בֶּן <i>ben</i> , or after a closed syllable: הַרְבֵּה <i>harbe</i> , or after an open syllable in some patterns: דִּבֵּר <i>diber</i> .	
ב	ב	<i>v</i>	<i>vet</i> בֵּית
		<i>v</i> , as in the first sound of <i>vine</i> , after a vowel or at the end of words: סָבְתָא <i>savta</i> , כָּתַב <i>katav</i> .	
ג	ג	<i>g</i>	<i>gimel</i> גִּמְלָל
גי	ג	<i>j</i>	as in the first sound in <i>George</i> (גִּוֹרְגִי)
ד	ד	<i>d</i>	<i>dálet</i> דָּלֶת
ה	ה	<i>h</i>	<i>hé</i> הָא
		Aspirated <i>h</i> , as in <i>hello</i> , before a stressed vowel, e.g., הָר <i>hár</i> ; or when ה is final, preceded by <i>a</i> , preceded by another vowel: גַּבּוֹהַּ <i>gavóah</i> ; or to mark a fem. sing. suffix: לַהּ <i>lah</i> .	
		Ø	At the end of a word, following an <i>a</i> or <i>e</i> : יָפָה <i>yafá</i> , יָפֵה <i>yafé</i> , or optionally before an unstressed vowel: אֹהֶל <i>óhel</i> ~ <i>óel</i>
ו	ו	<i>v</i>	<i>vav</i> וָו
		<i>v</i> as in the first sound of וֶרֶד <i>véred</i> , or after a vowel as in וְקִיבָה <i>kiva</i> , וָו <i>kav</i> .	
ו	ו	<i>u</i>	The vowel <i>u</i> as in וּמָה <i>kum</i> , וָו <i>kanu</i> .
ו	ו	<i>o</i>	The vowel <i>o</i> as in וָו <i>kof</i> , וָו <i>bo</i> .
וו	וו	<i>v</i>	Alternative for a single ו consonant.
		<i>w</i>	<i>w</i> in foreign words, וושינגטון <i>Washington</i>

ז	ז	
ז	ז	
ח	ח	
ט	ט	
י	י	
י	י	
י	י	
י	י	
כ	כ	
כ	כ	
ך	ך	
ל	ל	
מ	מ	
ם	ם	
נ	נ	
ן	ן	
ס	ס	
ע	ע	

	Name	
ing t kara, as a : קראָה	'álef	אָלף
ord syllable: able in	bet	בֵּית
ter a קָבַץ	vet	בֵּית
(גיוֹרָה)	gimel	גִּימֵל
stressed final, her a fem.	hé	הָא
an a or ly before óel		
d, or av. tanu.	vav	וָו
nant. shington		

ז	ז	z	z as in the first sound of <u>zoo</u> .	záyin	זַיִן
ז	ז	zh	In foreign (borrowed) words, such as the final sound in <u>garage</u> (גַּרָזִי).		
ח	ח	ħ	ħ is pronounced as in <u>Loch Ness</u> . For alternate pronunciation see explanation on page 31.	ħet	חֵית
ט	ט	t	t as in the first sound of <u>table</u>	tet	טֵית
י	י	y	y in any position, as in <u>yearn</u> , <u>kayak</u>	yod	יֵוד
י	י	i	The vowel i as in <u>speed</u> , or in <u>seal</u>		
י	י	ey	The diphthong ey as in <u>way</u>		
י	י	y	Alternative for a single ם consonant.		
כ	כ	k	k as in <u>can</u> : at the beginning of a word כָּן <u>ken</u> , or after a closed syllable: מַלְכָּה <u>malka</u> , or after an open syllable in some patterns: סִיכֵן <u>siken</u> .	kaf	כָּף
כ	כ	kh	kh is pronounced as in <u>Loch Ness</u> , after a vowel or at the end of words.	khaf	כָּף
ך	ך		An orthographic variation at the end of words: רַכֵּךְ <u>rakh</u> .	khaf sofit	כָּף סוֹפִית
ל	ל	l	l as in the first sound of <u>lean</u> .	lámed	לָמֵד
מ	מ	m	m as in the first sound of <u>mother</u> .	mem	מָם
ם	ם		An orthographic variation at the end of words.	mem sofit	מָם סוֹפִית
נ	נ	n	n as in the first sound of <u>never</u> .	nun	נָון
ן	ן		An orthographic variation of at the end of words.	nun sofit	נָון סוֹפִית
ס	ס	s	s as in the first sound of <u>sun</u> .	sámekh	סָמֵךְ
ע	ע	∅	In standard speech it only carries the sound of the following vowel, just as אִי does. For alternative pronunciation see explanation on page 31.	'áyin	עַיִן

פ	פ	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i> as in the first sound of <i>pearl</i> : at the beginning of the word or after a closed syllable: פּרָפּר <i>parpar</i> , or after an open syllable in some patterns: סִפֵּר <i>siper</i> .	<i>pe</i>	פּא
פ	פ	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> as in the first sound of <i>fun</i> : after a vowel: סַפְסַל <i>safsaf</i> or initially in borrowed words: פֶּסְטִיבָל <i>festivál</i> .	<i>fe</i>	פּא
ף	ף		Orthographic variation of <i>f</i> at the end of words: כֶּסֶף <i>késef</i> .	<i>fe sofit</i>	פּא סופית
צ	צ	<i>ts</i>	<i>ts</i> pronounced as one segment, as in the first segment of צַדִּיק <i>tsadik</i> .	<i>tsadi</i>	צָדִי
ץ	ץ		Orthographic variation of <i>ts</i> at the end of words: קִיבוּץ <i>kibbutz</i> .	<i>tsadi sofit</i>	צָדִי סופית
צ	צ	<i>ch</i>	<i>ch</i> in foreign words, such as <i>Charlie</i> (צ'רלי).		
ק	ק	<i>k</i>	<i>k</i> as in the first sound of <i>kid</i> .	<i>kof</i>	קוֹף
ר	ר	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i> as in the first sound of <i>run</i> . It is pronounced almost like the <i>r</i> in French or German. Some pronounce it like the rolling <i>r</i> as in Spanish.	<i>resh</i>	רֵשׁ
ש	ש	<i>sh</i>	<i>sh</i> as in the first sound of <i>shop</i> .	<i>šin</i>	שֵׁין
ש	ש	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i> as in the first sound of <i>sun</i> .	<i>sin</i>	שֵׁין
ת	ת	<i>t</i>	<i>t</i> as in the first sound of <i>table</i> .	<i>tav</i>	תָּו

The following letters, which were historically distinct, have the same sound today. Words with different spelling can have the same sound:

Pronounced	Word 1	Word 2	Letters
<i>kar</i>	cold קר	pillow כר	כ, ק
<i>shoté</i>	drink שותה	fool שוטה	ט, ת
<i>alá</i>	went up עלה	club, bat אלה	א, ע
<i>sar</i>	minister שר	go aside סר	ס, ש
<i>lakh</i>	to you לך	humid לח	ח, כ
<i>tsav</i>	summons צו	turtle צב	ב, ו

2.3 Vow

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Pronuncia

a (as in *st*)

e (as in *ge*)

ev (as in *n*)

i (as in *de*)

o (as in *sto*)

u (as in *so*)

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Note 1: Cor

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Note 2: Cor

In Israeli He
realized as *e*
yod.

the closed	<i>pe</i>	פֶּ
open	<i>fe</i>	פַּ
er.		
r a		
end of	<i>fe sofit</i>	פֶּ סופית
in the	<i>tsadi</i>	צָדִי
end of	<i>tsadi sofit</i>	צָדִי סופית
rlie		
	<i>kof</i>	קוֹף
rench	<i>resh</i>	רֵישׁ
ke the		
	<i>šin</i>	שֵׁין
	<i>sin</i>	שִׁין
	<i>tav</i>	תּוֹ

distinct, have the same
ave the same sound:

Word 2	Letters
v	ק, כ
	ט, ת
bat	א, ע
ide	שׁ, שׂ
d	ח, כ
	בּו, בּו

2.3 Vowels

תנועות

Israeli Hebrew has only five vowel sounds: *i e a o u*. There are many more different vowel signs, reflecting historical differences in vowel quality and length that no longer exist in contemporary use (other than what is determined automatically by the stress pattern and the context).

Pronunciation	Vowel Name	Sign
<i>a</i> (as in <i>start</i>)	<i>kamats</i>	קָמֶץ
	<i>patah</i>	פְּתַח
	<i>hataf-patah</i>	חֲטַף-פְּתַח
<i>e</i> (as in <i>get</i>)	<i>segol</i>	סֶגוֹל
	<i>hataf-segol</i>	חֲטַף-סֶגוֹל
	<i>shva na`</i>	שְׁוָא נָע
	<i>tsere</i>	צִירֵה
<i>ey</i> (as in <i>may</i>)	<i>tsere</i>	צִירֵה
<i>i</i> (as in <i>dear</i>)	<i>hirik haser</i>	חִירִיק חָסֵר
	<i>hirik malé</i>	חִירִיק מְלֵא
<i>o</i> (as in <i>stop</i>)	<i>holam haser</i>	חוֹלָם חָסֵר
	<i>holam malé</i>	חוֹלָם מְלֵא
	<i>kamats katan</i>	קָמֶץ קָטָן
	<i>hataf kamats</i>	חֲטַף קָמֶץ
<i>u</i> (as in <i>soup</i>)	<i>kubuts</i>	קִבּוּץ
	<i>shuruk</i>	שׁוּרוּק
∅ (as in <i>glue</i>) short <i>e</i> (as in <i>yeladim</i>)	<i>shva nah</i>	שְׁוָא נָח
	<i>shva na`</i>	שְׁוָא נָע

In this table the letter 'ס' is used as a prototypical consonant, 'ח' for a prototypical guttural.

Note 1: Comment on kamats vowels

There are two realizations of the קָמֶץ *kamats* vowel: The normal realization of the vowel in חֲ, for instance, is *a*, but in a few words (as a rule in a closed, unstressed syllable) it is pronounced *o*.

Note 2: Comment on segol and related vowels

In Israeli Hebrew, the *segol*, the *hataf-segol* and the *shva na`* are all realized as *e*, and so are most cases of *tsere* that are not followed by *yod*.

Note 3: Comments on *shva* vowels

The usual realization of *shva* is no vowel, but in some environments where a sequence of consonants is difficult to pronounce (because of the nature of the consonant clusters involved), it is pronounced as a short *e*. Traditionally, the absence of a vowel at the end of a closed syllable, as in *מִסְדָּר* *mis-dar* or *מִשְׁבֵּר* *mash-ber*, is called *shva nah*. When a *shva* at the beginning of a syllable is realized as *e*, as in *לְבָנִים* *levanim*, it is called *shva na`*.

Originally, every word-initial consonant cluster was split by a *shva na`*: *גְּדוּלִים* *ge-do-lim*; however, in Israeli Hebrew, which allows many initial consonant clusters, most initial *shva*'s are realized as zero vowels: *גְּדוּלִים* < *גְּדוּלִים* > *gdo-lim*. When the consonant clusters are difficult to pronounce, the *shva* will be pronounced as *e*, as in *לְבָנִים* *le-va-nim*. This is true when a word begins with a consonant cluster the first member of which is *י*, *ל*, *מ*, *נ*, *ר*, or when the second is *א*, *ה*, or *ע*, which makes the consonant sequence hard to articulate.

<i>levanim</i>	לְבָנִים	<i>yeladim</i>	יְלָדִים
<i>neshama</i>	נִשְׁמָה	<i>mesiba</i>	מִסְבָּה
<i>zehirut</i>	זְהִירוּת	<i>reshima</i>	רִשְׁמָה
<i>she'onim</i>	שְׁעוֹנִים	<i>te'una</i>	תְּאוּנָה

The same applies to a *shva* that immediately follows another *shva*:

<i>*nivdka</i> > <i>niv-de-ka</i>	נִבְדְּקָה	<i>*tisgru</i> > <i>tis-ge-ru</i>	תִּסְגְּרוּ
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Note 4: Comments on vowels marked with *hataf*

The four guttural consonants, *ע*, *ח*, *ה*, *א*, are hard to pronounce with no vowel (i.e., a *shva nah*). There are many word patterns which include a zero vowel in particular positions in the word, so to facilitate the pronunciation of each of the four guttural consonants where a zero vowel was supposed to occur, one of three auxiliary vowels is inserted: shorter versions of the *kamats*, *patah* and *segol*. These auxiliary vowels are known as *hatafim* חֲטָפִים. Today, however, they are no longer short.

Replacem*hataf-patah**hataf-segol**hataf-kamats***Note 5: 'fu**

The furtive

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Pattern:

CaCiC

CaCuC

CaCoC

CoCeC/CaC

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2. The letter y

(שיר, בְּנִי), and

(diphthongs ar

Replacement of Ø by auxiliary vowels:

<i>hataf-patah</i>	<i>a</i>	חֶסֶף-פְּתַח	חֲדָרִים	<	יְלָדִים
<i>hataf-segol</i>	<i>e</i>	חֶסֶף-סֵגוֹל	אֲמוֹנָה	<	גְּדוּלָה
<i>hataf-kamats</i>	<i>o</i>	חֶסֶף-קָמֶץ	חֲדָשִׁים	<	צְרָכִים

Note 5: 'furtive' patah (patah gnuva)

The furtive *patah* is an *a* vowel that is added to a word-final ה', ח', ע' when it is preceded by a vowel other than *a* (as required by the word formation pattern), because it is easier to pronounce a word-final guttural, which is a low consonant, when it is preceded by a low vowel, i.e., by the *patah a*.

Here are some examples:

Pattern:	Final ה'	Final ע'	Final ח'
CaCiC	מְגִיחַ	גְּבִיעַ	צְחִיחַ
CaCuC	תְּמִיחַ	יָדוּעַ	פְּתוּחַ
CaCoC	גְּבוּחַ	שְׂמוּעַ	שְׂכוּחַ
CoCeC/CaCeC	תְּמִחַ	יּוּדַעַ	פּוּרְחַ

However, this rule does not apply when the word-final vowel is *a*.

CaCaC	גְּבַחַ	שְׂמַעַ	פְּתַחַ
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Note on the pronunciation of furtive patah

When you see a *patah* under a word-final ח', ע', read it as if a silent א' with a *patah* has been inserted before it: פוֹתַחַ *potéah*, יָדוּעַ *yadua*. The stress is always on the vowel before the furtive *patah*. It never falls on the furtive *patah* itself.

A historical note

The development of Hebrew orthographic signs for consonants is much earlier than that of vowels. The first sign of vowels emerges in what are called *matres lectionis* אמות הקריאה, where some consonants were also used to represent vowels: ו', י', final א' and final ה'.

1. The letter ו' *vav* represents the consonant *v* (historically pronounced *w*), as well as two vowels: ו stands for *o* (בַּוּ, יוֹם), and ו for *u* (קוּם, קוּמוּ).

2. The letter יוֹד represents the consonant *y* as well as the vowel *i* (בַּיִת, פָּנִי), and on some occasions the diphthongs *ay* (עָלִי) or *ey* (בַּיִת, פָּנִי) (diphthongs are vowels combined with the "semi-vowels" *y* or *w*).

3. The use of וי and יי as vowels applied in medial as well as in final position.

4. In Hebrew orthography as it eventually became stabilized, all final vowels are represented by letters, with וי for *o* and *u*, יי for *i*, *ey* and *ay*, and הי for *a* (בְּנֵה) and *e* (יִבְנֵה). Similarly, א is silent at the end of words (קָרָא) or syllables (בְּאֵן, קָרְאֵתִי), but is still maintained in the spelling.

Vowel marks and other diacritical signs were added later to the Biblical Hebrew text to aid in the pronunciation of the text.

2.4 With or without vowel signs?

Although native speakers can easily deduce the vowels from the morphological patterns in which words are realized and from the rest of the context, the optional use of *yod* and *vav* to represent the vowels *i* and *o/u*, respectively, has been a long tradition for many generations and has become the norm today. It is taught in schools, documented in all recent dictionaries, and used with complete regularity by publishers. When this is done, we refer to the result as כְּתִיב מְלֵא *ktiv malé*, 'plene writing', as opposed to כְּתִיב חֲסָר *ktiv hasér*, which includes vowel marks (for a summary of *plene* writing rules, see Appendix 5). In a text with *ktiv malé* most *o/u* vowels can be represented with a *vav* throughout, but the use of *yod* for *i* is generally restricted to open syllables, or to alternants of words with open syllables, e.g., דִּיבֵר and דִּיבְרוּ, but הִתְלַבֵּשׁ, not הִתְלַבֵּשׁ* (see description of open and closed syllables on p. 27).

Although the distinction between כְּתִיב מְלֵא *ktiv malé* and כְּתִיב חֲסָר *ktiv hasér* only refers to the presence or absence of optional vowel letters for *i* and for *o/u*, respectively, in practice the former is typically also characterized by the absence of any diacritic vowel marks, which *ktiv hasér* usually displays. Note, however, that a 'hybrid' practice is emerging, in which the two representations are merged when users feel the need for it, so as to achieve maximal redundancy, as in דִּיבֵר alongside דִּיבְרֵר and דִּיבֵר.

It should be emphasized that *ktiv malé* only relates to optional vowels; many vowel signs are obligatory, as in מְקוּם, לְשִׁיר, סְפוּר, לְקוּם etc. Such vowels have always been obligatory. Also, note that the use of the

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2.5 Other

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2.5.1 Dagesh

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kh as in *mik*
f as in *sifriy*

matres lectionis ה' and א' to represent *a* and *e* is essentially still limited to the ends of words – although א' is often used in rendering internal *a* in borrowed words and foreign names: סולטאן 'sultan', סונאטה 'sonata', סאדאת 'Sadat'.

Another long-standing tradition associated with *ktiv malé* is to distinguish between consonants and their corresponding vowels by representing the former with a double letter, i.e., וו for *v* from *vav* (חיוור *hiver*) and יי for *y* from *yod* (חייל *hayal*).

כתיב חסר ומלא

מלא	חסר	מלא	חסר	מלא	חסר
דיבר	דבר	יכתוב	כתב	שולחן	שלחן
חיסכון	חסכון	טייסת	טיסת	התכוון	תכנון
חוכמה	חכמה	דיבור	דבור	עליי	עלי

2.5 Other diacritics

Along with the vowel signs that were developed in post-biblical Hebrew, there are other diacritic marks that came to signify either a variant pronunciation of a letter, or its length, or a grammatical function. These diacritic marks are the following: *dagesh kal*, *dagesh hazak* and *mapik*. They are marked by insertion of a dot into the middle of a letter. The three have different labels, as they have different values and functions.

2.5.1 Dagesh kal

דגש קל

Historically, six Hebrew consonants were pronounced in two different ways, depending on their position in the word: ב' ג' די כ' פי ת'. The *dagesh kal* consists of a dot inserted into these letters to distinguish two variant pronunciations: ב' ג' די כ' פי ת' (stops) and ב' ג' די כ' פי ת' (continuants), respectively. The latter occurred after vowels, the former elsewhere. Three of the six, ב', כ', פ', have maintained the two variants (*b*, *k*, *p* vs. *v*, *kh*, *f*, respectively), while the other three, ג', ד', ת', have lost that distinction. In texts with vowels, all six letters keep the two distinct variants, indicated by the presence or absence of *dagesh kal*, but only the following are maintained in current pronunciation:

<i>v</i> as in <i>sevivon</i>	ב	סביבון	<i>h</i> as in <i>barvaz</i>	ב	ברנוז
<i>kh</i> as in <i>mikhtav</i>	כ	מכתב	<i>k</i> as in <i>kartis</i>	כ	כרטיס
<i>f</i> as in <i>sifriya</i>	פ	ספרייה	<i>p</i> as in <i>patish</i>	פ	פטיש

2.5.2 Dagesh hazak

דגש חזק

The *dagesh hazak* uses the same sign as the *dagesh kal*, a dot in the middle of a letter, but has a totally different function. Historically the presence of a *dagesh hazak* reflected a doubling of the length of the letter. The *dagesh* could be inserted into most of the letters of the alphabet, with the exception of the ‘guttural’ consonants (א׳ ה׳ ח׳ ע׳ ר׳). In Israeli Hebrew, the *dagesh hazak* no longer reflects a doubling of the length of a consonant, but it still functions as part of the distinct pattern of some verb and noun groupings. It is also part of the definite article structure: in texts with vowel markings, *dagesh hazak* is inserted into the first consonant of the noun the definite article -ה is attached to (with the exception of א׳ ה׳ ח׳ ע׳ ר׳ – which could not be doubled).

Definite article + consonant with *dagesh*:

<i>haséfer</i>	הַסֵּפֶר		<i>habáyit</i>	הַבַּיִת
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Definite article followed by guttural consonant:

<i>ha'árets</i>	הָאָרֶץ		<i>harúah</i>	הָרוּחַ
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Because the length, or doubling, represented by a *dagesh hazak* no longer exists in Israeli Hebrew, all Hebrew consonants, including the ones with *dagesh hazak*, are considered and are pronounced “short”.

Note

Since the *dagesh* cannot be inserted into the letters א׳ ה׳ ח׳ ע׳ ר׳, there were rules for compensating for the absence of the *dagesh* (תַּשְׁלוּם דְּגֵשׁ). This process no longer makes any difference in pronunciation, but in writing, vowels often changed from what used to be short vowels to formerly long vowels. In many cases the following changes occurred:

Short vowel > long vowel

patah > *kamats*
hirik > *tsere*
kubuts > *holam haser*

תנועה קצרה < תנועה ארוכה

סֶבֶל < שְׁכַרְת
 סְפוּר < תְּפֹאֵר
 מִסְפָּר < מִתְאַר (מתואר)

2.5.3 Mapik

מפיק

A dot (*mapik*), though looking the same as a *dagesh*, has a distinct function. It can be inserted into the letter ה׳ when it is in a final position in the word, to signal an audible *h* sound and to distinguish it from the

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2.6 Sylla

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דגש חזק

gesh kal, a dot in the function. Historically the g of the length of the t of the letters of the consonants (א' ה' ח' ע' ר'). reflects a doubling of the t of the distinct pattern t of the definite article hazak is inserted into e -ה is attached to (with e doubled).

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by a dagesh hazak no consonants, including the pronounced "short".

א' ה' ח' ע' ר', there the dagesh (תְּשֻׁלִים דָּגֶשׁ). in pronunciation, but in l to be short vowels to ing changes occurred:

- תנועה קצרה < תנועה ארוכה
- סָבַל < שָׁרַת
- סָפַר < תָּאוֹר
- מְסָפֵר < מְתָאֵר (מתואר)

מפיק

dagesh, has a distinct on it is in a final position o distinguish it from the

typical final ה', which is silent. It is used for the small number of items that contain a true h as their last root consonant, as in גְּבוּהָ, but in most cases it also has a morphological function. It is attached at the end of a noun, or a preposition, to indicate a third person feminine singular pronoun suffix: סִפְרָהּ 'her book', לָהּ 'to her', שָׁלָהּ 'her(s)'.

In Israeli Hebrew the final ה' is silent. In formal readings, there are those who may pronounce it as an aspirated h for stylistic reasons.

Note

The mapik is only present in the feminine singular third person form of possessive pronouns. When the pronoun is feminine plural, there is no mapik in the pronoun suffix.

	<u>without mapik</u>		<u>with mapik</u>
her books	<i>sfaréha</i>	סִפְרֶיהָ	her book
			<i>sifrah</i> סִפְרָהּ

2.6 Syllables

הברות

Words are composed of syllables. There are two types of syllables, 'open syllables' and 'closed syllables'. Whereas in English, many syllables start with vowels (e.g., apple), most Hebrew syllables start with a consonant. Following the consonant, the syllable has one vowel. The open syllable ends with a vowel, while the closed syllable ends with a consonant (or consonants).

CV =	se = open syllable	se-fer	סֵפֶר
CVC =	fer = closed syllable		
CV =	sha = open syllable	sha-	שָׁמְרָהּ
CVCC =	mart = closed syllable	mart	
CCV =	shmi = open syllable	shmi-ra	שְׂמִיָּרָה
CV =	ra = open syllable		

(C stands for consonants and V for vowels).

Note

There are some morphological arguments for assigning consonantal value to the 'guttural' consonants א', ע', ה' in describing the syllabic structure of a word, even when they are not actually realized. One may wish to do so because consonantal slots indicate the morphological pattern to which particular words belong. Insofar as syllable structure proper is concerned, however, it depends on the likelihood of actual

The feminine singular conjugation of many verbs in the present tense has a similar *segolate* pattern, and thus the same מְלֵעַל stress:

...CéCet	says	oméret	אומרת
	gets excited	mitragéshet	מתרגשת

Past tense forms in the first and second person (whose suffixes usually start with a consonant) are also stressed מְלֵעַל:

...+ti	I wrote	katávti	כתבתי
...+nu	we spoke	dibárnu	דברנו

So is the final *i* or *u/o* or *e* of a past or future verb stem (or *a* whose root contains *i* or *u*) that is followed by a suffix vowel:

they will run	yarútsu	ירוצו
she explained	hisbira	הסבירה
they got up	kámu	קמו
they will come	yavóu	יבואו
she protected	hegéna	הגנה

Another class of items stressed מְלֵעַל is forms with the dual-noun suffix *-áyim*:

-áyim	legs	ragláyim	רגלים
	twice	pa'amáyim	פעמים

Stress patterns in borrowed words

Generally, borrowed nouns maintain the stress pattern they had in the original language, e.g.,

artist	artist	אַרטיסט
flashback	fléshbek	פְּלָשְׁבֵק
maniac	mányak	מַנְיָאק

Certain foreign suffixes (especially from Eastern European languages) are associated with non-final stress in the source, and maintain it in Hebrew as well, as in nouns ending with *+ika*:

politics	polítika	פּוֹלִיטִיקָה
ceramics	kerámika	קֶרָמִיקָה
music	músika	מוֹסִיקָה

א, ע, or ה' may be as in קראָה *kar'á* 'she consonantal value, even d of a word, the same l value insofar as the er realized phonetically (e.g., רָזָה *razé*), and). Such words are thus ע or ה' preceded by *a*, ג, is just as unlikely to

הטעמה

usually pronounced as a ess is part of the pattern e sound sequence (not erent stress pattern, and e sequence *bo-ker* can yllable can be stressed: can fall on the second '. (Note that both are vowels).

of the word, regardless called מְלֵעַל *milra'*.

עברית
סוד
דבר

stress falls on the vowel at all other words follow words are the *segolate* prominence of the *segol*

גָּבַר
דָּבַר

can be found in Chapter 5, noun index.

Changes when affixes are added

When an affix is added to a native Hebrew word, stress normally shifts from the stem to that suffix:

Native words:

Stress > last syllable		Suffixed	Stress	Base	
<i>susá</i>	mare	סוּסָה	<i>sús</i>	horse	סוּס
<i>shírim</i>	poems	שִׁירִים	<i>shír</i>	poem	שִׁיר

In borrowed words and in acronyms, however, stress remains on where it was in the word in isolation:

Borrowed words

Stress unchanged		Suffixed	Stress	Base	
<i>tánkim</i>	tanks	טַנְקִים	<i>tánk</i>	tank	טַנְק
<i>jóhim</i>	jobs	גִּוְבִים	<i>jób</i>	job	גִּוְב

Acronyms

Stress unchanged		Suffixed	Stress	Base	
<i>mankálim</i>	CEO's	מְנַקְּלִים	<i>mankál</i>	CEO	מְנַקְּלִי
<i>makámin</i>	radars	מְקַמִּים	<i>makám</i>	radar	מְקַמִּי

Stress patterns in casual and rapid speech

Speech is conveyed in a connected stream of words, rather than in singular words, and therefore the stress pattern of words that are strung together may change from the stress pattern of each of these words viewed out of context, as single entities.

What do you mean?

מה זאת אומרת?

Stress in individual words:

מילים נפרדות:

má zót oméret

מה + זאת + אומרת?

Rapid speech:

דיבור מהיר:

mástoméref?

מזת'ומרת?

It is not all right.

זה לא בסדר.

Stress in individual words:

מילים נפרדות:

ze ló beséder

זה + לא + בסדר.

Rapid speech:

דיבור מהיר:

zlòpséder

זלופסדר

Primary

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2.8 Diale

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, stress normally shifts

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	horse	סוס
	poem	שיר

stress remains on where

s	Base	
	tank	טנק
	job	ג'וב

	Base	
/	CEO	מנכ"ל
	radar	מקיים

ch
words, rather than in
of words that are strung
of each of these words

מה זאת אומרת?
מילים נפרדות:
מה + זאת + אומ
דיבור מהיר:
מזת'אומרת?

זה לא בסדר.
מילים נפרדות:
זה + לא + בסדר
דיבור מהיר:
זלובסדר

Primary and secondary stress

There are two degrees of stress, which are noticeable in such sequences as the ones above: a primary stress, and a secondary stress. In expressions like *מה זאת אומרת?*, the primary stress still falls on the stressed vowel of *oméret*, whereas the secondary stress falls on *mà*. In pronouncing the sequence, the secondary stress is less dominant than the first one, but is still audible. Also, note that in a sequence like *הוא אמר לנו שלום* *ù amár lanu shalom* 'he said hello to us', the secondary stress of *lanu* normally moves forward, resulting in *lanù*, to avoid a stress clash with the primary stress of *amár*: *ù amár lanù shalom*.

2.8 Dialectal variation שונות דיאלקטית בהגיית עיצורים

In the early days of the revival of Hebrew as a spoken language (late 19th and early 20th centuries), two main dialects were recognized in Modern Hebrew, and in the popular vernacular they were referred to as 'Ashkenazi' and 'Sepharadi'. The Ashkenazi dialect referred to the Hebrew of European Jews or recent immigrants from mostly Eastern European background, while the Sepharadi dialect was used as a general term to refer to the Hebrew of Jews from Arabic-speaking countries, who spoke Arabic as their native tongue, as well as to Jews from the Balkans and parts of the Middle East who spoke Judeo-Spanish (Ladino). However, today Israeli Hebrew is the one standard language. Most variations within Israeli Hebrew involve language registers, but may also reflect communities of speakers by the countries of their origin. (The situation is never stable, since the waves of immigration continue to bring groups of speakers from a variety of countries, for instance, Ethiopia and Russia). There is a formal standard Hebrew, which is used by the media: newspapers, radio and television. An even higher register is used for language of the courtroom and formal speeches and addresses. As in most spoken languages, there are also several informal registers and sub-dialects in Israeli Hebrew, such as street Hebrew, army jargon, pop culture and children's language.

The term *Mizrahi* (Eastern) has now replaced Sepharadi, and it refers to the spoken pronunciation of Israelis from Eastern (mostly Arabic-speaking) backgrounds. The main feature of the *Mizrahi* dialect is the preservation of the original pronunciations of ח and ע. Both are articulated low, in the pharynx, and both are fricative. The difference between them is in voicing; when ע is pronounced, the vocal cords

vibrate, while in ך they do not. Few older members of Eastern immigrant groups maintain the distinction between כּ k and ק q that exists in Arabic, pronouncing the latter further back in the mouth (at the uvula). Even more rarely is the historical difference between תּ and ט maintained (this involves the articulation of ט like t, while simultaneously raising the back of the tongue, creating the impression of emphasis). The historical pronunciation of the letter tsadi was s with the raising of the back of the tongue, and the articulation of the letter ו was w. However, in contemporary Hebrew, such features of pronunciation are extinct. There are some who pronounce ך not in the back of the mouth as in standard Israeli Hebrew, but as a dental roll, like Spanish or Polish r. As a rule, these variations are not characteristic of all of the speakers of Eastern origin and depend a great deal on whether they are immigrant or native Israelis, and in the case of the former, of their age at the time of immigration. Standard Hebrew is gradually replacing other dialects in daily speaking. Some special pronunciation is maintained in the folk tradition, particularly in popular and traditional music, folksongs and story-telling.

3.1 Intro

Verbal for
stems and
number.

Gloss

I closed
you will cl
tells
to guard

A tradition
words, but
base for ve
patterns and

Verbs

be written
be dictated

Nouns

handwriting
corresponde
dictation

members of Eastern
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Chapter 3 The verb system

- 3.1 Introduction: verb components
- 3.2 Citation forms
- 3.3 Verb tenses
- 3.4 Historical notes: Biblical tenses and aspects
- 3.5 Moods and verbal nouns
- 3.6 Verb pattern groups בניינים
- 3.7 Verb categorization
- 3.8 With and without linking verbs
- 3.9 Verbs with obligatory prepositions
- 3.10 Active, stative and inchoative verbs

3.1 Introduction: verb components

Verbal forms in Hebrew are composed of two main components: verb stems and morphemes of inflection that denote person, gender and number.

Gloss	Suffix	Stem/base	Prefix	Verb form	Root
I closed	-תי	סגר-		סגרתִי	ס-ג-ר
you will close	-י	-סגר	-ת	תסגרי	ס-ג-ר
tells		ספר	-מ	מספר	ס-פ-ר
to guard		שמר-	-ל	לשמר	ש-מ-ר

A traditional constituent of each verb is its root. Roots are not actual words, but rather sequences of consonants, which provide the common base for verbs and nouns. Roots can be common to a number of verb patterns and noun patterns:

Verbs				Root
be written	נכתב	write	כתב	כ-ת-ב
be dictated	הכתב	dictate	הכתִּיב	
		correspond	התכתב	
Nouns				Root
handwriting	כתב	spelling	כתיב	כ-ת-ב
correspondence	תכתִּבָּת	letter	מכתב	
dictation	הכתִּבָּה	desk	מכתִּבָּה	

Verb stems are formations through which roots, which are not actual words but rather sequences of consonants, are organized into a variety of verb forms. The stem sequences are composed of vowel patterns combined with root consonants and in some cases additional consonants. Conjugation markers are added to verb stems in order to indicate person, gender, and tense or mood. For example, the verb form *סָגַרְתִּי* 'I closed' is made up of the stem *-סָגַר-* and the first person subject suffix *-תִּי*, which designates first person singular in the past tense. The verb form *מְסַפֵּר* 'tells' is composed of the stem *-סַפֵּר-* and the *-מְ-* prefix marking the present tense of *pi'el*.

3.2 Citation forms

צורות מילוניות

Verbs are usually entered into the dictionary either by root or by the past tense, third person singular form. Different dictionaries use different principles to organize lexical entries, even when alphabetization is by root. The sub-entries within each root are by the past tense form of the third person masculine singular. A verb form like *הִסְבִּירוּ* 'they explained', for instance, is never listed as such. One needs to look for the form *הִסְבִּיר* 'he explained', which would be listed either under the 'root' *ס-ב-ר*, or as is, in simple alphabetical order, regardless of root. At times the present tense form *מְסַבֵּר* 'explain, masculine singular' is included as a separate dictionary entry, also irrespective of root. In either case, the form is marked for category (a verb, in this case), and sometimes for verb pattern (here, *hif'il*). This type of dictionary entry is referred to as *צורה מילונית*, a 'citation form'. An example of a minimal dictionary entry is *לָמַד (פ)* '(to) study (v)'. More information may be included, such as regarding a preposition that obligatorily follows the verb to link it with an object, as in *בָּטַח בְּ- (פְּעֵל)* 'trust (in)'. The citation form, although it mirrors the third person past tense, refers to the general meaning of the verb, and to all the various possible actual uses, i.e. the entire verb paradigm. For instance, *הִסְבִּיר* is not only the past tense, meaning 'he explained', but also stands for all the verbal forms associated with that *hif'il* verb.

In English similar representation is achieved by entering verbs under the infinitive 'to explain', or simply 'explain'.

Here is a

These are
Tense/m
Past

Present
Future

Imperative
Infinitive

As can be
actual verb
dynamic q

3.3 Verb

Verbs can
conjugated
of the time
The verb fo
modern He
completed c
past and wa
the simple p
state, or hal
contemplated

3.3.1 The p

The present
regularity, or
four forms,
feminine), an
any person at

Here is an illustration of the above concepts:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>בניין</u>	<u>שורש</u>	<u>צורה מילונית</u>
explain	הפעיל	ס-ב-ר	הסביר

These are the various forms associated with the dictionary entry הסביר:

<u>Tense/mood</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Verb forms</u>	<u>Stems</u>
<u>Past</u>	1 st 2 nd	הסברתי הסברת הסברת	הסבר-
		הסברנו הסברתם הסברתו	
<u>Present</u>	all	הוא הסביר, היא הסבירה, הם הסבירו	הסביר
		מסביר מסבירה מסבירים מסבירות	מסביר-
<u>Future</u>	singular	אסביר תסביר יסביר תסביר	הסביר-
	plural	נסביר תסבירו (תסברנה) יסבירו (תסברנה)	
<u>Imperative</u>	2 nd	הסבר הסבירי הסבירו (הסברנה)	הסביר(י)-
<u>Infinitive</u>		להסביר	הסביר

As can be seen in the above table, each verb stem is present in the actual verb forms listed next to it. Verbs conjugated in tense have a dynamic quality since they express different ongoing processes.

3.3 Verb tenses

זמני הפועל

Verbs can be classified in two different groups: those that are conjugated in tense, and those that are not. Verb tense is the expression of the time frame for the action, state or event that the verb signifies. The verb form itself denotes the time frame. There are three tenses in modern Hebrew: past, present and future. The past tense indicates a completed one-time action, or a process that started at some point in the past and was completed or ceased. Hebrew expresses past perfect by the simple past. The present tense indicates an ongoing action, event or state, or habitual action. The future tense indicates actions or states contemplated, planned or considered for a future time.

3.3.1 The present tense

זמן הווה

The present tense refers to an ongoing state or action repeated with regularity, or a continuous action. The present tense of all verbs has four forms. These forms have gender attributes (masculine or feminine), and number markings (singular or plural). They do not have any person attributes and thus do not include a subject (unlike the past

and future tenses). In the following tables the present tense verb base (בְּסִיסָה) and the suffixes that are added to it are represented.

Present tense suffixes

	אני		אני	
בסיס + ה/ת	את	בסיס*	אתה	יחיד/ה
	היא		הוא	
	אנחנו		אנחנו	
בסיס + ו/ת	אתן	בסיס + ים	אתם	רבים/ות
	הן		הם	

*בסיס, the Hebrew term for 'stem', stands for any present tense stem

Here are some of the nuances conveyed by the use of the present tense:

1. The present moment of the speaker

She cannot come to the phone now because she is working. היא לא יכולה לדבר עכשיו בטלפון כי היא עובדת.

2. Ongoing progressive activity

She has been sitting and waiting here for hours. היא יושבת ומחכה כאן כבר שעות.

3. Habitual/repetitive action

Every day they leave home at seven. כל יום הם יוצאים מהבית בשבע.

4. Completed action resulting in a state

The meal is ready. הארוחה מוכנה.
The context for the above sentence is a process of meal preparation that took place and was completed, and the result is that now it is ready.

5. Action that started in the past and is ongoing

They have been teaching this course for five years. הם מלמדים את הקורס הזה כבר חמש שנים.

Grammatical functions of present tense forms

The present tense forms can function as verbs, as adjectives, and as agent nouns. They are referred to as participles צורות בינוני.

1. As verbs:

She closes the door and leaves. היא סוגרת את הדלת ויוצאת.
We are looking for an apartment. אנחנו מחפשים דירה.

2. As adjectives

The dog

The cook

3. As nouns

There are

the audience

The organ

3.3.2 The past tense

The past tense

the verb stem

is sometimes

singular and

to be expressed

תי +

ת +

ה +

נו +

תן +

ו +

*בסיס, ת

In Hebrew,

subject pronouns

these pronouns

would be re-

I finished

You finished

However, in

emphasis, and

I found the book

I finished eating

present tense verb base
presented.

אני		<u>יחיד/ה</u>
אתה		
הוא		

אנחנו		<u>רבים/ות</u>
אתם		
הם		

any present tense stem

use of the present tense:

היא לא יכולה לדבר עכשיו
היא עובדת.

היא יושבת ומחכה כאן כבר

כל יום הם יוצאים מהבית

הארוחה מוכנה.

of meal preparation that
that now it is ready.

ng
הם מלמדים את הקורס ה
שנים.

forms

, as adjectives, and as
צורות בינוני

היא סוגרת את הדלת ויוצא
אנחנו מחפשים דירה.

2. As adjectives:

The dog is a faithful animal.

הכלב הוא חיה נאמנה.

The cooked food is in the refrigerator.

האוכל המבושל נמצא במקרר.

3. As nouns:

There are many distinguished people in
the audience.

יש הרבה נכבדים בקהל.

The organizers did a good job.

המארגנים עשו עבודה טובה.

3.3.2 The past tense

זמן עבר

The past tense has nine forms. The subjects of the verbs are suffixed to the verb stems in the first and second persons. Therefore the past tense is sometimes referred to as the suffixed tense. In the third person, both singular and plural, the subject is not included in the verb form and has to be expressed by a noun or pronoun or some other entity.

Past tense suffixes

בסיס + תי	(אני)		בסיס + תי	(אני)		<u>יחיד/ה</u>
בסיס + ת	(את)		בסיס + ת	(אתה)		
בסיס + ה	היא		בסיס	הוא		
בסיס + נו	(אנחנו)		בסיס + נו	(אנחנו)		<u>רבים/ות</u>
בסיס + תן	(אתן)		בסיס + תם	(אתם)		
בסיס + ו	הן		בסיס + ו	הם		

* *בסיס*, the Hebrew term for 'stem', stands for any past tense stem

In Hebrew, unlike in English, it is not necessary to have an independent subject pronoun in the first and second persons of the past tense, since these pronouns are already incorporated in the subject suffixes and thus would be redundant.

	Subject	Stem		
I finished	תי	+ גמר	=	גמרתי (אני)
You finished	ת	+ גמר	=	גמרתי (אתה)

However, it is possible to include them as separate pronouns for emphasis, and in common use even without emphasis.

I found the lost item, not he. אני מצאתי את האבדה, לא הוא.

I finished eating before you. אני גמרתי לאכול לפניך.

The past tense refers to an aspect of a completed action, an event or a situation that was completed and is no longer taking place.

1. Completed action

I read the book you wrote.

קראתי את הספר שכתבת.

2. Duration of action

The author had been writing the book for ten years.

המחבר כתב את הספר במשך עשר שנים.

3. Past perfect

I had read his last novel, before I started reading his first book.

קראתי את הרומן האחרון שלו, לפני שהתחלתי לקרוא את הספר הראשון שלו.

3.3.3 The future tense

The future tense forms combine a prefix subject pronoun with the future stem of the verb. The feminine singular and the plural forms also have suffixes indicating gender and number.

זמן עתיד

Future tense affixes			
א + בסיס	(אני)	א + בסיס	(אני)
ת + בסיס + י	(את)	ת + בסיס	(אתה)
ת + בסיס	היא	י + בסיס	הוא
נ + בסיס	(אנחנו)	נ + בסיס	(אנחנו)
ת + בסיס + ו	(אתן)	ת + בסיס + ו	(אתם)
(ת + בסיס + נה)		י + בסיס + ו	הם
י + בסיס + ו	הן		
(ת + בסיס + נה)			

*בסיס, the Hebrew term for 'stem', stands for any future tense stem

Note

As in the past tense, independent personal pronouns are redundant for the first and second persons, since they are already incorporated in the suffixes of these forms. However, they may be added when the pronoun requires emphasizing, as well as in colloquial use. It should be noted that in the first person singular, the independent pronoun אני has become the norm in everyday speech.

There are person and

1. The first person singular, תפעלנה, is contemporary and normative, sometimes

2. The second person singular, תפעלני, is part of the

3.3.4 Plans

The future tense forms indicate anticipated

Plans

Dan will be during the year

Anticipation

Everybody will strike.

Contemplation

They may not arrive late for the session.

Conditional

If there is a strike, he will be able to get home before the meeting is be running.

A comparative

Three tenses are used:

1. **Present tense**

He goes to work every day.

2. **Present perfect**

He has been doing this for years.

d action, an event or a
ing place.

קראתי את הספר שכתבת.

המחבר כתב את הספר במ
שנים.

קראתי את הרוזן האחרון
שהתחלתי לקרוא את הספ
שלו.

זמן עתיד

ject pronoun with the
d the plural forms also

(אני)	יחיד/ה
(אתה)	
הוא	
(אנחנו)	רבים/ות
(אתם)	
הם	

any future tense stem

ouns are redundant for
ady incorporated in the
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use. It should be noted
ident pronoun אני has

There are two variants for the feminine plural meaning of the second person and third person:

1. The first one employs a special form for the feminine second and third person plural: אתן תפעלנה/אתן תפעלנה; הן יפעלו/הן תפעלנה. The form תפעלנה, which is found in biblical Hebrew, is rarely in use in contemporary Hebrew. It was considered for many years to be the normative form, but is now restricted to use in formal speech, and sometimes when addressing a female audience.

2. The shared plural form for both masculine and feminine in the second and third persons is the standard form in ordinary speech and is part of the accepted norm: אתם תפעלו/אתן תפעלו; הם יפעלו/הן יפעלו.

3.3.4 Planning, anticipation and contemplation

The future tense refers to an action or process that is being planned, anticipated or contemplated.

Plans

Dan will be working on the program דן יעבוד על התוכנה במשך
during the year. השנה.

Anticipation

Everybody hopes that there will not be a כולם מקווים שלא תהיה
strike. שביתה.

Contemplation

They may not (it is likely that they will יכול להיות שהם לא יגיעו בזמן,
not) arrive on time, and then we'll be ואז נאחר להצגה.
late for the show.

Conditionals

If there is (will be) a strike, we won't be אם תהיה שביתה לא נוכל להגיע
able to get home, since the trains won't הבייתה, כי הרכבות לא יפעלו.
be running.

A comparative note

Three tenses in Hebrew cover eight categories of tense in English

1. Present tense - habitual action

He goes to work at eight. הוא הולך לעבודה בשמונה.

2. Present progressive- action in ongoing present

He has been driving for eight hours already. הוא נוהג כבר שמונה שעות.

3. Past tense - action occurred in the past

He drove all the way. הוא נהג כל הדרך.

4. Past progressive - ongoing action in past

He was driving along, and did not notice the הוא נהג ולא שם לב
time. לזמן.

5. Past perfect progressive

He had been working there for eight הוא עבד שם שמונה שנים ועכשיו
years, and now he called it quits. הוא החליט לעזוב את העבודה.

6. Past Perfect

Before he started working here, he לפני שהוא התחיל לעבוד כאן, הוא
had been working in another office. עבד במשרד אחר.

7. Future

He will work here if the conditions הוא יעבוד כאן אם התנאים יהיו
will be satisfactory. מספיק טובים.

8. Future Continuous

He will be working here in the next הוא יעבוד כאן במשך השבועיים
two weeks. הבאים.

3.4 Historical notes

1. Many linguists view Biblical Hebrew as having no tenses, only aspects: actions or states are considered as either complete or incomplete, perfect or imperfect, rather than being related to time and tense.

2. In Biblical Hebrew there are two additional verbal forms related to the imperfect: the jussive and the cohortative moods (see below). They are maintained in high registers of Israeli Hebrew, especially in written texts for stylistic reasons.

3. Past tense in Biblical Hebrew is normally indicated by the use of the imperfect form prefixed by the *waw* consecutive. Future tense can be indicated by the use of the perfect form prefixed by a *waw* consecutive. (see discussion below for illustrations).

3.4.1 Jussive and short form of the imperfect עתיד מקוצר

In classical Hebrew, a brief form of the imperfect (and of some imperatives) exists in some of the “defective” (or non-regular) verb classes and in some regular *hif'il* forms. It is used in the third person, less commonly in the second person, and rarely in the first person:

יִהְיֶה < יְהִי, יִרְאֶה < יֵרָא, יִבְנֶה < יִבֵּן, יִכְרִית < יִכְרֹת

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(אשית א:ד)
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And he sai
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3.4.2 Coh

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1st person p

The meanin
In modern

The short form of the imperfect can function as a jussive, i.e., a moderated command, as in the following example:

And God said, Let there be light: וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים: יְהִי אוֹר - וַיְהִי אוֹר.
and there was light. (Genesis, 1:3) (בראשית א:ג)

When it combines with the special 'waw consecutive' *wa-* (vs. regular *we-*), it assumes a narrative function, as well as past tense time reference, and is used mostly in narrative style (see discussion below):

וַיִּרְאֵה אֱלֹהִים אֶת הָאוֹר כִּי טוֹב וַיַּבְדֵּל אֱלֹהִים בֵּין הָאוֹר וּבֵין הַחֹשֶׁךְ. (בראשית א:ד)
And God saw the light, that [it was] good: and God divided the light from the darkness. (Genesis, 1:4)

It should be noted, however, that not all imperfect forms used as a jussive are necessarily shortened; many remain intact. A significant number of verb types are unaffected, and even when the singular form is shortened, the comparable plural one may not be.

And he said to his father, let my וַיֹּאמֶר לְאָבִיו יִקֶּם אָבִי וַיֹּאכַל מִצֵּיד
father sit up and eat of his son's בְּנֹו. (בראשית כז:לא)
game. (Genesis, 27:31)

Abner said to Joab, Let the young וַיֹּאמֶר אֲבִנֵּר אֶל-יֹאָב וַיְקוּמוּ נָא
men come forward and play before הַנְּעָרִים וַיִּשְׁחָקוּ לְפָנֵינוּ.
us. (Samuel II, 2:14) (שמואל ב' ב:יד)

3.4.2 Cohortative

עֵתִיד מוֹאֲרָךְ

This is a quasi-imperative mode, used exclusively in the first person (singular and plural), to express a wish, command or request, often in the form of self-encouragement (as one would expect from a "command to oneself"). An *-á* suffix is added to the verb form.

1 st person singular	Future	<i>'eshmor</i>	אֶשְׁמֹר
	Cohortative	<i>'eshmerá</i>	אֶשְׁמֹרָה
1 st person plural	Future	<i>nishmor</i>	נִשְׁמֹר
	Cohortative	<i>nishmerá</i>	נִשְׁמֹרָה

The meaning attached to this type of future verb is 'let's do something'. In modern Hebrew it is used in the literary register, usually with the

הוא נהג כל הדרך.

הוא נהג ולא שם לב
לזמן.

הוא עבד שם שמונה שנים
הוא החליט לעזוב את העם.

לפני שהוא התחיל לעבוד
עבד במשרד אחר.

הוא יעבוד כאן אם התנאים
מספיק טובים.

הוא יעבוד כאן במשך השנה
הבאים.

having no tenses, only
s either complete or
ing related to time and

verbal forms related to
oods (see below). They
w, especially in written

icated by the use of the
ve. Future tense can be
by a *waw* consecutive.

עֵתִיד מְקוּצָר
imperfect (and of some
(or non-regular) verb
sed in the third person,
in the first person:

יְהִיָּה < יְהִי, יִרְאֶה < יִרְאֵה,

initiating verb of address: הָבָה 'let us', as in the famous tune הָבָה נְגִילָה 'Let us rejoice and be happy'.

Here are examples from biblical literature:

And they said one to another, Go to, let us make brick, and burn them thoroughly. And they had brick for stonc, and slime had they for mortar. (Genesis, 11:3)

וַיֹּאמְרוּ אִישׁ אֶל-רֵעֵהוּ, הָבָה
נִלְבְּנָה לִבְנִים וְנִשְׂרָפָה לְשִׂרְפָּה;
וַתְּהִי לָהֶם הַלְבֵנָה לָאֶבֶן, וְהַחֲמֹר
הָיָה לָהֶם לְחֵמֶר. (בראשית י"ג)

Let us go down, and there confound their language, that they may not understand one another's speech. (Genesis, 11:7)

הָבָה נִרְדְּדָה, (וְנִבְלָה שֵׁם שְׂפָתָם
אֲשֶׁר לֹא יִשְׁמְעוּ אִישׁ שִׁפְתֵי רֵעֵהוּ.
(בראשית י"ז)

3.4.3 The uses of *waw* consecutive

וּ הַיְפּוּךְ

The '*waw* consecutive' is one of the most frequently used particles in the verb system of Biblical Hebrew. Prefixing this particle to verbal forms turns it into a constituent of a verb sequence (narrative and other), and sets its time reference.

Waw consecutive prefixed to imperfect verb forms

When this particle is prefixed to the imperfect verb form, it places it in a narrative sequence, and sets its time reference to the realm of the past. A shortened form of the imperfect follows this particle in some verb sub-groups, but in many cases the full imperfect form is maintained. The *waw* is always followed by the vowel *a* (*patah*, with a *dagesh* in the next segment, or a *kamats*, if the next segment is a guttural), which helps distinguish it from the regular conjunction וְ-:

and he said	וַיֹּאמֶר = וַיֹּאמֶר	< הוא אמר
and they went	וַיֵּלְכוּ = וַיֵּלְכוּ	< הם הלכו
I went	וַיֵּלֶךְ = וַיֵּלֶךְ	< אני הלכתי

Illustrations:

And he rose up, and went unto the place of which God had told him. (Genesis, 22:3)

וַיָּקָם וַיֵּלֶךְ אֶל-הַמָּקוֹם אֲשֶׁר-אָמַר-לוֹ
הָאֱלֹהִים (בראשית כ"ב)

He came to King Solomon, and executed all his work. (Kings I, 7:14)

וַיָּבֹא אֶל-הַמֶּלֶךְ שְׁלֹמֹה וַיַּעַשׂ אֶת-כָּל-
מְלָאכְתּוֹ (מלכים א' ז:יד)

Waw consecutive

When the *waw* consecutive is used in a sequence, a

and it will
and they will
and he will
and you (p

The *waw* is a consonant (*ush* ושמרתם)

Illustrations:

Cursed of the
who shall un
who will rise
city of Jerich

For your part
that is eaten a
it, and it shall
and for them.

Since a very f

of a verb sequ

'consecutive' p

without *waw* a

1. After certai

'what', אַז 'the

done this thing

2. When the s

the verb prece

וּמִצִּידוֹ 'and his

3. When the ve

referring to an

'and God had b

הקבה נגילה famous tune

ויאמרו איש אל-רעהו, הקבה
 נלבנה לבנים ונשרפה לשרפה
 ותהי להם חלבנה לאבן, ותה
 הקבה להם לחמר. (בראשית

הקבה נרדה, ונבלה שם שפת
 אשר לא ישמעו איש שפת
 (בראשית י"א:ר)

II הדיבור

frequently used particles in
 using this particle to verbal
 sequence (narrative and

forms

verb form, it places it in
 to the realm of the past.
 is particle in some verb
 form is maintained.
 (patah, with a dagesh in
 dent is a guttural), which
 n-):

הוא אמר <
 הם הלכו <
 אני הלכתי <

ויקם וילך אל-המקום אשר-
 האלהים (בראשית כ"ג)

ויבוא אל-המלך שלמה ויעש
 מלאכתו (מלכים א' ז:ד)

Waw consecutive prefixed to perfect verb forms

When the *waw* is prefixed to the perfect verb form, it places it in a verb sequence, and sets its time reference to the realm of the future.

and it will come to be	ו + היה = והיה	< הוא יהיה
and they will go/turn	ו + פנו = ופנו	< הם יפנו
and he will build	ו + בנה = ויבנה	< הוא יבנה
and you (pl.) will guard	ו + שמרתם = ושמרתם	< אתם תשמרו

The *waw* is followed by a *shva*, or is realized as v before a labial consonant (ב, ו, מ, פ) or before a consonant cluster, e.g., *shm* in *ushmartém*.

Illustrations:

Cursed of the Lord be the man
 who shall undertake to fortify (lit.
 who will rise and will build) this
 city of Jericho. (Joshua, 6:26)

ארור האיש לפני יהוה אשר יקום ויבנה
 את-העיר הזאת את-יריחו.
 (יהושע ו:כז)

For your part, take of everything
 that is eaten and you shall gather
 it, and it shall be for food for you
 and for them. (Genesis, 6:21)

ואתה קח-לך מכל-מאכל אשר יאכל
 ואספת אליו והיה לך ולהם לאכלה.
 (בראשית ו:כ"א)

Since a very large number of verbs in the Bible are either constituents of a verb sequence, and/or are part of a narrative, the forms with 'waw consecutive' prove to be prevalent. The simple imperfect and perfect without *waw* are generally used only in specific contexts:

1. After certain short words like 'not', 'כי', 'because', 'מי', 'who', 'מה', 'what', 'אז', 'then', 'אשר', 'which/that', e.g., 'מי עשה את-הדבר הזה', 'who has done this thing?'
2. When the subject precedes the verb, usually for focusing (normally, the verb precedes the subject in Biblical Hebrew), e.g., 'ועשו אחיו בא', 'and his brother Esau came back from his hunting'.
3. When the verb refers to the past-of-the-past (past perfect), i.e., when referring to an earlier "pre-past" occurrence, e.g., 'והי ברכ את-אברהם בכל', 'and God had blessed Abraham with everything'.

4. As the first verb in a verb sequence; the next occurrence(s) would be with a 'waw consecutive', as in יָקוּם וּבְנֶה 'who will rise and will build' above.

3.5 Moods and verbal nouns דרכים ושמות פועל/פעולה

There are two moods other than the indicative/declarative mood (which refers to the basic regular mode of verbs in tense): imperative, and infinitive. The temporal aspect of the activity or state is not a feature of these moods.

3.5.1 The imperative mood ציווי

Only five of the *binyanim* have an imperative form. The two passive verb groups, *pu'al* and *hu'fal*, do not have such a form. The imperative mood conveys commands, directions, orders, and instructions. For a negative command, the special negative particle אַל is used, and the future tense forms are added.

Imperative mood: giving commands or directions

Command	<u>Sit</u> quietly!	שֶׁב בְּשֶׁקֶט!	ציווי
Negative	<u>Don't sit</u> near the door!	אַל תֵּשֶׁב עַל יַד הַדֶּלֶת!	שלילה

To moderate the force of a command, words like בְּבִקְשָׁה can be added to the imperative.

Come in, please! הִיכַנְסוּ בְּבִקְשָׁה!

In daily speech, the future forms are usually used in lieu of the imperative, but the same may apply in higher registers as well, as an alternative to adding בְּבִקְשָׁה when issuing a polite request or a directive, rather than a command.

Come in and make yourself at home! תִּיכַנְסוּ וְתִרְגִּישוּ בְּבַיִת!

3.5.2 The infinitive mood שם הפועל

The infinitive שם הפועל is the form of a verb that has no inflection to indicate person, number, mood or tense; it only contains information about the base of the verb and reflects the main idea or concept of the verb. It is called "infinitive" because the verb is not made finite, or modified by inflection.

Who wants
You have

Hebrew ha
infinitive o
an English
some other
restricted t
the verb, o

Like the in
The two p
form. In li
two *binya*
kidnapped'

3.5.3 Infinitive

The infinitive
and increas
an abstract
it in English
mostly in I
individual f

Emphasis

Emphatic
Command
Abstract No

3.5.4 Infinitive

As mention
generally re
Who wants
You have to

Who wants to speak? מי רוצה לדבר? לדבר
 You have to listen to us! אתם צריכים להקשיב לנו! להקשיב

Hebrew has two infinitives, the infinitive absolute מקור מוחלט and the infinitive construct מקור נטוי. The infinitive construct is used much as an English infinitive, including being preceded by ל- 'to', and with some other prepositions (see below); the infinitive absolute, which is restricted to the higher registers, is used to add emphasis or certainty to the verb, or as a verbal noun, or for emphatic commands (see below).

Like the imperative, only five of the *binyanim* have an infinitive form. The two passive *binyanim*, *pu'al* and *huf'al*, do not have an infinitive form. In literary Hebrew, however, absolute infinitive forms of these two *binyanim* may occur, as in גָּנוּב גִּנְבָתִי 'I have indeed been kidnapped', or הִזְהַר הַזְהַרְתָּ 'you have (unequivocally) been warned!'

3.5.3 Infinitive absolute

מקור מוחלט

The infinitive absolute is used either before a verb in tense, to intensify and increase the force of the statement, or on its own, to serve either as an abstract noun, or as an emphatic command. There is no equivalent to it in English, and therefore it is somewhat difficult to explain. It occurs mostly in Biblical Hebrew. It is not productive in Israeli Hebrew, but individual forms do occur, for example הָלוֹךְ וְחֹזֵר 'back and forth'.

Emphasis	We have indeed eaten	אָכַל אֶכְלֵנוּ	אָכַל
	You will say	אָמַר תֹּאמְרוּ	אָמַר
	He shall indeed die	מוֹת יָמוּת	מוֹת
Emphatic	Keep the Sabbath to	שָׁמַר אֶת-יְוֹם הַשַּׁבָּת	שָׁמַר
Command	honor it (Deut. 5:12)	לְקַדְּשׁוּ (דְּבָרִים ה':יב)	
Abstract Noun	Eating too much	אָכַל דָּבַשׁ הַרְבוֹת לֹא-	אָכַל
	honey is not good	טוֹב (מִשְׁלֵי נה:כז)	
	(Proverbs 25:27)		

3.5.4 Infinitive construct

שם הפועל (מקור נטוי)

As mentioned earlier, when we refer to the infinitive mood, we are generally referring to its ordinary use, similar to its function in English.

Who wants to speak? מי רוצה לדבר? לדבר
 You have to listen! אתם חייבים להקשיב! להקשיב

3.5.5 Infinitive as gerund

The infinitive mood is used mostly with the particle ל- 'to', and as such it is more often referred to as שם הפועל and not מקור. However, there are other uses for the infinitive, with one of the four prepositional prefixes ב, כ, ל, מ. In such cases it acts as a gerund rather than an infinitive. It is not used often in such a form, except in some written texts. Paraphrasing with a verb in tense is much more common.

gloss	gerund	
while being	בהיותי-	ב+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל
to the return of	לשוב-	ל+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל
from going	מלקת-	מ+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל
as (his) saying	כאומר-	כ+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל

Pronoun endings can be added, and they act as the subject of the gerund:

gloss	gerund	
while I was	בהיותי	ב+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף
for your return	לשובכם	ל+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף
from her going	מלקתה	מ+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף
as he said	כאומר	כ+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף

When I was a little girl, I lived abroad.	בהיותי ילדה קטנה, גרתי בחו"ל.
We waited for his return from abroad.	חכינו לשובו מחו"ל.
We avoided going to his home.	נמנענו מלקת לביתו.

The infinitives in the sentences above can be paraphrased by sentences with finite verbs:

Infinitive + suffix	while being abroad	ב+ מקור + אני
Paraphrase	when I was abroad	בהיותי בחו"ל כאשר הייתי בחו"ל
Infinitive + suffix	We waited for his return from abroad.	ל+ מקור + הוא
Paraphrases	We waited till he returned from abroad.	חכינו לשובו מחו"ל
	We waited for him to return from abroad.	חכינו עד שהוא שב מחו"ל
		חכינו שהוא ישוב מחו"ל.

3.5.6 Ver

Verbal m
are assoc
one or mo
associated

reading, a
agreement
excursion,
explaining
explanation
developme

3.6 Verb

Traditionall
groups, cal
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conjugated v

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form, a protot

3.6.1 Names

Each conjugati

Names of ven

pa'al

nif'al

pi'el

pu'al

hif'il

huf'al

hitpa'el

3.5.6 Verbal noun

שם הפעולה

Verbal nouns are abstract nouns that can be related to verbal roots and are associated with various verbal groups and patterns. Each *binyan* has one or more patterns of nouns that are derived from the roots and/or are associated with that *binyan*.

	שם פעולה	שם פועל	שורש
reading, act of reading	קריאה (נ)	לקרא	ק-ר-א
agreement, discussion	הדברות (נ)	להדבר	ד-ב-ר
excursion, trip	טיול (ז)	לטייל	ט-י-ל
explaining; propaganda	הסברה (נ)	להסביר	ס-ב-ר
explanation	הסבר (ז)		
development	התפתחות (נ)	להתפתח	פ-ת-ח

3.6 Verb pattern groups

בניינים

Traditionally Hebrew grammar classifies verbs into seven basic pattern groups, called *binyanim*, each of which has special inflectional characteristics. In contemporary grammatical descriptions five major pattern groups are recognized, with the two additional ones being "internal passives". The verb conjugations are the various sets of forms of actual verbs. Some of the categories that dictate the form of a conjugated verb are person, gender, and number features.

The third person singular in the past tense is not marked by a suffix, and serves as the citation form for each *binyan*. To capture the citation form, a prototypical root is used, most commonly פעל.

3.6.1 Names of verb pattern groups

שמות הבניינים

Each conjugation is named according to its citation form.

Names of verb patterns		Citation forms	
<i>pa'al</i>	פעל	<i>lamad</i>	למד
<i>nif'al</i>	נפעל	<i>nilmad</i>	נלמד
<i>pi'el</i>	פעל	<i>gidel</i>	גדל
<i>pu'al</i>	פעל	<i>gudal</i>	גדל
<i>hif'il</i>	הפעיל	<i>hiklit</i>	הקליט
<i>huf'al</i>	הפעל	<i>huklat</i>	הקלט
<i>hitpa'el</i>	התפעל	<i>hitkabel</i>	התקבל

article -> 'to', and as such
at מקור. However, there
of the four prepositional
a gerund rather than an
except in some written
more common.

ב+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל
ל+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל
מ+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל
כ+ המקור הנטוי/שם הפועל

t as the subject of the

ב+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף
ל+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף
מ+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף
כ+ שם הפועל+ סיומת גוף

בהיותי ילדה קטנה, גרתי בח
חכינו לשובו מחו"ל.
נמנענו מלקת לביתו.

paraphrased by sentences

ב+ מקור + אני
בהיותי בחו"ל
כאשר הייתי בחו"ל
ל+ מקור + הוא
חכינו לשובו מחו"ל

חכינו עד שהוא שב
מחו"ל
חכינו שהוא ישוב מחו"ל.

3.6.2 Root composition: regular and irregular

There are two major root classifications: regular verbs and irregular verbs. They are also known as “strong” verbs, and “weak” verbs, respectively. In the same manner that each verb belongs to a particular בניין, it also belongs to a particular group of verbs, known as גזרה (plural גזרות) that classify them by their root composition.

1. The regular verbs belong to a root composition group known as גזרת השלמים ('whole'), as all consonants are present.
2. Verbs that are not fully regular are labeled by the particular root letter, which causes some deviation from a fully regular conjugation. These classifications, the גזרות, provide a frame of reference for addressing irregularities in the verb system. There are two ways of labeling them, either as נחתי, which means that a root consonant, indicated by the label, undergoes some weakening, or as חסרתי, which means that one of the consonants, indicated by the label, is omitted in part of or in the entire verb conjugation. Root consonants undergo changes in some, but not necessarily all forms in the conjugation concerned.

Root classification groups

$C_1 \Rightarrow$	י-ש-נ < יִשָּׁנָה, תִּישָׁן; לִישׁוֹן (פעל) י-ל-ד < נִלְדָּד (נפעל); הוֹלִיד (הפעיל)	נחי פ"י
$C_1 \Rightarrow$	י-ר-ד < תִּרְדָּד, רָדוּ; לִרְדָּת (פעל)	חסרי פ"י
$C_1 = נ$	נ-ב-ט < הִבִּיט, מִבִּיט; לְהִבִּיט (הפעיל)	חסרי פ"נ
$C_2 = ו$	ק-ו-מ < קָמְתִי, קָם; לְקוּם (פעל) קוּמְמָתִי, קוּמָם; לְקוּמָם (פיעל) ש-י-ר < שָׁרְתִי, שָׁר; לְשִׁיר (פעל)	ע"ו/ע"י
$C_2 = C_3$	ג-נ-נ < הִתְגוּנְנָתִי, מִתְגוּנָן; לְהִתְגוּנָן (התפעל)	כפולים
$C_3 = א$	ק-ר-א < קוּרָא, קוּרָאת; לְקוּרָא (פעל)	נחי ל"א
$C_3 = י$	ר-צ-י < רָצִיתִי, רָצָה; לְרָצוֹת (פעל)	נחי ל"י (ל"ה)

*The root classification נחי ל"י is also referred to as נחי ל"ה. The term נחי ל"י assumes that the י which surfaces when suffixes are added is the actual underlying consonant.

3.6.3 Ver

While most roots with order to a "consonant tri-consonant s

Form
שָׁבַר

The four co
binyanim:
binyanim.

Pi'el Conjug

Form S
סָפַר
תִּקְרָא

Pu'al Conjug

Form S
פִּטַּר
שִׁכַּל

Hitpa'el Conju

Form S
הִתְלַבֵּשׁ
הִתְפַּרְגֵּס

Note

The consonant accommodated necessarily repr division of נ-ר-ב- the word into two There are differer are created:

Regular

ular verbs and irregular verbs, and “weak” verbs, b belongs to a particular of verbs, known as גזרת composition.

ion group known as גזרת t.

ed by the particular root fully regular conjugation. frame of reference for There are two ways of s that a root consonant, ening, or as תסרני, which by the label, is omitted in Root consonants undergo forms in the conjugation

Groups

י-ש-נ < ישן	נחי פ"י
י-ל-ד < נולד	
י-ר-ד < ירד	תסרי פ"י
נ-ב-ט < הבט	חסרי פ"י
ק-ר-מ < קרמ	ע"ו/ע"י
ק-ר-א < קרא	נחי ל"א
ר-צ-י < רצי	נחי ל"י (ל"ה)

red to as נחי ל"ה. The term en suffixes are added is the

3.6.3 Verb roots with four consonants

While most roots in Hebrew consist of three consonants, there are also roots with four consonants (on occasion even five). Traditionally, in order to accommodate such roots, all consonants fit into a three “consonant slot” structure, which is the norm set by the predominant tri-consonantal verb pattern. In the case of שָׁכַר, for instance, the root consonant slots and the *pa'al* stem vowels are divided as follows:

Form	Slot 3	Vowel	Slot 2	Vowel	Slot1	Root
שָׁכַר	ר	a	ב	a	ש	ש-ב-ר

The four consonant roots are accommodated by the three following *binyanim*: *pi'el*, *pu'al* and *hitpa'el*. They are not found in other *binyanim*.

Pi'el Conjugation

Form	Slot 3	Vowel	Slot 2	Vowel	Slot1	Root
סָפַר	ר	e	פ	i	ס	ס-פ-ר
תָּרַגַּם	ם	e	רַג	i	ת	ת-ר-ג-מ

Pu'al Conjugation

Form	Slot 3	Vowel	Slot 2	Vowel	Slot1	Root
פָּטַר	ר	a	ט	u	פ	פ-ט-ר
שָׁכַלְל	ל	a	כַּל	u	ש	ש-כ-ל-ל

Hitpa'el Conjugation

Form	Slot 3	Vowel	Slot 2	Vowel	Slot1	Root
הִתְלַבֵּשׁ	ש	e	ב	a	ל	ל-ב-ש
הִתְפַּרְגֵּס	ס	e	רַג	a	פ	פ-ר-ג-ס

Note

The consonantal slots indicate how the extra consonants are accommodated into three slots that form the stem. They do not necessarily represent the syllabic division. For instance, the slot division of ד-ר-ב-ג is not the same as the syllabic division, which divides the word into two closed syllables: דַּרְבֵּן.

There are different processes by which four consonantal roots or longer are created:

1. Some roots, which have a base of two consonants, repeat (reduplicate) their consonants.

	Slot 3	Slot 2	Slot 1	ב-ל-ב-ל
בִּלְבַּל	ל	לב	ב	<u>פיעל</u>
בִּלְבַּל	ל	לב	ב	<u>פועל</u>
הִתְבַּלְּבַּל	ל	לב	ב	הת- <u>התפעל</u>

The slot division is *ל-לב-ב*, while the syllabic division is *בל-בל*.

2. One way of creating new four letter roots is by adding an initial consonant to basic three letter roots, thus forming secondary derived roots having a related meaning. The three consonants used in this process are: 'ת, ש', א'

Gloss	Derivation	Gloss	Base
diagnose	א + ב-ח-נ < אֲבַחַן	examine	בָּחַן
rewrite	ש + כ-ת-ב < שָׁכַתֵּב	write	כָּתַב
activate	ת + פ-ע-ל < תִּפְעֵל	act	פָּעַל

3. Other four letter roots are derived from native nouns and adjectives

Gloss	Derivation	Gloss	Base
oxidize	ח-מ-צ-נ < חִמְצָן	oxygen	חִמְצָן
calculate	ח-ש-ב-נ < חִשְׁבֹּן	calculation	חִשְׁבֹּן
enumerate	מ-ס-פ-ר < מִסְפָּר	number	מִסְפָּר

4. A large number are derived from foreign words

Gloss	Derivation	Gloss	Base
phone	ט-ל-פ-נ < טֵלֶפֶן	telephone	טֵלֶפֶן
catalogue	ק-ט-ל-ג < קַטְלֹג	catalogue	קַטְלֹג

3.6.4 Some shared meanings of roots

Although the root does not exist on its own, most words that share a common root tend to have a common meaning core. These form-and-meaning relationships are only tendencies, and often apply only in part. Some forms never followed the regularity to start with, and most departed from it with time, with varying degrees of deviation. Language is an ever-changing, living entity, and the relationship between form and meaning is not maintained for long. Exceptions

consequent
extension an

Here is a co
examination
examiner
diagnosis
perception,
diagnosticia

3.7 Verb c

Verbs in H
meaning an
transitive an
action and v
change from
of their comp
objects, and
prepositions,
verbs, which
tense, and an
be described

3.7.1 Transi

A transitive v
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performed by
the action. It i
object, which
object is indef
definite. Indir
remembered
transitive verb

Transitive ver Indefinite direc

The parents bo
children.

two consonants, repeat

tl ב-ל-ב-ל
 פיעל
 פועל
 -הת התפעל

vision is בל-בל

is by adding an initial
 forming secondary derived
 consonants used in this

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
examine	קָחַן
write	כָּתַב
act	פָּעַל

e nouns and adjectives

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
oxygen	חֶמְצָן
calculation	חֶשְׁבֹן
number	מִסְפָּר

ords

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
telephone	טֶלֶפֹן
catalogue	קַטְלוֹג

most words that share a
 g core. These form-and-
 often apply only in part.
 to start with, and most
 degrees of deviation.
 y, and the relationship
 ed for long. Exceptions

consequently abound, and meaning develops independently by extension and by association.

Here is a common root with some shared meanings:

examination, test	בָּחִינָה	examine, test	בָּחַן
examiner	בּוֹחֵן	be examined	נִבְחַן
diagnosis	אֲבַחֵן	diagnose	אֲבַחַן
perception, discernment	הִבְחִינָה	notice, discern	הִבְחִין
diagnostician	מְאַבְחֵן	be noticed	הִבְחַן

3.7 Verb categorization

Verbs in Hebrew can be classified in a number of ways, by their meaning and function, and by structural characteristics. There are transitive and intransitive verbs, active and passive verbs, verbs of action and verbs that describe state. Some verbs describe the process of change from one state to another. Verbs can also be classified in terms of their composition: There are verbs that have to be complemented by objects, and when these objects are not direct, they have obligatory prepositions, which link them with their objects. There are compound verbs, which are constructed of two verbs, usually one conjugated in tense, and another realized in infinitive form. These classifications will be described in the segments below.

3.7.1 Transitive verbs

פעלים יוצאים

A transitive verb is an action verb requiring a direct or indirect object to complement its meaning in the sentence. The action of the verb, performed by the subject, is transferred to the object, the recipient of the action. It is not just a matter of meaning but also of form. The direct object, which directly follows the verb, is either unmarked when the object is indefinite, or is preceded by the particle אֶת when the object is definite. Indirect objects require a preposition. However, it should be remembered that many indirect objects are not complements of transitive verbs.

Transitive verbs with direct objects:

Indefinite direct object

The parents bought presents for the children.

ההורים קנו מתנות לילדים.

Definite direct objectThe parents hid the presents.

ההורים החביאו את המתנות.

Transitive verbs with indirect objects:

Indefinite indirect object

The truck driver hit a streetlight and
a power line post.נהג המשאית פגע בפנס רחוב
ובעמוד חשמל.

Definite indirect object

I did not mean to hurt Michael.לא התכוונתי לפגוע במיכאל.**A comparative note**

Notice that while there is an indirect object following the verb פגע ב- 'hurt/hit', in English an equivalent verb takes a direct object. In both cases, the fact that the action of the verb is transferred to the object makes the verbs transitive in meaning.

3.7.2 Intransitive verbs**פעלים עומדים**

An intransitive verb is one that does not transfer the action to a recipient. The subject is the person or things undergoing or experiencing the action of the verb. Typically, an adverb or prepositional phrase modifies an intransitive verb, or the verb ends the sentence.

Nir and Ilana danced.ניר ואילנה רקדו.Afterwards they strolled in the park.אחר כך הם טיילו בפארק.Nir's grandfather was born in 1930.סבא של ניר נולד בשנת 1930.

Some verbs can function as both transitive and intransitive verbs.

Intransitive Nir and Ilana studied.ניר ואילנה למדו.Transitive They learned new songs.הם למדו שירים חדשים.**3.8 With and without linking verbs**

In the present tense in Hebrew, there are sentences without verbs. They usually have a subject and a noun or noun phrase predicate, or an adjectival one. These sentences are often referred to as nominal sentences:

Dan (is) a

His wife (is)

The twins

The car (is)

3.8.1 Linking verbs

Verbless sentences

future tense

two parts of

Dan was theHis wife was

Their twins

students.

Note

היה may also

a mere linking

There was a

Job.

3.8.2 Other

Why do you

They remain

This movie s

Fo

3.9 Verbs

There are a

part of their

object, which

cannot be con

obligatory pr

citation form

Examples of

object followi

The host hurt

Dan (is) a bank director.	דן מנהל בנק.
His wife (is) a lawyer.	אשתו עורכת דין.
The twins (are) high school students.	התאומים תלמידים בתיכון.
The car (is) over there.	המכונית שם.

3.8.1 Linking verb 'to be'

Verbless sentences exist in the present tense, however, in the past and future tenses, the verb 'to be' is present and in addition to linking the two parts of the sentence, it marks the tense.

Dan <u>was</u> the director.	דן <u>היה</u> המנהל.
His wife <u>will be</u> a lawyer.	אשתו <u>תהיה</u> עורכת דין.
Their twins <u>will be</u> university students.	התאומים שלהם <u>יהיו</u> סטודנטים באוניברסיטה.

Note

היה may also serve as a full-fledged verb meaning 'exist', rather than as a mere linking verb, as in the beginning of the Book of Job:

There was a man in the land of Uz named Job. איש היה בארץ עוץ, איוב שמו.

3.8.2 Other related linking verbs

Why do you <u>seem</u> so sad?	למה אתם <u>נראים</u> כל כך עצובים?
They <u>remained</u> our good friends.	הם <u>נשארו</u> החברים הטובים שלנו.
This movie <u>sounds</u> melodramatic.	הסרט הזה <u>נשמע</u> מלודרמטי.

For more information, see Chapter 14, pp. 320-323

3.9 Verbs with obligatory prepositions

There are a number of verbs, which have a preposition as an integral part of their form. The preposition is, by definition, followed by an object, which is a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun. The meaning cannot be conveyed by the verb alone; it must include the prescribed obligatory preposition that connects it to the following object. The citation form of the verb usually includes that preposition.

Examples of verbs that cannot be used without a preposition and an object following it:

The host hurt our feelings. פגע ב- המנחה פגע ברגשות שלנו.

ההורים החביאו את המתנות

נהג המשאית פגע בפנס רחוב
ובעמוד חשמל.

לא התכוונתי לפגוע במיכאל.

פגע ב- following the verb
is a direct object. In both
transferred to the object

פעלים עומדים

transfer the action to a
things undergoing or
typically, an adverb or
verb, or the verb ends the

ניר ואילנה רקדו.

אחר כך הם טיילו בפארק.
סבא של ניר נולד בשנת 1930.

and intransitive verbs.

ניר ואילנה למדו.

הם למדו שירים חדשים.

ences without verbs. They
a phrase predicate, or an
referred to as nominal

When will you help us get ready
for the party?

עזר ל- מתי תעזרו לנו להכין את
המסיבה?

3.10 Action, stative and inchoative verbs

Another way of dividing verbs is by semantic categories like the following: action verbs, stative verbs, and inchoative verbs.

3.10.1 Non-stative verbs

There are many types of dynamic verbs, and most of them describe activities or events, which can have beginning and completion points.

Here are some examples:

<u>Activity</u>	Shira <u>is playing</u> tennis.	שירה <u>משחקת</u> טניס.
<u>Process</u>	The food <u>is cooking</u> .	האוכל <u>מתבשל</u> .
<u>Action</u>	He <u>passed</u> the ball.	הוא <u>מסר</u> את הכדור.

3.10.2 Stative verbs

Stative verbs usually refer to an ongoing state or condition. They can be divided into verbs of perception or cognition (which refer to things in the mind), or verbs of state (which describe an ongoing state).

Describing perception/feeling/attitude:

Ayelet <u>hates</u> science fiction movies.	אילת <u>שונאת</u> סרטי מדע בדיוני.
She <u>loves</u> adventure movies.	היא <u>אוהבת</u> סרטי הרפתקאות.
Ayelet <u>prefers</u> funny movies.	אילת <u>מעדיפה</u> סרטים מצחיקים.

Describing states:

Everybody <u>is asleep</u> .	כולם <u>ישנים</u> .
Nobody <u>is awake</u> at such a time.	אף אחד <u>לא ער</u> בשעה כזאת.
He <u>has been sick</u> for a week.	הוא <u>חולה</u> כבר שבוע ימים.

3.10.3 Inchoative verbs

Inchoative verbs are verbs that convey a transformation and change of state, such as 'fall asleep', which indicates the process of changing from being awake to being asleep. The change is usually an internal one, the process of becoming.

Describing

Everybody

Nobody w

When he g

Africa.

The apples

Describing changes of state:Everybody fell asleep.כולם נרדמו.Nobody woke up when we knocked.אף אחד לא התעורר כשדפקנו.When he gets well, we'll travel to Africa.כשהוא יבריא, ניסע לאפריקה.The apples ripened (became ripe).התפוחים הבשילו.

עזר ל- מתי תעזרו לנו להמסיבה?

Verbs

atic categories like the
ative verbs.

most of them describe
and completion points.

שירה משחקת טניס.
האוכל מתבשל.
הוא מסר את הכדור.

or condition. They can be
(which refer to things in
ongoing state).

אילת שונאת סרטי מדע בדיוני
היא אוהבת סרטי הרפתקאות
אילת מעדיפה סרטים מצחיקים

כולם ישנים.
אף אחד לא עך בשעה כזאת.
הוא חולה כבר שבוע ימים.

sformation and change of
the process of changing
age is usually an internal

Chapter 4

Verb pattern groups

In this chapter the seven major *binyanim* (verb pattern groups) will be discussed. They will be presented first in the regular root groups שלמים first, and then in the irregular verb categories.

4.1	pa`al	בניין פֿעל (קל)
4.2	nif`al	בניין נִפְעַל
4.3	pi`el	בניין פֿיעל (פיעל)
4.4	pu`al	בניין פֿעל (פועל)
4.5	hitpa`el	בניין הִתְפַּעֵל
4.6	hif`il	בניין הִפְעִיל
4.7	huf`al	בניין הִפְעַל (הופעל)

4.1 Pa`al conjugation

בנין פֿעל

The *pa`al* conjugation is traditionally considered the simplest or the most basic of the conjugations. It is an unmarked conjugation, since its verb forms do not contain any special identifying markers other than the root letters, usually tri-consonantal (i.e. composed of three consonants) and the tense/mood/person markers. The *pa`al* conjugation is not identified with any particular semantic trait either and is broad enough to incorporate such categories as:

- (1) transitive verbs (e.g. אָכַל [את התפוח] 'eat')
- (2) intransitive ones (יָשַׁב 'sit')
- (3) stative verbs (יָשָׁן 'sleep')
- (4) inchoative 'change/become' verbs

4.1.1 Regular verbs

שלמים

Regular verbs are verbs in which all the root consonants are present in all the verb forms.

Present tense/participle

זמן הווה/בינוני פועל

In most *pa`al* conjugations, the stem of the present tense consists of the sequence $C_1oC_2eC_3$ (C = consonant) פֿועל. The vowel o מלא, between the first and the second consonant of the root, and the vowel e צירי, between the second and third consonants, are the stem vowels for

most of the
masculine s
plural.

In the sing
rokéd and
vowel, whic
rokdot.

Variation –
In some ve
instead of th

Note
In colloquia
sequence ra
שָׁנִים, יוֹשְׁנוֹת

Passive pa
Many prese
describe a
'stolen', etc.
broken

The passive
suffixes are
initial vowel
which femin

most of the present tense forms. There are four forms of present tense: masculine singular, feminine singular, masculine plural and feminine plural.

to dance לרקוד

יחיד/ה:	(אני, אתה, הוא) רוקד; (אני, את, היא) רוקדת;
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) רוקדים; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) רוקדות

In the singular forms the stress is on the second vowel of the stem: *rokéd* and *rokédet*. In the plural form the stress shifts to the suffix vowel, which brings about the loss of the last stem vowel *e*: *rokdím* and *rokdót*.

Variation – first stem vowel a

In some verbs in the present tense of *pa'al* the first stem vowel is *a* instead of the usual *o*. It characterizes mostly stative verbs.

to sleep לישון

יחיד/ה:	(אני, אתה, הוא) ישן; (אני, את, היא) ישנה;
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) ישנים; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) ישנות

Note

In colloquial Hebrew native speakers tend to use the prevalent *o-e* sequence rather than the normative one for such forms: *יושנת, *יושן*. It is considered substandard.

Passive participle

בינוני פעול

Many present tense forms in *pa'al* have passive counterparts that describe a state, and generally function as adjectives, as 'broken', 'stolen', etc. do in English.

broken שבור, שבוכה, שבוכים, שבורות

The passive participle stem is *פְּעוּל*, but when the feminine and plural suffixes are added, the stress moves to the last syllable, and the stem-initial vowel is omitted, resulting in a variation of the stem: *פְּעוּל־*, to which feminine and plural suffixes are added.

ups

o pattern groups) will be
regular root groups שלמים

בניין פ
בניין נ
בניין פ
בניין פ
בניין ה
בניין ה
בניין ה

בנין פעל

ered the simplest or the
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i.e. composed of three
rs. The *pa'al* conjugation
trait either and is broad

eat')

שלמים

consonants are present in

זמן הווה/בינוני פעל

esent tense consists of the
The vowel *o* מלא
f the root, and the vowel *e*
s, are the stem vowels for

Compare:

I am open to any interesting proposal. אני פתוח לכל הצעה מעניינת.
 The door is open; close it please. הדלת פתוחה; סגור אותה בבקשה.

When the first consonant is ע', ח', ה', א', a *hataf patah* replaces the *shva* in the feminine singular and the plural: אַבוּדוֹת, אַבוּדִים, אַבוּדָה, אַבוּדִים.

The *pa'ul* form also provides a base for many adjectives (all of which have four forms):

clear	צלול-צלולה	important	חשוב-חשובה
imperfect	פגום-פגומה	steep	תלול-תלולה

Past tense**זמן עבר**

The sequence פֿעַל- provides the stem for the past tense (and the citation form, since פֿעַל is also the third person singular form). A variation of this stem פֿעַל- occurs when a final suffix vowel is added, and the stress shifts to it, again causing deletion of the preceding stem-vowel (*gamrá* גַּמְרָה, *gamrú* גַּמְרוּ). Stress remains on the last stem-vowel only in the first and second person forms (*gamárti* גַּמְרָתִי, *gamárta* גַּמְרָתָּה, etc.).

לגמר to finish

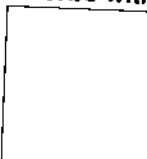
יחיד/ה:	(אני) גַּמְרָתִי, (אתה) גַּמְרָתְךָ, (את) גַּמְרָתְךָ, הוא גַּמַּר, היא גַּמְרָה
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו) גַּמְרָנוּ, (אתם) גַּמְרָתֵם*, (אתן) גַּמְרָתֵינֵי*, הם גַּמְרוּ, הן גַּמְרוּ

*There are two variants for the plural form of the second person: *gmartém* גַּמְרָתֵם and *gamártem* גַּמְרָתֵם. The variant *gmartém* is considered normative, but it is rarely used, except in formal speech. The other variant *gamártem* (considered substandard by some) is commonly used, and is modeled after all other first and second person forms in stem structure and in stress pattern.

	Ordinary speech		Normative
<i>gamártem</i>	(אתם) גַּמְרָתֵם	<i>gmartém</i>	(אתם) גַּמְרָתֵם
<i>gamárten</i>	(אתן) גַּמְרָתֵינֵי	<i>gmartén</i>	(אתן) גַּמְרָתֵינֵי

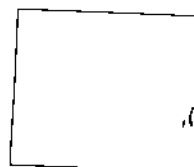
Future t

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divided in
stem vowe
stem vowe
The perso
the first pe

Verbs with**Note**

1. The *o* vo
normative o
(*holam male*

2. There are
person and t
(i) the varian
plural and f
ordinary spee
(ii) The Bibl
תגמרה is rar
somewhat arc

Verbs with a

Future tense

זמן עתיד

When regular verbs שְׁלֵמִים are conjugated in the future, they can be divided into two main groups: the major group of verbs that have an *o* stem vowel (such as אֶגְמֹר), and a smaller group of verbs that have an *a* stem vowel (such as in אֶנְהַג).

The personal pronoun prefixes have an *i* vowel, with the exception of the first person prefix, which has an *e* vowel: אֶשְׁמַר, אֶשְׁמֹר.

Verbs with o stem vowel

יחיד/ה:	(אני) אֶגְמֹר, (אתה) תִּגְמֹר, (את) תִּגְמְרִי, הוא יִגְמֹר, היא תִּגְמֹר
רבים/ות:	(אתם) תִּגְמְרוּ, (אתן) תִּגְמְרוּ (תִּגְמְרֶנָּה), הם יִגְמְרוּ, הן יִגְמְרוּ (תִּגְמְרֶנָּה)

Note

1. The *o* vowel of the future tense is represented by a *holam haser* in normative orthography, but in common use in writing the vowel *i* (*holam male*) is inserted instead: נגמור, יגמור, תגמור.

2. There are two variants for the feminine plural form of the second person and third person:

(i) the variant that is commonly used is the same for both the masculine plural and feminine plural. They have become the standard forms in ordinary speech and are considered normative.

(ii) The Biblical Hebrew variant with distinctive feminine plural suffix תִּגְמְרֶנָּה is rarely used, except in formal speech, and is now considered somewhat archaic.

Verbs with a stem vowel:

to learn, study לִלְמַד

יחיד/ה:	(אני) אֶלְמַד, (אתה) תִּלְמַד, (את) תִּלְמְדִי, הוא יִלְמַד, היא תִּלְמַד
רבים/ות:	(אתם) תִּלְמְדוּ, (אתן) תִּלְמְדוּ (תִּלְמְדֶנָּה), הם יִלְמְדוּ, הן יִלְמְדוּ (תִּלְמְדֶנָּה)

Normative

אֶלְמְדֶם	(אתם) גְּמַרְתֶּם
אֶלְמְדֶנָּה	(אתן) גְּמַרְתֶּן

Which verbs have a stem vowel a?

1. There are a few verbs that simply have to be memorized as having a stem vowel *a*: the future of לָמַד 'study' = יִלְמַד 'will study', and יִשְׁכַּב 'lie (down)' = יִשְׁכַּב 'will lie down'.

2. When the second or third root letter is א, ה', ח', ע':

third root letter guttural

תִּקְרָא, תִּגְבֶּה, תִּשְׁלַח, תִּשְׁמַע

second root letter guttural

תִּשְׁאַל, תִּנְהַג, תִּרְחַץ, תִּרְעַד

Note

1. The future forms that end in a vowel (the forms of הִסֵּךְ, אִתְּסֵךְ, אֵת, אֵת) lose the second vowel of the stem when vowel suffixes are added. Consequently, there are two sequential *shva*'s: תִּלְמְדִי, תִּלְמְדוּ. Since such a sequence is difficult to pronounce, the second *shva* is pronounced *e* rather than zero: *tilmedi*, *tilmedú*.

2. The vowel *a* is not reduced when the second or third root letter is a guttural. The vowel חטף-פתח is used:

(את) תִּשְׁאַלִי, (אתם) תִּשְׁאַלוּ, הִסֵּךְ יִשְׁאַלִי

The imperative mood**ציווי**

Similar to the forms in the future tense, the imperative forms can be divided into two groups, according to the stem vowel. The division only affects the form of the masculine singular.

Verbs with o stem vowel

גַּמְרָה (גמור): גַּמְרִי! גַּמְרוּ! (גמרונה)*

Verbs with a stem vowel

לִמְדָה (למד): לִמְדִי! לִמְדוּ! (למדנה)*

The negative imperative

To form negative imperatives one uses the future tense form with the imperative negative particle אַל 'don't':

אַל תִּגְמְרוּ (תגמור): אַל תִּגְמְרִי! אַל תִּגְמְרוּ!

* Just like in the future, there are two variants for the feminine plural form of the imperative: גַּמְרִי and גַּמְרִי!

The variant that is commonly used is the same for both the masculine plural and feminine plural. It is the standard form in ordinary speech and is considered normative.

The infinitive

The 'default' form of the verb is the infinitive. The majority of verbs have a stem vowel *a* (except for...

The verbal noun

In addition to the infinitive, the verbal noun (nominalization) is used. The verbal noun is added to the verbal pattern of the verb. The verbal noun of verbs is generally...

Variants of the infinitive**1. The letters א, ה, ח, ע**

i. when they are the second or third root letter and imperatives...

ii. when occurring in the infinitive:

2. The letters י, ו, ז, ט, ק, פ, צ

i. when they occur in the infinitive and imperatives:

ii. when they occur in the infinitive:

iii. when they occur in the infinitive:

The infinitive mood**שם הפועל**

The 'default' stem with *o* in the future tense and in the imperative of the majority of *pa'al* verbs also serves to derive the infinitive **לְפַעַל**, including those verbs that belong to the group where the future vowel is *a* (except for isolated forms like **לְשַׁכַּב**): **לְשַׁלַּח**, **לְשַׁאֵל**, **לְשַׁלַּח**.

The verbal noun**שם הפעולה**

In addition to the infinitive, there are also verbal nouns (שְׁמוֹת פְּעוּלָה), or nominalizations, that are more 'noun-like', but are still closely related to the verbal *pa'al* form. The form of verbal nouns of regular *pa'al* verbs is generally of the form **פְּעִילָה**, e.g. **כְּתִיבָה**, **פְּעִילָה**.

Variants with ב', כ', פ'**1. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as b, k, p**

i. when they occur as the first consonant of the present and past tenses and imperative:

בינוני פועל: **בּוֹדֵק, כּוֹתֵב, פּוֹתֵחַ**

בינוני פעול: **בְּרוּר, כְּתוּב, פְּתוּחַ**

עבר: **בָּדַק, כָּתַב, פָּתַח**

ציווי: **בְּדַק! כְּתַב! פְּתַח!**

ii. when occurring as the second root letter in the future tense, or the infinitive:

עתיד: **יִשְׁבֵּר, יִרְכַּב, יִתְפַּס**

שם הפועל: **לְשַׁבֵּר, לְרַכֵּב, לְתַפֵּס**

2. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as v, kh, f

i. when they occur as the second root letter in the present, past and imperative:

בינוני: **שׁוֹבֵר, רוֹכֵב, תּוֹפֵס**

עבר: **שָׁבַר, רָכַב, תְּפַס**

ציווי: **שַׁבֵּר! רַכֵּב! תְּפַס!**

ii. when they occur as the first root letter in the future tense, or the infinitive:

עתיד: **יִבְדֹּק, יִכְתֹּב, יִפְגֹּשׁ**

שם פועל: **לְבַדֵּק, לְכַתֵּב, לְפַגֵּשׁ**

iii. when they are in the final position in the word or root.

לְכַתֵּב, דְּרָכּוּ, קוּטְפִים

Variants with guttural root letters

C1 = 'א

When the first root letter is א, the vowel *e* replaces the *shva* vowel in the future, imperative and infinitive. The prefix vowel in these verb forms is also affected:

שם הפועל: לְאַסֵּף, לְאַגֵּר, לְאַרְזֵּ
 עתיד: יֵאַסֵּף, יֵאַגֵּר, יֵאַרְזֵּ
 ציווי: אֲסַף! אֲגַר! אֲרַז!

C1 = 'ע

When the first root letter is ע, the vowel *a* replaces the *shva* vowel in the future, imperative and infinitive. The prefix vowel in these verb forms is also affected:

שם הפועל: לְעַבֵּד, לְעַבֵּר, לְעַמֵּד
 עתיד: יֵעַבֵּד, יֵעַבֵּר, יֵעַמֵּד
 ציווי: אֲעַבֵּד! אֲעַבֵּר! אֲעַמֵּד!

C1 = 'ח

When the first root letter is ח the vowel *a* replaces the prefix vowel *i*. The first root letter can either be zero *shva*, or the *shva* may be replaced by *a*. Both forms are acceptable, but the pronunciation with the zero *shva* is more common in speech.

שם הפועל: לְחַשֵּׁב, לְחַצֵּב, לְחַתֵּר (לְחַצֵּב, לְחַתֵּר)
 עתיד: יֵחַשֵּׁב, יֵחַצֵּב, יֵחַתֵּר (יֵחַצֵּב, יֵחַתֵּר)

C2 = 'א, 'ה, 'ח, 'ע

When the consonant is a guttural a *hataf patah* replaces the *shva*:

שָׂאֵלָה, נוֹהֲגִים, תִּצְחָקִי, יִבְעָרוּ

C3 = 'ה, 'ח, 'ע

At the end of the word, if one of these gutturals is preceded by a vowel other than *a*, a 'furtive' *patah* is inserted: שוֹלַחַת, תִּמְנָע, לִשְׂמוֹעַ

4.1.2 Irregular verbs

גזרות חסרים וזנחים

The group of irregular verbs is composed of verbs where one or more of the root consonants are either missing or altered.

Note

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Future 3rd

Imperative

Note

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Note

1. The classification **חסרים** stands for verbs where one of the root consonants is absent, while **נחים** stands for the classification when a root consonant is present in spelling but it is not pronounced.

2. The three root consonant letters by which the irregularities are marked are: consonant 1 = פ', consonant 2 = ע', and consonant 3 = ל'. When the first consonant is affected, the following label is given to it: פ"י, meaning the first consonant *yod* undergoes a change, and so on. The category of roots classified by irregularity of root consonants is called גזרה 'root classification group'.

The root classification: ע"ו/ע"י

These are roots with a second root consonant ו', such as in ק-ו-מ, or י', such as in ש-י-ר. The verb stems of the past and present tenses are bi-consonantal, i.e. have only two consonants, as the second root consonant is omitted, such as in קם, שר. In the future, imperative and infinitive, the second root consonants are realized as vowels: the vowel ו u for ע"ו verbs, as in -קום, or as the vowel י i in ע"י verbs, as in -שיר-. Accordingly, this conjugation pattern is called גזרת ע"ו/ע"י, since it is ע"י that undergoes changes and thus differs from the regular verb conjugations.

ע"ו verbs**לקום to get up**

Root classification	Verbal Noun	Infinitive	Root
ע"ו	קִימָה	לְקוּם	ק-ו-מ
	הֵם	הִיא	הוא
Present	קָמִים	קָמָה	קם
Past 3 rd person	קָמוּ	קָמָה	קם
Future 3 rd person	יִקְמוּ	תִּקְוִים	קום
	אֲתָם/	אֵת	אתה
Imperative	קוּמוּ!	קוּמִי	קום

Note

In ע"ו/ע"י verb forms, the stress usually stays on the (only) stem vowel, even when a suffix vowel is added: קָמָה קָמָה, קָמוּ *yakúmu*, קוּמוּ *kúmu*. This is always the case in regular speech. In the higher registers, the present tense feminine singular form קָמָה is

distinguished from its identical past tense form by the movement of its stress to the suffix (the same as in the plural – *kamím, kamót*):

I/you/she gets up	<i>kamá</i> קָמָה	אני, את, היא	הווה
she got up	<i>káma</i> קָמָה	היא	עבר

As is the case with any verb in the formal register, stress also moves to the suffix in *kamtém/n* קָמְתֶם/נָ, but not so in regular speech (*kámtem/n*).

Variation of ע"ו verbs:

The stem vowel of the future, imperative and infinitive is *o* when the final root letter is א:

Root classification	to come לָבֹא		Root
	Verbal Noun	Infinitive	
ע"ו	בִּיאָה	לָבוֹא	ב-ו-א
Future	הֵם	הֵיא	הוּא
	יָבוֹאוּ	תָּבוֹאוּ	יָבוֹא
Imperative	אַתְּמָצ	אַתְּ	אַתְּהָ
	בּוֹאוּ!	בּוֹאוּ!	בּוֹאוּ!

ע"י verbs:

The stem vowel is *i* when the medial root letter is י:

Root classification	to sing לָשִׁיר		Root
	Verbal noun	Infinitive	
ע"י	שִׁירָה	לָשִׁיר	ש-י-ר
Future	הֵם	הֵיא	הוּא
	יָשִׁירוּ	תָּשִׁירוּ	יָשִׁיר
Imperative	אַתְּמָצ	אַתְּ	אַתְּהָ
	שִׁירוּ!	שִׁירוּ!	שִׁירוּ!

The root classification: נח"י פ"א

The conjugation is called נח"י פ"א because א, its first root consonant, is 'silent' in some verbs. In verbs such as אכל, instead of the expected *תִּאָכַל or *תִּאָכְלוּ (cf. יָאָסַף above), the form is תִּאָכַל *tokhál*, with א silent. The associated vowel becomes *o*. Only the future tense is affected, and the rest of the forms follow the regular verb rules.

Root cla

פ"א

Future

Imperati

Another c

מָר, תִּאָמַר

and תִּאָכַל

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The root c

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תָּסַר תִּסְרֵי פ"י

Root classifi

תִּסְרֵי פ"י

Future

Imperative

When תִּסְרֵי פ"י

'know', the ste

The root clas

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the infinitive, w

by the movement of its
(*mím, kamót*):

הוּוּה אָנִי, אֵת, הִיא
עֵבֵר הִיא

er, stress also moves to
lar speech (*kámtem/n*).

infinitive is *o* when the

Infinitive	Root
לְבוֹא	ב-ו-א
הִיא	הוּא
תְּבוֹא	בּוֹא
אֵת	אֵתָהּ
בּוֹאִי!	בּוֹא!

s י:

Infinitive	Root
לְשִׁיר	ש-י-ר
הִיא	הוּא
תְּשִׁיר	יְשִׁיר
אֵת	אֵתָהּ
שִׁירִי!	שִׁיר!

s first root consonant, is
instead of the expected
s תֹּחַל *tokhál*, with אֵי
ly the future tense is
gular verb rules.

לֶאֱכַל to eat

Root classification	Verbal Noun	Infinitive	Root
פִּי"א	אֲכִילָה	לֶאֱכַל	א-כ-ל
	הֵם	הִיא	הוּא
Future	יֵאָכְלוּ	תֹּאכַל	יֵאָכַל
	אֲתִסַּךְ	אֵת	אֵתָהּ
Imperative	אֲכָלוּ!	אֲכָלוּ!	אֲכָלוּ!

Another common verb classified as פִּי"א is the verb לֹמַר 'to say': אָמַר, תֹּאמַר etc. Note the absence of the אֵי of the root א-מ-ר in אָמַר, אֵת and the even more unusual absence of אֵי in לֹמַר. In all other cases, if the root includes אֵי, the אֵי always appears in writing, even if silent. That the silent אֵי is omitted after an אֵי (אָמַר, אֵת) is expected, but לֹמַר is a real exception, probably the only one. The alternative Biblical Hebrew לֹאמַר is used with a slightly different meaning, more like 'quote'.

The root classification: חֲסֵרֵי פִּי"י

When the first consonant of the root (פִּי הפועל) is יֵי and that יֵי is absent in the future tense, the imperative, and the infinitive, it is referred to as חֲסֵרֵי פִּי"י (חֲסֵר means 'missing', or 'absent').

לְשַׁבֵּת to sit

Root classification	Verbal Noun	Infinitive	Root
חֲסֵרֵי פִּי"י	יְשִׁיבָה	לְשַׁבֵּת	י-ש-ב
	הֵם	הִיא	הוּא
Future	יֵשְׁבוּ	תֵּשֵׁב	יֵשֵׁב
	אֲתִסַּךְ	אֵת	אֵתָהּ
Imperative	שְׁבוּ!	שְׁבִי!	שְׁבִי!

When חֲסֵרֵי פִּי"י has a final 'guttural' consonant עֵי, חֵי, such as in יָדַע 'know', the stem vowel *e* changes to *a*. Compare the two:

Imperative	Future	Infinitive	Root
שְׁבִי!	יֵשֵׁב	לְשַׁבֵּת	י-ש-ב
יָדַע!	יָדַע	לְיָדַעַת	י-ד-ע

The root classification: נְחֵי פִּי"י

When the first consonant of the root is יֵי y, and that יֵי is not deleted, but rather weakened to the corresponding vowel *i* in the future tense and in the infinitive, we refer to the conjugation as נְחֵי פִּי"י.

Unlike חסרי פ"י where the ן is omitted, notice that the letter ן is still included in the verb forms: אָשַׁב but אִישַׁן.

לישון to sleep			
Root classification	Verbal Noun	Infinitive	Root
<u>נחי פ"י</u>	שְׁנָה	לִישוֹן	י-ש-נ
Future	הֵם יִשְׁנוּ	הֵיא תִישַׁן	הוא יִישַׁן
Imperative	אַתָּם/וּ יִשְׁנוּ!	אַתָּ יִשְׁנִי!	אַתָּה יִשַׁן!

The root classification: פ"נ

This classification includes verbs which have נ *nun* as their first root letter. Such verbs can lose their initial נ in the future and infinitive for a phonological reason: the consonant נ is weakened at the end of syllables, i.e., when no vowel follows. As a result it tends to be totally assimilated into the next consonant (cf. English historical assimilation in *inlegal* > *illegal*, *inregular* > *irregular*, etc.). The group of verbs whose נ is assimilated in this manner is known as *גזרת חסרי פ"נ*.

לפול to fall			
Root classification	Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
<u>חסרי פ"נ</u>	נְפִילָה	לְפֹל	נ-פ-ל
Future	הֵם יִפְלוּ	הֵיא תִפֹּל	הוא יִפֹּל

In some חסרי פ"נ verbs, while the initial נ is lost in the future forms, the נ is kept in the imperative, such as in these verbs: 'fall down!' נְפֹלוּ! or 'take' נְטֹלוּ! נְטֹלוּ! or נְפֹלוּ! נְפֹלוּ!

Other verbs lose the initial נ in both: 'drive' תִסְעוּ, תִסְעוּ; 'give' תַּעֲנוּ, תַּעֲנוּ; or 'take' תִקְחוּ, תִקְחוּ (see below).

נ"י verbs that keep their initial נ

1. Verbs that keep the נ in the future, imperative and infinitive are those that have a 'guttural' second root consonant: ע, ח, ה, א, as they cannot assimilate any consonants adjacent to them.

Gloss

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drive
tack
land (plane)

2. There are
initial נ, a
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Special ve

There are a
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1. 'to give'

The verb ת
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אַתָּם/אֵתָּם

תָּם

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Infinitive	Root
לישון	ש-נ-ל
היא	הוא
תישן	יִישַׁן
את	אתה
תשני!	תִּשְׁנִי!

as their first root letter and infinitive for a verb that is weakened at the end of the syllable. In the future form it tends to be totally assimilated into the next root letter. The group of verbs is called חסרי פ"נ.

Infinitive	Root
לפל	פ-נ-ל
היא	הוא
תפל	תִּפֹּל

In the future forms, the verb 'fall down!' is conjugated as follows:

תסע, תסעי, תסעו; סעי! (see below).

The infinitive and infinitive are conjugated as follows: א', ה', ח', ע', as they are.

Gloss	Infinitive	Imperative	Future	Root
deliver speech	לְנַאֵם	נַאֵם	יְנַאֵם	נ-א-מ
drive	לְנַהֵג	נַהֵג!	יְנַהֵג	נ-ה-ג
tack	לְנַעֵץ	נַעֵץ!	יְנַעֵץ	נ-ע-צ
land (plane)	לְנַחֵת	נַחֵת!	יְנַחֵת	נ-ח-ת

2. There are other verbs that for no apparent a priori reason keep their initial נ, and that today actually outnumber those in which the נ is assimilated. Among them are:

rebuke	נָדַח	bark	נָבַח	germinate	נִבְטַח
oppose	נָגַד	bite	נָסַח	took steps	נָקַט

Special verbs:

There are a number of special חסרי פ"נ verbs that combine features of different irregular verb groups.

1. 'to give' פ"נ/ל"נ : לָתַת

The verb לָתַת 'to give' is a unique one, since both first and third consonants are נ, either of which assimilates into the next consonant when occurring at the end of the syllable. In addition, the infinitive form not only reflects the loss of the two נ consonants, but also takes on a special infinitive form partly associated with פ"נ verbs.

שורש	שם פועל	שם פעולה	גזרה
נ-ת-נ	לָתַת	תִּתֵּן/תִּתֶּן	חֲסָרֵי פ"נ

1. In the present tense the verb נ-ת-נ is conjugated as a regular verb and does not lose any consonants: תִּתֵּן, תִּתֶּן, תִּתְּנִים, תִּתְּנֶנּוּ.

2. In the past tense the third consonant נ is lost, and is assimilated into the subject pronoun suffix: the expected *תִּתְּנִי ends up as תִּתֵּנִי. This occurs only in the first and second person. A *dagesh hazak* in the suffix compensates for the loss of the first root consonant.

אני	אתה	אנחנו	אתם/אתן
תִּתֵּנִי	תִּתֵּנְךָ	תִּתְּנוּ	תִּתְּנֶם

3. In the third person all consonants are maintained: תִּתֵּן, תִּתְּנָה, תִּתְּנוּ.

4. All the future tense forms lose the first נ, which is assimilated into the second consonant (a *dagesh hazak* in the second consonant).

compensates for the loss of the first root consonant): אָתָּן instead of *אָתָּתָּן.

הוא	היא	הם/הן
יָתָּן	תָּתָּן	יִתְּנוּ

5. The imperative forms echo the first consonant loss of the future tense:

אתה	את	אתם/אתן
תֵּן!	תִּנִּי!	תִּתְּנוּ!

2. 'to touch' לָגַעַת/לָגַעַת

The infinitive form has two variants: לָגַעַת loses the first consonant *n* and takes on a special infinitive form associated with פִּי"י verbs, while לָגַעַת has a regular verb infinitive and keeps all root consonants.

חֲסֵרֵי פִּי"י	מְגַעַת/מְגַעַת	לָגַעַת	נ-ג-ע
----------------	-----------------	---------	-------

All the future tense forms lose the first *n*, which is assimilated into the second consonant. The stem vowel is *a*, as it is in any such forms that end with a guttural consonant:

<u>Future</u>	אני אֶגַּע, אתה תִּגַּע, הוא יִגַּע, אנחנו נִגַּע,
<u>Imperative</u>	את תִּגַּעִי, אתם תִּגַּעוּ, הסך יִגַּעוּ גַּע, גַּעִי, גַּעוּ

3. 'to travel' לָסַע

The infinitive form of this particular פִּי"י verb keeps all consonants, but the future and imperative lose the *n*, like the verbs above:

<u>Future</u>	אני אֶסַּע, אתה תִּסַּע, הוא יִסַּע, אנחנו נִסַּע,
<u>Imperative</u>	את תִּסַּעִי, אתם תִּסַּעוּ, הסך יִסַּעוּ סַּע, סַּעִי, סַּעוּ

4. 'to take' לָקַחַת

The root of this verb is ל-ק-ח, and although it does not have a נִי or a פִּי"י consonant, it behaves like a פִּי"י verb with a final guttural consonant. It is conjugated just like the verb נָגַע 'to touch'. The infinitive form loses the first consonant *l* and takes on a special infinitive form associated with פִּי"י verbs. All the future tense forms lose the first לִי, which is

assimilated
any such fo
Future

Imperative

The root c
In the לִי"א c
kept in spel

Root classifi
נחי לִי"א

Present
Pa'ul
Past
Future

Imperative

Note

Notice that in
פִּעוּל, followi
this is not tr
well. At time

The root cla

When the thi
final position
elsewhere, it
vowel. This c
נחי לִי"א becau

assimilated into the second consonant. The stem vowel is *a*, as it is in any such forms that end with a guttural consonant 'ח' or 'ע':

Future אני אֶקַח, אתה תִּקַח, הוא יִקַח, אנחנו נִקַח,
את תִּקְחִי, אתם/ן תִּקְחוּ, הם/ן יִקְחוּ

Imperative קַח, קַחִי, קַחוּ

The root classification: נח"ל"א

In the ל"א conjugation, in which the third root consonant is 'א', the 'א' is kept in spelling, but is not pronounced at the end of the syllable.

to find למצא

Root classification	Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
נח"ל"א	מִצְאָה	לְמַצֵּא	מ-צ-א
	הֵם	הוּא	אֲתָה
Present	מוֹצֵאים	מוֹצֵא	מוֹצֵא
<i>Pa`ul</i>	מִצְוִיִּים	מִצְוִי	מִצְוִי
Past	מָצְאוּ	מָצָא	מָצְאוּ
Future	יִמְצְאוּ	יִמְצָא	תִּמְצָא
	אֲתֶם/ן	אֵת	אֲתָה
Imperative	מִצְאוּ!	מִצְאֵי!	מִצְאֵי!

Note

Notice that in some ל"א verbs, the ם substitutes for the 'א in the בינוני *פועל*, following the ל"י pattern, as shown in the table above. However, this is not true for all ל"א verbs, as forms such as *בָּלוּא*, *שָׁנוּא* exist as well. At times there is even a 'mixed' case: *נָשׂוּי, נְשׂוּיָה* 'married'.

The root classification: נח"ל"י

When the third root consonant is ם, it is realized as the vowel *e* or *a* in final position, where it is represented in the spelling as ה'י, whereas elsewhere, it is realized as the vowel ם, or is elided before another vowel. This conjugation is called נח"ל"י. It is also commonly known as נח"ל"י because of the final ה'י of the citation form.

to buy לקנות				
<u>Root classification</u>		<u>Verbal noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
<u>ל"ו</u>		קונה	לקנות	ק-נ-ה
Present	הם	היא	הוא	אתה
<i>Pa'al</i>	קונים	קונה	קונה	קונה
Past	קניתי	קניתה	קניתי	קניתי
Future	קנה	תקנה	תקנה	תקנה
Imperative		אתם/	את	אתה
		קנו!	קני!	קנה!

Note that in the third person feminine of the past tense, elision of the stem vowel would have merged the form with the masculine counterpart, קנה. To prevent that, the historical feminine ת resurfaces, resulting in קנתה.

Marginal root class: ע"ו

In some roots, the second and third root consonants are identical. In *pa'al*, most of them behave like regular verbs in current usage, e.g., תגתתי 'I celebrated' from the root ח-ג-ח, but a few maintain a separate form in which the two identical consonants are merged, e.g., תנתי 'I pardoned' from ח-נ-ח.

For full conjugation see Appendix 1.

4.1.3 Associated meanings

As noted above, *pa'al* verbs can be classified into two major groups, verbs of action and stative verbs, but it is hard to go into any further semantic classification, since *pa'al* is the major default verb conjugation, and the meanings of other *binyanim* are often described in relation to the *pa'al* pattern.

4.2 Nif'al

The conjugation *ni-* to facilitate the stem. Its nasal form, its 'c' maintained the first consonant of the infinitive, and occurs at the end of the *ti+n+gamer* In the imperative

...i-
Stem of the i

hi-

Thus, instead of the future, imperative *hazak* in the first person singular, the prefix consonant is visible. When the pronoun subject of the first person singular is:

The 'n' does not appear sometimes even

4.2.1 Regular

Regular verbs and their verb forms.

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
לקנות	ק-נ-ה
הוא	אתה
קונה	קונה
קוני	קוני
קנה	קנית
קנה?	תקנה
את	אתה
קני!	קנה!

past tense, elision of the n with the masculine feminine ת' resurfaces,

consonants are identical. In current usage, e.g., few maintain a separate merged, e.g., תנתי '1

into two major groups, d to go into any further e major default verb m are often described in

4.2 Nif'al conjugation

בנין נפעל

The conjugation *nif'al* נפעל is identified by a prefix, *n* (realized as *ni-* to facilitate pronunciation), that is part of its past and present tense stem. Its name reflects the third person singular masculine past tense form, its 'citation form': *ni+CCaC* נִפְעַל. The *ni-* prefix is not maintained throughout the conjugation. Its *n* is totally assimilated into the first consonant of the stem in the future, the imperative, and in the infinitive, and the vowel pattern changes. It is assimilated because it occurs at the end of the syllable in these sub-conjugations (e.g., *ti+n+gamer > tiggamer > tigamer* – cf. *n* assimilation in *pa'al* above). In the imperative and infinitive forms, there emerges an initial ה' prefix.

<u>Stem of future</u>		<u>Stem of past and present</u>
<i>...i+shamer</i>	יִשְׁמַר	<i>ni+shmar</i> נִשְׁמַר/נִשְׁמְרָה
<u>Stem of the imperative and infinitive</u>		
<i>hi+shamer</i>	הִשְׁמַר	

Thus, instead of *niCCaC* נִפְעַל of the past and present, the stem of the future, imperative and infinitive is *(hi)-CaCeC* (ה-פְעַל). The *dagesh hazak* in the first root letter was intended to compensate for the loss of the prefix consonant *n*. When the text has vowels, the *dagesh hazak* is visible. When the text has no vowels, the letter ׀ is inserted after the pronoun subject prefix to reflect the vowel *i* (This, of course, excludes the first person singular personal pronoun, as the vowel of that prefix is *e*):

לְהִפְגִּים	הִפְגִּים	תִּפְגִּים
לְהִיכַנס	הִיכַנס	תִּיכַנס

The ׀ does not form part of the *nif'al* pattern but is inserted for clarity, sometimes even in vowelled texts, to indicate the *i* vowel.

4.2.1 Regular verbs

שלמים

Regular verbs are verbs in which the root consonants are present in all verb forms.

Present tense

זמן הווה

The present tense forms have a *ni-* prefix, which identifies them as *nif'al* verbs. The stem vowel is קמץ *a* with the exception of the feminine form.

להזכר ב to recall

יחיד/ה :	(אני, אתה, הוא) נזכר ; (אני, את, היא) נזכרת
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) נזכרים ; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) נזכרות

In the singular forms the stress of the word is maintained on the second vowel of the verb form: *nizkar*, and *nizkéret*. In the plural form the stress shifts to the last vowel of the word: *nizkarim* and *nizkarót*. The second vowel (or stem vowel) remains *a*, and doesn't change to *e* with the movement of the stress.

Past tense

זמן עבר

The past tense forms also have a *ni-* prefix, which identifies them as *nif'al* verbs. The stem vowel is פתח *a*, with the exception of the forms that end in a vowel.

יחיד/ה :	(אני) נזכרתי, (אתה) נזכרת, (את) נזכרת,
	הוא נזכר, היא נזכרה
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו) נזכרנו, (אתם) נזכרתם, (אתן) נזכרתן,
	הם נזכרו, הן נזכרו

The stem of the past tense shares the citation form *niCCáC-*. It has a variant *niCCeC-* (the second *shva* is pronounced *e*), resulting from reduction of *a* to *e* when the stress shifts to the last syllable of an added vowel suffix (feminine and plural markers of the third person).

Future tense

זמן עתיד

In the future tense the *ni-* prefix is not present, and instead we find the stem *i(e) + CaCeC-*. As noted above, the *n* was there historically, but as in other similar environments was assimilated into the subsequent consonant, resulting in a *dagesh hazak* when the letter is not guttural (guttural letters required that the previous vowel be lengthened instead). It has a variant *-iCaCC-* when the stress shifts to the last

syllable (fem
deletion of th

As noted abo
form like כרי
will recall' in
and תזכרי

The imperat

The Imperati
addition is pr

Recall!

Beware! Wat
Often a ם is in

The future for
often for posit
Come in, imm
Don't enter th

Limited use

Directives can
meaning:

Come in!

Beware!

but not when i

Get broken!

Be written!

The infinitive

The infinitive
this case the st

זמן הווה

which identifies them as the exception of the

יחיד/ה :	(אני, אתה)
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו, אתם)

maintained on the second. In the plural form the *tarim* and *nizkarót*. The doesn't change to *e* with

זמן עבר

which identifies them as exception of the forms

יחיד/ה :	(אני) נזכרתי, (אתה) נזכרת
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו) נזכרנו, (אתם) נזכרתם

form *niCCáC-*. It has a (preceded *e*), resulting from the last syllable of an added (third person).

זמן עתיד

and instead we find the *ts* there historically, but *ts* ended into the subsequent *ts* the letter is not guttural the vowel be lengthened the stress shifts to the last

syllable (feminine and plural markers of the third person), reflecting deletion of the last stem vowel.

יחיד/ה :	(אני) אֶזְכֹּר, (אתה) תִּזְכֹּר, (את) תִּזְכְּרִי,
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו) נִזְכֹּר, (אתם) תִּזְכְּרוּ, (אתן) תִּזְכְּרֶנָּה, הם יִזְכְּרוּ, הן יִזְכְּרֶנָּה

As noted above, the *ts* is usually present, as in תִּזְכֹּר. Without the *ts* a form like תִּזְכְּרִי can be read as 'you will remember' in *pa'al*, or 'you will recall' in *nif'al*. There is no confusion if the *pa'al* form is written תִּזְכֹּר and the *nif'al* form is written תִּזְכְּרִי.

The imperative mood

ציווי

The Imperative shares part of the stem with the future tense, and in addition is preceded by the prefix *hiCaCeC* (*hiCaCC-*)

Recall!	הִזְכֵּר! (הזכר)
Beware! Watch out! Be careful!	הִזְהַר! (הזהר)
Often a <i>ts</i> is inserted after the prefix:	הִזְכְּרִי! (הזכרי)

The future forms are used with negative commands, and in daily speech often for positive commands as well.

Come in, immediately!	תִּפְנֵסוּ מִיָּד!
Don't enter the room!	אַל תִּפְנֵסוּ לַחֲדָר!

Limited use

Directives can occur in *nif'al* only when the verb has an active meaning:

Come in!	הִפְנֵס!
Beware!	הִזְהַר!

but not when it has a passive meaning:

Get broken!	הִשְׁבַּר!
Be written!	הִכְתַּב!

The infinitive mood

שם הפועל

The infinitive has the same stem as the future and imperative; in fact, in this case the stem is identical to the imperative stem: לְהִכְנִיס 'to enter'.

I don't like recalling that story. אני לא אוהב להיזכר באותו סיפור.
 It is impossible to come in; the opening is too narrow. אי אפשר להיכנס, הפתח צר מדי.
 He needs to beware of them. הוא צריך להזהר מהם.

The infinitive form can also be translated by the gerund 'doing' (rather than by 'to do'), though not as commonly:

Entering his house is like entering a bank. להיכנס אליו הביתה זה כמו להיכנס לבנק.

Verbal noun

שם הפעולה

Not all verbs can generate a related verbal noun. Most *nif'al* verbal nouns use the same stem as the infinitive, plus the abstract nominalization suffix *-ut*. It is always a feminine noun. In these verbal noun forms, the *e* vowel of the stem (of the infinitive, future and imperative) is deleted:

	Verbal noun	Infinitive	Citation form
running into	התקלות	להתקל ב	נתקל ב
state of readiness	הערכות	להערכ ל	נערכ ל

Some forms of the verbal noun are based on the present tense stem:

	Verbal noun		Stem form
determination	נהקצות	determined	נהקצ
willingness, readiness	נכונות	correct	נכון

Some verbal nouns whose base is *nif'al* are realized in other patterns:

	Verbal noun		Stem form
entrance, entry	כניסה	enter, come in	כנס
caution	זהירות	watch out	זהר

Variants with 'ב', 'כ', 'פ'

1. The letters 'ב', 'כ', 'פ' are realized as *b, k, p*

When occurring as the second root consonant in the past and present, or the first root consonant in the future, imperative and infinitive

בינוני: נשבר, נזקר, נתפר
 עבר: נשבר, נזקר, נתפר
 עתיד: תבדק, תפגש, תכנס
 ציווי: הבדק, הפגש, הכנס
 שם הפועל: להבדק, להפגש, להכנס

2. The letters

i. When it is t

ii. When it imperative, a

Variations w

1. In the futur and there is ne

2. The prefix v from *ni-* to *ne-* 'echo' vowel n exception (in m

3. When the s is replaced by (feminine sing and in the sec second person

4.2.2 Irregu

Irregular verbs are missing, al

The root clas

When the first replaced by the converted to the

2. The letters 'פ, כ, ב' are realized as *v, kh, f*

i. When it is the first root consonant in the present and past

בינוני: נִבְחַן, נִכְנַס, נִפְתַּח

עבר: נִבְחַן, נִכְנַס, נִפְתַּח

ii. When it is the second or third root consonant in the future, imperative, and infinitive

עתיד: תִּשְׁבֵּר, תִּזְכֹּר, תִּשְׁפֹּט

עתיד: יִגְבֹּה, תִּשְׁרֹפֵי, יִשְׁפֹּכוּ

שם הפועל: לְהִשְׁבֵּר, לְהִזְכֹּר, לְהִשְׁפֹּט

Variations with guttural radicals

1. In the future, imperative and infinitive, the prefix vowel is always *e* and there is no *dagesh hazak* in the guttural consonants: לְהִתְחַשֵּׁב.

2. The prefix vowel of *nif'al ni-* in the past and present tenses changes from *ni-* to *ne-* when the first consonant of the verb is ע, ח, ה, א. An 'echo' vowel replaces the zero vowel of the first consonant, with the exception (in non-formal usage) of first radical ח:

הוא נִאֶלַץ; הוא נִהְנֶה; הוא נִעָדַר; הוא נִחְשַׁב

3. When the second letter is 'guttural', the expected zero vowel (*shva*) is replaced by a *hataf patah* in the third person of the past tense (feminine singular, and plural); in the second person singular feminine and in the second and third person plural of the future tense; and in second person singular feminine and plural of the imperative:

נִחְרַתְּ, נִחְרַתְּ, נִחְרַתְּ, נִחְרַתְּ, נִחְרַתְּ, נִחְרַתְּ

4.2.2 Irregular Verbs

גזרות חסרים ונחים

Irregular verbs are verbs in which one or more of the roots consonants are missing, altered or remain silent.

The root classification: נח"י פ"י

When the first consonant of the root is י, it is never deleted; it is replaced by the vowel *o* in the present and in the past tenses, and is converted to the consonant ו in the rest of the conjugation.

אני לא אוהב להיזכר באותו
אי אפשר להיכנס, הפתח צ

הוא צריך להיזכר מהם.

gerund 'doing' (rather

להיכנס אליו הביתה זה כנ
לבנק.

שם הפעולה

un. Most *nif'al* verbal
e, plus the abstract
e noun. In these verbal
infinitive, future and

Citation form

נִתְקַלַּב

נִעָדַד ל

present tense stem:

Stem form

undined נִחְרַחַץ

ct נִכּוּן

ized in other patterns:

Stem form

ater, come in נִכְנַס

watch out נִחָר

the past and present, or
e and infinitive

בינוני: נִשְׁבֵּר, נִזְכֹּר, נִתְפָּר

עבר: נִשְׁבֵּר, נִזְכֹּר, נִתְפָּר

עתיד: תִּבְדֹּק, תִּפְגֹּשׁ, תִּכְנַס

ציווי: הִבְדֵּק, הִפְגֵּשׁ, הִכְנַס

שם הפועל: לְהִבְדֵּק, לְהִפְגֵּשׁ

להולד to be born

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Verbal noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
	<u>נחי פ"י</u>	הולדות	י-ל-ד
	<u>הם</u>	<u>היא</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Present	נולדים	נולדת	נולד
Past	נולדו	נולדה	נולדת
Future	ינלדו	תנלד	תנלד

The root classification: נחי ל"א

The final consonant א is always silent in forms that end the word or syllable, or precede another consonant that ends the syllable:

1. The past tense first and second stem, and third person masculine singular: נקרא, נקראת (תי/ת/נו/תם/תו), נקרא. Note: before a consonant, $a > e$.
2. The present tense singular: נקרא, נקראת
3. The future, imperative, and infinitive stem (except for forms that end in a suffix vowel): (ה)קרא

להקרא to be read/named

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Verbal noun</u>	<u>infinitive</u>	<u>root</u>
<u>נחי ל"א</u>	הקראות	להקרא	ק-ר-א
	<u>הם</u>	<u>הוא</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Present	נקראים	נקראת	נקרא
Past	נקראו	נקראה	נקראת
Future	יקראו	תקרא	תקרא
	<u>אתם/ן</u>	<u>את</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Imperative	הקראו!	הקראי!	הקרא!

The root classification: נחי ל"י

When the third root consonant is י, it is realized as the vowel e or a in final position, where it is represented in the spelling as ה. Elsewhere, it is realized as the vowel i , ey , in the past tense: נקראתי, or in the singular feminine present tense היא נקראת. The final stem vowel is elided before a final vowel when a suffix is added, such as in הם יקנו, הם יקנו, and a תי separates the feminine נבנתה form from נבנה.

Root classification
נחי ל"י

Present
Past
Future

Imperative

*The associated
The *nif'al* form
contemporary I

Combined in

The verb נקראת
gutturals with ת

Root classification
נחי ל"י

Present
Past
Future

Imperative

*While the verb
and associated v

Marginal root

In a few verbs
consonant when
reflected in a
survived'.

In the literary reg
'I retreated', ו

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
להולד	י-ל-ד
הוא	אתה
נולד	נולד
נולד	נולדת
ינלד	תנלד

s that end the word or the syllable:

person masculine
before a consonant, $a > e$.

cept for forms that end

<u>infinitive</u>	<u>root</u>
להקרא	ק-ר-א
הוא	אתה
יקרא	יקרא
יקרא	יקראת
יקרא	תקרא
את	אתה
הקראי	הקראי

d as the vowel e or a in
lling as ה. Elsewhere, it
יקראת, or in the singular
vowel is elided before
הם, יקנו, and a

להבנות to be built

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Associated noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
<u>נחי ל"י</u>	הבנות/בניה*	להבנות	ב-נ-י
	הם	הוא	אתה
Present	נבנים	נבנה	נבנה
Past	נבנו	נבנתה	נבנית
Future	יבנו	תבנה	תבנה
		אתם/את	אתה
Imperative		הבני!	הבנה!

*The associated noun is often the verbal noun of the *pa'al* conjugation. The *nif'al* form of the verbal noun is הבנות, but it is rarely used in contemporary Hebrew.

Combined initial guttural and ל"י verb:

The verb להנות 'to enjoy' combines the features of verbs with initial gutturals with those of נחי ל"י verbs.

להנות/להנות להנות to enjoy

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Associated noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
<u>נחי ל"י</u>	הנאה*	להנות	ה-נ-י
	הם	הוא	אתה
Present	נהנים	נהנה	נהנה
Past	נהנו	נהנתה	נהנית
Future	ינהנו	תנהנה	תנהנה
		אתם/את	אתה
Imperative		הקני!	הקנה!

*While the verbal noun form הנות exists, the noun commonly used and associated with this verb is הנאה 'enjoyment'.

Marginal root classes: חרי פ"נ, ע"ו, ע"ע

In a few verbs, the first נ of the stem is assimilated to the next consonant when it occurs in syllable-final position, and its loss is reflected in a *dagesh hazak*, e.g., from נ-צ-ל, נצצתי 'I survived'.

In the literary register, some ע"ו forms survived, e.g., from ס-ו-ג, נסוגתי 'I retreated', נסוג 'he retreated'. There are also some high register

residues of ע"ע verbs, e.g., from נָסַבְתִּי ס-ב-ב 'I turned', נָסַב 'he turned'.

See Appendix 1

4.2.3 Associated meanings

In contemporary Hebrew *nif'al* generally refers to either one of two meanings – passive or inchoative (denoting a change of state). In a few cases, it also carries a reciprocal meaning. The focus of most *nif'al* verbs is on the recipient of the action.

a. Passive meaning

There are several verbs in *nif'al* which are counterparts of transitive verbs, usually in *pa'al*.

Active meaning

Dan sent the letter only yesterday. דן שלח את המכתב רק אתמול.

Passive meaning

The letter was sent only yesterday. המכתב נשלח רק אתמול.

When a *nif'al* verb carries a passive meaning, the grammatical subject of the sentence is the recipient of the action, rather than the agent that performs the action.

The minimal components of a sentence with a passive verb are the subject of the verb, which is the recipient of the action, and the *nif'al* passive verb:

פעל (פעיל) נושא : דן נפעל (סביל) נושא : המכתב
 דן שלח את המכתב. < המכתב נשלח.

The presence or absence of an agent (the one performing the act) is dependent on the context. There are many instances where the agent is as important a focus as the recipient, and thus is included in the passive sentence as well, as an indirect object.

Agent: subject

The police interrogated suspects. המשטרה חקרה חשודים.

Agent: Indirect object

The suspects were interrogated by the police. החשודים נחקרו על ידי המשטרה.

b. Inchoative

Inchoative v
 to a state o
 change of s
 agent causin
 Dan remem
 close the do
 The patient
 difficult treat

Thus, in a s
 breaking is
 cannot make
 have been in

A comparat

In both Hebr
 the subject o
 be realized a
 form with a p
 The shops ne

The result of
 the passive p
 The shops are
 Tuesday after

The *nif'al* f
 participle יעיל
 person who
 undergoing it
 meanings of A
 to register hin

Dan is registe
 Joseph leaned

b. Inchoative (change of state) meaning

Inchoative verbs involve a change of state, e.g. going from wakefulness to a state of sleep, as expressed in a verb like 'fall asleep' נָרַדַם. A change of state may be 'involuntary'; the process happens without an agent causing it, or without mentioning who caused it.

Dan remembered that he forgot to close the door. דָּן נִזְכַּר שֶׁהוּא שָׁכַח לְסַגּוֹר אֶת הַדֶּלֶת.

The patient weakened after the difficult treatment. הַחוּלָה נַחְלַשׁ אַחֲרֵי הַטִּיפּוֹל הַקָּשָׁה.

Thus, in a sentence like הַזְּגָגִית נִשְׁבְּרָה 'the window pane broke', the breaking is assumed to have occurred on its own. In Hebrew you cannot make an agent out of an inanimate object. Even if someone may have been involved, their role is not the focus of the statement.

A comparative note

In both Hebrew and English the recipient of the action may actually be the subject of the proposition, but in addition, in English, the verb can be realized as an active verb, whereas in Hebrew it is stated by a *nif'al* form with a passive meaning.

The shops never close. הַחַנוּיּוֹת אֵין פִּעֵם לֹא נִסְגָּרוֹת.

The result of the action is stated in Hebrew not in *nif'al*, but rather in the passive participle of *pa'al*:

The shops are closed every Tuesday afternoon. הַחַנוּיּוֹת נִסְגָּרוֹת כָּל יוֹם שְׁלִישִׁי אַחֲרֵי הַצֹּהֲרָיִים.

The *nif'al* form describes the process, whereas the *pa'al* passive participle בִּינוּנִי פְעוּל describes the state resulting from that process. The person who is causing the action may be at the same time the one undergoing it, in which case the verb is referred to as 'reflexive' (cf. the meanings of *hitpa'el* below). In the illustrations below, Dan can be said to register himself for school, and Joseph to lean himself on the wall.

Dan is registering for school today. דָּן נִרְשֵׁם לְלִימוּדִים הַיּוֹם.

Joseph leaned on the wall. יוֹסֵף נִשְׁעַן עַל הַקִּיר.

4.3 Pi`el conjugation

בניין פיעל

The *CiCeC* sequence characterizes the stem of the third person masculine singular form in the past tense and gives it its name. The vowel sequence *i-e* (with its variants) provides the stem for the past tense. This includes a *dagesh hazak* in the second consonant, e.g. הוא דָּבַר. In other tenses and moods the vowel sequence is *a-e*: דֹּבֵר. The *dagesh hazak*, which is part of the pattern, exists in all forms of the various tenses and moods, with the exception of the ‘guttural’ consonants (א, ה, ח, ע, ר), where a *dagesh* can never be present.

A historical note

The presence of the *dagesh hazak* is a historical residue of the doubled (geminated) second radical, which originally marked the doubling of the length of a consonant. Today this feature is no longer in effect phonetically, but the *dagesh hazak* is still part of the pattern of the verb, which also means that when the consonant concerned is פ, כ, ב, it is always realized as a stop, *b, p, k*.

4.3.1 Regular verbs

שלמים

The group of regular verbs is composed of verbs in which all the root consonants are present in all the verb forms.

Present tense

זמן הווה

The present tense of this conjugation pattern has a *me-* prefix, which marks it for present tense.

יחיד/ה:	(אני, אתה, הוא) מְדַבֵּר ; (אני, את, היא) מְדַבֶּרֶת
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) מְדַבְּרִים ; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) מְדַבְּרוֹת

Note

The prefix *-מ* is typical to all verb pattern groups, except for *pa`al* and *nif`al*.

The present tense forms of *pi`el* not only act as verbs, but generate many adjectives and nouns.

Here are some adjectives that have *pi`el* present tense forms:

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Citation form</u>	<u>Root</u>
fascinating	מרתק	fascinate	רתק	ר-ת-ק
reinforcing	מחזק	reinforce	חזק	ח-ז-ק
fantastic	משגע	drive mad	שגע	ש-ג-ע

Speakers add new adjectives constantly, e.g.:

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Citation form</u>	<u>Root</u>
astonishing	מהמם	shock	המם	ה-מ-מ

Here are some nouns that have *pi`el* present tense forms:

	<u>Noun</u>		<u>Citation form</u>	<u>Root</u>
immigrant	מהגר	immigrate	הגר	ה-ג-ר
trainer/coach	מאמן	train	אמן	א-מ-נ
narrator	מספר	tell, narrate	ספר	ס-פ-ר
gambler	מהמר	gamble	המר	ה-מ-ר

Past tense

The past tense of *pi`el* has three stem variants:

Masculine singular 3rd person:

diber דִּבֵּר

1st and 2nd person forms:

dibar- דִּבַּרְ-

3rd person feminine singular and plural (stem vowel deleted when stress moves to suffix):

dibr- דִּבְרְ-

to speak; to talk לְדַבֵּר

יחיד/ה: (אני) דִּבַּרְתִּי, (אתה) דִּבַּרְתָּ, (את) דִּבַּרְתְּ,
הוא דִּבֵּר, היא דִּבְרָה
רבים/ות: (אנחנו) דִּבַּרְנוּ, (אתם) דִּבַּרְתֶּם, (אתן) דִּבַּרְתֶּן,
הם דִּבְרוּ, הן דִּבְרוּ

The vowel stem *i* is indicated by the frequent addition of ם following the first consonant: דיבר. It is added not only to indicate the stem vowel, but also to further clarify the difference between *pi`el* verbs and *pa`al* verbs, such as between סיפר 'recounted/told' and ספר 'counted'. The ם is often inserted even in texts with vowels.

Future ten

The future te

1. In all first person plural
2. In the second and third person moves to suffix

The impera

The imperati

Future forms

The infiniti

The *pi`el* im
imperative: ך

I want to talk
happened yet
Talking to h
wall.

Verbal nou

The *pi`el* ver
second vowe

Gerund

שִׁדוֹר

שִׁדוֹר

Citation form	Root
רתק	ר-ת-ק
חזק	ח-ז-ק
שגע	ש-ג-ע

Citation form	Root
המם	ה-מ-מ

e forms:

Citation form	Root
הגר	ה-ג-ר
אמן	א-מ-נ
ספר	ס-פ-ר
המר	ה-מ-ר

זמן עבר

<i>diber</i>	דָּבַר
<i>dibar-</i>	דִּבַּרְתָּ
<i>dibr-</i>	דִּבַּרְתָּ

יחיד/ה:	(אני) דִּבַּרְתִּי, (את)
	הוא דִּבַּר, היא דִּבְרָה
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו) דִּבַּרְנוּ, (אתם)
	הם דִּבְרוּ, הן דִּבְרוּ (תִּדְבְּרֶנָּה)

addition of ם following y to indicate the stem between *pi`el* verbs and 'old' and ספר 'counted'.

Future tense

The future tense of *pi`el* has two stem variants:

1. In all first and second person singulars and first person plurals
2. In the second person feminine singular and second and third person plural (stem vowel deleted when stress moves to suffix)

זמן עתיד

-daber	דָּבַר
-dabr-	דִּבְרֶנָּה

יחיד/ה:	(אני) אֶדְבַּר, (אתה) תִּדְבַּר, (את) תִּדְבְּרִי, הוא יִדְבַּר, היא תִּדְבְּרִי
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו) נִדְבַּר, (אתם) תִּדְבְּרוּ, (אתן) תִּדְבְּרוּ (תִּדְבְּרֶנָּה), הם יִדְבְּרוּ, הן יִדְבְּרוּ (תִּדְבְּרֶנָּה)

The imperative mood

The imperative shares the same stem with the future tense.

דָּבַר! דִּבְרִי! דְּבְרוּ! (תִּדְבְּרֶנָּה)

Future forms used for negative and positive ones in speech:

אל תִּדְבַּר!	תִּדְבְּרִי!
אל תִּדְבְּרִי!	תִּדְבְּרוּ!

ציווי

The infinitive mood

The *pi`el* infinitive uses the same stem as the present, future, and imperative: לְדַבֵּר, לְתַאֵר, לְשַׁמֵּחַ.

שם הפועל

I want to talk to him about what happened yesterday. אני רוצה לְדַבֵּר איתו על מה שקרה אתמול.
 Talking to him is like talking to the wall. לְדַבֵּר איתו זה כמו לְדַבֵּר אל הקיר.

Verbal noun

The *pi`el* verbal noun uses a form similar to the 'citation form', but the second vowel is *u* rather than *e*:

שם הפעולה

Gerund	Stem	Gerund	Stem
שִׁדוּר	שִׁדַּר	סִדוּר	סִדַּר
שִׁדוּר	שִׁדַּר	סִדוּר	סִדַּר

Variants with ב', כ', פ'

1. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as *b, k, p*

i. When it is the first root letter in the past and imperative:

עבר: בָּקַר, פָּזַר, כָּנַס

ציווי: בְּקַר! פְּזַר! כְּנַס!

ii. When it is the second root letter in all tenses and moods:

עבר: דָּבַר, סָכַם, סָפַר

הווה: מְדַבֵּר, מְסַכֵּם, מְסַפֵּר

עתיד: יְדַבֵּר, יְסַכֵּם, יְסַפֵּר

ציווי: דַּבֵּר! סַכֵּם! סַפֵּר!

שם הפועל: לְדַבֵּר, לְסַכֵּם, לְסַפֵּר

2. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as *v, kh, f*

i. When it is the first root letter, preceded by a prefix: in the present, future, and infinitive.

הווה: מְבַקֵּר, מְפַזֵּר, מְכַנֵּס

עתיד: אֲבַקֵּר, אֲפַזֵּר, אֲכַנֵּס

שם הפועל: לְבַקֵּר, לְפַזֵּר, לְכַנֵּס

ii. Whenever it is the last letter in the word or root:

מְבַרֵּךְ, מְגַרְפֵּים, סַרְבָּה

Variations with 'guttural' consonants א', ע', ה', ר'

1. When the second root letter is א' or ר', the first vowel *i* is replaced by *e* in the past tense and in the verbal noun: בָּכַר, תָּאָר; בָּרַר, תָּאָר

2. When the second root letter is a guttural, the expected zero vowel (*shva*) is replaced by a *hataf patah*: יִנְחֹלֵי, מְנַחֲלִים, יִנְחֹלֵי when the verb form ends in a stressed suffix vowel.

3. When the second root letter is א' or ר', the *patah* under the first one is replaced by a *kamats*, but the pronunciation remains the same: מְתָאָר, מְגַרְשׁ, מְבַרֵּךְ

4. When the third root letter is ח', ע' and no suffix is appended, the normative form has the stem vowel *a*: שָׁעַע, יִפְתַּח; however in common speech the second stem vowel changes to *e* and a 'furtive' *patah* is inserted, as in שָׁעַע, יִפְתַּח. The form with a furtive *patah* is the only option in the present tense: מְשַׁעֵּעַ, מְפַתַּח (note: fem. מְשַׁעֵּעַת).

4.3.2 Irregu**The root cla**

Verbs that be
consonants. T

Some of the y

Gloss

sharpen
warm up
cool down
embitter

The root clas

In *pi'el*, *pu'al*
ones, and unde
and merged עיי
medial consona

Gloss

spin around
incite

Note

Some עיי/עיי n
regular verb in
consonant. The

Examples**Gloss**

fulfill, realize
incite, arouse

Gloss

aim, direct
found, establish

The root class

When the third r
the syllable, alth

4.3.2 Irregular Verbs

גזרות חסרים ונחים

The root classification: ע"ע

Verbs that belong to this group have identical second and third root consonants. They are conjugated as regular verbs.

Some of the ע"ע roots are derived from bi-consonantal adjectives:

Gloss	Infinitive	Future	Present	Past	ע"ע	שם תואר
sharpen	לְחַדֵּד	יְחַדֵּד	מְחַדֵּד	חִדַּד	ח-ד-ד	חד <
warm up	לְחַמֵּם	יְחַמֵּם	מְחַמֵּם	חָמַם	ח-מ-מ	חם <
cool down	לְקַרֵּר	יְקַרֵּר	מְקַרֵּר	קָרַר	ק-ר-ר	קר <
embitter	לְמַרֵּר	יְמַרֵּר	מְמַרֵּר	מָרַר	מ-ר-ר	מר <

The root classification: merger of ע"ו/ע"י with ע"ע

In *pi'el*, *pu'al* and *hitpa'el* ע"ו/ע"י verbs behave as if they were ע"ע ones, and undergo some additional changes. For both original ע"ע verbs and merged ע"ו/ע"י ones, the final root consonant is duplicated, and the medial consonant ו or י is replaced by the vowel o.

Gloss	Infinitive	Future	Present	Past	ע"ע	ע"ו/ע"י
spin around	לְסוּבֵב	יְסוּבֵב	מְסוּבֵב	סוּבַב	ס-ב-ב	(ס-ו-ב)
incite	לְקוֹמֵם	יְקוֹמֵם	מְקוֹמֵם	קוֹמַם	ק-מ-מ	ק-ו-מ

Note

Some ע"ו/ע"י roots have two forms of *pi'el*: one is conjugated as a regular verb in *pi'el*, and the medial semi-vowel ו or י is realized as a consonant. The other follows the merged ע"ע/ע"ו/ע"י pattern above.

Examples

Gloss	Infinitive	Citation form	Pi'el root	Source
fulfill, realize	לְקַיֵּם	קַיֵּם	ק-י-מ	ק-ו-מ
incite, arouse	לְקוֹמֵם	קוֹמֵם	ק-מ-מ	ק-ו-מ

Gloss	Infinitive	Citation form	Pi'el root	Source
aim, direct	לְכוּן	כוּן	כ-ו-נ	כ-ו-נ
found, establish	לְכוּנֵן	כוּנֵן	כ-נ-נ	כ-ו-נ

The root classification: נח"י ל"א

When the third root consonant is א, it is not pronounced at the end of the syllable, although it is maintained in the spelling.

למלא to fill up

Root classification	Verbal noun		Infinitive	Root
<u>נחי ל"י</u>	מלוי/מלואים		למלא	מ-ל-א
	<u>הם</u>	<u>היא</u>	<u>הוא</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Present	ממלאים	ממלאת	ממלא	ממלא
Past	מלאו	מלאה	מלא	מלאת
Future	ימלאו	תמלא	ימלא	תמלא
		<u>אתם/</u>	<u>את</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Imperative		מלאו!	מלאי!	מלא!

The root classification: נחי ל"י

When the third root consonant is ׀, it is realized as the vowel *e* or *a* in final position, where it is represented in the spelling as ה׀, whereas elsewhere, it is realized as the vowel ׀ *i*, or is elided before another vowel.

לגלות to discover/reveal

Root classification	Verbal noun		Infinitive	Root
<u>נחי ל"י</u>	גלוי		לגלות	ג-ל-י
	<u>הם</u>	<u>היא</u>	<u>הוא</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Present	מגלים	מגלה	מגלה	מגלה
Past	גלו	גלתה	גלה	גלית
Future	יגלו	תגלה	יגלה	תגלה
		<u>אתם/</u>	<u>את</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Imperative		גלו!	גלי!	גלה!

4.3.3 Derived and newly created verbs

New verbal roots can be created for *pi`el*, which is a very productive *binyan*. There are various ways of creating such new roots, most of which are listed below.

Three-consonantal verbs derived from nouns:

Several agentive verbs (where the subject of the verb is the one carrying out the action) with tri-consonantal roots were and are continuing to be derived from existing nouns, as in:

	Citation form		Noun Stem
place	מקם (מיקם)	place	מקום (ז)
report	דנח (דיווח)	report	דוח (ז)
mechanize	מכנ (מיכנ)	machine	מכונה (נ)
file	תיק (תייק)	file	תיק (ז)

Derived fou

Most Hebrew earlier stages in *pi`el*: provide liveli

However, mo words or roots stem syllable,

a. First stem

Root classifica
(משוכפלים)

Present

Past

Future

Imperative

b. Four-cons

Another way four consonar

Verb meaning

interest

calculate

ensure, obtain

c. Verbs deri

The consonar that are realiz

telephone

hypnotize

fantasize

flirt

Derived four-consonantal verbs

Most Hebrew verbs can be traced to three-consonant roots, but even at earlier stages of the language, some four-letter roots can be attested, all in *pi`el*:

provide livelihood פָּרַחַס פָּרַחַס gnaw פָּרַחַס פָּרַחַס

However, most four-consonant verbs were derived from pre-existing words or roots. The oldest historical method was to reduplicate the first stem syllable, as in גָּלְגַל 'roll (tr.)', בָּלְבַל 'confuse'.

a. First stem syllable reduplication:

to roll גָּלְגַל

Root classification	Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
<u>מְרֻבְעִים (משוכפלים)</u>	גָּלְגוּל	לְגַלֵּג	ג-ל-ג-ל
	הֵם	הוּא	אֲתָה
Present	מְגַלְגֵּלִים	מְגַלְגֵּל	מְגַלְגֵּל
Past	גָּלְגַל	גָּלַג	גָּלְגַלְתָּ
Future	יְגַלְגַּל	יְגַלְגַּל	תְּגַלְגַּל
	אֲתָם/ן	אֲתָ	אֲתָה
Imperative	גָּלְגַּלְוּ!	גָּלְגַּלְיָ!	גָּלְגַּלְיָ!

b. Four-consonantal verbs derived from existing nouns

Another way is to derive such verbs from existing nouns with (at least) four consonants:

Verb meaning	Citation form	Root	Base Noun
interest	עִנְיָן	ע-נ-י-נ	matter עִנְיָן
calculate	חֲשׁוֹן	ח-ש-ב-נ	calculation חֲשׁוֹן
ensure, obtain	שָׂרְיָן	ש-ר-י-נ	armor שָׂרְיָן

c. Verbs derived from foreign words:

The consonants of the foreign words are adapted into root consonants that are realized in the *pi`el* four or five consonantal pattern:

	Citation form		New root	
telephone	טֵלֶפֶן / טֵלֶפֶן	←	ט-ל-פ-נ	טֵלֶפֶן
hypnotize	הִפְנוֹט	←	ה-פ-נ-ט	הִפְנוֹטָה
fantasize	פְּנִיזָה	←	פ-נ-ט-ז	פְּנִיזָה
flirt	פְּלִרְטָה	←	פ-ל-ר-ט-ט	פְּלִרְטָה

Infinitive	Root
לְמַלֵּא	מ-ל-א
הוּא	אֲתָה
מְמַלֵּא	מְמַלֵּא
מֵלֵא	מְמַלֵּא
יְמַלֵּא	תְּמַלֵּא
אֲתָ	אֲתָה
מְמַלֵּא!	מְמַלֵּא!

as the vowel e or a in spelling as ה', whereas elided before another

Infinitive	Root
לְגַלְתָּ	ג-ל-י
הוּא	אֲתָה
מְגַלְתָּ	מְגַלְתָּ
גָּלַת	גָּלַתְּ
יְגַלְתָּ	תְּגַלְתָּ
אֲתָ	אֲתָה
גָּלַתְּ!	גָּלַתְּ!

ch is a very productive ch new roots, most of

ouns: f the verb is the one roots were and are

Noun Stem
מְקוּם (ז)
דוּחַ (ז)
מְכוּזָה (ט)
תֵּיבָה (ז)

Note

Most recently many new technology terms have been adapted from English. While technical terms are created by the Hebrew Language Academy based on Hebrew roots, these new terms come from the field, and are created by necessity. They often have a short life as the Academy creates the necessary new roots or new technology replaces the existent one, requiring new terms.

refresh	רִפְרֵשׁ	←	ר-פ-ר-ש
compile	קִמְּפֵל	←	ק-מ-פ-ל

Four-consonant roots expanded from three-consonant roots

Some new roots are derived from existing tri-consonantal verbal roots, to which an initial -ש, -ת, -א, or -מ are added as the first consonant, to create a new, but related meaning.

a. Four-consonantal verbs: with -ש as first consonant

Adding an initial -ש as the first consonant, creating a new, but related meaning can create new roots.

<u>Verb meaning</u>	<u>Citation form</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>	
convince	שָׁכַנַע	ש-כ-נ-ע	surrender	נָכַנַע	כ-נ-ע
rewrite	שָׁכַתַב	ש-כ-ת-ב	write	כָּתַב	כ-ת-ב
duplicate, photocopy	שָׁכַפַּל	ש-כ-פ-ל	multiply	הִכְפִּיל	כ-פ-ל

b. Four-consonantal verbs: with initial letters מ, א, ת

The prefixes -מ, -א, -ת characterize some new roots, which are either derived directly from existing nouns, or from existing tri-consonantal verbal roots. New verbs are created, and they have a meaning related to their source words.

<u>Verb meaning</u>	<u>Citation form</u>	<u>Root</u>		<u>Noun</u>
drill, exercise	תִּרְגַּל	ת-ר-ג-ל	exercise	תִּרְגִּיל
function	תִּפְקַד	ת-פ-ק-ד	function	תִּפְקִיד
diagnose	אִבְחַן	א-ב-ח-נ	check, test	בְּחִן
refer	אִזְכֵּר	א-ז-כ-ר	mention	הִזְכִּיר
enumerate	מִסְפַּר	מ-ס-פ-ר	number	מִסְפָּר
mortgage	מִשְׁכָּן	מ-ש-כ-נ	mortgage	מִשְׁכָּנָה

4.3.4 Assoc

Pi'el may be
רִבֵּר 'speak'.
rubric; the c
activity, whic
subject of the
The director
he got us goo

The followin
characterize th

a. Causative

The volunteer
patients in ma
The danger ur

b. Repeated

Some *pi'el* ve
action to the
kipets is 'jum
the activity m
'break' שָׁבַר *sh*
accounted for

The clerks sort
We didn't read
leafed through
One preserves

c. Removal

A small group
noun).
One should up
the schools.
We'll remove a

4.3.4 Associated meanings

Pi`el may be either transitive, e.g. סִדֵּר 'arrange', or intransitive, e.g. דִּבֵּר 'speak'. It is difficult to place all the verbs under one semantic rubric; the closest is 'agentive', i.e. the verb designates a voluntary activity, which is initiated and controlled by the 'actor/doctor', who is the subject of the sentence.

The director is a friend of ours and הבמאי חבר שלנו והוא סידר לנו
he got us good tickets for the show. כרטיסים טובים להצגה.

The following subgroups have additional specific features that characterize them.

a. Causative: 'cause to be', or 'cause to become'

The volunteer physicians cure הרופאים המתנדבים מרפאים חולים
patients in many distant villages. בכפרים רחוקים.

The danger unified the family. הסכנה איחדה את המשפחה.

b. Repeated/intensive action

Some *pi`el* verbs that share roots with *pa`al* add the feature of repeated action to the meaning of the verb. Thus, if קָפַץ *kafats* is 'jump', קִפְּץ *kipets* is 'jump again and again, or jump back and forth'. Sometimes the activity may be characterized as intensive, so while שָׁבַר *shavar* is 'break' שִׁבַּר *shiber* is 'smash, shatter'. The intensive activity can also be accounted for by repetition, as 'smash' means 'break again and again'.

The clerks sorted all the files. הפקידים מיינו את כל התיקים.

We didn't read the book - we only לא קראנו את הספר, רק דפדפנו
leafed through it. בו.

One preserves fruit in this manner. משמרים פירות בשיטה זו.

c. Removal

A small group of verbs in *pi`el* refer to removal (often related to a base noun).

One should uproot violence from צריך לשרש את האלימות מבתי הספר.
the schools.

We'll remove all the thugs. נסלק את כל הבריונים.

ve been adapted from
the Hebrew Language
s come from the field,
e a short life as the
w technology replaces

ר-פ-ר-ש

ק-מ-פ-ל

ee-consonant roots

nsantal verbal roots,
the first consonant, to

nsinant

ting a new, but related

Base		Base
כ-נ-ע	נָכַע	כ-נ-ע
כ-ת-ב	כָּתַב	כ-ת-ב
כ-פ-ל	הִכְפִּיל	כ-פ-ל

ת, א, מ

roots, which are either
existing tri-consonantal
ve a meaning related to

Noun		Noun
תַּרְגִּיל	תָּרַגַּל	exercise
תִּפְקִיד	תָּפַקַּד	function
בְּחִן	בָּחַן	check, test
הַזְכִּיר	הִזְכִּיר	mention
מִסְפָּר	מָסַפַּר	number
מִשְׁכָּנָה	מָשַׁכַּנָּה	mortgage

4.4 Pu'al conjugation

בניין פועל

Pi'el and pu'al are related conjugations. All or almost all verbs in pu'al are passive counterparts of existing pi'el verbs, which in itself suggests that pu'al is always pi'el-based. However, not every pi'el verb has a passive counterpart in pu'al. The pu'al stem is characterized by the discontinuous u-a vowel sequence that internally marks it as being passive. The u-a vowel pattern simply replaces the parallel i-e one in the corresponding pi'el form. As in pi'el, the second root consonant is always marked with a dagesh hazak, which is not audible in current Hebrew, but which at least means that when that consonant is one of the letters פ, כ, ב, it is always realized as b, k, p – never v, kh, f.

Pattern	Form	Root	Form	Root
CiCeC	תִּקַּן (תיקן)	ת-ק-נ	סִפַּר (סיפר)	ס-פ-ר
CuCaC	תִּקְוּ (תיקו)		סִפְרוּ (סופרו)	

The dagesh hazak in the second root consonant of the verb is an integral part of the pu'al pattern, just as it is an essential component of pi'el. The only exceptions are the 'guttural' consonants (א, ה, ח, ע, ר), which can never have a dagesh. As noted above, the presence of the dagesh is an historical residuc of the doubling in length of the second root consonant. An important feature of the pu'al conjugation is that it is limited to the tenses only: present, past and future. This verb conjugation does not have the imperative or infinitive moods and does not have a verbal noun. The pi'el infinitive and verbal nouns serve the pu'al conjugation. Due to the passive nature of pu'al, most forms used in the past, present and future tenses are in the third person only. There are only a few verbs that occur in the first and second person also.

4.4.1 Regular verbs

שלמים

The group of regular verbs includes verbs in which all the root consonants are present in all the verb forms.

Present tense

זמן הווה

All present tense forms are marked by a me- prefix.

להיות מסדר to be arranged/ncat

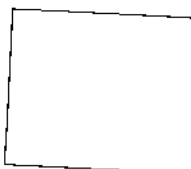
יחיד/ה :	(אני, אתה, הוא) מסדר ; (אני, את, היא) מסדֶרֶת
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) מסדְרִים ; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) מסדְרוֹת

When the t vowel mark is inserted t

Many prese is particular

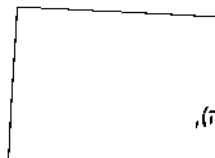
obliged riveted connected signified/mar

Past tense
The past tense In the first and In the third pe



In text without

Future tense
The future tens vowel a is lost



In text without v

בניין פועל

most all verbs in *pu'al* which in itself suggests every *pi'el* verb has a characterized by the ally marks it as being the parallel *i-e* one in second root consonant is not audible in current at consonant is one of - never *v, kh, f*.

Form Root

ספר (סיפר) ס-פ-ר
ספר (סופר) ס-פ-ר

ant of the verb is an essential component of onants (ר', ע', ח', ה', א'), e, the presence of the n length of the second *al* conjugation is that it and future. This verb nitive moods and docs verbal nouns serve the *pu'al*, most forms used hird person only. There cond person also.

שלמים

ch all the root

זמן הווה

refix.

להיווה

יחיד/ה: (אני, אתה)
רבים/ות: (אנחנו, אתן)

When the text is without vowels, the *v* vowel replaces the *kubuts* [] *u* vowel mark. In ordinary writing, even when the texts have vowels, the *v* is inserted to make deciphering this form easier:

מסודר, מסודרת, מסודרים, מסודרות

Many present tense forms of *pu'al* function as adjectives. This pattern is particularly productive in generating new adjectives.

	Adjective		Citation form	Root
obliged	מְחַיֵּב (מחויב)	be obliged	חַיֵּב	ח-י-ב
riveted	מְרַתֵּק (מרותק)	be riveted	רַתֵּק	ר-ת-ק
connected	מְחַבֵּר (מחויבר)	be connected	חַבֵּר	ח-ב-ר
signified/marked	מְסַמֵּן (מסומן)	be marked	סַמֵּן	ס-מ-נ

Past tense

זמן עבר

The past tense of *pu'al* has two variants of the past tense stem:

In the first and second person: *putar-* פְּטַרְ-
In the third person feminine singular and plural: *putr-* פְּטַרְ-

להיות מפטר to be fired

יחיד/ה: (אני) פְּטַרְתִּי, (אתה) פְּטַרְתָּ, (את) פְּטַרְתְּ,
הוא פְּטַרְ, היא פְּטַרְה
רבים/ות: (אנחנו) פְּטַרְנוּ, (אתם) פְּטַרְתֶּם, (אתן) פְּטַרְתֶּן,
הם פְּטַרְו, הן פְּטַרְו

In text without vowels: פוטרת, פוטרת, פוטרו, פוטרתם, פוטרו

Future tense

זמן עתיד

The future tense uses the following stem: *-CuCaC*. The second stem vowel *a* is lost when the stress shifts to the last syllable.

יחיד/ה: (אני) אֶפְטַר, (אתה) תִּפְטַר, (את) תִּפְטַרְי,
הוא יִפְטַר, היא תִּפְטַר
רבים/ות: (אנחנו) נִפְטַר, (אתם) תִּפְטַרוּ, (אתן) תִּפְטַרְנה, (תִּפְטַרְנה),
הם יִפְטַרוּ, הן יִפְטַרוּ (תִּפְטַרְנה)

In text without vowels: אפוטר, תפוטר, תפוטרי, נפוטרו, תפוטרו

Variants with ב', כ', פ'**1. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as b, k, p**

i. When it is the first root letter in the past tense

עבר: פָּטַר, כָּנַס

ii. When it is the second root letter in all tenses and moods:

עבר: סָפַד, סָכַם, סָפַר
 הווה: מְסַפֵּד, מְסַכֵּם, מְסַפֵּר
 עתיד: יִסְפֹּד, יִסְכֵּם, יִסְפֹּר

2. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as v, kh, f

i. When it is the first root letter in the present and future tenses

הווה: מְבַקֵּשׁ, מְכַנֵּס, מְפַסֵּר
 עתיד: יִבְקֹשׁ, יִכְנֹס, יִפְסֹר

ii. When it is the third letter of the root

עֲרַב, בִּרְכָו, שִׁתְּפָה

Variations with root letters א', ה', ח', ע', ר'

In roots where the second consonant is a guttural one (except for ח'), the *u* is replaced by *o*, in all tenses:

מְבַהֵל, מְפַאֵר, מְקַרֵב, מְשַׁעֵר

With the same consonant (except for ח'), a *hataf patah* replaces the expected *shva*: יִתְאַרְוּ, יִתְאַרְוּ, יִנְהַלּוּ, יִשְׁעֲרוּ.

4.4.2 Irregular Verbs**גזרות חסרים ונחים**

The group of irregular verbs parallels that of the *pi'el* conjugation and undergoes the same processes.

The root classification: merger of ע"ו/ע"י with ע"ע

In *pu'al*, as in *pi'el* and *hitpa'el*, ע"ו/ע"י verbs behave as if they were ע"ע ones: the final root consonant is duplicated. Their first vowel is *o*.

Gloss	Future	Present	Past	ע"ע	ע"ו
be spun around	יְסוּבֵב	מְסוּבֵב	סוּבֵב	ס-ב-ב	(ס-ו-ב)
be incited	יְקוּמֵם	מְקוּמֵם	קוּמֵם	(ק-מ-מ)	ק-ו-מ

The נחי ל"א root classification

When the third root consonant is א', it is not pronounced at the end of the syllable, although it is maintained in the spelling. In the first and

second per
 replaced by
 In the third
 not affect its

נחי ל"א

Present
 Past
 Future

The נחי ל"י

As in other b
 as the vowel
 spelling as י
 in פוגייתי, or is

נחי ל"י

Present
 Past
 Future

4.4.3 Derived

New verb form
 the almost-aut
 Generally, all
 found in *pu'al*
 root can be form
 well:

Gloss

place (קום)
 report (וח)
 file (יק)

second person of the past tense, the *a* vowel before the suffix is replaced by *e*.

In the third person singular the *patah* is replaced by *kamats*, which does not affect its pronunciation.

להיות ממלא to be filled

נחי ל"א	הם	היא	הוא	אתה	שורש: מ-ל-א
Present	ממלאים	ממלאת	ממלא	ממלא	
Past	מלאו	מלאה	מלא	מלאת	
Future	ימלאו	תמלא	ימלא	תמלא	

The ה"י root classification

As in other *binyanim*, when the third root consonant is ה, it is realized as the vowel *e* or *a* in final position, where it is represented in the spelling as ה"י. מִפְנֵה, מִפְנֵה: ה"י. Elsewhere, it is realized as the vowel *y*, *ey* as in פּוֹנֵי, or is elided before another vowel, as in פּוֹנֵי.

להיות מנשה to be experienced

נחי ל"י	הם	היא	הוא	אתה	שורש: נ-ס-י
Present	מנשים	מנשה	מנשה	מנשה	
Past	נסו	נשה	נשה	נשית	
Future	ינסו	תנשה	ינשה	תנשה	

4.4.3 Derived and newly created verbs

New verb forms can be created for *pu'al*, mostly by virtue of its being the almost-automatic counterpart of the very productive *pi'el*. Generally, all new verb formation patterns allowed in *pi'el* can be found in *pu'al* as well. Thus, for instance, when a three-consonant new root can be formed in *pi'el*, it will have generally a *pu'al* counterpart as well:

Gloss	פועל	Gloss	פיעל	Gloss	Base
place	מקם (מוקם)	place	מקם	place	מקום
report	דווח (דווח)	report	דווח	report	דוח
file	תיק (תויק)	file	תיק	file	תיק

עבר: פטר, פנט

and moods:

עבר: סבד, סכס, ספר

הווה: מסבד, מסכס, מספר

עתידי: יסבד, יסכס, יספר

future tenses

הווה: מבקש, מכנס, מפטר

עתידי: יבקש, יכנס, יפטר

עבר, ברכו, שתפח

ral one (except for ח'),

מבהל, מפאר, מקרב, מש

ataf patah replaces the

גזרות חסרים ונחים

the pi'el conjugation and

with ע"ע

behave as if they were

Their first vowel is o.

ע"ו ע"ע

סט-ב-ב (ס-ו-ב)

ק-ו-מ (ק-מ-מ)

pronounced at the end of

spelling. In the first and

Reduplicated roots

The same *pi`el-pu`al* relationship applies when the first syllable is reduplicated, to form new four-consonant verbs. Alongside בָּלַבַּל 'confuse' (tr.) in *pi`el*, we find בִּלְבַּל 'being confused' in *pu`al*.

להיות מבלבל to be confused

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Root</u>		
<u>מְרובעים (משוכפלים)</u>	ב-ל-ב-ל		
	<u>הם</u>	<u>היא</u>	<u>הוא</u>
Present	מְבַלְבְּלִים	מְבַלְבְּלָת	מְבַלְבֵּל
Past	בִּלְבַּלְו	בִּלְבַּלְהָ	בִּלְבַּלְו
Future	יְבַלְבְּלוּ	תְבַלְבְּלֵנָה	יְבַלְבְּלוּ

Expansion to four-letter roots

The *pu`al* stem can be expanded to four letters:

להיות מפרסם to be famous; be advertised

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Root</u>		
<u>מְרובעים</u>	פ-ר-ס-מ		
	<u>הם</u>	<u>היא</u>	<u>הוא</u>
Present	מְפַרְסְמִים	מְפַרְסְמָת	מְפַרְסֵם
Past 3rd person	פָּרְסְמוּ	פָּרְסְמָה	פָּרְסְמוּ
Future 3rd person	יְפַרְסְמוּ	תְפַרְסְמֵנָה	יְפַרְסְמוּ

Derived four-consonant verbs

a. Derived from foreign words

The consonants of the foreign words are adapted into root consonants in the same manner as in the *pi`el* conjugation. What distinguishes the two *binyanim* is the vowel sequence.

	<u>pu`al form</u>	<u>pi`el</u>		<u>New root</u>	<u>Noun</u>
be hypnotized	הִפְנִיט	הִפְנִיט	←	ה-פ-נ-ט	הִפְנוּזָה
be neutralized	נִטְרַל	נִטְרַל	←	נ-ט-ר-ל	נִטְרוּל

b. Four-consonantal verbs derived from existing native nouns

	<u>pu`al form</u>	<u>pi`el</u>	<u>Root</u>		<u>Base noun</u>
be ensured	שָׁרְנוּ	שָׁרְנוּ	ש-ר-נ-נ	armor	שָׁרְיוֹן

c. Four-cons

The new root existing tri-co
Verb meaning
 be rewritten
 be drilled
 be reinforced
 be diagnosed
 be referred
 be enumerated

4.4.4 Assoc

Pu`al verbs refer to object
 be conjugated
 are semantic

***Pu`al* in all p**

We were hug

***Pu`al* in plur**

The workers strike.
 The singular
 I was organiz

There are n
 grammatical
 recipient of a
 The show wa
 I was cancell

Active *pi`el*

Because of
 subject of the
 rather than th
 the agent, m
 oblique) obje
 often an obje
 human recipi

c. Four-consonantal verbs: with -ש, -ת, -א or -נ as first consonant

The new roots are derived either directly from existing nouns, or from existing tri-consonantal verbal roots.

Verb meaning	<i>pu'al</i>	<i>pi'el</i>	Root	Source
be rewritten	שכתב	שכתב	ש-כ-ת-ב	ש+כתב
be drilled	תרגל	תרגל	ת-ר-ג-ל	תרגיל
be reinforced	תגבר	תגבר	ת-ג-ב-ר	גבר
be diagnosed	אבחן	אבחן	א-ב-ח-נ	בָּחַן
be referred	אזכר	אזכר	א-ז-כ-ר	הזכיר
be enumerated	מספר	מספר	מ-ס-פ-ר	מספר

4.4.4 Associated meanings

Pu'al verbs are used most commonly in the third person, which can refer to objects as well as to persons. There are few *pu'al* verbs that can be conjugated in the first and second person as well. The restrictions are semantic and depend on the specific meaning of the verb:

***Pu'al* in all persons:**

We were hugged and (were) kissed. חובקנו ונושקנו.

***Pu'al* in plural:**

The workers were organized for the strike. הפועלים אורגנו לקראת השביתה.

The singular is not applicable:

~~I was organized for the strike.~~ אורגנתי לקראת השביתה.

There are many *pu'al* verbs that cannot be used with a human grammatical subject. Their meaning excludes a person being the recipient of an action.

The show was cancelled. החצגה בוטלה.

~~I was cancelled.~~ בוטלתי.

Active *pi'el* and passive *pu'al*

Because of the passive nature of the conjugation, the grammatical subject of the sentence with a *pu'al* verb is the recipient of the action rather than the initiator of the action. The subject of the active sentence, the agent, may surface in the passive counterpart as an indirect (or oblique) object, signaled by the preposition 'by' על ידי. The recipient is often an object or an entity, which is not a person. A few verbs apply to human recipients of actions.

the first syllable is
bs. Alongside בלבל
d' in *pu'al*.

Root
ב-ל-ב-ל
הוא
מבלבל
בלבל
תבלבל

להיות מ	Root
פ-ר-ס-מ	הוא
היא	מפרסם
מפרסם	פרסם
פרסמו	יפרסם
תפרסם	

d into root consonants
What distinguishes the

New root	Noun
ה-פ-נ-ט	היפנוזה
נ-ט-ר-ל	נטרול

ng native nouns

Base noun
armor שריון

pi`el

The manager changed the daily schedule. המנהל שינה את סדר היום.

pu`al

The daily schedule was changed by the manager. סדר היום שונה על ידי המנהל.

We also find some *pu`al* verbs used in passive sentences even when the corresponding *pi`el* verb is not transitive, e.g., דָּבַר 'talk, speak' and דִּבְּרָה 'be talked about':

It was not talked about in the last meeting of the government. לא דִּבְּרָה על כך בישיבת הממשלה האחרונה.

A comparative note

Active verbs in English have passive counterparts. This is not necessarily the case in Hebrew.

Dan did not pay Ron the money דן לא שילם לרון את הכסף פיעל

Ron was not paid the money. רון לא שולם את הכסף. פעל

The money was not paid (by Ron). הכסף לא שולם (על ידי רון). פעל

Other verbs act in a similar way in Hebrew and English:

The doctors immunized the children against measles. הרופאים חיסנו את הילדים נגד אדמת. פיעל

The children were immunized against measles. הילדים חוסנו נגד אדמת. פעל

Common use

The use of *pu`al* is most often restricted to a high register, which is used in news broadcasts, in formal documents or speeches and in literature. In practice, the use of sentences with third person subjects and the verb in *pi`el* is more characteristic of everyday speech to express the passive sense.

More formal This bill was paid. החשבון הזה שולם. פעל

Everyday Use כבר שילמו את החשבון הזה. פיעל

***Pu`al* participles as adjectives or nouns**

There are many participles (present tense forms) of the same verbs that function as adjectives, nouns, or adverbs.

Adjective

Adverb

Noun

Adjective

4.5 Hitpa`

The stem of the unique marker:

1. It can be in

2. It can be i

התפעל

3. In the futur

as in the follo

As in *pi`el* anwith a *dagesh*

Hebrew, one

letters ב', כ', פ'

4.5.1 Regular

Regular verbs

are present in a

Present tense

All present tens

tense, and the fo

בִּשְׁת

מתלבשות

Past tense

The stem of the p

1. Masculine, sin

2. First and second

3. Third person fe

(deletion resulting

<u>Adjective</u>	The hour is already <u>late</u> .	השעה כבר מאוחרת.
<u>Adverb</u>	I arrived <u>late</u> to the meeting.	הגעתי לפגישה מאוחר.
<u>Noun</u>	All the <u>dignitaries</u> have arrived.	כל המכובדים הגיעו.
<u>Adjective</u>	Professor Schwartz is a <u>highly regarded</u> scholar.	פרופסור שוורץ הוא חוקר מכובד.

4.5 Hitpa`el conjugation

בנין התפעל

The stem of *hitpa`el* has two components: *-it + pa`el*. The prefix *-it* is the unique marker of *hitpa`el*, and it is always preceded by another marker:

1. It can be initiated by the present tense marker *m*: מתפעל.
2. It can be initiated by *h* in the past tense, imperative and infinitive: התפעל.
3. In the future tense, the subject person prefixes combine with it, such as in the following forms: יתפעל, תתפעל.

As in *pi`el* and in *pu`al*, the second root consonant is always marked with a *dagesh hazak*. Although the *dagesh* is irrelevant in Israeli Hebrew, one consequence is that when that consonant is one of the letters ב', כ', פ', it is always realized as *b*, *k*, *p*, respectively.

4.5.1 Regular verbs

שלמים

Regular verbs are composed of verbs in which all the root consonants are present in all the verb forms.

Present tense

זמן הווה

All present tense forms have a *mit-* מת- prefix: the *m* indicates present tense, and the following *t* indicates that it is a *hitpa`el* verb.

להתלבש to get dressed

יחיד/ה:	(אני, אתה, הוא) מתלבש ; (אני, את, היא) מתלבשת
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) מתלבשים ; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) מתלבשות

Past tense

זמן עבר

The stem of the past tense of *hitpa`el* has three variants:

- | | | |
|--|-------------------|--------|
| 1. Masculine, singular third person | <i>hitlabesh</i> | התלבש |
| 2. First and second person forms | <i>hitlabash-</i> | התלבש- |
| 3. Third person feminine singular and plural
(deletion resulting from stress shift to the suffix) | <i>hitlabsh-</i> | התלבש- |

יחיד/ה :	(אני) התלבשתי, (אתה) התלבשת, (את) התלבשת,
	הוא התלבש, היא התלבשה
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו) התלבשנו, (אתם) התלבשתם, (אתן) התלבשתן,
	הם התלבשו, הן התלבשו

A historical note

In Mishnaic Hebrew a variant of *hitpa`el* emerged in the perfect: *nitpa`el*, with *n* replacing *h* in the *hit-* prefix:

take place, exist נתקיים be discovered נתגלה

This variant became the preferred realization in Mishnaic Hebrew. Few verbs maintained the *hit-* prefix in that period. It is very likely that the *h* > *n* shift resulted from analogy with the *n* of *nif`al*. In modern Hebrew, *hit-* is dominant in everyday use; *nit-* is more typical of higher registers.

Future tense**זמן עתיד**

The stem of the future tense of *hitpa`el* has two variants:

1. In all first and second singular and first person plural: -*tlabesh* תִּלְבֹּשׁ
2. In the second person feminine singular and second and third person plural (deletion resulting from stress shift): -*tlabsh-* תִּלְבְּשִׁי

יחיד/ה :	(אני) אֶתְלַבֵּשׁ, (אתה) תִּתְלַבֵּשׁ, (את) תִּתְלַבְּשִׁי,
	הוא יִתְלַבֵּשׁ, היא תִּתְלַבֵּשׁ
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו) נִתְלַבֵּשׁ, (אתם) תִּתְלַבְּשׁוּ, (אתן) תִּתְלַבְּשֶׁנָּה,
	הם יִתְלַבְּשׁוּ, הן יִתְלַבְּשׁוּ (תִּתְלַבְּשֶׁנָּה)

The imperative mood**ציווי**

The imperative, like the past and the infinitive, includes the prefix *hi-* of the *hitpa`el* pattern in its forms.

התלבש! התלבשי! התלבשו! (התלבשנה)

Like in the rest of the conjugation, the stem vowel is reduced from *e* to a zero vowel before a stressed suffix *hitlabesh+ú* * > *hitlabshú*.

The negative imperative

The negative imperative also uses the future tense form with the negative particle לא 'don't!'

The infinitive

The *hitpa`el*
imperative: 5
letter -ל 'to':

I need to get d
home.

He hopes to be
University.

As in other b
English gerund
Exercising eve

The verbal noun

The *hitpa`el* v
stem. The stem
stressed vowel.

Gerund

התרגשות

A verbal noun
preposition as th
I have no object
Familiarity with
important for the

Alternate stem

There are certai
when the first co
the sibilants are
of their articulati
of the prefix o
consonant. It may
the articulation o
them from mergin

אל תתלבש! אל תתלבשי! אל תתלבשו!

The infinitive mood

שם הפועל

The *hitpa'el* infinitive mood is formed with the same stem as the imperative: התלבש, התקבל, התפלל, with the addition of the prefixed letter ל- 'to': להתלבש, להתקבל, להתפלל.

I need to get dressed before I leave אני צריכה להתלבש לפני שאני יוצאת
home. מהבית.
He hopes to be admitted to the הוא מקווה להתקבל לאוניברסיטה.
University.

As in other *binyanim* the infinitive form can also be translated as the English gerund equivalent of 'doing' (rather than by 'to do').
Exercising every day is very important. חשוב להתעמל כל יום.

The verbal noun

שם הפעולה

The *hitpa'el* verbal noun appends the suffix ו-ת to its citation form stem. The stem used is the variant *hitlabsh-*, because it is followed by a stressed vowel. Nouns with the suffix ו-ת are always feminine nouns.

Gerund	Stem	Gerund	Stem
התקנשות	התקנש	התנגדות	התנגד (ל-)

A verbal noun of a transitive verb is linked to an object by the same preposition as the finite verb:

I have no objection to the decisions. אין לי כל התנגדות להחלטות.
Familiarity with this domain is very ההתמצאות בתחום הזה חשובה
important for the work in the lab. מאוד לעבודה במעבדה.

Alternate stems with initial: ט, ש, ש, צ, ר

There are certain alterations that occur in the stem of *hitpa'el* verbs when the first consonant is a sibilant: ש/ס *s*, ש *sh*, צ *ts*, ר *r*. (In Hebrew the sibilants are known as אותיות שורקות or 'whistling letters' because of their articulation). The changes involve a different placement of the ת of the prefix of *hitpa'el*, which trades places with the first root consonant. It may involve other changes as well. The changes facilitate the articulation of the prefix together with the sibilants and prevent them from merging with the ת, so that they are all heard distinctly.

יחיד/ה :	(אני) התלבש
רבים/ות :	הוא התלבש
	(אנחנו) התלבש
	הם התלבשו

merged in the perfect:

discovered נתגלה

Modern Hebrew. Few
very likely that the *h*
In modern Hebrew,
of higher registers.

זמן עתיד

variants:
hitlabsh

hitlabsh-

יחיד/ה :	(אני) אֶתְלַבֵּשׁ
רבים/ות :	הוא יִתְלַבֵּשׁ
	(אנחנו) נִתְלַבֵּשׁ
	הם יִתְלַבְּשׁוּ

ציווי

includes the prefix *hi-*

התלבש! התלבשי! התלבשו!
el is reduced from *e* to
* > *hitlabshú*.

tense form with the

First root consonant: שׁ/ס s, שׂ sh

If the first consonant of the root is either שׁ/ס or שׂ, then that consonant and the ת at the end of the prefix change places: *ts* > *st*.

	<u>Actual Form</u>			<u>Expected Form</u>
<i>histader</i>	הִסְתַּדֵּר ←		<i>hit+sader</i>	*הִתְסַדֵּר
<i>hishtalem</i>	הִשְׁתַּלֵּם ←		<i>hit+shalem</i>	*הִתְשַׁלֵּם

First root consonant: ז zayin

When the first consonant of the root is *zayin* ז *z*, the ת of the *hit-* prefix becomes ז, as well as changing places with the first root letter: *tz* > *zd*. The reason for the change from the prefix consonant ת to ז is its proximity to the first root consonant ז, which is a voiced consonant. Instead of the expected voiceless ת, the prefix consonant becomes voiced ז.

	<u>Actual Form</u>			<u>Expected Form</u>
<i>hizdamen</i>	הִזְדַּמֵּן ←		<i>hit+zamen</i>	*הִתְזַמֵּן
<i>hizdaken</i>	הִזְדַּקֵּן ←		<i>hit+zaken</i>	*הִתְזַקֵּן

First root consonant: צ tsadi

If the first consonant of the root is *tsadi* צ *ts*, then that consonant and the prefix consonant change places. In addition the prefix consonant ת changes to ט: תצ < טצ.

	<u>Actual Form</u>			<u>Expected Form</u>
<i>hitsta`er</i>	הִטְטַעַר ←		<i>hit+tsa`er</i>	*הִתְצַעַר
<i>hitstalem</i>	הִטְטַלֵּם ←		<i>hit+tsalem</i>	*הִתְצַלֵּם

A historical note

The consonant צ *tsadi* was historically an emphatic consonant, pronounced differently than today's pronunciation of *ts* (i.e. it was an *s* with the back of the tongue simultaneously raised towards the velum). Therefore the ת of the *hitpa`el* prefix which preceded it was turned into what was once an emphatic ט *tet* to fit with צ. These qualities were lost in modern pronunciation, but the spelling still reflects the historical process.

Variants w**1. The letter**

i. When it is

ii. When it is

2. The letters

When it is the

Variations w

1. When the

rather than a *h*

all tenses and

2. When the *th*

usual normativ

second stem v

הִתְפַּתַּח, הִשְׁתַּנַּע

present tense: *y*

3. If the second

by a zero *shva*,

4.5.2 Irregular**The root class**

Verbs that belo

consonants. The

Some of the ע״ע

Gloss Inf

get warm מָם

get cooled נָר

Variants with ב', כ', פ'**1. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as b, k, p**

i. When it is the first root letter in all the tenses and moods:

הווה: מתפלא; עבר: התפלא; עתיד: יתפלא

ציווי: התפלא! שם הפועל: להתפלא

ii. When it is the second root letter in all tenses and moods:

הווה: מתלבש; עבר: התלבש; עתיד: יתלבש

ציווי: התלבש!

שם הפועל: להתלבש

2. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as v, kh, f

When it is the last letter of the word or root:

מתקרב, מתהפך, מתעלפים

Variations with radicals א', ע', ח', ה', ר'1. When the second root letter is א' or ר', the first one has a *kamats* rather than a *patah* under it, but the pronunciation remains the same in all tenses and moods: מתפאר, יתפרק2. When the third root letter is ח' or ע' and no suffix is appended, the usual normative form is: השתגע, יתפתח; however in common speech the second stem vowel changes to *e* and a 'furtive' *patah* is inserted, as in השתגע, יתפתח. The form with a furtive *patah* is the only option in the present tense: משתגע, מתפתח3. If the second consonant is a guttural that is expected to be followed by a zero *shva*, we have a *hataf patah* instead:

התפארה, מתנהלים, יתנחלו, תצטערי

4.5.2 Irregular Verbs**גזרות חסרים ונחים****The root classification: ע"ע**

Verbs that belong to this group have identical second and third root consonants. They are conjugated as regular verbs.

Some of the ע"ע roots are derived from bi-consonantal adjectives:

Gloss	Infinitive	Future	Present	Past	ע"ע	שם תואר
get warm	להתחמם	יתחמם	מתחמם	התחמם	ח-מ-מ	חם <
get cooled	להתקרר	יתקרר	מתקרר	התקרר	ק-ר-ר	קר <

The root classification: merger of "ע" with "ע" and "ע" with "ע"

As in *pi`el* and *pu`al*, there is also a group of ע"ו/ע"י verbs in *hitpa`el* which behave as if they were ע"ע verbs. Again the second consonant is duplicated, and the first stem vowel is *o*, for both ע"ע and ע"ו/ע"י:

Gloss	Infinitive	Future	Present	Past	ע"ע	ע"ו
spin around	להסתובב	יסתובב	מסתובב	הסתובב	ס-ב-ב	(ס-ו-ב)
wake up	להתעורר	יתעורר	מתעורר	התעורר	(ע-ר-ר)	ע-ו-ר

Note

Some ע"ו/ע"י roots have two forms of *hitpa`el*: one is conjugated as a regular verb in *pi`el*, and the medial semi-vowel ו or י is realized as a consonant. The other follows the merged ע"ע/ע"ו/ע"י pattern above:

Gloss	Infinitive	Citation form	<i>hitpa`el</i> root	Source
take place, exit	להתקיים	התקיים	ק-י-מ	ק-ו-מ
rise up	להתקומם	התקומם	ק-מ-מ	ק-ו-מ

Gloss	Infinitive	Citation form	<i>hitpa`el</i> root	Source
intend, mean	להתכונן	התכונן	כ-ו-נ	כ-ו-נ
get ready, plan	להתכונן	התכונן	כ-נ-נ	כ-ו-נ

The root classification: נח"ל א

As in other *biyanim*, when the third root consonant is א, that א is not pronounced at the end of the syllable:

to be familiar with/oriented להתמצא ב

Root classification	Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
נח"ל א	התמצאות	להתמצא	מ-צ-א
	הם	היא	הוא
Present	מתמצאים	מתמצאת	מתמצא
Past	התמצאו	התמצאת	התמצא
Future	יתמצאו	תתמצא	יתמצא
	אתם/ו	את	אתה
Imperative	התמצאו!	התמצאי!	התמצא!

The root classification: נח"ל י

When the third root consonant is י, it is realized as the vowel *e* or *a* in final position, where it is represented in the spelling as ה, whereas

elsewhere, it
another vowel

to
Root classifica
נח"ל י

Present
Past
Future

Imperative

4.5.3 Derivati

The focus in h
its recipient, or
intransitive. In
turning into, or
hitpa`el are eir
(mutual action:
existing nouns
verbs have *hitpa`el*

Gloss

settle (intr.)
focus (intr.)
realize (intr.)
become subjugate
become perfect

And parallel to
exists the parallel

elsewhere, it is realized as the diphthong *ey*, or is elided before another vowel.

להתנסות to experience, be put to the test

Root classification	Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
<u>נחז ליי</u>	התנסות	להתנסות	נ-ס-י
	הם	הוא	אתה
Present	מתנסים	מתנסה	מתנסה
Past	התנסו	התנסתה	התנסית
Future	יתנסו	תתנסה	תתנסה
	אתם/ן	את	אתה
Imperative	התנסו!	התנסי!	התנסה!

4.5.3 Deriving new hitpa`el verbs

The focus in *hitpa`el* forms is not on the initiator of the action, but on its recipient, or on the entity undergoing a process, and generally it is intransitive. In many cases *hitpa`el* verbs are verbs of becoming, turning into, or changing from one state to another. Many other verbs in *hitpa`el* are either reflexive (action goes back to self) or reciprocal (mutual action: each other). As such, it is quite open to derivation from existing nouns as well as from verbs. To start with, many new *pi`el* verbs have *hitpa`el* counterparts, similar to what happens in *pu`al*:

Gloss	התפעל	פועל	פיעל	Gloss	Base
settle (intr.)	התמקם	מקם	מקם	place	מקום
focus (intr.)	התמקד	מקד	מקד	focus	מוקד
realize (intr.)	התממש	ממש	ממש	real(ly)	ממש
become subjugated	השתעבד	שעבד	שעבד		ש+עבד
become perfect	השתכלל	שכלל	שכלל		ש+כלל

And parallel to reduplicated forms in *pi`el* like *בלבל* 'confuse', there exists the parallel *hitpa`el* counterpart *התבלבל* 'get confused':

ע"ע
ע"י verbs in *hitpa`el*
second consonant is
ע"י/ע"י and ע"י/ע"י:

ע"ע	ע"י
ס-ב-ב	(ס-ו-ב)
ע-ר-ר	(ע-ר-ר)

e is conjugated as a
or י is realized as a
pattern above:

pa`el root	Source
ק-י-מ	ק-ו-מ
ק-מ-מ	ק-ו-מ

pa`el root	Source
כ-ו-נ	כ-ו-נ
כ-נ-נ	כ-ו-נ

t is א, that א is not

להתמ	Root
להתמ	מ-צ-א
הוא	אתה
מתמצא	מתמצא
התמצא	התמצא
יתמצא	תתמצא
את	אתה
התמצא	התמצא!

s the vowel e or a in
ling as ה, whereas

להתבלבל to get confused

Root classification	Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
מְרוּבָּעִים (משוכפלים)	התבלבלות	התבלבל	ב-ל-ב-ל
	הֵם	הִיא	הֵם
Present	מתבלבלים	מתבלבלת	מתבלבל
Past	התבלבלו	התבלבלה	התבלבלת
Future	יתבלבלו	תתבלבל	תתבלבל
	אתם/ן	את	אתה
Imperative	התבלבלו!	התבלבלי!	התבלבלי!

Often, a *hitpa`el* verb is related to a noun, an adjective, a *pi`el* verb stem, or a *pa`al* verb stem. It is based on the same root consonants and has a related meaning, as in:

1. Derived from adjectives

	Citation Form		Source
become strong	התחזק ←	strong	חזק
become hot	התחמם ←	hot	חם
become clear	התבהר ←	clear	בהיר
get closer	התקרר ←	close	קרוב
distance oneself	התרחק ←	far, distant	רחוק
straighten up	התישר ←	straight	ישר

2. Derived from nouns

	Citation Form		Source
calcify	התאבן ←	stone	אבן
become focused	התמקד ←	focus	מוקד
become a citizen	התאזרח ←	citizen	אזרח
take a shower	התקלח ←	shower	מקלחת
acclimatize oneself	התאקלם ←	climate	אקלים
take some air	התאוויר ←	air	אוויר

3. Many verbs are derived from transitive *pi`el* verbs

	Citation Form		Source
improve (intr.)	השתפר ←	improve (tr.)	שפר
make a living	התפרנס ←	provide for	פרנס
get cold	הצטנן ←	cool (tr.)	צנן

get spoiled
take a risk
advance
get trained

4. Derived

get washed
get dressed
get undressed

5. A few verbs

become excited
get angry
become satisfied

6. Derived from

get ready
hide oneself
trade places

4.5.4 Ass

Hitpa`el is preferred in many contexts. However, it is not used in the infinitive, gerund, and future.

a. Reflexive verbs

Reflexive verbs (verbs where the agent is also the patient), and intransitive verbs. Every morning I wash myself.

Many reflexive verbs are derived from transitive verbs by a different pattern, such as *hitpa`el* or something else.

Infinitive	Root
התבלבל	ב-ל-ב
הוא	אתה
מתבלבל	מתבלבל
התבלבלת	התבלבלת
יתבלבל	יתבלבל
את	אתה
התבלבל	התבלבל!

adjective, a *pi`el* verb
the root consonants and

	Source
ong	הזק
	חם
ar	בהיר
se	קרוב
distant	רחוק
ight	ישר

	Source
ne	אבו
us	מוקד
zen	אזרח
ower	מקלחת
mate	אקלים
	אוויר

verbs	Source
rove (tr.)	שפר
ide for	פרנס
(tr.)	צנו

get spoiled	התקלקל	←	spoil (tr.)	קלקל
take a risk	הסתכן	←	risk (tr.)	סכן
advance oneself	התקדם	←	advance (tr.)	קדם
get trained	התאמן	←	train (tr.)	אמן

4. Derived from transitive verbs in *pa`al*

	Citation Form			Source
get washed	התרחץ	←	wash	רחץ
get dressed	התלבש	←	clothe (tr.)	לבש
get undressed	התפשט	←	take off clothes	פשט

5. A few verbs are derived from intransitive *pa`al* verbs

	Citation Form			Source
become enraged	התרתח	←	boil	רתח
get angry	התרגז	←	be angry	רגז
become silent	השתתק	←	be silent	שתק

6. Derived from other *binyanim*

	Citation Form			Source
get ready	התכונן	←	prepare	כין
hide oneself	הסתתר	←	hide	הסתיר
trade places	התחלף	←	replace	החליף

4.5.4 Associated meanings

Hitpa`el is primarily associated with reflexive and reciprocal meanings. However, it sometimes has other meanings, including passive, repeated action, and feigning doing something.

a. Reflexive meaning

Reflexive verbs are ones for which the instigator of the action ('the agent'), and its recipient ('the patient'), refer to the same entity.

Every morning I wake up at seven. כל בוקר אני מתעורר בשבע.

Many reflexive verbs in *hitpa`el* can also have related verbs expressed by a different *binyan*, where they refer to an action affecting someone or something other than the subject.

Reflexive - התפעל

In the morning David washes, shaves, gets dressed and combs his hair.

*He washes himself, shaves himself, dresses himself and combs his hair.

כל בוקר דוד מתרחץ, מתגלח, מתלבש ומסרק.
*הוא רחץ את עצמו, מגלח את עצמו, מלביש את עצמו, ומסרק את עצמו.

Transitive – with separate recipient - פעל ופיעל

He washed the car.

הוא רחץ את המכונית.

He wore festive clothes.

הוא לבש בגדי חג.

He combs his hair.

הוא מסרק את השיער.

A comparative note

In English there are verbs which have the same form regardless of whether they are used as reflexive or as transitive verbs. It thus becomes a source of confusion for learners of Hebrew. It is important to keep in mind the distinction between the verbs where the recipient of the action is identical to the instigator of the action, and similar verbs which require a separate object.

Reflexive

He trained (intr.) for the Olympic games.

הוא התאמן למשחקים האולימפיים.

Transitive

He trained many athletes.

הוא אימן הרבה ספורטאים.

The verb התאמן 'trained' implies that the person was the trainer as well as the one being trained. The use of the word *self* is part of the meaning of *hitpa'el*. The English verb *train* can also be a transitive verb, which requires an object, such as 'trained many athletes'. In Hebrew, the *pi'el* verb is a transitive verb, as in הוא אימן את הספורטאים, while the *hitpa'el* verb is reflexive and can have no separate direct object.

The reflexive meaning is not obvious at all times. In some intransitive verbs, the action may not be transferred directly to the subject/patient, but it still indicates a process that affects it. For instance, התקדם 'advance' includes the meaning of 'advance oneself', התקרב 'get closer' is equivalent to 'bring oneself close', and התאמץ 'make an effort' is an extension of 'exert oneself'.

b. Reciprocal

Reciprocal v
equivalent, c
plural and in
reciprocal e
feature of 'r
התנפחו 'they
implied. How
the distinctio
recipient. The
is then perce
which is usua

Dan and Dana

Transitive me

Dan married

Dana married

c. Passive

There are sev
verbs, usually

Active meanin

Dan requested

Passive mean

I was asked to

Active meanin

The president

Passive mean

The spokesper

d. Additional

1. Occasionally

run around

stroll

2. A few verbs

feign naïv

pretend to

b. Reciprocal

Reciprocal verbs are ones for which the participants' roles are either equivalent, or shift back and forth between them. When the subject is plural and includes more than one entity, it is not necessary to add the reciprocal expression 'each other', since it is implied. The built-in feature of 'reciprocity' requires a plural subject. For instance, in **הם התנכחו** 'they argued', the reciprocal pronouns 'with each other' are implied. However, in order to shift the focus to one of the participants, the distinction is made between the initiator of the action, and its recipient. The singular verb form accompanies the subject, and the verb is then perceived as transitive. It will thus be followed by an object, which is usually linked by a preposition:

Dan and Dana got married.	דן ודנה התחתנו.
<u>Transitive meaning – focus on the initiator of action</u>	
Dan married Dana.	דן התחתן עם דנה.
Dana married Dan.	דנה התחתנה עם דן.

c. Passive

There are several verbs in *hitpa`el* which are counterparts of transitive verbs, usually in *pi`el*.

Active meaning

Dan requested that I meet with him. דן ביקש ממני להיפגש אתו.

Passive meaning

I was asked to meet with Dan. התבקשתי להיפגש עם דן.

Active meaning

The president appointed his spokesperson. הנשיא מינה את דוברו.

Passive meaning

The spokesperson was appointed. הדובר התמנה.

d. Additional meanings

1. Occasionally *hitpa`el* verbs have a feature of a repeated action:

run around	התרוצץ	←	run	רץ
stroll	התהלך	←	walk	הלך

2. A few verbs carry the meaning feature of 'pretend to, make believe':

feign naivety	התמם	←	naïve	תמים
pretend to be sick	התחלה	←	sick	חולה

כל בוקר דוד מתרחץ, מתלבש ומסתרק.
*הוא רחץ את עצמו, מלביש את עצמו, מסתרק את עצמו.

פעל

הוא רחץ את המכונית.
הוא לבש בגדי חג.
הוא מסרק את השיער.

form regardless of transitive verbs. It thus applies to reciprocal verbs. It is important to note that where the recipient of the action is not mentioned, and similar verbs

הוא התאמן למשחקים האולימפיים.

הוא אימן הרבה ספורטאים.

was the trainer as well as part of the meaning of the transitive verb, which is *hitpa`el*. In Hebrew, the *pi`el* form is used, while the *hitpa`el* form is used for the direct object.

. In some intransitive verbs, the focus is on the subject/patient, and the action is done to the subject/patient. For instance, **התקדם** 'get on oneself', **התקרב** 'get close to oneself' and **התאמן** 'make an

4.6 Hif'il conjugation

בניין הפעיל

The name of the verb pattern *hif'il* reflects the third person singular masculine, its citation form.

1. The stem vowel *i* of הפעיל is part of its pattern. It is present in most of the forms of this conjugation, with the exception of the first and second person of the past tense, and the singular masculine form of the imperative. It is not affected by any vowel reduction process.

2. The initial vowel of the past tense that follows the prefix *h* is *i*. However, in other tenses that vowel changes to *a*:

	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Future</u>	<u>Present</u>	<u>Past</u>	<u>Root</u>
to explain	להסביר	יסביר	מסביר	הסביר	ס-ב-ר

4.6.1 Regular Verbs

שלמים

The group of regular verbs are composed of verbs in which all the root consonants are present in all the verb forms.

Present tense

זמן הווה

The present tense of this conjugation pattern has a *ma-* prefix that marks it for the present tense: מפעיל. Unlike other *binyanim*, in which the typical feminine singular ending is unstressed *-et*, the feminine singular suffix in *hif'il* is a stressed *-á* הָ.

להסביר to explain

יחיד/ה :	(אני, אתה, הוא) מסביר ; (אני, את, היא) מסבירה
רבים/ות :	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) מסבירים ; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) מסבירות

In addition to functioning as present tense verbs, many of the present tense forms are used as adjectives or as nouns:

	<u>Adjectives</u>		<u>Citation form</u>	<u>Root</u>
brilliant	מבריק	shine	הבריק	ב-ר-ק
worrisome	מדאיג	worry	הדאיג	ד-א-ג
infectious	מדביק	infect; glue	הדביק	ד-ב-ק

	<u>Nouns</u>		<u>Citation form</u>	<u>Root</u>
smuggler	מבריח	smuggle	הבריח	ב-ר-ח
believer	מאמין	believe	האמין	א-מ-נ
listener	מאזין	listen	האזין	א-ז-נ

Past tense

The past tense

1. In the first
2. In the third

The stress of the stem, and no form is realized follows the spoken Hebrew

Future tense

The stem of The stress is

The imperative

The imperative -CCiC in the changes to e

The negative אל 'don't!'

בניין הפעיל

third person singular

It is present in most
tion of the first and
masculine form of the
on process.

ows the prefix *h* is *i*.

Past	Root
הקביר	ס-ב-ר

שלמים

in which all the root

זמן הווה

as a *ma-* prefix that
r *binyanim*, in which
d *-et*, the feminine

אני, את	יחיד/ה:
אנחנו, א	רבים/ות:

many of the present

ation form	Root
הקריק	ב-ר-ק
הקריג	ד-א-ג
הקריק	ד-ב-ק

ation form	Root
הקריח	ח-ב-ח
הקמיו	א-מ-נ
הקמיון	א-ז-נ

Past tense**זמן עבר**

The past tense of *hif'il* has only two stem variants:

1. In the first and second person: הפעל-
2. In the third person: הפעיל

יחיד/ה:	(אני) הקבירתי, (אתה) הקבירתי, (את) הקבירתי,
	הוא הקביר, היא הקבירה
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו) הקבירנו, (אתם) הקבירתם, (אתן) הקבירתן,
	הם/הן הקבירו

The stress of the past tense is always on the last vowel of the *hif'il* stem, and not on the suffixes. Even though the second person plural form is realized as *hisbartém* and *hisbartén* in formal Hebrew, it follows the stress pattern of the other first and second persons in daily spoken Hebrew: *hisbártem* and *hisbárten*.

Future tense**זמן עתיד**

The stem of future tense verbs is *-פעיל*. The prefix vowel is always *a*. The stress is always on the *i* of the stem.

יחיד/ה:	(אני) אקביר, (אתה) תקביר, (את) תקבירי,
	הוא יקביר, היא תקביר
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו) נקביר, (אתם) תקבירו, (אתן) תקבירו (תקבירנה)
	הם יקבירו, הן יקבירו (תקבירנה)

The imperative mood**ציווי**

The imperative forms have an *h-* prefix (like the past tense). Its stem is *-CCiC* in the feminine singular and plural forms, and the stem vowel changes to *e* in the singular masculine form.

הקבר! הקבירי! הקבירו! (הקבירנה)

The negative imperatives use the future tense form with the negative אל 'don't!':

אל תקביר! אל תקבירי! אל תקבירו!

The infinitive mood**שם הפועל**

The *hif'il* infinitive uses the stem *haCCiC*: להקביר, להרגיע, להקביר

I'll try to explain what I meant.

אנסה להקביר למה התכוונתי.

It is hard for him to decide whether to stay single.

קשה לו להחליט אם להישאר רווק.

Verbal noun**שם הפעולה**

There are two main forms of verbal nouns in *hif'il*. Most frequently they have separate meanings, which are sometimes related meanings, as they come from the same verb root and form.

The הפעלה form:

Gloss	Verbal noun 1	Stem
invitation	הזמנה	הזמין
decision	החלטה	החליט

The הפעל form:

Gloss	Verbal noun 2	Stem
difference	הבדל	הבדיל
quarantine	הסגר	הסגיר

Some roots can be realized in both forms of the gerund, and they thus form two different nouns with related but somewhat different meanings:

	Verbal noun 2	Verbal noun 1	Stem
explanation	הסבר	הסברה	הסביר
accord	הסכם	הסכמה	הסכים

Variants with ב', כ', פ'**1. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as b, k, p**

When it is the second root letter of all the tenses and moods (except when it follows first root letter ח', ה', ע', א'): עבר: הקביר, הווה: מקביר, עתיד: יקביר

ציווי: הקבר! שם הפועל: להקביר

2. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as v, kh, f

i. When it is the first root letter in all the tenses and moods:

עבר: הבדיל, הווה: מבדיל, עתיד: יבדיל

ציווי: הבדל! שם הפועל: להבדיל

ii. When it is

iii. When the

Variations

1. When the past tense ch the *shva* vowel letter, the 'ec

Inform

ליט

2. In all other maintained, a letter:

Inform

ליט

3. When the vowel is inserted (בית):

4.6.2 Irregu**The ע"ו/ע"י**

The *hif'il* form second root co and past tense imperative and

שם הפועל

להקביר, להרגיש, ק

אנשה להקביר למה התכ
קשה לו להחליט אם להי

שם הפעולה

hif'il. Most frequently
s related meanings, as

n 1	<u>Stem</u>
הזמין	הזמין
החליט	החליט

n 2	<u>Stem</u>
הקביר	הקביר
הקביר	הקביר

gerund, and they thus
somewhat different

	<u>Stem</u>
explain	הקביר
agree	הקביר

s and moods (except

עבר: הקביר, הווה: מקביר
ציווי: הקביר! שם הפועל:

d moods:

עבר: הקביר, הווה: מקביר
ציווי: הקביר! שם הפועל:

ii. When it is the final root letter in all the tenses and moods:

עבר: הקריב, הווה: מקריבים, עתיד: יקריב
ציווי: הקרב! שם הפועל: להקריב

iii. When the second root letter follows א', ע', ה', ח':

מאביר, מעביר, מעביר

Variations with 'א', ה', ח', ע'

1. When the first letter of the root is א', ח', ע', the prefix vowel of the past tense changes from *i* to *e*. In addition an 'echo' vowel *e* replaces the *shva* vowel of the first root letter. In the case of ח' as the first root letter, the 'echo' vowel is optional.

<u>Informal</u>	<u>Formal</u>		
החליט	החליט	האמין	העביר

2. In all other tenses and moods, the *a* vowel of the prefix is maintained, and an 'echo' vowel *a* replaces the *shva* of the first root letter:

<u>Informal</u>	<u>Formal</u>		
מחליט	מחליט	מאמין	מעביר

3. When the third root letter is א', ח', ע' and no suffix is appended, an *a* vowel is inserted (since the previous vowel is not *a*, a 'furtive' *pataħ* is inserted): השפיע, הבטיח, הגביה:

4.6.2 Irregular Verbs**גזרות חסרים ונחים****The "ע/ו/ע" root classification**

The *hif'il* form of עיו/עיי roots is characterized by the absence of the second root consonant. The vowel *e* is the prefix vowel in the present and past tense and the vowel *a* is the prefix vowel in the future tense, imperative and infinitive:

to raise, set up להקים

Root classification		Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
<u>ע"ו/ע"י</u>		הקמה	להקים	ק-ו-מ
	הם	היא	הוא	אתה
Present	מקימים	מקימה	מקים	מקים
Past	הקימו	הקימה	הקים	הקמת
Future	יְקִימוּ	תְּקִימוּ	יָקִים	תְּקִים
		אתם/ו	את	אתה
Imperative		הקימו!	הקימו!	הקם!

There are alternative forms for the first and second person in the past tense. They are used in the higher register: הקימותי, הקימות, הקימוה

The חסרי פ"נ root classification

For verbs belonging to this group, the first root consonant נ of הפועל is missing from the whole conjugation, since it always precedes a consonant, and as shown elsewhere, a נ is often assimilated into the following consonant:

Past	<i>hinpálti</i> > <i>hipálti</i>	הנפלתה < הפלתה	עבר
Future	<i>tampil</i> > <i>tapil</i>	תנפיל < תפיל	עתיד
Present	<i>mampil</i> > <i>mapil</i>	מנפיל < מפיל	הווה
Infinitive	<i>lehampil</i> > <i>lehapil</i>	להנפיל < להפיל	שם הפועל

to drop, cause to fall להפיל

Root classification		Verbal noun	Infinitive	Root
<u>חסרי פ"נ</u>		הפלה	להפיל	נ-פ-ל
	הם	היא	הוא	אתה
Present	מפילים	מפילה	מפיל	מפיל
Past	הפילו	הפילה	הפיל	הפלת
Future	יפילו	תפיל	יפיל	תפיל
		אתם/ו	את	אתה
Imperative		הפילו!	הפילו!	הפלו!

Note

Because the *hif'il* pattern ends up being a bi-consonantal stem in practice – since the first root letter *n* is omitted – there is a tendency among speakers to use the present tense forms of ע"ו verbs for פ"נ ones. A פ"נ verb such as מכיר, whose root is נ-כ-ר, is often pronounced *mekir* rather than *makir*.

Exceptions

There are exceptions to the rule that the first root consonant is assimilated into the following consonant. 1. As in previous chapters, there is no requirement for the first root consonant to be required by the following consonant.

2. In forms where the first root consonant is not from the same class as the following consonant, the first root consonant will omit the following consonant, as in the following examples:

Gloss

look at, store
germinate
tell
contrast

I wanted to tell
He contrasted

Note:

The following examples are as in previous chapters or follow the same pattern.

Gloss

assume
put down
It can be assumed
Don't put the

The נח"ו פ"נ root classification

When the first root consonant is not from the same class as the following consonant, the first root consonant will omit the following consonant, as in the following examples:

Infinitive	Root
להקים	ק-ו-מ
הוא	אתה
מקים	מקים
הקים	הקמת
יקים	תקים
את	אתה
הקמי!	הקם!

and person in the past
הקמית, הקימות, הקימו

consonant ה of הפועל
it always precedes a
n assimilated into the

הנפיל	עבר
תנפיל <	עתיד
מנפיל <	הווה
להנפיל	שם הפועל

Infinitive	Root
להפיל	נ-פ-ל
הוא	אתה
מפיל	מפיל
הפיל	הפלת
יפיל	תפיל
את	אתה
הפיל!	הפל!

i-consonantal stem in
– there is a tendency
ע"י verbs for פ"י ones.
often pronounced *mekir*

Exceptions

There are exceptions to the rule of having the first root consonant ה assimilated into the second root consonant:

1. As in previous פ"י cases we have looked at, if a guttural follows, there is no ה assimilation, since gutturals cannot be geminated as required by the assimilation rule: הנחיל, הנעים

2. In forms where there are two verbs with separate meanings derived from the same root, or from a different but homonymous one, one verb will omit the ה according to the rules above, while the other one will keep it, as in regular verb forms, to maintain the distinction between them:

Gloss	Citation form	Infinitive	Root
look at, store	הביט	להביט	נ-ב-ט
germinate	הנביט	להנביט	נ-ב-ט
tell	הגיד	להגיד	נ-ג-ד
contrast	הנגיד	להנגיד	נ-ג-ד

I wanted to let you know that I am fine. רציתי להגיד לכם שאני בסדר.
He contrasted the two assumptions. הוא הנגיד בין שתי ההנחות.

Note:

The following verbs with ה as a first root letter can be conjugated either as פ"י or following the ע"י pattern:

Gloss	Citation form	Infinitive	Root	Form of
assume	הניח	להניח	נ-ו-ח	פ"י
put down	הניח	להניח	נ-ו-ח	ע"י
It can be assumed that everything is alright. יש להניח שהכל בסדר.				
Don't put the book down on the table. אל תניח את הספר על השולחן.				

The פ"י root classification

When the first root consonant is ה, it is realized as the vowel o throughout the derivation, and the prefix vowel is elided.

להוריד, bring down להוריד

<u>Root classification</u>		<u>Verbal noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
<u>נחי פ"י</u>		הורדה	להוריד	י-ר-ד
	<u>הם</u>	<u>היא</u>	<u>הוא</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Present	מורידים	מורידה	מוריד	מוריד
Past	הורידו	הורידה	הוריד	הורידת
Future	יורידו	תוריד	יוריד	תוריד
	<u>אתם/ו</u>	<u>את</u>		<u>אתה</u>
Imperative	תורידו!	תוריד!		תוריד!

The נחי ל"א root classification

As in other *binyanim*, when the third root consonant is א, that א is not pronounced at the end of the syllable.

להמציא, to invent להמציא

<u>Root classification</u>		<u>Associated noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
<u>נחי ל"א</u>		המציאה	להמציא	מ-צ-א
	<u>הם</u>	<u>היא</u>	<u>הוא</u>	<u>אתה</u>
Present	ממציאים	ממציאה	ממציא	ממציא
Past	המציאו	המציאה	המציא	המציאת
Future	ימציאו	תמציא	ימציא	תמציא
	<u>אתם/ו</u>	<u>את</u>		<u>אתה</u>
Imperative	המציאו!	המציאו!		המציאו!

In the first and second person of the past tense, the stem vowel *i* is changed into *tseré e*: המציאת המציאת המציאתם המציאתו

The נחי ל"י root classification

When the third root consonant is י, it is realized as the vowel *e* or *a* in final position, where it is represented in the spelling as ה, and elsewhere, it is realized as the diphthong *ey*, or is elided before another vowel.

Root class

נחי ל"י

Present

Past

Future

Imperative

* The noun

The *hif'il* fo**כפולים**

1. When the

hif'il: the ex

2. The pres

הקל, מקל.

3. The *i* vow

4. When a s

is added to

moved to the

is changed fr

Root classificע"ע

Present

Past

Future

Imperative

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
להוריד	י-ר-ד
הוא	אתה
מוריד	מוריד
הוריד	הורידת
יוריד	תוריד
	אתה
	הוריד!

nt is י'א, that י'א is not

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
להמציא	מ-צ-א
הוא	אתה
ממציא	ממציא
המציא	המציאת
ימציא	תמציא
	אתה
	המציא!

, the stem vowel *i* is
המציאת

as the vowel *e* or *a* in
spelling as ה'י, and
, or is elided before

להרשות, let to permit

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Associated noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
נחל ליי	הרשעה*	להרשות	ר-ש-י
	הם	הוא	אתה
Present	מרשים	מרשה	מרשה
Past	הרשו	הרשה	הרשית
Future	ירשו	תרשה	תרשה
	אתם/ן	את	אתה
Imperative	הרשו!	הרשי!	הרשה!

* The noun associated with this particular verb is רשות 'permission'.
The *hif'il* form is הרשעה or הרשינה, both of which are rarely used.

The כפולים root classification

1. When the two last consonants of the root are identical, they merge in *hif'il*: the expected להקליל is realized as להקל (*lehaklil* > *lehakel*).
2. The present and past tense vowel of the prefix changes from *a* to *e*:
הקל, מקל.
3. The *i* vowel of the *hif'il* stem changes to a *tsere e* and loses the *h*.
4. When a suffix beginning with a vowel is appended, a *dagesh hazak* is added to the last consonant; when in addition to that, the stress is moved to the suffix, the vowel preceding the consonant with the *dagesh* is changed from *e* to *i*: מקלה, מקלים vs. יקלו, יקלה.

להקל, to ease, make easier

<u>Root classification</u>	<u>Verbal noun</u>	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Root</u>
ע"ע	הקלה/הקלה	להקל	ק-ל-ל
	הם	הוא	אתה
Present	מקלים	מקלה	מקל
Past	הקלו	הקלה	הקלת
Future	יקלו	תקל	תקל
	אתם/ן	את	אתה
Imperative	הקלו	הקלי	הקל

4.6.3 Meanings associated with *hif'il*

The commonest meaning associated with *hif'il* is causative, including 'cause to be(come)' and 'cause to do (something)'.

a. Cause to do something

The term causative is used in the sense of causing somebody or something to do something. The actor by his action triggers another action. A good example is *קָתַב* 'write' > *הִקְטִיב* 'dictate', i.e. 'cause to write', such as in 'The director dictated a letter to the staff' *הַמְנַחֵל הִקְטִיב מַכְתָּב לַצּוּרָה*, i.e. the director caused someone else to write the letter to the staff by dictating it.

When realization in *hif'il* makes a basic verb causative, that basic verb may be a true action verb, as in:

The bear danced.	הַדּוֹב רָקַד.	<u>פעל</u>
The gypsy made the bear dance.	הַצּוֹעָנִי הִרְקִיד אֶת הַדּוֹב.	<u>הפעיל</u>

The child ate the soup.	הַיֶּלֶד אָכַל אֶת הַמֶּרְק.	<u>פעל</u>
The mother fed the soup to the child.	הָאִם הֵאֲכִילָה אֶת הַיֶּלֶד אֶת הַמֶּרְק.	<u>הפעיל</u>

The verb may also be stative, as in:

We saw a beautiful winter coat.	רָאִינוּ מַעִיל חוֹרֵף יָפֵה.	<u>פעל</u>
The salesman showed us the coat.	הַמוֹכֵר הֵרָאָה לָנוּ אֶת הַמַּעִיל.	<u>הפעיל</u>

b. Cause to become/cause to happen (on its own)

Although one tends to think of causatives in the sense of causing to do something, the number of verbs referring to causing to happen, or causing to become, is much greater.

1. Verbs associated with *pa'al* > causative *hif'il* verbs

Some verbs share roots with *pa'al*; when they are conjugated in *hif'il*, it adds the feature of causative onto the basic meaning of the verb.

The light is on.	הָאוֹר דּוֹלֵק.	<u>פעל</u>
He turned on the light.	הוּא הִדְלִיק אֶת הָאוֹר.	<u>הפעיל</u>

We forgot everything.	שָׁכַחְנוּ אֶת הַכֹּל.	<u>פעל</u>
Time made us forget (obliterated) all of the details.	הַזְמַן הִשְׁכִּיחַ אֶת כָּל הַפְּרִטִים.	<u>הפעיל</u>

2. Verbs a

The childre

He scared t

He failed th

The teacher

3. nouns >

Some *hif'il*

There is a li

He limited

The king ru

Who crown

4. adjective

Some *hif'il*

The tea is no

We should s

The skies are

He clarified

we did not u

c. Cause to

There is a sig

'becoming'

physical/bodi

bringing an a

adjective, as

He is very pa

He became pa

news.

2. Verbs associated with *nif'al* > causative *hif'il* verbs

The children got scared.	הילדים נבהלו.	<u>נפעל</u>
He scared the children.	הוא הבהיל את הילדים.	<u>הפעיל</u>
He failed the exams.	הוא נכשל בבחינות.	<u>נפעל</u>
The teacher failed everybody.	המורה הכשיל את כולם.	<u>הפעיל</u>

3. nouns > causative *hif'il* verbs

Some *hif'il* verbs are derived from nouns.

There is a limit/border to everything.	יש גבול לכל דבר.	<u>שם</u>
He limited us in everything.	הוא הגביל אותנו בכל.	<u>הפעיל</u>
The king ruled for many years.	המלך משל שנים רבות.	<u>שם</u>
Who crowned you (made you a king)?	מי המליך אותך?	<u>הפעיל</u>

4. adjectives > causative *hif'il* verbs

Some *hif'il* verbs are derived from adjectives.

The tea is not sweet enough.	התה לא מספיק מתוק.	<u>תואר</u>
We should sweeten the tea.	צריך להמתיק את התה.	<u>הפעיל</u>
The skies are clear.	השמיים בהירים.	<u>תואר</u>
He clarified a number of things that we did not understand.	הוא הבהיר לנו כמה דברים שלא הבנו.	<u>הפעיל</u>

c. Cause to become/acquire a new characteristic

There is a significant number of instances in which *hif'il* verbs refer to 'becoming' in the sense of 'acquiring quality of colors or some physical/bodily characteristics'. The verbs signify a change of state, of bringing an animate or inanimate object to a new state, described by an adjective, as in *הָפִיר* 'gray' > *הָפִיר* 'turn gray/become gray':

He is very pale.	הוא חיוור מאוד.	<u>תואר</u>
He became pale when he heard the news.	הוא החוויר כאשר שמע את החדשות.	<u>הפעיל</u>

The copper vessels are rusty. תואר כלי הנחושת חלודים.
 They became rusty because we left הפעיל הם החלידו כי השארנו
 them out all winter. אותם בחוץ כל החורף.

The fruits are not yet ripe. תואר הפירות עדיין לא בשלים.
 The fruits have not yet ripened. הפעיל הפירות עוד לא הבשילו.

Some *hif'il* verbs of the same root can be both transitive and intransitive. The intransitive verbs can be paraphrased as 'become + (quality)', whereas the transitive verbs can be paraphrased as 'cause + (quality)', where the transitive verbs can be paraphrased as 'causing something to become'.

Intransitive

get dark החשיכו = נהיו תשוכים
 With the setting of the sun, the עם רדת השמש החשיכו השמיים.
 skies darkened.

Transitive

cause it to become dark החשיך = גרם לכך שיהיה חושך
 They darkened the room and the הם החשיכו את האולם והחצנה
 show began. התחילה.

Intransitive

become/get fat השמין = נהיה שמן
 The more one gets fat, the ככל שמשמנים כך יורדת איכות החיים.
 more one's quality of life goes
 down.

Transitive

cause someone to get fat השמין = גרם לכך שמישו יהיה שמן
 It is not the jeans that make her fat, זה לא הגיינס שמשמין אותה אלא
 but rather the chocolate cake. עוגת השוקולד.

Intransitive

Became shiny הבריקו = נהיו מבריקות
 His eyes shone in the dark. עיניו הבריקו בחשכה.

Transitive

caused them to shine הבריקה = גרמה להם להבריק
 She shone/polished the silver. היא הבריקה את כלי הכסף.

Relations

Sometimes meanings, Consider the has a cause (grow up)'.
 pa'al: grow
 They grew
 pi'el: grow
 There they

pa'al: grow

They grew

pi'el: grow

There they

The second

counterpart

(get bigger)'.
 pa'al: grow
 The business
 Hif'il: to enl.
 He increased
 He enlarged

pa'al: grow

The business

Hif'il: to enl.

He increased

He enlarged

4.7 Huf'al

The name of

singular masc

The *hif'il-huf'*

essentially the

verbs that do

sequence *u-a-*

conjugation is

Similarly, it c

does not have

past tense is r

pronoun prefix

תואר כלי הנחושת ה
הפעיל הם החלידו כ
אותם בחוץ כ

תואר הפירות עדיין
הפעיל הפירות עוד ל

both transitive and
used as 'become'
paraphrased as גרם

החשיכו = נהיו חשוכים
עם רדת השמש החשיכו

החשיך = גרם לכך שיה
הם החשיכו את הא
התחילה.

השמין = נהיה שמן
ככל שמשמינים כך יורז

השמין = גרם לכך שמיש
זה לא הגינס שמשמין
עוגת השוקולד.

הבריקו = נהיו מבריקו
עיניו הבריקו בחשכה.

הבריקה = גרמה להם
היא הבריקה את כלי ה

Relationship between verbs in *pa'al*, *pi'el* and *hif'il*

Sometimes a *pa'al* verb can have two separate, though related, meanings, each of which is realized as a different causative verb. Consider the verb גָּדַל. The first meaning, which denotes 'growing up', has a causative counterpart in the *pi'el* conjugation 'raising (causing to grow up)'.

pa'al: grow up (intransitive)

They grew up on a farm. הם גָּדְלוּ בחווה.

pi'el: grow, raise (transitive)

There they raised turkeys. שם הם גידלו תרנגולי הודו.

The second meaning, which denotes 'getting larger', has a causative counterpart in the *hif'il* conjugation, 'enlarging, increasing (causing to get bigger)'.

pa'al: grow in size/numbers (intransitive)

The business grew. העסק גדל.

Hif'il: to enlarge, increase size or number (transitive)

He increased the size of the business. הוא הגדיל את העסק.

He enlarged the picture. הוא הגדיל את הצילום.

4.7 *Huf'al* conjugation

בניין הופעל

The name of this pattern verb group *huf'al* reflects the third person singular masculine in the past tense, its citation form.

The *hif'il-huf'al* relationship is similar to the *pi'el-pu'al* one: *huf'al* is essentially the internal passive of *hif'il*, and there are virtually no *huf'al* verbs that do not have *hif'il* counterparts. The discontinuous vowel sequence *u-a* appears in all the tenses. Like *pu'al*, the *huf'al* conjugation is limited to the tenses only: present, past and future. Similarly, it does not have an imperative or an infinitive mood, and does not have a verbal noun. The *h-* of the prefix characteristic of the past tense is replaced by *m-* in the present tense, and by the personal pronoun prefixes of the future tense.

The *u* stem vowel is represented by the vowel קבוץ, such as in הִבְהֵר, but in the contemporary spelling, especially in texts without vowels, the ו represents the vowel *u*, such as in הוֹבְהֵר.

Note

The *huf'al* conjugation is also referred to as the *hof'al* conjugation. Both *u* or *o* vowel are acceptable as the prefix vowels of this *binyan*.

4.7.1 Regular Verbs

שלמים

Present tense

זמן הווה

The present tense of this conjugation pattern has a *mu-* prefix tense marker. The feminine singular stem changes to *-CCéCet*. As is the case in all *huf'al* tenses, the vowel sequence *u-a* is part of the pattern that characterizes it as passive. Present tense forms function as verbs, as nouns and as adjectives. No vowel reduction takes place in the stem when stress moves to the suffix in the present tense.

להיות מִזְנָח to be neglected

יחיד/ה:	(אני, אתה, הוא) מִזְנָח; (אני, את, היא) מִזְנַחַת*
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו, אתם, הם) מִזְנָחִים; (אנחנו, אתן, הן) מִזְנָחוֹת

*The usual vowel pattern for the feminine singular is מִפְעֶלֶת, but the final ח, which is a guttural letter, causes the change of vowel from *e* to *a*, as in מִזְנַחַת.

In texts without vowels: מוֹזְנָח, מוֹזְנַחַת, מוֹזְנָחִים, מוֹזְנָחוֹת

Passive participles in *huf'al* that function as adjectives:

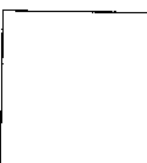
abstract	מופשט	defined	מוגדר
limited	מוגבל	recommended	מומלץ
absolute	מוחלט	complex	מורכב

Passive participles in *huf'al* that function as nouns:

juror	מושבע	candidate	מועמד
unemployed	מובטל	authorized person	מוסמך

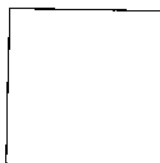
Past tense

The past tense
In the first
In the third
The reduction



Future tense

The stem of
stress move
conjugated
use are the t



Variants with

1. The letters
When it is t
when it follo

2. The letters

i. When it is

ii. When it is

iii. When the

2, such as in הִבְהִיר, without vowels, the

huf'al conjugation. s of this *binyan*.

שלמים

זמן הווה

a *mu-* prefix tense *éCet*. As is the case of the pattern that function as verbs, as s place in the stem

יחיד/ה:	(אני, א)
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו, ו)

r is מִפְעֵלֶת, but the of vowel from *e* to

מוזנח,	מוגדר
es:	מומלץ
d	מורכב
	מועמד
erson	מוסמך

Past tense

זמן עבר

The past tense of *huf'al* has two stem variants:

In the first and second persons: *huCCaC-* הפִּעַל-

In the third person feminine singular and plural: *huCCeC-* הפִּעְל-

The reduction from *a* to *e* occurs when stress is moved to the suffix.

יחיד/ה:	(אני) הִזְנַחְתִּי, (אתה) הִזְנַחְתָּ, (את) הִזְנַחְתְּ,
	הוא הִזְנַח, היא הִזְנַחָה
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו) הִזְנַחְנוּ, (אתם) הִזְנַחְתֶּם, (אתן) הִזְנַחְתֶּן,
	הם/הן הִזְנַחוּ

Future tense

זמן עתיד

The stem of future tense verbs is *-uCCaC-*, becoming *-uCCeC-* when stress moves to the suffix. There are very few verbs in *huf'al* that are conjugated in all persons in the future tense. The forms that are most in use are the third person forms.

יחיד/ה:	(אני) אֶזְנַח, (אתה) תִּזְנַח, (את) תִּזְנַחֲנִי,
	הוא יִזְנַח, היא תִּזְנַח
רבים/ות:	(אנחנו) נִזְנַח, (אתם) תִּזְנַחוּ, (אתן) תִּזְנַחוּ (תִּזְנַחְנָה),
	הם יִזְנַחוּ, הן יִזְנַחוּ (תִּזְנַחְנָה)

Variants with ב', כ', פ'

1. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as *b, k, p*

When it is the second root letter of all the tenses and moods (except when it follows a first root letter ע', ה', ח', א')

עבר: הִסַּבְּ, הוּוּה: מִסַּכְּ, עתיד: יִסַּכְּ

2. The letters ב', כ', פ' are realized as *v, kh, f*

i. When it is the first root letter in all the tenses and moods

עבר: הִכְשַׁר, הוּוּה: מִכְשַׁר, עתיד: יִכְשַׁר

ii. When it is the final root letter in all the tenses and moods

עבר: הִקְרַב, הוּוּה: מִקְרַב, עתיד: יִקְרַב

iii. When the second root letter follows א', ע', ה', ח':

מִאֲפַל, מִעֲקַר

Variations with radicals 'א, 'ע

When the first letter of the root is א, ע, the initial vowel *u* becomes a *kamats katan*, which is realized as *o*. The חטף קמץ in the first root letter echoes that initial vowel and is also pronounced *o*:

mo'omad מעמד mo'ofal מאפל

Whenever a zero *shva* is expected, we find a *hataf patah* instead: הפעלו, תשאלי.

4.7.2 Irregular verbs

גזרות חסרים ונחים

The "ע"ו/ע"י root classification

The *huf'al* form of ע"ו/ע"י roots is characterized by the absence of the second root consonant.

להיות מוכן to be prepared

<u>ע"ו/ע"י</u>			כ-ו-נ
	הם	היא	הוא
<u>Present</u>	מוכנים	מוכנה	מוכן
<u>Past</u>	הוכנו	הוכנה	הוכן
<u>Future</u>	יוכנו	תוכן	יוכן

The חסרי פ"נ root classification

The חסרי פ"נ is the group of *huf'al* verbs in which the first root consonant נ is missing in the entire conjugation (since it is always followed by a consonant).

להיות מגש to be presented

<u>חסרי פ"נ</u>			נ-ג-ש
	הם	היא	הוא
<u>Present</u>	מגשים	מגשת	מגש
<u>Past</u>	הגשו	הגשה	הגש
<u>Future</u>	יגשו	תגש	יגש

As in other *binyanim*, there is no assimilation if a guttural follows, e.g., in הנחל, and as in *hif'il*, there are a few verbs with separate meanings derived from the same root, where one verb will assimilate the נ, according to the rules, while the other one will keep it, as in regular verb forms, so as to maintain the distinction between them:

Gloss
be told
be compare

The פ"י
When the f
throughout
the u vowel

חסרי פ"י

Present
Past
Future

The ל"י
When the th
the " is pres
position wh
or e.

נחי ל"י

Present
Past
Future

4.7.3 Mean
Because of
grammatical
than its initia
the active ser

Dan deposited
The check w

The subject c
counterpart

Gloss	Citation form	Root
be told	הגיד	נ-ג-ד
be compared to	הנגיד (ל)	נ-ג-ד

The ה"י root classification

When the first root consonant is ה, it is realized as the prefix vowel *u* throughout the derivation. The ה and the prefix vowel are conflated into the *u* vowel.

להיות מורד to be taken down

חסרי פ"י	הם	היא	י-ר-ד
<u>Present</u>	מורדים	מורדת	מורד
<u>Past</u>	הורדו	הורדה	הורד
<u>Future</u>	יורדו	תורד	יורד

The ה"י root classification

When the third root consonant is ה, it is realized as the vowel *ey*, and the ה is present in the first and second persons of the past tense. In final position where it is represented in the spelling as ה, it is realized as *a* or *e*.

להיות מפנה ל to be referred to

נחי ל"י	הם	היא	הוא	פ-נ-ה
<u>Present</u>	מפנים	מפנית	מפנה	אתה מפנה
<u>Past</u>	הפנו	הפנתה	הפנה	הפנית
<u>Future</u>	יפנו	תפנה	תפנה	תפנה

4.7.3 Meaning associated with *huf'al*

Because of the passive nature of the *huf'al* conjugation, the grammatical subject of the sentence is the recipient of the action rather than its initiator. Typically, the agent (the one performing the action) in the active sentence is not retained in the passive version.

Dan deposited the check in the bank. דן הפקיד את ההמחאה בבנק.
 The check was deposited in the bank. ההמחאה הופקדה בבנק.

The subject of the active sentence, the agent, may surface in the passive counterpart as an indirect (or oblique) object, signaled by the

preposition על ידי 'by'. In this example, there is an emphasis on the agent, on Dan, as being the one who deposited the check.

The check was deposited in the bank by Dan himself.
 ההמחאה הופקדה בבנק על ידי דן בעצמו.

The recipient is often an object or an entity (המחאה) and not a person. A few verbs apply to human recipients of actions, as in the following example:

The new immigrants were discriminated against by the local residents.
 המהגרים הופלו לרעה על ידי התושבים המקומיים.

While *huf'al* is the passive counterpart of *hif'il*, it is important to remember that not all *hif'il* verbs have *huf'al* counterparts. However, the reverse is true: all *huf'al* verbs have an active counterpart in *binyan hif'il*.

Hif'il verbs that are intransitive do not have *huf'al* counterparts.

Intransitive

They did not come early.
 הם לא הקדימו לבוא.
 לא הוקדמו-

Hif'il verbs that are transitive are likely to have *huf'al* counterparts.

Transitive: active > passive

The engineers activated all the computers.
 המהנדסים הפעילו את כל המחשבים.

All the computers were activated.
 כל המחשבים הופעלו.

5.1
5.2
5.3
5.4
5.5
5.6
5.7
5.8
5.9

5.1 Intro

A noun is
to people,
the follow
the verb, o
have a gran

5.1.1 Nou

1. Comm

Common n
preceded b
the book
any book
some book

Common n
example, s
particular
'place', w
such as
place.Com
refers to t
things such
countable n

Chapter 5

The noun system

- 5.1 Introduction to the noun system
- 5.2 Indefinite and definite noun forms
- 5.3 Gender features
- 5.4 Number features
- 5.5 Noun patterns
- 5.6 Nouns derived from verbs
- 5.7 Noun patterns associated with semantic features
- 5.8 Significant patterns with no semantic association
- 5.9 Acronyms

5.1 Introduction to the noun system

A noun is a major part-of-speech category that includes words that refer to people, places, things, ideas, or concepts. Nouns may act as any of the following: subject of the verb, object of the verb, indirect object of the verb, or object of a preposition (or postposition). All Hebrew nouns have a grammatical gender.

5.1.1 Noun categories

1. Common nouns

שמות עצם כלליים

Common nouns are nouns, such as סֵפֶר 'book' or כָּלֵב 'dog', that can be preceded by a definite article or other modifiers:

the book	הַסֵּפֶר
any book	כָּל סֵפֶר
some books	מִסְפָּר סֵפָרִים

Common nouns represent one or all of the members of a class. For example, *singer* represents all singers, as distinct from representing a particular singer, such as אריק איינשטיין 'Arik Einstein', or מקום 'place', which represents any place, as distinct from a proper noun, such as ירושלים 'Jerusalem', which signifies a particular place. Common nouns can be animate or inanimate. An inanimate noun refers to things that are not alive. An animate noun refers to living things such as people and animals (but not to plants). They can be countable nouns or non-countable nouns:

1. Countable nouns

Countable nouns are ones that have distinct units that can be counted and have a singular and a plural form:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
bottle(s)	בקבוקים	בקבוק
dog(s)	כלבים	כלב

2. Non-countable nouns

Non-countable nouns are usually mass nouns that cannot be counted. Most are singular, such as חול 'sand' or סוכר 'sugar'. A few mass nouns are plural, such as מים 'water', חיים 'life'.

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
flour		קמח
air		אוויר
water (waters)	מים	
sky (skies)	שמים	

Note

Non-countable mass nouns, such as חול, קמח, יונו, can be made into countable nouns by adding units of measure, such as:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Countable units</u>	<u>Singular</u>
a glass of water	כוס מים	מים
a bottle of olive oil	בקבוק שמן זית	שמן זית
a teaspoon of sugar	כפית סוכר	סוכר

Collective nouns: countable and non-countable

Collective nouns refer to a group of people, animals or objects as a group: עם 'nation', משפחה 'family', etc. As such, these nouns have a singular as well as a plural form:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Singular</u>
political party(ies)	מפלגות	מפלגה
troupe(s), band	להקות	להקה
family	משפחות	משפחה
nation(s)	עמים	עם

However, the singular form shares a feature of the non-countable nouns as well, since in order to specify single units of nouns, such as the ones above, unit nouns have to be used to count them:

Gloss

party me
band me
family me
national(s)

2. Proper

A proper n
or object.
Person's n

Place nam

Object's na

Titles add

When titles
definite or n
Mrs./Ms. Y
Doctor/Dr.
Captain Bar

3. Concrete

A division
between con
and substan
states, event
existence, e.g.
'music'.

Abstract nou
nouns are cou

Abstract nouFeminine

culture/s
art/s

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Countable units</u>	<u>Singular</u>
party member(s)	חבר מפלגה – חברי מפלגה	מפלגה
band member(s)	חבר להקה – חברי להקה	להקה
family member(s)	בן משפחה – בני משפחה	משפחה
national(s)	בן עם – בני עם	עם

2. Proper nouns

שמות פרטיים

A proper noun is a noun that is the name of a specific individual, place, or object.

Person's name	Daniel	דניאל
	Dina	דינה
Place name	Jerusalem	ירושלים
	Israel	ישראל
Object's name	The Knesset	הכנסת

Titles added to names

When titles are added to names (usually last names) the phrase can be definite or indefinite.

Mrs./Ms. Yisraeli	הגברת ישראל	גברת ישראל
Doctor/Dr. Levi	הד"ר לוי	ד"ר לוי
Captain Barzilay	הסרן ברזילאי	סרן ברזילאי

3. Concrete and abstract nouns

A division of nouns can also be made according to the distinction between concrete and abstract nouns. Concrete nouns refer to objects and substances that exist physically, while abstract nouns refer to states, events, concepts, feelings, qualities, etc., that have no physical existence, e.g. חופש 'freedom', אושר 'happiness', רעיון 'idea', מוסיקה 'music'.

Abstract nouns can be countable or non-countable. Most concrete nouns are countable. Some are non-countable.

Abstract nouns – countable

<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>
culture/s	תרבות, תרבויות	symbol/s	סמל, סמלים
art/s	אמנות, אמנויות	holiday/s	חג, חגים

4. Another marker of a definite noun is a pronoun suffix of possession:
our house ביתנו/הבית שלנו my apartment דירת/הדירה שלי

5. By definition, all proper nouns (names of people and any other entity) are definite, which in itself already suggests that the presence of the definite article -ה is not a necessary condition for determining that a noun is definite.

6. A noun can have an independent form, שם נפרד, or it can have a dependent form, שם נסמך, when it is the first component of a two-noun phrase or is a noun that has a suffix attached to it.

Independent noun

house בית garden גנה

שם נפרד

גנה

Dependent noun

a. The first component of a two-noun phrase:

a coffeehouse בית קפה a flower garden גנת פרחים

שם נסמך

b. Has a suffix attached to it:

my house ביתי my garden גנתי

A noun's dependent form may undergo some internal vowel changes, and predictable changes at the end of the word:

-ה < -ת דירה < דירת- -ים < -י אנשים < אנשי-

Remember

Most learners tend to memorize a singular word, rather than the forms and features that are important for its use in a variety of contexts. To use the noun appropriately in context, the following features of the noun have to be memorized:

1. the form of the independent singular noun,
2. the form of the plural,
3. the form of the dependent singular noun,
4. the form of the dependent plural noun, and
5. its gender.

Illustration of the features of a masculine noun and a feminine noun:

Masculine	זכר	Feminine	נקבה
Singular	יחיד		יחידה
a house	בַּיִת (בַּיִת-)	an apartment	דִּירָה (דִּירָת-)
Plural	רבים		רבות
houses	בָּתִּים (בָּתֵּי-)	apartments	דִּירוֹת (דִּירוֹת-)

Dual endings

Dual endings -יָם *-áyim* can signal either 'two of' or 'a pair of'.

1. Some nouns (mostly time units) have three forms: a singular form, a plural form, and a dual form. When the dual form is used it means 'two of'.

	<u>Dual</u>		<u>Plural</u>		<u>Singular</u>
two weeks	שְׁבוּעִים	weeks	שְׁבוּעוֹת	week	שְׁבוּעַ
two months	חֳדָשִׁים	months	חֳדָשִׁים	month	חֹדֶשׁ

2. The concept of duality can designate 'a pair of', and the dual form points to that feature of the noun, and is considered also its plural form.

	<u>Dual/plural</u>		<u>Singular</u>
a pair of socks/socks	גַּרְבָּיִם	stocking, sock	גַּרְבֵּי ז.
a pair of hands/hands	יָדַיִם	hand	יָד נ.

The actual counting with such nouns is done by adding the noun זוג 'a pair of' before the singular noun, and using זוגות 'pairs of' if more than one unit is being counted.

I have two pairs of glasses: $\text{יש לי שני זוגות משקפיים}$;
 a pair of sunglasses and a pair of $\text{זוג משקפי שמש וזוג משקפי ראייה}$.
 vision glasses.

In the singular זוג משקפיים 'a pair of glasses' the inclusion of the noun זוג 'a pair of' is optional. The only way to form the plural is to add the plural of זוג , זוגות .

Note

When the singular form of the noun ends in -ה in the dual form, the -ה becomes -ת (as it is a dependent form), and the dual ending is added:

Feminine	two years	שְׁנָתַיִם	a year	שְׁנָה (נ) שָׁנִים
	two hours	שְׁעָתַיִם	an hour	שְׁעָה (נ) שָׁעוֹת

5.2 Ind

In Hebre
 plural:

A young

Hats and
 accessory

A definit
 context o
 speaker a
 following

1. The de
 The hous
 town.

We bougl
 textbooks

2. In a cor
 nouns in
 affiliation

the books
 the proble
 school pup

3. Posses
 possessive
 it. When
 followed
 article:
 my books

For intern
 pronoun su

5.2 Indefinite and definite noun forms

In Hebrew there is no indefinite article, either in the singular or in the plural:

A young woman entered the store. אישה צעירה נכנסה לחנות.

Hats and sunglasses are an important accessory in the summer season. כובעים ומשקפי שמש הם אביזר חשוב בעונת הקיץ.

A definite noun usually occurs when the noun is made specific in the context of the discourse, or is understood from the shared context of the speaker and listener outside the text, and it is formally marked in the following ways:

1. The definite article comes in the form of a prefix to the noun:

The house we plan to buy is outside town. ה**בית** שאנחנו מתכוננים לקנות הוא מחוץ לעיר.

We bought books. The books are textbooks. קנינו ספרים. ה**ספרים** הם ספרי לימוד.

2. In a construct phrase – that is, a phrase that has two, or at times more nouns in a morphological relationship expressing possession, origin, affiliation, etc. – the definite article is prefixed to the last noun:

<u>the</u> bookstore	חנות ה ספרים	a bookstore	חנות ספרים
<u>the</u> problems of school pupils	בעיות תלמידי בית ה ספר	problems of school pupils	בעיות תלמידי בית ספר

3. Possessive noun phrases are considered definite. When the possessive pronoun is attached to the noun, no definite article precedes it. When possession is expressed by two separate words – a noun followed by של 'of' + pronoun – the noun is prefixed by a definite article:

my books ספרי = הספרים שלי my book ספר = הספר שלי

For internal changes of the vowel patterns in the forms to which pronoun suffixes are attached, see Appendix 2, Noun Tables.

4. The definite article is also used for abstract nouns, which embody a general concept, rather than an incident or occurrence (in English these nouns are usually capitalized and appear with no article):

All that matters is Truth and Honor. כל מה שחשוב זה האמת והכבוד.
Time heals all. הזמן מרפא את הכל.

5.3 Gender features

As noted above, all nouns in Hebrew have a gender feature, either masculine זָכָר or feminine נְקֵבָה. Some noun endings are associated with either the singular form of feminine nouns or with the plural form of both genders. Gender is indicated in most dictionaries. The gender notation is (♂) for masculine and (♀) for feminine.

Except for inherent biological gender features, there does not seem to be a particular reason why certain nouns are masculine, while others are feminine. Even in a class where nouns share a common meaning, nouns do not necessarily share gender features with one another, as shown in the illustrations below.

Example 1: hotels

Gender: masculine	hotel	מלון/בית-מלון	מין: זכר
	residence/home	קמרון	
	inn	פונדק	
Gender: feminine	inn/hostel	אכסניה	מין: נקבה

Example 2: stores

Gender: masculine	supermarket	מרפד/סופרמרקט	מין: זכר
	minimarket	מינימרקט	
	hypermarket	היפרמרקט	
	boutique	בוטיק	
Gender: feminine	store	חנות	מין: נקבה
	bookstore	חנות ספרים	
	grocery store	מפלת/צרכניה	

5.3.1 Gender: form and meaning

The gender assigned to nouns is language-specific, and does not necessarily share the same noun-specific gender with other languages that also have grammatically assigned gender (such as French, German, Arabic and others).

Concrete

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city/ies

Abstract

Feminine

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Examples

Feminine

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מין: נקבה מרפא/מרפאות

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as French, German,

Concrete nouns

<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>
pool/s	בְּרִיכה (נ) בְּרִיכות	room/s	חֶדֶר (ז) חֶדְרִים
city/ies	עִיר (נ) עָרִים	record/s	תְּקֵלִיט (ז) תְּקֵלִיטִים

Abstract nouns

<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>
culture	תְּרָבוּת (נ) תְּרָבוּתִים	symbol	סִמּוֹל
art	אֲמֻנָה	regime	מִמְשָׁל

Event nouns

stage show	הַצְגָּה (נ) הַצְגוֹת	stage play	מַחְזָה (ז) מַחְזוֹת
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Anatomical gender is reflected in the assignment of gender to most animate nouns.

Examples - human beings

<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>
woman/women	אִשָּׁה (נ) נָשִׁים	man/men	גֵּבֶר (ז) גְּבָרִים
actress/es	שַׁחֲקִינִית (נ) שַׁחֲקִינִיּוֹת	actor/actors	שַׁחֲקָן (ז) שַׁחֲקָנִים
girl/girls	יְלָדָה (נ) יְלָדוֹת	boy/boys	יְלֵד (ז) יְלָדִים

Examples - other living beings

<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>
mare(s)	סוּסָה (נ) סוּסוֹת	horse(s)	סוּס (ז) סוּסִים
female dog(s)	כְּלָבָה (נ) כְּלָבוֹת/כְּלָבוֹתִים	dog(s)	כְּלָב (ז) כְּלָבִים
she-donkey(s)	אֲתוֹן (נ) אֲתוֹנוֹת	donkey/(s)	חֲמוֹר (ז) חֲמוֹרִים

Some of the nouns that have biological gender features are often assigned a grammatical gender that does not reflect true gender distinctions. For instance, the gender of the noun נָחַש 'snake' is masculine, regardless of whether the snake is male or female. The generic noun צִפּוֹר 'bird', which stands for any bird, is feminine in contemporary Hebrew. Specific categories of birds are assigned either feminine or masculine gender. For instance, while סוּנְגִיית 'swallow' and חֲסִידָה 'stork' are feminine, זֶרְזִיר 'starling' and טֶנֶס 'peacock' are masculine. Plants are also living things and in the natural world have gender features, but in their representation in Hebrew have an assigned gender and are treated in this respect as objects. While the general noun פֶּחַח 'flower' is masculine, specific flowers within this category such as כְּלָנִית 'anemone' or כְּקֵפֶת 'cyclamen' are feminine, while others like נֶרְקִיס 'daffodil' and צְבֵעוֹנִי 'tulip' are masculine nouns.

5.3.2 Gender markings

Many nouns that end in ה־ *-a* or in ת־ *-t* are feminine, but it does not apply to all of them. It is a safe assumption for a learner to consider that these nouns are feminine, unless otherwise indicated.

1. The general identification of the ה־ suffix is the safest, because of the small number of exceptions involved: only a few isolated items, like (penultimately stressed) לַיְלָה 'night', שׁוֹלְמָה 'apprentice', are masculine, as is evident from phrases like לַיְלָה טוֹב 'good night'.

2. Many nouns that end in ת־ are feminine, as long as that ת־ is part of a suffix.

ת־ <i>-it</i>	mercury	כַּסְפִּית	plan	תְּכָנִית
ות־ <i>-ut</i>	openness	פְּתִיחוּת	culture	תְּרַבּוּת
ת־ <i>-et</i>	pipe	מְקַטְרֵת	rabies	כְּלָבָת
ת־ <i>-at</i>	delegation	מְשַׁלַּחַת	flu	שִׁפְעַת

When that ת is a root letter, the gender is unpredictable. It is often masculine:

death	מָוֶת	olive	זַיִת
radio play	תְּסַכִּית	service	שֵׁרוּת

but may be feminine as well:

religion	דָּת	pliers	צָבָת
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Similarly sounding ט is not part of a gender determination, since ט is never part of the feminine suffix; it is always a root consonant, and words ending with it can be – unpredictably – either masculine or feminine (although in reality, feminine nouns ending with ט are rare).

record	תְּקִלִּיט (ז)	selection	לְקִט (ז)
needle	מְחַט (ט)	item	פְּרִיט (ז)

3. When the final vowel is ה־ *-e*, a noun is likely to be masculine, as in the following example: מַחְזֵה 'stage play'. The ending ה־ *-e* is a regular feature in nouns derived from participles.

intern	מְתַמַּחַה	lecturer	מְרַצֵּה
drink	מְשַׁקֵּה	field	שָׂדֵה

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4. Historically, a few nouns were documented in either gender, sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine, such as:

wedge	יָתֵד	way	דֶּרֶךְ	fire	אֵשׁ
bone	עֶצֶם	knife	סָכִין	coin	מִטְבֵּעַ
sun	שֶׁמֶשׁ	skeleton	שֵׁלֶד	wind	רוּחַ

However, in current Hebrew everyday usage, speakers use only one gender for these. Usually it is conceived of as strictly feminine, except for שֵׁלֶד 'skeleton' that is always masculine today. Only יָתֵד 'wedge' can be heard being used as either masculine or feminine. Similar usage can be observed in the plural word for 'face', פְּנִים, which to this day maintains a masculine-feminine duality.

5. The dual ending יִם- can also serve to some extent as a gender cue. Most human (and animal) limbs that end with this suffix, even when not dual in the real world (e.g., שֵׁנִים 'teeth'), are feminine:

hand/arm	יָד	knee	בִּרְךָ	ear	אָזֶן
thigh	שׁוֹק	foot/leg	רֵגֶל	eye	עֵין

On the other hand, יִם- forms that are not part of nature tend to be masculine:

pants	מְכַנְסִים	socks	גָּרְבָּיִם
spectacles	מִשְׁקָפִים	scissors	מִסְפָּרִים

But there are exceptions among these too: נְעָלִים 'shoes' is feminine. Because there are significant occurrences in each group, many speakers are often unsure whether the 'non-human-limb' forms are masculine or feminine, and their individual choices in everyday speech are not consistent.

5.3.3 Deriving feminine and plural forms

Nouns that refer to human beings often have four related forms reflecting number and gender features and sharing the same stem. The masculine form is considered to be the 'base' form that provides the basic stem from which the other forms are derived, with special gender or number suffixes added to them.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>בסיס/יחיד</u>
young person	בַּחֲרוֹת	בַּחֲרוּיִם	בַּחֲרוּהָ	בַּחֲרוּר
dancer	רַקְדָּנִיּוֹת	רַקְדָּנִים	רַקְדָּנִית	רַקְדָּן

Many nouns and all adjectives that are feminine singular are marked by the gender suffix ה- (the final consonant ה is silent), -ית or -ת , which is added to the unmarked form of the masculine. The stem of the base form may undergo some changes in vowel composition in the derived forms, including that of the feminine form (either because the stress moves to the last syllable, or because the feminine singular has a slightly different vowel sequence).

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>בסיס/יחיד</u>
painter	צַיִרֹת	צַיִרִים	צַיִרָת	צַיִר

Participle forms as nouns

Participle verb forms which serve as nouns or adjectives typically have a -ת - -é-et or a -ה - -a suffix for the feminine form.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>בסיס/יחיד</u>
agent	סוֹכְנוֹת	סוֹכְנִים	סוֹכְנֵת	סוֹכֵן
volunteer	מְתַנדָבוֹת	מְתַנדָבִים	מְתַנדָבֵת	מְתַנדָב
secretary	מְזַכְרוֹת	מְזַכְרִים	מְזַכְרָה	מְזַכֵּר

5.3.4 Nouns with different masculine and feminine stems

There is a group of nouns that have totally different words for masculine and feminine forms.

<u>Humans</u>	father	אָב	mother	אִם
	husband	בַּעַל	wife	אִשָּׁה
	bridegroom	חַתָּן	bride	כַּלָּה
<u>Animals</u>	donkey	חֲמוֹר	she-donkey	אֲתוֹן
	goat	תֵּישׁ	she-goat	עֵז
	bull	שׁוֹר	cow	פָּרָה

5.3.5 Feminine nouns with shared meanings

Other nouns that are assigned feminine gender and have no distinct feminine endings can be grouped according to shared and common meanings.

Nouns: cities

city, town	עִיר	small town	עִיירה
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Names of cities

Jerusalem	יְרוּשָׁלַיִם	Tel Aviv	תֵּל אָבִיב
London	לונדון	New York	ניו יורק

Nouns: c
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town	עִיָּרָה
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Aviv	תל אביב
York	ניו יורק

Nouns: countries

country	אֶרֶץ	state	מְדִינָה	homeland	מוֹלָדָת
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Names of countries

Israel	יִשְׂרָאֵל	USA	אַרְצוֹת הַבְּרִית
Spain	סְפָרַד	Mexico	מֶקְסִיקוֹ
China	סִין	Japan	יָפָן

Nouns for parts of the body

(ones that come in pairs and other body- related nouns with dual suffix)

ear	אָזְן-אָזְנִים	leg	רֵגֶל-רֵגְלַיִם
hand	יָד-יָדַיִם	eye	עַיִן-עַיִנַיִם
knee	בֶּרֶךְ-בְּרָכִים	shoulder	כַּתֵּף-כַּתְּפַיִם
thigh	יָרֵךְ-יָרְכִים	cheek	לַחַי-לַחְיִים
nail	צַפְרֵן-צַפְרָנִים	tooth	שֵׁן-שָׁנַיִם

5.4 Number features

The plural endings of nouns are not a clear indication of the gender of the noun. While in adjectival and present tense forms they indicate gender features, in the noun systems they merely indicate that the noun is a plural noun.

Masculine plural

A great number of masculine nouns share the plural suffix: ים-

	<u>יחיד</u>	<u>רבים</u>
house(s)	בֵּית	בָּתַיִם
room(s)	חֶדֶר	חֲדָרִים

There are a number of masculine nouns related to verbal roots (mostly with a middle ר) or that begin with the prefix -מ, and often denote a place or institution. These nouns are masculine, but their plural forms end with יות-

	<u>יחיד</u>	<u>רבים</u>
place(s)	מְקוֹם	מְקוֹמוֹת
dormitory(ies)	מַעוֹן	מַעוֹנוֹת

A smaller number of masculine nouns with the same singular shape and composition have the expected ים- ending in the plural form.

	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
airplane(s)	מְטוּסִים	מְטוּס
institute(s)	מְכוּנִים	מְכוּן

A number of masculine nouns without the prefix *-מ* also share the characteristic of having their plural end with *-ות* in the plural form, as in *מקומות* above.

	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
window(s)	חלונות	חלון
table	שולחנות	שולחן
cupboard, closet	ארוניות	ארון
street(s)	רחובות	רחוב

Note

1. Notice that many nouns that end in *-ון* or in *-ן*, such as *מעון, חלון, פתרון, שולחן*, are masculine nouns, and usually have a *-ות* plural ending, while, of course, their gender remains masculine.

2. Plural forms do not necessarily have the same stem as the singular forms. There can be internal changes:

	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
market(s)	שוקים	שוק
rabbi(s)	רבנים	רב
tax(es)	מסים	מס

Feminine plural

By the same token, a great number of feminine nouns, but not all, share the plural suffix: *-ות*.

Feminine nouns with plural suffix: *-ות*

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>יחידה</u>
apartment(s)	דירות	דיירה
exhibit(s)	תערוכות	תערוכה

Feminine nouns with plural suffix: *-ים*

There are a number of feminine nouns that have a feminine ending in the singular form, and yet the plural form suffix is *-ים*.

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The second

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The first group includes some living beings:

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>יחידה</u>
woman/women	נשים	אשה
ant(s)	נקמלים	נקמה

The second group includes many plants:

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>יחידה</u>
pea(s)	אפונים	אפונה
rose(s)	שושנים	שושנה

Others consist of a variety of feminine nouns:

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>יחידה</u>
year(s)	שנים	שנה
word(s)	מלים	מלה

Note

The plural נשים has two possible dependent forms נשי- and נשות-. These dependent forms are also the bases for adding pronoun suffixes: נשיתיהם or נשיהם.

The players and their wives were invited to the party. The directors' wives will be included in the list of invited guests. השחקנים ונשותיהם הוזמנו למסיבה. גם נשי (נשות) המנהלים ייכללו ברשימת המוזמנים.

The plural noun שנים has a dependent form שנות-, and it is the form to which pronoun suffixes are added.

The (years of the) nineties were years of economic growth. שנות התשעים היו שנים של צמיחה כלכלית.

5.5 Noun patterns

Many Hebrew nouns and adjectives are formed from specific consonantal roots plus skeletons of fixed vowels and variable consonantal slots with a possible prefix or suffix. We refer to these skeletal patterns as משקלים *mishkalim*. The term *mishkal* means 'canonical pattern'. Included are some illustrations as to how nouns are formed by combining particular roots with *mishkalim*. Notice that a root can provide the basis for several nouns, each distinguished by a specific pattern.

Here are four roots, which combine with patterns to produce nouns:

Gloss	מפעל	Gloss	פעילה	Root
comb	מַסְרָק	scanning	סְרִיקָה	ס-ר-ק
juicer	מְסַחֵט	squeezing	סְחִיטָה	ט-ח-ס
syringe	מְזַרֵק	shot; injection	זְרִיקָה	ז-ר-ק
propeller	מְדחֵף	push	דְחִיפָה	פ-ח-ד

Although the root does not exist on its own, most words sharing a common root tend to have a common meaning core, as one can see from horizontal scanning of the examples above. Thus, for instance, most items incorporating the root ס-ר-ק revolve around the notion of combing or scanning; entries with the root ט-ח-ס contain a squeezing core; ז-ר-ק forms have something to do with throwing, including the more restricted sense of injecting, which is a type of throwing of liquid, hence 'shot' can have two meanings reflecting both senses, of 'a throw' (as in basketball) or 'injection by syringe'; and the core of פ-ח-ד 'push' is extended to 'propelling'.

Vertical reading of the tables reveals something else. The non-linear morphological pattern, of a fixed vowel configuration with a possible affix, **also** tends to demonstrate some regularity. For instance, words sharing the discontinuous pattern מפעל often designate instruments, as in מזרק 'syringe', מסרק 'a comb', מדחף 'propeller', מסחט 'juicer'.

These form-and-meaning relationships do not occur across the board, and at times may not hold at all, or apply only in part. Some forms never followed the regularity to start with, and most departed from it with time, with varying degrees of deviation. Language is an evolving entity, and the relationship between form and meaning is not maintained for long.

5.5.1 Discontinuous and linear derivations of nouns

There are two main mechanical strategies for creating nouns: discontinuous formation of nouns, and linear derivation of nouns.

Discontinuous derivation of nouns

Discontinuous derivation of nouns is the combination of the root with a pattern to yield nouns. It is called discontinuous since the sequence of

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to produce nouns:

<u>פעולה</u>	<u>Root</u>
סְרִיקָה	ס-ר-ק
סְחִיטָה	ס-ח-ט
זְרִיקָה	ז-ר-ק
דְּחִיפָה	ד-ח-פ

Most words sharing a core, as one can see

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the root consonants is intermittent and is 'interrupted' by the vowels of the pattern. The vowels combine with the root consonants and at times with prefixes and suffixes to form the actual words.

Some common patterns are presented in the table below:

(C is used to designate any root consonant and the fixed vowels and prefix consonants are presented specifically as required by the particular *mishkal*).

CéCeC פעל	CaCáC פעל	CiCCúC פעול
dog כָּלָב	carpenter נָגַר	story סִפּוּר
king מֶלֶךְ	cook טָבַח	speech דְּבֹר
slave עֶבֶד	barber סַפֵּר	visit בִּקּוּר
CCiCá פעילה	miCCáC מפעל	maCCéC מפעל
writing כְּתִיבָה	letter מִכְתָּב	computer מְחַשֵּׁב
opening פְּתִיחָה	shelter מְקִלָּט	receiver מְקַלֵּט
examination בְּדִיקָה	test מְבַחֵן	battery מְצַבֵּר
maCCeCá מפעלה	CiCaCón פעלון	tiCCóCet תפעלת
test tube מְבַחֵנָה	memory זְכָרוֹן	outfit תְּלַבֵּשֵׁת
plough מְחַרְשָׁה	madness שִׁגְעוֹן	hairdo תְּסַרְקֵת
camera מְצַלְמָה	experience נִסְיוֹן	syndrome תְּסַמֵּנָת

In indicating the *mishkalim*, the C represents any root consonant, and the unchanging prefixes, suffixes and vowels (including the stressed vowel) are indicated in lower case.

Linear derivation of nouns

Linearly derived patterns are those in which a suffix is added to a base without affecting the stem or base of the noun. Some vowel changes may occur, such as the loss of the vowel *a* in סַנְדָּלָר < סַנְדָּל *sandál* > *sandlár*, and a change in spelling in חֲלִילָן 'flutist', derived from חֲלִיל *halíl* 'flute', where a *hataf patah* replaces the *kamats* vowel. These vowel changes are due to the shift in stress, not to any *mishkal*.

Compounding: recent linear derivations

Suffixes	Gloss	Noun	Gloss	Source
-ut	essence	מהות	< what	מה
-an	flutist	חלילן	< flute	חליל
-iya	carpenter's shop	נגריה	< carpenter	נגר
-on	small horse	סוסון	< horse	סוס
-ay	journalist	עיתונאי	< newspaper	עיתון
-it	truck	משאית	< load	משא
-ar	shoemaker	סנדלר	< sandal	סנדל

1. Word prefix compounding

The prefix words used in prefix compounding are largely borrowed from Aramaic and Greek, and modeled on Greco-Latin forms. They generate some nouns but more commonly adjectives:

<u>one-</u>				<u>חד-</u>
one-way	חד-סטרי	single parent		חד-הורי
<u>two-</u>				<u>דו-</u>
two-way	דו-סטרי	bilingual		דו-לשוני
				<u>חסר-</u>
inexperienced	חסר נסיון	experienced		בעל נסיון
<u>pre-</u>				<u>קדם-</u>
pre-military	קדם-צבאי	pre-historic		קדם-היסטורי
<u>inter-</u>				<u>בין-</u>
international	בינלאומי	interstellar		בין-כוכבי
<u>intra-</u>				<u>תוך-</u>
intra-group	תוך-קבוצתי	intracellular		תוך-תאי
<u>post-</u>				<u>אחר-</u>
post-Biblical	אחר-מקראי	post-congress		אחר-קונגרס
<u>multi-</u>				<u>רב-</u>
centipede	רב-רגל	multi-faceted		רב-פנים
<u>sub-</u>				<u>תת-</u>
substandard	תת-תקני	sub-human		תת-אנושי
<u>super-</u>				<u>על-</u>
supersonic	על-קולי	supernatural		על-טבעי
<u>non-</u>				<u>א-ל-</u>
no-rust	א-ל-מתכתתי	immortality		א-ל-מות

2. Foreign

Foreign suf
Hebrew), as

army comm

one who dis

kibbutz mer

Likkud part

nice young

very small

3. Compou

Blends invo

word. Some

as in:

movie theat

traffic light

lighthouse

4. Compou

Other blends

is lost in

transparent,

while.

Some illustra

pedestrian m

cable car

cellular phor

5.6 Nouns

Some very i

cases, the ve

also function

cases, certain

related to ver

related abstra

Gloss	Source
what	מה
flute	חליל
carpenter	נגר
horse	סוס
newspaper	עיתון
load	משא
sandal	סנדל

are largely borrowed
co-Latin forms. They
es:

	חד-
ent	חד-הורי
	דב-
	דו-לשוני
	בעל-
d	בעל נסיון
	קדם-
c	קדם-היסטורי
	בין-
	בין-נוכחי
	תוד-
ar	תוד-תאי
	פתר-
ess	פתר-קונגרס
	רב-
ed	רב-פנים
	תת-
	תת-אנושי
	על-
l	על-טבעי
	אל-
	אל-מות

2. Foreign suffixes

Foreign suffixes can be appended to native stems (mostly in colloquial Hebrew), as in:

	Noun	Suffix		Source
army commander	אגדוןר	< -ונר	army (e.g. 3 rd)	אגדה
one who disgraces	בזיונר		disgrace	בזיון
kibbutz member	קבוץניק	< -ניק	kibbutz	קבוץ
Likkud party member	לכודניק		Likkud party	לכוד
nice young man	פחורצייק	< -צייק	young man	פחור
very small	קטנצייק		small	קטן

3. Compounds: blends

Blends involve merging of two independent lexical items into a new word. Some such blends have been part of the lexicon for quite a while, as in:

	Blend	Stem 2	Stem 1
movie theater	קולנוע < movement	נוע	קול sound
traffic light	כמזור < light	אור	רמז hint; signal
lighthouse	מגדלור < light	אור	מגדל tower

4. Compounds: clipped blends

Other blends are more recent. In some of them, part of one of the bases is lost in the process of compounding, which makes them less transparent, and speakers may lose the connection to the base after a while.

Some illustrations:

	Blend	Stem 2	Stem 1
pedestrian mall	מדרחוב < street	רחוב	מדרכה sidewalk
cable car	רכבל < cable	כבל	רכבת train
cellular phone	פלאפון < telephone	טלפון	פלא wonder

5.6 Nouns derived from verbs

Some very large classes of nouns are derived from verbs. In some cases, the verb form itself, in its passive or active participle form, may also function as a noun; so do certain forms of the infinitive. In other cases, certain specific patterns designating abstract nouns are directly related to verbs, and the relationship between a particular *binyan* and its related abstract nominalization is fairly regular.

5.6.1 Active participles functioning as agent nouns

One of the most common sources for nouns is the active participle, which yields agent nouns (initiators of action) or instruments performing the action denoted by the verb.

בניין פֿעל - בינוני				
Gloss	Noun	Citation form		Verb type
governor	מוֹשֵׁל	govern	מֹשֵׁל	שלמים
worker	פוֹעֵל	act	פֹּעֵל	שלמים
baker	אוֹפֵה	bake	אֹפֵה	ליי
courier	רָץ	run	רָץ	עיו

בניין פיעל - בינוני				
Gloss	Noun	Citation form		Verb type
immigrant	מְהַגֵּר	immigrate	הִגֵּר	שלמים
designer	מְעַצֵּב	design	עֲצַב	שלמים
conductor	מְנַצֵּחַ	conduct	נָצַח	לי גרונית
translator	מְתַרְגֵּם	translate	תָּרַגַּם	מרובעים

בניין הפעיל - בינוני				
Gloss	Noun	Citation form		Verb type
guide	מְדַרְיֵךְ	guide	הִדְרִיךְ	שלמים
voter	מְצַבֵּיעַ	vote	הִצְבִּיעַ	לי גרונית
life guard	מְצִיל	save	הִצִּיל	פיי
leader	מְזַבִּיל	lead	הִזְבִּיל	פיי

בניין התפעל - בינוני				
Gloss	Noun	Citation form		Verb type
trainee	מְתַאֲמֵן	train	הִתְאַמֵּן	שלמים
adolescent	מְתַבְּגֵר	mature	הִתְבַּגֵּר	שלמים
assimilator	מְתַבּוֹלֵל	assimilate	הִתְבּוֹלֵל	כפולים
boxer	מְתַאֲגֵרֵף	box	הִתְאַגֵּרֵף	מרובעים

5.6.2 Passive participles

fiancé
divorcé
prisoner

elected person
absentee
missing person

notable
learned
fossil
close associate

jury member
unemployed
axiom
concept

5.6.3 Infinitives

Each *binyan* (verb form) is derived from a root and some registers, the occasionally s (gerund). It is c particles as we

Abstract nouns

the active participle, (action) or instruments

n form	Verb type
משל	שלמים
פעל	שלמים
אָפּה	ליי
כץ	עיו

n form	Verb type
הגר	שלמים
עצב	שלמים
נצח	לי גרונית
תרגם	מרובעים

n form	Verb type
הדריך	שלמים
הצביע	לי גרונית
הציל	פינ
הוכיל	פינ

n form	Verb type
התאמן	שלמים
התבגר	שלמים
התבולל	כפולים
התאגדר	מרובעים

5.6.2 Passive participles functioning as nouns

Passive participial forms occasionally function as nouns.

בניין פֻּעַל/פֻּעַל – בינוני פֻּעַל

Gloss	Noun	Citation form	Verb type
fiancé	אָרוס	get engaged	אָרס
divorcé	גָּרוּשׁ	drive away	גָּרשׁ
prisoner	שָׁבוּי	capture	שָׁבַח

בניין נפעל – בינוני

Gloss	Noun	Citation form	Verb type
elected person	נִבְחָר	be elected	נִבְחַר
absentee	נִפְקָד	be counted	נִפְקַד
missing person	נִעָדָר	be missing	נִעָדַר

בניין פֻּעַל – בינוני

Gloss	Noun	Citation form	Verb type
notable	מִכְבָּד	be respected	כָּבַד
learned	מְלֻמָּד	be taught	לָמַד
fossil	מְאָבָן	be fossilized	אָבַן
close associate	מִקְרָב	be brought closer	קָרַב

Gloss	Noun	Citation form	Verb type
jury member	מְשָׁבַע	be sworn	הִשָּׁבַע
unemployed	מְבֻטָּל	be laid off (work)	הִבְטַל
axiom	מְשֻׁכָּל	acquire knowledge	הִשְׁכִּיל
concept	מִוָּבָן	be understood	הִוָּבַן

5.6.3 Infinitive forms functioning as abstract nouns

Each *binyan* is associated with particular forms of abstract nouns. These verbal nouns can have the shape of an infinitive absolute מְקוּר or be nouns with assigned form and gender, which combine the root and some pattern related to a specific *binyan*. In the higher registers, the infinitive form of the verb (without ל- 'to') occasionally serves as an abstract noun (sometimes referred to as a gerund). It is commonly prefixed by בְּ- 'with, upon', but follows other particles as well.

	<u>In context</u>	<u>VN</u>	<u>Citation form</u>	
with the coming of night	עם בוא הלילה	בוא	come	בָּא
upon his coming to Israel	עם בואו לישראל			
upon his return from the front	בשובו מן החזית	שוב	return	שָׁב

5.6.4 Abstract verbal nouns associated with verbs

1. Derived from participles

As already shown, participial forms, either active or passive, may function as adjectives or as nouns. In some *binyanim*, abstract nouns may be derived from these participles by the addition of the common abstract nominalization suffix -ית (which is always assigned a feminine gender).

	<u>Abstract noun</u>		<u>Base</u>	
agency	סוכנות	agent	סוכן	פעל
ignorance	נבָּעֵרוֹת	ignorant	נבָּעֵר	נפעל
obstetrics	מִילָדוֹת	obstetrician	מִילָד	פֻּעַל
loyalty	נְאֻמָּנוּת	loyal	נְאֻמָּן	פִּי גְרוּנִית
obligation	מְחֻיְבוֹת	obliged	מְחֻיָּב	פֻּעַל
skill	מִיָּמְנוּת	skilled	מִיָּמָן	
secretariat	מְזַכְּרוֹת	secretary	מְזַכְּרִיר	הפעיל
being limited	מְגֻבְלוֹת	limited	מְגֻבֵּל	הופעל

2. 'Default' verbal nouns associated with *binyanim*

Each *binyan* has at least one default abstract nominalization associated with it, unrelated to its participial form(s). The relationship is fairly automatic, although in some cases the verbal noun may have acquired a meaning that is an 'offshoot' of the automatic basic one. If there is more than one nominalization associated with a *binyan*, it is usually much less frequent.

The commonest associations between specific *binyanim* and patterns of abstract noun formation are:

	<u>דוגמה</u>	<u>שורש</u>	<u>שם פעולה</u>	<u>בנין</u>
trip	נְסִיעָה	נ-ס-ע	פְּעִילָה	פעל
survival	הַשְׁרָדוֹת	ש-ר-ד	הַפְּעֵלוֹת (היפעלות)	נפעל
improvement	שְׁפוּר	ש-פ-ר	פְּעוּל (פיעול)	פיעל
behavior	הַתְּנַהְגוֹת	נ-ה-ג	הַתְּפַעְלוֹת	התפעל
beginning	הַתְּחִלָּה	ת-ח-ל	הַפְּעֵלָה	הפעיל

5.7 Noun

It is possible that some of the patterns that provide a characterization of many nouns follow a pattern of meaning and

5.7.1 Abstract

The commonest derived linear noun pattern is the one syllable

Monosyllable

essence being easy being thin; entity, being

Polysyllable

citizenship foolishness humanity carpentry

Many of the *i*. For instance 'religiosity' 'secularism'

Note

In texts with abstract pronunciation

pragmatism festiveness

5.7 Noun patterns associated with semantic features

It is possible to associate meaning categories with formal features of some of the nouns. They may be associated with a particular ending that provides some association of meaning, such as the *-ות* ending that characterizes many abstract nouns, or the *-מ* prefix which characterizes many nouns of location or instrument. Some of the most common pattern groups will be presented with a short discussion of their meaning and form associations.

5.7.1 Abstract nouns

The commonest abstract noun suffix is *-ות*. Such abstract nouns may be derived linearly from the base or constitute part of a discontinuous noun pattern. As mentioned earlier, this noun suffix signals that the noun is feminine. These derivations may involve bases consisting of one syllable, or ones consisting of two or more syllables.

Monosyllabic stems

<u>Derived abstract noun</u>		<u>Base</u>	
essence	מהות	what	מה
being easy, light	קלות	easy, light	קל
being thin; finesse	דקות	thin	דק
entity, being	ישות	there is	יש

Polysyllabic stems

citizenship	אזרחות	citizen	אזרח
foolishness	איוולות	fool	איוול
humanity	אנושות	human being	אנוש
carpentry	נגרות	carpenter	נגר

Many of such abstract nouns are derived from adjectives, which end in *i*. For instance, the adjective דתי 'religious' provides the base for דתיות 'religiosity', and חילוני 'secular' provides the base for חילוניות 'secularism'.

Note

In texts with vowels, a *dagesh hazak* is inserted into the ״ of the ending of abstract nouns derived from י- adjectives (it does not affect the pronunciation of the word).

<u>Derived noun</u>		<u>Base</u>	
pragmatism	מעשיות	pragmatic	מעשי
festiveness	חגיגיות	festive	חגיגי

VN Citation form

בוא	come	בא
שוב	return	שב

h verbs

ive or passive, may
anim, abstract nouns
lition of the common
s assigned a feminine

Base

סוכן	פעל
נבצר	נפעל
מילד	פעל
נאמן	פי גרונית
מחוב	פעל
מימו	
מזכיר	הפעיל
מגבל	הופעל

anim

inalization associated
relationship is fairly
may have acquired a
basic one. If there is
binyan, it is usually

anim and patterns of

שם פעולה	בניין
פעילות	פעל
הפעלות (ה)	נפעל
פעול (פיעויו)	פיעל
התפעלות	התפעל
הפעלה	הפעיל

Abstract nouns derived from present participles were already discussed above. Note that they may have an alternate form of the stem when the *-ut* ending is present, as the stress shifts from the last syllable of the stem to the vowel u that characterizes the abstract noun ending.

When the first vowel of the stem is *a*, it is reduced to \emptyset when the *-ut* ending is added and the stress shifts to *-ut*:

		<u>Derived noun</u>		<u>Base</u>
wholeness	<i>shlemút</i>	שלמות	<i>shalém</i>	שלם
devotion	<i>dvekút</i>	דבקות	<i>davék</i>	דבק

The same happens to an *e* vowel at the end of the stem:

foolishness	<i>tipshút</i>	טיפשות	<i>tipésh</i>	טיפש
-------------	----------------	--------	---------------	------

Form: פעילות < פעול/פעול

There are many realizations of abstract nouns that have the form of פעילות. They are usually derived from several base forms which have an *a* initial vowel:

		<u>Derived noun</u>		<u>Base</u>
mission	<i>shlihút</i>	שליחות	<i>shaliáh</i>	שליח
agility	<i>zrizút</i>	זריזות	<i>zaríz</i>	זריז
openness	<i>ptihút</i>	פתיחות	<i>patíuah</i>	פתוח
duality	<i>kfilút</i>	כפילות	<i>kafíl</i>	כפול

Pattern: פעלות

There are many underlying bases for the פעלות pattern. Several base forms, including alternates of *segolate* nouns and some common adjectival forms, provide the source from which these abstract nouns are derived:

		<u>Derived noun</u>		<u>Base</u>
childhood	<i>yaldút</i>	ילדות	<i>yéled</i>	ילד
fitness in accordance with Jewish law	<i>kashrút</i>	כשרות	<i>kashér</i>	כשר
greatness	<i>gadlút</i>	גדלות	<i>gadól</i>	גדול
simplicity	<i>pashtút</i>	פשטות	<i>pashút</i>	פשוט

5.7.2 Pa

Agents a
control. T
בסיס+אי

Gloss

soldier
painter

collector
comedian

wireless o
profession

journalist
electrician

5.7.3 Pat

An instrum
out. Instru

Gloss

receiver
key

camera
lathe

air conditi
dialer

softener
dryer

In common
maCCeC,
mehashev
and widely

were already discussed
n of the stem when the
the last syllable of the
t noun ending.

d to \emptyset when the *-ut*

	<u>Base</u>
<i>shalém</i>	שָׁלֵם
<i>davék</i>	דָּבַק
stem:	
<i>tipésh</i>	טִפְּשׁ

that have the form of
base forms which have

	<u>Base</u>
<i>shaliah</i>	שָׁלִיחַ
<i>zariz</i>	זָרִיז
<i>patúah</i>	פְּתוּחַ
<i>kafúl</i>	כַּפּוּל

pattern. Several base
and some common
these abstract nouns

	<u>Base</u>
<i>yéled</i>	יָלֵד
<i>kashér</i>	קָשֶׁר
<i>gadól</i>	גָּדוֹל
<i>pashút</i>	פְּשׁוּט

5.7.2 Patterns referring to agents

Agents are performers of an action over which they exercise some control. The dominant patterns are the following: פעל , $\text{פעל} + \text{נ}$, $\text{בסיס} + \text{נ}$, $\text{בסיס} + \text{אי}$. Some agent nouns with transparent relationship to the base:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Agent</u>	<u>Pattern</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
soldier	חַיָּל	פִּעֵל	army	חַיָּל
painter	צָבַע		color, paint	צָבַע
collector	אֶסְפוֹן	פִּעֵל־נ	collection	אֶסְפוֹן
comedian	בַּדְחָן		joke	בַּדְחָן
wireless operator	אֶלְחוּטָן	בַּסִּיסָּה + נ	wireless	אֶלְחוּטָן
professional	מְקַצְעָן		profession	מְקַצְעָן
journalist	עֵתוֹנָאִי	בַּסִּיסָּה + אִי	newspaper	עֵתוֹן
electrician	חַשְׁמַלָּאִי		electricity	חַשְׁמָל

5.7.3 Patterns referring to instruments

An instrument is an implement by means of which an action is carried out. Instruments tend to be realized as מפעל , מפעל , פעל and מפעל .

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Instrument</u>	<u>Pattern</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
receiver	מְקַלֵּט	מִפְעֵל	absorb	קָלַט
key	מְפַתֵּחַ		open	פָּתַח
camera	מְצַלְמָה	מִפְעֵלָה	photograph	צָלַם
lathe	מְחַרְטָה		engrave	חָרַט
air conditioner	מְזַנֵּן	פִּעֵל־נ	moderate	מָזַן
dialer	חֹזֵן		dial	חָזַן
softener	מְרַבֵּךְ	מִפְעֵל	soften	רַבַּךְ
dryer	מְיַבֵּשׁ		dry	יָבַשׁ

In common use the pattern of *meCaCeC* often replaces the normative *maCCeC*, such as *megahets* 'iron' for *maghets* מְגַחֵץ < מְגַחֵץ , or *mehashev* 'computer' for *mahshev* מְחַשֵּׁב < מְחַשֵּׁב . Both are acceptable and widely used in speech.

5.7.4 Patterns referring to locations

The prevalent location patterns are *מפעלה*, *מפעל* and *בסיס+יה*.

Gloss	Location	Pattern	Gloss	Base
army post	משלט	מפעל	control, rule	שלט
shelter	מקלט		absorb	קלט
headquarters	מפקדה	מפעלה	command	פקד
restaurant	מסעדה		dine	סעד
deli	מעדנייה	בסיס+יה	delicacy	מעדן
shoemaker's shop	סנדלרייה		shoemaker	סנדלר

Characterizing a pattern as denoting locations is not always easy, particularly since the location concept may partly overlap with other semantic features. A noun like *מדרגה* 'step', for instance, may be regarded as either a location (where one's foot steps on), or an instrument (a means of getting oneself higher).

Note

Several nouns denoting location in the *מפעלה* pattern have two possible patterns. Pattern A *מפעלה* is considered by some to be the correct form, while Pattern B *מפעל* is considered incorrect. However, in common use the two patterns exist side-by-side and are equally valid.

Gloss	Pattern B	Pattern A
laundromat	מכבסה	מכבסה
plant nursery	משתלה	משתלה

5.7.5 Patterns referring to collection/group/system

Some nominal derivation patterns may also denote a group, a collection, or a system; characteristic patterns are linear *יה-*, *מפעל*, *בסיס+יה* and *פעלת*.

Gloss	Noun	Pattern		Source
library	ספרייה	יה-	book	ספר
song fest	זמרייה		song	זמר
array, variety	מגון	מפעל	color, hue	גון
encampment	מאהל		tent	אהל
questionnaire	שאלון	בסיס + ון	ask	שאל
price list	מחירון		price	מחיר
air squadron	טיסת	פעלת	fly	טס
card file	כרטיסת		card	כרטיס

5.7.6 Pat

Diminutive
adjective
affection,
can also h
reduce the
small, insi
because th
There are

Gloss

kitchenette
small roof
little restar
little girl

Gloss

doggie
goatee
bluish
kitty
piggy

Gloss

teaspoon
wine glass

Gloss

hot dog
cookie

In contemp
and its fem
diminutive
other dimi
more dimi
kitty'.

5.7.6 Patterns denoting diminution (reduction)

Diminution usually denotes a smaller noun than its base form, or an adjective with the denoted quality reduced. It is often associated with affection, such as in *קִלְבֵּב* 'puppy' or in *יְלֵדוֹן* 'little child'. However, it can also have a negative association, when the diminution is used to reduce the value of someone or something, for instance, as in *פְּקִידוֹן* 'a small, insignificant clerk', which is derived from *פְּקִיד* 'clerk', probably because the base itself has some inherent negative feature to start with. There are a number of ways of forming diminutives.

Gloss	Noun	Pattern	Gloss	Source
kitchenette	מִטְבָּחוֹן	בסיס + ון	kitchen	מִטְבֵּחַ
small roof	גִּיּוֹן		roof	גֶּגֶן
little restaurant	מִסְעָדָנֶת	בסיס + נֶת	restaurant	מִסְעָדָה
little girl	יְלֵדָנֶת		girl	יְלָדָה

Gloss	Noun	Pattern	Gloss	Source
doggie	פִּלְבֵּב	פִּעְלַעַל	dog	פֶּלֶבֶב
goatee	זִקְנוֹן		beard	זָקָן
bluish	כְּחֻלְחֻל		blue	כָּחֹל
kitty	חֲתֻלְתוֹל	Reduplic. of stem vowel	cat	חֲתוּל
piggy	חֲזִירֵיר		pig	חֲזִיר

Gloss	Noun	Pattern	Gloss	Source
teaspoon	כִּפִּית	בסיס + -ית	tablespoon	כֶּף
wine glass	כּוּסִית		glass	כּוּס

Gloss	Noun	Pattern	Gloss	Source
hot dog	נִקְנִיקָה	בסיס + -יה	sausage	נִקְנִיקָה
cookie	עוגִּיָּה		cake	עוגָּה

In contemporary Hebrew the most productive diminutive pattern is *-on* and its feminine counterpart *-onet*. Essentially, every noun can be made diminutive by an *-on* suffix. This is a process that can even produce other diminutive nouns from diminutive bases, to render them even more diminutive, as in *חֲתוּל* 'cat' > *חֲתֻלְתוֹל* 'kitty' > *חֲתֻלְתוֹלוֹן* 'little kitty'.

בסיס + יָה

Gloss	Base
control, rule	שָׁלַט
absorb	קָלַט

command	פָּקַד
dine	סָעַד

delicacy	מַעְדָּן
shoemaker	סַנְדָּלָר

is not always easy,
y overlap with other
or instance, may be
ot steps on), or an

ern have two possible
p be the correct form,
However, in common
ally valid.

Pattern A

מִכְבָּסָה
מִשְׁתַּלָּה

/system

denote a group, a
are linear יָה-, מִפְּעַל,

Source

book	סֵפֶר
ong	זָמַר
olor, hue	גָּוֵן
nt	אָהַל
k	שָׂאֵל
rice	מַחִיר
y	סָס
rd	פְּרָטִיס

5.7.7 Other noun formation patterns

Some other small groups that belong to derivation patterns in the noun system can be characterized in a semantically coherent fashion.

1. The noun pattern פִּעֻלַת tends to designate sicknesses and other phenomena with negative associations.

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
jaundice	צִהָבַת	yellow	צהב
whooping cough	שַׁעֲלַת	cough	שעול
rabies	בִּלְבָּת	dog	בלב
inflammation	דִּלְקַת	burn (int.)	דלק

Note

There are other nouns in that pattern, such as רִכְבָּת 'train', טִיילָת 'promenade', קַלְסֵט 'cassette', בִּסְסָת 'safe', that do not have any negative connotation.

2. Other nouns with negative connotation are formed in the pattern פִּעֻלּוֹן:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
madness	שִׁגְעוֹן	mad	משגע
drunkenness	שִׁכְרוֹן	drunk	שכר
failure	כִּשְׁלוֹן	fail	כשל
depression	דִּכְאוֹן	depress	דכא

Note

There are other nouns in that pattern, such as זְכָרוֹן 'memory', נְקִיוֹן 'cleanliness', נְסִיוֹן 'experience', עִקְרוֹן 'principle' that have a positive connotation.

A fairly common pattern, mostly in more recent Israeli Hebrew, is תַּפְעִיל. It often refers to a product of the action denoted by the base verb (often in *hif'il*), as in:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
budget	תַּקְצִיב	allot	הקציב
summary	תַּקְצִיר	shorten	קצר
incentive	תַּמְרִיץ	encourage	המריץ
relief	תַּבְלִיט	make prominent	הבליט

Another is
Gloss
memorand
correspond
orchestra
hairdo

5.8 Signi

There are
associated

5.8.1 The

One of the
meaning is
river
thing; act of

5.8.2 Seg

One large c
nouns, beca
the largest
vowel carri
rain

Since the s
(penultimate
unstressed.
in *géshem*, b
summer
morning

A historical

Historically,
impermissibl
1. A noun su
form מַלְכָּה
'kingdom', v
of the מַלְכָּה ba

Another is תפעלות, which refers to a system, or a set of conditions, as in:

Gloss	Noun	Gloss	Base
memorandum	תזכורת	remind	הזכיר
correspondence	תכתובת	correspond	התכתב
orchestra	תזמורת	sing	זמר
hairdo	תסרוקת	comb	סרק

5.8 Significant patterns (with no semantic association)

There are many common nouns that have a pattern that is not associated with any particular meaning.

5.8.1 The pattern *pa`ál*

One of the more prominent patterns not associated with any particular meaning is פָּעַל:

river	נהר	snake	נחש
thing; act of speech	דבר	dust	אבק

5.8.2 Segolate nouns

One large class of nouns has traditionally been referred to as *segolate* nouns, because their two final consonants are split by a *segol e*, and in the largest sub-group, the preceding vowel is also *e*. That preceding vowel carries the word stress:

rain	<i>gëshem</i>	גֶּשֶׁם	snow	<i>shéleg</i>	שֶׁלֶג
------	---------------	---------	------	---------------	--------

Since the *segolate* stress always falls on the syllable before last (penultimate), it obviously follows that the final vowel is always unstressed. The *segolate* base vowel is generally a stressed *e* vowel, as in *gëshem*, but can also be a stressed *ó* or *á*, such as in the following:

summer	<i>káyits</i>	קַיִץ	winter	<i>hóref</i>	חֹרֶף
morning	<i>bóker</i>	בֹּקֶר	gate	<i>shá`ar</i>	שַׁעַר

A historical note

Historically, the *segol* was inserted to split what used to be an impermissible consonant cluster at the end of the word.

1. A noun such as מַלְכַּ *máلك* 'king' became מֶלֶךְ *mélekh*. The feminine form מַלְכָּה *malká* 'queen' and the abstract noun מַלְכוּת *malkhút* 'kingdom', where a suffix is added, preserve the original stem vowel *a* of the מַלְכַּ base, and stress falls on the suffix, as it normally does.

2. A noun such as סֵפֶר *sifr* 'book' became סֵפֶר *séfer*. The dependent form with possessive pronoun preserved the original stem vowel *i* when suffixes were added, e.g., סִפְרִי *sifri* 'my book', סִפְרֹת *sifrut* 'literature'.

The plural of *segolate* nouns is a *mishkal* in itself, usually פְּעֻלִים (*CCaCim*); stress falls on the plural suffix:

Gloss	Dependent form	Plural	Singular
children (of)	<i>yaldey-</i> ילְדֵי- <i>yeladim</i>	יְלָדִים <i>yéled</i>	יָלַד
bridges (of)	<i>gishrey-</i> גִּשְׁרֵי- <i>gsharim</i>	גִּשְׁרִים <i>gésher</i>	גָּשַׁר

The *mishkal* of the plural of *segolate* nouns can also be פְּעֻלוֹת:

Gloss	Dependent form	Plural	Singular
horns (of)	<i>karnot-</i> קַרְנוֹת- <i>kranót</i>	קַרְנוֹת <i>kéren</i>	קָרַן
doors (of)	<i>daltot-</i> דַּלְתוֹת- <i>dlatót</i>	דַּלְתוֹת <i>délet</i>	דָּלַת

When the first stem vowel is *o*, that *o* remains. Sometimes the vowel *o* is maintained in the plural as well, particularly when the first segment is a guttural.

Gloss	Dependent form	Plural	Sing.
mornings (of)	<i>bokrey-</i> בְּקָרֵי- <i>bkarim</i>	בְּקָרִים	בָּקַר
months (of)	<i>hodshey-</i> חֳדָשֵׁי- <i>hodashim</i>	חֳדָשִׁים	חָדַשׁ
penalties (of)	<i>'onshey-</i> עֲנָשֵׁי- <i>'onashim</i>	עֲנָשִׁים	עָנַשׁ
roots (of)	<i>shorshey-</i> שְׂרָשֵׁי- <i>shorashim</i>	שְׂרָשִׁים	שָׂרַשׁ

When the middle consonant of a *segolate* noun is י, the stem sequence *ayi* is reduced to *ey* in the dependent form: *bávit* > *beyt*:

Gloss	Dependent form	Plural	Singular
synagogue	בֵּית כְּנֻסָּת, בְּתֵי כְּנֻסָּת	בְּתָיִם	בַּיִת

When the middle consonant of a *segolate* noun is ו, the stem sequence is reduced from *ave* to *o*, in the dependent form, thus *gaven* > *gon*:

the hue of the sky	גוֹן הַשָּׁמַיִם	גִּנּוּיִם	גָּוֵן
hues of the rainbow	גוֹנֵי הַקֶּשֶׁת		

The last two syllables of some feminine nouns display a *segolate* pattern, with the characteristic final *e* and penultimate stress. In the plural form the stress shifts to the last vowel; the plural pattern often contains the *a* stem vowel characteristic of the *segolate* plural, but a basic *o* is maintained, and is not reduced in the dependent form.

Gloss

pipe
pipes of
skull
skulls of
orchestra

The depend
segolate pat

Gloss

restaurant
police

5.9 Acron

Hebrew use
1. Orthogra
pronounced

afternoon
God willing
God forbid!
negotiations

2. Letter ac
each letter i
as in:

military pol
gate guard
under com
company co

3. Pronounc
some delibe
catchy or re

women's co
per diem
kibbutz arm

séfer. The dependent
 nal stem vowel *i* when
 קפרה *sifrut* 'literature'.

itself, usually פעלים

Plural	Singular
יָלְדֵי	יָלֵד
גְּשָׁרֵי	גֶּשֶׁר

also be גְּעֻלּוֹת

Plural	Singular
קֶרְנוֹת	קֶרֶן
דְּלֵת	דֵּלֶת

sometimes the vowel *o*
 when the first segment

Plural	Sing.
בְּקָרִים	בָּקָר
חֲדָשִׁים	חֶדֶשׁ
עֲנָשִׁים	עֵנָשׁ
שְׂרָשִׁים	שֶׁשׁ

s *i*, the stem sequence
 > *beyt*:

Plural	Singular
בָּיִת	בַּיִת

s *i*, the stem sequence
 thus *gaven* > *gon*:

גָּוֵן	גָּוֵן
--------	--------

ns display a *segolate*
 ultimate stress. In the
 the plural pattern often
segolate plural, but a
 dependent form.

Gloss	Plural	Base
pipe	מִקְטָרוֹת	מִקְטֶרֶת
pipes of	מִקְטְרוֹת-	
skull	קַרְקָפוֹת	קַרְקֶפֶת
skulls of	קַרְקֶפוֹת-	
orchestra	תִּזְמוֹרוֹת(-)	תִּזְמוֹרֶת

The dependent form of nouns of the *מִפְעֻלָּה* pattern, *מִפְעֻלְת־*, displays the *segolate* pattern:

Gloss	Plural	Base
restaurant	מִסְעָדוֹת	מִסְעָדָה
police	מִשְׁטָרוֹת	מִשְׁטָרָה

5.9 Acronyms

Hebrew uses at least three types of acronyms:

1. Orthographic acronyms, such as WWII in English, that are never pronounced as such, i.e., are read always in full, as in:

	Source	Form
afternoon	אַחֲרֵי הַצֶּהֱרָיִם	אַחֲרֵי
God willing!	אִם יִרְצֶה הַשֵּׁם	אִי"ה
God forbid!	חַס וְחִלְיָהּ	חו"ח
negotiations	מִשָּׂא וּמַתָּן	מו"מ

2. Letter acronyms, such as MP in English, in which the full name of each letter is pronounced (essentially restricted to two-letter acronyms), as in:

	Source	Form
military police	מִשְׁטָרָה צְבָאִית	מ"צ
gate guard (lit. battalion policeman)	שוֹטֵר גְּדוּדֵי	ש"ג
under command (of)	תַּחַת פְּקוּד	ת"פ
company commander	מַפְקֵד פְּלוּגָה	מ"פ

3. Pronounceable acronyms, like NATO, RADAR in English. Of those some deliberately seek to form sequences that correspond to existing catchy or relevant words (cf. English SALT), as in:

	Source	Form
women's corps	חֵיל נָשִׁים	ח"ן
per diem	אַכִּילָה שְׂתִינָה לַיְנָה	אַש"ל
kibbutz army units	נוֹעַר חֲלוּצֵי לוֹחֵם	נח"ל

These particular catchy acronyms have an association with the following words:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Associated word</u>		<u>Acronym</u>
grace, beauty	חן	<i>hén</i>	ח"ן
tamarisk	אשל	<i>'éshel</i>	אש"ל
river, stream	נחל	<i>náhal</i>	נח"ל

Other pronounceable acronyms involve vocalic components, such as:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Source</u>		<u>Acronym</u>
United Nations	אמות מאוחדות	<i>'úm</i>	אוי"ם
silverware	סכין כף ומזלג	<i>sakúm</i>	סכוי"ם
missile boat	ספינת טילים	<i>satíl</i>	סטי"ל

However, the major, most productive, acronym-forming device is what some refer to as root acronyms, where word-initial consonants or consonant sequences are treated as root consonants (or slots), and realized as pronounceable acronyms in *mishkalim*, or in a *mishkal*-like pattern based solely on 'plugging in' of the vowel *a* (see below). Of the preferred existing *mishkalim*, there are the *segolate* patterns *CéCeC* or *CáCaC* (when a guttural is involved), as in:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Source</u>		<u>Acronym</u>
Israel Defense Forces (IDF)	צבא הגנה לישראל	<i>tsáhal</i>	צה"ל
training camp	בסיס הדרכה	<i>báhad</i>	בה"ד
Israel's water authority	תכנון המים לישראל	<i>táhal</i>	תה"ל
PX	שרות קנטינות מזוננים	<i>shékem</i>	שק"ם

Most root acronyms, however, are realized in strings that contain the vowel *a* only – the vowel which is the commonest and most prominent in Israeli Hebrew (note that sometimes, more than one segment is pulled from each base word):

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Source</u>		<u>Acronym</u>
radar (lit. finder of direction and location)	מגלה פיון מקום	<i>makam</i>	מכ"ם
general staff	מנהל כללי	<i>mankal</i>	מנכ"ל
chief of staff	ראש מטה כללי	<i>ramatkal</i>	רמטכ"ל

Note that important when inflectional friends *h* radars *m*

association with the

Acronym

<i>hén</i>	ח"ן
<i>'éshel</i>	אש"ל
<i>náhal</i>	נח"ל

components, such as:

Acronym

<i>'úm</i>	א"מ
<i>sakím</i>	סכ"מ
<i>satíl</i>	סט"ל

forming device is what
initial consonants or
nants (or slots), and
a, or in a *mishkal*-like
a (see below). Of the
ate patterns *CéCeC* or

Acronym

<i>tsáhal</i>	צח"ל
<i>báhad</i>	בה"ד
<i>táhal</i>	תה"ל
<i>shékem</i>	שק"מ

rings that contain the
it and most prominent
than one segment is

Acronym

<i>makam</i>	מכ"מ
<i>mankal</i>	מנכ"ל
<i>ramatkal</i>	רמטכ"ל

Note that acronyms are different from typical Hebrew words in one important respect: like borrowed words, they keep their stress pattern when inflectional suffixes (like the feminine or plural suffixes) are added to them, whereas in native stems, the stress usually shifts to the inflectional suffix:

friends	<i>haverím</i>	חברים	friend	<i>havér</i>	חבר
radars	<i>makámim</i>	מכ"מים	radar	<i>makám</i>	מכ"ם

Chapter 6 Pronouns

- 6.1 Forms of personal pronouns
- 6.2 Independent subject pronouns
- 6.3 Pronoun suffixes and prefixes in verbs and in existential expressions
- 6.4 Pronouns suffixed to nouns and prepositions
- 6.5 Demonstrative pronouns
- 6.6 Interrogative and relative pronouns
- 6.7 Impersonal pronouns: something/nothing

Pronouns are a subclass of nouns. They are used to refer to nouns or noun phrases, whose identity is known or has already been established, either by the context of a conversation or by presence elsewhere in a text, or is implied by the situation:

<u>Noun phrase</u>	We have <u>friends</u> in Haifa.	יש לנו <u>חברים</u> בחיפה.
<u>Pronoun</u>	<u>They</u> work in a hotel.	<u>הם</u> עובדים במלון.

Pronouns can occur in different positions in the sentence and have different syntactical functions.

<u>Subject</u>	Omer is our friend. <u>He</u> works in a bank.	עומר חבר שלנו. <u>הוא</u> עובד בבנק.
<u>Direct Object</u>	We saw <u>him</u> when he entered the bank.	ראינו <u>אותו</u> כשנכנסו לבנק.
<u>Indirect Object</u>	We don't have confidence <u>in him</u> .	אנחנו לא בוטחים <u>בו</u> .

6.1 Forms of personal pronouns

In Hebrew personal pronouns can have the shape of 'stand alone' independent words that function as subjects of clauses and sentences, or they can be dependent elements prefixed to words or suffixed to words. They can have different functions in the sentence: they can be a subject or a direct or indirect object.

Independent

I am a stu

Pronoun su

My Dad v

Pronoun su

My Dad v

Pronoun su

I worked

Pronoun pr

In the sun

Reference

Personal pr

person they

noun or no

expressed b

no neuter p

assigned to

depending o

Person

Animal

Object

Concept

Event

Independent Pronoun

I am a student at the university. אני סטודנט באוניברסיטה.

Pronoun suffixed to a preposition

My Dad works in a bank. אבא שלי עובד בבנק.

Pronoun suffixed to a noun

My Dad works in a bank. אבני עובד בבנק.

Pronoun suffixed to a verb

I worked with my Dad. עבדתי עם אבא שלי.

Pronoun prefixed to a verb

In the summer I'll work in the bank. בקיץ אני אעבוד בבנק.

Reference to personal pronouns

Personal pronouns do not necessarily refer to persons. In the third person they can refer to objects, events, abstract notions and any other noun or noun phrase that is not human. In English these pronouns are expressed by the word *it* for the singular. However, in Hebrew there is no neuter pronoun, such as *it*, and since all nouns have a gender assigned to them, they are referred to as 'he' or 'she' or 'they', depending on the gender of the noun.

<u>Person</u>	David works at the bank in town. He is a branch manager.	דוד עובד בבנק בעיר. הוא מנהל סניף.
<u>Animal</u>	These dogs are old. They lie on the rug all day long.	הכלבים האלה כבר זקנים. הם שוכבים כל היום על השטיח.
<u>Object</u>	My television doesn't work. It is being fixed.	הטלוויזיה שלי לא עובדת. היא בתיקון.
<u>Concept</u>	This is a great idea! It can save us a lot of money.	זה רעיון מצויף! הוא יכול לחסוך לנו הרבה כסף.
<u>Event</u>	It is too bad you did not come to the party. It was very successful.	חבל שלא באתם למסיבה. היא הייתה מוצלחת מאוד.

verbs

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nothing

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sence elsewhere in a

יש לנו חברים בחיפה.
הם עובדים במלון.

e sentence and have

עומר חבר שלנו. הוא
עובד בבנק.
ראינו אותו כשנכנסנו
לבנק.
אנחנו לא בוטחים בו.

ape of 'stand alone'
uses and sentences, or
or suffixed to words.
they can be a subject

6.2 Independent subject pronouns

Subject pronouns, as implied by their name, occupy the position of subjects in clauses or sentences. Subject pronouns can be independent words, as they are in English, or they can be attached in some way to other words.

Independent subject pronouns

<u>Singular</u>	<i>Masc./fem.</i>	I	אני	זכר ונקבה	יחיד/ה
	<i>Masc.</i>	you	אתה	זכר	
	<i>Fem.</i>	you	את	נקבה	
	<i>Masc.</i>	he	הוא	זכר	
	<i>Fem.</i>	she	היא	נקבה	
<u>Plural</u>	<i>Masc./fem.</i>	we	אנחנו	זכר ונקבה	רבים/רבות
	<i>Masc.</i>	you	אתם	זכר	
	<i>Fem.</i>	you	אתן	נקבה	
	<i>Masc.</i>	they	הם	זכר	
	<i>Fem.</i>	they	הן	נקבה	

6.2.1 Common bases for pronoun forms

The common basis for the first person pronoun is *אני*, אנחנו in (א)נ-.

The common basis for the second person is the beginning of the word *את*, while the plural endings signify both plurality and gender: the final *-ם* is a masculine plural marker and the final *-ן* is the feminine plural marker.

All third person forms *הן*, *הם*, *היא*, *הוא* begin with *-ה*. Unlike in English, where the third person plural *they* refers to both feminine and masculine, in Hebrew the masculine plural pronoun ends with *-ם* and the feminine plural pronoun ends with *-ן*.

Comparative notes

There are ten independent pronouns in Hebrew. In English, however, there are seven (six of them refer to human nouns, and one refers to other objects or abstract nouns). The gender features of the Hebrew pronouns are present in both the second and third person forms, but not in the first person forms. *אני* represents 'I' for both masculine and

feminine, English, g only prese Hebrew, However, non-human The third used to ref and numb living obje

Note

The final r nouns, ma without the

6.2.2 First

In a conv spoken to)

Singular

David, do y No. I phone

Plural

What are yo that you are We are som attention.

A historical

There are va person אני a Modern He particularly

occupy the position of
s can be independent
ched in some way to

זכר ונקבה	יחיד/ה
זכר	
נקבה	
זכר	
נקבה	
זכר ונקבה	רבים/רבות
זכר	
נקבה	
זכר	
נקבה	

אני, אנחנו (א)נ-

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In English, however,
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feminine, and אנחנו represents both masculine and feminine 'we'. In English, gender features, i.e. masculine and feminine distinctions, are only present in 'he' and 'she', but not in other pronouns.

Hebrew, like English, has personal pronouns that refer to persons. However, unlike English, there is no personal pronoun *it* that refers to non-human animate or inanimate objects, as well as abstract concepts. The third person pronouns ('he', 'she', 'they' = הן, הם, היא, הוא) are used to refer to non-human nouns as well. Since all nouns have gender and number features, the choice of the appropriate pronoun for non-living objects is clear.

Note

The final ה- ending, which is usually associated with feminine singular nouns, marks the masculine singular form אתה, while the form את without the ending ה- is used for the feminine singular.

6.2.2 First and second persons

In a conversation mode, the speaker and addressee (person being spoken to) use the first and second pronouns to refer to each other.

Singular

David, do you call home every day?
No. I phone once a week.

יחיד
דוד, אתה מתקשר הביתה כל יום?
לא. אני מטלפן פעם בשבוע.

Plural

What are you doing? Don't you see
that you are stepping on my flowers?
We are sorry. We did not pay any
attention.

רבים
מה אתם עושים? אתם לא רואים
שאתם דורכים על הפרחים שלי?
אנחנו מצטערים. לא שמנו לב.

A historical note

אני = אנוכי

There are variant forms to some pronouns. In biblical literature, the first person אני also has the form of אנוכי. This alternate form may appear in Modern Hebrew in formal speech or in literature. This is true particularly in poetry where it is used to create an artistic effect.

Example from biblical literature

“I am a stranger and live amongst you”. (Genesis 23, 4)	גר ותושב אֲנֹכִי עִמָּכֶם. (בראשית כ"ג: ד')
“Who am I to go to Pharaoh?” (Numbers 3, 11)	מִי אֲנֹכִי כִּי אֵלֶךְ אֶל פַּרְעֹה. (שמות ג: י"א)

Example from poetry

“That’s how I am: quiet like the water in the lake”. (Rachel, “I”)	כִּזְאֵת אֲנֹכִי: שְׁקֵטָה כְּמִימֵי אָגָם. (רחל "אני").
--	--

אנחנו = אנו

The first person plural pronoun אֲנַחְנוּ has a variant form of אָנוּ. While this variation does not appear in biblical texts, its use can be traced back to early Mishnaic Hebrew and it has continued to be used until today. This alternate form appears in formal speech, and in literary texts, particularly in poetry.

Example from Mishnaic literature

...that on all nights <u>we</u> eat leavened bread and <i>matsa</i>שבכל הלילות אָנוּ אוכלין חמץ ומצה...
--	--

Example from a literary text

<u>We</u> live in a different world and forget where we came from and where <u>we</u> are going.	אָנוּ חיים בעולם אחר. שוכחים מאין באנו ולאן אָנוּ הולכים.
--	--

Example from a popular song

<u>We</u> came to this land to build and be built.	אָנוּ באנו ארצה לבנות ולהיבנות בה.
---	---------------------------------------

As mentioned earlier, the third person is not used solely to refer to people, but also to refer to objects, concepts, and events that are included in sentences or larger discourse units (such as a paragraph, or an entire text). There is no neutral third person pronoun *it*, and the masculine and feminine pronouns are used to refer to non-human nouns, depending on the grammatical gender of the noun.

ObjectsEventsAnimals**6.2.3 Word
Pronoun f**

In most ca
repeats it b
a noun phr
sentences
anaphoric
sentence de

Out of milk
always pos
grocery sto
night.

The studen
summer, bu
beginning e

Pronoun p
In some ca
reversed. T
find out or
phenomend

Even thoug
early, Davi
midnight.
While she
Dina's mot
to the fact

<u>Objects</u>	The <u>library</u> opens at eight. <u>It (she)</u> closes at ten at night.	הספרייה נפתחה בשמונה. היא נסגרת בעשר בלילה.
<u>Events</u>	These are interesting <u>events!</u> <u>They</u> can change the results of the elections.	אלה אירועים מעניינים! הם יכולים לשנות את תוצאות הבחירות.
<u>Animals</u>	The <u>lion</u> is the king of the beasts. <u>It</u> lives in Africa.	האריה הוא מלך החיות. הוא חי באפריקה.

6.2.3 Word order - independent pronouns

Pronoun follows the noun to which it refers

In most cases the noun phrase precedes the pronoun; the pronoun repeats it by a different word. The reference can be not just to a noun or a noun phrase, but also to a sentence or a content expressed by several sentences in a larger discourse unit. (This phenomenon is called anaphoric reference). The examples brought here are from within the sentence domain.

Out of milk? No problem! It's always possible to go to our grocery store, since it is open all night.

נגמר החלב? אין בעיה. אפשר תמיד לקפוץ למפולת שלנו, כי היא פתוחה כל הלילה.

The students were not here in the summer, but they'll return at the beginning of the school year.

הסטודנטים לא היו כאן בקיץ, אבל הם יחזרו בתחילת שנת הלימודים.

Pronoun precedes the noun to which it refers

In some cases, the sequential order of the noun phrase and pronoun is reversed. The pronoun precedes the noun phrase that it refers to. We find out only later in the discourse to what the pronoun refers. (This phenomenon is called cataphoric referencing).

Even though he said he would come early, David did not show up till midnight.

אם כי הוא אמר שהוא יבוא מוקדם, דוד לא הופיע עד חצות.

While she conversed with friends, Dina's mother did not pay attention to the fact that Dina disappeared.

בזמן שהיא שוחחה עם חברות, אמא של דינה לא שמה לב לכך שדינה נעלמה.

גר ותושב אנכי עמכם.
(בראשית כ"ג: ד')
מי אנכי כי אלך אל פרעו?
(שמות ג: י"א)

פזאת אנכי: שקטה כמימי
אגם.
(רחל "אני").

nt form of אנו. While
its use can be traced
ued to be used until
eech, and in literary

...שבכל הלילות אנו אוכל
חמץ ומצה...

אנו חיים בעולם אחר. שו
מאין באנו ולאן אנו הולכ

אנו באנו ארצה לבנות ולה
בה.

sed solely to refer to
and events that are
ach as a paragraph, or
a pronoun it, and the
refer to non-human
e noun.

Ellipsis of subject pronouns

In conversations, or written passages, it is quite common that once the third person subject has been mentioned, the pronoun is omitted in subsequent sentences. Its presence is implied rather than being openly expressed.

Example from a conversation

So what was David doing there?

אז מה דוד עשה שם?

(He) was just standing and waiting
for her to come out.

סתם עמד וחייכה לה עד שתצא.

Example from a written passage

Yitzhak Eliyahu put on his professional
look anticipating the woman...twenty
minutes later (he) stood by the
apartment door...only then did (he) turn
to ask her to come in.

יצחק אליהו לבש מאור פנים
מקצועי לקראת האישה... עשרים
דקות לאחר מזה עמד מול דלת
הדירה...רק אז פנה להזמין אותה
להיכנס.

6.3 Pronoun suffixes and prefixes in verbs and in existential expressions

When verbs appear in the past tense or in the future tense in the first and second persons, the subject pronouns are included in the verb form. For example, in Hebrew the past tense verb form עבדתי 'I worked', combines both the subject and the verb stem in the past tense. In English the same notion is expressed by two separate words: one for the subject pronoun and one for the verb.

6.3.1 Past tense suffixes

In the past tense the subject pronouns of the first and second person are suffixed to the past verb stem. Since the verb form itself is marked for number, gender, and person, the independent pronoun becomes redundant, and thus optional.

Here are the first and second person future tense forms with subject pronoun suffixes. The pronoun is the last component of the verb form.

First and second person singular

I, you met פגשת (את) פגשת (אתה) פגשתי (אני)

First and second person plural

we, you met פגשתן (אתן) פגשתם (אתם) פגשנו (אנחנו)

In the third
The verb form
includes
(masculine)

Third person
he, she me
Third person
they (masculine)

There are
are used with
1. In informal
pronoun is
2. Independent
as to indicate

I wrote this

6.3.2 Future

In the future
the beginning
Look at the
We shall not

Notice that
three words

Here are the
subject pronoun
verb form.
redundant,
singular pronoun
verb prefix

First and second
I, you will
First and second
we, you will

In the third person, however, the independent pronouns are obligatory. The verb form of the third person does not include person features. It includes the features of number (singular/plural) and gender (masculine/feminine) but not person.

Third person singular

he, she met	היא פגשה	הוא פגש
-------------	----------	---------

Third person plural

they (masc. and fem.) met	הן פגשו	הם פגשו
---------------------------	---------	---------

There are cases, however, when second person independent pronouns are used with the past tense verb:

1. In informal spoken Hebrew the independent first person subject pronoun is often included: **אני כתבתי**.
2. Independent subject pronouns are used to emphasize the subject, so as to indicate a contrast between a particular subject and another:

I wrote this letter – not Dan.

אני כתבתי את המכתב ולא דן.

6.3.2 Future tense prefixes

In the future tense the first and second person subject pronouns come at the beginning of each verb form as prefixes to the future verb stem. Look at the following sentence:

נפגוש את דן בבית קפה. *We shall meet Dan in a café.*

Notice that the verbal expression 'we shall meet' is rendered by three words in English, but it is one word in Hebrew.

Here are the first and second person future tense forms of the verb with subject pronoun prefixes. The pronoun is the first component of the verb form. As in the past tense, the independent subject pronouns are redundant, and thus optional, but in daily speech the first person singular pronoun is often included, even though it is incorporated in the verb prefix.

First and second person singular

I, you will meet	(את) תפגשי	(אתה) תפגוש	אני אפגוש
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First and second person plural

we, you will meet	(אתן) תפגשו	(אתם) תפגשו	אנחנו נפגוש
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In the third person, as in the past tense, the independent pronouns are obligatory. The verb form of the third person does not include person features. It includes the features of number (singular/plural) and gender (masculine/feminine) but not person.

Third person singular

he, she will meet היא תפגוש הוא יפגוש

Third person plural

they (masc. and fem.) will meet הן יפגשו הם יפגשו

The affixes for הן, הם, אתן, אתם include a prefix and a suffix: the prefix indicates the person while the suffix indicates gender and number.

(את) ת+פגש+י, (אתם/ן) ת+פגש+ו, הם הן י+פגש+ו

6.3.3 Subject pronouns added to existential expressions

In some registers of Hebrew, from biblical Hebrew to present day formal language, there is a restricted use of personal pronoun subjects that are added to some expressions. The subject suffix is most commonly added to the existential expressions יש/אין. It is also used in some fixed expressions, especially in legal or technical language.

Pronoun suffixes for the negative particle אין

The most common use of this suffixed pronoun is in the negation expression אין, which is only used with present tense participles.

Don't you hear me? Are you deaf? אינך שומע אותי? אתה חרש?

The suffixed pronoun is also used to negate an existential state.

Once there used to be a theater here, פעם היה כאן תיאטרון, אבל היום
but today it is gone. הוא כבר איננו.

Personal pronoun suffixes for אין

<u>Paraphrase</u>		<u>Paraphrase</u>	
		אני לא	אינני/איני
הוא לא	הוא איננו/אינו	אתה לא	אינך
היא לא	היא איננה/אינה	את לא	אינך
		אנחנו לא	איננו
הם לא	הם אינם	אתם לא	אינכם
הן לא	הן אינן	אתן לא	אינכן

Formal

Daily spee

The third
sentences
and num
The hous
The univ
The child
The girls

Pronoun

The posit
person su
preceded
subject an
English.

Gloss

he is
she is
they (ma
they (fem

They say
There is
heart pati

6.3.4 Fix

There are
is used
extensive
the form
mostly in
form the

<u>Formal</u>	I do <u>not</u> know if he intends to come.	אֵינְנִי יוֹדֵעַ אִם הוּא מֵתְכוּוֹן לָבוֹא.
<u>Daily speech</u>	I <u>don't</u> know if he is planning to come.	אֲנִי לֹא יוֹדֵעַ אִם הוּא מֵתְכוּוֹן לָבוֹא.

The third person forms are also used in the negation of nominal sentences in the present tense. The suffixes reflect the subject gender and number features.

The house <u>is not</u> new.	הַבַּיִת אֵינּוּ חָדָשׁ.
The university <u>is not</u> big.	הָאוּנִיבֵרְסִיטָה אֵינָהּ גְּדוּלָה.
The children <u>are not</u> at home.	הַיְלָדִים אֵינָם בְּבַיִת.
The girls <u>are not</u> in the room.	הַבָּנוֹת אֵינָן בַּחֲדָר.

Pronoun suffixes for the existential expression ישׁ

The positive existential expression ישׁ 'there is/there are' can carry third person subject pronoun suffixes. A noun may follow it, or it may be preceded by a subject pronoun. It often serves as the link between subject and predicate, much as the verb 'to be' serves that function in English.

3rd person suffixes to the positive particle ישׁ

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Paraphrase</u>	
he is	הוא נמצא/קיימים	הוא ישׁנו
she is	היא נמצאת/קיימת	היא ישׁנה
they (masc.) are	הם נמצאים/קיימים	הם ישׁנם
they (fem.) are	הן נמצאות/קיימות	הן ישׁנן

They say, " <u>there is</u> a land".	אומרים ישׁנה ארץ.
<u>There is</u> a heightened risk for heart patients to suffer a stroke.	לחולי לב ישׁנו סיכון מוגבר ללקות באירוע מוחי.

6.3.4 Fixed expressions

There are other fixed expressions to which this suffix subject pronoun is used (mostly in the first person). These expressions are used extensively in post-biblical Hebrew. In Israeli Hebrew they are used in the formal registers of the language. In speech they can be found mostly in the language used for delivering formal addresses. In written form they are used in legal documents, and academic and technical

dependent pronouns are
does not include person
(singular/plural) and gender

הוא יפגוש היא

הם יפגשו הן

prefix and a suffix: the
indicates gender and

(את) ת+פגש+י, (אתם/ן)

ial expressions

Hebrew to present day
personal pronoun subjects
subject suffix is most
ישׁ/אֵינִי. It is also used in
technical language.

is in the negation
tense participles.

אֵינְךָ שׁוֹמֵעַ אוֹתִי? אתה חָח

existential state.

פעם היה כאן תיאטרון, אֲנִי
הוא כבר אֵינְנוּ.

אין for

Paraphrase

אני לא	אֵינְנִי /אֵינִי
אתה לא	אֵינְךָ
את לא	אֵינְךָ
אנחנו לא	אֵינְנוּ
אתם לא	אֵינְכֶם
אתן לא	אֵינְכֶן

discussions as well as official documents. They are used stylistically in official language.

I hereby	הִנְנִי = הנה אני
I believe/it seems to me	דוֹמְנִי = אני משער, נדמה לי
I think, I am of the opinion	סְבוֹרְנִי/סְבוֹרְנִי = אני סבור

Formal/legalistic announcement

I hereby notify... הִנְנִי
הִנְנִי מוֹדִיעַ(ה) בְּזֹאת...

From a formal correspondence

It seems to me that you are confusing two things. דוֹמְנִי
דוֹמְנִי שֶׁאַתָּה מְעַרְבֵב בֵּין שְׁנֵי דְבָרִים.

From a legal document

In the light of the results of this appeal, I am of the opinion that each side should bear in the expenses of the appeal. סְבוֹרְנִי
לְאוֹר הַתּוֹצְאוֹת בְּעִרְעוֹר זֶה, סְבוֹרְנִי שֶׁכָּל צֶדֶד יֵשֵׂא בְּהוֹצְאוֹתָיו בְּעִרְעוֹר.

6.4 Pronouns suffixed to nouns and prepositions

6.4.1 Added to singular noun forms and some prepositions

There are two sets of pronoun suffixes attached to the end of nouns or prepositions. One consists of a set of suffixes that are attached to singular nouns and to most prepositions. The other is a set of suffixes, which are attached to plural nouns and to a small number of prepositions.

For a more complete discussion of prepositions and pronominal endings, see pp. 228-235.

When pronoun suffixes are attached to nouns, they become possessive pronouns.

Pronoun suffixes attached to singular nouns

Plural			Singular		
3 rd	2 nd	1 st	3 rd	2 nd	1 st
ם-	םך-	ני-	י-	ך-	י'-
ל-	לך-		ה-	ך-	

Ella, does
No. My a
from Tel
Maccabi
able to ho
in its stad

This set o

He plante
Give me
It was no
We wante

6.4.2 Ac

Ella, do y
The (its) c
promised
closed as

This set o

He came
We heard

6.4.3 Th

The use
Hebrew,
Israeli H
language
possessic

are used stylistically in

הַנְּנִי = הנה אני
 דֹּמְנִי = אני משער, נדמה
 סְבוּרְנִי/סְבוּרְנִי = אני סבו

הַנְּנִי

הַנְּנִי מוֹדִיעַ(ה) בְּזֹאת...

דֹּמְנִי

דֹּמְנִי שֶׁאַתָּה מַעֲרַב בֵּין עַ

סְבוּרְנִי

לְאוֹר הַתּוֹצְאוֹת בְּעֵרְעוֹר זֶ
 שֶׁנֶּכּוֹן שֶׁכֵּל צַד יֵשָׁא בְּהוֹצָא
 בְּעֵרְעוֹר.

repositions

some prepositions

to the end of nouns or
 s that are attached to
 er is a set of suffixes,
 a small number of

ns and pronominal

ey become possessive

ular nouns

Singular	
2 nd	1 st
ן-	י-
ן-	י-

Ella, does your aunt live in Haifa? אלה, דוֹדְתְךָ גֵרָה בְּחֵיפָה?
 No. My aunt and my uncle live not far - לא. דוֹנְי וְדוֹנְי גֵרִים לֹא רְחוֹק מֵתֵל-
 from Tel Aviv. אבִיב.
 Maccabi Petah Tiqvah will not be מַכְבֵי פֶתַח תְּקוּוּהָ לֹא תוֹכֵל לְאַרְחַת
 able to host Maccabi Haifa on Sunday מַכְבֵי חֵיפָה בְּיוֹם רֵאשׁוֹן בְּאִיצְטָדִיוֹנָה.
 in its stadium.

This set of suffixes is also used for many prepositions:

ל-, של, מ-, בשביל, עבור, את, מול, עם, אצל

He planted himself across from us. הוּא נִעְמַד מוֹלְנוּ וְלֹא זֶ.
 Give me my book back. הַחֹזֵר לִי אֶת הַסֵּפֶר שְׁלִי.
 It was not easy. Believe me. זֶה לֹא הָיָה קֶל. תִּאֱמִינוּ לִי.
 We wanted to bring him back to reality. רָצִינוּ לְהַחְזִיר אוֹתוֹ לְמַציאוֹת.

6.4.2 Added to plural noun forms and some prepositions

Pronoun suffixes attached to plural nouns

Plural			Singular		
3 rd	2 nd	1 st	3 rd	2 nd	1 st
ם-	ים-	נו-	י-	ך-	י-
ו-	נו-	ו-	י-	ך-	י-

Ella, do your parents live in Haifa? אלה, הַרְנִיךְ גֵרִים בְּחֵיפָה?
 The (its) owner of the soccer team בְּעֵלִיָּה שֶׁל קְבוּצַת הַכּוֹדוּרְגֵל הַבְּטִיחַ
 promised that the club will not be שֶׁהַמוֹעֵדוֹן לֹא יִיסָגֵר כָּל עוֹד הוּא
 closed as long as he is alive. בְּחַיִּים.

This set of suffixes is also used for some prepositions:

על, לפני, אחרי, אודות

He came to us. הוּא בא אֵלֵינוּ.
 We heard a lot about him. שָׁמַעְנוּ הַרְבֵּה עָלָיו.

6.4.3 The use of possessive pronouns

The use of pronouns as possessive suffixes is a feature of classical Hebrew, carried over to today's formal registers. In common use of Israeli Hebrew, however, this use is limited. Instead, in everyday language, the possessed noun is followed by the preposition of possession 'of', with pronouns attached to it.

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>	<u>Formal Register</u>
our neighbor	השכן שלנו	שכננו
their friends	הידידים שלהם	ידידיהם

Notable exceptions are the various kinship terms that have managed to (optionally) maintain the noun + pronoun structure owing to the frequency of their use. The possessive relationship is indicated either with suffix pronouns or with a possession phrase. For instance, both אבי שלי and אבי אבי are used in everyday speech.

my father/my Dad	אבא שלי	אָבִי
her aunt	הדודה שלה	דוֹדְתָהּ

Note that even in the formal registers, one cannot add pronoun suffixes to nouns that are loan words.

You can't fool around at our office. במשרד שלנו לא מתבטלים.
Doesn't your television work? הטלוויזיה שלכם לא עובדת?

6.5 Demonstrative pronouns

The demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun or determiner that is used to indicate a referent's spatial, temporal or discourse location. It functions as a pronoun and as a modifier.

The demonstrative pronoun, as its name suggests, is used in some cases at the head of a sentence, as the subject. It ordinarily precedes the noun to which it refers. It points to living things or objects. Gender and number agreement with the noun to which it refers is required.

Demonstrative pronouns as an indicator of the referent's location in space and time or identity:

Masc. Sing.	this (is)	זֶה
Fem. Sing.	this (is)	זֵאת/זוֹ
Plural	these (are)	אֵלֶּה/אֵלֵּהּ

This is our house. זֶה הבית שלנו.

This is not my problem. It is your problem. זאת לא הבעיה שלי - זאת הבעיה שלך.

These are difficult days. אלה הם ימים קשים.

These were c
at what happ
all chopped d

As a modifi
I live in this
This proble
These pictur

6.5.1 Usin
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speech.

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lengthy sub

What we ar
difficult thi

In spoken l
verb 'to be'
What we d
thing.
What we d
difficult thi

<u>Informal</u>	<u>Formal Register</u>
השכן	שכְּנֵנוּ
הידיד	יְדִידֵהֶם

...s that have managed to
...structure owing to the
...ship is indicated either
...ase. For instance, both

אבא	אָבִי
הדודה	דוֹדָהָא

...ot add pronoun suffixes

במשרד שלנו לא מתבטלים
הטלוויזיה שלכם לא עובדת

...erminer that is used to
...se location. It functions

...s, is used in some cases
...arily precedes the noun
...r objects. Gender and
...rs is required.

...e referent's location in

זֶה
זֵאת/זוֹ
אֵלֶּה/אֵלֶּיוּ

זֶה הבית שלנו.

זֵאת לא הבעיה שלי - זאת
שלך.

אֵלֶּה הם ימים קשים.

These were once woods, and now look
at what happened to them! They were
all chopped down.

אֵלֶּוּ הָיוּ פעם יערות - ועכשיו
תסתכל מה שקרה להם! כרתו
את כולם.

As a modifier, the demonstrative pronoun is part of a phrase:

I live in this house.

אני גר בבית הזה.

This problem can be solved.

ניתן לפתור את הבעיה הזאת.

These pictures are not for sale.

התמונות האלה לא למכירה.

6.5.1 Using זה for general reference

In spoken Hebrew the demonstrative pronoun זה 'this' can be used to refer to nouns or noun phrases, regardless of their gender and number. It is considered non-normative usage, but is used in daily informal speech.

	<u>Normative</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>
This can be a problem!	זאת יכולה להיות בעיה	זה יכול להיות בעיה!

The demonstrative pronoun זה is also used to serve as a link in a sentence that has no verb. It links the two parts of the sentence in the same way that the verb 'to be' in English links such parts, or actually separates the two parts of the sentence. The predicate that is introduced by the link זה supplies a comment to the topic, supplied by the subject of the sentence. This structure is particularly useful to separate a lengthy subject or topic from its predicate or comment.

What we are doing for him <u>is</u> a difficult thing.	מה שאנחנו עושים בשבילו <u>זה</u> דבר קשה.
---	--

In spoken Hebrew it can also be used in the past and future, just as the verb 'to be' is used to indicate the time aspect.

What we did for him <u>was</u> a difficult thing.	מה שעשינו בשבילו <u>זה</u> היה דבר קשה.
--	--

What we did for him <u>will be</u> a difficult thing.	מה שעשינו בשבילו <u>זה</u> יהיה דבר קשה.
--	---

6.5.2 Reference to contexts beyond the noun phrase

The demonstrative pronoun singular masculine הַזֶּה is also used to refer to an entire idea or situation, or a sequence of events. These references are either specifically expressed earlier in a sentence, or a larger discourse unit, or it is part of what is generally understood from the context external to the text. In this case rather than referring to a noun or noun phrase, the pronoun stands for a larger context. In English the pronoun *it* is used to refer to such a sequence, while in Hebrew the demonstrative pronoun הַזֶּה is used to perform the same function.

When I was invited to meetings, I always went, even though it was not convenient, and it disrupted work.

כשהוזמנינו אותי למפגשים, תמיד הלכתי, למרות שהזֶה לא היה נוח והזֶה הפריע לי בעבודה.

If it is not this, then it is something else.

אם זה לא זֶה, אז זה משהו אחר.

הַזֶּה can also be used to introduce an exclamatory sentence:

That's not nice!

זֶה לא יפה!

That's not what is done here!

זֶה לא מה שעושים כאן!

I don't like this at all!

זֶה לא מוצא חן בעיני!

6.5.3 Use of the feminine singular זאת for general reference

There are occasions where the feminine demonstrative pronoun זאת functions in the same manner. It is less common, and often indicates a more formal use of language.

I intend to say something to him each time that he does this.

אני מתכוון להעיר לו כל פעם שהוא עושה זאת.

There are certain fixed expressions where זאת is part of the expression and cannot be changed to masculine זה:

What does it mean? /What do you mean by this?

מה זאת אומרת?

And in any case, I don't think that there is no hope.

ובכל זאת, אני לא חושב שאין תקווה.

6.6 Interrogatives

6.6.1 The interrogative particle

The interrogative particle הַאִם is used in English, to form yes-no questions, and another interrogative particle הַיֵּשׁ which elicits a 'yes' or 'no' answer.

Who told you that today?

What happened today?

The interrogative particle הַיֵּשׁ is appropriate for yes-no questions in a sentence.

What do you think?

Whose is this?

What did you say?

Use in spoken Hebrew

In spoken Hebrew, the interrogative particle הַיֵּשׁ is used to introduce a question.

What are you doing?

What are you going to do?

What are you going to do tomorrow?

What are you going to do next week?

What are you going to do next month?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

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What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

What are you going to do next year?

6.6 Interrogative and relative pronouns

6.6.1 The interrogative pronoun: who and what? מי ומה

The interrogative pronoun is one that is used as a question word. As in English, there is one interrogative pronoun מי that is equivalent to *who*, and another interrogative pronoun מה that is equivalent to *what*. These interrogative pronouns, as implied by their name, initiate questions, which elicit information about the subject of the sentence.

Who told you that there is no class today? מי אמר לכם שאין שיעור היום?

What happened to you? מה קרה לכם?

The interrogative pronouns can be used as question words with appropriate prepositions. The question is not about the subject of the sentence but about a prepositional complement.

What do you want? מה את רוצה?

Whose is this book? של מי הספר הזה?

What did you talk about? על מה דיברתם?

Use in speech:

In spoken Hebrew, it is much more common to omit the direct object particle את when the question word is מה 'what', even when the question is about the object of the transitive verb:

What are you looking for? (את) מה את מחפשת?

6.6.2 'whoever' and 'whatever'

Hebrew relative clauses modify nouns. They follow the nouns that they modify and are introduced by the subordinating particles אשר or -ש.

The girls who play soccer will go to play in Haifa. הבנות שמשחקות כדורגל ייסעו לשחק בחיפה.

The girls who play soccer will go to play in Haifa. הבנות אשר משחקות כדורגל ייסעו לשחק בחיפה.

When the identity of the noun is not known, the pronouns מי 'who' or מה 'what' fill the slot of the unknown noun. They are followed by the subordinating particle -ש that is an obligatory particle required for introducing relative clauses.

Whoever	מי ש...
Anyone/everyone who	כל מי ש...
Whatever	מה ש...
Anything/everything that	כל מה ש...

The following illustrations introduce sentences where nouns fill the subject and object slots, and other sentences where pronouns take the nouns' place when their identity is not known or suggest an inclusive pronoun:

1. Subject: 'Whoever' מי ש..

Subject: 'the people (who..)'

The people who bought tickets in advance, can board the train now.

האנשים ש..

האנשים שקנו כרטיסים מראש יכולים לעלות לרכבת עכשיו.

Subject: 'whoever'

Whoever bought tickets in advance, can board the train now.

מי (ש..)

מי שקנה כרטיסים מראש יכול לעלות לרכבת עכשיו.

2. Subject: 'What(ever)' מה ש..

Object: rumors (which..)

We heard about him all kinds of rumors, which were all true.

מושא: שמעות (ש..)

שמענו עליו כל מיני שמעות, שהיו נכונות.

Object: whatever

What(ever) we heard about him was true.

מושא: מה (ש..)

מה ששמענו עליו, היה נכון.

These structures can function as subjects, as direct and indirect objects, and in prepositional phrases.

1. In a subject position

Whoever wants to come – can do so.

כל/מי שרוצה לבוא - יכול.

Whatever I told you is absolutely true.

כל מה שאמרתי לכם שריר וקיים.

2. In direct object position

I saw everybody I wanted to see.

ראיתי את כל מי שרציתי לראות.

3. In indirect

We spoke about everything

6.7 Imper

Impersonal

There are some

In a subject

Someone

Everyone

Everybody

Nobody

In an object

He gave

We still

They invi

Dan told

6.7.1 Om

In English

the pronoun

omitted a

present. In

plural for

3. In indirect object position

We spoke about what happened and דיברנו על מה שקרה ועל כל מה
about everything that we went through. שעבר עלינו.

6.7 Impersonal pronouns: something/nothing

Impersonal pronouns refer to entities that not are specifically identified. There are several ways to express an impersonal pronoun, including omitting them altogether.

In a subject position

Someone told us that the show מישהו אמר לנו שההצגה בוטלה.
was cancelled.

Everyone will tell you that there כל אחד יגיד לך שאין בעיה.
is no problem.

Everybody (all) thinks that you כולם חושבים שעזבת את העיר.
left town.

Nobody knows when he will אף אחד לא יודע מתי הוא יחזור.
return.

In an object position

He gave your book to someone. הוא נתן את הספר שלך למישהו.
We still have not heard from עדיין לא שמענו מכל אחד.
everyone.

They invited everybody to the party. הם הזמינו את כולם למסיבה.
Dan told nobody when he'd be דן לא אמר לאף אחד מתי הוא יחזור.
coming back.

6.7.1 Omission of impersonal pronouns

In English indefinite pronouns can be expressed by the noun *one*, or by the pronouns *you* or *they* and sometimes *people* when they refer to an indefinite, non-specific entity. In Hebrew the subject pronoun is omitted altogether in such cases, and only the verbal predicate is present. It is a subjectless sentence that uses a third person masculine plural form of the verb (in past, present or future).

מי ש...

כל מי ש...

מה ש...

כל מה ש...

s where nouns fill the
here pronouns take the
or suggest an inclusive

האנשים ש..

האנשים שקנו כרטיסים מ יכולים לעלות לרכבת עכש

מי (ש..)

מי שקנה כרטיסים מראש לעלות לרכבת עכשיו.

מושא: שמועות (ש..)

שמענו עליו כל מיני שמועות נכונות.

מושא: מה (ש..)

מה ששמענו עליו, היה נכון

ect and indirect objects,

כל/מי שרוצה לבוא - יכול

כל מה שאמרתי לכם שריו

ראיתי את כל מי שרציתי

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Predicate</u>	<u>נשוא</u>	<u>נושא</u>
You	add a cup of sugar to the flour and butter mixture.	מוסיפים כוס סוכר לתערובת של הקמח והחמאה.	∅
People	come to visit here from all corners of the world.	באים לבקר כאן מכל קצוות העולם.	∅
They	told me that there are plenty of things to do here.	אמרו לי שיש הרבה מה לעשות כאן.	∅
One	used to play soccer here, until the city closed the park .	היו משחקים כאן בדורגל, עד שהעירייה סגרה את הפארק.	∅

When the predicate is a transitive verb, the passive verb is often used in English.

<u>Subject + Predicate</u>	<u>נשוא</u>	<u>נושא</u>
The plant <u>was closed</u> three months ago.	סגרו את המפעל לפני שלושה חדשים.	∅
The stories of the first settlers <u>were not documented</u> .	לא תיעדו את הסיפורים של המתישבים הראשונים.	∅
What a pity!	חבל!	

A numeral
quantifier c
number, su
and fraction

7.1
7.2
7.3
7.4
7.5
7.6
7.7
7.8

In terms of
numeral c
counting a
behave lik
distinguish
follow, an
counting.

Note

In this cha
stressed fi

7.1 Free

Free coun
Hebrew u
discussion
cardinal n
numbers a

<u>נשוא</u>	<u>נושא</u>
מוסיפים כוס סוף	Ø
של הקמח והחמץ	
באים לבקר כאן	Ø
העולם.	
אמר לי שיש הרבה	Ø
לעשות כאן.	
היו משחקים כאן	Ø
שהעירייה סגרה	

ve verb is often used in

<u>נשוא</u>	<u>נושא</u>
סגרו את המפעל ל	Ø
חדשים.	
לא תיעדו את הסרט	Ø
המתיישבים הראשונים	
חבל!	

Chapter 7 Numerals

A numeral is a word, functioning most typically as an adjective, a quantifier or a pronoun that expresses a number, and a relation to the number, such as one of the following: quantity, sequence, frequency and fraction. The following kinds of numerals will be discussed:

- 7.1 Free counting
- 7.2 Cardinal numbers
- 7.3 Noun phrases with cardinal numbers
- 7.4 Ordinal numbers
- 7.5 Fractions
- 7.6 Multiplication values
- 7.7 Numeric value of letters
- 7.8 Phrases: days of the week, dates, telling time, age

In terms of form and syntactic role, the main distinction within the numeral category is between 'cardinal' numbers, which are used in counting and as quantifiers of nouns, and 'ordinal' numbers, which behave like adjectives. In terms of function, however, one should distinguish between cardinal numbers used to quantify the nouns they follow, and those used in 'free counting', which refer to sequential counting.

Note

In this chapter, 'א and 'ב are represented in the transcription only in stressed final syllables, where ['] is most likely to be heard (c.g., מֵאָה).

7.1 Free counting

Free counting involves a flow of numbers without reference to objects. Hebrew uses the feminine independent numbers in counting – see discussion of feminine and masculine numbers in the section on cardinal numbers below. Aside from being used in counting, counting numbers are also used in the following contexts:

1. In naming and labeling objects

Bus number 5
6 Hertzl Street

אוטובוס מספר חמש
רחוב הרצל מספר שש

2. In conveying telephone numbers

051-632-7894

אפס, חמש, אחת - שש, שלוש, שתיים - שבע, שמונה,
תשע, ארבע

3. In mathematics

For various arithmetical functions, as in the following example:

$1 + 1 = 2$

אחת ועוד אחת הם *שתיים

* In the arithmetic, ם stands for 'is/are'.

Single numbers

<i>aḥát</i>	אחת	1
<i>shtáyim</i>	שתיים	2
<i>shalósh</i>	שלוש	3
<i>arbá</i>	ארבע	4
<i>hamésh</i>	חמש	5
<i>shésh</i>	שש	6
<i>shéva</i>	שבע	7
<i>shmoné</i>	שמונה	8
<i>téshe</i>	תשע	9
<i>éser</i>	עשר	10

The zero value is conveyed by the masculine noun אפס *éfes*.

Teens

The teen numbers (11-19) are a combination of the nouns for single digits (in dependent form) and עשרה - 'teen':

<i>aḥát esrè</i>	אחת עשרה	11
<i>shtéym esrè</i>	שתיים עשרה	12
<i>shlósh esrè</i>	שלוש עשרה	13
<i>arbá esrè</i>	ארבע עשרה	14
<i>ḥamésh esrè</i>	חמש עשרה	15
<i>shésh esrè</i>	שש עשרה	16
<i>shvá esrè</i>	שבע עשרה	17
<i>shmoné esrè</i>	שמונה עשרה	18
<i>tshá esrè</i>	תשע עשרה	19

Numbers 20
'twenty', wh
are the plura
'thirty', and

Single digits
to form the n
expressed as

Note**a. In normative**

The conjuncti

e.g. ים ושתיים

variant), מונה

colloquial, o

conjunction -

esrim va-shév

b. In spoken I

Speakers rarel

conjunction -

אוטובוס מספר חמש
רחוב הרצל מספר שש

אפס, חמש, אחת – שש, שש
תשע, ארבע

Following example:

אחת ועוד אחת הם שתיים

אחת	1
שתיים	2
שלוש	3
ארבע	4
חמש	5
שש	6
שבע	7
שמונה	8
תשע	9
עשר	10

אפס *éfes*.

of the nouns for single

אחת עשר	11
שתיים	12
שלוש עשר	13
ארבע עשר	14
חמש עשר	15
שש עשר	16
שבע עשר	17
שמונה עשר	18
תשע עשר	19

Numbers 20-90 take a plural form. Except for the number עשרים 'twenty', which is actually the plural form of 'ten', the rest of the 'tens' are the plural form of the singular. From שלוש 'three' you get שלושים 'thirty', and so on.

<i>esrím</i>	עשרים	20
<i>shloshím</i>	שלושים	30
<i>arba`ím</i>	ארבעים	40
<i>hamishím</i>	חמשים	50
<i>shishím</i>	ששים	60
<i>shiv`ím</i>	שבעים	70
<i>shmoním</i>	שמונים	80
<i>tish`ím</i>	תשעים	90

Single digits are added to these numbers with the conjunction 'and' -ו- to form the more complex numbers. Thus the number 'twenty-one' is expressed as 'twenty and one': עשרים ואחת.

<i>esrím ve-ahát</i>	עשרים ואחת	21
<i>esrím u-shtáyim</i>	עשרים ושתיים	22
<i>esrím ve-shalósh</i>	עשרים ושלוש	23
<i>esrím ve-arbá</i>	עשרים וארבע	24
<i>esrím ve-ḥamésh</i>	עשרים וחמש	25
<i>esrím va-shésh</i>	עשרים ושש	26
<i>esrím va-shéva</i>	עשרים ושבע	27
<i>esrím u-shmoné</i>	עשרים ושמונה	28
<i>esrím va-téshe</i>	עשרים ותשע	29

Note

a. In normative Hebrew:

The conjunction -ו- becomes -ו- before a consonant with a 'zero *shva*', e.g. עשרים ושתיים *esrím u-shtáyim* (*esrím ve-shtáyim* is a colloquial variant), עשרים ושמונה *esrím u-shmoné* (*esrím ve-shmoné* in the colloquial, or a 'midway' compromise: *esrím u-shmoné*). The conjunction -ו- becomes -ו- before a stressed vowel, e.g., עשרים ושבע *esrím va-shéva*.

b. In spoken Hebrew:

Speakers rarely follow the practice mentioned above of changing the conjunction -ו- to its variants -ו- or -ו- in everyday Hebrew. Thus the

conjunction is usually pronounced *ve-*, regardless of the more formal rules.

Higher numbers

The noun which denotes 'hundred' is the feminine noun *מֵאָה* *me'á*. The noun which denotes 'thousand' is the masculine noun *אֶלֶף* *élef*. In combination with single digits, these nouns form the count nouns from 100 and beyond.

Hundreds

The feminine noun *מֵאָה* *me'á* 'a hundred' provides the base for all the numbers from 100 to 999. The dual form expressing 'two hundred' is *מֵאָתַיִם*. From 300 to 900, the hundreds are a combination of the single digit feminine numbers followed by the plural form *מֵאוֹת*, which follows it. Notice that the dependent form of the digits is used. (In the numbers 'three', 'seven' and 'nine', the alternate form is noticeable, as the first vowel of the independent form of the number is omitted and replaced by zero *shva* sign).

<i>me'á</i>	מֵאָה	100
<i>matáyim</i>	מֵאָתַיִם	200
<i>shlòsh me'òt</i>	שְׁלוֹשׁ-מֵאוֹת	300
<i>arbá me'òt</i>	אַרְבַּע-מֵאוֹת	400
<i>hamésh me'òt</i>	חֲמֵשׁ-מֵאוֹת	500
<i>shésh me'òt</i>	שֵׁשׁ-מֵאוֹת	600
<i>shvá me'òt</i>	שֶׁבַע-מֵאוֹת	700
<i>shmoné me'òt</i>	שְׁמוֹנֶה-מֵאוֹת	800
<i>tshá me'òt</i>	תְּשַׁע-מֵאוֹת	900

To form more complex numbers with 'tens' and 'ones', the phrase starts with the highest number, which is followed by the next number in order, and ends with the 'ones'. Notice that before the last number the conjunction 'and' -ו- is added, such as in the following examples:

782 שבע מאות, שמונים ושתיים
325 שלוש מאות, עשרים וחמש

Thousands

The masculine noun *אֶלֶף* 'a thousand' provides the base for all the numbers from 1,000 to 10,000. The dual form to express 'two

thousand' is
combination
plural form
dependent fo

Note

If the num
'and' is opt

Beyond te

To count th
single num
form can be

ss of the more formal

e noun מאה *me'á*. The
ine noun אֶלֶף *élef*. In
a the count nouns from

des the base for all the
ssing 'two hundred' is
mbination of the single
al form מאות, which
e digits is used. (In the
e form is noticeable, as
number is omitted and

מאה	100
מאת	200
שלוש	300
ארבע	400
חמשה	500
ששה	600
שבע	700
שמונה	800
תשעה	900

and 'ones', the phrase
by the next number in
ore the last number the
wing examples:

782 שבע מאות, שמונת
325 שלוש מאות, עשה

es the base for all the
form to express 'two

thousand' is אלפיים *alpáyim*. From 3,000 to 10,000, the thousands are a combination of the single digit masculine numbers followed by the plural form 'thousands' אלפים *alafím*, which follows it. Notice that the dependent form of the digits is used.

<i>élef</i>	אֶלֶף	1,000
<i>alpáyim</i>	אֲלָפִים	2,000
<i>shlóshet alafim</i>	שְׁלוֹשֶׁת-אֲלָפִים	3,000
<i>arbá`at alafim</i>	אַרְבַּעַת-אֲלָפִים	4,000
<i>haméshet alafim</i>	חֲמִשָּׁת-אֲלָפִים	5,000
<i>shéshet alafim</i>	שֵׁשֶׁת-אֲלָפִים	6,000
<i>shiv`at alafim</i>	שִׁבְעַת-אֲלָפִים	7,000
<i>shmonát alafim</i>	שְׁמוֹנַת-אֲלָפִים	8,000
<i>tish`at alafim</i>	תִּשְׁעַת-אֲלָפִים	9,000
<i>aséret alafim</i>	עֲשָׂרַת-אֲלָפִים	10,000

Note

If the number includes thousands and hundreds only, the conjunction 'and' is optional: 1,700 אֶלֶף וְשֵׁבַע-מֵאוֹת or אֶלֶף וְשֵׁבַע-מֵאוֹת.

Beyond ten thousand

To count thousands beyond 'ten thousand', the masculine form of the single numbers is combined with the singular form of אֶלֶף (the plural form can be used as well).

<i>aḥád asar élef</i>	אֶחָד עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	11,000
<i>shnéym asar élef</i>	שְׁנַיִם עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	12,000
<i>shloshá asar élef</i>	שְׁלוֹשָׁה עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	13,000
<i>arba`á asar élef</i>	אַרְבַּעָה עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	14,000
<i>ḥamishá asar élef</i>	חֲמִשָּׁה עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	15,000
<i>shishá asar élef</i>	שֵׁשָׁה עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	16,000
<i>shiv`á asar élef</i>	שִׁבְעָה עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	17,000
<i>shmoná asar élef</i>	שְׁמוֹנָה עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	18,000
<i>tish`á asar élef</i>	תִּשְׁעָה עֶשֶׂר אֶלֶף	19,000
<i>esrím élef</i>	עֲשָׂרִים אֶלֶף	20,000

From 30,000 to 90,000

<i>shloshím élef</i>	שלושים אלף	30,000
<i>arba`im élef</i>	ארבעים אלף	40,000
<i>hamishím élef</i>	חמישים אלף	50,000
<i>shishím élef</i>	שים אלף	60,000
<i>shiv`im élef</i>	שבעים אלף	70,000
<i>shmoním élef</i>	שמונים אלף	80,000
<i>tish`im élef</i>	תשעים אלף	90,000

From 100,000 to 999,999.

<i>me`á élef</i>	מאה אלף	100,000
<i>matáyim élef</i>	מאתים אלף	200,000
<i>shlósh me`ót élef</i>	שלוש-מאות אלף	300,000
<i>milyón</i>	מיליון (ז)	1,000,000
<i>shishá milyón</i>	ששה מיליון	6,000,000
<i>bilyón/milyárd</i>	ביליון/מיליארד (ז)	1,000,000,000

The order of numbers in the phrase:

To form more complex numbers with 'hundreds', 'tens' and 'ones', the phrase starts with the highest number, which is followed by the next number in order and ends with the 'ones', the same as in English.

שבעת אלפים, שלוש מאות, עשרים וארבע	7,324
אלפים, מאתיים חמישים ושש	2,256

7.2 Cardinal numbers**מספרים מונים**

There are two sets of cardinal numbers: masculine and feminine. Each of these sets has two subsets of independent and dependent forms of the numbers: the independent set is used in indefinite phrases, while the dependent set is used in definite phrases. In the numbers 3-10, the masculine numbers have the ה- ending, otherwise associated with feminine nouns.

<u>Masculine</u>		<u>Feminine</u>
אחד	1	אחת
שנים	2	שתים
שלושה	3	שלוש
ארבעה	4	ארבע
חמשה	5	חמש

7.3 Noun

Cardinal numbers are used to indicate the quantity of a noun, which is in the singular or plural form. The cardinal numbers follow the noun.

7.3.1 Use of

There is a difference between the use of cardinal numbers in a number phrase and in an adjective phrase. In a number phrase, the cardinal number is a singular even if the noun it counts is plural. In an adjective phrase, the cardinal number is an adjective and follows the noun it counts, and is in the same form as the noun. The number 'one' can be either indefinite or definite: 'one' (indefinite) does not have a definite article, while 'one' (definite) does have a definite article.

Indefinite phraseMasculine

one hat

Definite phraseMasculine

the one actor

7.3.2 Use of

Numerical phrases are used to indicate the quantity of a noun. There is a similar structure to the indefinite phrase, but the cardinal number always precedes the noun (particularly in the plural form).

שלוש	30,000
ארבע	40,000
חמשה	50,000
שש	60,000
שבע	70,000
שמונה	80,000
תשע	90,000
מאה	100,000
מאתיים	200,000
שלוש	300,000
מיליון	1,000,000
ששה	6,000,000
ביליון	1,000,000,000

's', 'tens' and 'ones', the is followed by the next name as in English.

שבעה	7,324
אלפיים	2,256

מספרים מונים

line and feminine. Each dependent forms of the finite phrases, while the the numbers 3-10, the otherwise associated with

Feminine

- אחת
- שתיים
- שלוש
- ארבע
- חמש

שש	6	שש
שבעה	7	שבע
שמונה	8	שמונה
תשעה	9	תשע
עשרה	10	עשר

7.3 Noun phrases with cardinal numbers

Cardinal numbers combine with count nouns for the purpose of indicating the quantity of items. Except for 'one', they precede the head noun, which puts them in the same class as other quantifiers (such as *הרבה*, *כמה*, *מעט*, *כל*) and distinguishes them from adjectives, which follow the noun they modify.

7.3.1 Use of number 'one' in numerical phrases

There is a certain redundancy in the overt inclusion of the number 'one' in a number phrase, since a singular noun, by definition and by form, is a singular entity. It makes more sense, however, if it is regarded as an adjective meaning 'single', and indeed Hebrew 'one' does behave like an adjective: in a phrase, it always follows the noun that is being counted, and has the gender features of the noun that it modifies. The number 'one' also agrees with the count-noun in its status as indefinite or definite: in an indefinite noun phrase, both count-noun and number do not have an article, while in a definite phrase, both noun and number do have a definite article.

Indefinite phrases

<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>
one hat	כובע אחד	one dress	שמלה אחת

Definite phrases

<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>
the one actor	השחקן האחד	the one actress	השחקנית האחת

7.3.2 Use of number 'two' and above in numerical phrases

Numerical phrases with numbers above the number 'one' are formed in a similar shape to that of [noun + noun] phrases, *צירופי סמיכות*. In these phrases the components combine in the following way: the number always precedes the count nouns, which, with some exceptions (particularly, in higher numbers), are plural nouns. The numerals have

the same gender features as the count nouns. When the phrases are indefinite, the number nouns are the independent forms of the number (with the exception of number 'two', as can be seen below). When the number nouns are part of a definite phrase, they have the alternate shape typical of the first noun of a סמיכות phrase.

When the number 'two' is part of an indefinite or definite phrase, it has the form שְׁנֵי- or שְׁתֵּי- :

Indefinite phrases

<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>
two boys	שְׁנֵי בָּנִים	two girls	שְׁתֵּי בָנוֹת
two fathers	שְׁנֵי אֲבוֹת	two women	שְׁתֵּי נָשִׁים

Definite phrases

<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>
the two boys	שְׁנֵי הַבָּנִים	the two girls	שְׁתֵּי הַבָּנוֹת
the three fathers	שְׁלוֹשַׁת הָאֲבוֹת	the three women	שְׁלוֹשׁ הַנָּשִׁים

<u>Masculine</u>		<u>Feminine</u>	
Dependent form	Independent form	Dependent form	Independent form
שְׁנֵי-	שְׁנַיִם	שְׁתֵּי-	שְׁתַּיִם
שְׁלוֹשַׁת-	שְׁלוֹשָׁה	שְׁלוֹשׁ-	שְׁלוֹשׁ
אַרְבַּעַת-	אַרְבָּעָה	אַרְבַּע-	אַרְבַּע
חֲמִשָּׁת-	חֲמִשָּׁה	חֲמֵשׁ-	חֲמֵשׁ
שִׁשָּׁת-	שִׁשָּׁה	שֵׁשׁ-	שֵׁשׁ
שִׁבְעַת-	שִׁבְעָה	שִׁבַּע-	שִׁבַּע
שְׁמוֹנַת-	שְׁמוֹנָה	שְׁמוֹנָה-	שְׁמוֹנָה
תִּשְׁעַת-	תִּשְׁעָה	תִּשְׁעַת-	תִּשְׁעַת
עֶשְׂרַת-	עֶשְׂרֵה	עֶשְׂרֵה-	עֶשְׂרֵה

Indefinite: Five customers entered the store. אַרְבַּעַת קוֹנִים נִכְנסוּ לַחֲנוּת.

Definite: The five customers came in together. אַרְבַּעַת הַקוֹנִים באוּ בַיַּחַד.

Note

In current Hebrew the שְׁלוֹשַׁת type forms are alive and well, while the שְׁלוֹשׁ dependent ones are obsolete. Often, the שְׁלוֹשַׁת type is used for definite feminine nouns as well.

7.3.3 Definite

Beyond the numeral, regular

Masculine

Indefinite:

Definite:

Feminine

Indefinite:

Definite:

7.3.4 Teen numerals

The masculine plural forms of the compound numerals (introduced in the second number)

7.3.3 Definite numerical phrase beyond 10

Beyond the number 10, count nouns do not affect the form of the numeral, regardless of whether the noun is definite or indefinite.

Masculine

Indefinite: There are thirteen boys in class. יש שלושה עשר בנים בכיתה

Definite: All the thirteen boys are friends of mine. כל שלושה עשר הבנים חברים שלי.

Feminine

Indefinite: There are thirteen girls in class. יש שלוש עשרת בנות בכיתה

Definite: All the thirteen girls are friends of mine. כל שלוש עשרת הבנות חברות שלי.

7.3.4 Teen numbers – masculine and feminine

The masculine teen numbers differ in their form from feminine teen numbers (introduced in the counting section above): the first number of the compound noun is the masculine singular unit number, while the second number signifies 'teen', and its form in the masculine is עָשָׂר.

Masculine		Feminine
אחד	11	אחת
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
שְׁנַיִם	12	שְׁתַּיִם
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
שְׁלוֹשָׁה	13	שְׁלוֹשׁ
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
אַרְבָּעָה	14	אַרְבַּע
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
חֲמִשָּׁה	15	חֲמִשׁ
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
שֵׁשׁ	16	שֵׁשׁ
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
שִׁבְעָה	17	שִׁבַּע
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
שְׁמוֹנֶה	18	שְׁמוֹנֶה
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה
תִּשְׁעָה	19	תִּשְׁעָה
עָשָׂר		עֶשְׂרֵה

als

ns. When the phrases are
ndent forms of the number
be seen below). When the
e, they have the alternate
rase.

ce or definite phrase, it has

ine נקבה
girls שְׁתֵּי בָנוֹת
women שְׁתֵּי נָשִׁים

e נקבה
girls שְׁתֵּי הַבָּנוֹת
e women שְׁלוֹשׁ הַנָּשִׁים

Feminine
ent form Independent form

שְׁתֵּי-	שְׁתַּיִם
שְׁלוֹשׁ-	שְׁלוֹשׁ
אַרְבַּע-	אַרְבַּע
חֲמִשׁ-	חֲמִשׁ
שֵׁשׁ-	שֵׁשׁ
שִׁבַּע-	שִׁבַּע
שְׁמוֹנֶה	שְׁמוֹנֶה
תִּשְׁעָה-	תִּשְׁעָה
עָשָׂר-	עָשָׂר

אַרְבַּעָה קוֹנִים נִכְנָסוּ לַחֲנוּת.

אַרְבַּעַת הַקוֹנִים בָּאוּ בִּיחָד.

alive and well, while the
שלושה type is used for

7.3.5 Agreement between numbers and the quantified nouns

In a numerical noun phrase, the main noun determines the choice of the gender of the number of the numeral.

<u>Masculine</u>	<u>זכר</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>נקבה</u>
13 dogs	שלושה עשר כלבים	13 girls	שלוש עשרה בנות
14 days	ארבעה עשר ימים	14 cakes	ארבע עשרה עוגות

Beyond 20, only the last digit of the number agrees in gender with the noun it quantifies:

<u>Feminine</u>	23 companies	עשרים ושלוש חברות
	547 units	חמש מאות ארבעים ושבע יחידות
<u>Masculine</u>	49 books	ארבעים ותשעה ספרים
	365 days	שלוש מאות ששים וחמישה ימים

7.3.6 Numbers + pronoun suffix

The numbers 2-10 can have a plural possessive suffix added to them. By one word, which consists of a number and a pronoun suffix, one can express what takes a four-word phrase in English: 'The two of you' is rendered by the one word שְׁנֵיכֶם. The form to which the suffixes are added is a dependent form of the number: שְׁתֵּי or שְׁנֵי- and not שְׁנַיִם or שְׁתַּיִם. When the reference is to masculine nouns, or a mixed group of masculine and feminine nouns, the set of masculine numbers becomes the basis for the word, but if the reference is to feminine nouns, then the feminine number is the basis for the word. By definition, the concept is always a plural one.

Numbers with plural suffixes

	<u>נקבה</u>	<u>זכר</u>
the two of us	שְׁתֵּינוּ	שְׁנֵינוּ
the two of you	שְׁתֵּיכֶן	שְׁנֵיכֶם
the two of them	שְׁתֵּיהֶן	שְׁנֵיהֶם
the three of us	שְׁלוֹשָׁתֵנוּ	
the three of you	שְׁלוֹשְׁתֵּיכֶן	שְׁלוֹשְׁתֵּיכֶם
the three of them	שְׁלוֹשְׁתֵּיהֶן	שְׁלוֹשְׁתֵּיהֶם

7.4 Ordinal

Ordinal numbers are used to indicate the order of things, which includes the first day, the

In the ordinal numbers, the feminine form is used when there is a difference

7.4.1 Noun

Ordinal numbers are used to indicate the order of things, and as such, they have the same suffixes as the nouns they reflect the

the quantified nouns
 determines the choice of the

נקבה
 שלוש עשרה בנות
 ארבע עשרה עוגות

rees in gender with the

עשרים ושלוש חברות
 חמש מאות ארבעים ושבע
 ארבעים ותשעה ספרים
 שלוש מאות ששים וחמישים

e suffix added to them.
 pronoun suffix, one can
 sh: 'The two of you' is
 which the suffixes are
 or שְׁנֵי and not שְׁנַיִם or
 s, or a mixed group of
 aline numbers becomes
 p feminine nouns, then
 ord. By definition, the

זכר
 שְׁנֵינוּ
 שְׁנֵיכֶם
 שְׁנֵיהֶם

שלוש
 שלושתכם
 שלושתם

the four of us	אַרְבַּעַתֵּנוּ
the four of you	אַרְבַּעַתְכֶּם
the four of them	אַרְבַּעֵתָם
the five of us	חֲמִשָּׁתֵּנוּ
the five of you	חֲמִשָּׁתְכֶם
the five of them	חֲמִשָּׁתָם

7.4 Ordinal numbers

מספרים סודרים

Ordinal numbers ('first, second, third') are used to indicate the order in which individual items appear. They are usually singular concepts: *the first day, the second day, the third day.*

זכר		נקבה
ראשון	1 st	ראשונה
שני	2 nd	שנייה
שלישי	3 rd	שלישית
רביעי	4 th	רביעית
חמישי	5 th	חמישית
שישי	6 th	ששית
שביעי	7 th	שביעית
שמיני	8 th	שמינית
תשיעי	9 th	תשיעית
עשירי	10 th	עשירית

In the ordinal numbers 'first' and 'second', the feminine ordinal numbers have the feminine suffix ה־ while in the numbers 3-10, the feminine ordinal numbers have the feminine suffix ית־. Note the difference between שנייה 'second, f.' and שנית 'again'.

7.4.1 Noun phrases with ordinal numbers

Ordinal numbers have gender features and function as adjectives do, and as such they follow the head nouns of the phrase. In phrases they have the same gender features as the nouns that they modify. They also reflect the indefinite or definite status of the phrase.

Indefinite phrases:

	<u>Masculine</u>		<u>Feminine</u>
a third house	בית שלישי	a first show	הצגה ראשונה

Definite phrases:

	<u>Masculine</u>		<u>Feminine</u>
the third house	הבית השלישי	the first show	ההצגה הראשונה

7.4.2 Phrases with ordinals higher than 10th

The ordinal numbers higher than 10th are formed using cardinal numbers. However, they combine with nouns as adjectives and therefore agree with the head noun in gender and in use of articles.

Dan was the eleventh customer in line. דן היה הקונה האחד-עשר בתור.

This is the thirty-first year in which Hebrew is taught here. זאת השנה השלושים ואחת שבה מלמדים עברית כאן.

Use of 'first' and 'last'

The noun ראשון 'first' is also paired with the noun אחרון 'last'. They are truly ordinal adjectives and as adjectives have four forms indicating both gender and number.

first	ראשונות	ראשונים	ראשונה	ראשון
last	אחרונות	אחרונים	אחרונה	אחרון

The first day of the week is Sunday. היום הראשון בשבוע הוא יום ראשון.

Last but not least. אחרון, אחרון - חביב.

7.5 Fractions**שברים**

Partitive numbers are stated by regular nouns, which specify their fractional quality:

$\frac{1}{4}$ réva רבע $\frac{1}{2}$ hetsi/hatsi חצי/חצי

The noun 'half' has two forms: one when it is used as an independent noun and is not combined with another noun, חצי hetsi, and another when it is combined with a noun as part of a phrase, -חצי hatsi-.

Give me a half of what you have. תן לי חצי ממה שיש לך. hetsi

Give me a half loaf of bread. תן לי חצי כיכר לחם. hatsi-

The word
those for
a half
a third
a fourth

Give me
The time

a fifth
a sixth
a seventh
an eighth
a ninth
a tenth

7.6 Multi

Hebrew
number.
the use of
tenfold/te
fourfold/f

The value
ending: ס

Twice as

My book i
It costs tw
book.
It costs do
It will cost
much.

*The other
It is a fixe

Feminine

show הצגה ראשונה

Feminine

show ההצגה הראשונה

0th

formed using cardinal
numbers as adjectives and
used in use of articles.

דן היה הקונה האחד-עשר ב...

זאת השנה השלושים ואחת ע
מלמדים עברית כאן.

noun אחרון 'last'. They
have four forms indicating

ראשון	ראשונה
אחרון	אחרונה

היום הראשון בשבוע הוא יום

אחרון, אחרון – חביב.

שברים

ns, which specify their

חצי/חצי *hətsi/hatsi*

used as an independent
word, *hətsi*, and another
phrase, *hatsi-*.

תן לי חצי ממה שיש לך.
תן לי חצי כיכר לחם.

The words for 'half', 'third' and 'fourth/quarter' are masculine, while those for fractions 'fifth' through 'tenth' are feminine:

a half	<i>hətsi</i>	חצי	1/2
a third	<i>shlish</i>	שליש	1/3
a fourth	<i>réva</i>	רבע	1/4

Give me a third of what you have. תן לי שליש ממה שיש לך.
The time is a quarter to seven. השעה רבע לשבע.

a fifth	<i>hamishit</i>	חמישית	1/5
a sixth	<i>shishit</i>	ששית	1/6
a seventh	<i>shvi`it</i>	שביעית	1/7
an eighth	<i>shminit</i>	שמינית	1/8
a ninth	<i>tshi`it</i>	תשיעית	1/9
a tenth	<i>asirit</i>	עשירית	1/10

7.6 Multiplication values

Hebrew combines the fixed form of the noun *פי* 'times' with the number. The number form is masculine; however in everyday speech the use of the feminine number in these phrases is more common.

tenfold/ ten times as much *פי עשרה (פי עשר)*
fourfold/ four times as much. *פי ארבעה (פי ארבע)*

The value 'double' is expressed by the noun 'double', which has a dual ending: *כפלים* 'twice as much'.

Twice as much/double

My book is expensive. הספר שלי יקר.

It costs twice as much as your book. הוא עולה פי שניים מהספר שלך.

It costs double. הוא עולה כפליים.

It will cost you five times as much. זה יעלה לך פי חמישה/פי חמש.

*The other number with a dual ending is *שבעתיים*, meaning 'sevenfold'.
It is a fixed idiomatic expression.

7.7 Numeric value of letters

The letters of the alphabet have number value in Hebrew. They are used in Modern Hebrew to indicate dates, days of the week, status in college (שנה א' is Freshman, שנה ב' is Sophomore, etc.), for numbering items in a list, and sometimes they are used where roman numbers are used in English to indicate page numbers.

100	ק	80	פ	10	י	8	ח	1	א
200	ר	90	צ	20	כ	9	ט	2	ב
300	ש			30	ל			3	ג
400	ת			40	מ			4	ד
				50	נ			5	ה
				60	ס			6	ו
				70	ע			7	ז

Beyond 400, letters are added up and create the higher numbers (similar to Roman numerals):

600 = ת"ק 200 = ר + 400 = ת 500 = ת"ק 100 = ק + 400 = ת
 800 = ת"ת 400 = ת + 400 = ת 700 = ש"ש 300 = ש + 400 = ת

Note

The following final letters served for higher numbers, but no longer do so in contemporary Hebrew:

900 = צ 800 = פ 700 = ז 600 = ס 500 = ט

Teen numerals

The teen numbers (11-19) are expressed by combining the letters א-ט with the letter יod י for 10.

19 = ט"ט 18 = ח"ט 17 = ז"ט 14 = ד"ט 13 = ג"ט 12 = ב"ט 11 = א"ט

The numbers 15, 16 are stated in terms of 9+6, and 9+7, since the combination of the letter י plus either ה or ו includes a sequence which is used in the sacred name of God. Thus, 16 = ט"ז, 15 = ט"ה.

Numbers 20-90

The numbers 20-90 are expressed by combining the values of א-ט for the single unique numbers, and the letters כ-צ for 20 to 90.

58 = ח"מ 79 = ט"ט 43 = מ"ג 36 = ל"ו 21 = א"י

Other hi
Thousan
to the let
number.
5,000 =

Combin
The prin
more tha
mark " co
227

7.8 Num

7.8.1 Da

There are
the letter
ordinal n
week.

Su
Mo
Tu
We
Th
Fri
Sat

7.8.2 Dat

Dates of th
the Hebrew
Wednesda
5,761
The ה for
common u

The Grego
starts with
from those
11/10/2002

in Hebrew. They are of the week, status in (e, etc.), for numbering where roman numbers are

8	ח	1	א
9	ט	2	ב
		3	ג
		4	ד
		5	ה
		6	ו
		7	ז

higher numbers

100 = ק + 400 = ת
300 = ש + 400 = ת

numbers, but no longer do

600 = ם 500 = ך

Combining the letters א-ט

י"א = 11 י"ב = 12

6, and 9+7, since the includes a sequence 6 = ט"ז, 15 = ט"ו.

the values of א-ט for 20 to 90.

כ"א = 21 ל"ו = 36

Other higher numbers represented by letters

Thousands are usually represented by the apostrophe ', which is added to the letters. The apostrophe separates the thousand from the rest of the number.

5,000 = ה' 4,000 = ד' 3,000 = ג' 2,000 = ב' 1,000 = א'

Combining higher numbers

The principle of combining letters also works for higher numbers. If more than two letters are needed for the number, the double quotes mark " comes before the last letter.

227 = רכ"ז 508 = תקי"ח 749 = תשמ"ט 5,764 = ה'תשס"ד

7.8 Numbers in common phrases

7.8.1 Days of the week

There are two systems for the names of the days of the week: one uses the letters of the alphabet to signify the day, while the other uses the ordinal numbers following the word 'day' to signify the days of the week.

Sunday	יום ראשון	יום א'
Monday	יום שני	יום ב'
Tuesday	יום שלישי	יום ג'
Wednesday	יום רביעי	יום ד'
Thursday	יום חמישי	יום ה'
Friday	יום שישי	יום ו'
Saturday/Sabbath	שבת	שבת

7.8.2 Dates

Dates of the Jewish calendar are often given with the number values of the Hebrew alphabet.

Wednesday, 7th of the month of *Tevet*, יום ד' ז' בטבת ה'תשס"א 5,761

The ה' for 5,000 is often omitted in common usage: יום ד' ז' בטבת תשס"א

The Gregorian calendar is used extensively, and the marking of the date starts with the month, day and year (day and month are in reverse order from those in English):

11/10/2002 November 10, 2002 עשרה בנובמבר, 2002 10/11/2002

7.8.3 Referring to dates

One refers to decades by using a construct phrase that combines שנות- 'the years of' with the various decades.

The economic crisis took place in המשבר הכלכלי קרה בסוף שנות העשרים the late 20s.

One refers to centuries by using a definite phrase (since it is regarded as a specific, known date) that combines מאה 'century' with an ordinal numeral.

The 21st century started with המאה העשרים ואחת החלה באירועים דרמטיים dramatic events.

7.8.4 Numbers in telling time

The nouns that refer to time units are feminine and therefore the counting of time units is done using feminine numerals.

hour	שעה	minute	דקה	second	שנייה
7 hours	שבע שעות	5 minutes	חמש דקות	2 seconds	שתי שניות

The question is 'what hour is it?' מה השעה?
The answer starts with 'the hour is' השעה ...

The time is six fifteen	השעה היא שש וחמש עשרה דקות.
The time is quarter past six.	השעה שש ורבע.
The time is six thirty.	השעה היא שש ושלושים דקות.
The time is half past six.	השעה שש וחצי.
The time is six forty-five.	השעה היא שש ארבעים וחמש (דקות).
The time is quarter to seven.	השעה רבע לשבע.
The time is seven exactly.	השעה היא שבע בדיוק.

Note

The 'quarter past' and 'half past' have an *a* vowel in the conjunction וְ-: 'a quarter past six' שש וְרָבֵעַ, 'half past six' שש וְחֲצִי .

For indicating five and ten minutes, one may alternatively use the masculine number as well, without דקות.

6:10	השעה היא שש ועשר דקות	השעה היא שש ועשרה
8:55	השעה היא חמישה לתשע	השעה היא חמש דקות לתשע

In numbers greater than ten, the final digit is usually feminine.

8:55	השעה היא שמונה, חמישים וחמש	השעה היא שמונה וחמישים וחמש דקות
------	-----------------------------	----------------------------------

7.8.5 Telling time

The nouns that refer to time units are feminine and therefore the counting of time units is done using feminine numerals.

The phrase 'the hour is' has four forms to refer to the hour.

השעה (x) שנים

The question 'What hour is it?' is not literally 'What hour is the message?' The following phrase 'The hour is' has an initial head noun that agrees with the information in the speech.

Questions:

Danny, how old are you?

Sarah, how old are you?

How old are you?

How old are you in your class?

Answers:

I am twenty-five.

Sarah is thirty.

Our parents are forty.

The girls in my class are thirteen years old.

Fractions can be used to tell time in months:

Jonah is three months old.

Leah is six months old.

7.8.5 Telling age

The nouns that refer to years שָׁנָה (נ.) שָׁנִים are feminine, and therefore the counting of years is done with feminine numerals. The nouns that refer to months are masculine חֹדֶשׁ (ז.) חֳדָשִׁים, and therefore the counting of months is done with masculine numerals.

The phrase of telling one's age is formed by using the noun בֶּן in all four forms to head the age phrase.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
	בְּנוֹת (x) שָׁנִים	בְּנֵי (x) שָׁנִים	בֵּת (x) שָׁנִים	בֶּן (x) שָׁנִים

The questions of age and the responses are fixed expressions. They do not literally translate into the English 'how old are you?' but the message is the same. The question is expressed in Hebrew by the following phrase '[ben/bat/bney/bnot how many (years)] are you?' The initial head noun can be loosely translated as 'a person of'. The head noun agrees in gender and number with the person about whom such information is solicited. The noun שָׁנִים 'years' is often omitted in speech.

Questions:

Danny, how old are you? דָּנִי, בֶּן כַּמָּה אַתָּה?

Sarah, how old are you? שָׂרָה, בֵּת כַּמָּה אַתָּה?

How old are your parents? בְּנֵי כַּמָּה הַהוֹרִים שְׁלָכֶם?

How old are the girls in your class? בְּנוֹת כַּמָּה הַבָּנוֹת בְּכִיתָה שְׁלָכֶם?

Answers:

I am twenty-six. אֲנִי בֶּן עֶשְׂרִים וּשְׁשִׁי.

Sarah is thirty-five. שָׂרָה בֵּת שְׁלוּשִׁים וְחֲמִישִׁי.

Our parents are fifty years old. הַהוֹרִים שְׁלָנוּ בְּנֵי חֲמִישִׁים.

The girls in class are twelve or thirteen years old. הַבָּנוֹת בְּכִיתָה בְּנוֹת שְׁתַּיִם-עֶשְׂרָה אוֹ שְׁלוֹשׁ-עֶשְׂרָה.

Fractions can be expressed by 'half' or 'a quarter' or by numbers of months:

Jonah is three and a half. יוֹנָה בֶּן שְׁלוֹשׁ וְחֲצִי.

Leah is six and ten months. לֵיאָה בֵּת שֵׁשׁ וְעֶשְׂרָה חֳדָשִׁים.

Chapter 8 Adjectives

- 8.1 Introduction: forming adjectives
- 8.2 Comparative and superlative adjectives
- 8.3 Forming adjectives by adding suffix *-i*
- 8.4 Nouns and adjectives of affiliation
- 8.5 Participles that function as adjectives
- 8.6 Special patterns

8.1 Introduction: forming adjectives

The adjective functions both as the modifier of a noun in a noun phrase and also functions as a non-verbal predicate. All Hebrew adjectives have four forms.

The masculine singular is considered the base form of the adjective.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
big, large	גְּדוּלוֹת	גְּדוּלִים	גְּדוּלָה	גְּדוּל <
private	פְּרִטּוּת	פְּרִטּוּיִם	פְּרִטּוּת	פְּרִטּוּי <

While the masculine singular form has no particular ending, the feminine and the plural forms all have regular endings: feminine singular *-a*, *-et* or *-it*; masculine plural *-im*; and feminine plural *-ot*.

Adjectives, whether they are noun modifiers or predicates, always take on the gender and number features of the noun they modify. While nouns don't always have predictable plural endings, which reflect their gender, adjectives always do.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
good friend(s)	חברות טובות	חברים טובים	חברה טובה	חבר טוב
big streets		רחובות גדולים	big street	רחוב גדול
nice women	נשים נחמדות	nice woman	אישה נחמדה	

There are two ways of forming adjectives: linearly, by adding a suffix without affecting the stem (except for predictable phonetic

modification
The linear
noun+i (sec
those identi
and some th
feminine or
certain vow

8.1.1 Som
Certain adje
masculine
changes in
suffixes tha

secret
funny

In some pat
dangerous
perfect

Changes to
patterns. Th
case where
it to facilitat
black, dark
strong

8.2 Comp
adjecti
Adjectives n
that indicate

8.2.1 Comp
The adverb
construction
adjective, al
תר גדול יותר
to form simi

modifications), and discontinuously, by a [root + pattern] combination. The linear derivation pattern is manifest in one formation pattern, noun+*i* (see below). Of the discontinuous adjectival patterns, there are those identical to the participles of the various verb patterns (*binyanim*), and some that are not. Regardless of the nature of derivation, adding a feminine or plural marker may result in a shift of stress in the word, and certain vowel deletions and modifications.

8.1.1 Some of the most common adjectival form groups

Certain adjective patterns keep the stem throughout all four forms. The masculine singular is considered the base form, and there are no changes in the stem itself in the other forms, but they do exhibit the suffixes that mark gender and number.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
secret	סודיות	סודיים	סודית	סודי
funny	מצחיקות	מצחיקים	מצחיקה	מצחיק

In some patterns the feminine singular suffix is *-éCet* rather than *-á*:

dangerous	מסכנות	מספנים	מספנת	מספן
perfect	משלמות	משלמים	משלמת	משלם

Changes to the initial vowel of the base form mark other adjective patterns. The vowel *a* of the first consonant changes to a zero; in the case where the initial consonant is *הי ח' ע' א' ע' ח' ה' א'* a *hataf patah* accompanies it to facilitate pronunciation:

black, dark	שחורות	שחורים	שחוכה	שחור
strong	חזקות	חזקים	חזקה	חזק

8.2 Comparative and superlative adjectives צירופי תארים של השוואה ויתרון

Adjectives may take comparative and superlative degree. The modifiers that indicate the degree are the following:

8.2.1 Comparative

The adverb יותר 'more' is added to the adjectives to form comparative constructions. The default order is for the adverb יותר to precede the adjective, although in speech it often follows it as well: יותר גדול, or גדול יותר for 'bigger'. The adverb פחות 'less' is added to the adjective to form similar constructions. The default order is the same, with the

jectives
fix -i
n
ives

noun in a noun phrase
All Hebrew adjectives

m of the adjective.

<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
גדולה	< גדול
פרכטית	< פרכטי

particular ending, the
lar endings: feminine
ים -im; and feminine

predicates, always take
n they modify. While
gs, which reflect their

<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
חברה טובה	חבר טוב
big street	רחוב גדול
אישה נחמדה	

ly, by adding a suffix
predictable phonetic

adverb פחות preceding the adjective, although in speech it often can follow the adjective.

Unlike the adjective, which in Hebrew has gender and number features, the modifier is an adverb and as such has one fixed form, which does not carry gender or number features.

sweeter/more sweet	יותר מתוק / מתוק יותר	יחיד
	יותר מתוקה / מתוקה יותר	יחידה
	יותר מתוקים / מתוקים יותר	רבים
	יותר מתוקות / מתוקות יותר	רבות
less sweet	פחות מתוק / מתוק פחות	יחיד
	פחות מתוקה / מתוקה פחות	יחידה
	פחות מתוקים / מתוקים פחות	רבים
	פחות מתוקות / מתוקות פחות	רבות

A comparative structure by its nature involves two entities, between which a comparison is being made. The first noun phrase introduces the structure while the second noun phrase completes the proposition. The comparative adjective links the two entities by means of the particle 'than' מ-.

The new show is more entertaining than the previous one. ההצגה החדשה יותר מבדרת מהקודמת.

These hills are less steep than the ones we climbed yesterday. הגבעות האלה פחות תלולות מהגבעות שטיפסנו עליהן אתמול.

8.2.2 Superlative

Superlative constructions have two different forms: the adjective can be preceded by the adverb הכי *the most*, or it can be followed by the adverbial expression ביותר, which also indicates *most*.

comparative	more dangerous than	יותר מסֶכָן (מ)	מֶסָן
superlative	the most dangerous	המֶסָן ביותר	הכי מֶסָן

comparative
superlative

comparative
superlative

For more info

8.3 Formin

The most co
suffix י- *-i*, v
words. It is
suffix to a n
spring' or 's
relationship t
common, sin

Gloss

private
main
general

Note

Notice that t
item' is -ש'
when the vo

Although no
of creating s
from bases th
fool; foolish
person'). In
derived adjec
an event:

Base: adjecti

David is so s
decisions are

comparative	stronger than	יותר חזקה (מ)	חזקה
superlative	the strongest	החזקה ביותר	הכי חזקה
comparative	funnier	יותר מצחיקים	מצחיקים
superlative	the funniest	המצחיקים ביותר	הכי מצחיקים

For more information on comparative and superlative, see pp. 257-260

8.3 Forming adjectives by adding suffix -i

The most common way of forming new adjectives is by adding the suffix -י *-i*, which stands for 'having the characteristic of', to existing words. It is a suffix that is commonly attached to nouns. Adding this suffix to a noun like אביב 'spring' results in אביבי, which means 'of spring' or 'spring-like'. This is a transparent adjective with a clear relationship to the noun from which it is derived. This formation is very common, since it only requires adding a suffix to an existing noun.

Gloss	רבות	רבים	יחידה	יחיד	Noun
private	פרטיות	פרטיים	פרטית	פרטי	פרט <
main	ראשיות	ראשיים	ראשית	ראשי	ראש <
general	כלליות	כלליים	כללית	כללי	כלל <

Note

Notice that the stem of all forms derived from ראש *rósh* 'head; main item' is ראש- *rash-*. The base form ראש- *rash-* changes to ראש *rósh* when the vowel is stressed, but remains ראש- *rash-* when it is not.

Although normally these adjectives are derived from nouns, the process of creating such adjectives is so productive, that they are also formed from bases that consist of other adjectives. For instance, טפש *tipesh* 'a fool; foolish' can function as either an adjective or a noun ('a foolish person'). In this form, however, it usually refers to people, while the derived adjective טפשי *tipshí* 'foolish' is used to characterize an idea or an event:

Base: adjective טיפש 'stupid' > טיפשי 'foolish'

David is so stupid – all of his decisions are always foolish.
 דוד הוא כל כך טיפש – כל ההחלטות שלו תמיד טיפשיות.

It was stupid to get up so early,
almost in the middle of the night.
Only complete fools do such
things.

זה היה טיפשי לקום כל כך מוקדם,
ממש באמצע הלילה. רק טיפשים
גמורים עושים דבר כזה.

When ordinal numbers are combined in phrases they are considered adjectives and can provide the base for derivation of other adjectives. For instance, the ordinal number ראשון 'first' when used in its primary meaning becomes the base for a derived adjective ראשוני 'primary, principal or primeval'.

Base: adjective ראשוני > ראשון

The first problem is that the work
conditions are the primary things that
need to be changed.

הבעיה הראשונה היא שתנאי
העבודה כאן הם הדברים
הראשוניים שזקוקים לשינוי.

There are also a few adverbs that serve as the base for new adjectives, such as ממש 'really' > ממשי 'real', or מיד 'immediately' > מיידי 'immediate'.

Base: adverb מיידי > מיד

There are immediate needs, for
instance, it is necessary to find an
apartment right away in a quiet
neighborhood close to work.

יש צרכים מיידיים: למשל, צריך
למצוא דירה מיידי בשכונה שקטה
וקרובה לעבודה.

8.4 Nouns and adjectives of affiliation

There is a set of derived nouns of nationality or religion that are a source for a similar set of derived adjectives. They indicate the affiliation of an individual with particular national, ethnic, or religious groups. It applies to their belonging or being identified as belonging to such a particular group. From these sets of nouns there derived adjectives. The source can be the name of a country, an ethnic or a tribal group, or a religious community. The derived nouns and the adjectives look alike, but their syntactic function is different.

Country:

Derived noun:

Derived adject

The derived :
noun. The on
> before the p

Noun:

Adjective:

8.4.1 Natio

Nouns:

Adjectives:

Noun: Israe

Many Israeli
holidays.

Adjective: I

There are m
on the plane

8.4.2 Ethn

From Geor

Nouns:

Adjectives:

Noun: Geo

The Georgi
this neighb
beginning d

<u>Country:</u>	Many languages are spoken in <u>China</u> .	בסין מדברים הרבה שפות.
<u>Derived noun:</u>	<u>The Chinese</u> speak several languages.	הסינים מדברים מספר שפות שונות.
<u>Derived adjective:</u>	There are several <u>Chinese</u> languages.	יש כמה שפות סיניות.

The derived adjectives for the most part look the same as the derived noun. The one exception is that the masculine plural form has the extra ם before the plural suffix, as can be seen in this example:

<u>Noun:</u>	the diligent <u>Japanese</u>	היפנים החרוצים
<u>Adjective:</u>	the <u>Japanese</u> paintings	הציורים היפניים

8.4.1 Nationality: denominative noun and adjective

					מישראל
<u>Nouns:</u>	Israeli	ישראליות	ישראלים	ישראלית	ישראלי
<u>Adjectives:</u>	Israeli	ישראליות	ישראליים	ישראלית	ישראלי

Noun: Israelis

Many Israelis go abroad during the holidays. הרבה ישראלים נוסעים לחו"ל בחגים.

Adjective: Israeli

There are many Israeli passengers on the plane. יש הרבה ישראליים במטוס.

8.4.2 Ethnic group: denominative noun and adjective

From Georgia (in Central Asia)

					מגרוזיה
<u>Nouns:</u>	Georgian	גרוזיניות	גרוזינים	גרוזינית	גרוזיני
<u>Adjectives:</u>	Georgian	גרוזיניות	גרוזיניים	גרוזינית	גרוזיני

Noun: Georgians

The Georgians have been living in this neighborhood from the beginning of the 20th century. הגרוזינים גרים בשכונה הזאת מתחילת המאה העשרים.

Adjective: Georgian

There are many Georgian singers who preserve their traditional music.

שם תואר: גרוזיניים

יש הרבה זמרים גרוזיניים שמשמרים את המוסיקה המסורתית שלהם.

8.4.3 Religion: denominative noun and adjective**"מ"יהדות"**

<u>Nouns</u>	Jew	יהודיות	יהודים	יהודקה	יהודי
<u>Adjectives</u>	Jewish	יהודיות	יהודיים	יהודית	יהודי

Notice that in this example, both the feminine form and the masculine plural have slight differences that distinguish nouns from adjectives.

Noun: Jewish woman/Jewess

In her passport it is written that she is Jewish.

שם: יהודיה

בדרכון כתוב שהיא יהודיה.

Adjective: Jewish

She belongs to the Jewish faith.

שם תואר: יהודית

היא שייכת לדת היהודית.

8.4.4 Predictable changes of base: noun > adjective

Some adjectives share the base of the noun with no change in vowels. If the base undergoes some changes in the process, it is because of phonologically predictable changes. When the suffix *-i* is added, the adjective's main stress moves to the suffix, and some predictable changes consequently occur in the base form:

a. Stems that do not undergo change:

1. Vowels other than *a* are not affected by reduction: public (N) > public (Adj.) צבור < צבורי
2. The vowel *a* in a monosyllabic word remains: religion > religious דת < דתי
3. The vowel *a* is retained in an initial closed syllable: culture > cultural תרבות < תרבותי

b. Stems that undergo vowel reduction in *-i* adjective formation:

1. In an open syllable, two syllables away from the main stress, the vowel *a* is deleted: cylinder > cylindrical גליל < גלילי
- security > security בטחון < בטחוני
- related

2. When the vowel with a silent *h* is both deleted:

However, when the vowel with a silent *h* remains and

3. The final vowel is inserted to break the *h* (in *segolate* form)

4. When the syllables are separated by a vowel:

i. When the final vowel is in the cluster of consonants

ii. When that vowel is replaced by a guttural

5. When the vowel is replaced with a guttural consonant

c. Some consonants
Some internal vowels occur (a historical *h* resurface with *i*)

d. Changes in the base
When the adjective is derived from a noun with an *h*-initial, the *h* is replaced by a vowel, preserved, if the *h* is in the initial syllable, and *-i* is

שם תואר: גרוזיניים

יש הרבה זמרים גרוזיניים
את המוסיקה המסורתית

Adjective

"מ"יהדות"

הגדלה? יהודי
הגדלה? יהודי

form and the masculine
uns from adjectives.

שם: יהודיה

בדרכון כתוב שהיא יהודית.

שם תואר: יהודית

היא שייכת לדת היהודית.

> adjective

with no change in vowels.
process, it is because of
suffix *-i* is added, the
and some predictable

public צבור < צבורי

religious דת < דתי

marital תרבות < תרבותי

adjective formation:

cylindrical גליל < גלילי

parity בטחון < בטחוני

2. When the word ends with a vowel with a final ה, they are both deleted: incident > unplanned מקרה < מקרי
contract > contractual חוזה < חוזי
negation > negative שלילה < שלילי

However, when the word ends with a silent א, that א remains and 'carries' the *i*: Bible > biblical מקרא < מקראי

3. The final vowel historically inserted to break up a cluster (in *segolate* nouns) is deleted: criticism > critical בקרה < בקרתי

4. When the cluster of consonants is difficult to pronounce two syllables away from the stressed suffix, a short *e* replaces the zero vowel:

i. When the first consonant in the cluster is one of the consonants ר, ל, מ, נ, ו: location > local מקום < מקומי

ii. When that *a* is followed by a guttural (א, ה, ח, ע): genius (N) > genius גאון < גאוני
(Adj.)

5. When the word begins with a guttural, a *hataf* vowel replaces the expected zero: spring > springlike אביב < אביבי
friend > friendly חבר < חברי

c. Some common internal vowel changes

Some internal vowel changes occur (a historical vowel may resurface with stress shift): bear > bearlike דב < דבי
hawk > hawklike נץ < נצי
home > homey בית < ביתי

d. Changes in the suffix

When the adjective is derived from feminine nouns with an ה- suffix, this suffix is replaced by *-ati*, i.e., *a* is preserved, final ה changes to ת, and *-i* is added. society > social חברה < חברתי
fashion > fashionable אופנה < אופנתית
problem > problematic בעיה < בעייתי
link > vertebrate חלזה < חלזתי

e. The suffix -ni is added to some monosyllabic nouns

Some adjectives add an *o* vowel city > urban עיר < עירוני
to the noun base before the suffix -ni.

When the noun base has the hand > manual יד < ידני
vowel *a*, an extra *a* is added before the suffix -ni.

8.5 Participle forms that function as adjectives

When the form is directly related to a particular verb, adjectives are likely to be realized in the participial forms, as can be seen in the discussion of the verb system.

8.5.1 Active participle forms functioning as adjectives

The active participial forms of *pa'al*, *pi'el*, *hitpa'el*, *hif'il*, can also function as adjectives, normally agentive (the ones who initiate or perform the action). Such adjectives describe an action or a state characteristic of the head noun. The English counterpart of the active participles is the ending *-ing*, as in מצער 'distressing', מרענן 'refreshing'. It can often be paraphrased by 'something that is causing a state or event', as in מצער 'distressing', i.e., 'causing distress', or מרענן 'refreshing', i.e., 'causing one to become refreshed'.

			<u>בנין פעל: צורות בינוני פועל</u>	
just	צודקות	צודקים	צודקת	צודק
			<u>בנין פיעל: צורות בינוני</u>	
representative	מיצגות	מיצגים	מיצגת	מיצג
			<u>בנין התפעל: צורות בינוני</u>	
progressive	מתקדמות	מתקדמים	מתקדמת	מתקדם
			<u>בנין הפעיל: צורות בינוני</u>	
annoying	מרגיזות	מרגיזים	מרגיזה	מרגיז

Below are examples of adjectives from each of the categories above.

The form פועל	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
prominent	בולט	stand out	בָּלַט
silent	דומם	be silent	דָּמַם
supportive	תומך	support	תָּמַךְ

The form

The form means that to correspond usually in verbal form

fascinating refreshing boring

The form convergen progressiv adolescent

The form scary limiting embarrassi

8.5.2 Pas

Adjectives resultative a סגור 'closed that the sub resultative a

closed

separate

dangerous

recommended

ic nouns

עיר < עירוני

ד < דני

jectives

lar verb, adjectives are
as can be seen in the

as adjectives

ipa'el, hif'il, can also
e ones who initiate or
e an action or a state
counterpart of the active
ק 'distressing', מרענן
something that is causing a
'causing distress', or מרענן
ed'.

בניין פעל: צורות בינוני פועל
צודק צודקת
בניין פיעל: צורות בינוני
מנצח מנצחת
בניין התפעל: צורות בינוני
מתקדם מתקדמת
בניין הפעיל: צורות בינוני
מרגיז מרגיזה

he categories above.

Verb
and out בלט
silent דמם
pport תמך

The form מַפְעֵל

The form מַפְעֵל is the most productive of all the active participles, which means that many adjectives are patterned accordingly. Its relationship to corresponding verb forms is quite transparent. The related verb is usually in pi'el. It also accommodates the many quadrilateral root verbal forms as the base for adjectives.

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
fascinating	מרתק	fascinate	רתק
refreshing	מרענן	refresh	רענן
boring	משעמם	bore	שעמם

The form מִתְפַּעֵל

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
convergent	מתכנס	converge	התכנס
progressive	מתקדם	progress	התקדם
adolescent	מתבגר	mature	התבגר

The form מַפְעִיל

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
scary	מבהיל	scare	הבהיל
limiting	מגביל	limit	הגביל
embarrassing	מביד	embarrass	הביד

8.5.2 Passive participle forms functioning as adjectives

Adjectives that are identical to the passive participle tend to be resultative adjectives, that is, a state which is a result of an action, like סגור 'closed', כתוב 'written', etc. They describe the result of a process that the subject had undergone. There are four possible sources for resultative adjectives: pa'al (בינוני פְּעוּל), nif'al, pu'al, and huf'al.

	<u>בניין פעל: צורות בינוני פועל</u>			
closed	סגורות	סגורים	סגורה	סגור
	<u>בניין נפעל: צורות בינוני</u>			
separatc	נפרדות	נפרדים	נפרדת	נפרד
	<u>בניין פועל: צורות בינוני</u>			
dangerous	מסכנות	מסכנים	מסכנת	מסכן
	<u>בניין הופעל: צורות בינוני</u>			
recommended	ממלצות	ממלצים	ממלצת	ממלץ

Below are examples of adjectives from each of the categories above.

The form פָּעוּל	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
broken	שָׁבוּר	break	שָׁבַר
open	פָּתוּחַ	open	פָּתַח
locked	נָעוּל	lock	נָעַל

The form נִפְעָל	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
hidden	נִסְתָּר	be hidden	נִסְתַּר
failed	נִכְשָׁל	fail (intr.)	נִכְשַׁל
select(ed)	נִבְחַר	be chosen	נִבְחַר

The form מְפַעֵל (which, like מְפַעֵל for active participles above, is very productive, owing to the relationship to *pi`el* via *pu`al*)

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
neat, tidy	מְסוּדָר	arrange; be arranged	סָדַר; סוֹדֵר
refurbished	מְשֻׁפָּץ	refurbish; be refurbished	שֻׁפַּץ; שֹׁפֵץ
interested	מְעִיָּג	interest (tr.)	עִיָּג
state-of-the-art	מְשֻׁכָּל	perfect; be perfected	שֻׁכַּל

The form מְפַעֵל

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
exaggerated	מְגֻזָּם	exaggerate; be exaggerated	הִגְזִים; הִגְזֵם
absolute	מְחֻלָּט	decide; be decided	הִחְלִיט; הִחְלֵט
emphatic	מְדֻגָּשׁ	emphasize; be emphasized	הִדְגִישׁ; הִדְגֵּשׁ

8.6 Special patterns

There are other adjectival patterns, which are not as readily related to underlying verb forms as participles are. In some of them the relationship to the verb is more transparent than in others: one can readily identify the root and the verb form from which the adjective may have been derived.

8.6.1 The פְּעִיל pattern

One salient adjectival pattern whose forms can more readily be related to verb bases is פְּעִיל. In the feminine and plural forms of such adjectival forms the initial *kamats* is reduced to *shva* or to a *hataf* vowel:

Process

$a > \emptyset$

a stays after *g*

Many recent
which mean
can be broken
an actual -*ab*
e.g., דָּבִיק 'stick

-able type

countable
accessible
available

Other, non

sensitive
direct
senior

8.6.2 The

There is al
above, whi
middle co
(lengthene
longer dist
phonetical
when the r
it is realiz
כָּבִיר 'huge
stem is ke

Gloss

huge

Most of
transparent

the categories above.

	<u>Verb</u>
break	שָׁבַר
open	פָּתַח
pick	נָעַל

	<u>Verb</u>
hidden	נִסְתָּר
oil (intr.)	נִקְשַׁל
chosen	נִבְחַר

participles above, is very
(*pu'al*)

	<u>Verb</u>
arranged	סָדַר ; סֻדַּר
refurbished	שִׁפְץ ; שֻׁפְץ
	עֲנִין
perfected	שִׁכְּלַל

	<u>Verb</u>
agitated	הִגְזִים ; הִגְזַם
	הִחְלִיט ; הִחְלִט
hasitized	הִדְגִישׁ ; הִדְגַּשׁ

not as readily related to
In some of them the
than in others: one can
from which the adjective

more readily be related
forms of such adjectival
a *hataf* vowel:

<u>Process</u>	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
$a > \emptyset$	שְׁבִירוֹת	שְׁבִירִים	שְׁבִירָה	שְׁבִיר
a stays after guttural	אֲמִינוֹת	אֲמִינִים	אֲמִינָה	אֲמִין

Many recent פְּעִיל forms are equivalent to *-able* adjectives in English, which mean 'that can be ...-en', e.g., שְׁבִיר 'fragile, breakable', i.e., that can be broken. Even if the comparable English gloss does not contain an actual *-able* suffix, it can still be shown to contain it semantically, e.g., דְּבִיק 'sticky' means 'adhesive', 'that can be glued'.

***-able* type פְּעִיל adjectives:**

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
countable	סָפִיר	count	סָפַר
accessible	נָגִישׁ	approach	נָגַשׁ
available	זָמִין	happen to be	הִזְדַּמֵּן

Other, non *-able* type פְּעִיל adjectives:

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Base</u>
sensitive	רָגִישׁ	feel	הִרְגִישׁ
direct	יָשִׁיר	straight	יָשַׁר
senior	בָּכִיר	firstborn	בָּכֹר

8.6.2 The פְּעִיל pattern

There is also a form that sounds identical to the פְּעִיל form described above, which has a *patah* vowel as the first vowel, and in which the middle consonant has a *dagesh hazak* and is therefore geminated (lengthened) historically. However, since geminated consonants are no longer distinguishable from non-geminated ones, the two patterns are phonetically identical, except for two partial distinguishing markers: when the middle consonant is one of the following consonants: פ', ב', כ' it is realized as *p*, *b*, *k*. In the illustration below, the singular form is כְּבִיר 'huge' and that stem serves the entire inflection of this group. The stem is kept in feminine and plural forms and is never reduced:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
huge	כְּבִירוֹת	כְּבִירִים	כְּבִירָה	כְּבִיר

Most of the adjectives that belong to this pattern group do not have transparent bases, verbal or otherwise:

violent	אָלִים	mighty	אָדִיר
stable	נָצִיב	courageous	אָמִיץ
strong, firm	תְּקִיף	ancient, antique	עֵתִיק

There are adjectives that have a bi-consonantal base, such as חָם 'hot'. Some of them often have פְּעִיל counterparts (where לָ=ל), which converts them into diminutive or 'lighter' versions of the base:

very thin	דְּקִיק	thin	דָּק
warm	חֲמִים	hot	חָם
bitterish, acrid	מְרִיר	bitter	מָר

8.6.3 The פְּעִל pattern

The פְּעִל form serves both as a noun pattern group and as an adjective pattern group.

The four forms of this adjective pattern are:

Gloss	רְבוּת	רְבִים	יְחִידָה	יְחִיד
diligent	שִׁקְדָּנוּת	שִׁקְדָּנִים	שִׁקְדָּנוּת	שִׁקְדָּן
lying, liar	שִׁקְרָנוּת	שִׁקְרָנִים	שִׁקְרָנוּת	שִׁקְרָן

When פְּעִל is interpreted as an adjective, it is likely to have a related transparent base, usually a verb.

shy	בִּישָׁן	be shy	הִתְבַּיֵּשׂ
stubborn	עֲקָשָׁן	be stubborn	הִתְעַקֵּשׂ
conservative	שִׁמְרָן	save, conserve	שָׁמַר

Some prefer to disambiguate by using the פְּעִלְנִי form for adjectives, such as in רַגְזָנִי 'irate, bad-tempered' alongside רַגְזָן, to distinguish the adjective from noun, but most speakers do not.

8.6.4 The פְּעַל pattern

The פְּעַל pattern group includes adjectives that also stand for corresponding stative verbs, referring to the comparable state of being denoted by the adjective. The base form פְּעַל has an initial *kamats* vowel. In the feminine and plural forms of such adjectival forms this *kamats* is reduced. It becomes *shva* or a *hataf* vowel:

Gloss	רְבוּת	רְבִים	יְחִידָה	יְחִיד
heavy	כְּבֻדָּת	כְּבֻדִים	כְּבֻדָּה	כְּבֻד
guilty	אֲשָׁמוּת	אֲשָׁמִים	אֲשָׁמָה	אֲשָׁם

A variant of פְּעַל singular form e singular has a k both the vowel

Gloss

hard, difficult
pretty, beautiful

8.6.5 The פְּעִיל pattern

It is possible to the o vowel in reduction of the

Sub-group with

Gloss

close, near
big
holy

In the second second vowel i is stressed, w becomes o (יר) be geminated, respectively. C

o - u sub-group

blue
long
green

Note

In colors like u, since רִי can't black

ghty אדיר
 urageous אמיץ
 cient, antique עתיק

base, such as חם 'hot'.
 (where ל=ע), which
 ns of the base:

א דק
 ב חם
 ג חר

oup and as an adjective

יחידה יחיד
 שקדנית שקדן
 שקדנית שקדן

likely to have a related

חזק התבניש
 stubborn התעקש
 , conserve שמר

פ form for adjectives,
 רגון, to distinguish the

that also stand for
 comparable state of being
 has an initial *kamats*
 h adjectival forms this
 wel:

יחידה יחיד
 קבדה קבד
 אשמה אשם

A variant of פֿעל is the participial form of a ליי verb: the masculine singular form ends in a *segol* vowel and a final ה and the feminine singular has a *kamats* vowel and a final ה, while the plural forms lose both the vowel and that ה:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
hard, difficult	קשות	קשים	קשה	קשה
pretty, beautiful	יפות	יפים	יפה	יפה

8.6.5 The פֿעול pattern

It is possible to distinguish two פֿעול sub-groups: the first one maintains the *o* vowel in all the forms, but the feminine and plural forms undergo reduction of the initial *a*.

Sub-group with *o* throughout:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
close, near	קרובות	קרובים	קרובה	קרוב
big	גדולות	גדולים	גדולה	גדול
holy	קדושות	קדושים	קדושה	קדוש

In the second group, the initial *a* also undergoes reduction, but the second vowel in all suffixed forms is *u* instead of *o* (פֿחלים). When the *u* is stressed, which happens only in the unmarked citation form, it becomes *o* (פֿחול). Historically, the third root letter following *u* had to be geminated, and thus, when it is כ, פ, ב, it is realized as *h, p, k*, respectively. Colors and other physical characteristics prevail, as in:

***o ~ u* sub-group:**

blue	פֿחלות	פֿחלים	פֿחלה	פֿחול
long	אַרכות	אַרפים	אַרפה	אַרוך
green	יִרקות	יִרקים	יִרקה	יִרוק

Note

In colors like שחור 'black', אפור 'gray', etc. there is no alternation with *u*, since ר cannot be geminated.

black שחור שחורה שחורים שחורות

8.6.6 The פֶּעֶלְעַל pattern

Some פֶּעֶלְעַל adjectives, mostly those that denote color, may undergo a reduplication process, in which the last two consonants are reduplicated: פֶּעֶלְעַל. It results in a new adjective that has a diminutive effect, turning 'red' into 'reddish', 'blue' into 'bluish', etc.

	<u>פֶּעֶלְעַל</u>		<u>Base פֶּעֶלְעַל</u>
pinkish	נִרְדָּרְד	pink	נִרְדָּר
bluish	כְּחֻלְחַל	blue	כְּחֻל
darkish	שְׁחֻחֻחַר	black	שְׁחֻחַר

Note that the same reduplication applies if the color is realized in the פֶּעֶלְעַל pattern: לָבָן 'white' > לְבַנְבָּן 'whitish'.

8.6.7 Other common patterns

<u>Pattern</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Adjective</u>			
<i>CiCéC</i>	blind	עִנְרוֹת	עִנְרִים	עִנְרָת	עִנְר
	deaf	חֲרָשׁוֹת	חֲרָשִׁים	חֲרָשֶׁת	חֲרָשׁ
<i>CaCáC</i>	short	קְצָרוֹת	קְצָרִים	קְצָרָה	קְצָר
	new	חֲדָשׁוֹת	חֲדָשִׁים	חֲדָשָׁה	חֲדָשׁ
<i>CaCáC</i>	obligated	חֲיָבוֹת	חֲיָבִים	חֲיָבָת	חֲיָב
	mobile	נִגְדוֹת	נִגְדִים	נִגְדָת	נִגְד
<i>CaCi</i>	fresh	טָרִיזוֹת	טָרִיִּים	טָרִיָּה	טָרִי
	clean	נְקִיּוֹת	נְקִיִּים	נְקִיָּה	נְקִי
<i>CaC</i>	light, easy	קִלּוֹת	קִלִּים	קִלָּה	קִל
	soft	רַכּוֹת	רַכִּים	רַכָּה	רַךְ
<i>CoC</i>	good	טוֹבוֹת	טוֹבִים	טוֹבָה	טוֹב
	cheap	זולוֹת	זולִים	זולָה	זול

Adve

9.1

9.2

9.3

9.4

9.5

9.1 Introduct

An adverb, b
an adjective,
modify noun
or of an adve

1. Modifying
2. Modifying
3. Modifying
4. Modifying

9.2 Advert

They can be

Single word

fast

now

always

Others have t

function as e

clear/clearly

hard

Still others ca

quantifiers:

very

...e color, may undergo a
...two consonants are
...re that has a diminutive
...luish', etc.

Base פעול

pink	נרוד
blue	קחול
black	שחור

...color is realized in the

Adjective

עגור	עגרת	עגור
חכרש	חכרשת	חכרש
קצר	קצרה	קצר
חכדש	חכדשה	חכדש
חכב	חכבת	חכב
גיד	גידת	גיד
טרי	טריה	טרי
נקי	נקיה	נקי
קל	קלה	קל
כד	כפה	כד
טוב	טובה	טוב
זול	זולה	זול

Chapter 9

Adverbs and adverbial expressions

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Adverbs grouped according to form
- 9.3 Adverbs grouped according to function
- 9.4 Adverbs and 'degree' words
- 9.5 Sentential adverbs

9.1 Introduction

An adverb, broadly defined, is a word or a phrase that modifies a verb, an adjective, an adverb, whole clauses or sentences. Adverbs cannot modify nouns. Adverbial expressions can consist of a one-word adverb or of an adverbial phrase.

1. Modifying a verb	He <u>runs fast</u> .	הוא רץ <u>מהר</u> .
2. Modifying an adjective	Dan is <u>very young</u> .	דן <u>צעיר מאוד</u> .
3. Modifying an adverb	He runs <u>very fast</u> .	הוא רץ <u>מהר מאוד</u> .
4. Modifying a sentence	<u>Regrettably</u> , I cannot come.	<u>לצערי</u> , אני לא יכול לבוא.

9.2 Adverbs grouped according to form

They can be a single word adverb, functioning only as adverbs:

Single word adverbs

fast	מהר	first	קדם	perhaps	אולי
now	עכשיו	here	כאן/פה	there	שם
always	תמיד	thus	כך	yesterday	אתמול

Others have the same form as masculine singular adjectives, and can function as either adjectives or adverbs:

clear/clearly	ברור	good/well	טוב	early	מקדם
hard	קשה	nice/nicely	יפה	strongly	חזק

Still others can function as either adverbial degree words or noun quantifiers:

very	מאוד	a bit	מעט	much, many	הרבה
------	------	-------	-----	------------	------

Suffixes associated with some adverbs

Several suffixes are associated with adverbs in Hebrew.

(a) the suffix ה- *-a* for some directional adverbs (note that stress does **not** shift to the suffix, e.g., *pnim ~ pníma*):

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Adverb</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
to town	העִירָה	town	עִיר(ה)
homeward	הבַּיְתָה	home	בַּיִת(ה)
inward	פְּנִימָה	the inside	פְּנִים
southward	דְּרוֹמָה	south	דְּרוֹם
seaward	יָמָה	sea, east, south	יָם, קֶדֶם, נֶגֶב

Examples

I went <u>to town</u> .	נסעתי העירָה.
Go <u>(to) home!</u>	לך הביתָה!
I went <u>inside</u> .	נכנסתי פנימָה.

The directional adverbs associated with the compass are all marked by this *-a* ending: צפונה 'northward', דרומה 'southward', מזרחָה 'eastward' and מערבָה 'westward'.

We went southward towards Eilat. נסענו דרומָה לכיוון אילת.
 You shall spread out to the west and to the east, to the north and to the south and to the south (בראשית כח יד)
 ויפּרֹצֵת יָמָה וְקֶדֶמָה וְצַפְנָה וְנֶגְבָה

A historical note

מערבָה, ימָה, קדמָה and נגבָה are literary biblical counterparts of 'westward' etc., that designate a direction relative to its position with respect to the Land of Israel, or to Jerusalem: the Negev region is in the south, the Mediterranean Sea in the west, and קדמָה refers either to an ancient region east of Canaan (*kedem* = ancient?), or to the direction one faces when praying towards Jerusalem (being before, in front).

(b) the suffix *-it* for some manner adverbs (slightly formal usage):

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Adverb</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
personally	אִישִׁית	personal	אִישִׁי
officially	רְשָׁמִית	official	רְשָׁמִי
temporarily	זְמַנִּית	time	זְמַן

Examples

I spoke to him
 I spoke to him
 I am replacing

(c) the suffix
 be attached to

Gloss

at length
 harshly

An adverb
 preposition p

Composed of

to+eternity
 in/with+care
 in/with+quiet
 in/with+will
 to+last(ly)
 in/with+purpo

An adverbial
 'negative wo
 noun:
 without will
 without logic

It can also co
 to a noun foll
 with great car

Adverbials c
 sentence or a
 first of all
 and finally
 to our regret

Hebrew.

os (note that stress does

Base

(ה)עיר

(ה)בית

פנים

דרום

ים, קדם, נגב

נסעתי העירה.

לך הביתה!

נכנסתי פנימה.

compass are all marked by
ward', מִזְרָחָה 'eastward'

נסענו דרומה לכיוון אילת.

וּפְרָצְתָּ יָמָה וְסוּדְמָה וְצַפְנָה
(בראשית כח יד)

counterparts of מערבה
relative to its position with
the Negev region is in the
and קדמה refers either to an
(?), or to the direction
being before, in front).

ightly formal usage):

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
personal	אישי
official	רשמי
time	זמן

Examples

I spoke to him personally.

דיברתי אִתּוֹ אִישִׁית.

I spoke to him by phone.

דיברתי אִתּוֹ טֵלְפוֹנִית.

I am replacing him temporarily.

אני מחליף אותו זִמְנִית.

(c) the suffix *-ot*, also for some manner adverbs, but this one can only be attached to adjectives, and is used primarily in the higher registers:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Adverb</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Base</u>
at length	אָרְכוּת	long	אָרוךְ
harshly	קָשׁוּת	hard	קָשָׁה

An adverb can be one word consisting of two constituents: a preposition prefixed to a noun (most commonly בְּ- 'in/with'):

<u>Composed of two constituents</u>		<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Adverb</u>
to+eternity	ל+ הנצח	→ forever	לְנֶצַח
in/with+care	ב+ זהירות	→ carefully	בְּזֵהִירוּת
in/with+quiet	ב+ שקט	→ quietly	בְּשִׁקֵט
in/with+will	ב+ רצון	→ willingly	בְּרָצוֹן
to+last(ly)	ל+ אחרונה	→ lately	לְאַחֲרוֹנָה
in/with+purpose	ב+ כוונה	→ intentionally	בְּכוּנָה

An adverbial expression can be composed of other particles, such as 'negative words', which by themselves are adverbials, followed by a noun:

without will	בְּלִי רָצוֹן	unintentionally	לְלא כְּוָנָה
without logic	בְּלִי שׁוֹם הַגִּיּוֹן	without a doubt	לְלא סָפֵק

It can also consist of several constituents, such as a preposition prefixed to a noun followed by an adjective:

with great care	בְּזֵהִירוּת רַבָּה	with ill intention	בְּכוּנָה רָעָה
-----------------	---------------------	--------------------	-----------------

Adverbials can also be phrases or words that introduce an entire sentence or a clause:

first of all	רֵאשִׁית כֹּל	in the beginning	בְּהַתְחֵלָה
and finally	וּלְבַסּוֹף	and in summary	וּלְסוּכּוֹם
to our regret	לְצַעֲרֵנוּ	fortunately	לְמִזְלָנוּ

Notice that in the following examples, there are actually two adverbs - one initiates the entire sentence (and is underlined in the examples), while the second one modifies the verb.

sentence modifier	verb modifier	תאור פועל	תאור משפט
<u>Fortunately</u> he does not <u>speak so fast</u> .		למזלנו הוא לא מדבר כל כך מהר.	
sentence modifier	verb modifier	תאור פועל	תאור משפט
<u>At the beginning</u> he <u>talked very fast</u> .		בהתחלה הוא דיבר מהר מאוד.	

9.2.1 Adverb or adjective?

To clarify the role of the adverb, let's compare the use of the adverb with that of the adjective. We will find the following significant differences:

1. The adjective changes form according to its head noun. The agreement in gender and number with the head noun is one of the most important structural requirements of the adjective. On the other hand, the adverb keeps the same shape and does not change so as to agree with any other element in the sentence or phrase. Look at the following:

He did not talk fast, but she did not talk fast either - neither one of them talked fast.
הוא לא דיבר מהר, אבל גם היא לא דיברה מהר - שניהם לא דיברו מהר.

While the subject changed, from 'he' to 'she' to 'they', and the verb form changed accordingly, the adverb did not change shape.

2. The adjective follows the noun it modifies, while the adverb follows the verb it modifies.

<u>Adjective</u>	This is a <u>clear chapter</u> .	זה פרק ברור.
	These are <u>clear directions</u> .	אלה הוראות ברורות.
<u>Adverb</u>	He speaks <u>clearly</u> .	הוא מדבר ברור.
	She speaks <u>clearly</u> .	היא מדברת ברור.

A comparative note

In English the distinction between adverb and adjective is usually clear since, for the most part, their forms are different, e.g., *clearly* vs. *clear*. In Hebrew, the form of the adjective masculine singular ברור is the same as the form of the adverb ברור, but speakers can tell which is

which by me
absence and p

1. Observe ph
observed (e.g
adjective; if n
adverb.

2. Examine t
adjective; if a

Single word

He walks fast.
She eats fast.
They work ha.
They are lear

Adverbial ph

He hurt us un.
She did every
They work ve.
They are stud

9.3 Adverb

An adverb, n
that modify
direction.

9.3.1 Adverb

Adverbs tha Modifying v

She spoke qu
He walked sl
Did you hear

Related inte

How did you
How does on

actually two adverbs -
lined in the examples),

תאור משפט
למזלנו הוא לא מדבר כל כך
תאור משפט
בהתחלה הוא דיבר מהר

the use of the adverb
following significant

its head noun. The
noun is one of the most
ve. On the other hand,
change so as to agree
Look at the following:

הוא לא דיבר מהר, אבל גם
דיברה מהר - שניהם לא

to 'they', and the verb
change shape.

while the adverb follows

זה פרק ברור.
אלה הוראות ברורות.
הוא מדבר ברור.
היא מדברת ברור.

adjective is usually clear
at, e.g., *clearly* vs. *clear*.
ine singular ברור is the
makers can tell which is

which by means of the two clues suggested above, agreement or its
absence and position with respect to the head:

1. Observe phrases with a feminine head or a plural one. If agreement is
observed (e.g., הוראות ברורות 'clear directions'), the modifier is an
adjective; if not (e.g., הן מדברות ברור 'they (fem.) speak clearly'), it's an
adverb.

2. Examine the preceding head. If it is a noun, the modifier is an
adjective; if a verb, it's an adverb.

Single word adverbs

He walks <u>fast</u> .	הוא צועד מהר.
She eats <u>fast</u> .	היא אוכלת מהר.
They work <u>hard</u> .	הן עובדות קשה.
They are learning <u>a lot</u> .	הם לומדים הרבה.

Adverbial phrases

He hurt us <u>unintentionally</u> .	הוא פגע בנו בלי כוונה.
She did everything <u>without resistance</u> .	היא עשתה הכל ללא התנגדות.
They work <u>very diligently</u> .	הם עובדים בחריצות רבה.
They are studying <u>without a teacher</u> .	הן לומדות בלי מורה.

9.3 Adverbs grouped according to function

An adverb, narrowly defined, is a word belonging to a class of words
that modify verbs for such categories as manner, time, place, or
direction.

9.3.1 Adverbs of manner:

Adverbs that answer the question 'How?/in what manner?'

Modifying verbs

She spoke <u>quietly</u> .	היא דיברה בשקט.
He walked <u>slowly</u> .	הוא הלך לאט.
Did you hear <u>well</u> ?	שמעת היטב?

Related interrogative adverbs

<u>How</u> did you find out what happened?	איך שמעת מה קרה?
<u>How</u> does one prepare a lentil stew?	כיצד מכינים נזיד עדשים?

9.3.2 Adverbs of time:

Adverbs that answer the question: 'When? / At what time?'

First she spoke and only then (afterwards) he spoke. קודם היא דיברה ורק אחר כך הוא דיבר.

It happened only yesterday. זה קרה רק אתמול.

If not now, then when? אם לא עכשיו, אימתי?

Related interrogative adverbs:

When did you get here? מתי הגעתם לכאן?

Till when are you staying? עד מתי אתם נשארים?

9.3.3 Adverbs of place/location:

Adverbs that answer the question: 'Where? At what place?'

We'll meet up in his office. ניפגש למעלה במשרד שלו.

They live upstairs. הם גרים למעלה.

They live across. הם גרים ממול.

Related interrogative adverbs:

Where shall we meet? איפה ניפגש?

9.3.4 Adverbs of direction:

Adverbs that answer the question: 'Where to? To what place?'

We went westward in the direction of the sea. נסענו מערבה לכיוון הים.

We'll go to California we'll be going (to) there in the spring. ניסע לקליפורניה – ניסע לשם באביב.

Because of the tornado threat, they went down to the cellar. בגלל סכנת הטורנדו, הם ירדו למטה למרתף.

Related interrogative adverbs:

Where are you coming from and to where are you headed? מאין אתם באים ולאן אתם הולכים?

9.4 Adverbs and 'degree' words

Adverbs can also be classified according to their function: some are considered 'true' adverbs, i.e. they modify verbs, while others are considered 'degree' adverbs. Degree words have a different distribution, since for the most part they modify adjectives, some adverbs and a few select verbs. They mostly modify the intensity or degree of certain qualities.

adverbs

'degree' words

Adverbs of 'd

An adverb of

He is quite sm

He is talented

He is very tale

He is so talent

He is not taler

He is especial

He is quite tal

The 'degree'

feelings, desir

He very much

He wants very

He hates so mi

He especially

He does not lik

Adverbs of 'd

degree or inten

He speaks a lo

He speaks slow

He speaks [ver

He speaks [so

He speaks [too

At what time?

קוֹדֵם היא דיברה ורק אַחַר
הוא דיבר.

זו קרה רק אַתְמוֹל.
אם לא עכשיו, אימתי?

מתי הגעתם לכאן?
עד מתי אתם נשארים?

At what place?

ניפגש לַמַּעֲלָה במשרד שלו.
הם גרים לַמַּעֲלָה.
הם גרים מִמּוֹל.

איפה ניפגש?

To what place?

נסענו מֵעֶרְבָה לכיוון הים.
ניסע לקליפורניה – ניסע
לשם באביב.
בגלל סכנת הטורנדו, הם
ירדו לַמַּטָּה למרתף.

מאין אתם באים ולאן אתם
הולכים?

their function: some are
verbs, while others are
words have a different
modify adjectives, some
modify the intensity or

adverbs

The adverb modifies the verb *speaks*:

He speaks fast and it is difficult to understand him. הוא מדבר מהר וקשה להבין אותו.

'degree' words

The 'degree' adverb modifies the adverb *fast*:

He speaks so fast that it is difficult to understand him. הוא מדבר כל כך מהר שקשה להבין אותו.

Adverbs of 'degree' and 'intensity' often modify adjectives.

very	מְאֹד
so	כֵּן כֵּן
not at all	בְּכֻלּוֹ לֹא
especially	בְּמִיּוֹחַד

An adverb of degree that precedes an adjective is די 'quite':

He is quite smart. הוא די חכם.

He is talented. הוא מוכשר.

He is very talented. הוא מוכשר מְאֹד.

He is so talented. הוא כל כך מוכשר.

He is not talented at all. הוא בכלל לא מוכשר.

He is especially talented. הוא מוכשר במיוחד.

He is quite talented. הוא די מוכשר.

The 'degree' and 'intensity' adverbs also modify verbs that express feelings, desire, and wish, such as אוהב, שונא, רוצה, מקווה.

He very much likes... הוא אוהב מְאֹד...

He wants very much... הוא רוצה מְאֹד...

He hates so much... הוא שונא כל כך...

He especially likes... הוא אוהב במיוחד...

He does not like at all... הוא בכלל לא אוהב...

Adverbs of 'degree' can also modify other adverbs that describe the degree or intensity of a particular activity.

He speaks a lot but says little. הוא מדבר הרבה ואומר מעט.

He speaks slowly. הוא מדבר לְאֵט.

He speaks [very slowly]. הוא מדבר [לאט + מאוד].

He speaks [so slowly]. הוא מדבר [כל כך + לאט].

He speaks [too slowly]. הוא מדבר [יותר מדי + לאט].

He talks <u>a lot</u> .	הוא מדבר הרבה.
He talks [<u>a great deal</u>].	הוא מדבר [הרבה + מאוד].
He talks [<u>so much</u>].	הוא מדבר [כל כך + הרבה].
He talks [<u>too much</u>].	הוא מדבר [יותר מדי].
He says <u>little</u> .	הוא מדבר מעט.
He says [<u>very little</u>].	הוא מדבר [מעט + מאוד].
He says [<u>too little</u>].	הוא מדבר [מעט מדי].

Note

A source of confusion for many learners of Hebrew is the distinction between הרבה 'a lot/much' and מאד 'a lot/very much'. הרבה is a quantifier referring to the number of times an action has taken place (e.g., taking many trips), or to the general quantity/amount to which it applies (e.g., eating a lot), while the intensifier מאד refers to the intensity of the action (e.g., loving a lot).

הרבה is an adverb of degree. It is also used as a quantifier of nouns:

<u>As adverb:</u>	They read <u>a lot</u> .	הם קראו הרבה.
<u>As quantifier:</u>	They read <u>many books</u> .	הם קראו הרבה ספרים.

מאד is an intensifier. It is used only with verbs that can be intensified.

<u>As adverb:</u>	We <u>very much hope</u> to hike in the mountains.	אנחנו מקווים מאוד לטייל בהרים.
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A quantifying adverb can be used only when the verb is quantifiable. How many times did they hike in the mountains? 'Once', 'twice', 'a lot'.

<u>As quantifier:</u>	They <u>traveled a lot</u> abroad.	הם טיילו הרבה בחו"ל.
	* They saw <u>very</u> .	הם ראו מאוד.*
	They saw <u>a lot</u> .	הם ראו הרבה.

In English the adverb 'a lot' can be used for both הרבה and מאד. In Hebrew they are mutually exclusive, except when one wants to further enhance מאד, and in colloquial use הרבה מאד, meaning 'an awful lot', is used for emphasis.

As noted above, מאד is considered acceptable only with verbs. A lot of money and Some noise. Many people.

9.4.1 Adverb of Degree**Degree word**

She talks too.

She loved to love.

He ate a bit of food.

Degree word

He is a bit quiet.

They are quite happy.

The food is too salty.

Related interjections

How much time do you have?

How many people are there?

9.4.2 Positive Adverbial**Adverbial phrase**

Yes. This is important for development.

Certainly this is a good idea.

Adverbial negation

Not here and not there.

What? Are you not coming?

Adverbial expression

Not today – perhaps tomorrow.

I am worried about the time.

הוא מדבר הרבה.
הוא מדבר [הרבה + מאוד].
הוא מדבר [כל כך + הרבה].
הוא מדבר [יותר מדי].

הוא מדבר מעט.
הוא מדבר [מעט + מאוד].
הוא מדבר [מעט מדי].

Hebrew is the distinction
'very much'. הרבה is a
action has taken place
quantity/amount to which it
modifier מאד refers to the

quantifier of nouns:

הם קראו הרבה.
הם קראו הרבה ספרים.

that can be intensified.

אנחנו מקווים מאוד
לטייל בהרים.

The verb is quantifiable.

How many times? 'Once', 'twice', 'a

הם טיילו הרבה בחייל.

הם ראו מאוד.*
הם ראו הרבה.

both הרבה and מאוד. In
when one wants to further
emphasize, meaning 'an awful lot',

As noted above, when quantifiers modify nouns, they are not
considered adverbs:

A lot of money.

הרבה כסף.

Some noise.

קצת רעש.

Many people.

הרבה אנשים.

9.4.1 Adverbs that answer the question 'to what degree'?

Degree word: modifying verb

She talks too much.

היא ישנה יותר מדי.

She loved to read very much (a lot).

היא אהבה מאוד לקרוא.

He ate a bit and rested a bit.

הוא אכל קצת ונח קצת.

Degree word: modifying adjective

He is a bit quiet.

הוא קצת שקט.

They are quite smart.

הם די נבונים.

The food is too hot.

האוכל חם מדי.

Related interrogative adverb:

How much time did she sleep?

כמה זמן היא ישנה?

How many people were there?

כמה אנשים היו?

9.4.2 Positive and negative expressions

Adverbial positive expressions

Yes. This is indeed a serious
development.

כן. ההתפתחות אכן רצינית.

Certainly this needs mentioning.

ודאי צריך להזכיר זאת.

Adverbial negative expressions

Not here and not now.

לא כאן ולא עכשיו.

What? Are you without a coat?

מה? אתה בלי מעיל?

Adverbial expressions of doubt

Not today – perhaps tomorrow.

לא היום – אולי מחר.

I am worried lest they not come on
time.

אני חושש שמא הם לא יגיעו
בזמן.

9.4.3 Adverb or prepositional phrase?

After questions regarding place or time, the answer (an obligatory complement of the verb) can consist of either an adverb or a prepositional phrase that functions as an adverbial syntactically.

Place:		איפה ניפגש?
<u>Adverb</u>	We'll meet <u>upstairs</u> .	(ניפגש) למעלה.
<u>Complement</u>	We'll meet <u>at his office</u> .	(ניפגש) במשרד שלו.
Time:		מתי ניפגש?
<u>Adverb</u>	The meeting will be <u>tomorrow</u> .	(ניפגש) מחר.
<u>Complement</u>	The meeting will be <u>at four o'clock</u> .	(ניפגש) בשעה ארבע.

9.5 Sentential adverbs

The term 'adverb' suggests that adverbs modify verbs only, but as noted above, the domain of some adverbs goes beyond the verb; it can apply to the whole sentence. The adverb 'מהר מאוד' (very) 'fast' in 'הוא נהג מהר מאוד' 'He drives very fast' is clearly a modifier of 'drive'. But the domain of 'לדעתי' 'in my opinion' in 'לדעתי, הוא נהג מהר מדי' 'In my opinion, he drives too fast' is not the verb, nor even the whole predicate, but rather the whole sentence. If we rewrite the sentence as 'My opinion is that he drives too fast', or 'It is my opinion that he drives too fast', we'll see that 'לדעתי' 'in my opinion' relates to the entire sentence.

Most sentence adverbials express a point of view (that of the speaker, the writer, the subject of the sentence or another person referred to in the adverbial) regarding the sentence content, and since what they express does not form an integral part of the sentence they modify, they are often – though not necessarily – separated from it by comma intonation. The point of view can be a comment on the statement in the sentence, or it can place it in context. An adverbial such as 'בבקשה' 'please' in 'תני לי שלושה כרטיסים ביציע, בבקשה' 'Give me three tickets in the balcony, please' characterizes the statement as a polite request. A sentence adverbial can also serve to refer to a previous statement, e.g. 'כאמור' 'as already noted'.

Sentence adverbials
What is coming
would expand
main clause
some illustra

9.5.1 Qualifiers

The following
statements a
simplicity, b
In my opinio
To the best o
(To tell you)
To tell you th
Between us,
Personally

The adverbial
clause with -
As far as I ur
As far as I kr

Expressions
they are not
1. The point
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in:
Rachel, in yo
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3. The point
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answer (an obligatory
either an adverb or a
al syntactically.

איפה ניפגש?
(ניפגש) למעלה.
(ניפגש) במשרד שלנו.

מתי ניפגש?
(ניפגש) מחר.

(ניפגש) בשעה ארבע.

modify verbs only, but as
s beyond the verb; it can
הוא 'very) fast' in מהר
'drive'. הוא נהג מ
'In לדעתי, הוא נהג מהר מ
verb, nor even the whole
e rewrite the sentence as
that he drives too fast', or
'I'll see that לדעתי 'in my

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ent, and since what they
sentence they modify, they
rated from it by comma
ent on the statement in the
adverbial such as בקשה
'Give me three tickets in
ent as a polite request. A
a previous statement, e.g.

Sentence adverbials may consist of a single word, a phrase, or a clause. What is common to all is that they can be paraphrased in a manner that would expand them into full clauses, which on the surface look like the main clause to which the original sentence is subordinate. Below are some illustrations drawn from a corpus, with accompanying comments.

9.5.1 Qualifying statements of opinion

The following expressions, and others, may be used to qualify statements as constituting opinions (we will use the first person, for simplicity, but other pronouns and full nouns may be used as well):

In my opinion/according to my opinion	לדעתי/לפי דעתי
To the best of my understanding	לפי מיטב הבנתי
(To tell you) frankly	לומר לך בקנות
To tell you the truth	לומר לך את האמת
Between us, confidentially	בינינו
Personally	אישית

The adverbial may be expanded all the way to containing a subordinate clause with -*ש*, as in

As far as I understand'	עד כמה שאני מבין
As far as I know	עד כמה שאני יודע

Expressions such as לדעתי can also be located within the sentence, and they are not usually separated by commas.

1. The point of view can be that of the speaker, as in:

He is not guilty, <u>in my opinion</u> , until	הוא אינו אשם לדעתי עד שבית
the court decides his guilt.	המשפט לא יקבע את אשמתו.

2. The point of view being referred to can be that of the addressee, as in:

Rachel, <u>in your opinion</u> , is this best-	רחל, האם לדעתך רב-המכר הזה
seller truly a good book?	הוא באמת ספר טוב?

3. The point of view can also be of an entity to which the pronoun in the sentence refers to:

The Justice Department made it	משרד המשפטים הבהיר כי לדעתו
clear that <u>in its opinion</u> cable should	אין לתת לכבלים רשיון לאינטרנט
not be given a license for fast	מהיר ולשידורי טלוויזיה.
internet and television broadcasts.	

9.5.2 Evaluating a statement by expressions of regret and surprise

There are adverbial expressions of emotions such as regret or surprise that modify the entire sentence, such as:

unfortunately, regrettably	לצערי (הרב)/לדאבוני/למרבה הצער
surprisingly	להפתעתי
astonishingly	לתדהמתי
disappointingly	לאכזבתי
luckily	למזלי/למרבה המזל
what is surprising (about it) is that	המפתיע בדבר הוא ש-/מה שמפתיע הוא ש-

Here are some illustrations of the uses of these expressions:

To our great regret, we are not doing such good business. לצערנו הרב, העסקים לא כל כך טובים.

To my astonishment I heard my name called. לתדהמתי שמעתי שקוראים בשמי.

Luckily for the driver, the car did not complete the fall. למזלו של הנהג, המכונית לא השלימה את הנפילה.

9.5.3 Is the statement true/untrue?

Adverbial expressions can be used to ascertain the truth-value of a situation or statement. They include some of the following:

of course, certainly, naturally	בטח
undoubtedly	בנדאי/במובן
it is obvious that	ללא ספק
as is well-known	ברור
luckily	בידוע
as expected	כצפוי
the truth of the matter is	לאמתו של דבר
theoretically (speaking)	להלכה/תיאורטית/מבחינה תיאורטית
formally	רשמית/באופן רשמי
perhaps, it could be	אולי
seemingly	כנראה

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9.5.4 Intr

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ns of regret and

ch as regret or surprise

לְצַעֲרֵי (הַרְבֵּ)/לְדַאבוּנֵי/לְמַחַ
לְהַפְתָּעֵתִי
לְתַדְהַמְתִּי
לְאֶכְזָבְתִּי
לְמַזְלִי/לְמַרְבֵּה הַמְזָל
הַמְפַתֵּיעַ בְּדַבָּר הוּא שְׁ-מָה
הוּא שְׁ-

expressions:

לְצַעֲרֵנו הַרְבֵּ, הַעֲסָקִים לֹא כִ
טוֹבִים.

לְתַדְהַמְתִּי שְׁמַעְתִּי שְׁקוֹרְאִים
בְּשֵׁמִי.

לְמַזְלוֹ שֶׁל הַנְּהַג, הַמְכוּנִית לֹא
שְׁלִימָה אֶת הַנְּפִילָה.

ain the truth-value of a
e following:

בְּטוֹחַ
בְּנִדְאִי/כְּמוֹבֵן
לְלֹא סָפֵק
בְּרוּר
כְּיָדוּעַ
כְּצִפּוּי
לְאִמְתּוֹ שֶׁל דָּבָר
לְהִלְכָה/תִּיאוֹרֶטִית/מְבַחֵינָה
רְשָׁמִית/בְּאִפְסוֹ רְשָׁמִי
אוּלַּי
כְּנִרְאָה

Here are some illustrations of the uses of these expressions:

Surely this is not a beginner's program. זוֹ בִטּוֹחַ לֹא תוֹכְנִית לְמֹתַחִילִים.

Without a doubt, it's our children who will have to pay. לְלֹא סָפֵק, הַיְלָדִים שֶׁלֵנוּ הֵם שִׁיִצְטָרְכוּ לְשֵׁלֵם.

Outside of Israel's territorial water, Israeli policemen of course have no enforcement power. מִחוּץ לְמֵיִם הַטְרִיטוֹרִיאִלִים שֶׁל יִשְׂרָאֵל אֵין כְּמוֹבֵן לְשׁוֹטְרִים יִשְׂרָאֵלִים סְמֻכוֹת אֲכִיפָה.

The truth of the matter is that conditions now are quite different from what they were in the past. לְאִמְתּוֹ שֶׁל דָּבָר, הַתְנָאִים עַכְשָׁיו שׁוֹנִים מִמָּה שֶׁהָיוּ בְעֵבֶר.

With or without a comma?

While there is a tendency to separate the sentential adverbs from the rest of the sentence by commas, in some cases there are no such commas. Although commas do not separate בטח and כּמוֹבֵן in the first and third examples above, they still modify the whole sentence.

9.5.4 Introducing main propositions as subordinate clauses

Expansion to variants containing clauses with -שׁ is quite common:

of course, certainly, naturally בְּטוֹחַ שְׁ-
undoubtedly בְּנִדְאִי שְׁ-/כְּמוֹבֵן שְׁ-
as is obvious that... בְּרוּר שְׁ-
it is a fact that... עֲבָדָה שְׁ-
it is possible that... יִתְכּוֹן שְׁ-
it is true that... נִכּוֹן שְׁ-

Many of the expressions above can be made negative by initiating them with the negative particle לא or אין:

it is not certain that ... לֹא בְטוֹחַ שְׁ-
there is no doubt that ... אֵין סָפֵק שְׁ-
it is not clear that/if לֹא בְרוּר שְׁ-/אֵם
it is not possible that... לֹא יִתְכּוֹן שְׁ-
it is not true that... לֹא נִכּוֹן שְׁ-

Here are some colloquial expressions:

really (lit. 'by my life') בְּחַיֵּי בְּחַיֵּי שְׁ-
it couldn't possibly be ... בְּחַיִּים ... לֹא ...

While structurally the adverbial expressions act as main clauses, they do not state the main propositions. The adverbial expressions function as modifiers of the main propositions, included in the subordinate clauses.

Some illustrations of the uses of these expressions:

There is no doubt that there is a lot to complain about. אין ספק שיש על מה להתלונן.

Naturally there is reason to be pleased. בוודאי שיש סיבה להיות מרוצים.

It is a fact that many people came, in spite of the cold. עובדה שהגיעו הרבה אנשים למרות הקור.

I swear/by my life I never thought of insulting you! בחיי שלא חשבתי להעליב אתכם!

9.5.5 Placing the statement in a different or special context

The writer or speaker may wish to place the statement in the sentence in a different or special context, introducing it as a general observation, a request, or a deviation from the main topic.

Here are some of the expressions used for such purposes:

generally speaking	באופן כללי/בדברך כללי
incidentally, by the way	אגב/בדברך אגב
if you please	בבקשה
with your permission	ברשותך/ברשותכם

Here are some illustrations:

Generally speaking, the company's activities will be affected by the rising costs. באופן כללי, פעילות החברה תושפע מהתייקרות המחירים.

The CEO stated, incidentally, that this year also he did not expect changes. המנכ"ל הודיע, דרך אגב, שגם השנה הוא לא מצפה לשינויים.

By the way, I want to add another small comment. אגב, אני רוצה להוסיף עוד הערה קטנה.

With your permission, I'd like to go back to last year's report. ברשותכם, אני רוצה לחזור לדו"ח של השנה שעברה.

9.5.6 Refer

Sentence ad
context alrea

Here are som
as already n
as noted abo

Here are sor
As noted, th

The CEO ar
that he did r

Sentence a
conjunction
assume a laa
sentence.

moreover
in addition
in regards t
for instance
that is, nam
in other wo
in conclusio
so
in this respo
briefly, in s
if so
in any case
in contrast
indeed ... h
on the one

as main clauses, they
l expressions function
ed in the subordinate

S:
אין ספק שיש על מה להת

בוודאי שיש סיבה להיות
עובדה שהגיעו הרבה אנשי
הקור.
בחיי שלא חשבתי להעליב

or special context
statement in the sentence
s a general observation,

purposes:
באין קללי/בדרך קלל
אגב/דרך אגב
בבקשה
ברשותך/ברשותכם

Here are some illustrations:

באופן כללי, פעילות החברה
תושפע מהתייקרות המחירים

המנכ"ל הודיע, זרד אגב, ש
השנה הוא לא מצפה לשינויים

אגב, אני רוצה להוסיף עוד
קטנה.

ברשותכם, אני רוצה לחזור
של השנה שעברה.

9.5.6 Referencing or connecting sentence adverbials

Sentence adverbials may refer to a previous sentence or to some other context already noted, or known to the parties to the communication.

Here are some of the expressions used for such purposes:

as already noted כאמור
as noted above כפי שצוין למעלה

Here are some illustrations:

As noted, the prices may change. כאמור, המחירים עלולים להשתנות.

The CEO announced, as noted above, המנכ"ל הודיע, כפי שצוין למעלה,
that he did not expect changes. שהוא לא מצפה לשינויים.

Sentence adverbials may also connect between sentences, not as conjunctions, but as adverbial expressions. The connections always assume a larger context, an intra-sentential one, which goes beyond the sentence.

moreover	יתר על כן
in addition	בנוסף לזה/לקד
in regards to, concerning	באשר ל-/לגבי
for instance	למשל/לדגמה
that is, namely	דהינן
in other words	במלים אחרות
in conclusion, to sum up	לסכום
so	אז
in this respect	מבחינה זו
briefly, in short	בקצור
if so	אם כן/אם כן
in any case	בכל זאת
in contrast	לעמת זאת
indeed ... however ...	אמנם ... אבל ...
on the one hand ... and on the other ...	מצד אחד ... ומצד שני ...

Here are some illustrations:

We should not raise our prices;
moreover, we must keep the quality of
the product.

אסור לנו להעלות את המחירים;
יתר על כן, אנחנו חייבים לשמור
על איכות התוצר.

In regards to further research, it all
depends on federal grants.

באשר למחקרים נוספים, הכל
תלוי במענקים מהממשלה
הפדרלית.

Dina began shopping for the trip,
however Danny worked till the last
minute.

דינה התחילה לעשות קניות לטיול,
לעומת זאת, דני עבד עד הרגע
האחרון.

It cannot be that the government, on the
one hand, opens the market to
competition, and on the other hand,
competes with a private company.

לא ייתכן שהממשלה, מצד
אחד, פותחת את השוק
לתחרות, ומצד שני, מתחרה
בגורם פרטי.

10.1 Intr

Particles in
preposition
do not. The
they typical

10.2 The defir

In Hebrew
objects. It
particle pr
reasons:

- a. Th
- b. It

The defini
strictly for
preposition
transitive v
object.

Examples c

I am readin
The police
The childre
their teache

אסור לנו להעלות את המורה
יתר על כן, אנחנו חייבים ל
על איכות התוצר.

באשר למחקרים נוספים,
תלוי במענקים מהממשלה
הפדרלית.

דינה התחילה לעשות קניות
לעומת זאת, דני עבד עד ה
האחרון.

לא ייתכן שהממשלה, מצד
אחד, פותחת את השוק
לתחרות, ומצד שני, מתחר
בגורם פרטי.

Chapter 10 Particles

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 The particle 'et' before definite direct objects
- 10.3 Prepositions: prefixes, independent prepositions
- 10.4 Prepositions or adverbs?
- 10.5 Coordinating and correlative conjunctions
- 10.6 Subordinators
- 10.7 Exclamation particles and expressions

10.1 Introduction

Particles include prepositions, conjunctions, and exclamations. While prepositions can have pronoun suffixes, conjunctions and exclamations do not. They do not change in form regardless of where they occur, and they typically have a grammatical function in the sentence.

10.2 The particle את before definite direct objects

המילית "את" לפני צירופים שמניים מיוחדים

In Hebrew the prepositional-like particle את marks definite direct objects. It precedes them and links them to transitive verbs. This particle presents problems for non-native speakers for the following reasons:

- a. There is no equivalent particle in English.
- b. It is not used when the direct object is indefinite.

The definition used here for direct objects and for transitive verbs is strictly formal: a direct object is one that is not linked to its verb by a preposition (but when it is definite it is preceded by the particle את). A transitive verb is likewise defined as a verb that is followed by a direct object.

Examples of indefinite direct objects:

I am reading an interesting book.

The police caught two robbers.

The children bought a gift for
their teacher.

אני קוראת ספר מעניין.

המשטרה תפסה שני גנבים.

הילדים קנו מתנה למורה שלהם.

Notice that both the Hebrew and the English verbs are followed by direct objects. No prepositions can be inserted to link the verbs to their direct objects. The direct objects in the above examples are all indefinite. In English, the singular noun is preceded by 'an', while the plural noun has no article. In Hebrew there is no article for the singular or plural indefinite nouns:

an interesting book	ספר מעניין
two robbers	שני גנבים
a gift	מתנה

The differences between Hebrew and English are present when the direct objects are definite. In Hebrew the direct object particle את follows transitive verbs that are complemented by definite direct objects.

Examples of definite direct objects:

I am reading <u>the interesting book</u> .	אני קוראת <u>את הספר המעניין</u> .
The police caught <u>the robbers</u> .	המשטרה תפסה <u>את הגנבים</u> .
The children bought <u>the gift</u> at the new mall.	הילדים קנו <u>את המתנה</u> בקניון החדש.

The user has to be aware of what constitutes a direct object and also has to remember that the particle את must be inserted before such an object. As this particle does not exist in English, it presents a problem, especially in conversational situations when there is no time to analyze the nature of the verb and its object.

A comparative note

Hebrew and English do not necessarily share all verbs that are considered transitive where the object is direct. Consider the following examples where in English the verb is transitive, while in Hebrew, a preposition must be used to link the verb to its object and thus it is not considered a direct object.

English: - preposition

The principal entered the classroom unannounced.

David told everybody to leave.

Everyone left the room.

Hebrew: + preposition

המנהל נכנס לכיתה בלי להודיע מראש.

דוד אמר לכולם לצאת.

כולם יצאו מהחדר.

English: +

The police witnesses to

A definite article, but definite: na countries, ci

An object is by being on

Definite article

Proper name

Place name

Nouns with possessive s
Possessive phrase

(For a descrip p. 289.)

When the di particle is me

Singular

אותה

her

Plural

אותן

them

* In daily spo person suffixe

verbs are followed by
to link the verbs to their
above examples are all
preceded by 'an', while the
no article for the singular

ספר מעניין
שני גנבים
מתנה

h are present when the
direct object particle את
anted by definite direct

אני קוראת את הספר המעניין
המשטרה תפסה את הגנבים
הילדים קנו את המתנה בקני
החדש.

direct object and also has
ed before such an object.
it presents a problem,
ere is no time to analyze

share all verbs that are
t. Consider the following
ative, while in Hebrew, a
s object and thus it is not

Hebrew: + preposition

המנהל נכנס לכיתה בלי להח
מראש.
דוד אמר לכולם לצאת.
כולם יצאו מהחדר.

English: + preposition

The police are searching for
witnesses to the accident.

Hebrew: - preposition

המשטרה מחפשת עדים לתאונה.

A definite object is not just a noun or a noun phrase with a definite article, but also includes other nouns that are considered inherently definite: names of persons; names of geographical entities, such as countries, cities, regions; nouns with possessive suffixes and more.

An object is made definite by having one of the following features or by being one of the following entities:

<u>Definite article</u>	We'll see <u>the movie</u> tomorrow night.	נראה את הסרט מחר בערב.
<u>Proper name</u>	Do you know <u>Jonah</u> <u>Wallach</u> ?	אתם מכירים את יונה וולך?
<u>Place name</u>	The scientists discovered <u>Sedna</u> , the 10 th planet.	המדענים גילו את <u>סדנה</u> , כוכב הלכת ה-10.
<u>Nouns with possessive suffix</u>	They will put <u>their</u> <u>things</u> in storage.	הם ישימו את חפציהם במחסן.
<u>Possessive phrase</u>	We'll ask <u>our guide</u> if he has new information.	נשאל את המדריך שלנו אם יש לו מידע חדש.

(For a description of 'internal direct objects', see note in chapter 12,
p. 289.)

When the direct object is a personal pronoun rather than a noun, the
particle is merged with the pronoun suffixes. It is a definite concept.

Singular

אותה	אותו	אותך	אותך	אותי
her	him	you	you	me
<u>Plural</u>				
אותן	אותם	אתכן	אתכם	אותנו
		אותכן*	אותכם*	
them	them	you	you	us

* In daily speech the -אות- variant is also used in the plural second
person suffixes.

Note

Since many learners have problems identifying a direct object and also identifying a definite direct object, it is useful to note that there are contexts where the direct object status is visible in English as well: some of the pronouns have forms that are used when they are objects, such as in *him, her, us, them*.

We saw them and they saw us. אנחנו ראינו אותם והם ראו אותנו.
 She got her dressed. היא הלבישה אותה.
 Did you see him in the play? ראיתם אותו בהצגה?

10.3 Prepositions**מילות יחס**

Prepositions indicate relationships between nouns and other components of the phrase or the sentence. Prepositions combine with other items, which function as the objects of the prepositions and form prepositional phrases. These phrases consist of a preposition and a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun that serves to complete the phrase. Prepositions can never dangle in a sentence or a phrase – they have to be completed by nouns, noun phrases, or pronouns. Pronouns that follow prepositions are **always** attached to the prepositions, and do not appear as two separate items.

Note

A common mistake that English speakers make is to:

1. Literally translate a preposition and pronoun as two separate items:

He studies with us. הוא למד איתנו.
 הוא למד עם + אנחנו.

2. Omit a noun or pronoun complement after a preposition.

Prepositions do not stand alone.

The family you asked about left המשפחה ששאלת עליה עזבה את
 the city. העיר.

המשפחה ששאלת על עזבה את העיר.

10.3.1 Prepositions: Form

Prepositions can be followed by either a noun (עם דן 'with Dan') or be combined with a pronominal suffix (אתו 'with him'). Prepositions that consist of only one letter are always prefixed to nouns or pronouns and are never written as independent words.

Preposition
 prefix pre
 grammatic

10.3.2 Or

The prepo
 that is real

in America
 to life!
 for everyo
 as a spoke
 from Tel A

*The form
 (since a
 consonant
 vowel rep
 prepositio
 final ך of t

Prefixed

When the
 a consonar
 shva na`
 shva):

in handwri
 for a reaso
 as one gro

The same
 shva, exce
 weak shva
 in Jericho

When one
 hataf vowe

Prepositions are also formed by more complex entities, which combine prefix prepositions with certain nouns or other prepositions into single grammatical items, such as ב+תוך 'inside' or ב+שביל 'for the sake of'.

10.3.2 One-syllable prepositions directly prefixed to nouns

The prepositions ב-, ל-, כ- which have the form of prefixes, have a *shva* that is realized as *e*. The preposition מ- has an *i* vowel.

		<u>Prepositions</u>			
in America	<i>beamerika</i>	בְּאִמְרִיקָה	in, at	<i>be-</i>	בְּ-
to life!	<i>leháyim</i>	לְחַיִּים	to	<i>le-</i>	לְ-
for everyone	<i>lekhulam</i>	לְכוּלָם	for		
as a spokesman	<i>kedover</i>	כְּדוֹבֵר	as	<i>ke-</i>	כְּ-
from Tel Aviv	<i>mitelaviv</i>	מִתֵּל-אֲבִיב	from	<i>mi-*</i>	*מְ-

*The form מְ- is an abbreviated version of the preposition word מִן (since a ם at the end of a syllable is often assimilated to the next consonant), and has achieved the status of a prefix. In texts with full vowel representation, the first consonant of the noun that follows this preposition receives a *dagesh hazak*, to compensate for the loss of the final ם of the full form of the preposition.

Prefixed to nouns that begin with a consonant cluster

When the following prepositions are prefixed to a noun that starts with a consonant cluster, the prefix *shva* vowel in ב-, כ-, ל- is replaced by *i* (a *shva na`* cannot be followed by a consonant cluster, or by another *shva*):

in handwriting	<i>bikhtav yad</i>	בִּכְתָב יָד
for a reasonable price	<i>limħir savir</i>	לְמַחִיר סָבִיר
as one group	<i>kikvutsa ahat</i>	כְּקְבוּצָה אַחַת

The same happens when ב-, כ-, ל- precede a first consonant *y* with a *shva*, except that in addition, the ם *y* is weakened to *i*, and the following weak *shva* is elided:

in Jericho	<i>be + yeriho > biriho</i>	בְּ+ יְרִיחוֹ < בִּירְיָחוֹ
------------	--------------------------------	-----------------------------

When one of ב-, כ-, ל- precedes a first consonant that is guttural with a *hataf* vowel, it takes on the color of that vowel.

a direct object and also
to note that there are
able in English as well:
when they are objects,

אנחנו ראינו אותם והם ראו
היא חלבישה אותה.
ראיתם אותו בהצגה?

מילות יחס

nouns and other
positions combine with
e prepositions and form
of a preposition and a
to complete the phrase.
a phrase – they have to
nouns. Pronouns that
prepositions, and do not

is to:
as two separate items:
הוא למד איתנו.
הוא למד עם + אנחנו.
preposition.

המשפחה ששאלת עליה עזרה
העיר.

המשפחה ששאלת על עזרה

ן) or be
'him'). Prepositions that
nouns or pronouns and

in a dream	$b + \textit{halom} > \textit{baḥalom}$	בָּ + חָלוֹם < בַּחלוֹם
like a nut	$k + \textit{'egoz} > \textit{ke'egoz}$	כָּ + אֶגוֹז < כַּאֶגוֹז
by boat	$b + \textit{'oniya} > \textit{bo'oniya}$	בָּ + אֲנִיָּה < בַּאֲנִיָּה

Note

These rules are often ignored in daily speech, unless the form is part of a fixed idiom. The shva *e* is maintained as the main vowel of the prepositions:

<u>Normative</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>	<u>Normative</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>
לִירְיָחוֹ	לִירְיָחוֹ	בְּכֶתֶב יָד	בְּכֶתֶב יָד
בְּאֲנִיָּה	בְּאֲנִיָּה	בַּחלוֹם	בַּחלוֹם

When *-m* precedes one of the guttural letters ר', ע', ח', ה', א', the vowel of the preposition changes from *i* to *e*, which is also the case before the definite article *-ה*.

from a land	$mi + \textit{'erets} > \textit{me'erets}$	מִ + אֶרֶץ < מֵאֶרֶץ
from a circle	$mi + \textit{'igul} > \textit{me'igul}$	מִ + עִגוּל < מֵעִגוּל
from a man	$mi + \textit{'adam} > \textit{me'adam}$	מִ + אָדָם < מֵאָדָם
from the house	$mi + \textit{habayit} > \textit{mehabayit}$	מִ + הַבַּיִת < מֵהַבַּיִת
from the garden	$mi + \textit{hagina} > \textit{mehagina}$	מִ + הַגֶּנֶז < מֵהַגֶּנֶז

Note

This rule seems to be observed for the most part in daily speech. However, one can also hear the vowel *i* maintained even before gutturals and definite articles.

<u>Normative</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>	<u>Normative</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>
מֵהַבַּיִת	מֵהַבַּיִת	מֵאֶרֶץ	מֵאֶרֶץ

10.3.3 Prefixed to nouns with definite articles

When the prepositions *-ל*, *-כ*, *-ב* combine with the definite article, the *ה* is omitted, but the *a* vowel that is part of the definite article remains: $be+ha, le+ha, ke+ha \rightarrow ba, la, ka$, respectively.

Following the preposition *-מ*, which as note above is an abbreviation of the independent word preposition *מִן*, the definite article remains in its entirety: $mi+ha \rightarrow meha$.

Examples

at home
to the movies
for the family
as (the) usual
from the sea

10.3.4 One-

Many preposi-
can be added

Here is a list
from
against
around
until, up to
on, about
next to
with
of, belonging
below, under

Examples

They were le-
Dan is confu-
The movie is
Amos Oz.
The book is b-

10.3.5 Cor-

Many preposi-
above), whi-
They becom-
added to the

ב + חלום < בחלום
 ק + אגוז < קאגוז
 ב + אגיה < באגיה

Unless the form is part of the main vowel of the

<u>Formative</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>
בכתב יד	בכתב יד
בחלום	בחלום

א, ה, ח, ע, the vowel also the case before the

מ + ארץ < מארץ
 מ + עגול < מעגול
 מ + אדם < מאדם
 מ + הבית < מהבית
 מ + הגנה < מהגנה

part in daily speech. maintained even before

<u>Formative</u>	<u>Colloquial</u>
מארץ	מארץ

Articles
 The definite article, the ה' finite article remains:
 y.
 ve is an abbreviation of
 te article remains in its

Examples

at home	<i>babáyit</i>	בבית	in/at the	-ב/ב
to the movies	<i>lakolnoa`</i>	לקולנוע	to the	-ל/ל
for the family	<i>lamishpaña</i>	למשפחה	for the	
as (the) usual	<i>karagil</i>	כרגיל	as the	כ/כ
from the sea	<i>mehayam</i>	מהים	from the	-מה-

10.3.4 One-word prepositions

Many prepositions consist of independent words, and pronoun suffixes can be added to them.

Here is a list of some of these prepositions:

from	מן	about	אודות
against	נגד	after	אחרי(ן)
around	סביב-	to, toward	אל
until, up to	עד	at	אצל
on, about	על	direct object marker	את/את-
next to	על-יד	between, among	בין
with	עם	without	בלי
of, belonging to	של	before	לפני
below, under	תחת	through	דרך
		by	מאת

Examples

They were left <u>without</u> bread or water.	הם נשארו <u>בלי</u> לחם ומים.
Dan is confused <u>between</u> right and left.	דן מתבלבל <u>בין</u> ימין ושמאל.
The movie is based <u>on</u> the book <u>by</u> Amos Oz.	הסרט מבוסס <u>על</u> ספרו <u>של</u> עמוס עוז.
The book is <u>by</u> Amos Oz.	הספר הוא <u>מאת</u> עמוס עוז.

10.3.5 Complex prepositions

Many prepositions consist of a combination of a prefix preposition (see above), which is combined with either nouns or other prepositions. They become one word and form a new entity. Pronoun suffixes can be added to them.

Here is a list of some of these prepositions:

in contrast with	לְעוֹמֶת	while, as long as	בְּעוֹד
as (+ noun)	בְּתוֹךְ	inside	בְּתוֹךְ
below	מִתַּחַת	for	בְּשִׁבִיל
above	מֵעַל	for	בְּעִבּוֹר/עִבּוֹר
opposite	מִנְגַּד	because of	בְּגַלַּל
behind	מֵאַחֲרָי	in front of	מִלְפָּנָי
facing	מִמּוּל	instead of	בְּמִקּוֹם

Examples

Two well-known architects stood <u>behind</u> (supported) the project.	שְׁנֵי אַרְכִּיטֶקְטִים יְדוּעִים עִמְדוּ מֵאַחֲרָי הַפְּרוֹיִיקָט.
<u>Behind</u> them was the support of two known banks.	מֵאַחֲרֵיהֶם הָיְתָה תְּמוּכָה שֶׁל שְׁנֵי בַּנְקִים יְדוּעִים.
<u>As opposed to</u> some other cities, Rome is a progressive city.	לְעוֹמַת עָרִים אַחֲרוֹת, רוֹמָא הִיא עִיר מִתְקַדְמָת.
The safe is <u>inside</u> the room.	הַכֶּסֶּפֶת בְּתוֹךְ הַחֹדֶר.
<u>Inside</u> it are documents.	בְּתוֹכָהּ יֵשׁ מִסְמָכִים.

Complex prepositions followed by prefixes

Many prepositions consist of a combination of prepositions, nouns, or adverbs that are followed by the monosyllabic prepositional prefixes, usually ל-, מ-. Here is a list of some of these prepositions:

beneath, below	מִתַּחַת ל-	aside from	חוּץ מ-
before	קוֹדֶם ל-	across	מֵעֵבֶר ל-
against, facing	מִנְגַּד ל-	around	(מ)סְבִיב ל-
excluding	מִחוּץ ל-, חוּץ מ-	above, over	מֵעַל ל-

Examples

The construction continued <u>for over</u> seven years.	הַבְּנִיָּה נִמְשְׁכָה מֵעַל לְשֶׁבַע שָׁנִים.
<u>Aside from</u> the soup, Dan ate everything.	חוּץ מֵהַמֶּרְקָה, דָּן אָכַל אֶת הַכֹּל.
<u>Across</u> the road was a shopping center.	מֵעֵבֶר לְכַבִּישׁ הָיָה מֶרְכֵז קְנִיּוֹת.
<u>Around</u> the building there were tall trees and wide lawns.	מִסְבִּיב לְבִנְיַן הָיוּ עֲצִים גְּבוּהִים וּמִדְשָׁאוֹת נִרְחֲבוֹת.

10.3.6 Pre

Here are so
most of the
suffixed to s
those suffix
in the tables

(Shape o

acros

10.3.6 Prepositions with pronoun suffixes

Here are some of the prepositions with pronoun suffixes. Notice that most of them have an ending similar to the endings added to those suffixed to singular nouns (Set A), and some have the same endings as those suffixed to plural nouns (Set B). Not all prepositions are included in the tables below.

Set A

Pronoun suffixes attached to prepositions

(Shape of possessive pronoun suffixes attached to singular nouns)

long as בְּעוֹד
 בְּתוֹךְ
 of בְּשִׁבִּיל
 of בְּעֵבֶר/עֵבֹר
 of בְּגִל
 of מִלְפָּנַי
 of בְּמִקוֹם

שני ארכיטקטים ידועים עמדתו
 מאחורי הפרוייקט.
 מאחריהם הייתה תמיכה של ע
 בנקים ידועים.
 לעומת ערים אחרות, רומא הי
 מתקדמת.
 הכספת בתוך החדר.
 בתוכה יש מסמכים.

prepositions, nouns, or
 prepositional prefixes,
 positions:

om חוץ מ-
 מעבר ל-
 (מ)סביב ל-
 over מעל ל-

הבנייה נמשכה מעל לשבע שנים
 תוצ מהמרק, דן אכל את הכל.
 מעבר לכביש היה מרכז קניות.
 מסביב לבניין היו עצים גבוהים
 ומדשאות נרחבות.

בְּ-	לְ-	שֶׁל	אֶת	
in	to	of	Direct Object	
בִּי	לִי	שְׁלִי	אֹתִי	אֲנִי
בְּךָ	לְךָ	שְׁלְךָ	אֹתְךָ	אַתָּה
בָּהּ	לָהּ	שְׁלָהּ	אֹתָהּ	הִיא
בָּנוּ	לָנוּ	שְׁלָנוּ	אֹתָנוּ	אֲנַחְנוּ
בְּכֶם	לְכֶם	שְׁלְכֶם	אֹתְכֶם**	אַתֶּם
בְּכֻן	לְכֻן	שְׁלְכֻן	אֹתְכֻן**	אַתֶּן
בְּהֶם	לְהֶם	שְׁלֵהֶם	אֹתָם	הֵם
בְּהֵן	לְהֵן	שְׁלֵהֵן	אֹתָן	הֵן

מִן	מִן/מ-	בְּשִׁבִּיל	עִם	עִם (אֶת)	אֶצֶל
across from	from	for	with	with	at
מִי	מִמֶּנִּי	בְּשִׁבִּילִי	עִמִּי	אִתִּי	אֶצְלִי
מִיְךָ	מִמֶּךָ	בְּשִׁבִּילְךָ	עִמְךָ	אִתְךָ	אֶצְלְךָ
מִיָּהּ	מִמֶּנָּה	בְּשִׁבִּילָהּ	עִמּוֹ	אִתּוֹ	אֶצְלוֹ
מִיָּנָהּ	מִמֶּנָּהּ	בְּשִׁבִּילָהּ	עִמָּהּ	אִתָּהּ	אֶצְלָהּ
מִיָּנוּ	מִמֶּנּוּ (מִמֶּנּוּ)	בְּשִׁבִּילָנוּ*	עִמָּנוּ	אִתָּנוּ	אֶצְלָנוּ*
מִיָּכֶם	מִמֶּכֶם	בְּשִׁבִּילְכֶם	עִמְכֶם	אִתְכֶם	אֶצְלְכֶם
מִיָּכֻן	מִמֶּכֻן	בְּשִׁבִּילְכֻן	עִמְכֻן	אִתְכֻן	אֶצְלְכֻן
מִיָּהֶם	מִמֶּהֶם	בְּשִׁבִּילָם	עִמָּם	אִתָּם	אֶצְלָם
מִיָּהֵן	מִמֶּהֵן	בְּשִׁבִּילָן	עִמָּן	אִתָּן	אֶצְלָן

Note

* Notice change from *a* to *e* in the prepositions מן, מצל and בשביל.

** The second person plural forms of the direct object pronoun change their stem from *ot-* אות- in the other forms to the *et-* את- of the independent form.

The preposition 'with' has two sets of inflected prepositions: one is derived from the biblical form את-, and the other from the alternate preposition עם. The paradigm עםי, עםי, עםי, עםי, עםי is used in the higher registers of Hebrew. In everyday speech, the alternate paradigm אתי, אתך, אתו, אתה is the one commonly used. The independent form of the preposition is always עם.

Historically, there were two different prepositions with the meaning of 'from'. One was derived from the preposition מאת, and the other from the preposition מן.

מאתנו, מאתכם, מאתם	מאתי, מאתך, מאתו, מאתה	מאת
מאתנו (מפנינו), מכס, מהם	מפני, מפניך, מפניה, מפניו	מן

In contemporary use, the stem of מן is used in most of the forms, and it has a couple of separate sub-stems, מפני- and מ/מ (in both cases, the מ of מן is fully assimilated). The מאת forms are rarely used, except for מאתנו, which is used more frequently than מפנינו, most likely because this form of first person plural is identical to the third person singular, masculine.

Set B

Pronoun suffixes attached to prepositions

(Shape of possessive pronoun suffixes attached to plural nouns)

בלעדי	על ידי	על	אל	
without	by	on/about	toward	
בלעדי	על ידי	עלי	אלי	אני
בלעדיך	על ידיך	עליך	אליך	אתה
בלעדיך	על ידיך	עליך	אליך	את
בלעדינו	על ידינו	עליו	אליו	הוא
בלעדיה	על ידיה	עליה	אליה	היא
בלעדינו	על ידינו	עלינו	אלינו	אנחנו
בלעדיכם	על ידיכם	עליכם	אליכם	אתם
בלעדיכן	על ידיכן	עליכן	אליכן	אתן
בלעדיהם	על ידיהם	עליהם	אליהם	הם
בלעדיהן	על ידיהן	עליהן	אליהן	הן

Note

Normally the followed by variant independent as in בלעדיך

Look for vowel person plural the last syllable

David's parents but we heard

We stood in ahead of us

Everything v them, since t and supported

10.3.7 Prepositions

Prepositions have practical categories: usually verbs a fuller disc

מעל	מתחת	אודות	מאחורי	לפני
above	below	about	behind	before
מעלי	מתחתי	אודותי	מאחורי	לפני
מעליך	מתחתך	אודותיך	מאחוריך	לפניך
מעליך	מתחתך	אודותיך	מאחוריך	לפניך
מעליו	מתחתיו	אודותיו	מאחוריו	לפניו
מעליה	מתחתיה	אודותיה	מאחוריה	לפניה
מעלינו	מתחתינו	אודותינו	מאחורינו	לפנינו
מעליכם	מתחתיהם	אודותיהם	מאחוריהם	לפניהם
מעליך	מתחתיהם	אודותיהם	מאחוריהם	לפניהם
מעליהם	מתחתיהם	אודותיהם	מאחוריהם	לפניהם
מעליהם	מתחתיהם	אודותיהם	מאחוריהם	לפניהם

Note

Normally the preposition 'without' in its independent form is בלי, followed by a noun, as in בלי תקווה 'without hope', but it uses the variant independent form בלעדי- when a pronoun suffix is attached to it, as in בלעדיך 'without you'.

Look for vowel changes in the stem of many of the second and third person plural forms, which take place because of the shift of stress to the last syllable.

David's parents did not hear about us, אבל ההורים של דוד לא שמעו עלינו, אנחנו שמענו עליהם.

We stood in line ahead of them, and עודמדנו בתור לפנייהם, ולפנינו עמדו עוד הרבה אנשים. ahead of us stood many others.

Everything was made possible by them, since they stood behind him הכל התאפשר על ידיהם, כי הם עמדו מאחוריו ותמכו בכל מאמציו. and supported all his efforts.

10.3.7 Prepositions with nouns, adjectives, and verbs

Prepositions are sometimes so firmly wedded to other words that they have practically become idiomatic expressions. This occurs in three categories: nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Although the former two are usually verb-related, they will be introduced first, before we embark on a fuller discussion of verb-and-preposition collocations.

בשביל and אצל, object pronoun change to the et- of the and prepositions: one is her from the alternate עמי, עמי is used in the alternate paradigm used. The independent

ns with the meaning of מא, and the other from

מאתי, מאתך, מאת מאני, ממני, ממך, ממך

most of the forms, and it מ (in both cases, the מ rarely used, except for מ, most likely because the third person singular,

positions (used to plural nouns)

אל	אני
toward	אלי
	אתה
	את
	הוא
	היא
	אנחנו
	אתם
	אתן
	הם
	הן

Nouns and prepositions

If a noun and a verb share the same root and semantic features, they often take the same preposition. For instance, the noun אמונה 'belief' shares the same root and base meaning with the verb להאמין 'to believe (in)'. The preposition follows the noun as well as the related verb and links the object to either one.

Here is a list of nouns with prepositions that link the objects to them:

	<u>Noun</u>		<u>Verb</u>
belief in	אמונה ב-	believe in	להאמין ב-
success in	הצלחה ב-	succeed in	להצליח ב-
expertise in	התמחות ב-	specialize in	להתמחות ב-
devotion to	התמסרות ל-	devote self to	להתמסר ל-
voting for	הצבעה בעד	vote for	להצביע בעד

Adjectives and participles with prepositions

An adjective derived from a verb usually takes the same preposition as the verb. Here is a list of adjectives and participles with prepositions that link the objects to them:

	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Verb</u>
interested in	מעוניין ב-	be interested in	להתעניין ב-
married to	נשוי ל-	get married to	להנשא ל-
proud of	גאה ב-	be proud of	להתגאות ב-
similar to	דומה ל-	be similar to	להדמות ל-
belonging to	שנך ל-	belong to	להשתיך ל-
confident in	בטוח ב-	trust in	לבטוח ב-

Ruth's daughter is so much like her mother.

These books don't belong to us.

He is so sure of himself.

הבת של רות כל כך דומה לאמא שלה.

הספרים האלה לא שייכים לנו.

הוא כל כך בטוח בעצמו.

Verbs and prepositions

Some transitive verbs are followed directly by a direct object, and some are linked to their object by certain obligatory prepositions.

A comparative

There is no preposition and prepositions are nearly arbitrary.

trust in
be proud of
fall in love with
damage, hurt

part from
be impressed by
retire from/
leave
be excited by

approach
accompany
intend, refer
turn to, address

It is difficult to approach
Don't bother us!
We are overcoming
Dan married Dan
Don't come near

One verb with two

It is possible for one verb to take two prepositions that have different functions.
We did not agree on the prices in his will.
We demonstrated against the closing of the school.
The teacher spoke to the students about the test.
The teacher will be on the test.

A comparative note

There is no predictable equivalence between the combination of verbs and prepositions in Hebrew and their equivalents in English. This is a nearly arbitrary feature that must be learned.

trust in	בָּטַח ב-	give up	וָתַר עַל
be proud of	הִתְנַאֵף ב-	rely on	סָמַךְ עַל
fall in love with	הִתְאַהֵב ב-	think about	חָשַׁב עַל
damage, hurt	פָּגַע ב-	overcome	הִתְגַּבֵּר עַל
part from	נִפְרַד מ-	bother	הִפְרִיעַ ל-
be impressed by	הִתְפַּעַל מ-	need	הִזְדַּקַּק ל-
retire from/	פָּרַשׁ מ-	yearn for	הִשְׁתַּוֵּקַק ל-
leave		become	הִפָּךְ ל-
be excited by	הִתְרַגַּשׁ מ-		
approach	הִתְקַרַּב אֶל	accept	הִשְׁלִים עִם
accompany	הִתְלַוָּה אֶל	confront	הִתְמוּדַד עִם
intend, refer	הִתְכוּוֹן אֶל	argue with	הִתְוַכַּח עִם
turn to, address	פָּנָה אֶל	marry	הִתְחַתֵּן עִם

It is difficult to accept the situation.
 Don't bother us! We are busy.
 We are overcoming the difficulties.
 Dan married Dana.
 Don't come near us!

קשה להשלים עם המצב.
 אל תפריע לנו! אנחנו עסוקים.
 אנחנו מתגברים על הקשיים.
 דן התחתן עם דנה.
 אל תתקרבו אלינו!

One verb with several prepositional phrases

It is possible for one verb to occur in a sentence with the several prepositions that link it to its different objects. Each of the objects has a different function in the sentence.

We did not agree with David about the prices in his work proposal.

לא הסכמנו עם דוד על המחירים בהצעת העבודה שלו.

We demonstrated with the workers against the closing of the plant.

הפגנו עם הפועלים נגד סגירת המפעל.

The teacher spoke with the students about the material that will be on the test.

המורה דיבר עם התלמידים על החומר שיחיה במבחן.

features, they
 אמונה 'belief'
 - להאמין ב-
 as the related

acts to them:

להאמין ב-
 להצליח ב-
 להתמחות ב-
 להתמסר ל-
 להצביע בעד

preposition as
 h prepositions

להתעניין ב-
 להנשא ל-
 להתנאות ב-
 להדמות ל-
 להשתדך ל-
 לבטוח ב-

הבת של רות כל
 שלה.

הספרים האלה
 הוא כל כך בטוח

ect, and some
 s.

Meaning – combined verbs and prepositions

The meanings of some verbs are determined by the combination of those verbs with different prepositions and objects. Here are some examples of how verbs' meanings can be determined by the preposition that follows them. In most cases the meanings are related but not identical:

go to the office	לגשת אל המשרד
go to (visit) friends	לגשת לחברים
take tests	לגשת לבחינות
turn right at the corner	לפנות ימינה בפינה
address someone	לפנות אל מישהו
turn to the mayor (for advice, help)	לפנות אל ראש העיר
It all depends on your decision.	הכל תלוי בהחלטה שלך.
The laundry is hanging on the line in the yard.	הכביסה תלויה על החבל בחצר.
contact the committee members	להתקשר אל חברי הוועד
get in touch by phone	להתקשר בטלפון/טלפונית
become attached to friends	להתקשר לחברים
visit/pay a visit to relatives	לבקר קרובי משפחה
visit in/go to see all the museums in town	לבקר בכל המוזיאונים בעיר
rely on experts' opinions	לסמוך על דעות של מומחים
support the falling wall	לסמוך את הקיר המתמוטט
bring the books to the library	להביא את הספרים לספרייה
bring about good results	להביא לתוצאות טובות
point at someone	להצביע על מישהו
vote for someone	להצביע בעד מישהו
agree/concur with the expressed opinions	להסכים לדעות שהובעו
consent/comply with the parents not to go out alone late at night	להסכים עם ההורים לא לצאת לבד מאוחר בערב

10.3.8 Prepos

As mentioned a number of fact relationship between and location. A prepositions tha

Here are exampl the English take

He approached Do the children It is necessary to

The prepositi

The preposition

Singular

שְׁלָה
her/s

Plural

שְׁלָהֶן
their/s

Locators of p

Many prepositio

Space In every land or way to

Time I am fr
mornin

Prepositions

The most comm can be translatee transportation).

10.3.8 Prepositions in context

As mentioned above, the choice of prepositions is determined by a number of factors, including the type of link being provided, the relationship between the items, and prescribed prepositions for time and location. As in English, certain verbs are followed by certain prepositions that give them their full meaning.

Here are examples of verbs followed by prepositions in Hebrew, while the English takes no preposition before the object.

He approached <u>us</u> .	הוא התקרב <u>אלינו</u> .
Do the children bother <u>you</u> ?	הילדים מפריעים ל <u>כם</u> ?
It is necessary to accept <u>the situation</u> .	צריך להשלים עם ה <u>מצב</u> .

The preposition of possession של

The preposition של is used exclusively in expressions of possession.

Singular

שְׁלָהּ	שְׁלוֹ	שְׁלָךְ	שְׁלָךְ	שְׁלִי
her/s	his	your/s	your/s	my/mine

Plural

שְׁלָהֶן	שְׁלָהֶם	שְׁלָכֶן	שְׁלָכֶם	שְׁלֵנוּ
their/s	their/s	your/s	your/s	our/s

Locators of place and time

Many prepositional phrases serve to specify space or time.

<u>Space</u>	In every place, in the sea, on land or in the air, there is a way to communicate.	בכל מקום : בים, ביבשה או באוויר, יש דרך ליצור קשר.
<u>Time</u>	I am free at any time, in the morning or the evening.	אני פנוי בכל שעה, בבוקר או בערב.

Prepositions of Location: *in, at, and on* -ב

The most common preposition that indicates location is the prefix -ב. It can be translated as 'in' or 'at' and at times by 'on' or 'by' (a mode of transportation).

in/at/by

He sleeps <u>in</u> his bed.	הוא ישן <u>במיטה</u> שלו.	-ב
She is staying <u>at</u> home today.	היא נשארת <u>בבית</u> היום.	
There is no smoking <u>on</u> the plane.	אסור לעשן <u>במטוס</u> .	
Will you be traveling <u>by</u> train or <u>by</u> bus?	תיסעו <u>ברכבת</u> או <u>באוטובוס</u> ?	

Prepositions of location: על on

The preposition of location 'on' על indicates being on or on top of a specific surface. (It also functions as a preposition that indicates the content of some transmitted message: the story is about his childhood. Obviously, in this particular instance it does not indicate location. Several prepositions have more than one function and meaning).

on (a surface)

The blanket is <u>on</u> the sofa.	השמירה <u>על</u> הספה.	על
The clothes are <u>on</u> the floor.	הבגדים <u>על</u> הרצפה.	
The coat is <u>on</u> the chair.	המעיל <u>על</u> הכיסא.	
The notebook is <u>on</u> the desk.	המחברת <u>על</u> השולחן.	

Prepositions of time: at, and on -ב

As in prepositions of location, the most common preposition that indicates time is the prefix -ב. It can be translated into English as 'in', 'at', and at times by 'on', or is absent in English.

at, on, by

He arrived <u>at seven in the evening</u> .	הוא הגיע <u>בשבע בערב</u> .	-ב
He arrived <u>on time</u> .	הוא הגיע <u>בזמן</u> .	
There were elections <u>last year</u> .	היו בחירות <u>בשנה שעברה</u> .	

In some words the concept of time is inherent, and therefore there is no need for a preposition at all.

<u>Yesterday</u> was Dan's birthday.	יום ההולדת של דנה היה <u>אתמול</u> .
<u>Now</u> is the time for many changes.	עכשיו הגיע הזמן להרבה שינויים.
<u>This year</u> there are interesting programs.	השנה יש תוכניות מעניינות.

Preposition of direction – אל/ל

The preposition אל/ל signifies an orientation toward a goal or a destination. It usually follows verbs of movement.

Directional: to

Dina went up to the goal.
The sand washed away from the goal.
The group marched toward the goal.

When the destination is a goal, the preposition אל/ל is used as well:

Goal: noun phrase
David returned from the goal.

However, if the destination is a goal, the preposition אל/ל is used as well:
Goal: expression
David left his job but he returned to the company.

The preposition אל/ל indicates orientation from a goal, but not movement, but only orientation.

Directional: from
Dina went out from the goal.
This is the road to the goal.

The preposition אל/ל
The preposition אל/ל indicates orientation toward a goal (place)'. It implies movement associated with the goal. It is similar to the preposition אל/ל someone's place. David's' is coming to the goal. אל/ל דוד במשרד.

Notice that the prepositions אל/ל and ל both convey a goal, but they follow different rules. אל/ל accompanies verbs of movement.

ב-

הוא ישן במיטה שלו.
היא נשאת בבית היום.
אסור לעשן במטוס.
תיסעו ברכבת או באוטובוס

ing on or on top of a
tion that indicates the
is about his childhood.
not indicate location.
(and meaning).

על

השמיכה על הספה.
הבגדים על הרצפה.
המעיל על הכיסא.
המחברת על השולחן.

omon preposition that
ed into English as 'in',

ב-

הוא הגיע בשבע בערב.
הוא הגיע בזמן.
היו בחירות בשנה שעברה.

ad therefore there is no

יום ההולדת של דנה היה אצל
עכשיו הגיע הזמן להרבה שי
השנה יש תוכניות מעניינות.

toward a goal or a

Directional: to/into/toward

Dina went to the third floor.

The sand washed into the water.

The group made progress toward the goal.

דינה עלתה אל הקומה השלישית
(או: לקומה השלישית).
החול נסחף אל המים.
הקבוצה התקדמה אל המטרה.

When the destination is a full noun, the preposition **ל-** may often be used as well:

Goal: noun phrase

David returned to his house.

דוד חזר אל ביתו/דוד חזר לביתו.

However, if the destination is a pronoun, only **אל** is allowed:

Goal: expressed by pronoun.

David left his family last year,
but he returned to them this year.

דוד עזב את משפחתו בשנה שעברה, אבל
הוא חזר אליהם השנה.

The preposition **מן** or its abbreviated version **מ-** signifies movement or orientation from a goal or a destination. It usually follows verbs of movement, but can also follow nouns.

Directional: from

Dina went out of the house.

This is the road from Tel Aviv to Haifa.

דינה יצאה מהבית.
זאת הדרך מתל-אביב לחיפה.

The preposition of location/position: אצל

The preposition **אצל** can be roughly translated as 'at (somebody's place)'. It implies that the object is a person, and the location – which is associated with the person – is understood and can be further specified. It is similar to the French preposition *chez*, which also signifies someone's place (of residence or work). For instance, the phrase 'at David's' is conveyed by **אצל דוד**, which can be further expanded by 'at David's office', or **אצל דוד במשרד**, or 'at David's home', or **אצל דוד בבית**.

Notice that the prepositions **אל** and **אצל** are complementary. While both convey a location or a destination associated with a person, they follow different types of verbs: **אל** follows directional verbs, whereas **אצל** accompanies situational or stative verbs.

Directional

We went to their place for a short visit. נסענו אליהם לביקור קצר.

Locational

We were at their place for three days. היינו אצלם שלושה ימים.

Prepositions following verbs expressing stationary position

Verbs of stationary position indicate a continuous position with no change in motion.

The cat is sitting on the rug. החתול יושב על השטיח.

The doctor is in his office. הרופא נמצא במשרד שלו.

My relatives are at my parents'. הקרובים שלי אצל ההורים שלי.

Some verbs of motion indicate a continuous, almost always circular movement, within a specific location:

The cat is running around in the yard. החתול מתרוצץ בחצר.

The children are roaming in our neighborhood. הילדים מסתובבים אצלנו בשכונה.

My relatives are walking around town. הקרובים שלי מטיילים בעיר.

However, most verbs of motion indicate a movement toward another location:

The cat ran away to the neighbors. החתול ברח אל השכן.

The children went to the beach. הילדים הלכו לים.

My relatives drove to the new mall. הקרובים שלי נסעו לקניון החדש.

Cause and effect relationship

Prepositions, as well as verbs, convey either the completion of an action, or the point or the position of the subject as a result of that action. This distinction helps us understand how directional and locative prepositions are related: they stand in the relationship of cause and effect.

Verbs of movement: cause

He jumped into the pool. הוא קפץ לבריכה.

She fell into the water. היא נפלה למים.

They drove to the mall. הם נסעו לקניון.

Dan went to his relatives. דן הלך אל הקרובים שלו.

They came to us. הם באו אלינו.

Position of s

He is at the po

She is in the w

Dan was at his

They were at o

10.3.9 Prepo**In relation to**

He entered into

He is sitting in

They are stand

In relation to

He is standing

He is sitting be

They are stand

In relation to

In front of me

In front of the

The library is i

In relation to

The pool is beh

We live behind

I am standing

In relation to

Our office is e

Facing the hou

It's not on this

In relation to

Who lives next

The movie the

There is a resta

Position of subject: effect

He is <u>at</u> the pool.	הוא <u>ב</u> בריכה.
She is <u>in</u> the water.	היא <u>ב</u> מים.
Dan was <u>at</u> his relatives.	דן היה <u>אצל</u> הקרובים שלו.
They were <u>at our place</u> .	הם היו <u>אצלנו</u> .

10.3.9 Prepositions expressing relational position**In relation to object: inside (of) בתוך, into לתוך**

He entered <u>into</u> (inside) the building.	הוא נכנס <u>לתוך</u> הבניין.
He is sitting <u>inside</u> the Jacuzzi.	הוא יושב <u>בתוך</u> הג'קוזי.
They are standing <u>inside</u> the fountain.	הם עומדים <u>בתוך</u> המזרקה.

In relation to object: outside (of) מחוץ ל

He is standing <u>outside</u> the building.	הוא עומד <u>מחוץ</u> לבניין.
He is sitting <u>beside</u> the pool.	הוא יושב <u>מחוץ</u> לבריכה.
They are standing <u>outside</u> the restaurant.	הם עומדים <u>מחוץ</u> למסעדה.

In relation to object: in front (of) מלפני /לפני

<u>In front of</u> me I see mountains.	<u>מלפני</u> אני רואה הרים.
<u>In front of</u> the house there is a garden.	<u>מלפני</u> הבית יש גינה.
The library is <u>in front of</u> the Physics Bldg.	הספרייה <u>לפני</u> בניין הפיסיקה.

In relation to object: behind מאחורי

The pool is <u>behind</u> the house.	הבריכה <u>מאחורי</u> הבית.
We live <u>behind</u> the store.	אנחנו גרים <u>מאחורי</u> החנות.
I am standing <u>behind</u> him.	אני עומד <u>מאחורי</u> .

In relation to object: across from/facing מול/ממול ל-

Our office is exactly <u>across from</u> you.	המשרד שלנו בדיוק <u>ממולכם</u> .
<u>Facing</u> the house is a big park.	<u>ממול</u> לבית יש פארק גדול.
It's not on this side - it is <u>across the way</u> .	זה לא בצד הזה - זה <u>ממול</u> .

In relation to object: next to על יד

Who lives <u>next to</u> you?	מי גר <u>על ידכם</u> ?
The movie theater is <u>next to</u> the bookstore.	הקולנוע <u>על יד</u> חנות הספרים.
There is a restaurant <u>next to</u> the hotel.	יש מסעדה <u>על יד</u> המלון.

נסענו אליהם לביקור קצר.

היינו אצלם שלושה ימים.

stationary position

stationary position with no

החתול יושב על השטיח.

הרופא נמצא במשרד שלו.

הקרובים שלי אצל ההורים

almost always circular

החתול מתרוצץ בחצר.

הילדים מסתובבים אצלנו

בשכונה.

הקרובים שלי מטיילים בע

movement toward another

החתול ברח אל השכן.

הילדים הלכו לים.

הקרובים שלי נסעו לקניון

the completion of an

ect as a result of that

how directional and

e relationship of cause

הוא קפץ לבריכה.

היא נפלה למים.

הם נסעו לקניון.

דן הלך אל הקרובים שלו.

הם באו אלינו.

10.4 Prepositional phrases or adverbs?

By definition, prepositions link to nominal entities (nouns, noun phrases or pronouns), whereas adverbs, which modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, or sentences, do not. The difference can best be demonstrated by comparing forms that originated from the fusion of prepositions and nouns into derived 'atomic' adverbs of location, with prepositional phrases in which similar forms function as prepositions linking to a following noun or a noun phrase:

Prep Phrase	They are standing <u>outside</u> the house.	הם עומדים <u>מחוץ לבית</u> .
Adverb	They are standing <u>outside</u> .	הם עומדים <u>בחוץ</u> .
Prep Phrase	He is <u>inside</u> the building.	הוא <u>בתוך הבניין</u> .
Adverb	He is <u>inside</u> .	הוא נמצא <u>בנים</u> .
Prep Phrase	The office is <u>under the</u> residential floor.	המשרד <u>מתחת לקומת</u> המגורים.
Adverb	The office is <u>downstairs</u> .	המשרד נמצא <u>למטה</u> .
Prep Phrase	The store is exactly <u>above</u> the supermarket.	החנות בדיוק <u>מעל</u> לסופרמרקט.
Adverb	The store is <u>upstairs</u> , on the second floor.	החנות <u>למעלה</u> , בקומה השנייה.

Because the forms in the left column are prepositions, they must be followed by a nominal entity, personal pronouns included (e.g. בתוכו, מעליו). The borderline between prepositions and adverbs, however, is not always clear. Below are two particles, במשך and בעוד, that are regarded as adverbs by some, but at the same time function as prepositions.

10.4.1 Prepositions of duration: for/during/while במשך

The preposition במשך 'during' is a preposition that refers to duration of time.

for/during

During school, he also worked.

For four years, the family lived in the South.

במשך

במשך הלימודים, הוא גם עבד.

במשך ארבע שנים המשפחה גרה בדרום.

10.4.2 Prepo

The prepositio
followed by a
in the future.

in + time unit

He will meet
School will en

An Iranian del
historical visit
few weeks.

10.4.3 Comb

These preposit
start at a given
'until' can be
introduces a c

from – until/u

We waited for
midnight. Whe

Dr. Wolf work

at his office, a
p.m. he works

Attorney Ayala

from the begin
until she comp
week ago.

10.5 Coordi

A coordinati
Coordinating
of words, but
noun, verb phr

ities (nouns, noun
fy verbs, adjectives,
rence can best be
from the fusion of
bs of location, with
ion as prepositions

הם עומדים מחוץ לבית

הם עומדים בחוץ.

הוא בתוך הבניין.

הוא נמצא בפנים.

המשרד מתחת לקומת

המגורים.

המשרד נמצא למטה.

החנות בדיוק מעל

לסופרמרקט.

החנות למעלה, בקומה

השנייה.

ions, they must be
cluded (e.g. בתוכו,
dverbs, however, is
and בעוד, that are
time function as

while במשך

refers to duration of

במשך

במשך הלימודים, הוא ג

במשך ארבע שנים המש

בדרום.

10.4.2 Preposition 'in + time unit' בעוד

The preposition בעוד 'in (a certain amount of time)', which is always followed by a time phrase, indicates an expectation of a period of time in the future.

in + time unit

He will meet us in an hour.

School will end in a week.

בעוד

הוא יפגוש אותנו בעוד שעה.

הלימודים יסתיימו בעוד כשבוע.

An Iranian delegation will undertake a historical visit the United States in a few weeks.

משלחת איראנית תצא בעוד כמה

שבועות לביקור היסטורי

בארה"ב.

10.4.3 Combination of prepositions מ-עד 'from-until/up to'

These prepositions indicate an ongoing time period that started or is to start at a given time and will last till a specific time. The preposition עד 'until' can be preceded by a conjunction ועד 'and until'. When it introduces a clause it is linked to it by the relative particle -ש.

from – until/up to

We waited for you from seven till midnight. Where were you?

מ-עד

חכינו לך משבע עד חצות. איפה היית?

Dr. Wolf works from 9 a.m. till 1 p.m. at his office, and from 4 p.m. till 10 p.m. he works at the hospital.

ד"ר וולף עובד מתשע בבוקר עד אחת בצוהריים במשרד שלו, ומארבע עד עשר הוא עובד בבית החולים.

Attorney Ayalon worked on this case from the beginning of this year and until she completed her obligation a week ago.

עורכת הדין איילון עבדה על התיק הזה מתחילת השנה הזאת ועד שהיא סיימה את תפקידה לפני שבוע.

10.5 Coordinating conjunctions

מילות חיבור

A coordinating conjunction links words, phrases, or clauses. Coordinating conjunctions join single words, or they may join groups of words, but they must always join similar elements: e.g., noun + noun, verb phrase + verb phrase, sentence + sentence.

Coordinating conjunctions

and	-ו
or	או
if	אם
but, however; too, also	אך, גם
however	אבל, אך
only	רק, אך
except, but	אלא
indeed, surely	אכן
indeed, in truth	אמנם
and however	ואלו
because	כי

Notes on the conjunction -ו and the vowels attached to it:

The conjunction -ו is pronounced *ve-* in most cases, and in everyday speech in virtually all cases, except for set expressions.

In normative Hebrew, however, the following rules apply:

- -ו is pronounced *ve-* in most cases, but before the consonants פ/פ, מ, ג, ב/ב, it is pronounced *u*.
Example: *bayit umishpakha* בית ומשפחה
- -ו is pronounced *u* also before a consonant cluster or before any *shva* vowel.
Example: *drom utsfon tel aviv* דרום וצפון תל-אביב
Example: *hi tavo utedaber itkhem* היא תבוא ותדבר אתכם
- -ו is pronounced *vi-* before the consonant ן with a *shva* (the *shva* and the *y* are elided).
Example: *telaviv virushalayim* תל-אביב וירושלים
- -ו is pronounced with a vowel that echoes a following *hataf*:
Examples: *limudim va'avoda* לימודים וְעבודה
'emet ve'emuna אמת וְאמונה
- -ו is pronounced *va-* before a stressed vowel.
Examples: *kaftor vaferah* כפתור ופרח
bayit vagn בית ונגן

The various coordinative conjunctions not only coordinate units in the sentence, but also set these units in a special relationship to one another.

Noun + noun

Inclusion:

We have seas
and the opera

Exclusion:

We have seas
theater but no

Verb + verb

Inclusion:

Dan walks to
work.

Exclusion:

Dan walks bu

Sentence +

Neutral:

Dan wanted to
Dina wanted to

Differing attit

Dan wanted to
wanted to sta

Inclusion:

Dan wanted
Dina also war

Cause:

Dan bought
she too wante

10.5.1 Corre

Correlative c
conjunctions
plural subject
verb is singula

Both:

Both my broth
guitar.

S

ו-
או
אם
אף, גם
אבל, אך
רק, אך
אלא
אכן
אמנם
ואלו
כי

atched to it:

ses, and in everyday
ions.

s apply:

t before the

בית ומשפחה
nt cluster or

דרום וצפון תל-אביב
היא תבוא ותדבר אתם
with a *shva*

תל-אביב וירושלים
following *hataf*:

לימודים נעבודה
אמת ואמונה

כפתור נפרח
בית נגן

ordinate units in the
relationship to one

Noun + noun

Inclusion:

We have season tickets to the theater
and the opera.

יש לנו כרטיסי-מנוי [לתיאטרון
ולאופרה].

Exclusion:

We have season tickets only to the
theater but not to the opera.

יש לנו כרטיסי מנוי [רק
לתיאטרון ולא לאופרה].

Verb + verb

Inclusion:

Dan walks to work and runs after
work.

דן הולך ברגל לעבודה וְרץ אחרי
העבודה.

Exclusion:

Dan walks but does not run.

דן הולך ברגל ולא רץ.

Sentence + sentence

Neutral:

Dan wanted to sit in the balcony, and
Dina wanted to sit in the orchestra.

דן רצה לשבת ביציע, וְדינה רצתה
לשבת באולם.

Differing attitudes:

Dan wanted to go, but/however Dina
wanted to stay home.

דן רצה ללכת, אבל/ואילו דינה
רצתה להישאר בבית.

Inclusion:

Dan wanted to sit in the balcony, and
Dina also wanted to sit there.

דן רצה לשבת ביציע, וגם דינה
רצתה לשבת שם.

Cause:

Dan bought tickets for Dina, because
she too wanted to go to the show.

דן קנה כרטיסים בשביל דינה, כי
גם היא רצתה ללכת להצגה.

10.5.1 Correlative conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are used in pairs. Like the coordinate conjunctions they join similar elements. When joining singular and plural subjects, the subject closest to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural.

Both:

Both my brother and my sister play the
guitar.

גם אחי וגם אחותי מנגנים
בגיטרה.

Either/or:

You have a choice: either to sit at home, or to go with us to visit Shlomit. יש לכם ברירה – אן לשבת בבית אן לבוא איתנו לבקר את שלומית.

Not only but also:

Not only my brother, but also my father plays basketball. לא רק אחי אלא גם אבי משחק כדורסל.

Two nouns in opposition:

Dan told Rina to buy tickets not in the orchestra but only in the balcony. דן אמר לרינה לקנות כרטיסים, לא באולם, אלא ביציע.

Two verbs in opposition:

Dan does not drive but rather walks. דן לא נוהג אלא הולך ברגל.

Opposition:

Dina really wanted to take a taxi, however Dan wanted to walk. אומנם דינה רצתה לנסוע במונית, אבל דן רצה ללכת ברגל.

Condition + result:

If you really insist, then we'll all walk to the theater. אם אכן אתם עומדים על כך, אן כולנו נלך ברגל לקולנוע.

10.6 Subordinators**מילות שעבוד**

Subordinators (subordinating conjunctions) are essential in introducing subordinating clauses. Some of them are adverbs that act like conjunctions, and all are placed at the front of the clause. The subordinate clause can come either before or after the main clause. Subordinators are usually single words, but there are also a number of multi-word subordinators that function like a single subordinating conjunction. They can be classified according to their use in regard to time, cause and effect, opposition, or condition.

Subordinators

that/which	-ש
that/which	אשר
that + object complement clause	כי/ש-
after + clause	אחרי ש-
since/because + clause	מפני ש-/מפני ש-
	משום ש-
while	כאשר/כש-
in spite of/that + clause	למרות ש-

He said that thIt was reported
were caught wWe'll eat afterSince we are g
we can't meetWhile we wer
Indian restaurEven though y
true.In spite of the
already seen th
to see it again.Instead of ever
we'll ask someAs long as he i
his mind, we w

יש לכם ברירה – או לשבת
או לבוא איתנו לבקר את
 לא רק אחי אלא גם אחי ב
 כדורסל.

דן אמר לרינה לקנות כרטיס
 לא באולם, אלא ביציע.

דן לא נוהג אלא הולך ברגל

אומנם דינה רצתה לנסוע
 אבל דן רצה ללכת ברגל.

אם אכן אתם עומדים על
 כולנו נלך ברגל לקולנוע.

מילות שעבוד

essential in introducing
 verbs that act like
 of the clause. The
 after the main clause.
 are also a number of
 single subordinating
 their use in regard to

ש-

אשר

כי/ש-

אחרי ש-

מכיון ש-/מפני ש-

משום ש-

באשר/בכש-

למרות ש-

even though

instead of + clause

while + clause

as long as + clause

before + clause

in order that

if (condition)

if/if not (condition)

אפילו אם/אם כי

על אף ש-/אף על פי ש-

במקום ש-

בעוד ש-

כל עוד ש-

לפני ש-

כדי ש-/על מנת ש-

אם

לו/לולא

He said that they were not coming.

הוא אמר שהם לא יבואו.

It was reported that the thieves who
 were caught were children.

נמסר כי הגנבים שנתפסו היו ילדים.

We'll eat after the concert is over.

נאכל אחרי שהקונצרט ייגמר.

Since we are going out this evening,
 we can't meet.

מכיוון שאנחנו יוצאים הערב, לא
 נוכל להיפגש.

While we were in town, we ate at the
 Indian restaurant.

כאשר/כשהיינו בעיר, אכלנו
 במסעדה ההודית.

Even though you think so, it's not
 true.

אפילו אם את חושבת כך, זה לא
 נכון.

In spite of the fact that we have
 already seen the movie, we are ready
 to see it again.

למרות שראינו כבר את הסרט,
 אנחנו מוכנים לראות אותו שוב.

Instead of everyone coming at six,
 we'll ask some to come at eight.

במקום שכולם יבואו בשש, נבקש
 מכמה לבוא בשמונה.

As long as he is not about to change
 his mind, we won't help him.

כל עוד שהוא לא משנה את דעתו,
 לא נעזור לו.

10.7 Exclamation particles

מילות קריאה

Exclamation particles are special words that serve to emphasize a statement. They are used as declamatory devices, to call attention to statements being made or to express surprise.

There are two main exclamation particles: הרי! הנה! They are both used mostly in the more formal register, particularly when the pronoun suffixes are added.

1. Behold! Here, here is! הנה!

This particle is used mostly to point at something that is in near proximity:

Finally! Here is the house! סוף, סוף! הנה הבית!

It can also be used to point at an object/person in a particular situation:

And here we are - in the middle of the desert with no living soul around. והנה אנחנו - באמצע המדבר - ואין נפש חיה בסביבה.

2. Why (for emphasis); indeed!; you see הרי

This particle is used mostly for emphasis:

Why, he always talks nonsense. הרי הוא תמיד מדבר שטויות.

But you have been told what to do. הרי כבר הסבירו לכם מה לעשות.

Both these particles can have personal pronoun suffix subjects added to them. They are usually used in the higher, more formal language registers and in classical literature.

הנה with personal pronouns

Here I am	הִנְנִי = הנה אני
Here you are	הִנְנֶךָ = הנה אתה
Here you are	הִנְנֶנּוּ = הנה את
Here he is	הִנּוּ = הנה הוא
Here she is	הִנְנָה = הנה היא
Here we are	הִנְנּוּ = הנה אנחנו
Here you are	הִנְנְכֶם = הנה אתם
Here you are	הִנְנְכֶן = הנה אתן
Here they are	הִנְנָם = הנה הם
Here they are	הִנְנָן = הנה הן

Example from

And he said to
and he said: (22: 1).

Examples from

The examination
a routine exam

Example from

Since I am over
Israeli citizen
mind ...

Examples from

The emperor h
house anxiousl
"Nevertheless,
human being!"

She said to him
consecrated to
wife to you".

Example from a

I hereby promis
for the summer
have registered

מילות קריאה

serve to emphasize a
es, to call attention to

They are both used
ly when the pronoun

thing that is in near

סוף, סוף! הנה הבית!

a particular situation:

נהנה אנחנו - באמצע המזון
נפש חיה בסביבה.

הנה

הנה הוא תמיד מדבר שט

הנה כבר הסבירו לכם מה

suffix subjects added to
more formal language

ns

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

הנה = הנה

Example from Biblical Hebrew:

And he said unto him, "Abraham",
and he said: "Here I am" (Genesis
22: 1).

נִאמַר אֵלָיו, אַבְרָהָם נִאמַר הֲנִי.
(בראשית כב: א)

Examples from medical literature:

The examination of blood pressure is
a routine examination.

בדיקת לחץ דם הנה בדיקה
שגרתית.

Example from legal literature:

Since I am over 110 years of age, an
Israeli citizen and since I am of sound
mind ...

הואיל והנני למעלה מגיל שמונה
עשרה שנים, אזרח ישראל והואיל
והנני שקול בדעתי, ...

הנה with personal pronouns

I am indeed

הנהני = הנהני

You are indeed

הנהך = הנהך

You are indeed

הנהך = הנהך

He is indeed

הנהו = הנהו

She is indeed

הנהיא = הנהיא

We are indeed

הנהנו = הנהנו

You are indeed

הנהכם = הנהכם

You are indeed

הנהכן = הנהכן

They are indeed

הנהם = הנהם

They are indeed

הנהן = הנהן

Examples from rabbinic literature:

The emperor heard the lady of the
house anxiously asking her husband:
"Nevertheless, he is indeed but a
human being!"

שמע הקיסר את בעלת-הבית
שואלת בחשש את בעלה: "בכל-
זאת, הריהו אדם!"

She said to him, "I am hereby
consecrated to you, for I am hereby a
wife to you".

אמרה לו, הריני מקודשת לך, הרי
אני לך לאישה.

Example from a contract:

I hereby promise to pay the full tuition
for the summer course/s for which I
have registered.

הריני מתחייב/בת לשלם את מלוא
שכר הלימוד עבור קורס/י
סימסטר הקיץ אליהם נרשמתי.

Chapter 11

Noun phrases

- 11.1 Introduction to noun phrases
- 11.2 Noun phrase: noun + adjective
- 11.3 Comparative and superlative adjectives
- 11.4 Apposition noun phrases
- 11.5 Construct phrases
- 11.6 Phrases of possession
- 11.7 Phrases with demonstrative pronouns
- 11.8 Prepositional phrases
- 11.9 Numeral and quantifier phrases
- 11.10 Noun phrases with determiners
- 11.11 Gerunds and infinitives in noun phrases

11.1 Introduction to noun phrases

מבוא לצירופים שמניים

A noun phrase consists of a single noun (indefinite or definite), which can have additional components modify it. A single noun can have an article added to it or a pronoun suffixed to it and remain a single word, or independent words can be added to it as modifiers. The noun itself is viewed as the head of the phrase. It is the central item in the phrase. The other added components expand the meaning of the head noun or particularize it. The additional components can be articles, adjectives, demonstrative pronouns, numerals, other modifying nouns, prepositions with pronouns, relative clauses, or gerunds and infinitives that function as nouns.

The noun phrase can function as a subject, a nominal predicate, a direct or indirect object, or within larger constituents (e.g., within a prepositional phrase or a sentential adverb, etc.). Here are some illustrations of the most basic positions:

Subject

Predicate

Direct object

Indirect object

11.1.1 Indefinite

There is no i
indefinite.

Tell me, do y
for the show?

It is possible

indicate a sim

I only have o

There is only

which he is w

11.1.2 Definite

All nouns, w

the example

being referre

definite articl

I bought ticke

The tickets ar

11.2 Noun

When a phra

adjective, the

the *head noun*

definite/indef

the adjective

agreement.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>These dogs</u> are old.	הכלבים האלה זקנים.
<u>Predicate</u>	Shunra is a <u>cute cat</u> .	שונרא הוא חתול חמוד.
<u>Direct object</u>	Where did you buy <u>this dog</u> ?	איפה קניתם את הכלב הזה?
<u>Indirect object</u>	They went for a walk <u>with their dogs</u> .	הם יצאו לטייל עם הכלבים שלהם.

11.1.1 Indefinite noun phrases

There is no indefinite article in Hebrew. Nouns that have no article are indefinite.

Tell me, do you have (any) tickets for the show? תגיד לי, יש לך פרטיסים להצגה?

It is possible to add the number אחת/אחד 'one' to a singular noun, to indicate a similar notion to 'one object/an object'.

I only have one ticket. יש לי רק פרטיס אחד.

There is only one restaurant in which he is willing to eat. יש רק מסעדה אחת שהוא מוכן לאכול בה.

11.1.2 Definite noun phrases

All nouns, with the exception of proper names, can become definite. In the example below both speaker and listener know what tickets are being referred to. The context as well as the formal addition of a definite article makes the noun 'tickets' definite in the second sentence.

I bought tickets for the show. קניתי כרטיסים להצגה.

The tickets are in the box office. הכרטיסים בקופה.

11.2 Noun phrase: [noun + adjective]

When a phrase consists of a linear combination of a noun and an adjective, the noun is the head of the phrase and thus is referred to as the *head noun* of the phrase. The gender and number features, and the definite/indefinite status of the head noun, are reflected in the form of the adjective that follows it. The matching of features is known as agreement.

Gender agreement

<u>Masc. Sing.</u>	You can see <u>the new movie</u> at the theater in the mall.	אפשר לראות את <u>הסרט החדש</u> בקולנוע בקניון.
<u>Fem. Sing.</u>	<u>The new show</u> begins this evening.	<u>ההצגה החדשה</u> מתחילה הערב.

Number agreement

<u>Singular and plural</u>	There is <u>one new waiter</u> and <u>five old waiters</u> in our restaurant.	יש <u>מלצר אחד חדש וחמישה מלצרים</u> ותיקים במסעדה שלנו.
----------------------------	---	--

Definite/indefinite agreement

When the head noun is indefinite, the entire phrase is indefinite. When the head noun is definite, the entire phrase is definite. The definite article is added to both the noun and the adjective: הסרט החדש 'the new movie'.

<u>Indefinite</u>	There is <u>a new show</u> at the Cameri Theater.	יש <u>הצגה חדשה</u> בתיאטרון הקאמרי.
<u>Definite</u>	I heard that <u>the new show</u> is worth seeing.	שמעתי שכדאי לראות את <u>ההצגה החדשה</u> .

Comparative Notes

1. The word order in the Hebrew phrase is the reverse of that in the English phrase, where the adjective is in first position and the noun is in second position. 'A big building' is literally *building big* בניין גדול, and 'a new library' is literally *library new* ספרייה חדשה.

2. In English the adjectives have only one form, and do not reflect any number and gender features. The same is not true for Hebrew, where four forms reflect all the above features.

3. In English the entire definite phrase is introduced by the definite article. In Hebrew the article is attached to several components of the phrase: the noun and the adjectives that follow it.

<u>The big building</u> > <u>the building</u> + <u>the big</u>	הבניין הגדול
<u>The new municipal center</u> > <u>the center</u> + <u>the city</u> + <u>the new</u>	המרכז העירוני החדש

The [noun +
a verbless sen
of the verb 'to
Present Th
Past Th
Future Th

Note

The predicate
in which the p
Indefinite Ha
Definite Th

The adjective
can always f
adjective can
A (nice) wom
job interview
The same sen
*Nice showe
The exception
verbless sente
This woman i
The use of
abbreviation
This woman i

11.2.1 Phras

There are nou
more than on
the noun head
attached to th
adjective and
one that is pr
are of equal s

a big
a ne
a be

The [noun + adjective] phrase can also occupy the predicate position in a verbless sentence. Past and future tenses are indicated by the addition of the verb 'to be'.

<u>Present</u>	This is a <u>sad story</u> .	זה סיפור עצוב.
<u>Past</u>	This was an <u>interesting act</u> .	זאת הייתה פעולה מעניינת.
<u>Future</u>	These will be <u>important events</u> .	אלה יהיו אירועים חשובים.

Note

The predicate phrase is indefinite as a rule. There can be some contexts in which the predicate phrase is definite:

<u>Indefinite</u>	His story is a <u>sad story</u> .	הסיפור שלו סיפור עצוב.
<u>Definite</u>	This is <u>his sad story</u> .	זה הסיפור העצוב שלו.

The adjective is an optional component of the noun phrase. The noun can always function without the adjective in a viable sentence; the adjective cannot constitute a viable phrase by itself.

A (nice) woman came for the job interview.
אישה (נחמדה) באה להתראיין לעבודה.

The same sentence is not viable without the head noun:

*Nice showed up for the interview.
*נחמדה באה להתראיין.

The exception to this rule is when adjectives function as predicates in verbless sentences such as in the following example:

This woman is nice.
האישה הזאת נחמדה.

The use of the adjective as a predicate is seen by some as an abbreviation of the use of a full noun phrase:

This woman is a nice woman.
האישה הזאת אישה נחמדת.

11.2.1 Phrases with more than one adjective

There are noun phrases with a string of two adjectives or more. When more than one adjective is involved, the relationship between them and the noun head can be of two kinds. In one, the conjunction -ו 'and' is attached to the final adjective, and a comma is inserted after the first adjective and after subsequent ones, except for the last adjective, the one that is preceded by the conjunction. The two, three etc. adjectives are of equal status with respect to the head:

a big house	בית גדול
a new, big house	בית גדול וחדש
a beautiful, new, big house	בית גדול, חדש ויפה

אפשר לראות את הסרט הזה בקולנוע בקניון.

ההצגה החדשה מתחילה ה

יש מלצר אחד חדש וחמישה מלצרים ותיקים במסעדה

is indefinite. When definite. The definite

the new

יש הצגה חדשה בתיאטרון הקאמרי.

שמעתי שכדאי לראות את החדשה.

reverse of that in the position and the noun is building big בניין גדול ספרייה.

and do not reflect any rule for Hebrew, where

duced by the definite plural components of the

הבניין הגדול
המרכז העירוני החדש

11.2.2 Agreement in gender and number with the head noun

When an adjective accompanies a noun the gender is marked by the overt features, which are part of the adjective forms. Gender in adjectives is always marked transparently, which often is not the case in nouns. The suffixes of the adjectives are regular: the feminine singular is marked by ה- or ת-, the masculine plural ending is ים- and the feminine plural ending is ות-.

Note

Notice how in the following examples, the masculine plural noun ending is either *-im* or *-ot*, while the masculine plural adjective always ends in *-im*.

Masculine plural noun suffix –ot		Masculine plural noun suffix –im	
<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחיד</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
חלונות גבוהים	חלון גבוה	שחקנים טובים	שחקן טוב
tall windows	a tall window	good players	a good player

Similarly, notice how in the following examples, the feminine plural noun ending is either *-im* or *-ot*, while the feminine plural adjective always ends in *-ot*.

Feminine plural noun suffix –im		Feminine plural noun suffix –ot	
<u>רבות</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>רבות</u>	<u>יחידה</u>
ערים גדולות	עיר גדולה	בריכות קטנות	בריכה קטנה
big cities	a big city	small pools	a small pool

Note

One way in which a learner can find out the gender of a noun is when it is part of a noun phrase that includes an adjective. The form of the adjective overtly indicates the gender of the noun it modifies. In a phrase such as עיר קטנה ‘a small city’, while עיר does not have an overt feminine feature, the adjective does, and thus identifies the noun as feminine.

11.3 Comparison

11.3.1 Comparison

A comparison of two things is made by using the comparative form of an adjective. Adjectives can be compared in terms of the quality they possess.

Suspense movie is more interesting than the other movie. This movie is better than the one we saw last week.

11.3.2 Formation

1. The adverb *יותר* is added to an adjective. It precedes the adjective (‘less good’).
2. The two things being compared are in the same order as in the original sentence. An example: *ההופעה הייתה יותר טובה מן ההופעה הקודמת.* The order of the items is the same.

Item 2

ללמידת
ללמידת

Note

1. In common usage, the comparative form can be changed to the superlative form. The meaning of the superlative form is ‘the best’.
2. The adverb *הכי* is used when adding adjectives to nouns.

with the head noun

Gender is marked by the
ive forms. Gender in
h often is not the case
regular: the feminine
plural ending is ם- and

masculine plural noun
plural adjective always

plural noun suffix –im

יחיד

שחקן טוב
a good player

es, the feminine plural
feminine plural adjective

plural noun suffix –ot

יחידה

בריכה קטנה
a small pool

er of a noun is when it
itive. The form of the
oun it modifies. In a
does not have an overt
identifies the noun as

11.3 Comparative and superlative adjective phrases**11.3.1 Comparative phrases****צירופי השוואה/יתרון**

A comparison can be made between two items of the same class. Adjectives can be used to compare two nouns in regard to some quality they possess.

Suspense movies are more interesting than romantic movies.

סרטי מתח יותר מעניינים מסרטים רומנטיים.

This movie is less interesting than the one we saw yesterday.

הסרט הזה פחות מעניין מהסרט שראינו אתמול.

11.3.2 Forming a comparative adjectival structure

1. The adverbs יותר 'more' or פחות 'less' are the first items that are added to an adjective when two entities are compared. They usually precede the adjective: יותר טוב 'better (more good)' or פחות טוב (less good)'.

2. The two components being compared have to be linked to make the comparison. The link to the second noun/noun phrase follows the adjective, and the equivalent of the English adverb 'than' is represented in Hebrew either by מ- or by מאשר.

An example is presented here, for a comparison between the performance of Student A and that of Student B (in the right to left order of the Hebrew structure):

Item 2	Than	Adjective	More/less	Item 1
תלמיד ב'	מ/מאשר	טוב	יותר	תלמיד א'
תלמיד א'	מ/מאשר	טוב	פחות	תלמיד ב'

Note

1. In common use the word order of the comparative adjective phrase can be changed: גדול יותר or יותר גדול 'larger'. It does not change the meaning of the phrase.

2. The adverbs of comparison יותר and פחות can be intensified by adding adverbs of degree or intensification: קצת יותר, הרבה יותר.

Such phrases consist of the following parts (in the order of their appearance):

1. Adverb of degree, such as הרבה/קצת 'a lot/a bit'
2. Adverb of comparison יותר/פחות
3. Adjective
4. Providing the link מ/מאשר

A <u>lot more</u> important than	... הרבה יותר חשוב מ...
A <u>bit more</u> important than	... קצת יותר גדול מ...
A <u>lot less</u> serious than	... הרבה פחות רציני מ...
A <u>bit less</u> scary than	... קצת פחות מפחיד מ...

11.3.3 Superlative phrases

צירופי הפלגה

Meaning

Adjectives are not absolute values. Their quality or intensity can be evaluated by their status within a group of nouns they modify. A person can be the tallest in a certain group, or the tallest in the world.

The superlative adjective is a form of an adjective used to express the highest or most intense degree of the quality being attributed. The label 'superlative' does not suggest a value judgment, but a position on the spectrum of a particular quality, e.g., between the least hot and hottest:

הקי פחות חם הקי חם
 - < _____ חם _____ > +

Form: most

There are two ways to form superlative adjectives:

1. One way to form a superlative adjective is to add the adverb ביותר 'most' to modify the adjective. The adjective is usually definite and ביותר follows it:

This is the most frightening movie זה הסרט המפחיד ביותר שראיתי אי פעם.
I have ever seen.

2. The second option is the preferred form in speech and it is the one in which the degree adverb הכי is used to express the superlative. It also means 'the most'. It precedes the adjective. The adverb הכי is considered to include the feature of definiteness, and therefore the adjective does not have a definite article.

This is the most frightening movie זה הסרט הכי מפחיד שראיתי אי פעם.
I have ever seen.

Since adverb
adjective they
the most seri

Form: 'least'

The adverb
extreme at th
as the tallest
'least', and it
a new adverb

As mentione
by the adver
הכי פחות refe

Positive
Negative
Neutral

11.3.4 Too

Adjectives ca
intensity, de
adverb מדי is
מדי 'too exce

There are var
follow the
abbreviated
be changed t
by מדי o

the order of their

bit'

הרבה יותר חשוב

קצת יותר גדול

הרבה פחות רציני

קצת פחות מפחית

צירופי הפלגה

or intensity can be
y modify. A person
the world.

used to express the
attributed. The label
ut a position on the
ast hot and hottest:

הכי חם

> +

add the adverb ביותר
usually definite and

זה הסרט המפחיד ביותר
פעם.

h and it is the one in
e superlative. It also

The adverb הכי is
s, and therefore the

זה הסרט הכי מפחיד
פעם.

Since adverbs have a fixed form, the gender and number features of the adjective they modify do not influence them:

the <u>most</u> serious	הכי רציני	הרציני ביותר
	הכי רצינית	הרצינית ביותר
	הכי רציניים	הרציניים ביותר
	הכי רציניות	הרציניות ביותר

Form: 'least'

The adverb 'the least' is also a superlative of sorts. It describes an extreme at the other end of the spectrum. A person can be described not as the tallest but rather as the least tall. In Hebrew there is no term for 'least', and it is expressed by combining two adverbs הַכִּי פְּחוֹת to form a new adverbial phrase that precedes the adjective.

the <u>least</u> serious	הכי פחות רציני
	הכי פחות רצינית
	הכי פחות רציניים
	הכי פחות רציניות

As mentioned earlier, the positive or negative values are not determined by the adverbs, but rather semantically, by the adjective. The adverb הַכִּי פְּחוֹת refers only to the degree or intensity.

Positive	The <u>least</u> dangerous	הכי פחות מסוכן
Negative	The <u>least</u> tasty	הכי פחות טעים
Neutral	The <u>least</u> known	הכי פחות ידוע

11.3.4 Too much or not enough?

Adjectives can also be modified to indicate either excessive or too little intensity, degree or amount. To indicate excessiveness, the degree adverb מְדִי is used. It too can be used for either end of the scale, יותר 'too excessive', or פחות מְדִי 'too little'.

There are variant forms to express excess. The adverb מְדִי by itself can follow the adjective without adding יותר (מדי פחות מדי) cannot be abbreviated in such a manner). In informal speech the word order can be changed to an adjective followed by מְדִי. 'Too hot' can be expressed by חם מְדִי or by חם מדי.

The soup is too hot.

המרק מדי חם.

המרק חם מדי.

המרק יותר מדי חם.

המרק חם יותר מדי.

To express the notion of 'less than expected', or 'not enough', in addition to פחות מדי, the adverbial expression לא מספיק 'not enough' can modify the adjective.

The soup is not hot enough.

המרק לא מספיק חם.

המרק לא חם מספיק.

Or by paraphrasing it:

The soup is too cold.

המרק קר מדי.

More illustrations:

This book is too difficult

הספר הזה יותר מדי קשה.

הספר הזה קשה מדי.

הספר הזה מדי קשה.

The photos are not clear enough.

הצילומים לא מספיק ברורים.

הצילומים פחות מדי ברורים.

11.4 Apposition noun phrases

צירופי תמורה

An apposition is a construction consisting of two or more adjacent nouns or noun phrases that have identical referents, each of which could potentially be independent of the other. In the following example both החבר שלי and יונתן refer to the same person.

My friend Jonathan decided to join us.

החבר שלי יונתן החליט להצטרף אלינו.

When the two nouns or noun phrases appear side by side, referring to the same entity, they are without a preposition or a conjunction to connect them. In phrases of apposition each of these nouns has to be able to function as an independent unit and if we omit one of the two, the syntactic structure will still be intact.

My friend decided to join us.

החבר שלי החליט להצטרף אלינו.

Jonathan decided to join us.

יונתן החליט להצטרף אלינו.

Apposition phrase in object slot, or

Noun + Name

The city (of) H

Noun + Noun

Israel is a mem

Noun + Name

We received a

director, Dan E

The slots in the

by noun phrase

Noun + Name

Prime Minister

declared the ind

State of Israel.

First noun phr

The Prime Min

independence o

Israel.

Name phrase a

David Ben-Gur

independence o

Israel.

11.5 Constr

There are noun

relationship. Th

nature. The first

the second noun

המרק מדי חם.

המרק חם מדי.

המרק יותר מדי חם.

המרק חם יותר מדי.

or 'not enough', in
'not enough' לא מספיק

המרק לא מספיק חם.

המרק לא חם מספיק.

המרק קר מדי.

הספר הזה יותר מדי קשה

הספר הזה קשה מדי.

הספר הזה מדי קשה.

הצילומים לא מספיק ברר

הצילומים פחות מדי ברור

צירופי תמורה

two or more adjacent
elements, each of which
the following example

החבר שלי יונתן החליט ל
אלינו.

side by side, referring to
two nouns or a conjunction to
the first of these nouns has to be
omitted. One of the two,

החבר שלי החליט להצטרף
יונתן החליט להצטרף אלינו

Apposition phrases can fill the subject slot, the predicate slot, or the object slot, or follow prepositions.

Noun + Name Apposition Phrase (both function as subject)

The city (of) Haifa is in the North. העיר חיפה נמצאת בצפון.

Noun + Noun Apposition Phrase (both function as predicate)

Israel is a member state in the UN. ישראל היא מדינה תברה באו"ם.

Noun + Name Apposition Phrase (both function as object)

We received a letter from the קיבלנו מכתב מהמנהל דן עדן.
director, Dan Eden.

The slots in the apposition phrase can be filled by either single nouns or by noun phrases.

Noun + Name Apposition Phrase

Prime Minister David Ben-Gurion ראש הממשלה דוד בן-גוריון הכריז
declared the independence of the על עצמאותה של מדינת ישראל.
State of Israel.

First noun phrase as head of entire phrase

The Prime Minister declared the ראש הממשלה הכריז על עצמאותה של
independence of the State of מדינת ישראל.
Israel.

Name phrase as head of entire phrase:

David Ben-Gurion declared the דוד בן-גוריון הכריז על עצמאותה של
independence of the State of מדינת ישראל.
Israel.

11.5 Construct phrases (noun + noun) צירופי סמיכות

There are noun phrases composed of two or three nouns in a dependent relationship. The relationship may be of possession, or of some other nature. The first noun is the head noun, or nucleus of the phrase, and the second noun functions as the attribute of the first noun:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Literal translation</u>	<u>סמיכות</u>
a press conference	<i>a party of journalists</i>	מסיבת עיתונאים
a vegetable store	<i>a store for vegetables</i>	חנות ירקות
party members	<i>members of a political party</i>	חברי מפלגה

Note

The relationship between these nouns is different from that of apposition. The nouns concerned are not (potentially) independent, but bound to one another in a formal way and also by meaning. The term צירופי סמיכות 'construct phrases' is used to refer to such [noun + noun] phrases.

11.5.1 Types of construct phrases

Three types of phrases are considered to be in a סמיכות relationship, expressed by three different structures:

	<u>צירופי סמיכות:</u>
<u>1</u> Ordinary (bound) construct	סמיכות רגילה (דבוקה/חבורה)
<u>2</u> Separated construct	סמיכות מפרקת/פרודה
<u>3</u> Double construct	סמיכות כפולה

In many cases all three structures can be used to convey the same meaning, but their formation is slightly different. Here is an example of three options of forming such construct phrases:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Construct phrase</u>	<u>Construct type</u>
The emperor's clothes	בגדי הקיסר	1. סמיכות רגילה
	הבגדים של הקיסר	2. סמיכות מפורקת
	בגדיו של הקיסר	3. סמיכות כפולה

In this section we will deal mostly with the ordinary construct phrase, and the double construct phrase. The separated construct phrase is dealt with in more detail in this chapter in the discussion of phrases of possession.

Since the meanings of these different construct phrases are identical, the choice of which of these structures to use is often a matter of style. In common use, speakers frequently opt for the separated construct, i.e. the possession prepositional phrase הבגדים של הקיסר 'the clothes of the emperor'. In the written mode and in mid-higher registers of speech, language users commonly use the double construct בגדיו של הקיסר

(literally: 'his
following no
do use forms
father', וישנו
terms are fo
'Hayyim's w
description o
The ordinary
registers of fo

**11.5.2 Construct
Forms and use**

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as שם נסמך,
noun, the mo
סומך, literally

Definite and

In indefinite c
2 noun phrase
3 noun phrase

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2 noun phrase
3 noun phrase

The head nou
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Singular > Pl

To change a
undergoes a c

Gloss

a coffeehouse
coffeehouses

סמיכות

- מסיבת עיתונאים
- חנות ירקות
- חברי מפלגה

fferent from that of
ially) independent, but
by meaning. The term
to such [noun + noun]

a סמיכות relationship,

צירופי סמיכות:

- סמיכות רגילה (נדבוקה/חם)
- סמיכות מפרקת/פרודה
- סמיכות כפולה

l to convey the same
Here is an example of

Construct type

- 1. סמיכות רגילה
- 2. סמיכות מפרקת
- 3. סמיכות כפולה

primary construct phrase,
construct phrase is dealt
discussion of phrases of

phrases are identical,
often a matter of style.
separated construct, i.e.
הבגד 'the clothes of the
er registers of speech,
construct של הקיסר בגדיו

(literally: 'his clothes of the emperor', where 'his' refers to the following noun: 'emperor'). Since in frequent kinship terms, speakers do use forms with possessive suffixes in daily speech, e.g., אביו 'his father', אשתו 'his wife', double construct expressions containing such terms are found in everyday usage as well, e.g., אשתו של חיים 'Hayyim's wife', אביו של מיכאל 'Michael's father' (For a detailed description of possessive pronoun suffixes, see Chapter 6 – Pronouns). The ordinary construct בגדי הקיסר is more frequently found in higher registers of formal Hebrew, or in fixed expressions.

11.5.2 Construct phrases: form and meaning

Forms and underlying structures of ordinary סמיכות

The two parts of the construct phrase are perceived in traditional grammar as having a dependency relationship. The head noun is considered dependent on the noun or nouns that follow it, and is known as שם נסמך, literally 'supported noun'. By the same token, the second noun, the modifier, is considered the supporter, and is known as שם סומך, literally 'a supporting noun'.

Definite and indefinite construct phrases

In indefinite construct phrases, both סומך and נסמך are indefinite:

- 2 noun phrase a bank director מנהל בנק
- 3 noun phrase a bank workers' organization ארגון עובדי בנק

In definite construct phrases only the last noun of the סמיכות has a definite article:

- 2 noun phrase the bank director מנהל הבנק
- 3 noun phrase the bank workers' organization ארגון עובדי הבנק

The head noun השם הנסמך may be the same as the independent form, but in many cases has a variant form, which displays an overt indication of its syntactic position and function.

Singular > Plural

To change a construct phrase to plural, the first noun, the *head noun*, undergoes a change in number. The second noun does not change.

Gloss	סמיכות	Head noun
a coffeehouse	בית קפה	בית (ז) (בית-)
coffeehouses	בתי קפה	בתיים (בתי-)

a Sabbath meal	סְעוּדַת שַׁבָּת	סְעוּדָה (נ) (סְעוּדַת-)
Sabbath meals	סְעוּדוֹת שַׁבָּת	סְעוּדוֹת (סְעוּדוֹת-)

The dependent noun: changes in shape

In many noun classes there is a predictable change of shape of the first noun of the סְמִיכוֹת, resulting from its being assigned a lower degree of stress than the second noun. In the examples below, in one phrase the first noun stands alone, and has an independent form, and in the second phrase it is part of a [noun + noun] phrase and undergoes some change.

This is an immigrant problem. זאת בְּעֵינָהּ של מהגרים. < זאת בְּעֵינָהּ מהגרים.

The literature classes are interesting. השיעורים לספרות מעניינים. < השיעורי הספרות מעניינים.

This is our study (=our work room). זה החדר שבו אנחנו עובדים. < זה החדר העבודה שלנו.

Some changes in form in the שם נסמך are predictable:

1. In feminine singular nouns ending in *-a*, ה- , such as בְּעֵינָהּ, the final ending changes in the following way: ה- > ת-. The vowel sign changes from *kamats* to *pataḥ*, but it is pronounced the same.

שִׁירָה < שִׁירַת-	שְׂמֹלֶה < שְׂמֹלֶת-	פִּינָה < פִּינַת	יְלֵדָה < יְלֵדַת-
שִׁירַת ברבור	שְׂמֹלֶת משי	פִּינַת רחוב	יְלֵדַת חלום
swan song	silk dress	street corner	dream girl

2. In masculine plural nouns that end in *-im*, such as שִׁיעוּרִים, the final ם- is omitted and the vowel is changed to *-ey*: שִׁיעוּרֵי- > שִׁיעוּרִים. Some stem vowels are subject to change as well (Note changes in the plural of *segolate* nouns, Chapter 5).

צוּפִים < צוּפֵי-	חִילִים < חִילֵי-	סְפָרִים < סְפָרֵי-	יְלָדִים < יְלָדֵי-
צוּפֵי ים	חִילֵי בדיל	סְפָרֵי לימוד	יְלָדֵי בית ספר
sea scouts	lead soldiers	textbooks	school kids

3. It is also predictable that feminine plural nouns ending in *-ot*, such as תַּלְמִידוֹת, will not undergo any change at the end of the word, though vowels may change within the stem, as a result of stress shift.

4. In general from stress s
vowel of the
secondary st
weakened or
vowel *a* is C
phrase עֵשְׂרֵה

יְקַדְנִים
יְקַדְנֵי גֵיאוֹ
jazz dancers

Construct n
Gloss
thing
language
memory

Construct n
Gloss
hammer
carpenter
map
Note: althou
the following

Types of co
The head of
categories:
1. The head
Phrase:

2. The head
Phrase:

3. The head
Phrase:

סְעוּדָה (נ) (סְעוּדָת-)
סְעוּדוֹת (סְעוּדוֹת-)

of shape of the first
ed a lower degree of
w, in one phrase the
m, and in the second
ergoes some change.

זאת בְּעֵינָה של מהגרים.

השיעורים לְספרות
מעניינים.

זה הַחֶדֶר שבו אנחנו
עובדים.

le:
uch as בְּעֵינָה, the final
e vowel sign changes

e.
ילדה < ילְדָת- פינר
ילדת חלום פינת
dream girl dner

as השיעורים, the final
שיעורי- > שיעור
changes in the plural

ילדים < ילְדִי- ס
ילדי בית ספר ס
school kids ts

ending in -וֹת, such as
of the word, though
stress shift.

4. In general, vowel changes in the first noun of a סְמִיכוֹת phrase result from stress shift. The primary stress of the phrase falls on the stressed vowel of the last noun, and the stress of the first one is reduced to secondary stress. Consequently, unstressed vowels in the first noun are weakened or deleted altogether. Thus, in the noun בְּנוֹת 'girls', the first vowel *a* is omitted, and the noun is now בְּנוֹת- *bnót-*, such as in the phrase בְּנוֹת שֵׁשׁ עָשָׂר 'sixteen years old': *banót* > *bnòt shésh esrè*.

No change in form		Internal vowel change	
רקדנים	נְנוֹת	בְּנִים	בְּנוֹת
רקדני ג'אז	נְנוֹת כְּנור	בְּנֵי שְׂמוֹנֶה עָשָׂר	בְּנוֹת שֵׁשׁ עָשָׂר
jazz dancers	violin players	18 years old	16 years old

Construct noun 1, שֵׁם נִסְמָךְ, undergoes internal changes:

Gloss		Plural		Singular
thing	דְּבָרִי-	דְּבָרִים	דְּבַר-	דְּבַר
language	שְׂפוֹת-	שְׂפוֹת	שְׂפַת-	שְׂפָה
memory	זְכָרוֹנֹת-	זְכָרוֹת	זְכָרוֹן-	זְכָרוֹן

Construct noun 1, שֵׁם נִסְמָךְ, does not undergo internal changes:

Gloss		Plural		Singular
hammer	פְּטִישִׁי-	פְּטִישִׁים	פְּטִיש-	פְּטִיש
carpenter	נְגָרִי-	נְגָרִים	נְגָר-	נְגָר
map	מַפּוֹת-	מַפּוֹת	מַפְּת-	מַפָּה

Note: although the first vowel here is also *a*, it is unaffected because of the following *dagesh hazak*, which 'protects' it from reduction.

Types of construct phrase heads

The head of the construct phrase can be of a number of different categories:

1. The head can be a noun: (של שירה מתורגמת) לְקַט

Phrase: a translated poetry anthology [לְקַט שִׁירָה] מתורגמת

2. The head can be a noun-quantifier: (הספרים) רֹב

Phrase: most/the majority of his books [רֹב הַסְפָּרִים] שלו

3. The head can be an adjective: (תואר) יָפֵה

Phrase: a good looking guy [יָפֵה תוֹאֵר] בחור

המפגע

[מפעיל המכשיר] הזה

כשהייתי ילד אהבתי

לרכוב על [תלת-אופן].

ns of a sentence or a
perceived to be the

למהגרים יש בעיה.

בעיה של מהגרים

בעיית מהגרים

החופים הם לרחצה.

חופים לרחצה

חופי רחצה

compound nounsconstruct phrases, which
d noun status. Most of
paraphrased by the
can the sum of the two**סמיכות**

בית כנסת

בית ספר

עורך דין

ראש עיר

semantic unit, they still
g. They also maintain
ases: the head noun

determines the gender and number of the phrase, and when the phrase is definite, the definite article precedes the second noun: בית הכנסת, עורך הדין, ראש העיר. Some of these phrases are undergoing a change of status to becoming true compound nouns when they begin to be written as one word, and when the unit is treated grammatically as one word, such as having the definite article prefixed to the new compound word. It occurs informally at first in daily speech, when speakers begin to use such compounds, as in הבית-ספר, or in דין-העורך. It eventually gets reflected in writing, when first, the two separate words בית ספר are written as a hyphenated phrase, בית-ספר. In informal writing, בן-אדם 'human being' is often represented as בנאדם, and occasionally even בנדם, to reflect everyday pronunciation. The continuously changing status of these noun combinations can also be seen in the free variation choices of עורך-דין שלנו side by side with עורך הדין שלנו, with the latter becoming much more common in use, but still perceived by some as substandard. In all the above structures the plural form maintains the two noun structure: בתי ספר, עורכי דין, בני אדם.

In the final step of the process of becoming a single unit, the two components of this structure become one word. For instance, the combination of basketball began as two separate words כדור סל, but now they have become one word, כדורסל, like their English counterparts. The combination סוף שבוע 'week end' is well on its way to becoming one unit, סופשבוע, both in speech and in writing. For instance, the daily newspaper *Maariv* has a special weekend section called סופשבוע. However, the plural form maintains the two noun structure 'weekends'.

11.5.4 Meanings of construct phrases

When the components of the construct phrase combine they often create a new concept. The meaning of the new unit depends partially on the kind of association there is between the nouns. The structure is not totally open, as there are semantic restrictions on what appropriate combinations there can be. To form a construct phrase from a noun such as חוף (ז) 'shore/beach', it needs to be complemented by a noun that refers to a body of water, the purpose it serves, or the name of a particular beach.

Eilat beach	חוף אילת	seashore	חוף ים
river bank	חוף נהר	swimming beaches	חופי רחצה

Some of the main groups, classified in terms of their semantic relationship between the nouns, are listed here:

1. Connection of possession:

סמיכות	public funds	פְּסָפֵי הַצִּיבּוֹר
Paraphrase	funds that belong to the public	פְּסָפִים שְׁשֵׁיכִים לַצִּיבּוֹר

סמיכות	the club members	חֲבָרֵי הַמוֹעֵדוֹן
Paraphrase	the members that belong to the club	חֲבָרִים שְׁשֵׁיכִים לַמוֹעֵדוֹן

2. Connection of material - made from/of:

סמיכות	a silk dress	שִׁמְלַת מִשֵּׁי
Paraphrase	a dress made from silk	שִׁמְלָה עֲשׂוּיָה מִמִּשֵּׁי

סמיכות	a paper tiger	נֶמֶר נִיר
Paraphrase	a tiger made from paper	נֶמֶר עֲשׂוּי מִנִּיר

3. Connection of function - for the purpose of:

סמיכות	a cargo plane	מְטוֹס הוֹבֵלָה
Paraphrase	a plane for carrying cargo	מְטוֹס מִיוֹעַד לְהוֹבֵלָה

סמיכות	a bedroom	חֲדַר שֵׁנָה
Paraphrase	a room for sleeping	חֲדַר מִיוֹעַד לְשֵׁנָה

4. Connection of location - comes from/is located at:

סמיכות	laboratory animals	חַיּוֹת מֵעֵבֶדָה
Paraphrase	the animals in the laboratory	חַיּוֹת שֶׁנִּמְצְאוּ בַּמֵּעֵבֶדָה

סמיכות	the city streets	חֲחוּבוֹת הָעִיר
Paraphrase	the streets of the city	חֲחוּבוֹת בְּעִיר

5. Connection of time:

סמיכות	the summer vacation	חֻפְּשַׁת הַקִּיץ
Paraphrase	the vacation during the summer	חֻפְּשָׁה בְּזִמְן הַקִּיץ

סמיכות	a ten o'clock snack	אַרוֹחַת עֶשֶׂר
Paraphrase	a snack at ten o'clock	אַרוֹחָה בְּשַׁעַת עֶשֶׂר

6. Cause and

סמיכות
Paraphrase

סמיכות
Paraphrase

7. Connectio

סמיכות
Paraphrase

סמיכות
Paraphrase

8. Connectio

סמיכות
Paraphrase

סמיכות
Paraphrase

9. Connectio

סמיכות
Paraphrase

סמיכות
Paraphrase

Note

Some comb
different wa
סמיכות
Paraphrase
Paraphrase 2

Adjectival p
of such a pl
have a varia

of their semantic

כְּסָפֵי הַצִּיבּוֹר
כְּסָפִים שְׁשִׁיכִים לַצִּבּוֹר

חֲבָרֵי הַמוֹעֵדוֹן
חֲבָרִים שְׁשִׁיכִים לַמוֹעֵדוֹן

שְׁמֵלַת מִשִּׁי
שְׁמֵלָה עֲשׂוּיָה מִמִּשִּׁי

נְגִיז נִיר
נְגִיז עֲשׂוּי מִנִּיר

מְטוֹס הוֹבֵלָה
מְטוֹס מִיוֹעֵד לַהוֹבֵלָה

חֲדָר שִׁינָה
חֲדָר מִיוֹעֵד לַשִּׁינָה

חִיּוֹת מַעֲבָדָה
חִיּוֹת שֶׁנִּמְצְאוּ בַּמַּעֲבָדָה

רְחוֹבוֹת הָעִיר
רְחוֹבוֹת בְּעִיר

חֹפֶשֶׁת הַקִּיץ
חֹפֶשֶׁת בְּזִמְנֵי הַקִּיץ

אֲרוֹחַת עֶשֶׂר
אֲרוֹחָה בְּשַׁעַר עֶשֶׂר

6. Cause and effect:

סְמִיכוֹת	battle/shell shock	הֶלֶם קָרֵב
Paraphrase	shock cause by battle	הֶלֶם שֶׁנִּגְרַם עַל יְדֵי קָרֵב

סְמִיכוֹת	altitude sickness	מַחְלַת גְּבוּהִים
Paraphrase	sickness caused by high altitudes	מַחְלָה שֶׁנִּגְרַמַּת עַל יְדֵי גְבוּהִים

7. Connection to actor:

סְמִיכוֹת	howling of jackals	יְלָלוֹת תַּנִּים
Paraphrase	the howling jackals make	יְלָלוֹת שֶׁמֵיִלְלִים תַּנִּים

סְמִיכוֹת	a court's decree	צֶוּ בֵּית הַמִּשְׁפָּט
Paraphrase	a decree made by the court	הַצֵּוּ שֶׁבֵּית הַמִּשְׁפָּט פָּסַק

8. Connection to object of action:

סְמִיכוֹת	respect for elders	כִּיבוּד הוֹרִים
Paraphrase	respect given to elders	הַכְּבוֹד שֶׁנּוֹתְנִים לַהוֹרִים

סְמִיכוֹת	children's education	חִינוּךְ יְלָדִים
Paraphrase	education given to children	הַחִינוּךְ שֶׁנּוֹתְנִים לַיְלָדִים

9. Connection of quantity/measure, or of vessel containing matter:

סְמִיכוֹת	a milk bottle	בְּקָבוֹק חֵלֶב
Paraphrase	a bottle that contains milk	בְּקָבוֹק שֶׁמְכִיל חֵלֶב

סְמִיכוֹת	a fruit basket	סַל פִּירוֹת
Paraphrase	a basket containing fruit	סַל שֶׁמְכִיל פִּירוֹת

Note

Some combinations are ambiguous and can be interpreted in two different ways, with two different underlying structures:

סְמִיכוֹת	a wine glass	כּוֹס יַיִן
Paraphrase 1	a glass that contains wine	כּוֹס שֶׁמְכִילָה יַיִן
Paraphrase 2	a glass for wine (a type of glass)	כּוֹס לַיַּיִן

Adjectival phrases can be created out of construct phrases. The nucleus of such a phrase is usually an adjective in a נִסְמָךְ form, and thus may have a variant dependent form, followed by a noun, to which it directly

relates and to which it provides some kind of attribution. For instance, 'golden-haired' is in Hebrew literally 'golden as to hair' זָהוּב שֵׁיעָר. These are bound phrases that cannot be taken apart.

10. Connection of descriptive adjective:

סמיכות	good-hearted	טוב לב
Paraphrase	he has a good heart	יש לו לב טוב
סמיכות	experienced/with experience	בעלת ניסיון
Paraphrase	she has experience	יש לה ניסיון
סמיכות	unprecedented	חסר תקדים
Paraphrase	it has no precedence	אין לו תקדים
סמיכות	good-looking/handsome	יפה תואר
Paraphrase	with good looks	עם מראה חיצוני יפה

11.5.5 Construct phrase modified by adjectives

The construct phrase can be further modified by an adjective. It can be definite or indefinite.

In the indefinite phrase, both nouns appear without an article. If the phrase is modified by an adjective, the adjective has no article either.

(Adjectives in these phrases modify the head noun of the phrase).

	2. תואר	1. צירוף סמיכות
an old school	ישן	בית ספר (ז)
a veteran Knesset member	ותיקה	חברת כנסת (נ)
splendid office buildings	מפוארים	בנייני משרדים (ז.ר.)

In definite phrases, only the second noun has the definite article attached to it. It makes the entire phrase definite. If there is an adjective that modifies the phrase, a definite article is also prefixed to it.

the old school	הישן	בבית הספר
----------------	------	-----------

When the two nouns have the same gender and number, and the adjective reflects that gender and number, it is at times ambiguous which of the nouns is being modified.

Option 1

an important capital
a large state capital
new students'

Option 2

a manager of a capital of a large state
exams of new students
parcels of blue flowers

11.5.6 Word Construct as

The construct phrase can be modified by an adjective. The adjective can be a head noun, and the noun is added to it. The noun phrases are modified by a preposition of the noun phrases).
pronoun suffix.

my school
the capital city

סמיכות with possessive
The סמיכות phrase is used in the order of the

my old school
the narrow alley

A comparative
Compare the words in the order of the
our beautiful capital
our +(beautiful -

1. The first and the second nouns are in the order of the

tribution. For instance,
as to hair' שיָעַר שֵׁער.
rt.

טוב לב
יש לו לב טוב

בְּעֵלֶת נִיסוּן
יש לה ניסיון

חָסֵר תְּקֵדִים
אין לו תְּקֵדִים

יָפֵה תּוֹאֵר
עם מראה חיצוני יָפֵה

atives

an adjective. It can be

without an article. If the
has no article either.

of the phrase).

1. צִירוּף סְמִיכוּת

בית ספר (ז)

חברת כנסת (נ)

בנייני משרדים (ז.ר).

s the definite article

if there is an adjective

prefixed to it.

בבית הַסֵּפֶר

and number, and the

at times ambiguous

<u>Option 1</u>	2. תּוֹאֵר	1. צִירוּף סְמִיכוּת
an <u>important</u> office <u>manager</u>	חֲשׁוּב	מְנַהֵל מְשׂוֹרֵד
a <u>large</u> state <u>capital</u>	גְּדוּלָה	בִּירַת מְדִינָה
<u>new</u> students' <u>dormitories</u>	חֲדָשִׁים	מְעוֹנוֹת סְטוּדֵנְטִים

<u>Option 2</u>	3. תּוֹאֵר	2. שֵׁם	1. שֵׁם
a manager of an <u>important</u> office	חֲשׁוּב	מְשׂוֹרֵד	מְנַהֵל
a capital of a <u>large</u> state	גְּדוּלָה	מְדִינָה	בִּירַת
exams of <u>new</u> students	חֲדָשִׁים	סְטוּדֵנְטִים	מְבַחְנֵי
parcels of <u>blue</u> shirts	כְּחוֹלוֹת	חֹלְצוֹת	חֲבִילוֹת

11.5.6 Word order in phrases with סְמִיכוּת

Construct as part of possessive phrases

The construct phrase can be part of a possessive phrase. The construct phrase can be viewed as constituting one unit that fills the slot of the head noun, and the possessive preposition with a noun or pronoun is added to it. The phrase is usually definite (see above rules of possessive noun phrases). The phrase סְמִיכוּת functions as the head noun, and the preposition of possession של follows, complemented by a noun or a pronoun suffix.

	2. של +	1. סְמִיכוּת
my school	שְׁלִי	בֵּית הַסֵּפֶר
the capital city of Israel	שֶׁל יִשְׂרָאֵל	עִיר הַבִּירָה

סְמִיכוּת with possessive prepositions and adjectives

The סְמִיכוּת phrase can have an adjective that modifies it. In this case the order of the three components is as follows:

	3. של	2. תּוֹאֵר	1. סְמִיכוּת
my old school	שְׁלִי	הַיָּשֵׁן	בֵּית הַסֵּפֶר
the narrow alleys of Akko	שֶׁל עֵכוֹ	הַצְּרוֹת	סְמִטּוֹת הָעִיר

A comparative note

Compare the word order in English and in Hebrew in the following:

our beautiful capital city.

עִיר הַבִּירָה הַיָּפֵה שֶׁלֵנוּ

our +(beautiful + [city + capital]).

(עִיר הַבִּירָה) + הַיָּפֵה + שֶׁלֵנוּ

1. The first and most notable difference is the word order. In English the order of the components is the reverse from that in Hebrew.

2. There is no definite article in the entire English phrase. The possessive pronoun at the head of the phrase makes the entire phrase definite.
3. There are two definite articles in Hebrew: the first prefixed to the second noun of the סמיכות phrase and the second prefixed to the adjective.

11.5.7 Double construct phrase

סמיכות כפולה

The double construct phrase is known as such because it consists of two possessive structures, one with a possessive pronoun, another with ש, both referring to the same 'possessor'.

The actor's election as state governor brought up many questions.

בחירתו של השחקן למושל המדינה העלתה שאלות רבות.

A pronoun suffix is added to the possessed noun בחירה, yielding בחירתו 'his election'. The suffix shares the same number and gender as the possessor noun השחקן 'the actor' and anticipates its occurrence. The possessor השחקן is then mentioned, following the preposition של. This structure is exclusive to third person suffixes only. The formal restriction is that it must have a pronoun suffixed to the noun, i.e., בחירתו, and cannot be paraphrased by a prepositional phrase הבחירה שלו. The other restriction involves the use with the third person exclusively.

A comparison between an ordinary construct and a double construct:

1. Ordinary construct

the king's clothes clothes of + the king בגדי המלך

2. Double construct

the king's clothes [his clothes] + of [the king] בגדיו של המלך

The following tables display examples of the double construct phrases with singular and plural nouns and pronoun suffixes:

Singular Noun + Prepositional Phrase

the director's house	של המנהל	ביתו	הבית של המנהל
the (f.) teacher's son	של המורה	בנה	הבן של המורה
our parents' house	של ההורים	ביתם	הבית של ההורים
the girls' room	של הבנות	חדרן	החדר של הבנות

Plural Noun +

- David's sons
- Ahuva's sons
- our friends' son
- my relatives'

11.5.8 Semar

The possessor noun with fea possessive rela a group or an fictional charac

Possessive:

- the judge's wife
- Pseudo-posse**
- the nation's prid

It cannot be an In such an und construct expres bedroom golden earrings

11.5.9 Strings

There are consti nouns: the first another construc article is attach definite. the eve of [the W

A three-noun str added to it. The it modifies. on the eve of Wc elementary schoo

English phrase. The
makes the entire phrase

first prefixed to the
and prefixed to the

סמיכות כפולה

because it consists of
pronoun, another with

בחירתו של השחקן למו
המדינה העלתה שאלות

בחירתו yielding, בחיר
er and gender as the
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preposition של. This
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ional phrase הבחירה
with the third person

a double construct:

בגדי המלך

בגדי המלך של המלך

able construct phrases
es:

הבית של המנהל
הבן של המורה
הבית של ההורים
החדר של הבנות

Plural Noun + Prepositional Phrase

David's sons	של דויד	בניו	הבנים של דויד
Ahuva's sons	של אהובה	בניה	הבנים של אהובה
our friends' sons	של החברים שלנו	בניהם	הבנים של החברים
my relatives' sons	של הקרובות שלי	בניהן	הבנים של הקרובות

11.5.8 Semantic restrictions of the possessor noun

The possessor noun, i.e. the second noun of such a phrase, has to be a noun with features that enable it to have a possessive or pseudo-possessive relationship with another noun. It is most often a person, or a group or an institution that represents people, or an animal or a fictional character that is endowed with such qualities.

Possessive:

the judge's wife אשתו של השופט האשה של השופט אשת השופט

Pseudo-possessive:

the nation's pride גאנותו של העם הגאונה של העם גאנות העם

It cannot be an inanimate object, which has no such semantic features. In such an underlying relationship between the two nouns the double construct expression cannot be used.

bedroom חדרה של שינה החדר לשינה חדר + שינה
golden earrings עגילי-של הזהב העגילים מזהב עגילים + זהב

11.5.9 Strings of three-nouns סמיכות מיכות

There are construct phrases where the string of nouns consists of three nouns: the first noun is the head of the phrase and it is modified by another construct phrase. When the phrase is made definite, the definite article is attached to the last noun and it makes the entire phrase definite.

the eve of [the World War]. ערב [מלחמת העולם]

A three-noun string of the סמיכות noun phrase can have an adjective added to it. The adjective follows all the nouns, regardless of which one it modifies.

on the eve of World War II (=the second) ערב מלחמת העולם השנייה
elementary school children תלמידי בתי ספר יסודיים

The adjective can modify the head noun, or it can modify the second or even the third noun. If the nouns have different gender and number features, the form of the adjective helps identify which noun component of the phrase is being modified.

Masculine singular adjective modifies the first noun

The new member of the Labor party. חבר מפלגת העבודה החדש.

- the new member of התבר החדש של
- the Labor party. מפלגת העבודה

Feminine singular adjective modifies the second noun

The member of the present Labor party חבר מפלגת העבודה הנוכחית

- the member of החבר של
- the present Labor party מפלגת העבודה הנוכחית

A comparative note

In English, the three-noun string sequence is usually separated and rendered by a prepositional phrase, with the adjective preceding the specific noun it modifies:

the new pilots of the El Al planes טייסי מטוסי אל-על החדשים

In Hebrew the three nouns appear contiguously whereas in English the phrase is broken up by the preposition 'of' and the adjective is next to the noun it modifies. The sequence *the new El Al plane pilots* would be very awkward and considered ungrammatical.

When all the nouns of the סמיכות have the same number and gender, the adjective can modify all of them and it is not clear which one is being modified. This is the case in the following example, where the feminine singular adjective can modify any one of these three nouns, all of which are feminine singular: אוניברסיטה/תזמורת/מנצחת

the new university orchestra מנצחת תזמורת האוניברסיטה
conductor החדשה

There are three
the new conductor
orchestra
the conductor of
the university
the conductor of
new university
The three-noun
which noun is b

Quantifiers in

Quantifiers can
a state of all its
the two labor or

11.6 Phrases

Phrases of poss
שלי 'my car', fo
'I have a car',
refers to what
refers to whoev
The possessed
the possessor n
noun is החנות
'Whose החנות?

Possessor of
של ההורים
של הם

A comparative

The word order
possessor precede
order is reverse

11.6.1 Posses

Possessive noun
1. A noun that
preposition של,

n modify the second or
nt gender and number
identify which noun

noun

תָּכַר מִפְּלֶגֶת הָעֵבֹדָה הַחֲדָשָׁה
הַחֲבֵר הַחֲדָשׁ שֶׁל
מִפְּלֶגֶת הָעֵבֹדָה

noun

חֲבֵר מִפְּלֶגֶת הָעֵבֹדָה הַחֲדָשָׁה
הַחֲבֵר שֶׁל
מִפְּלֶגֶת הָעֵבֹדָה הַחֲדָשָׁה

usually separated and
adjective preceding the

טֵיִסִי מְטוֹסִי אֶל-עַל הַחֲדָשָׁה

whereas in English the
the adjective is next to
plane pilots would be

the number and gender,
not clear which one is
ing example, where the
e of these three nouns,
אוניברסיטה /ת

מנצחת תזמורת האוניברסיטה
החדשה

There are three possible readings to the sentence above:

the new conductor of the university של התזמורת של החדשה של
orchestra האוניברסיטה

the conductor of the new orchestra of של התזמורת החדשה של
the university האוניברסיטה

the conductor of the orchestra of the של
new university האוניברסיטה החדשה

The three-noun sequence is normally broken in such cases, to clarify
which noun is being modified by the adjective.

Quantifiers in מילות noun phrase

Quantifiers can modify one of the components of the construct phrase:

a state of all its citizens מדינת כל אזרחיה

the two labor organizations שני ארגוני הפועלים

11.6 Phrases of possession

Phrases of possession have an underlying sentential structure. המכונית
שֶׁלִּי 'my car', for instance, implies the underlying sentence יש לי מכונית
'I have a car', and reflects that relationship of possession. One noun
refers to what is possessed, in this case 'the car', and the other noun
refers to whoever possesses it, in this case 'I'.

The possessed noun is the head noun (the noun being modified), and
the possessor noun is the modifier. In the illustration below, the head
noun is החנות 'the store' and the modifier answers the question של מי
'Whose store is it?'

Possessor	of	Possessed	Gloss	Possession phrase
ההורים	של	החנות	the parents' store	החנות של ההורים
הם	של	החנות	their store	החנות שלהם

A comparative note

The word order is different in Hebrew and in English. In English the
possessor precedes the possessed: 'my car', while in Hebrew the word
order is reversed: המכונית שלי.

11.6.1 Possessive noun phrases: options

Possessive noun phrases can be formed in the following ways:

1. A noun that indicates what is being possessed, followed by the
preposition של, which is followed by the possessor noun.

3	2	1		3	2	1
<u>Possessor</u>	<u>of</u>	<u>Possessed</u>		<u>Possessor</u>	<u>of</u>	<u>Possessed</u>
שולה	של	האח		שמואל	של	ההורים
Shula's brother				Shmuel's parents		

2. A pronoun can substitute for the possessor noun, and it is suffixed to the preposition של: החנות שלו 'his store'.

3. A possessive personal pronoun can also be suffixed to the possessed noun. In such a case there is no need for the preposition of possession: אחותו 'his sister'.

There are several categories of nouns, to which the possessive pronoun suffix cannot be added, such as most nouns of foreign origin, for instance ההיסטוריה שלנו 'our history' rather than *ההיסטוריהנו, which is not permissible. Certain classes of words actually favor the noun + pronoun option, notably kinship terms.

For a discussion of possessive personal pronouns see pp. 169-170.

Regular phrases of possession are usually definite in Hebrew. Definite status has to be either indicated by a definite article, by a noun with a pronoun suffix, or even by a proper name:

Definite article	Dan's friends	החברים של דן
Pronoun ending	his friends	חבריו
Proper name	our Dan	דן שלנו

Possessive noun phrases can be also indefinite. The meaning of the indefinite phrase is different from that of the definite phrase of possession. Rather than the more general החברה שלי 'my friend', the meaning of the indefinite phrase חברה שלי is 'a friend of mine/one of my friends'.

Indefinite phrases

A friend of mine lives in town.

חברה שלי גרה בעיר.

Some friends of mine live in town.

חברות שלי גרות בעיר.

11.6.2 Word order

When the possessor and the possessed are both nouns, the following two word orders are possible:

1. The noun phrase consisting of the possessor and the prepositional phrase:

הילדה הזקנה ביותר
היא בתו של דן.
his oldest daughter
Dan's old friend

2. The possessive personal pronoun suffixed to the noun itself as a modifier:

הילדה הזקנה ביותר
היא בתו של דן.
his oldest daughter
his old friend

11.7 Phrase structure

Demonstrative phrases are used to refer to a specific person or place. They are usually used in contexts where the referent is known to both speaker and hearer. They agree in gender and number with the noun they refer to. Demonstrative phrases can refer to a person, a place, a time, or a situation.

Demonstrative phrases can refer to a close time or place.

a distant time or place

11.6.2 Word order in possessive noun phrases

When the possessed noun of the phrase is modified by an adjective, the constituents of the possessive noun phrases are organized in one of the following two ways:

1. The noun and adjectives come first and then are followed by the prepositional phrase of possession.

	של + שם/כ"ג	תואר	שם
<u>his</u> oldest daughter	שלו	הבכורה	הבת
<u>Dan's</u> old friends	של דן	הוותיקים	הידידים

2. The possessive can precede the adjectives only if it is attached to the noun itself as a suffix pronoun.

	תואר	שם + כ"ג
<u>his</u> oldest daughter	הבכורה	בתו
<u>his</u> old friends	הוותיקים	ידידיו

11.7 Phrases with demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns belong to the class of specific determiners. They are usually part of a definite phrase and follow a noun with which they agree in gender and number, as adjectives do (which is why some refer to them as demonstrative adjectives). There are two sets of demonstrative pronouns: one that indicates or points to an object of close proximity in place or time, and one that indicates a reference to another place or time or to a different set of events.

Demonstrative Pronouns

a close time	<u>This book</u> is not mine.	הספר הזה הוא לא שלי.
or place	<u>This library</u> is new.	הספרייה הזאת חדשה.
	<u>These books</u> belong to the library.	הספרים האלה שייכים לספרייה.

a distant time	<u>That book</u> is David's.	הספר ההוא הוא של דוד.
or place	<u>That library</u> was too small.	הספרייה ההיא הייתה קטנה מדי.
	<u>Those books</u> are too expensive.	הספרים ההם יקרים מדי.

2 1

for of Possessed

שם של ההורים

Samuel's parents

an, and it is suffixed to

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osition of possession:

the possessive pronoun

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ההיסטורית*, which is

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article, by a noun with a

החברים של דן

חבכיו

דן שלנו

e. The meaning of the

he definite phrase of

חבכר 'my friend', the

friend of mine/one of

חברה שלי גרה בעיר.

חברות שלי גרות בעיר.

Demonstrative pronouns

a close time or place	this/these	הַזֶּה, הַזֵּאת, הָאֵלֶּה
a distant time or place	that/those	הַהוּא, הַהֵיא, הַהֵם, הַהֵן

11.7.1 Demonstrative pronouns of close proximity

When the demonstrative pronoun is used to modify a noun, it functions as a regular adjective does. It follows the rules of syntax, which apply to adjectives, in that it occupies the same position as that of an adjective, and follows the rules of word order, gender and definiteness agreement of the adjective in a noun phrase.

Masculine singular

+ Adjective	The new book is not mine.	הַסֵּפֶר הַחֹדֶשׁ הוּא לֹא שָׁלִי.
+ Demonstrative	This book is not mine.	הַסֵּפֶר הַזֶּה הוּא לֹא שָׁלִי.

Feminine singular

+ Adjective	The new library is excellent.	הַסִּפְרִייה הַחֹדֶשֶׁה מְצוּיֵנֶת.
+ Demonstrative	This library is excellent.	הַסִּפְרִייה הַזֵּאת מְצוּיֵנֶת.

Masculine plural

+ Adjective	The new buildings are very tall.	הַבְּנֵינִים הַחֹדָשִׁים גְּבוּהִים מְאֹד.
+ Demonstrative	These buildings are very tall.	הַבְּנֵינִים הָאֵלֶּה גְּבוּהִים מְאֹד.

Feminine plural

+ Adjective	The new villas are very expensive.	הַוִּילוֹת הַחֹדָשׁוֹת יְקָרוֹת מְאֹד.
+ Demonstrative	These villas are very expensive.	הַוִּילוֹת הָאֵלֶּה יְקָרוֹת מְאֹד.

The phrases where nouns are accompanied by demonstrative pronouns are definite in form as well as in meaning. With few exceptions, the definite article is prefixed to both the noun and the demonstrative pronoun: הַבַּיִת הַזֶּה, הָאִישׁ הַזֵּאת, הָאֲנָשִׁים הָאֵלֶּה. However, such phrases can also be constructed with a noun and a demonstrative pronoun

without the use
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'Frames are bei

The variation of
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A comparative

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11.7.2 Demon

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and two plural
third person pro

רבות

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those

ha-hén

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are definite in fo

Masculine singu

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Feminine singul

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that

without the use of the definite article, i.e., אנשים אלה, בית זה, אישה זאת, and still remain definite. The difference is stylistic only.

With definite article

בדף הזה נעשה שימוש במסגרות.

Without definite article

בדף זה נעשה שימוש במסגרות.

'Frames are being used in this page'.

The variation of the phrase without a definite article can be found in formal speech and in written texts.

A comparative note

The use of the definite article with demonstrative pronouns (treating it as if it were an adjective) is not limited to Hebrew. It is a feature shared with Phoenician, Aramaic, and Classical Arabic.

11.7.2 Demonstrative pronouns of remote proximity

The function of the remote demonstrative is to relate the noun to a place and time remote from the speaker's environment. The remote reference can also be to a particular segment or object in the context of a text (anaphora), which can be found in relative proximity.

There are two singular demonstrative pronouns of remote proximity and two plural ones. They are composed of the definite article and the third person pronoun.

<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
קהל	קהלם	קהל	קהל
those	those	that	that
<i>ha-hén</i>	<i>ha-hém</i>	<i>ha-hí</i>	<i>ha-hú</i>

The phrases where nouns are accompanied by demonstrative pronouns are definite in form as well as in meaning.

Masculine singular

this	This house is small.	הבית הזה קטן.
that	That house is big.	הבית ההוא גדול.

Feminine singular

this	This library is near.	הספרייה הזאת קרובה.
that	That library is far.	הספרייה ההיא רחוקה.

Masculine plural

these	These buildings are near.	הבניינים האלה קרובים.
those	Those buildings are far.	הבניינים ההם רחוקים.

Feminine plural

these	These stores are near.	החנויות האלה קרובות.
those	Those stores are far.	החנויות ההן רחוקות.

A historical note

The demonstrative pronoun had a number of historical variants, some of which survived in the higher registers of Modern Hebrew.

All three variants of close proximity demonstratives can be found in Israeli Hebrew, but **הָאֵלֶּי** belongs to a somewhat higher register, and **הַקֵּלֶוּ** is somewhat higher than **הָאֵלֶּי**.

There are also variants among the remote proximity ones. Biblical Hebrew had a relatively rare **הַקֵּלֶוּ** 'that', as in **הִנֵּה בֵּעַל הַחֲלוֹמוֹת הַקֵּלֶוּ בָּא** 'Behold, here comes that master of dreams'. Sometimes both masculine and feminine singular forms may be shortened to **הַקֵּלֶוּ** (which is the only variant Mishnaic Hebrew uses). Both are restricted to use in a highly literary register, and for all practical purposes are considered obsolete.

<u>רבים-רבות</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
הַקֵּלֶוּ	הַקֵּלֶוּ	הַקֵּלֶוּ/הַקֵּלֶוּהָ
<i>hallálu</i>	<i>hallezú</i>	<i>halláz/hallazé</i>
these/those	this/that	this/that

On the eve of the holy Sabbath <u>this</u> event occurred.	בערב שבת קודש היה <u>המעשה</u> הַלֵּז.
Who is <u>that</u> man walking in the field?	מי האיש הַלֵּזֶה ההולך בשדה?
<u>This</u> land, once desolate, has become like the garden of Eden. (Ezekiel, Chapter 36: 35)	הָאָרֶץ הַלֵּזֶה הנשמה היתה כגן עדן (יחזקאל ל"ו: ל"ה)

In biblical He shortened vari prefers the varia We light these commemorate wonders The most frequ demonstrative p meaning of eith which meaning time and place. stand-alone item 'that person' and

Who is that pers himself up as the morality and just

That person was worked on a top about Plato.

11.8 Prepositi

An extensive d Chapter 10. A sh Prepositional ph noun phrase or a Prep + Noun

Prep + Noun ph

Prep + pronoun s

11.9 Numeric

Noun phrases wi chapter 7. A sho

In biblical Hebrew, one only finds אֵלֶּה or הָאֵלֶּה 'these', or the shortened variant הָאֵל. Mishnaic Hebrew, while still maintaining הָאֵלֶּה, prefers the variant הָאֵלֹ, and introduces a third one, הַלֵּלוּ as in:

We light these candles to הנרות הללו אנו מדליקין על הניסים
commemorate the miracles and ועל הנפלאות
wonders

The most frequently used, in speech as well as in writing, is the demonstrative pronoun הַלֵּלוּ, which, as mentioned, is used with the meaning of either 'these' or 'those'. It depends on the context as to which meaning is given to the deictic, close or remote proximity in time and place. The demonstratives הַלֵּלוּ, הַלְלוּ, הַלֵּלוּ can also function as stand-alone items. The most commonly used is הַלֵּלוּ, which stands for 'that person' and not just 'that'.

Who is that person who set מי זה הלז ששם את עצמו כברומטר
himself up as the barometer for המוסר והצדק?
morality and justice?

That person was also in Spain and הלז גם היה בארץ ספרד ועבד שם
worked on a topic of philosophy בעניין פילוסופי על אודות אפלטון
about Plato.

11.8 Prepositional phrases

An extensive discussion of prepositional phrases can be found in Chapter 10. A short summary is included here.

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition followed by a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun.

Prep + Noun	David went walking <u>with friends</u> .	<u>דוד יצא לטייל עם חברים</u> .
Prep + Noun phrase	David went walking <u>with his friends</u> .	<u>דוד יצא לטייל עם החברים שלו</u> .
Prep + pronoun suffix	David went walking <u>with them</u> .	<u>דוד יצא לטייל אתם</u> .

11.9 Numerical and quantifier phrases

Noun phrases with numerals or quantifiers are discussed extensively in chapter 7. A short summary is included here.

הבניינים האלה קרובים.
הבניינים ההם רחוקים.

החנויות האלה קרובות.
החנויות ההן רחוקות.

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נהנה בעל החלומות הַלֵּלוּ
ometimes both masculine
הַלֵּלוּ (which is the only
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e considered obsolete.

יחיד

הַלֵּלוּ/הַלֵּלוּ

halláz/hallazé

this/that

בערב שבת קודש היה המע

מי האיש הלז ההולך בש

הארץ הלז הנשמה היתה
(יחזקאל ל"ו: ל"ה)

11.9.1 Numerical + noun

The number *one*, when it combines with another noun to form a phrase, always follows the noun that is being counted, since it is conceived of as an adjective. Since it functions as an adjective, it has the gender features of the noun that it modifies. The number noun also agrees with the head noun in its status as indefinite or definite.

Indefinite phrases:

	<u>Masculine זכר</u>		<u>Feminine נקבה</u>
one hat	כובע אֶחָד	one dress	שמלה אַחַת

Indefinite phrases:

	<u>Masculine זכר</u>		<u>Feminine נקבה</u>
the one actor	השחקן הָאֶחָד	the one actress	השחקנית הָאֶחַת

Numerical phrases with numbers above the number 1 are formed in a similar shape to that of [noun + noun] phrases, צירופי סמיכות. In these phrases the components combine in the following way: the numerals always precede the count nouns, which, with some exceptions (particularly, in higher numbers), are plural nouns. The numerals have the same gender features as the count nouns. When the phrases are indefinite, the number nouns are independent forms of the number (with the exception of number *two*). When the number nouns are part of a definite phrase, they have the alternate shape typical of the first noun of a סמיכות phrase. When the number *two* is part of an indefinite or definite phrase, it has a variant form: שְׁנַיִם ~ שְׁנֵי- and שְׁתֵּי- ~ שְׁתֵּי-.

Indefinite phrases:

	<u>Masculine זכר</u>		<u>Feminine נקבה</u>
two boys	שְׁנֵי בָּנִים	two girls	שְׁתֵּי בָּנוֹת

Definite phrases:

	<u>Masculine זכר</u>		<u>Feminine נקבה</u>
the two boys	שְׁנֵי הַבָּנִים	the two girls	שְׁתֵּי הַבָּנוֹת

Numerals 2-10 that combine with nouns in phrases:

<u>Indefinite:</u>	They have three cute children.	יש להם שלושה ילדים נחמדים.
<u>Definite:</u>	Their three children all study here.	כל שלושת הילדים שלהם לומדים כאן.

11.9.2 Quantifiers

Noun phrases can be modified by quantifiers. Since the modifier is considered an adjective, it has the same gender features as the noun it modifies. Quantifiers may also be regarded as adjectives of the (head) noun.

Most of the students are present.

Only some of the students are present.

Many students came to the demonstration.

Only a few students came to the demonstration.

11.10 Noun phrases

Determiners combine with nouns and mark their status. They also determine the way determiners determine the classes of determiners. The presence is total. Determiners can be used in two ways.

The most common determiner is the introductory section.

11.10.1 Determiners

There is another determiner, 'that same...' It is a pronoun that is used as a particle used for emphasis. It is also used to emphasize a phrase. The phrase 'that same...' does, in these phrases, agree with the noun it in gender and number. It can also be followed by a noun.

noun to form a phrase,
since it is conceived of
ive, it has the gender
noun also agrees with

Feminine נקבה

ss שמלה אחת

Feminine נקבה

ess השחקנית האחת

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Feminine נקבה

o girls שתי הבנות

rases:

יש להם שלושה ילדים
נחמדים.
כל שלושת הילדים שלהם
לומדים כאן.

11.9.2 Quantifier + noun

Noun phrases can consist of a quantifier followed by the head noun. Since the modification is only of quantity, quantifiers are not considered adjectives, and – possibly to differentiate them from adjectives – they precede the head noun, as a rule. Numbers (numerals) may **also** be regarded as quantifiers, which is why they also preceded the (head) noun.

Most of the students came to class.

רוב התלמידים הגיעו לשיעור.

Only some of the students arrived.

רק חלק מהתלמידים הגיעו.

Many students came to the
demonstration.

הרבה סטודנטים הגיעו להפגנה.

Only a few students came to the
demonstration.

רק כמה סטודנטים הגיעו להפגנה.

11.10 Noun phrases with determiners

Determiners consist of a small class of words, which accompany nouns and mark their status of being definite or indefinite or in some other way determine aspects of the identity of the noun. There are several classes of determiners and most of them precede the noun and their presence is totally dependent on the noun. A few follow nouns. Determiners cannot occur in isolation.

The most common determiner is the definite article, discussed in the introductory section above.

11.10.1 Determiners that precede nouns

There is another type of determiner, which in English is expressed by 'that same...' It is similar in meaning to the use of the demonstrative pronoun that is distant in time or place, האיש ההוא 'that man'. The particle used for the direct object with third person pronoun ending is also used to express the pronoun modifier 'that same'. Unlike the phrase האיש ההוא, where the pronoun fills the same slot as an adjective does, in these phrases the determiner precedes the noun and agrees with it in gender and number. It is usually followed by a definite noun, but can also be followed by an indefinite noun, to form a noun phrase.

אותן הנשים	אותם האנשים	אותה האישה	אותו האיש
אותן נשים	אותם אנשים	אותה אישה	אותו איש
those same women	those same men	that same woman	that same man

The use of such phrases always implies the presence and a prior use of the noun to which the modifier 'that same' refers to. The phrase can be a subject slot or function as part of an object in the sentence.

I met a charming man in the movies. Later I met the same man in the library.

בקולנוע פגשתי איש מקסים. מאוחר יותר, פגשתי (את*) אותו האיש בספרייה.

That same woman, about whom I told you, is our librarian.

אותה האישה שעליה סיפרתי לך, היא הספרנית שלנו.

* In normative Hebrew, an את אותו sequence is not allowed, however in speech it is commonly used.

Other determiners that follow nouns are איזה/איזשהו 'some kind of', כל 'any, every', כל מיני 'all kinds of'.

	<u>Some people</u>	<u>Some woman</u>	<u>Some man</u>
Normative use	אילו אנשים/נשים	איזו אישה	איזה איש
Common use	איזה אנשים/נשים	איזה אישה	איזה איש
		איזושהי אישה	איזשהו איש

The bicycle was just left in some place.

סתם השאירו את האופניים באיזה מקום.

The stories are supposed to reflect reality in some kind of way.

הסיפורים אמורים באיזשהו אופן לשקף את המציאות.

One has to set some kind of system of rules.

מוכרחים לקבוע איזושהי מערכת כללים.

Note

The adverbials איזו, איזה, איזו have an additional function. They are used as interrogatives, meaning 'what (kind of)', or 'which one'?

Which book did you read?
To what show did you go?

Phrases with a determiner

The adverb כל- precedes of a determiner, e.g. כל הספרים.

Each student has a book at the end of the semester.

Every woman at the university has a car.

Negation is stated at the end of the sentence. No students turned up at the meeting.

No students turned up at the meeting.

There were no students on campus.

When the adverb כל- precedes a determiner or a noun, it is placed after the noun.

All the students turned up at the meeting.

All the athletes on the committee.

The combined use of כל- precedes the noun.

I did not come because of kinds of problems.

11.10.2 Determiners

There is an additional function of the adverb כזה 'such a' which is conflated into one with the particle כזה, conflated into one with the particle כזה, conflated into one with the particle כזה.

אותו האיש
אותו איש
that same
man

ance and a prior use of
to. The phrase can be
e sentence.

בקולנוע פגשתי איש מקס
יותר, פגשתי (את*) אותו
בספריה.

אותה האישה שעליה סיפר
הספרנית שלנו.

ot allowed, however in

קל, 'some kind of', אין

Some man
איןזה איש
איןזה איש
איןזהו איש

סתם השאירו את האופנים
מקום.

הסיפורים אמורים באיזה
לשקף את המציאות.

מוכרחים לקבוע איזושה
כללים.

on. They are used as
h one"?

Which book did you buy?
To what show are you going?

איזה ספר קנית?
לאיזו הצגה אתם הולכים?

Phrases with adverbials - כל 'every/each' and (ל א) 'none'

The adverb כל- followed by an indefinite singular noun has the function of a determiner, and means 'each/every'.

Each student has to turn in a paper at the end of the term.
Every woman athlete trains here.

כל תלמיד חייב להגיש את העבודה בסוף הסימסטר.
כל ספורטאית מתאמנת כאן.

Negation is stated by the determiners אף/שום with the negative as part of the sentence.

No students turned in a paper on time.
There were no incidents of violence on campus.

אף תלמיד לא הגיש את העבודה בזמן.
לא היו שום מקרים של אלימות בקמפוס.

When the adverb כל- precedes a plural definite noun it also functions as a determiner or a quantifier.

All the students have to turn in a paper at the end of the term.
All the athletes were chosen by a committee.

כל התלמידים חייבים להגיש את העבודה בסוף הסימסטר.
כל הספורטאים נבחרו על ידי ועדה.

The combined expression כל מיני means 'all kinds of', and it too precedes the noun and functions as a determiner.

I did not come because I had all kinds of problems.

לא באתי כי היו לי כל מיני בעיות.

11.10.2 Determiners that follow nouns

There is an additional set of determiners, which is expressed in English by 'such a ...'. These determiners combine two components: the adverb 'like' and the pronoun 'this/these', resulting in their conflation into one word כזה. The structure of the noun phrase in which such a determiner is used consists of a definite article followed by the particle כ- , conflated to כזה, where the a vowel is the result of a reduced

definite article $\text{ה} < \text{ה} + \text{א}$. These are inherently indefinite phrases, even though the determiner includes the remnant of a definite article.

Like the demonstrative pronouns this determiner has three forms: two singular and one plural, determined by the preceding noun.

	<u>Noun phrase</u>	<u>Paraphrase</u>
such a man	איש <u>כזה</u>	= כמו האיש הזה
such a woman	אישה <u>כזאת</u>	= כמו האישה הזאת
such people	אנשים <u>כאלה</u>	= כמו האנשים האלה
such women	נשים <u>כאלה</u>	= כמו הנשים האלה
such a crisis	משבר <u>כמו המשבר הזה</u> מסוכן מאוד.	משבר כזה מסוכן מאוד.
such problems	צריך לטפל <u>בבעיות כמו הבעיות האלה</u> .	צריך לטפל בבעיות כאלה.
such a good worker	קל למצוא עובדות, אבל עובדת <u>שהיא טובה כמו העובדת הזאת</u> קשה למצוא.	עובדת טובה כזאת קשה למצוא.

Sometimes the determiner appears without the noun, but implies the presence of either an impersonal noun or something that has already been referred to earlier in the text.

such ones	כמו האנשים האלה יש הרבה אנשים בכפר.	כאלה יש הרבה אצלנו בכפר.
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11.10.3 Noun + subordinate clause modifier

Instead of modifying the head noun with an adjective, a whole clause may substitute for it, fulfilling more or less the same function. The clause must, of course, contain a reference to the head, either manifest or hidden:

The invitation that <u>you sent</u> arrived.	ההזמנה <u>ששלחתם</u> הגיעה.
The girl <u>I met last week</u> does not want to see me any more.	הבחורה <u>שפגשתי בשבוע שעבר</u> לא רוצה לראות אותי יותר.
The woman who <u>entered the store</u> did not recognize me.	האישה <u>שנכנסה לחנות</u> לא הכירה אותי.
The writer <u>we talked about</u> yesterday published a new book.	הסופר <u>שדיברנו עליו</u> אתמול הוציא ספר חדש.

11.11 Gerund

Since some verbs and the infinitive nucleus of a noun phrase, they can be used as gerunds. A gerund phrase is a verbal noun phrase:

Gerund phrase

Gerund phrase

Infinitive phrase

Infinitive phrase

11.11 Gerunds and infinitives in noun phrases

Since some verbal expressions – in particular, the gerund (שם הפעולה) and the infinitive (שם הפעל) – can act as nouns, these also can form the nucleus of a noun phrase. And as verbal expressions are formed from verbs, they can also take direct objects and can be modified by adverbs. A gerund phrase or infinitive phrase, then, is a noun phrase consisting of a verbal noun, its modifiers (both adjectives and adverbs), and its objects:

<u>Gerund phrase</u>	<u>Swimming in the sea</u> is our main pastime.	שחייה בים היא העיסוק העיקרי שלנו.
<u>Gerund phrase</u>	David plans to arrive on time for <u>course registration</u> .	דוד מתכוון להגיע בזמן להרשמה לקורס.
<u>Infinitive phrase</u>	<u>To hike in the mountains</u> is all he wants to do.	לטייל בהרים זה כל מה שהוא רוצה לעשות.
<u>Infinitive phrase</u>	The love of his life is <u>to travel and to travel endlessly</u> .	אהבת חייו זה לנסוע ולנסוע בלי סוף.

indefinite phrases, even
definite article.

er has three forms: two
ling noun.

Paraphrase

- = כמו האיש הזה
- = כמו האישה הזאת
- = כמו האנשים האלה
- = כמו הנשים האלה

משבר כזה מסוכן מאוד.

צריך לטפל בבעיות כאלה

עובדת טובה כזאת קשה
למצוא.

un, but implies the
g that has already

כאלה יש הרבה אצלנו
בכפר.

er
ctive, a whole clause
same function. The
head, either manifest

ההזמנה ששלחתם הגיעה
הבחורה שפגשתי בשבוע
רוצה לראות אותי יותר.
האישה שנכנסה לחנות ל
אותי.
הסופר שדיברנו עליו את
ספר חדש.

Chapter 12

Verb phrases

- 12.1 Introduction to verb phrases
- 12.2 Verb phrases: verbs and objects
- 12.3 Compound verb phrases
- 12.4 Grouping verbs by semantic considerations
- 12.5 Modal verbs
- 12.6 Habitual aspect phrases
- 12.7 Subjunctive wish and possibility phrases

12.1 Introduction to verb phrases

A variety of verb phrases are discussed in this chapter. A verb phrase consists of a verb, which functions as the main component of a phrase, and some additional components. As the main component of a phrase, we refer to that verb as the *head* verb of the phrase. The other components added to it expand the meaning of the head noun or particularize it. The additional components can be noun phrases or prepositional phrases that function as objects, or they can be other verbs that modify the meaning of the *head* verb. The verb phrase functions as the predicate of a sentence.

It is possible to classify verb phrases according to the structural components. The primary distinction made below is between verbs with different complements, and compound verbs.

12.2 Verb phrases [verb + object]

The central component of the predicate is most often a verb. Adjuncts can be appended to add information either to the predicate or to the entire sentence:

The following are the main structures of such verb phrases:

Verb phrase: verb form

The birdwatcher got up at dawn.

הצפר קם עם שחר.

Verb phrase: verb + noun phrase (object)

The birdwatcher brought binoculars.

הצפר הביא משקפת.

Verb phrase: verb + obligatory prepositional phrase (indirect object)

The birdwatcher joined (attached

הצפר הצטרף לקבוצת מטיילים.

himself to) a group of hikers.

12.2.1 Verbs +

The direct object
object is definite

An object is made
Definite article

Proper name

Place name

With possessive
suffix

Possessive phras

The direct object
when it is indefinite

Indefinite object

In all of the above
without it: ...תפגשו

Note

In Hebrew there
noun, which is so
verbal noun, which
phrase, and is of the
English *fight a fight*
stylistic device that
is translated by a
decision', or 'make
Internal direct object

They advanced the
meaningful way.

They made serious
project.

You made a bold d

12.2.1 Verbs + direct objects

The direct object follows a transitive verb with the particle **את** when the object is definite:

An object is made definite by having or being one of the following:

<u>Definite article</u>	They have not yet met <u>the neighbors</u> .	הם עוד לא פגשו <u>את השכנים</u> .
<u>Proper name</u>	They met <u>Dina</u> in the store.	הם פגשו <u>את דינה</u> בחנות.
<u>Place name</u>	They saw <u>London</u> .	הם ראו <u>את לונדון</u> .
<u>With possessive suffix</u>	They met <u>our parents</u> .	הם פגשו <u>את הורינו</u> .
<u>Possessive phrase</u>	They met <u>Rina's daughter</u> .	הם פגשו את הבת של רינה.

The direct object links with the verb without any prepositions or particles when it is indefinite:

<u>Indefinite object</u>	They met <u>friends</u> at the coffeehouse.	הם פגשו <u>חברים</u> בבית הקפה.
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In all of the above the object is obligatory, since the verb is not complete without it: 'הם פגשו...' is not complete without an object.

Note

In Hebrew there is an additional expansion of the verb by the verbal noun, which is sometimes referred to as **מושא פנימי** 'internal object': a verbal noun, which comes in object position as part of the expanded verb phrase, and is of the same root as the verb it modifies. In form, it is like English *fight a fight*, but its meaning is different. For the most part it is a stylistic device that is used for emphasis. In English this expanded phrase is translated by a verb, or by an appropriate phrase, such as 'make a decision', or 'make an investment'.

Internal direct object

They <u>advanced</u> the program in a meaningful way.	הם <u>קידמו</u> את התוכנית <u>קידום</u> ניכר.
They <u>made</u> serious <u>investments</u> in this project.	הם <u>השקיעו</u> <u>השקעות</u> רציניות בפרוייקט.
You <u>made</u> a bold <u>decision</u> !	החלטתם החלטה נועזת!

הצפר קם עם שחר.

הצפר הביא משקפת.

phrase (indirect object)

הצפר הצטרף לקבוצת מטיי

12.2.2 Verbs + obligatory prepositional phrases (indirect objects)

There are a number of verbs that have an obligatory preposition. When the preposition is obligatory, it is followed by an object, a nominal entity, which is a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun. The citation form of the verb includes that preposition as a related part of the verb (see additional discussion in Chapter 10).

In the examples below notice that where Hebrew requires an obligatory preposition to link a verb with an object, in English the verb often links to its object without any preposition.

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Verbs and prepositions</u>	
Dan bumped into the stone and fell.	דן נתקל באבן ונפל.	נתקל ב-
How can you betray all of your principles?	איך אתה יכול לבגוד בכל העקרונות שלך?	בגד ב-
The host hurt the feelings of the guest.	המנחה פגע ברגשות של האורח.	פגע ב-
When will you help us get ready for the party?	מתי תעזרו לנו להכין את המסיבה?	עזר ל-
Listen to what is being said to you.	הקשיבו למה שאומרים לכם.	הקשיב ל-
Don't take away from the value of the things we agreed on.	אל תגרע מערך הדברים שהסכמנו עליהם.	גרע מ-

Some verbs have two meanings: one without an obligatory preposition, and one with an obligatory preposition.

Non-Obligatory Complement

stand (on a chair) עמד (על הכיסא)

Obligatory preposition with object

insist on, stand by עמד על דעתו

The children stood on the stage. הילדים עמדו על הבמה.

The parents insisted that he come home on time. ההורים עמדו על כך שהוא יבוא הביתה בזמן.

A comparative note

Some English verbs have a similar requirement, but the preposition following an English verb is not necessarily identical to the Hebrew preposition following an equivalent verb.

Identical preposition

Different preposition

No preposition

12.3 Compound

Compound verbs which combine in the second a verb and these verb phrases groups. In the first as one predicate. the infinitive form

They could not open

In the other category a finite verb and the phrase, in this case two-verb combination. The verbs of this can come between

They convinced us

We shall refer to one as 'two-verb types of phrases infinitive verb, the discussion of these

12.3.1 Expanded

As described above a finite verb (verb first verb function combination of the verb serves as the (auxiliary) verb is meaning of the h

Phrases (indirect

atory preposition. When
object, a nominal entity,
the citation form of the
the verb (see additional

requires an obligatory
ish the verb often links

and prepositions

נתקל ב-	דן נתקל באבר
פגד ב-	איך אתה יכול העקרונות שלך
פגע ב-	המנחה פגע בך
עזר ל-	מתי תעזרו לנו המסיבה?
הקשיב ל-	הקשיבו למה ע
קרע מ-	אל תגרע מערך שהסכמנו עליה

a obligatory preposition,

עמד (על הכיסא)

עמד על דעתו

הילדים עמדו על הבמה.
ההורים עמדו על כך שהוא
הביתה בזמן.

ent, but the preposition
identical to the Hebrew

<u>Identical preposition</u>	rely on	סמך על
	trust in	בטח ב-
	believe in	האמין ב-
<u>Different preposition</u>	bump into	נתקל ב-
	look at	הסתכל על
<u>No preposition</u>	influence	השפיע על
	cause	גרם ל-

12.3 Compound verb phrases

Compound verb phrases are phrases of two (or at times more) verbs, which combine into single phrases with one verb finite, i.e., in tense, and the second a verb in the infinitive mood. However, when discussing these verb phrases, it is important to distinguish between two main groups. In the first one the two verbs constitute one unit, which functions as one predicate. The first verb is an auxiliary verb and the second one is the infinitive form of the main verb.

They could not open the door. הם לא יכלו לפתוח את הדלת.

In the other category two verbs are joined in a similar manner: the first is a finite verb and the second is an infinitive. But unlike the expanded verb phrase, in this case each verb forms a separate predicate. Essentially, the two-verb combination is a 'shortcut' version of two separate statements. The verbs of this verb phrase can be discontinuous, i.e., some other item can come between the two:

They convinced us to open the door. הם שכנעו אותנו לפתוח את הדלת.

We shall refer to the first category as 'expanded verbs' and to the second one as 'two-kernel verb phrases'. Thus, although externally, the two types of phrases look alike, since they have one finite verb and one infinitive verb, their underlying structure is different. Following is a discussion of these two classes of verb phrases.

12.3.1 Expanded verb phrases.

As described above, expanded verb phrases include two verbs: the first is a finite verb (verb in tense), while the second one is an infinitive. The first verb functions as an auxiliary to the second verb, and the combination of the two is considered one expanded verb. The second verb serves as the *head* of the verb phrase; the function of the first (auxiliary) verb is to indicate the tense, and in some way to modify the meaning of the head verb. The two verbs do not constitute separate

kernels of separate underlying predicates. These verbs can be divided into categories by the type of function they perform.

Aspectual function: initiating, continuing and ending the process

The first of the two verbs in these types of verb phrases are, for the most part, verbs of initiating, continuing and finishing a process. The second verb is the main verb, while the first verb indicates the stage of the process.

he spoke	הוא דיבר
he <u>started speaking</u>	הוא התחיל לדבר
he <u>continued speaking</u>	הוא המשיך לדבר
he <u>stopped speaking</u>	הוא הפסיק לדבר

The above phrases have words in sequence, that cannot be taken apart or be discontinuous. They function as one unit.

Note

Most of these modifying verbs, which constitute the first verb of the expanded verb phrase, can also function in other contexts as main verbs.

1. Main Verb: להפסיק את 'interrupt'

Don't interrupt me while I am speaking. אל תפסיק אותי כשאני מדברת.

Compare with use in expanded verb phrase:

להפסיק + שם פועל 'stop/cease'

He stopped talking to me. הוא הפסיק לדבר איתי.

2. Main Verb (Colloquial use): להתחיל עם: 'start with/get involved with'

I did not start with her – she started with me. אני לא התחלתי איתה, היא התחילה איתי.

Compare with use in expanded verb phrase:

להתחיל + שם פועל 'begin/start'

Dan started studying Hebrew when he was five. דן התחיל ללמוד עברית כשהוא היה בן חמש.

3. Main verb: לגמור (את) 'finish/complete'

He finished all the food that was in the refrigerator. הוא גמר את כל האוכל שהיה במקרר.

Compare with use

לגמור + שם פועל

He finished eating

Truncated predic

These verbs can s
not specifically n
somewhere else i
considered a trunc

Context: conversa

V1+V2 W

yo

Missing V2 He

Context: a narrativ

Verb 'tell' He

missing in ha

sentence 2 on

til

Verbs with quant

They often either

he spoke

he spoke a lot

he spoke a little

Paraphrasing with

Verbs with time a

he came

he came early

he came late

Paraphrasing with

Compare with use in expanded verb phrase:

לגמור + שם פועל 'complete/end'

He finished eating an hour ago.

הוא גמר לאכול לפני שעה.

Truncated predicates

These verbs can sometimes be used without the second verb, when it is not specifically mentioned in the immediate phrase but is alluded to somewhere else in the immediate or shared context. In this case it is considered a truncated phrase, as the main verb is only implied.

Context: conversation

V1+V2	When did he start working for you?	מתי הוא התחיל לעבוד אצלכם?
Missing V2	He started in September.	הוא התחיל בספטמבר.

Context: a narrative passage

Verb 'tell' missing in sentence 2	He told us all about what happened to him. He went on and on, and did not stop till everyone fell asleep.	הוא סיפר לנו את כל מה שקרה לו. הוא המשיך והמשיך ולא הפסיק עד שכולם נרדמו.
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Verbs with quantifier adverbial notions

They often either quantify or qualify the action that the verb denotes:

he spoke	הוא דיבר
he spoke a lot	הוא הרבה לדבר
he spoke a little	הוא המעיט לדבר

Paraphrasing with adverbs:

הוא הרבה לדבר = הוא דיבר הרבה
 הוא מיעט/המעט לדבר = הוא דיבר מעט
 הוא היטיב לדבר = הוא דיבר יפה/טוב

Verbs with time adverbial notion

he came	הוא בא
he came early	הוא הקדים לבוא
he came late	הוא אחר לבוא

Paraphrasing with adverbs:

הוא הקדים לבוא = הוא בא מוקדם
 הוא אחר לבוא = הוא בא מאוחר

se verbs can be divided
orm.

ending the process

phrases are, for the most
g a process. The second
icates the stage of the

הוא דיבר
הוא התחיל לדבר
הוא המשיך לדבר
הוא הפסיק לדבר

cannot be taken apart or

te the first verb of the
ontexts as main verbs.

אל תפסיק אותי כשאני מד

הוא הפסיק לדבר איתי.

/get involved with'

אני לא התחלתי איתה, היא
איתי.

דן התחיל ללמוד עברית כ
חמש.

הוא גמר את כל האוכל ש

Verbs with manner adverbial notions

he came	הוא בא
he came fast	הוא מיהר לבוא
he hurried to finish	הוא הזדרז לסיים

Paraphrasing with adverbs:

הוא מיהר לבוא = הוא בא מהר
הוא הזדרז לסיים = הוא סיים מהר

12.3.2 Chain (catenative) verb phrases

Support role: verbs that combine with a following non-finite verb are often called catenative verbs (where the term 'catenative' means 'chaining'). This term includes verbs like להתחיל 'start', להמשיך 'keep/continue', לעזור 'help'. The catenative verb can support not only one infinitive, but also a chain of infinitives. This chain of verbs forms a sequence of infinitives.

Chain verb phrases:

He began to talk.	הוא התחיל לדבר.
He also began to laugh.	הוא התחיל גם לצחוק.
He started disrupting.	הוא התחיל להפריע.

Expanded verb phrases with a chain of non-finite verbs:

He began talking, laughing and disrupting.	הוא התחיל לדבר, לצחוק ולהפריע.
He kept talking, laughing and disrupting.	הוא המשיך לדבר, לצחוק ולהפריע.

Note that the catenation is not limited to a series of separate infinitives; it can also be hierarchical:

He started learning (lit. to learn) to write at the age of six.	הוא התחיל ללמוד לכתוב בגיל שש.
---	--------------------------------

'Learning to write' is one expanded verb, further expanded into 'beginning to learn to write'.

12.3.3 Verb phrase: finite verb + finite verb

A few expanded verb phrases consist of a combination of auxiliary verbs, such as המשך 'continue/keep doing', שבחזר 'did again', that serve as modifying verbs to a main verb, which unlike all previous ones is in finite (i.e., in tense) rather than in the infinitive form.

He retold the same story.
She kept disrupting.

These verb sequences are a type of continuation:

He told the same story several times.

She disrupted again and again.

The two verbs in the above examples share the continuity of the process, its continuation, and the action of the verb, the action of the subject.

Verb 1

repeated and continued and

A comparative note

The translation of the above examples is: She re-emphasized (re-emphasizes) the task. She emphasized (emphasizes) the task.

He will rewrite again until he is satisfied.

12.3.4 Two-kernel

So far, we have discussed the structure of the expanded verb phrase above, there are two structures regarded as two separate structures. It is suggested that the structure of the auxiliary verbs and the underlying structure of the single structure, e.g.,

הוא בא
הוא מיהר לבוא
הוא הזדרז לסיים

He retold the same story. היא חזר וסיפר את אותו הסיפור.
She kept disrupting. היא המשיכה והפריעה.

These verb sequences can be paraphrased by adverbs of repetition and continuation:

He told the same story lots of times. הוא חזר וסיפר = הוא סיפר את הסיפור הרבה פעמים.
She disrupted again and again. היא המשיכה והפריעה = היא הפריעה שוב ושוב.

הוא מיהר לבוא = הוא בא
הוא הזדרז לסיים = הוא

g non-finite verb are
m 'catenative' means
להתחיל 'start', להמשיך
ס can support not only
chain of verbs forms a

The two verbs that make up the expanded verb phrase of repetition and continuity share the same tense. The auxiliary verb refers to aspects of the process, its continuity or repetition, while the second verb is the main verb, the action itself.

<u>Verb 1</u>		<u>Verb 2</u>		<u>Verb 2</u>	<u>Verb 1</u>
repeated	and	told	ו	סיפר	חזר
continued	and	disrupted	ו	הפריעה	המשיכה

הוא התחיל לדבר.
הוא התחיל גם לצחוק.
הוא התחיל להפריע.

ite verbs:

הוא התחיל לדבר, לצחוק
הוא המשיך לדבר, לצחוק

A comparative note

The translation of the auxiliary verb into English is often rendered by an adverb (e.g., *again and again*), or by a verb in tense followed by an infinitive or gerund, or by a prefix (e.g. *re-*), rather than by an auxiliary verb, as in the following sentence:

She re-emphasizes (comes back and emphasizes) the importance of היא שבה ומדגישה את החשיבות של המשימה.

שבה ומדגישה = מדגישה שוב ושוב

f separate infinitives; it

He will rewrite again and again until he is satisfied with the results. הוא יחזור ויכתוב עד שהוא יהיה מרוצה מהתוצאות.
יחזור ויכתוב = יכתוב עוד מספר פעמים

הוא התחיל ללמוד לכתוב

12.3.4 Two-kernel verb phrases

urther expanded into

So far, we have dealt with compound verbs that constitute true fusion of an auxiliary verb and a main verb into one expanded verb. But as noted above, there are cases in which the two component verbs may be regarded as two separate predicates of more-or-less equal weight. It was suggested that the formal criterion by which one distinguishes between auxiliary verbs and modifying ones described here is whether the underlying structure can be restated as two separate sentences, or is one single structure, even in the underlying structure. Consider the following:

tion of auxiliary verbs,
d again', that serve as
all previous ones is in
m.

Compound verb phrase: Dan decided to become a professional tennis player. דן החליט להיות שחקן טניס מקצועי.

It is clear that the underlying structure has two component sentences:

S1 Dan decided [something]. דן החליט [משהו].
S2 Dan will be a professional player. דן יהיה שחקן מקצועי.

The sentence can also be paraphrased as a complex sentence with a main clause and a subordinate clause:

Dan decided that he is going to be a professional player. דן החליט ש + הוא יהיה שחקן מקצועי.

The subjects of the two propositions do not need to be identical. When the object of the first verb is expressed and specified, it can function as the subject of the second verb. In such cases the verb phrase includes two verbs, which are not necessarily contiguous. Both the underlying base sentences and the paraphrase as a complex sentence suggest that each component verb can be viable on its own.

He asked his friends to lock up the office. הוא ביקש מחבריו לנעול את המשרד.

S1 He asked [something] of his friends. הוא ביקש [משהו] מחבריו.
S2 His friends will lock the office. חבריו ינעלו את המשרד.

This sentence can also be paraphrased as a complex sentence with a main clause and a subordinate clause:

He asked of his friends that + they will lock the office. הוא ביקש מחבריו ש + הם ינעלו את המשרד.

The same cannot be shown with the typical expanded verb we discussed earlier. Observe the following:

Expanded Verb Phrase The snow started falling early in the morning. השלג התחיל לרדת לפנות בוקר.

A sentence like this cannot be shown to have an underlying structure of two separate clauses, because doing so would not capture its meaning – it does not say that the snow started and the snow fell; rather, it speaks of the time of its initiation. Nor can it be paraphrased by a main and subordinate clause, since there is no way of subordinating either verb in an embedded clause. There is but one predicate and one *head* verb, the infinitive. The verb התחיל is just a modifier of the head verb and does not function here as a verb with an equal status.

12.4 Grouping

There are many phrase. Some combination of some of the main verbs:

Initiation, continuation

She started crying.

He continued playing.

Modifying main clause

They hurried to the store.

You came early.

Trial, success and failure

He tried to move the piano.

He succeeded in moving the piano.

He failed to move the piano.

Attitude

He hates working.

They prefer working.

Wish/desire

We don't want to go.

Dana aspires to be a doctor.

Promise/enabling

They promised to move the furniture.

They made it possible to move the furniture.

They enabled us to move the furniture.

Planning/consideration

We are considering moving the furniture.

The city is getting ready for the snow.

They are planning to move the furniture.

Skill/capability

He does not know how to move the furniture.

12.4 Grouping verb phrases by semantic considerations

There are many groups of verbs that can be part of a compound verb phrase. Some form one predicate unit, while others consist of a combination of two separate predicates (as discussed above). Here are some of the many semantic categories that can be observed in compound verbs:

Initiation, continuity and cessation

She started crying.

היא התחילה לבכות.

He continued playing.

הוא המשיך לנגן.

Modifying main verb – auxiliary verb has an adverbial function.

They hurried to finish the task.

הם מיהרו לסיים את המשימה.

You came early.

הקדמת לבוא.

Trial, success and failure

He tried to move the piano.

הוא ניסה להזיז את הפסנתר.

He succeeded/managed to move the piano.

הוא הצליח להזיז את הפסנתר.

Attitude

He hates working here.

הוא שונא לעבוד כאן.

They prefer working here.

הן מעדיפות לעבוד כאן.

Wish/desire

We don't want to go home.

אנחנו לא רוצים ללכת הביתה.

Dana aspires to become president.

דנה שואפת להיות נשיאה.

Promise/enabling

They promised to help us.

הם הבטיחו לעזור לנו.

They made it possible for us to move the furniture.

הם אפשרו לנו להזיז את הרהיטים.

Planning/consideration

We are considering skipping class.

אנחנו חושבים לא לבוא לשיעור.

The city is getting ready to remove the snow.

העיר נערכת לנקות את השלג.

Skill/capability

He does not know how to drive.

הוא לא יודע לנהוג.

12.5 Modal verbs

Modal verbs modify main verbs by expressing such modalities as necessity, possibility, expectation, wish, desire and the like, reflecting the attitudes and beliefs of the speaker. Many modal verbs function as auxiliary verbs and combine with main verbs to form verb phrases. Like the initial verbs in phrases described above, the modal verbs are finite, while the main verbs are in the infinitive mood.

You <u>should</u> be helping us.	אתם צריכים לעזור לנו.
He <u>is supposed</u> to come today.	הוא אמור לבוא היום.
He <u>cannot</u> get here on time.	הוא לא יכול להגיע בזמן.
He <u>is likely</u> to stay here a couple more days.	הוא עשוי להישאר כאן עוד יומיים.
He <u>might</u> invite too many guests.	הוא עלול להזמין יותר מדי אורחים.

For a discussion of modal verbs and their function, see Chapter 13.

12.6 Habitual aspect phrases

The habitual aspect expresses the occurrence of an event or state as characteristic of a period of time. While in English it is conveyed by the auxiliary verb *used to*, in Hebrew it is expressed by the use of the past tense of *היה*, followed by the present tense form of the main verb.

The boy <u>used to</u> play the piano every afternoon.	הילד היה מנגן בפסנתר כל יום אחר הצהריים.
--	--

The verb *to be* is conjugated in all the forms of the past tense, and the main verb has the four forms of the present tense. The participle form reflects agreement in form with the subject of the verb phrase:

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Feminine Singular</u>	<u>Masculine Singular</u>
I used to play	הייתי מנגנת	הייתי מנגן
you used to play	היית מנגנת	היית מנגן
he/she used to play	היא הייתה מנגנת	הוא היה מנגן

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Feminine Plural</u>	<u>Masculine Plural</u>
we used to play	היינו מנגנות	היינו מנגנים
you used to play	הייתן מנגנות	הייתם מנגנים
they used to play	הן היו מנגנות	הם היו מנגנים

12.7 Subjunctive

In Hebrew, the subjunctive is used with *אם* with which it is associated. It is used with verbs that are associated with possibility, such as *אולי* (possibly) and *אולי* (possibly). The subjunctive is used for habitual action: *אם תלך* (if you go) the present tense form of the verb.

Subjunctive: wish
The boy would have had a car.
I would have loved to go.
You would have had a car.
She would have had a car.

Subjunctive: possibility
I could have danced.
My brother could have danced.
You could have danced.
They could have danced.

For more details...

12.7 Subjunctive: would have/could have

In Hebrew, the subjunctive mood typically signals that the proposition with which it is associated is non-actual and nonfactual. The meanings that are associated with this mood in Hebrew are wish or desire and possibility. The structure is identical to that described in the phrases of habitual action: the verb היה (conjugated in the appropriate person) with the present tense form of the main verb.

Subjunctive: wish and desire היה + רוצה

The boy would have liked to play the piano. הילד היה רוצה לנגן בפסנתר.
 I would have loved to play. הייתי רוצה לנגן.
 You would have loved to sing. היית רוצה לשיר.
 She would have loved to dance. היא הייתה רוצה לרקוד.

Subjunctive: possibility היה + יכול

I could have danced all night. הייתי יכולה לרקוד כל הלילה.
 My brother could have played. אחי היה יכול לנגן.
 You could have sung. הייתן יכולות לשיר.
 They could have danced. הם היו יכולים לרקוד.

For more discussion, see p. 311, and see similar structures in hypothetical conditions, pp. 360-362.

using such modalities as
and the like, reflecting the
modal verbs function as
to form verb phrases. Like
the modal verbs are finite,

אתם צריכים לעזור לנו.
הוא אמר לבוא היום.
הוא לא יכול להגיע בזמן.
הוא עשוי להישאר כאן עוד יום.
הוא עלול להזמין יותר מדי א

action, see Chapter 13.

of an event or state as
lish it is conveyed by the
ed by the use of the past
of the main verb.

הילד היה מנגן בפסנתר כל יום
אחר הצהריים.

of the past tense, and the
ense. The participle form
e verb phrase:

Masculine Singular

הייתי מנגן

היית מנגן

הוא היה מנגן

Masculine Plural

היינו מנגנים

הייתם מנגנים

הם היו מנגנים

Chapter 13

Modal verbs and expressions

- 13.1 Introduction to modality
- 13.2 Modal verb phrases
- 13.3 Impersonal modal expressions
- 13.4 Temporal aspects in modality
- 13.5 Modality expressed by phrases with היה

13.1 Introduction to modality

The expression of modality discloses the speaker's attitudes towards a variety of events and characters transmitted through an assortment of propositions. It involves the modification of propositions by the introduction of such notions as possibility, impossibility, expectation, permission, request, necessity, contingency, intention, willingness, wish, and desire.

An example of a proposition:

Every day David returns home at seven. דוד חוזר הביתה כל יום בשבע.

This statement can be modified in the following ways with modal expressions:

David can return home at seven. דוד יכול לחזור הביתה בשבע.

David cannot return home at seven. דוד לא יכול לחזור הביתה בשבע.

David has to return home at seven. דוד צריך לחזור הביתה בשבע.

David is supposed to return home at seven. דוד אמור לחזור הביתה בשבע.

13.1.1 Types of modality

There are two types of modals in Hebrew:

1. Modal verbs, which are 'auxiliary' verbs, and are used in conjunction with main verbs to modify their meaning. They combine in their finite form with the infinitive form of main verbs:

David has to return home at seven. דוד צריך לחזור הביתה בשבע.

2. Modal imperatives
main proposition
proposition. The
infinitive.

It is necessary t

13.2 Modal v

Modal verbs are
participial form
have more than
The modal verb
convey and the

13.2.1 Obligat

The modal verb
choice of one o
general expressi
stronger meanin
strongest express

have (to), ought
have to, should
be required/oblig

Everyone has to c
We must go to the
Everybody is requ
or her work in a v

13.2.2 Possibili

The notion of the
three verbs: עלול
in the notion of
עלול has a negat
speaker hopes do
exclusively with
negative statement

2. Modal impersonal expressions are used to modify the meaning of the main proposition by adverbial expressions that initiate the entire proposition. The modal expressions are followed with main verbs in the infinitive.

It is necessary to return home on time. צריך לחזור הביתה בזמן.

13.2 Modal verb phrases

Modal verbs are conjugated in the present tense, and as such have four participial forms grouped by gender and number. Some modal verbs have more than one meaning and function in a number of situations. The modal verbs can be classified according to the meanings they convey and the functions they perform:

13.2.1 Obligation

The modal verbs חייב, מוכרח, צריך are used to express obligation. The choice of one of the modals over another is a matter of degree: the general expression of obligation is the modal verb צריך 'has to', a stronger meaning of 'must' is carried by מוכרח, and חייב is the strongest expressions, literally meaning 'obliged'.

	רבות	רבים	יחידה	יחיד
have (to), ought	צריכות	צריכים	צריכה	צריך
have to, should	מקרחות	מקרחים	מקרחה	מקרח
be required/obliged (to)	חייבות	חייבים	חייבת	חייב

Everyone has to come on time. כולם צריכים לבוא בזמן.

We must go to the library. אנחנו מוכרחים ללכת לספרייה.

Everybody is required to hand in his or her work in a week. כולם חייבים להגיש את העבודה בעוד שבוע.

13.2.2 Possibility

יכול/עשוי/עלול

The notion of the possibility of things happening is conveyed by these three verbs: עלול, עשוי, יכול. While יכול conveys possibility, עשוי brings in the notion of likelihood, a positive assessment of possibility, while עלול has a negative nuance, meaning that this is a possibility the speaker hopes does not come true. עלול is therefore used almost exclusively with verbs which have negative connotations, or with negative statements.

	רבות	רבים	יחידה	יחיד
may be able to	יכולות	יכולים	יכולה	יכול
may, could	עשויות	עשויים	עשויה	עשוי
might, liable to	עלולות	עלולים	עלולה	עלול

Dana can be hired here, if there will be a job.

Dana may/is likely to be hired here since she has suitable qualifications.

Dana might not be hired here because she does not have enough experience.

דנה יכולה להתקבל לעבודה כאן, אם תהיה משרה פנויה.
 דנה עשויה להתקבל לעבודה כאן כי יש לה כישורים מתאימים.
 דנה עלולה לא להתקבל לעבודה כאן, כי אין לה מספיק ניסיון.

13.2.3 Ability/capability

The modal verbs יכול and מסוגל are used to express ability (in the sense of being able to physically or mentally do something, or knowing how to do something), as distinguished from possibility.

	רבות	רבים	יחידה	יחיד
can; be capable of	יכולות	יכולים	יכולה	יכול
be able to	מסוגלות	מסוגלים	מסוגלת	מסוגל

Dan is capable of driving, but he does not have a driver's license.

You are very tired; are you sure that you are able to/can drive?

דן יכול לנהוג אבל אין לו רשיון נהיגה.
 אתה מאוד עייף, אתה בטוח שאתה מסוגל לנהוג?/שאתה יכול לנהוג?

13.2.4 Permission/request

The modal verb יכול is used to express a request or asking for permission, as well as possibility and capability.

Request

Can I ride with you?

May we ride with you? Do you have space?

Permission

Of course you can come with us.

May I go?

You may go. It is already after eight.

אני יכול לבוא אתכם?
 אנחנו יכולים לנסוע אתכם? יש לכם מקום?

כמובן שאתם יכולים לבוא איתנו.
 אני יכול ללכת?
 אתה יכול ללכת. כבר אחרי שמונה.

13.2.5 Expectations

The modal verb ייתכן is the primary meaning of the verb. It can be used to express expectations, 'expected to', 'supposed to', 'expected to', 'is about', 'is about to'.

They are expected to arrive in 15 minutes.
 The bus should arrive here exactly at 8:00.
 The bus is about to arrive at this moment.
 A big surprise is expected for everyone: the bus will arrive on time.

Expectations

Our parents should arrive in 15 minutes.
 Our parents are expected to arrive here.
 Our parents are about to arrive.

13.2.6 Action

We are about to start our partnership in the bus industry.
 The plant is about to produce large profits.

Anticipated action

About 100 guests are expected to come.

יחידה	יחיד
יכולה	יכול
עשויה	עשוי
עלולה	עלול

דנה יכולה להתקבל לעבודה אם תהיה משרה פנויה.
 דנה עשויה להתקבל לעבודה יש לה כישורים מתאימים
 דנה עלולה לא להתקבל לעבודה כאן, כי אין לה מספיק ניסיון.

יכול/מסוגל

Ability (in the sense of knowing how to do something, or knowing how to do something).

יחידה	יחיד
יכולה	יכול
מסוגלת	מסוגל

דן יכול לנהוג אבל אין לו ניסיון.
 אתה מאוד עייף, אתה בטור מסוגל לנהוג?/שאתה יכול לנהוג?

יכול

request or asking for something.

אני יכול לבוא אתכם?
 אנחנו יכולים לנסוע אתכם מקום?

כמובן שאתם יכולים לבוא אני יכול ללכת?
 אתה יכול ללכת. כבר אחריי?

13.2.5 Expectation/probability

אמור/צריך/צפוי

The modal verbs צריך, אמור are used to express expectation. The primary meaning of the modal verb צריך is that of obligation, but it can be used to express expectation. The modal verb צפוי, which also means 'expected to', is used less often.

	רבות	רבים	יחידה	יחיד
supposed to	אמורות	אמורים	אמורה	אמור
expected to	צפויות	צפויים	צפויה	צפוי
is about	עתידות	עתידים	עתידה	עתיד
is about to	עומדות	עומדים	עומדת	עומד

They are expected to get here in ten minutes. הם אמורים להגיע עוד עשר דקות.
 The bus should/is expected to get here exactly at eight. האוטובוס צריך להגיע לכאן בדיוק בשמונה.
 The bus is about to arrive any moment. האוטובוס עומד להגיע כל רגע.
 A big surprise is expected for everyone: the bus will arrive on time. צפויה לכולם הפתעה גדולה: האוטובוס יגיע בזמן.

Expectations

Our parents should come on time. ההורים צריכים להגיע בזמן.
 Our parents are expected to come on time. ההורים אמורים להגיע בזמן.
 Our parents are supposed to come on time. ההורים צריכים/אמורים להגיע בזמן.

13.2.6 Action about to take place (עתידי, עומד, צפוי)

We are about to offer him to become a partner in the business. אנחנו עומדים להציע לו להיות שותף בעסק.
 The plant is about/expected to bring large profits. המפעל עתידי להביא רווחים רבים.

Anticipated action

About 100 guests are likely/anticipated to come. כ-100 אורחים צפויים להגיע.

Note

The *pa'ul* verb form צפוי 'expected/predictable' can also be used as a predicative adjective.

This was expected/predictable. זה היה צפוי מראש.

13.2.7 Readiness and willingness

The four present tense forms of the verb מוכן 'be ready' can be used as modal verbs. They combine the meaning of 'ready' and 'willing'.

The verb ערוך can also be used as a modal verb, meaning 'ready' or 'set up for'.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
be ready/willing	מוכנות	מוכנים	מוכנה	מוכן
be set/ready	ערוכות	ערוכים	ערוכה	ערוך

The company is ready to return the money to you. החברה מוכנה להחזיר לך את הכסף.

The school is all set to receive all of the new pupils. בית הספר ערוך לקבל את כל התלמידים החדשים.

Note

The *pa'ul* verb form ערוך 'set' and the *huf'al* present tense form מוכן have additional meanings. As main verbs they can be used as predicative adjectives:

The table is set for the holiday meal. השולחן ערוך לארוחת החג.

The meal is ready. הארוחה מוכנה.

13.2.8 Planning and intentions

Verbs of planning can be fully conjugated in all tenses. With the exception of להתכוין 'get ready', which is truly a modal verb, the others can serve as main verbs, as well as express modality when they are combined with an infinitive verb.

	<u>רבות</u>	<u>רבים</u>	<u>יחידה</u>	<u>יחיד</u>
plan, get ready	מתכוננות	מתכוננים	מתכוננת	מתכונן
intend	מתכונות	מתכונים	מתכונת	מתכונן
make plans/plan	מתכננות	מתכננים	מתכננת	מתכנן

Dan is getting ready
He does not intend
Dan is planning
dissertation in J

Note

All three above-
Dan is preparing
He did not mean
Dan is planning

13.2.9 Expressions

To express wish
conjugations con
desire to indicate

Verb of wish/desire

Subjunctive use

Impossible wish

13.3 Impersonal

There are modal
main verb in the

13.3.1 Modal expressions

1. Obligation/necessity

It is necessary to buy a car.

It is not necessary to buy a car.

2. Possibility

It is possible to travel by bus.

It is impossible to travel by bus.

Dan <u>is getting ready</u> to move.	דן מתכוון לעבור דירה.
He <u>does not intend</u> to cause damage.	הוא לא מתכוון לגרום נזק.
Dan <u>is planning</u> to finish his dissertation in June.	דן מתכנן לסיים את הדיסרטציה שלו ביוני.

Note

All three above-mentioned verbs can also function as main verbs:

Dan <u>is preparing</u> for the test.	דן מתכוון למבחן.
He <u>did not mean</u> it.	הוא לא התכוון לזה.
Dan <u>is planning</u> the graduation party.	דן מתכנן את מסיבת הגמר.

13.2.9 Expressing wish or desire

To express wish or desire, the verb 'to be' in its past tense conjugations combines in a subjunctive-like way with verbs of wish or desire to indicate such meanings.

<u>Verb of wish/desire</u>	I <u>want</u> to come tonight.	אני רוצה לבוא הערב.
<u>Subjunctive use</u>	I <u>would love</u> to come tonight.	הייתי רוצה מאוד לבוא הערב.
<u>Impossible wish</u>	We <u>would have liked</u> to come tonight, but we cannot.	היינו רוצים לבוא הערב, אבל אנחנו לא יכולים.

For more on the subjunctive see page 299.

13.3 Impersonal modal expressions

There are modal impersonal expressions, which also combine with the main verb in the infinitive to express modality:

13.3.1 Modal expression + infinitive**1. Obligation/necessity**

<u>It is necessary</u> to reach the beach by car.	צריך להגיע לחוף במכונית.	צריך
<u>It is not necessary</u> to walk (there).	לא צריך ללכת ברגל.	לא צריך

2. Possibility

<u>It is possible</u> to reach the beach by bus.	אפשר להגיע לחוף באוטובוס.	אפשר
<u>It is impossible</u> to reach it by car.	אי אפשר להגיע לשם ברכב.	אי אפשר

can also be used as a
זה היה צפוי מראש.

'ready' can be used as
'willing'.

rb, meaning 'ready' or

יחיד	יחידה
מוכנה	מוכנה
ערוכה	ערוכה

החברה מוכנה להחזיר לך

בית הספר ערוך לקבל את
התלמידים החדשים.

present tense form מוכן
they can be used as

השולחן ערוך לארוחת החג
הארוחה מוכנה.

in all tenses. With the
a modal verb, the others
modality when they are

יחיד	יחידה
מתכוננת	מתכוננת
מתכוננת	מתכוננת
מתכוננת	מתכוננת

3. Permission

It is alright to stay here till midnight. מותר להישאר כאן עד חצות. מותר

It is forbidden/not allowed to leave the computers on. אסור לעזוב את המחשבים דלוקים. אסור

13.3.2 Modal expression + subordinate clause

Some of these expressions are combined with the linking particle *-ש* to introduce the main clause:

4. Possibility

It could be that we'll make it on time. יכול להיות ש- יכול להיות שנגיע בזמן.

It might be that we won't make it on time. ייתכן שלא נוכל להגיע בזמן. ייתכן ש-

5. Plausibility

It is plausible that we'll have enough time. סביר שיהיה לנו מספיק זמן. סביר ש-

It stands to reason that we'll have enough time to do everything. מתקבל על הדעת שיהיה לנו מספיק זמן לעשות הכל. מתקבל על הדעת ש-

6. Desirability

It is recommended/a good idea that everyone be present. רצוי שכולם יהיו נוכחים. רצוי ש-

It is important that everyone be present. חשוב שכולם יהיו מוכנים. חשוב ש-

13.4 Temporal aspects in modality

Most modal expressions are in the present tense, however there are contexts where past and future are also used.

13.4.1 Modal verbs: past and future

Some of the modal verbs exist as participles only, while others can be fully conjugated. In order to express the past and the future tenses in verbs that only have participial forms, the verb 'to be' in its appropriate tense, gender, number and person features combines with these modal verbs to indicate the temporal aspect.

They are obliged

They were obliged

They will be obliged

Other verbs have a participle form. The verb is conjugated with 'to be'.

I am planning to

I planned to host

We'll plan to host

Other verbs can be used with 'to be'.

I need/have to host

I needed/had to host them.

No combination of 'to be' and modal verb.

I'll have to host them.

13.4.2 Verb forms

1. Modal verbs

Past and future forms of modal verbs are not used in English.

2. A few modal verbs have past and future forms.

The temporal aspect is indicated by the form of the modal verb.

3. There are modal verbs that have a participle form with the verb 'to be' conjugation in the present tense. The participle form is used to indicate the temporal aspect.

The present tense form of the modal verb is used with an adjectival pattern.

מותר להישאר	מותר
אסור לעזוב את דלוקים.	אסור

use

the linking particle -ש to

יכול להיות ש- יכול להיות

ייתכן ש- ייתכן שלב בזמן.

סביר ש- סביר שיהיה ל

מתקבל על הדעת ש- מתקבל על הדעת מספיק זמן לע

רצוי ש- רצוי שכולם יהיו

חשוב ש- חשוב שכולם יהיו

se, however there are

y, while others can be
ad the future tenses in
rb היה 'to be' in its
eatures combines with

They <u>are obliged</u> to pack.	הם <u>חייבים</u> לארוז.	בינוני
They <u>were obliged</u> to pack.	הם <u>היו חייבים</u> לארוז.	עבר
They <u>will be obliged</u> to pack.	הם <u>יהיו חייבים</u> לארוז.	עתיד

Other verbs have a full conjugation and the finite form of the modal verb is conjugated in the appropriate tense.

I <u>am planning</u> to host them.	אני <u>מתכוון</u> לארח אותם.	בינוני
I <u>planned</u> to host them.	<u>התכוננתי</u> לארח אותם.	עבר
We'll <u>plan</u> to host them.	<u>נתכונן</u> לארח אותם.	עתיד

Other verbs can have either structure:

I <u>need/have</u> to host them.	אני <u>צריך</u> לארח אותם.	בינוני
I <u>needed/had</u> to host them.	<u>הצטרכתי</u> לארח אותם.	עבר
	אני <u>הייתי צריך</u> לארח אותם.	

No combination with היה in the future:

I'll <u>have</u> to host them.	<u>אצטרך</u> לארח אותם.	עתיד
--------------------------------	-------------------------	------

13.4.2 Verb or participle?

1. Modal verbs have the forms of present participles:

אמור, עשוי, עלול, צפוי, חייב, מוכן, ערוך

Past and future are indicated by the auxiliary verb היה, which is part of the modal phrase and indicates the temporal aspect.

2. A few modal verbs are conjugated in all tenses:

צריך, יכול, מתכוון

The temporal aspect of the modal phrase is indicated by the modal verb.

3. There are modal verbs that can appear either in a participle form with the verb היה 'to be' as tense indicator, or in their full conjugation in the appropriate tenses, in addition to the present participles. The two main verbs are יכול and צריך.

The present tense of יכול and צריך is irregular, and has parallels in adjectival patterns.

צריך, צריכה, צריכים, צריכות
 יכול, יכולה, יכולים, יכולות

The verb להצטרך is conjugated in its past and future tenses in the *hitpa'el* conjugation. יכול is in *pa'al*, but note that its future forms follow the *hif'il* conjugation for roots with initial יי (or medial וי/וי).

עבר: יכל		עבר: הצטרך	
רבים	יחיד	רבים	יחיד
יכלנו	יכלתי	הצטרכנו	הצטרכתי
יכלתם	יכלת	הצטרכתם	הצטרכת
יכלתן	יכלת	הצטרכתן	הצטרכת
הם יכלו	הוא יכל	הם הצטרכו	הוא הצטרך
הן יכלו	היא יכלה	הן הצטרכו	היא הצטרכה
עתיד: יוכל		עתיד: יצטרך	
רבים	יחיד	רבים	יחיד
נוכל	אוכל	נצטרך	אצטרך
תוכלו	תוכל	תצטרכו	תצטרך
תוכלו	תוכלי	תצטרכו	תצטרכי
הם יוכלו	הוא יוכל	הם יצטרכו	הוא יצטרך
הן יוכלו	היא תוכל	הן יצטרכו	היא תצטרך

13.4.3 Are צריך and הצטרך identical in meaning?

In the past tense, in everyday speech speakers use the phrase that combines היה and צריך much more often than they use the conjugated form of להצטרך, which is often reserved for more formal speech. They mean the same and are a matter of style, left to the speaker's choice.

We had to finish the project. היינו צריכים לסיים את הפרוייקט.
 We needed/had to stay in the library till ten. הצטרכנו להישאר בספרייה עד עשר.

In the future tense, the conjugated verb is used most often, especially when followed by an infinitive.

We will have to pack this evening, because we are leaving early in the morning. נצטרך לארוז עוד הערב, כי אנחנו יוצאים מוקדם בבוקר.

The verb להצטרך has an infinitive form and an imperative form, but the imperative is not used, since it has no practical application.

Note

The verb צריך 'need', and is not used in the imperative form. The children need to be quiet. The children need to be quiet. The children will be quiet.

13.4.4 Are יכול and הצטרך identical in meaning?

In the past tense, the conjugated form of יכול is used most often, especially when followed by an infinitive. I could have eaten the cake, but I did not feel like it.

Do you think that he will come on time?

I think that he is going to come, but he does not want to.

When יכול is used in the past tense, it has the meaning of an opportunity. The cake is no longer a possibility. We could have come, but we have not been so busy.

In the future tense, the conjugated form of יכול is used most often, especially when followed by an infinitive. We will not be able to come because we have other plans.

Comparative note

The verb יכול has a comparative form, which is a way to express 'to be able to'.

1. After an expression of possibility, as 'to have an opportunity'.

You want to be a doctor. *You want that you have the opportunity to do that. You want to be a doctor, buy a bike, swim, and...

בינוני:
צריך, צריכה, צריכים
future tenses in the
that its future forms
(or medial וי/י).

עבר: הצטרך	
רבים	יחיד
הצטרךתי	הצטרךתי
הצטרךת	הצטרךת
הצטרךת	הצטרךת
הם הצטרך	הוא הצטרך
הן הצטרך	היא הצטרך

עתיד: יצטרך	
רבים	יחיד
נצטרך	אצטרך
תצטרך	תצטרך
תצטרך	תצטרך
הם יצטרך	הוא יצטרך
הן יצטרך	היא תצטרך

meaning?
ers use the phrase that
they use the conjugated
re formal speech. They
e speaker's choice.

היינו צריכים לסיים את ה
הצטרך להישאר בספריה

most often, especially

נצטרך לארוז עוד הערב, כל
יוצאים מוקדם בבוקר.

imperative form, but the
application.

Note

The verb צריך is also a transitive main verb, and as such it means 'need', and is not a modal verb. It is followed by a direct object.

The children need help. הילדים צריכים עזרה.
The children needed help. הילדים היו צריכים עזרה.
The children will need help. הילדים יהיו צריכים עזרה.

13.4.4 Are הייתי יכול and יכולתי identical in meaning?

In the past tense the verb יכול means 'could/was able to'.
I could have eaten in the cafeteria, אבל לא היה לי חשק.
but I did not feel like it.

Do you think that he can come on time? אתה חושב שהוא יכול להגיע בזמן?
I think that he is able to, but he does not want to. אני חושב שהוא יכול, אבל הוא לא רוצה.

When יכול is combined with the verb היה it usually conveys the meaning of an unrealizable act, 'could have done something' (but this is no longer a possibility).
We could have come, if we had not been so busy. היינו יכולים לבוא, לולא היינו כל כך עסוקים.

In the future tense, the conjugated verb is used most often:
We will not be able to come, since we have other plans. לא נוכל לבוא, כי יש לנו תוכניות אחרות.

Comparative notes

The verb יכול has no imperative or infinitive forms. There is no direct way to express 'to be able to'. It has to be expressed indirectly:

1. After an expression of wish for the future, 'to be able to' is translated as 'to have an opportunity to':

You want to be able to do everything: ride a bike, swim, and sail.
*You want that you'll have an opportunity to do everything: ride a bike, swim, and sail. אתם רוצים שתהיה לכם אפשרות לעשות הכל: לרכב על אופניים, לשחות ולשוט במפרשת.

2. If 'to be able to' is in a past tense context, it is translated by a hypothetical conditional, with the expression 'have an opportunity to':

It would have been nice to be able to be there together.

It would have been nice if it had been possible to be there together. היה נחמד לו הייתה אפשרות להיות שם ביחד.

3. If 'to be able to' is part of a future projection, it is translated by a future conditional, with the expression 'have an opportunity to':

It would be so great to be able to go on a trip to Australia.

'to be able to' is translated by a future conditional.

It would be so great if we can go on a trip to Australia. זה יהיה ממש כיף אם נוכל לנסוע לטייל באוסטרליה.

4. There are times where 'to be able to' is omitted altogether:

I'd like to be able to come – but I am not sure that I'll be free.

I'd like to come – but I am not sure that I'll be free. הייתי רוצה לבוא, אבל אני לא בטוחה שיהיה לי זמן.

13.4.5 Tense indication in modal expressions

Modal expressions always require the verb היה for past and future tense markings.

Impersonal modal expressions can also be transformed to past and future tenses:

It is forbidden to sit here.	אסור לשבת כאן.	בינוני
It was forbidden to sit there.	היה אסור לשבת שם.	עבר
It will be forbidden to sit there.	יהיה אסור לשבת שם.	עתיד

These expressions can be stated in the positive or negative in the past and in the future tenses:

positive	<u>It was possible</u> to get there by bus.	אפשר היה להגיע לשם באוטובוס.
negative	<u>It was impossible</u> to get there by bus.	אי אפשר היה להגיע לשם באוטובוס.

13.5 Modality

13.5.1 The subjunctive

To express wish (desire, hope) a possibility is the entire conjunctive

Verbs of wish/desire

Verb of wish/desire

Verb of hope

Combination of subjunctive use

Subjunctive use

Impossible wish

13.5.2 The modal verb 'can'

The addition of a modal verb creates a number of sentences will consider an assertion, an expression of possibility, or a consideration of

Assertion

I can come to school.

Considering the possibility

I could come to school.

Any number of possibilities

'I could have, could have, could have' combination. This phrase its possibility, or with

it is translated by a
e an opportunity to':

ther.

היה נחמד לו הייתה אפשרות
שם ביחד.

o, it is translated by a
opportunity to':

ustralia.

l.
זה יהיה ממש כיף אם נוכח
לטייל באוסטרליה.

d altogether:

at I'll be free.

הייתי רוצה לבוא, אבל אני
שיהיה לי זמן.

ions

or past and future tense

ansformed to past and

בינוני אסור לשבת כאן
עבר היה אסור לשבת
עתיד יהיה אסור לשב

or negative in the past

אפשר היה להגיע לשם
באוטובוס.
אי אפשר היה להגיע
לשם באוטובוס.

13.5 Modality expressed by phrases with היה

13.5.1 The subjunctive use with 'wish' and 'desire'

To express wish or desire, verbs with that lexical meaning (want, wish, desire, hope) can be used with a finite verb in a verb phrase. Another possibility is the use of a combination with 'to be' in the past tense in its entire conjugation.

Verbs of wish/desire

Verb of wish/desire	I <u>want</u> to come tonight.	אני רוצה לבוא הערב.
Verb of hope	I <u>hope</u> to come tonight.	אני מקווה לבוא הערב.

Combination of היה + רוצה

Subjunctive use	I <u>would love</u> to come tonight.	הייתי רוצה מאוד לבוא הערב.
Impossible wish	<u>We would have liked</u> to come tonight, but we cannot.	היינו רוצים לבוא הערב, אבל אנחנו לא יכולים.

13.5.2 The modal phrase היה + יכול

The addition of the verb היה in the past tense to the modal verb יכול creates a number of additional nuances of meaning. The following sentences will consider the modal verb יכול as used with an infinitive in an assertion, and the various nuances when combined with the past tense of היה יכול, from consideration of a real possibility to consideration of a possibility that is no longer valid.

Assertion

I can come to swim. אני יכול לבוא לשחות.

Considering the possibility

I could come to swim. הייתי יכול לבוא לשחות.

Any number of possibilities:

'I could have, but I did not' is expressed by this היה + יכול combination. The rest of the context of the situation is used to assign to this phrase its precise meaning, whether it should be read as an existing possibility, or whether it should be considered an unrealized one.

Considering alternatives

I could be swimming in the pool now, but instead I am stuck in the office.

הייתי יכול לשחות בבריכה, אבל במקום זה אני תקוע במשרד.

Possibility no longer valid

I could have been swimming at the pool instead of working in the office.

הייתי יכול/יכולתי לשחות בבריכה במקום לעבוד במשרד.

I could have swum at the pool but I did not have enough time.

הייתי יכול לשחות בבריכה, אבל לא היה לי מספיק זמן.

Comparative notes

1. In Hebrew the sentence *הייתי יכול לשחות בבריכה* can have two possible readings: (1) the first reading is that of an option that is available for the speaker: 'I could be swimming in the pool (if only I wanted to/took the time to do it)'. The speaker is contemplating that option. (2) The second possible context in which this utterance could be used is in a situation in which something could have been realized but was not. 'I could have been swimming in the pool (but I did not)'. The full context of the utterance provides the reading of that sentence.

In English this is made clear to the reader/listener since there are various choices for expressing the past subjunctive: 'I could be swimming', 'I could have swum', 'I could have been swimming'; in Hebrew, however, all of those are indicated by the one expression *הייתי יכול לשחות*.

2. Unlike English, Hebrew does not have passive modal sentences. What is expressed by passive verbs in English is expressed by the modal verbs followed by a transitive main verb in Hebrew.

Subjectless sentence: Expression of need

The room should be cleaned once a day. (Literally, 'it is necessary to clean the room once a day').

צריך לנקות את החדר פעם ביום.

Subjectless sentence: Instruction

The room should be cleaned now!

צריך לנקות את החדר עכשיו!

Subjectless sentence

The room should be cleaned yesterday.

The room should be cleaned but nobody was.

13.5.3 Unfulfilled

They should have been here two days ago, but we haven't seen them yet.

Our parents were supposed to arrive at midnight, but they only arrived at four in the morning.

הייתי יכול לשחות בבריכה במקום זה אני תקוע במשך

הייתי יכול/יכולתי לשחות בבריכה במקום לעבוד במקום הייתי יכול לשחות בבריכה אבל לא היה לי מספיק זמן

can have two t. of an option that is g in the pool (if only I r is contemplating that this utterance could be have been realized but pool (but I did not)'. The g of that sentence.

listener since there are subjunctive: 'I could be ve been swimming'; in the one expression הייתי

passive modal sentences. wish is expressed by the in Hebrew.

צריך לנקות את החדר פעם

צריך לנקות את החדר עכשיו

Subjectless sentences: invalid or unfulfilled condition

The room should have been fixed היה צריך לסדר את החדר כבר אתמול.

The room should have been fixed, but nobody was there to fix it. צריך היה לסדר את החדר, אבל לא היה מי שיסדר אותו.

13.5.3 Unfulfilled expectations

They should have come two hours ago, but we have not heard from them yet. הם היו צריכים להגיע לפני שעתים, אבל עדיין לא שמענו מהם.

Our parents were supposed/expected to arrive at midnight, but they got here only at four in the morning. ההורים היו צריכים להגיע בחצות, אבל הם הגיעו רק בארבע בבוקר.

Chapter 14

Clauses and sentences

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Verbal sentences
- 14.3 Nominal sentences
- 14.4 Equational sentences
- 14.5 Existential sentences
- 14.6 Sentences of possession
- 14.7 Elliptical sentences
- 14.8 Classification of sentences by function
- 14.9 Classification of sentences by structure
- 14.10 Simple sentences
- 14.11 Coordinate/compound sentences
- 14.12 Complex sentences
- 14.13 Complement clauses
- 14.14 Attributive clauses
- 14.15 Relative clauses
- 14.16 Adverbial clauses
- 14.17 Conditional sentences
- 14.18 Integrated sentences

14.1 Introduction

The sentence is the maximal unit of syntax, while the minimal units that compose it are individual words. The major constituents of sentences are the subject and predicate phrases that join to construct a sentence. These constituents combine not only in a linear order, but also in a hierarchical and layered manner.

a. A linear arrangement:

The parents registered their kids for gym classes. ההורים רשמו את הילדים לשיעורי התעמלות.

b. A hierarchical, layered structure:

The sentence is represented here by a simplified graphic tree illustration, reflecting the division into the two main parts of the sentence:

In addition, it i
constitute the s
predicate, but a
noun phrase and

Each phrase ha
the entire phra
additional infor
noun phrase ו
of the verb פ
'dependent' con
attributes, while
accompany the
adjuncts.

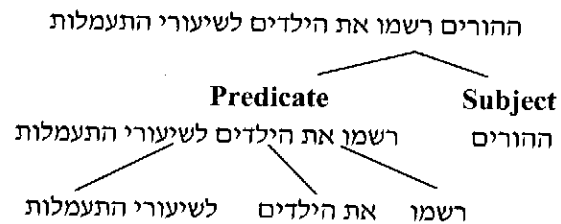
Types of phras

The major (phra
Noun phrase (N
Verb phrase (VF
Adjective phrase
Prepositional ph

The phrases can
Subject phrase
Predicate phrase

Types of senten

There are two m
their predicate:
Verbal sentences
Nominal sentenc



In addition, it is useful to have a description of the syntactic units that constitute the sentence not only in the traditional terms of subject and predicate, but also in terms of the composition of its constituents: a noun phrase and a verb phrase.

Each phrase has a head, also referred to as the nucleus that represents the entire phrase. It also can have dependent elements that provide additional information. Thus in the sentence above the core noun of the noun phrase 'ההורים' 'the parents' constitutes the head, and the core verb of the verb phrase 'רשמו' 'registered' constitutes the head. The 'dependent' components of the head noun are usually referred to as the attributes, while the 'dependent' components of the verb phrase that accompany the verb nucleus, are usually referred to as objects and adjuncts.

Types of phrases

The major (phrasal) sentence constituents:

Noun phrase (NP)	צירוף שמני (צ"ש)
Verb phrase (VP)	צירוף פועלי (צ"פ)
Adjective phrase, functioning as an attribute (AdjP)	צירוף תואר (צ"ת)
Prepositional phrase, functioning as an adjunct (PP)	צירוף יחס (צ"י)

The phrases can also be identified by their syntactic function:

Subject phrase	צירוף נושאי
Predicate phrase	צירוף נשואי

Types of sentences

There are two main categories of sentences identified by the content of their predicate:

Verbal sentences	משפטים פועליים
Nominal sentences	משפטים שמניים

14.2 Verbal sentences

משפטים פועליים

Verbal sentences are defined by their predicate. Those with a predicate that consists of a verb as its nucleus are considered verbal sentences. The main verb can be in tense, or part of a verb phrase where it appears in an infinitive form, or part of a verb phrase with a subject suffix or prefix, or without a subject.

David works at the electric company.

דוד עובד בחברת החשמל.

David can work for his father.

דוד יכול לעבוד אצל אבא שלו.

We worked for David's Dad.

עבדנו אצל אבא של דוד.

Work and don't waste time!

עבדו ואל תתבטלו!

14.2.1 Verbal sentences without subjects

There are two main types of verbal sentences without subjects:

1. Imperative sentences

משפטי ציווי

By the nature of their meaning, imperative sentences do not include subjects. They are used to give orders or directives to a second party, which is present. Their form, therefore, reflects the person being addressed.

David, go home!

דוד, לך הביתה!

Rina, get out of here!

רינה, צאי מכאן!

David and Rina, close the door!

דוד ורינה, סגרו את הדלת!

2. Impersonal sentences

משפטים סתמיים

There are sentences where the subject is not expressed overtly, but rather is implied. There are others where the subject is impersonal.

1. Verbs in sentences without a subject are always in the third person masculine plural, and can be in the present, past or future. In English such impersonal subjects are expressed by *they*, *one*, *you*, or by the verb being in the passive voice. A similar general impersonal subject is assumed and implied, though not expressed, in Hebrew.

(One) does not talk in the library.

בספריה לא מדברים.

The danger to the environment was not known then.

לא ידעו אז על הסכנה לסביבה.

If (you) do what (you) should, the situation will improve.

אם יעשו מה שצריך, המצב ישתפר.

b. Another way have a passive this type of sub called 'a dummy event).

It was agreed or workers.

It was decided t

c. There are se grammatical su emotional state these expressio masculine. In E it.

It is not easy to

It is important to

It is cold outside

To include the l קר 'it is cold', expressions are which a noun or suffix can be sa grammatical sub is it hot to you? it is sad for Ron it is known to me

A comparative

As seen in the ex most part, not th sentences where subject, both the

It is difficult for

It is important fo

משפטים פועליים

Those with a predicate
 ered verbal sentences.
 phrase where it appears
 with a subject suffix or

דוד עובד בחברת החשמל.
 דוד יכול לעבוד אצל אבא.
 עבדנו אצל אבא של דוד.
 עבדו ואל תתבטלו!

without subjects:

משפטי ציווי

sentences do not include
 tives to a second party,
 lects the person being

דוד, לך הביתה!
 רינה, צאי מכאן!
 דוד ורינה, סגרו את הדלת!

משפטים סתמיים

expressed overtly, but
 subject is impersonal.

ways in the third person
 ast or future. In English
 , *one*, *you*, or by the verb
 al impersonal subject is
 Hebrew.

בספריה לא מדברים.
 לא ידעו אז על הסכנה לסביבה.

אם יעשו מה שצריך, המצב
 ישתפר.

b. Another way of expressing a sentence without an overt subject is to have a passive verb in the third person, masculine singular. In English this type of subject is usually expressed by the pronoun *it* (sometimes called 'a dummy *it*', since it does not refer to any particular object or event).

It was agreed on to fire the striking workers. הוסכם על פיטור העובדים השובתים.
It was decided to hire new workers. הוחלט לשכור עובדים חדשים.

c. There are sentences that consist of fixed expressions that lack a grammatical subject. They usually describe a state of being or an emotional state, such as 'It is hot' חם or 'It is sad' עצוב. In Hebrew these expressions usually consist of adjectives in the third person masculine. In English such sentences start with an impersonal subject *it*.

It is not easy to study Hebrew. לא קל ללמוד עברית.
It is important to know what is new. חשוב לדעת מה חדש.
It is cold outside. קר בחוץ.

To include the logical subject in statements such as 'it is sad', or 'it is cold', and explain who is sad, or who is cold, these stative expressions are followed by a prepositional phrase with 'to', to which a noun or a pronoun suffix are attached. That noun or pronoun suffix can be said to be the logical subject of the sentence, but not its grammatical subject.

is it hot to you? → Are you hot? חם לכם?
it is sad for Ron → Ron is sad. עצוב לרון.
it is known to me → I am aware. ידוע לי.

A comparative note

As seen in the examples above, in English similar sentences are, for the most part, not thought of as impersonal sentences. However, there are sentences where the 'dummy' pronoun *it* supplies an impersonal subject, both the logical and grammatical.

It is difficult for us to remember everything. קשה לנו לזכור את הכל.
It is important for everyone to come on time. חשוב לכולם לבוא בזמן.

d. The subject in impersonal sentences can also be overtly expressed by an impersonal pronoun:

Somebody told me this story. מישהו סיפר לי את הסיפור הזה.

Anybody could have known this. כל אחד היה יכול לדעת את זה.

14.3 Nominal sentences

משפטים שמניים

Nominal sentences are sentences whose predicate does not have a verb. The predicate has as its nucleus a noun, an adjective, a prepositional phrase, or an adverbial expression. In the present tense there is no verb 'is' or 'are' and no tense indication. The future and past tenses are usually indicated by the verb היה 'be' in their appropriate conjugated form. At times the verb היה 'be' is also present in the moods. Other verbs of being or becoming, such as נהיה, נעשה or הפך ל, can be used as well.

The major types of nominal sentences are: equational sentences, existential sentences and sentences of possession.

14.4 Equational sentences

משפטי זיהוי

Equational sentences are defined by the composition of their predicate. The predicate consists of a noun phrase, an adjective, or a prepositional phrase, such as:

This movie is an animated film. הסרט הזה סרט מצוייר.

The audience's response is not surprising. התגובה של הקהל לא מפתיעה.

Women are from Venus and men are from Mars. נשים מנוגה וגברים ממאדים.

14.4.1 The copula (link)

האוגד

Equational sentences separate the subject and predicate by means of a copula (אוגד), which is the link between the two items. In the present tense it consists of third person personal pronouns. The copula usually agrees in gender and number with the head noun of the subject phrase. It may be regarded as equivalent to the English copula verb 'to be' in the present tense.

The new movie is an animated film. הסרט החדש הוא סרט מצוייר.

The audience's response is not at all encouraging. התגובה של הקהל היא בכלל לא מעודדת.

Women are from Venus and men are from Mars.

The past and future tenses are indicated by the verb היה 'be' in their appropriate conjugated form. In the present tense there is no verb 'is' or 'are' and no tense indication. The future and past tenses are usually indicated by the verb היה 'be' in their appropriate conjugated form. At times the verb היה 'be' is also present in the moods. Other verbs of being or becoming, such as נהיה, נעשה or הפך ל, can be used as well.

The old movie was very positive.

His family was very positive.

In the first and second person, and it is used in the sentence. The old movie was very positive. His family was very positive.

However, when the subject and the predicate are in the present tense, the subject and the predicate are in the present tense.

3rd person Wh
1st person I an

In sentences in the present tense, the subject and the predicate are in the present tense.

3rd person Rin
mer

2nd person Wer
mer

The negation of a copula is not used. In the present tense, the subject and the predicate are in the present tense. The house is not very positive.

The house was not very positive.

y expressed by

מישהו סיפר לי א
כל אחד היה יכול

משפטים שמנו

not have a verb.

a prepositional

there is no verb

past tenses are

iate conjugated

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, can be used as

onal sentences,

משפטי זיהוי

f their predicate.

r a prepositional

הסרט הזה סרט מ

התגובה של הקהל

נשים מנוגה וגברים

האוגד

te by means of a

s. In the present

he copula usually

ne subject phrase.

ala verb 'to be' in

הסרט החדש הוא ס

התגובה של הקהל ה

מעודדת.

Women are from Venus and men are from Mars. נשים הן מנוגה וגברים הם ממאדים.

The past and future is is a finite verb form of 'to be' in the third person, and it usually agrees in gender and number with the subject of the sentence.

The old movie was a Western. הסרט הישן היה מערבון.

The audience's response will be very positive. התגובה של הקהל תהיה חיובית.

His family was very rich. המשפחה שלו הייתה עשירה מאוד.

In the first and second person of equational sentences there is no copula in the present tense.

3rd person Avi Katz is a doctor. אבי כץ הוא רופא.

1st person I am also a doctor. גם אני רופא.

However, when the predicate is definite, in everyday speech even first or second person can have a third person copula that separates between the subject and the predicate:

3rd person Who is the doctor here? מי הוא הרופא כאן?

1st person I am the doctor here. אני הוא הרופא כאן/אני הרופא כאן.

In sentences in the past and future tenses the verb 'be' serves all persons.

3rd person Rina Bar was a party member. רינה בר הייתה חברה במפלגה.

2nd person Were you also a party member? גם את היית חברה במפלגה?

The negation of a nominal sentence consists of the negative particle לא. In the present tense, the existential expression אין can be used with a personal pronoun suffix.

The house is not new. הבית לא חדש.

הבית הוא לא חדש.

הבית איננו חדש.

The house was not new. הבית לא היה חדש.

14.4.2 Predicate: prepositional phrase or adverbs

When the predicate of a nominal phrase is a prepositional phrase, the prepositional phrase has a fixed form and is not affected by any of the other constituents of the sentence.

Predicate: prepositional phrase

Haifa is in northern Israel.	בצפון ישראל.	היא	חיפה
The article was about the economic situation.	על המצב הכלכלי.	הייתה	הכתבה
The interview will be in your office.	במשרד שלך.	יהיה	הראיון

Predicate: adverb

The meeting is tomorrow.	מחר.	היא	הפגישה
The restaurant was there.	שם.	הייתה	המסעדה
The interview will be here.	כאן.	יהיה	הראיון

When the prepositional phrase or adverb marks location, the copula can be changed to the verb נמצא '(is/are) located'.

The café is on the beach.	על שפת הים.	נמצא	בית הקפה
The restaurant is downtown.	במרכז העיר.	נמצאת	המסעדה
The offices are located here.	כאן.	נמצאים	המשרדים

14.4.3 The demonstrative pronoun as copula

A clause that begins with an infinitive or a question word or with a subordinating particle can constitute the subject of a sentence. The copula in this configuration is usually the demonstrative pronoun and not the subject pronoun.

1. Head of sentence: infinitive phrase

In this type of sentence the infinitive phrase, functioning as a gerund, replaces the noun phrase:

<u>Climbing</u> (to climb) mountains <u>is</u> Dan's main hobby.	לטפס על הרים זה התחביב העיקרי של דן.
<u>Meeting</u> (to meet) local people <u>is</u> the purpose of the tourists.	לפגוש אנשים מקומיים זאת המטרה של התיירים.

2. Head of sentence

This type of sentence begins with a subordinating particle -ש, which is followed by a clause. Example: What he told you

Whoever did not know the people who were the director.

3. Head of sentence

This type of sentence begins with a clause followed by an infinitive phrase. Example: That he had preceded by an infinitive phrase. English.

That fact that he had for a year is a subject. That he has not for a year is a fact.

As the subject of a sentence has no number, the copula of the sentence must consist of an infinitive in its feminine form or a question word. These are handled by the demonstrative pronoun, which agrees with the subject.

14.4.4 Linking

a. Verbs of becoming

In addition to the copula, there exist copula-like verbs between the subject and the predicate, which add a quality to the subject. These are stating identity or 'becoming', a

verbs

nominal phrase, the
introduced by any of the

היא חיפה
הייתה הכתבה
יהיה הראיון

היא הפגישה
הייתה המסעדה
יהיה הראיון

and, the copula can

נמצא בית הקפה
נמצא המסעדה
נמצא המשרדים

in word or with a
of a sentence. The
relative pronoun and

functioning as a gerund,

לטפס על הרים זה ת
העיקרי של דן.
לפגוש אנשים מקומי
המטרה של התיירים

2. Head of sentence: whatever/whoever מה ש/מי ש

This type of sentence is introduced by a question word followed by the particle -ש, which introduces the opening clause.

What he told you is just not true. מה שהוא סיפר לכם זה פשוט לא נכון.

Whoever did not do his job, were not the people who work here, it was the director. מי שלא עשה את שלו זה לא היו האנשים שעובדים כאן, זה חיה המנהל.

3. Head of sentence: (the fact) that... ...ש (זה)

This type of sentence is introduced by the subordinating particle -ש followed by an opening clause. This subordinating particle can be preceded by זה, similar to the use of the phrase 'the fact (that)' in English.

That fact that he has not been working for a year is a surprising thing. זה שהוא לא עובד כבר שנה זה דבר מפתיע.

That he has not been working for a year is a fact. שהוא לא עובד כבר שנה זאת עובדה.

As the subject of such sentences is a clause and not a nominal entity, it has no number or gender features. In such instances it is the predicate of the sentence that determines the type of the אונג, which does not consist of an independent subject pronoun but of the masculine or feminine form of the demonstrative pronoun. The past and future tenses are handled by the verb 'to be' conjugated in the appropriate form that agrees with the predicate.

14.4.4 Linking verbs

a. Verbs of becoming

In addition to copulas like the verb היה 'to be' and the pronouns (personal and demonstrative) that may work as alternatives to it, there exist copula-like auxiliary verbs whose main function is also to connect between the subject and predicate, but which add some 'verb-like' quality to the relationship between the two that goes beyond merely stating identity or quality. The most common involve a change-of-state, or 'becoming', as in the following:

The policeman Erez became a sergeant this week. השוטר ארז הפך השבוע לְסַמָּל.

Ephraim has become a good-looking boy. אפרים גדל ונהיה בחור נאה.

With (the passing of) time, he became the Governor's right hand man. עם הזמן הוא נעשה (ליד ימינו של המושל).

b. Verbs describing state and change of state

The linking verbs can describe various stages of being, becoming, and remaining:

They were our very good friends. הם היו החברים הטובים שלנו.

They became our very good friends. הם נהיו החברים הטובים שלנו.

They remained our very good friends. הם נשארו החברים הטובים שלנו.

c. Verbs or perception

In addition to the verbs of 'becoming' or those describing a state, there are also verbs or perception that can be used to link a subject and its predicate. They have to be completed by adverbs, adjectives, or other nouns.

Predicate of Clause 2: adverb

The main verbs of perception are נראה 'seem' or נשמע 'sounds'.

They are often completed by the adverbs טוב 'good', or רע 'bad'. The adverb does not change its shape regardless of the gender or number of the subject.

Aliza doesn't look bad. עליזה נראית לא רע.

It does not sound good. זה לא נשמע טוב.

Predicate of Clause 2: adjective

It is possible to consider the verb and its complement as consisting of two separate propositions. In this case the adjective or noun following the verb of perception agrees with the subject in gender and number.

You seem - אתם נראים -

You are sad. אתם עצובים.

The two clauses are fused into one by omitting the subject of the second clause, which is redundant, and combining the two clauses.

Combined into a sentence

Why do you seem so sad? למה אתם נראים כל כך עצובים?

This drama sou
This drama is v
Combined into
This drama sou
melodramatic

There are other
well beyond the
Dan is consider
excellent interv

14.5 Existen

The predicate o
'there is/are' o
existence or the

There is a pool
There is no big
nice garden.

In the present t
gender features
feminine, singu
There is an orga
There is no mat
There are settler
There is no new

Past and future

When these sen
in the third per
existential expr
subject is mascu
היה, if the subj
when the subject

There is a new n
There were rumo
There won't be a

השוטר ארוז הפך השבוע

אפריים גדל ונהיה בחור

עם הזמן הוא נעשה (ל)מושל.
המושל.

being, becoming, and

הם תינו החברים הטובים
הם נהיו החברים הטובים
הם נשארו החברים הטובים
שלנו.

describing a state, there
link a subject and its
s, adjectives, or other

שמע 'sounds'.
'good', or 'bad'. The
gender or number of

עליזה נראית לא רע.
זה לא נשמע טוב.

agreement as consisting of
verb or noun following
gender and number.

אתם נראים -
אתם עצובים.

linking the subject of the
linking the two clauses.

למה אתם נראים כל כך עצובים?

This drama sounds -

This drama is very melodramatic.

Combined into a sentence:

This drama sounds very
melodramatic.

הדרמה הזאת נשמעת -

הדרמה הזאת מלודרמטית מאוד.

הדרמה הזאת נשמעת מלודרמטית
מאוד.

There are other verbs of this type where the copulative element goes well beyond the mere subject-predicate relationship.

Dan is considered/regarded as an

excellent interviewer.

דן נחשב למראיין מצוין.

14.5 Existential sentences

משפטי קיום

The predicate of existential sentences is the existential expression יש 'there is/are' or its negation אין 'there is/are not'. It points to the existence or the state of the subject.

There is a pool in the backyard.

There is no big yard, but there is a
nice garden.

יש בריכה בשכונה.

אין חצר גדולה, אבל יש גינה
נחמדה.

In the present tense, the existential expressions do not have number and gender features. They are used for all subjects, be they masculine or feminine, singular or plural:

There is an organized tour of the area.

There is no matinee today.

There are settlements in the south.

There is no news today.

יש טיול מאורגן בסביבה.

אין הצגה יומית היום.

יש יישובים בדרום.

אין חדשות היום.

Past and future: 'to be' + agreement features

When these sentences are in the past or future, the verb 'to be' is used in the third person. The verb forms in the past and future, unlike the existential expression, have features of gender and number. If the subject is masculine singular, the verb form is the third person singular היה, if the subject is feminine singular, the verb form is הייתה, and when the subject is plural, the verb form is היו.

There is a new nightclub in town.

There were rumors in the air.

There won't be another such chance.

יש מועדון לילה חדש בעיר.

היו שמועות באוויר.

לא תהיה עוד הזדמנות כזאת.

14.6 Sentences of possession

משפטי קניין

Sentences of possession describe the relationship between two objects. The function of the objects can be described as ‘possessor’ and ‘possessed’. The relationship between these objects is not necessarily that of actual ownership; it can be one of having certain qualities or characteristics.

The actual process for creating sentences of possession can be described as the putting together of the following components:

1. Starting with an existential expression: ‘there is/there are’ יש (or its negative)
2. Adding the subject of the existential expression, such as ‘interesting books’ ספרים מעניינים

We now have an existential sentence:

There are interesting books. יש ספרים מעניינים.

3. What is needed is information about who has the interesting books. This information is added by means of a prepositional phrase, consisting of the preposition ל- and a noun/noun phrase or a pronoun suffix of the possessor.

4. We now have a sentence of possession:

Dan has interesting books. יש לדן ספרים מעניינים.

We can identify the two main nominal entities as:

Possessed item: ‘interesting books’ Possessor: ‘Dan’

The ‘possessed’ item is the grammatical subject of the sentence, and the ‘possessor’ is part of the prepositional phrase. This is counter-intuitive for English speakers, since the possessor of the object is not in the subject position. In English, one simply follows the rules of other verbal sentences: ‘Dan (subject) + has (verb) + a book (direct object)’. Dan is the possessor, and he constitutes the logical and grammatical subject of the sentence. In Hebrew there is no verb that expresses the notion of ‘to have’. The statement of possession is therefore conveyed by other means, as seen above. ‘Dan has a book’ is literally expressed by a statement of this nature: ‘*There is to Dan a book*’, or ‘*a book exists (belonging) to Dan*’.

A comparative n

In English many possession, but complements of This house has a The town does n

14.6.1 Sentenc

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14.6.2 Past and

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14.6.3 Possess

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משפטי קניין

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, such as 'interesting

יש ספרים מעניינים.

the interesting books.
prepositional phrase,
phrase or a pronoun

יש לך ספרים מעניינים.

Possessor: 'Dan'

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is literally expressed
'book', or 'a book exists

A comparative note

In English many inanimate objects can be the subjects of sentences of possession, but their Hebrew counterparts are usually locative complements of existential expressions in existential sentences.

This house has a pool. יש בבית הזה בריכה.

The town does not have many parks. אין בעיר הרבה גנים.

14.6.1 Sentences of possession in present tense

The present tense of a sentence of possession is indicated by the predicate existential expressions יש 'there is/there are' and its negative counterpart אין 'there isn't/there aren't'. These existential expressions do not have gender or number features. They are used whether the noun is masculine or feminine, singular or plural.

He has some friends in Tel Aviv. יש לו חברים בתל-אביב.

This (f.) student has lots of work. יש לסטודנטית הזאת הרבה עבודה.

Dan has no friends in Tel Aviv. אין לך חברים בתל-אביב.

14.6.2 Past and future: 'to be' + agreement features

When these sentences are in the past or future, the verb 'to be' is used in the third person. The agreement in number and gender is with the head noun of the subject (the 'possessed' noun).

He had some friends in Tel Aviv. היו לו חברים בתל-אביב.

Dan had no opportunity to travel. לא הייתה לך הזדמנות לטייל.

Will you have time to come and help me? יהיה לך זמן לבוא לעזור לי?

I won't have a problem helping you. לא תהיה לי בעיה לעזור לך.

14.6.3 Possession is not necessarily ownership

To indicate true ownership, it is also possible to use the adjective שןך and the preposition -ל. This phrase is equivalent to the English 'belongs to'.

This computer belongs to everyone – המחשב הזה שןך לכולם – הוא לא רק שלך.

This car does not belong to me. המכונית הזאת לא שןכת לי.

These fields belong to the agricultural השדות האלה שןכים לחווה החקלאית.

All the laboratories belong to the כל המעבדות שןכות לממשלה. government.

The past and future of such sentences are indicated by adding the verb 'to be' in the appropriate tense.

The coat used to belong to my big brother. המעיל היה שייך לאחי הגדול.

One day all of this will belong to you. יום אחד הכל יהיה שייך לך.

There is a difference in meaning between 'Dan has interesting books', and 'These books belong to Dan'. While the first sentence indicates possession, it does not necessarily indicate ownership.

14.6.4 Word order

When the 'possessor' is a pronoun, the word order is fixed:

He has some friends in Tel Aviv. יש לו חברים בתל-אביב.

When the 'possessor' is a full noun or a noun phrase, there are two possible orderings. The word order can also follow the one above, with the existential statement initiating the sentence:

My family has relatives in Haifa. יש למשפחה שלי קרובים בחיפה.

The other option – when a full noun or a noun phrase is involved – is for the 'possessor' to initiate the same sentence as the topic, followed by the rest of the information in the sentence.

My family has relatives in Haifa. למשפחה שלי יש קרובים בחיפה.

Less commonly, if one really wishes to focus attention on the possessor as the topic of the sentence, one can front it further: In the example below, the topic of the sentence is 'my family', and the comment about the family is that it has some relatives in Tel Aviv.

My family, it has relatives in Haifa. המשפחה שלי, יש לה קרובים בחיפה.

14.6.5 Sentences of possession with indefinite subjects

Notice that all the examples and explanations above had indefinite subjects.

I have a class right now. יש לי שיעור עכשיו.

Dan has problems at work. לֵדן יש בעיות בעבודה.

Who does not have problems at work? למי אין בעיות בעבודה?

The main point of new information relationship to its

14.6.6 Possessive

The situation is normative rules subjects are the subjects.

Expected normal

Indefinite Subject:

Definite Subject:

Common use

In common use sentences. They t -ל with a verb verb. Thus 'the p as is indicated by which only precede

I have the book tickets.
We don't have the tickets.

Another strategy the sentence 'at my place', i.e.

Those who insist contend with the direct object pro sentence can be marker את with t

Do you have the Sorry, but I don't

The main point of a sentence with an indefinite subject is to transmit new information about the existence of a certain item and its relationship to its possessor.

14.6.6 Possessive sentences with definite subjects

The situation is more complex when the subject is definite. The normative rules governing sentences of possession with definite subjects are the same as the ones that govern sentences with indefinite subjects.

Expected normative use (rarely in practice):

<u>Indefinite Subject:</u>	I have new books.	יש לי ספרים חדשים.
<u>Definite Subject:</u>	I have <u>the</u> new <u>books</u> that you gave me.	יש לי <u>הספרים</u> החדשים שנתת לי.

Common use

In common use speakers avoid using definite subjects in possessive sentences. They tend to endow the existential expression of possession -יש ל- with a verbal quality. As such it assumes the status of a transitive verb. Thus 'the possessed' item takes on a new role of a direct object, as is indicated by the introduction of the definite accusative marker את, which only precedes a definite direct object.

I have <u>the book</u> that you gave me.	יש לי <u>את הספר</u> שנתת לי.
We don't have <u>the money</u> for the tickets.	אין לנו <u>את הכסף</u> בשביל הכרטיסים.

Another strategy to avoid using יש לי הספרים שנתת לי is to paraphrase the sentence 'the books that you gave me are at my place', i.e. 'I have them'.

Those who insist that the use of את is ungrammatical, still have to contend with the problem in such utterances as 'I have it', where a direct object pronoun takes the place of the subject noun. Such a sentence can be expressed **only** with the addition of the direct object marker את with the appropriate pronoun suffix: אותן/אותם/אותו.

Do you have <u>the book</u> that I gave you?	יש לך <u>את הספר</u> שנתתי לך?
Sorry, but I don't have <u>it</u> .	מצטער, אבל אין לי <u>אותו</u> .

14.6.7 Sentences of possession in the past and future

In the past and future tenses, the verb להיות is inserted to indicate tense, but unlike the existential expressions יש/אין, the verb forms do include gender and number features that reflect the features of the grammatical subject, and thus are subject to agreement with it. The agreement is not that simple or obvious, as the subject that governs such rules follows the verbal expression. Note that all the verb forms are in the third person, regardless of who the 'possessor' is. Also, in the past and future tenses the negative particle לא is used for negation of the expressions of possession.

Past tense statements

Gender and Number of 'possessed' objects

<u>Masc. Sing.</u>	We had a <u>class</u> today.	היה לנו שיעור היום.
<u>Fem. Sing.</u>	He had no <u>plan</u> for this evening.	לא הייתה לו תוכנית לערב.
<u>Plural</u>	He had <u>many problems</u> at work.	היו לו בעיות בעבודה.

Future tense statements

Gender and Number of 'possessed' objects

<u>Masc. Sing.</u>	We won't have a <u>class</u> today.	לא יהיה לנו שיעור היום.
<u>Fem. Sing.</u>	He'll have a <u>plan</u> for this evening?	תהיה לו תוכנית לערב?
<u>Plural</u>	He won't have <u>any problems</u> at work.	לא יהיו לו בעיות בעבודה.

The possessed noun, which is the grammatical subject of the sentence, determines the gender and number features, and unlike English, the verb never reflects the person features of the possessor. This is a frequent source of errors for speakers of English, where the possessor is the grammatical as well as the logical subject of sentences of possession.

A fairly common mistake made by non-native speakers is to work in a 'translation mode' and start the sentence with the possessor as the subject:

Masculine, sing
The correct verb
subject pronoun
Masculine, sing

The position of
Adverbs or sub
possession can
the sentence.

When we studie
We had many fr

Cancellation of
Agreement feat
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היה/יהיה with n
feminine or plu
rapid speech, an
important to emp
in standard or m

Normative
I once had such
We'll have some
plant.

Substandard but
I once had such
We'll have some
plant.

14.6.8 No infin
Possessive expre
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started to indicate tense, verb forms do include features of the grammatical agreement. The agreement is not such rules follows forms are in the third in the past and future on of the expressions

s

היה לנו שיעור היום.
לא הייתה לו תוכנית לערב.
היו לו בעיות בעבודה.

s

לא יהיה לנו שיעור היום.
תהיה לו תוכנית לערב?
לא יהיו לו בעיות בעבודה.

subject of the sentence, and unlike English, the possessor. This is a where the possessor is subject of sentences of

speakers is to work in a the possessor as the

Masculine, singular I had a class today הייתה לי שיעור היום.
The correct verbal form is determined by the noun 'class' and not by a subject pronoun, such as 'I'.

Masculine, singular I had a class today היה לי שיעור היום.

The position of adverbs and subordinate clauses

Adverbs or subordinate clauses (such as time clauses) in sentences of possession can initiate a sentence of possession or come at the end of the sentence.

When we studied we had many friends. כשלמדנו היו לנו הרבה חברים.
We had many friends when we studied. היו לנו הרבה חברים כשלמדנו.

Cancellation of gender and number features in colloquial speech

Agreement features of gender and number are sometimes cancelled in colloquial spoken Hebrew. Sentences of possession include the verb היה/יהיה with no gender or number features, even when the subject is feminine or plural. This variant is particularly common in casual or rapid speech, and only when the verb comes before the subject. It is important to emphasize that this is not an option in written Hebrew, nor in standard or more formal speech.

Normative

I once had such a car. הייתה לי פעם מכונית כזאת.
We'll have some new workers in the plant. יהיו לנו עובדים חדשים במפעל.

Substandard but common colloquial use

I once had such a car. היה לי פעם מכונית כזאת.
We'll have some new workers in the plant. יהיה לנו עובדים חדשים במפעל.

14.6.8 No infinitive in sentences of possession

Possessive expressions (יש, לה, היה, etc.) do not have an infinitive mood. Appropriate paraphrases have to be found, and the message has to be stated in other ways. This is done often through the use of subordinate clauses in the future tense. At other times, the idea can be conveyed through an impersonal modal verb.

I hope to have a dog.

Paraphrase: I hope that I will have a dog. אני מקווה שיהיה לי כלב.

One needs to have a lot of money.

Paraphrase: One needs a lot of money, if one צריך (שיהיה) הרבה כסף, אם רוצים דירה בעיר.
wants an apartment in town.

14.6.9 Sentences of possession with expanded subjects

A clause that begins with an infinitive, or a question word, can also constitute the subject of a sentence of possession. As such it has no number or gender features, and the verb in the past and future has the form of the masculine singular.

I have something to tell you. יש לי משהו להגיד לך.

I have nothing more to say to you. אין לי יותר מה להגיד לך.

Did you have somewhere to live? היה לכם איפה לגור?

David will not have anybody to talk to. לדוד לא יהיה עם מי לדבר.

14.7 Elliptical sentences

משפטים חסרים

An elliptical sentence is one in which some component of the sentence is lacking, but can be figured out from the context or from syntactic clues. The general assumption is that the speaker and the listener share a common background, or a context, and therefore can fill the gaps.

There can be overt clues that point to the missing element. In a sentence like הגענו 'we have arrived', for instance, the subject pronoun אנחנו 'we' can easily be reconstructed from the pronominal residue at the end of the verb form itself, -נו:

We got there only after seven. הגענו לשם רק אחרי שבע.

In a sentence which has two verbal clauses, the subject need not be repeated in the second clause as it can be reconstructed from the earlier mention:

Moshe had breakfast and went to work. משה אכל ארוחת בוקר והלך לעבודה.

The same is true of gaps in parallel structures: in the following example, it suffices for the verb שותה to appear in the first sentence;

repeating it in superfluous:

Dan drinks coffee.

In a conversation part of the sentence:

Where were you?

In the library.

There are other warning or sending of the speaker:

Sit down, please!

Elliptical sentence the speaker's opinion his/her experience

(It is) suffocating

(It is) hard for me

(It is) boring

In most cases, providing the new hidden subject, using evident and redundant

While sentences, components; there components is missing

Such sentences in greetings, or advertisements

News headline

A petition to the Supreme Court

Converting the beaches – a blight

Missing component

A petition (was presented to the) Supreme Court.

repeating it in the following parallel structure would have been superfluous:

Dan drinks coffee, and Dina cold tea. דן שותה קפה, ודינה תה קר.

In a conversational situation, the response to a question is often lacking part of the sentence:

Where were you? איפה הייתם?
In the library. בספרייה.

There are other cases, where the sentence consists of an interjection, warning or sending a message to someone who may be in the proximity of the speaker:

Sit down, please! לשבת בבקשה Quiet! שקט!

Elliptical sentences can also consist of general statements that express the speaker's opinion/feeling regarding the world around him/her, or his/her experience:

(It is) suffocating	מחניק	All right, OK	בסדר/טוב
(It is) hard for me	קשה לי	(It's a) pity	חבל
(It is) boring	משעמם	Great!	נהדר

In most cases, these sentences consist of predicates, or comments, providing the new information the speaker/writer wishes to impart. The hidden subject, usually an *it*-type one (e.g. זה נהדר 'It is great!') is self evident and redundant.

While sentences, on the whole, include all minimally required syntactic components; there are occasions in which one of the required syntactic components is missing. Some elliptical sentences lack the predicate. Such sentences tend to occur in such contexts as news headlines, greetings, or advertisements:

News headline נותרת בעיתון

A petition to the Supreme Court: עתירה לבג"צ:

Converting the beaches to pay- הפיכת חופי הרחצה לחופים בתשלום -
beaches – a blight to the state מכת מדינה

Missing component in parentheses

A petition (was presented) to the (הוגשה) עתירה לבג"צ.
Supreme Court.

Converting the public beaches to pay-beaches (constitutes) a blight to the state.

הפיכת חופי הרחצה לחופים בתשלום (מהווה) מכת מדינה.

A birthday greeting

To darling Tamar

Lots of joy

Lots of love

And most important: health

Mom, Dad and your brothers

ברכה ליום הולדת

לתמר החמודה

הרבה שמחה

הרבה אהבה

הכי חשוב: בריאות

אמא, אבא והאחים

Missing component in parentheses

(we wish you) a lot of joy, lots of love, and most important health, (greeting is from) Mom, Dad and your brothers

(אנחנו מאחלים לך) הרבה שמחה, אהבה והכי חשוב בריאות, (מ)אמא, אבא והאחים

Advertisement

NetAction.

Fantastic sales!

Group purchasing in wholesale prices.

פרסומת

נטאקשון.

מכירות פיצוץ!

קנייה קבוצתית במחיר סיטונאי.

Missing component in parentheses

There (are) fantastic sales.

Group purchasing (is available/possible) in wholesale prices.

(יש) מכירות פיצוץ.

קנייה קבוצתית (אפשרית) במחיר סיטונאי.

14.8 Classification of sentences by function

Sentences can also be classified according to their function and content. Some are used for making statements, others pose questions, while others issue directives, and some include exclamations of surprise, or convey excitement. They have illocutionary functions, and describe different aspects of language performance.

The following is the traditional categorization of sentences by the function that they perform:

Declarative sentences

Declarative sentences express impressions. Such as:

We bought a new house.

Our house is so big.

Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences use question words or ones that require intonation at the end of the sentence. They end with a question mark.

Where did you buy the house?

Is it a new house?

Imperative sentences

Imperative sentences are used for requests, prohibitions, and commands. They can be marked with an exclamation mark.

Sit down, please.

Be seated, please.

Turn around!

Smoking is not allowed.

No smoking!

Exclamatory sentences

Exclamatory sentences are usually subjective expressions, and are marked with an exclamation mark.

How you have grown!

Great!

What a true catastrophe!

Declarative sentences**משפטי חיווי (הגדר)**

Declarative sentences make factual statements or describe situations or impressions. Such sentences usually end with a period.

We bought a small house outside town. קנינו בית קטן מחוץ לעיר.
Our house is surrounded by woods. הבית שלנו מוקף בחורשות.

Interrogative sentences**משפטי שאלה**

Interrogative sentences pose questions. They are initiated by question words or ones that require a yes/no answer, and can end with rising intonation at the end of the sentence indicating a question. They usually end with a question mark.

Where did you buy a house? איפה קניתם בית?
Is it a new house? זה בית חדש?

Imperative sentences**משפטי ציווי**

Imperative sentences issue directives (commands, instructions, requests, prohibitions etc.). They usually end with an exclamation mark. They can have imperative verb commands, or infinitive forms.

Sit down, please! שבו בבקשה!
Be seated, please! נא לשבת!
Turn around! אחורה פנה!
Smoking is not allowed! אסור לעשן!
No smoking! לא לעשן!

Exclamatory sentences**משפטי קריאה**

Exclamatory sentences have an emotive or attitudinal meaning. They are usually subjectless sentences, often initiated by an adverbial expression, and at times consist of one word only. They usually end with an exclamation mark.

How you have grown! כמה שגדלת!
Great! יופי!
What a true catastrophe! איזה אסון אמיתי!

הפיכת חופי הרחצה ל...
(מהווה) מכת מדינה.

ברכה ליום הולדת
לתמר החמודה
הרבה שמחה
הרבה אהבה
הכי חשוב: בריאות
אמא, אבא והאחים

(אנחנו מאחלים לך) ה...
אהבה והכי חשוב ברי...
אבא והאחים

פרסומת

נטאקשון.
מכירות פיצוץ!
קנייה קבוצתית במח...
סיטונאי.

(יש) מכירות פיצוץ.
קנייה קבוצתית (אפש...
סיטונאי.

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action and content.
e questions, while
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14.9 Classification of sentences by structure

The three main groups of sentences are presented in a short summary, and each will then be discussed separately.

1. Simple sentences

משפטים פשוטים

Simple sentences include one subject and one predicate. They are usually composed of a noun phrase and a verb phrase or a verbless predicate. Each sentence includes one proposition.

Shakespeare is considered the most important playwright.

שקספיר נחשב למחזאי החשוב ביותר.

Hanoch Levin and Nissim Alloni are the important Israeli playwrights of the 20th century.

חנוך לוין ונסיים אלוני הם המחזאים הישראליים החשובים של המאה העשרים.

2. Coordinate/compound sentences

משפטים מאוחדים (מחוברים)

Coordinate sentences include two or more separate and independent clauses that are usually linked by conjunctions.

The well-known author received many international awards, however he did not win the Nobel Prize for Literature.

הסופר הידוע זכה בפרסים בינלאומיים, אולם הוא לא זכה בפרס נובל לספרות.

We were exhausted, but we arrived in time for Dad's birthday party.

היינו עייפים, אבל הגענו בזמן לחגיגת יום ההולדת של אבא.

3. Complex sentences

משפטים מורכבים

Complex sentences include one independent clause and at least one subordinate clause.

You knew that they could not come.

הרי ידעתם שהם לא יוכלו לבוא.

Some sentences are compound-complex, that is, they have more than one independent clause and at least one dependent clause:

After the party was over, my grandfather claimed that he knew about the party, but we think that it was truly a surprise.

אחרי שהמסיבה נגמרה, סבא שלי טען שהוא ידע על המסיבה, אבל אנחנו חושבים שזאת הייתה באמת הפתעה.

14.10 Simple

A simple sentence... We drove from... less than an hour

A simple sentence... components: a... the simple sentence

1. The subject... more rarely can... longer simple –

The road from T... in good condition

That I drive from... is not surprising

Driving from Te... not something sp

2. Verbs may ha... optional. They drive too f

He will meet wi... tomorrow aftern

3. There are also... of its main comp... (They) feed the e

14.10.1 'Inclus

As noted above, consists of one... sentences that ha... Ariel and Tamar... at a stand on the

14.10 Simple sentences

משפטים פשוטים

A simple sentence consists of one independent clause, such as:

We drove from Tel Aviv to Haifa in less than an hour. נסענו מתל-אביב לחיפה בפחות משעה.

A simple sentence is composed minimally of the following components: a subject and a predicate. Each of the main components of the simple sentence can have variants.

1. The subject can be a single noun, a pronoun or a noun phrase, and more rarely can also be a clause (in which case the sentence is no longer simple – see section on complement clauses below, p 340):

The road from Tel Aviv to Haifa is in good condition. הכביש מתל-אביב לחיפה הוא במצב טוב.

That I drive from Tel Aviv to Haifa is not surprising – I work there. שאני נוהגת מתל אביב לחיפה, זה לא מפתיע – אני עובדת שם.

Driving from Tel Aviv to Haifa is not something special. לנהוג מתל אביב לחיפה, זה לא משהו מיוחד.

2. Verbs may have complements that are obligatory, and others that are optional.

They drive too fast. הם נוהגים מהר מדי.

He will meet with the advisor tomorrow afternoon. הוא ייפגש עם היועץ מחר אחר הצהריים.

3. There are also simple sentences that are elliptical sentences, i.e. one of its main components may be omitted.

(They) feed the animals twice a day. מאכילים את החיות פעמיים ביום.

14.10.1 'Inclusive' sentences

משפטים כוללים

As noted above, the simple sentence basically states one proposition. It consists of one clause, in contrast to the coordinate and complex sentences that have more than one.

Ariel and Tamar bought ice cream at a stand on the beach. אריאל ותמר קנו גלידה בקיוסק על חוף הים.

However, because the statement above has two separate entities as its subject, it can be stated by two simple sentences:

Ariel bought ice cream. אריאל קנה גלידה.
Tamar bought ice cream. תמר קנתה גלידה.

Because some of the content of each proposition is identical to that of the other, the respective subjects can be combined into one, and the sentence can be expanded in this manner:

Ariel and Tamar bought ice cream. אריאל ותמר קנו גלידה.

The question that is posed is whether a sentence that includes coordinated phrases, such as two or more subjects, or two or more predicates, or several other items of the same syntactic category and level, should be still considered a simple sentence. The answer is often 'yes', since the sentence still constitutes one main proposition: הם קנו גלידה. However, in traditional Hebrew grammar it is often viewed as a separate sub-category, and referred to as משפט כולל, an 'inclusive' sentence, with an underlying structure of two separate propositions. Here are more illustrations:

Shmuel and Neta had coffee. שמואל ונטע שתו קפה.

Two subjects:

Shmuel drank coffee. שמואל שתה קפה.
Neta drank coffee. נטע שתתה קפה.

They drank coffee and ate cake at the café. הם שתו קפה ואכלו עוגה בבית הקפה.

Two verbs

They drank coffee. הם שתו קפה.
They ate cake. הם אכלו עוגה.

Waiter, bring me coffee and cake. מלצר, הבא לי קפה ועוגה.

Two direct objects

Bring me coffee! הבא לי קפה!
Bring me cake! הבא לי עוגה!

Waiter, bring (to) me and (to) my wife coffee and cake. מלצר, הבא לי ולאשתי קפה ועוגה!

Two indirect ob

Bring (to) me c

Bring (to) her c

The coordinati
is a good case
therefore the s
expanded phras

**14.11 Coord
sente**

Coordinate sen
sentences that
conjunction oft
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indicated by the
the coordinate
structures of the
into one longer

David and Leah
movies, and the
home.

נתעו שארו בבית

Here are some c
define their mut

Choice

or
either... or

separate entities as its

אריאל קנה גלידה.
תמר קנתה גלידה.

is identical to that of
ned into one, and the

אריאל ותמר קנו גלידה.

sentence that includes
jects, or two or more
syntactic category and
e. The answer is often
in proposition: הם קנו
it is often viewed as a
משפט, an 'inclusive'
separate propositions.

שמואל ונטע שתו קפה.

שמואל שתה קפה.
נטע שתתה קפה.

הם שתו קפה ואכלו עוגה.

הם שתו קפה.
הם אכלו עוגה.

מלצר, הבא לי קפה ועוגה.

הבא לי קפה!
הבא לי עוגה!

מלצר, הבא לי ולאשתי קפ

Two indirect objects

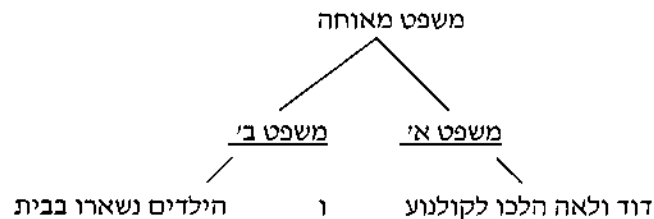
Bring (to) me coffee and cake. הבא לי קפה ועוגה!
Bring (to) her coffee and cake. הבא לה קפה ועוגה!

The coordination is on the phrase level, but on the sentence level there is a good case to make that there is but one main proposition and therefore the sentences can be viewed as simple sentences, with expanded phrases.

14.11 Coordinate/compound משפטים מאוחדים/מחוברים sentences

Coordinate sentences, also referred to as compound sentences, are sentences that include more than one independent clause. A conjunction often joins the two or more separate sentences. There can also be some relationship between the component sentences, which is indicated by the type of conjunction that joins them. What distinguishes the coordinate sentence is the fact that it comprises of two syntactic structures of the same level, two independent sentences that are joined into one longer sentence, while each one remains intact.

David and Leah went to the movies, and their children stayed home. דוד ולאה הלכו לקולנוע והילדים שלחם נשארו בבית.



Here are some of the conjunctions that link independent sentences and define their mutual relationship:

<u>Choice</u>	<u>בְּרִירָה</u>	<u>Addition</u>	<u>תוספת</u>
or	או	and	-ו
either... or	או... או	also	גם
		as well	גם... וגם
		too	אף

<u>Conclusion</u>	<u>מסקנה</u>	<u>Opposition</u>	<u>עימות</u>
therefore	לכן/ולכן	but	אבל
consequently	לפיכך	however	אולם
as a result	אי לכך	but	אך
		nevertheless	אם כי
		nonetheless	בכל זאת

Illustrations:

More than 4000 students gave up their summer vacation this year, and they attend school every morning.

יותר מ-4,000 תלמידים ויתרו השנה על החופש הגדול, ומתייצבים מדי בוקר בבית הספר.

Yoni returned late, but Dalia came back early.

יוני חזר מאוחר, אבל דליה הגיעה מוקדם.

He knew it would hurt us, but he did it anyhow.

הוא ידע שזה יפגע בנו, ובכל זאת הוא עשה את זה.

There is a water shortage, and consequently everyone is asked to save water between 1-5 p.m.

יש מחסור במים, ולפיכך כולם מתבקשים לחסוך במים בין 1-5 אחה"צ.

We are not tired at all, so therefore we plan to go out and have a good time this evening.

אנחנו בכלל לא עייפים, ולכן אנחנו מתכוננים לצאת לבלות הערב.

14.12 Complex sentences**משפטים מורכבים**

Complex sentences contain one independent clause and at least one dependent clause (clauses that cannot stand alone as sentences). Unlike compound sentences, a complex sentence contains clauses that are not equal. Consider the following examples:

Simple sentence

I was given tickets for the show. I don't feel like going.

משפט פשוט
נתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה. לא מתחשק לי ללכת.

Compound sentence

I was given tickets for the show, but I don't feel like going.

משפט מאוחד (מחובר)
נתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה, אבל לא מתחשק לי ללכת.

Complex sentence

Even though I was given tickets for the show, I don't feel like going.

משפט מורכב
למרות שנתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה, לא מתחשק לי ללכת.

In the first exam

The second exam is a coordinating compound sentence. The independent clause tells which is more important than,

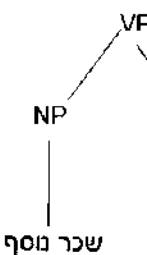
In the third exam, the subordinate clause, and has

When a subordinate clause, it becomes more important than,

14.12.1 Subordinate clauses

A subordinate clause is a clause such as a subject clause, a subordinate clause, a relative clause, a meaning, and the main clause that include a wide range of segments. They are clauses which they are joined to the main clause.

The following diagram shows a noun phrase, which is a



osition	עימות
ever	אבל
theless	אולם
theless	אך
	אם כי
	בכל זאת

יותר מ-4,000 תלמידים
 השנה על החופש הגדול,
 מדי בוקר בבית הספר.

יוני חזר מאוחר, אבל דלי
 מוקדם.

הוא ידע שזה יפגע בנו, ו
 עשה את זה.

יש מחסור במים, ולפיכך
 מתבקשים לחסוך במים
 אחרי'צ.

אנחנו בכלל לא עייפים,
 מתכווננים לצאת לבלות

משפטים מורכבים
 use and at least one
 as sentences). Unlike
 s clauses that are not

משפט פשוט
 נתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה
 מתחשק לי ללכת.
משפט מאוחד (מחובר)
 נתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה
 לא מתחשק לי ללכת.
משפט מורכב
 למרות שנתנו לי כרטיסים
 להצגה, לא מתחשק לי ל

In the first example, there are two separate simple sentences:

1. נתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה. 2. לא מתחשק לי ללכת.

The second example joins them together into a single sentence with the coordinating conjunction, but both parts could still stand as independent sentences. Both sentences are equal, and it is difficult to tell which is more important:

1. נתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה אבל 2. לא מתחשק לי ללכת.

In the third example, the first clause is incomplete, or a dependent clause, and has to be completed:

1. למרות שנתנו לי כרטיסים להצגה, _____

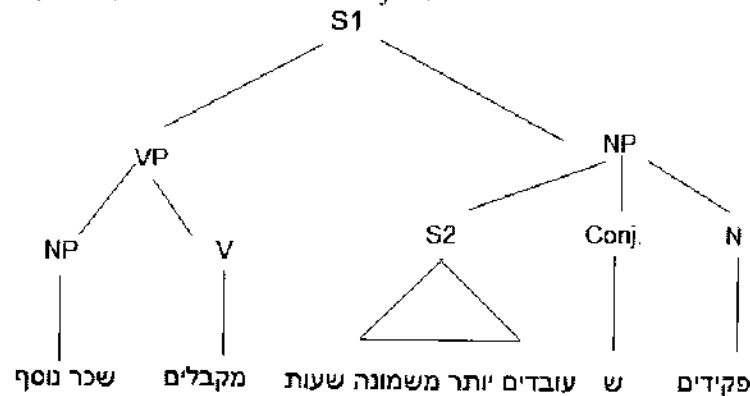
When a subordinating conjunction, such as ש, initiates the first clause, it becomes clear that the fact that you were given tickets is less important than, or is subordinate to, the fact that you do not want to go.

14.12.1 Subordinate clauses

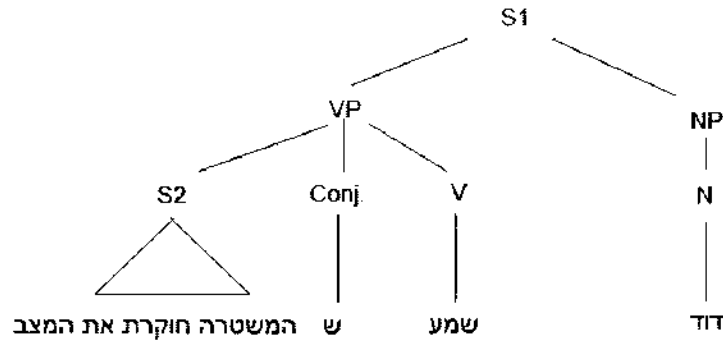
פסוקיות משועבדות

A subordinate clause is usually introduced by a subordinating element such as a subordinating conjunction or relative pronoun. The subordinate clause depends on the rest of the sentence for its full meaning, and thus cannot stand alone. It must always be attached to a main clause that completes the meaning. The subordinate clauses include a wide range of clauses that will be discussed in the following segments. They can expand the noun phrases or the verb phrases to which they are joined with a variety of subordinating conjunctions.

The following diagram is that of a subordinate clause that expands the noun phrase, which serves as a subject:



The diagram below is of a verb phrase that includes a subordinate clause that serves as the verb complement.



Note

The main clause is traditionally labeled משפט עיקרי (literally translated as 'main sentence'), and the subordinate clause is labeled either משפט טפל (secondary sentence) or משפט משועבד (subordinate sentence). We shall refer to the clause as פסוקית and to the full sentence as משפט.

14.13 Complement clauses פסוקיות משלימות

Some subordinate clauses function as noun phrase substitutes, expanding an object, a subject, or a predicate into clauses. They are called 'complement' clauses because they constitute noun phrase substitutes, expanded into clauses, which complement verbs or other predicates. Such subordinate clauses can be classified into three categories:

Subject

<u>Subject clause</u>	The person who toils on the eve of the Sabbath, will eat on the Sabbath.	מי שטרח בערב שבת, יאכל בשבת.
<u>Noun phrase</u>	The 'toiler' on the Sabbath eve, will eat on the Sabbath.	הטורח בערב שבת, אוכל בשבת.
<u>Subject clause</u>	What you heard from Dan is not true.	מה ששמעת מדן, איננו נכון/זה לא נכון.
<u>Noun phrase</u>	The rumors are not true.	השמועות אינן נכונות.

When the pre usually follow

Subject clause

Here is the un
Subject clause
Predicate

2. Predicate c

A clause may
The question i
tomorrow.

The two comp

Main clause

Predicate clau

The abstract [

possible to fro
the component

Transformation

What will happ
question.

One may subs
front the predic

The question is

Transformation

What to do wit

3. Object clau

A subordinate
Its function is

becomes clear
with a noun phr

cludes a subordinate

NP
|
N
|
D/D

(literally translated
labeled either משפט
linate sentence). We
sentence as משפט.

פסוקיות משלימות

phrase substitutes,
o clauses. They are
stitute noun phrase
ment verbs or other
classified into three

מי שטרם בערב שבת,
יאכל בשבת.

הטורח בערב שבת,
אוכל בשבת.

מה ששמעת מן, איננו
נכון/זה לא נכון.
השמעות אינן נכונות.

When the predicate is an adverbial expression, the subject clause usually follows the predicate.

Subject clause It is possible that he won't get here tomorrow. ייתכן שהוא לא יגיע מחר.

Here is the underlying structure:

Subject clause That he won't be coming שהוא לא יגיע
Predicate Is possible ייתכן

2. Predicate clause

פסוקית נשוא

A clause may also substitute for the predicate, as in

The question is what will happen tomorrow. השאלה היא, מה יקרה מחר.

The two component sentences are:

Main clause The question is [something] השאלה היא [משהו]
Predicate clause What will happen tomorrow מה יקרה מחר

The abstract [something] is replaced by the predicate clause. It is also possible to front the predicate clause by a simple change in the order of the components:

Transformation:

What will happen tomorrow is the question. מה יקרה מחר, זאת השאלה.

One may substitute the verb in tense by an infinitive, and similarly front the predicate clause:

The question is, what to do with him. השאלה היא, מה לעשות אתו.

Transformation:

What to do with him, that is the question. מה לעשות אתו, זאת השאלה.

3. Object clause

פסוקית מושא

A subordinate object clause serves as the direct object in the sentence. Its function is to expand verbs of saying/intention/thinking/desiring. It becomes clearer when one compares a complement clause as an object with a noun phrase serving in the same grammatical role:

Direct object

Comp. clause He heard that an accident occurred. הוא שמע שקרתה תאונה.

Noun phrase He heard the news. הוא שמע את החדשות.

The complement object clause is initiated by the subordinating particle -ש, while the noun phrase direct object is initiated by the accusative particle את.

This is the underlying structure of the sentence with the object complement clause:

<u>Main clause</u>	He heard [something]	הוא שמע [משהו]
<u>Object clause</u>	An accident occurred	[קרתה תאונה]

In order to form a complex sentence out of these two clauses, the abstract 'something' is replaced by the whole object clause, and the subordinate clause is preceded by the complementizer 'that', which is normally -ש. In higher registers it can be replaced by כי. The subjects of the two sentences are different הוא/תאונה, and the object sentence is unchanged and is preceded by the conjoining particle.

After verbs of 'wish' or 'desire', when the subjects of the two sentences are identical, the subject of the second clause is omitted, and the infinitive form of the verb is used.

I want to eat. אני רוצה לאכול.

The underlying structure reveals two separate clauses, while the surface structure has an expanded verb phrase 'want...to eat':

Here is the underlying structure:

<u>Main clause</u>	I want [something]	אני רוצה [משהו]
<u>Subordinate object clause</u>	I will eat	[אני אכל]

When the subjects are different the use of the infinitive is no longer an option.

I want you to eat (lit. I want that you will eat). אני רוצה שאתה תאכל.

Note

Since in English the direct object, English uses the particle את, while in Hebrew it is not used.

Expansion of

There are also second clause first clause, in

Clause 1Clause 2

Ronit is the object of the clause. The two clauses are joined as the modifier of the main verb.

Conflating the two clauses into one sentence, Ronit.

I s

(R

Combining the two clauses into one sentence.

I sa

Wh

Changing the verb into a subordinate clause.

I sa

Notice that the gerund is used instead of the noun of the direct object.

We heard them laughing.

We caught them by surprise.

He found the girl crying.

Note

Since in English the (different) subject of the second clause becomes an object, English speakers tend to make the following mistake: **אני רוצה אותך לאכול**, which is not an option in Hebrew.

Expansion of direct objects

There are also complex sentences that consist of two clauses, where the second clause describes the state of, or the activity of, the object of the first clause, in the same time frame of reference:

Clause 1	I saw <u>Ronit</u> .	ראיתי את רונית.
Clause 2	<u>Ronit</u> was dancing.	רונית רקדה.

Ronit is the object in the first clause, and the subject in the second clause. The two occur simultaneously. The second clause can be used as the modifier of the direct object (or possibly as an adverbial adjunct of the main verb), in the following manner:

Conflating the two clauses and omitting the redundant occurrence of Ronit.

I saw <u>Ronit</u> .	ראיתי את רונית.
(Ronit) was dancing.	כש(רונית) רקדה.

Combining the two clauses with a time subordinator.

I saw <u>Ronit</u> .	ראיתי את רונית.
While (Ronit) was dancing.	כש(רונית) רקדה.

Changing the verb form to a participle and omitting the time subordinator.

I saw <u>Ronit dancing</u> .	ראיתי את רונית רוקדת.
------------------------------	-----------------------

Notice that the gender and number feature of the participle agree with the noun of the direct object:

We heard <u>them laughing</u> .	שמענו אותם צוחקות.
We caught <u>them breaking</u> into the car.	תפסנו אותם פורצים למכונית.
He found <u>the girl trembling</u> with fear.	הוא מצא את הילדה רועדת מפחד.

14.14 Attributive clauses

An attributive clause is a subordinate clause that modifies any noun. It serves the same function as an adjective in that it adds information to the head noun.

NP: noun + adjective

The new books are very expensive.

צ"ש: שם + תואר

הספרים החדשים יקרים מאוד.

NP: noun + attributive clause

The books I bought yesterday are very expensive.

צ"ש: שם + פסוקית לווּאי

הספרים שקניתי אתמול יקרים מאוד.

The underlying structure of the second sentence contains two basic clauses: a main clause and an attributive clause.

The books are expensive.

הספרים יקרים מאוד.

I bought books yesterday.

קניתי אתמול ספרים.

Notice that there is a common element to both the main clause and the attributive clause, and that is the noun ספרים 'books' that is referred to in both clauses. This feature characterizes all relative clauses (see below). However, not all attributive clauses are relative clauses and some attributive clauses may not have a reference in the main clause. Consider the following:

NP: noun + adjective

The awful rumor troubled me.

צ"ש: שם + תואר

השמועה הנוראית הטרידה אותי.

NP: noun + attributive clause

The rumor that thousands of workers will be laid off troubled me.

צ"ש: שם + פסוקית לווּאי

השמועה שיפוטרו אלפי עובדים הטרידה אותי.

The underlying structure of the second sentence contains two basic clauses:

The rumor bothered me.

השמועה הטרידה אותי.

Thousands of workers will be laid off.

אלפי עובדים יפוטרו.

Notice that unlike the ספרים 'books' example above, in this one the main and the subordinate clause do not share any common nominal entities. They are two separate clauses. The attributive clause completes

the noun by a
can be relative
or they can be
have a co-refe

14.15 Relative

A relative clau
main clause, b
trace or 'echo'
is attributive, i

When the verb
introduced by
before present

1. When the s

The man who
door is my bro

Notice that each
clause. Both s
repeated in the
sentence earlier

Main clause

Relative clause

The noun precede
same noun with

A comparative

While English
in Hebrew the
relative clause.

the noun by adding information to it. As we can see, attributive clauses can be relative clauses when they have a co-referent in the main clause, or they can be a subordinate but not a relative clause when they do not have a co-referent in the main clause.

14.15 Relative clauses

פסוקיות זיקה

A relative clause is a subordinate clause that modifies any noun in the main clause, but also shares a co-referent with the main clause, or has a trace or 'echo' of that noun that is co-referential. As a noun modifier, it is attributive, i.e., can be thought of as being equivalent to an adjective.

When the verb in the relative clause is finite, the clause is generally introduced by *-ש*, *אשר* or *-ה*. The relative particle *-ה* can only be used before present tense participles.

1. When the subjects of the two clauses are identical

The man who is standing by the door is my brother.

האיש שעומד ליד הדלת הוא אחי.

האיש אשר עומד ליד הדלת הוא אחי.

האיש העומד ליד הדלת הוא אחי.

Notice that each sentence has two clauses: a main clause, and a relative clause. Both share the subject, in this case, but the subject is not repeated in the relative clause, as it has already been introduced in the sentence earlier and therefore its presence is redundant.

<u>Main clause</u>	A man is standing by the door.	איש עומד ליד הדלת.
<u>Relative clause</u>	That man is my brother.	האיש הוא אחי.

The noun preceding the relative clause, which is co-referential with the same noun within the relative clause, is called the antecedent.

A comparative note

While English relative pronouns like *who* are used to link such clauses, in Hebrew the relative particle *-ש* (or its variants) introduces the relative clause.

פסוקיות לזואי

that modifies any noun. It adds information to

צ"ש: שם + תואר

הספרים החדשים יקרים

צ"ש: שם + פסוקית לזואי

הספרים שקניתי אתמול יקרים

contains two basic

הספרים יקרים מאוד.

קניתי אתמול ספרים.

the main clause and the 'objects' that is referred to in the relative clauses (see the relative clauses and the trace in the main clause.

צ"ש: שם + תואר

השמועה הנוראית הטרדה

צ"ש: שם + פסוקית לזואי

השמועה שיפוטרו אלפי

הטרדה אותי.

contains two basic

השמועה הטרדה אותי

אלפי עובדים יפוטרו.

above, in this one the

very common nominal

relative clause completes

2. When the object of the relative clause is a direct object

Main clause I have a commitment to the public. יש לי מחויבות ל[ציבור]

Relative clause I represent the public. אני מייצג [את הציבור]

There are a number of ways of linking the two clauses together, to form the complex sentence 'I have a commitment to the public that I represent':

a. Instead of repeating the object twice, the second object phrase is replaced by the direct object marker *את* with a pronoun suffix, which reflects the gender and number of the object.

1. יש לי מחויבות לציבור שאותו אני מייצג.

b. There is another option, which is to initiate the relative clause with the relative particle *-ש*, keep the clause order intact, and place the object with the direct object pronoun at the end:

2. יש לי מחויבות לציבור שאני מייצג אותו.

c. A third option, when the co-referential is a direct object, is to delete it when the two clauses are merged into one complex sentence:

3. יש לי מחויבות לציבור שאני מייצג.

3. When the object of the relative clause is an indirect object

When the noun in the subordinate clause is an indirect object, following a preposition, the pronominal residue is obligatory since the preposition cannot stand on its own:

The paper on which (that on it) the book was printed is of a high quality. הנייר שעליו הודפס הספר הוא באיכות גבוהה.

Main clause The paper is of a high quality. [הנייר] הוא באיכות גבוהה.

Relative clause The book was printed on the paper. הספר הודפס על [הנייר].

Note that the preposition plus pronoun 'on it' does not have to occur at the beginning of the clause:

הנייר שהספר הודפס עליו הוא באיכות גבוהה.

The paper on which the book was printed is of the best quality.

14.15.1 Rela

Relative clauses maintain the suffixes, which they receive are complete preposition or *that*.

Other examples

The bench on

The notebook wrote.

The friend to w

The man with

The teacher ab talked.

The children w

14.15.2 Restr

Before it is mo nouns in the un any modification class of all po domain of the phrase צעירים class of all po adjectival modi this manner.

Restrictive rela within the expan

We met student variety of count

Direct object

יש לי מחויבות ל[ציבור]

אני מייצג [את הציבור]

causes together, to form
to the public that 1

second object phrase is
pronoun suffix, which

1. יש לי מחויבות לציבור

the relative clause with
intact, and place the

2. יש לי מחויבות לציבור

direct object, is to delete
complex sentence:

3. יש לי מחויבות לציבור

Indirect object

direct object, following
y since the preposition

הנייר שעליו הודפס הספר
באיכות גבוהה.

[הנייר] הוא באיכות
גבוהה.

הספר הודפס על [הנייר].

it' does not have to

הנייר שהספר הודפס עליו
הכי טובה.

14.15.1 Relative suffix pronouns**הכינוי המוסב**

Relative clauses whose objects are linked to their verbs by prepositions maintain the prepositions but replace the full nouns by pronoun suffixes, which agree in gender and number features with the nouns to which they refer. No preposition can be left 'dangling;' in Hebrew they are complemented by suffixes echoing the noun, while in English the preposition is followed by the relative pronouns, such as *which*, *whom*, or *that*.

הבית שבו גרנו היה במרכז העיר.

התערוכות שבהן ביקרתי היו מעניינות.

Other examples

The <u>bench on which</u> we sat.	הספסל שעליו ישבנו.	ישבנו על הספסל.
The <u>notebook in which</u> we wrote.	המחברת שבה כתבנו.	כתבנו במחברת.
The <u>friend to whom</u> we phoned.	החבר שאלין טלפנו.	טלפנו אל החבר.
The <u>man with whom</u> we met.	האיש שאתנו נפגשנו.	נפגשנו עם האיש.
The teacher about whom we talked.	המורה שעליה דיברנו.	דיברנו על המורה.
The <u>children whom</u> we saw.	הילדים שאותם ראינו.	ראינו את הילדים.

14.15.2 Restrictive relative clauses פסוקיות זיקה מצמצמות

Before it is modified, any noun potentially refers to the whole class of nouns in the universe that it designates. Thus, on its own and without any modification, the noun משוררים 'poets', for instance, refers to the class of all poets. One result of modification is that it restricts the domain of the noun from the whole class to a sub-class. Thus the phrase משוררים צעירים 'young poets', narrows down the scope from the class of all poets to the sub-class of those who are young. Simple adjectival modifiers generally restrict the domain of the head noun in this manner.

Restrictive relative clauses function in a similar manner as modifiers within the expanded noun phrase structure:

We met students who came from a variety of countries. פגשנו תלמידים שבאו מארצות שונות.

The relative clause restricts the antecedent noun in the main clause from the whole class of students to those who came from a variety of countries.

The contrast between restrictive and non-restrictive

It is not always clear whether the relative clause is restrictive or not, and inability to make the distinction may cause ambiguity. For instance:

Young poets who publish on the Internet are read by many readers.

משוררים צעירים שמפרסמים
באינטרנט נקראים על ידי הרבה
קוראים.

Young poets, who publish on the Internet, are read by many readers.

משוררים צעירים, שמפרסמים
באינטרנט, נקראים על ידי הרבה
קוראים.

The first example is restrictive. It states that many readers read young poets who publish on the Internet. The inserted relative clause restricts the domain from all young poets to those who publish on the Internet, implying that there are other young poets who do not. The second example is non-restrictive and it states that young poets in general are read by many, adding as an 'aside' that they generally publish on the Internet. The 'aside' is signaled by breaks in intonation, which are symbolized by commas separating the relative clause from the rest of the sentence. The comma intonation suggests that the relative clause is a non-restrictive 'afterthought', i.e., that in general, young poets (i.e. essentially **all** of them, the whole class) publish on the Internet.

There are three formal features that can clarify the distinction between the two types of clauses:

1. The comma signs that distinguish between the two types of clauses. Only the non-restrictive relative clause is initiated and completed with comma signs and thus signals its special 'afterthought', non-restrictive meaning.
2. Added modifiers: 'only' for the restrictive clauses, and 'all' for the non-restrictive ones.
3. Adding something like 'by the way' or 'I want to add' to identify the non-restrictive clause.

Only young poets who publish on the Internet are read by many readers.

All young poets, who publish on the Internet, are read by many readers.

Young poets, who publish on the Internet, are read by many readers.

14.16 Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses are introduced by such adverbial particles as *when*, *before*, *after*, *since*, *until*, *while*, *as long as*.

Time adverbial clauses

Time clause

14.16.1 Time clauses

There are a variety of time clauses, one for a particular time relationship.

These clauses are:

'when'? 'since'

Meaning

when
before
after
since
until
while
as long as

Here are some examples:

Only young poets who publish on the Internet are read by many readers.

רק משוררים צעירים שמפרסמים באינטרנט נקראים על ידי הרבה קוראים.

All young poets, who publish on the Internet, are read by many readers.

כל המשוררים הצעירים, שמפרסמים באינטרנט, נקראים על ידי הרבה קוראים.

Young poets, who, by the way, publish on the Internet, are read by many readers.

משוררים צעירים, שדרך אגב, מפרסמים באינטרנט, נקראים על ידי הרבה קוראים.

14.16 Adverbial clauses

פסוקיות אדורביליות

Adverbial clauses usually substitute for adverbs. There are a variety of such adverbial clauses, and most of them are preceded by a meaningful particle and the subordinator -ש that introduces the adverbial clause.

Time adverb

We returned early.

חזרנו מוקדם.

Time clause

We returned before the sun set.

חזרנו לפני שהשמש שקעה.

14.16.1 Time clauses

פסוקיות זמן

There are a variety of time subordinators, and the choice of a particular one for a particular meaning is usually determined by register.

These clauses usually answer the following questions:

Meaning	Variant (higher register)	Subordinator
when	כְּאִשֶּׁר, בְּשַׁעַה שְׁ-, בְּעֵת שְׁ-	כְּשֶׁ-, בְּזֶמַן שְׁ-
before	בְּטָרַם, קִדְם שְׁ-	לפני שְׁ-
after	לאַחַר שְׁ-	אַחֲרֵי שְׁ-
since	מִשְׁ-	מֵאַז (שְׁ-), מִזְמַן שְׁ-
until	עַד אֲשֶׁר	עַד שְׁ-
while	בְּעוֹד, בְּשַׁעַה שְׁ-	בְּזֶמַן שְׁ-
as long as	כָּל עוֹד	כָּל זְמַן שְׁ-

Here are some examples for the use of time clauses:

I wasn't at home <u>when she arrived</u> .	לא הייתי בבית כשהיא הגיעה.
<u>Main clause</u> I wasn't at home.	לא הייתי בבית.
<u>Time clause</u> She arrived.	היא הגיעה.

Before he turned to politics, he was the National bank manager. לפני שפנה לפוליטיקה, הוא היה מנהל הבנק הלאומי.

<u>Main clause</u> He was the bank's director.	הוא היה מנהל הבנק הלאומי.
<u>Time clause</u> He turned to politics.	הוא פנה לפוליטיקה.

Some time clauses contain gerunds instead of finite verbs, usually in the higher registers:

Upon immigrating to Israel, he changed his name. בעלותו לישראל הוא שינה את שמו.

This sentence can be paraphrased with the substitution of a finite verb for the gerund and a change in order of the sentence components:

He changed his name when he immigrated to Israel. הוא שינה את שמו כשהוא עלה לישראל.

14.16.2 Location/place clauses

פסוקיות מקום

There are a variety of location subordinators, and the choice of a particular one for a particular meaning is usually determined by register.

These clauses usually answer the questions:

'where?' 'from where?' 'to where?'

<u>Register/context</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Subordinator</u>
common use	where	שבו/שבה/שבהם/שבהן
high register		במקום ש
use of adverb		שם
high register	where/wherever	באשר
colloquial, sub-standard		*איפה ש
standard	to where/ever	לכל מקום ש
colloquial, sub-standard		*לאן ש

Common use

I'll go with you wherever you wish (to go) אני אבוא איתך לאן שתרצי (ללכת)

Main clause

Links

Location

Clause

Higher register

Wherever (at t

repentants star

righteous are r

Main clause

Location

14.16.3 Man

There are a v

particular one

specific meani

These clauses

'how?' 'in wha

Register/conte

common use

higher register

common use

common use

I spoke to him

to everyone.

לא הייתי בבית כשהיא הגיעה
לא הייתי בבית.
היא הגיעה.

לפני שפנה לפוליטיקה, הוא
מנהל הבנק הלאומי.

הוא היה מנהל הבנק הלאומי
הוא פנה לפוליטיקה.

finite verbs, usually in

בעלותו לישראל הוא שינה
שמו.

stitution of a finite verb
ce components:

הוא שינה את שמו כשהוא
לישראל.

פסוקיות מקום

and the choice of a
usually determined by

איפה, מאיפה, לאן?

Subordinator

שב/שבה/שבהם/שבון
במקום ש
שם
באשר
*איפה ש
לכל מקום ש
*לאן ש

אני אבוא איתך לאן שתה
(ללכת)

<u>Main clause</u>	I will come with you [to any place]	אני אבוא איתך [לכל מקום]
<u>Links</u>	Where[ever]	[לאן] ש
<u>Location</u>	You want to go [there]	את רוצה ללכת [לשם]
<u>Clause</u>		

Higher register

<u>Wherever (at the place where)</u>	repentants stand, even the most righteous are not allowed to stand	במקום שבעלי תשובה עומדים, צדיקים גמורים אינם יכולים לעמוד.
--------------------------------------	--	--

<u>Main clause</u>	The most righteous are not allowed to stand (in the place)	צדיקים גמורים אינם יכולים לעמוד ב[מקום]
<u>Location</u>	Repentants stand (in the place)	בעלי תשובה עומדים ב[מקום]

14.16.3 Manner clauses

פסוקיות אופן

There are a variety of manner subordinators, and the choice of a particular one for a particular meaning is usually determined by specific meaning or by register.

These clauses usually answer the questions: 'how?' 'in what way?'

איך? באיזה אופן? באיזו דרך?

<u>Register/context</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Subordinator</u>
common use	like	כמו ש כפי ש
higher register	thus/so that	כך ש
common use	just like	כשם ש
common use	as if	כאלו (ש)
common use	in a manner that	באופן ש/בדרך ש

I spoke to him directly, as I spoke to everyone. דיברתי אתו ישירות, כמו שדיברתי עם כולם/כפי שדיברתי עם כולם.

<u>Main clause</u>	I spoke to him directly	דיברתי אתו ישירות
<u>Links</u>	as/in the same manner as	כמו ש/כפי ש
<u>Manner clause</u>	I spoke to everyone.	דיברתי עם כולם.

Here are other illustrations

A painting has to be presented so ציור יש להציג כך שגווניו ייקלטו על ידי המסתכל.
that its hues will be captured by the viewer.

I felt as if someone else was הרגשתי כאילו שמישהו אחר מדבר מתוכי.
speaking from within me.

Just as you found it difficult, I too כשם שהיה לכם קשה, גם לי היו קשיים.
had difficulties.

14.16.4 Comparative clauses

פסוקיות השוואה

Sentences can include two statements between which a comparison is made. The statement in the main or primary clause is compared with a statement in a secondary or relative clause position. The main clause expresses the comparison by means of the adverbs 'more' or 'less', and the two are linked by either the expression 'than' or by the expression 'than what...' (The use of 'than what...' is considered a bit more formal).

David reads much better than דוד קורא הרבה יותר טוב מאשר הוא כותב.
he writes. דוד קורא הרבה יותר טוב ממה שהוא כותב.

<u>Main clause</u>	David reads well.	דוד קורא טוב
<u>Comparative link</u>	much more than	הרבה יותר...מאשר/ הרבה יותר...ממה ש...
<u>Subordinate clause</u>	He writes.	הוא כותב.

The comparison is always done in reference to the primary or main clause. The order of the clauses can be changed and the comparison stated in the negative rather than the positive, thus changing the point of reference. However, the proposition essentially stays the same.

David writes less well than he דוד כותב פחות טוב מאשר הוא קורא.
reads.

The subject of
can be a cor
identical. Sinc
omit it in the s

Dr. Levy contr
than Dr. Coher

Main clause
Comparative li

Subordinate cl

The superlativ
preceded by כ
the subordinat
מכלם 'than eve

David ran the f
David runs fast
Dr. Levy contr
Dr. Levy contr
anybody.

A comparative
In English the
between two c
or יותר..מאשר
non-native spee

The Hebrew o
שהוא כותב.

14.16.5 Caus
Cause clauses a
stated in the n
conditions or p
and the choice

דיברתי אתו ישירות
 כמו ש/כפי ש
 דיברתי עם כולם

ציור יש להציג כד שגונוני ל
 ידי המסתכל.

הרגשתי כאילו שמישהו א
 מתוכי.

כשם שהיה לכם קשה, גם
 קשיים.

פסוקיות השוואה

which a comparison is
 se is compared with a
 tion. The main clause
 os 'more' or פחות
 sion 'than' or by
 מאשר is considered a

דוד קורא הרבה יותר טוב
 דוד קורא הרבה יותר טוב

דוד קורא טוב
 הרבה יותר...מאשר/
 הרבה יותר...ממה ש...
 הוא כותב.

the primary or main
 and the comparison
 as changing the point
 stays the same.

דוד כותב פחות טוב מאשר

The subject of the two sentences is identical in the first example, but it can be a comparison between two clauses whose subject is not identical. Since the two sentences share the predicate, it is possible to omit it in the subordinate clause.

Dr. Levy contributed more /ד"ר לוי תרם יותר מאשר ד"ר כהן (תרם).
 than Dr. Cohen. /ד"ר לוי תרם יותר ממה שד"ר כהן תרם.

<u>Main clause</u>	Dr. Levi contributed	ד"ר לוי תרם
<u>Comparative link</u>	more than	יותר...מאשר/ יותר...ממה ש...
<u>Subordinate clause</u>	Dr. Cohen (contributed)	ד"ר כהן (תרם).

The superlative is expressed either by one sentence where the adverb is preceded by הַכִּי 'the most' or through a comparative structure where the subordinate clause makes the comparison with everybody else, מְכַלֵּם 'than everybody/anyone else'.

David ran the fastest. /דוד רץ הכי מהר.
 David runs faster than anybody. /דוד רץ יותר מהר מכולם.
 Dr. Levy contributed the most. /ד"ר לוי תרם הכי הרבה.
 Dr. Levy contributed more than anybody. /ד"ר לוי תרם יותר מכולם.

A comparative note

In English the expression 'more than' provides the link of comparison between two clauses. In Hebrew the equivalent expression is either יותר מ...מאשר or יותר ממה ש... It is never just יותר מ. Common mistakes of non-native speakers are sentences such as:

פּוֹתֵב/ דוד קורא יותר משהוא כותב דוד קורא יותר טוב מהוא

The Hebrew options are:

דוד קורא יותר טוב מאשר הוא כותב/ דוד קורא יותר טוב ממה שהוא כותב.

14.16.5 Cause clauses

פסוקיות סיבה

Cause clauses are ones that give the reason or cause for the proposition stated in the main clause. They are usually oriented to the present conditions or past events. There are a variety of cause subordinators, and the choice of a particular one for a particular meaning is usually

determined by register. These clauses usually answer the following questions:

'why'? 'for what reason'? 'because of what?'
 למה/מדוע, מאיזו סיבה, בגלל מה, בזכות מה?

<u>Register/context</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Subordinator</u>
common use	because	מפני ש
common use	since	משום ש
common use		מכיוון ש
common use		מאחר ש
higher register		הואיל ו
higher register		היות ו/ש
does not initiate a sentence, only a second clause		כי
used in colloquial		בגלל ש

The shop did not have a security guard since it is relatively small.
 החנות לא הייתה מאובטחת מפני שהיא קטנה יחסית.

<u>Main clause</u>	The shop did not have a security guard	החנות לא הייתה מאובטחת
<u>Links</u>	since	מפני ש
<u>Cause clause</u>	it is relatively small.	היא קטנה יחסית.

Notes on word order

Cause clauses often follow the main clause:

We did not go to the concert because there were no tickets.
 לא הלכנו לקונצרט היות ולא היו כרטיסים.

But they can also introduce the sentence:

Since they have no car, they'll walk.
 מכיוון שאין להם מכונית, הם ילכו ברגל.

The particle כי can only introduce the relative clause following the main clause:

The company spokeswoman claims that no damage has been caused, since the two preparations contain the same active ingredients.
 דוברת החברה טוענת שלא נגרם כל נזק, כי שני התכשירים מכילים את אותם חומרים פעילים.

14.16.6 Consequence

While the main clause supplies actions. Result clauses usually a

'for what purpose happen?'

Our company will pass so that it can stations.

Main clause

Links

Result clause

Another illustration

Not enough signs for the petition, so it to the courthouse

14.16.7 Intent

Intent or purpose purpose relative about the action, purpose for which usually answer the

'for what?' 'for w

Register/context

common use

higher register

Sarah called her friends so that all go to vote.

answer the following

למה/מדוע, מאיזו סיבה,
מה, בזכות מה?

Subordinator

מפני ש
משום ש
מכיון ש
מאחר ש
הואיל ו
היות ו/ש
כי

בגלל ש

החנות לא הייתה מאובטחת
שהיא קטנה יחסית.

החנות לא הייתה מאובטחת

מפני ש
היא קטנה יחסית.

לא הלכנו לקונצרט היום
כרטיסים.

מכיוון שאין להם מכונת
ברגל.

cause following the

דוברת החברה טוענת
נזק, כי שני התכשירים
אותם חומרים פעילים

14.16.6 Consequence clauses

פסוקיות תוצאה

While the main clause can describe a situation or an action, the result clause supplies information on the consequences of such situations or actions. Result clauses are usually introduced by 'so that'. These clauses usually answer such questions as:

'for what purpose?' 'so that what would happen?' לאיזו מטרה? כדי שמה יקרה?

Our company wants the legislation to pass so that it can own all the radio stations. החברה שלנו רוצה שהחוק יעבור, כך שכל תחנות הרדיו יהיו שלנו.

<u>Main clause</u>	Our company wants the legislation to pass	החברה שלנו רוצה שהחוק יעבור
<u>Links</u>	so that	כך ש
<u>Result clause</u>	It can own all the radio stations.	כל תחנות הרדיו יהיו שלנו.

Another illustration

Not enough signatures were collected for the petition, so that it did not make it to the courthouse. לא נתקבלו מספיק חתימות לעתירה, כך שהעתירה לא הגיעה לבית המשפט.

14.16.7 Intent clauses

פסוקיות תכלית

Intent or purpose sentences combine two clauses – a main clause and a purpose relative clause. The main clause provides the information about the action, while the purpose clause adds information about the purpose for which such action is about to be taken. These clauses usually answer the questions:

'for what?' 'for what need?' לשם מה, לאיזה צורך, בשביל מה?

<u>Register/context</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Subordinator</u>
common use	so that	כדי ש
higher register	in order that	על מנת ש

Sarah called her friends, so that they'll all go to vote. שרה טלפנה לחבריה, כדי שכולם ילכו להצביע.

<u>Main clause</u>	Sarah called her friends	שרה טלפנה לחבריה
<u>Links</u>	<u>so that/in order that</u>	כדי ש
<u>Purpose Clause</u>	<u>they will all go to vote.</u>	(הם) ילכו להצביע.

Some more examples:

The Tel Aviv city hall opened an investigation in order to clarify the situation.

עיריית תל-אביב פתחה בחקירה על מנת לברר את המצב.

In order to enable the elderly to also participate in the voting, we supplied transportation for whoever wanted.

כדי שגם הקשישים יוכלו להשתתף בהצבעה, סיפקנו תחבורה לכל מי שרצה.

For the draft bill to be approved in the Knesset plenum, they need the support of 80 members.

על מנת שההצעה תאושר במליאת הכנסת, יש צורך בתמיכה של 80 חברים.

14.16.8 Concession clauses**פסוקיות ויתור**

Concession sentences combine two clauses – a main clause and a concession relative clause. The main clause provides the information about a situation or action while the concession clause adds information that goes against expectations or even against logic.

<u>Register/context</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Subordinator</u>
common use	in spite of	למרות ש
higher register	although	אף על פי
higher register	even though	על אף ש
higher register		אף כי
higher register		אף ש
colloquial use		אפילו ש

Dan moved to work in Haifa, even though his family stayed in Tel Aviv.

דן עבר לעבוד בחיפה, למרות שהמשפחה שלו נשארה בתל-אביב.

Main clause

Links
Concession Clause

Here are some

Although he wa
speaks fluent H

The photograph
though the plot

Although the su
known, they we

In spite (of the f
a raise, I did not

14.17 Condi

There are two
conditions, and
have been or th
types of conditi
sentences consis

- 1) The if-c
particles
- 2) The res
consequ

14.17.1 Real c

The real condit
sentence) is a str
the future. The I
as that it will not

1. Stating future

[If I have enough
new car.

שרה טלפנה לחבריה

כדי ש

(הם) ילכו להצביע.

עיריית תל-אביב פתחה בר
על מנת לברר את המצב.

כדי שגם הקשישים יוכלו
להשתתף בהצבעה, סיפקו
תחבורה לכל מי שרצה.

על מנת שההצעה תאושר
הכנסת, יש צורך בתמיכה
חברים.

פסוקיות ויתור

a main clause and a
provides the information
main clause adds information
c.

Subordinator

למרות ש

אף על פי

על אף ש

אף כי

אף ש

אפילו ש

דן עבר לעבוד בחיפה, למרות
שהמשפחה שלו נשארה בתל-

<u>Main clause</u>	Dan moved to work in Haifa	דן עבר לעבוד בחיפה
<u>Links</u>	even though	למרות ש
<u>Concession Clause</u>	His family stayed in Tel Aviv.	המשפחה שלו נשארה בתל-אביב.

Here are some examples using some of the other subordinators

Although he was not born in Israel, he speaks fluent Hebrew, including slang. למרות שלא נולד בארץ, הוא מדבר עברית רהוטה, כולל סלנג.

The photography is good, even though the plot is boring. הצילום טוב, אף על פי שהעלילה משעממת.

Although the suspects' identity is known, they were not detained. על אף שזהותם של החשודים ידועה, הם לא נעצרו.

In spite (of the fact) that I was offered a raise, I did not agree to stay. אפילו שהציעו לי העלאה במשכורת, לא הסכמתי להישאר.

14.17 Conditional sentences

משפטי תנאי

There are two types of conditional sentences: ones that express real conditions, and ones that express hypothetical conditions that could have been or that constitute imagined counterfactual conditions. Both types of conditional sentences have similar structures – they constitute sentences consisting of two clauses:

- 1) The if-clause: a subordinate clause, initiated by such particles as אם or לו 'if', which states the condition.
- 2) The result clause: the main clause that specifies the consequences.

14.17.1 Real conditional sentence

משפט תנאי קיים

The real conditional sentence (also referred to as valid conditional sentence) is a structure used for stating possibilities in the present or in the future. The likelihood that the condition will be realized is as good as that it will not be.

1. Stating future possibilities

[If I have enough money], I'll buy a new car. [אם יהיה לי מספיק כסף], אקנה מכונית חדשה.

The building blocks of such a sentence are:

<u>initiator</u>	If	אם
<u>condition</u>	I'll have enough money	יהיה לי מספיק כסף
<u>result</u>	I'll buy a new car	אקנה מכונית חדשה

The main clause states what will happen if the condition stated in the subordinate clause is realized. If the condition refers to a possible future event, both main clause and subordinate clause have verbs in the future tense.

A comparative note

While in the Hebrew conditional sentence the tense sequence is: (if) future + future, in English, such a sentence has the following tense sequence: (if) present + future.

2. Stating general truths or scientific facts

A real conditional sentence can be used for making general statements with no particular time reference. In such cases the present tense is used in both clauses of the conditional sentence.

[If there is not enough rain], the water level of the Sea of Galilee drops. [אם לא יורדים מספיק גשמים], מפלס הכינרת יורד.

The building blocks of such a sentence are the following:

<u>initiator</u>	If	אם
<u>condition</u>	There is not enough rain	לא יורדים מספיק גשמים
<u>result</u>	The water level of the Sea of Galilee drops	מפלס הכינרת יורד

Note

Conditional sentences stating general truths can also be initiated by the time subordinator כש 'when' (this is true for both Hebrew and English).

When there is not enough rain, the water level of the Sea of Galilee drops. כשלא יורדים מספיק גשמים, מפלס הכינרת יורד.

Some real conditional clauses may also be in the past tense. They involve speculation of what the result of the condition was.

If the train came already left for

Common real c

Registr

comm
all regi
higher
higher
higher
comm
comm
comm
high re

Further illustrati

History will not does not exhaus peace.

In case the valu goes down, The have to step in.

We cannot help is not aware of

They are willing long as the chil this school.

14.17.2 Coun senter

The counterfa 'hypothetical' possibilities th there is no lik subordinate an

If the train came on time, they already left for home. אם הרכבת הגיעה בזמן, הם כבר נסעו הביתה.

Common real conditional clause subordinators

Register/context	Meaning	Subordinator
common use	if	אם
all registers	in case that	בְּמִקְרָה שְׁ-
higher register	as long as	בְּמִדָּה שְׁ-
higher register		בְּמִדָּה וְ-
higher register		בְּאִם
common use		כָּל עוֹד
common use		כָּל זְמַן שְׁ-
common use	with exclusion	וּבְלִבְדָּ שְׁ-
high register	unless	אֲלֵא אִם כֵּן

Further illustrations:

History will not forgive him if he does not exhaust the prospect for peace. ההיסטוריה לא תסלח לו אם לא ימצה את הסיכוי לשלום.

In case the value of the dollar goes down, The Israel Bank will have to step in. במקרה שערך הדולר ירד, בנק ישראל ייאָלץ להתערב.

We cannot help him, as long as he is not aware of his condition. אנחנו לא יכולים לעזור לו, כל זמן שהוא לא מודע למצבו.

They are willing to pay a lot so long as the children get accepted to this school. הם מוכנים לשלם הרבה ובלבד שהילדים יתקבלו לבית הספר הזה.

14.17.2 Counterfactual conditional sentence

משפט תנאי בטל

The counterfactual conditional sentence (also referred to as 'hypothetical' or 'contrary-to-fact') is a structure used for stating possibilities that are no longer realizable, or imaginary ones where there is no likelihood that they will be realized. Usually, both the subordinate and the main clause have compound verb phrases which

אם

יהיה לי מספיק כסף
אקנה מכונית חדשה

condition stated in the
refers to a possible
clause have verbs in the

tense sequence is: (if)
as the following tense

ing general statements
the present tense is used

אם לא יורדים מספיק גשם
מפלס הכינרת יורד.
following:

אם

לא יורדים מספיק
גשמים
מפלס הכינרת יורד

also be initiated by the
for both Hebrew and

כשלא יורדים מספיק גשם
מפלס הכינרת יורד.

the past tense. They
condition was.

include היה in the past tense and a main verb in the present tense. (For the full conjugation of such verb phrases see Chapter 12, page 289).

1. Stating possibilities that did not materialize

Here is an example of an unreal conditional sentence about an opportunity that no longer can be realized.

[Had the architect planned properly], the workers would have finished the job long ago. אם הארכיטקט היה מתכנן כראוי, הפועלים היו גומרים את העבודה מזמן.

The building blocks of such a sentence are the following:

<u>initiator</u>	If	אם
<u>condition</u>	the architect would have planned properly,	הארכיטקט היה מתכנן כראוי,
<u>result</u>	the workers would have finished the job long ago	הפועלים היו גומרים את העבודה מזמן.

The logical conclusion is that since the architect had not planned properly, the workers have not finished the job yet. The counter situation is an established fact. The hypothetical sentence discusses a situation that had been possible in the past but the opportunity is no longer there and therefore is impossible to realize.

2. Stating imaginary conditions

The unreal conditional clause can also refer to the realm of the imaginary. There are conditional clauses that involve speculations that are contrary to our known factual world.

Had the Ice Age not put an end the dinosaurs, they might have existed today. לו תקופת הקרח לא הייתה שמה קץ לדינוזאורים, אולי הם היו קיימים גם היום.

Verbal and nominal clauses in hypothetical sentences

1. Verbal predicate in conditional clauses

When the unreal conditional clause has a main verb, then its verb phrase, as mentioned above, consists of the verb היה and a main verb in the present tense.

Had you let us earlier, we would

The main verbs You did not let come.

In the condition use a verb in the phrase). The phrase as they contain

Had you let us earlier, we would

2. Non-verbal

When the unreal does not have an indicator, and it Look at the fol

Two main cl conditional cla

Possession
Equational

Real condition
If I have mone

Unreal condit
If I had had m been mine.

Here is a fur verbless claus mean 'this cou

Had you let us know about the event
earlier, we would have come.

אם הייתם מודיעים לנו על
האירוע מראש, היינו באים.

The main verbs are clearly evident in the conclusion. The fact is:

You did not let us know and we did not
come.

לא הודעתם לנו ולא באנו.

In the conditional clause (but not in the result clause) it is possible to use a verb in the (simple) past tense (rather than the compound verb phrase). The particles לו and אלי rather than אם, are used in such cases, as they contain the notion of unreal condition.

Had you let us know about the event
earlier, we would have come.

אילו הודעתם לנו על האירוע
מראש, היינו באים.

2. Non-verbal predicate in conditional clauses

When the unreal conditional clause is a nominal clause and its predicate does not have a verb, the linking verb היה functions as the tense indicator, and is there when the tenses are past or future.

Look at the following example:

Two main clauses provide the propositions for real and unreal conditional clauses.

Possession

I have money

יש לי כסף

Equational

The car is mine

המכונית שלי

Real conditional sentence

If I have money, the car will be mine.

אם יהיה לי כסף, המכונית תהיה שלי.

Unreal conditional sentence

If I had had money, the car would have
been mine.

לו היה לי כסף, המכונית כבר הייתה שלי.

Here is a further example of an unreal conditional sentence with verbless clauses. It is an old popular proverb, used metaphorically to mean 'this could never happen/has no chance of happening'.

<u>If</u> my grandmother <u>had wheels</u> she	לו היו לסבתא שלי גלגלים, היא
<u>would have been</u> a bus.	הייתה אוטובוס.
<u>initiator</u>	If לו
<u>condition</u>	My grandmother had wheels היו לסבתא שלי גלגלים
<u>result</u>	She would have been a bus. היא הייתה אוטובוס.

There are also negative hypothetical conditions, in which the main clause could hypothetically apply only if the conditional clause were not true. Their subordinators all contain the sequence לא 'no, not':

<u>Had</u> Guttenberg <u>not invented</u> the	לולא המציא גוטנברג את מכונת
printing press, the world would have	הדפוס, העולם היה נראה היום
looked completely different today.	אחרת לגמרי.

The negative hypothetical conditional particle אלמלא, can also state a condition with a noun phrase rather than an entire clause:

<u>Were it not</u> for Guttenberg and his	אלמלא גוטנברג ומכונת הדפוס שלו,
printing press, the world would have	העולם היה נראה היום אחרת
looked completely different today.	לגמרי.

Common hypothetical conditional clause subordinators

These subordinators, other than אם, include as part of their meaning the hypothetical sense.

<u>Register/context</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Subordinator</u>
all registers	if	אם
all registers	if/had...	לו
all registers	if/had...	אלו
all registers	had not...	לולא
higher register	were it not (for)	אלמלא

A historical note

לו is a form from biblical Hebrew, whereas אילו is used more often in post-biblical Hebrew.

14.18 Integrated sentence

המשפט המשולב

In actual texts, as well as in conversation, different types of clauses and sentences come together, to form entities, which add sentences and clauses to each other, and/or embed them within each other.

It is hard to as
discontinue ma
s/he has read a

This sentence
complement cl

Main clause

Object Comple
Clause

Reason Clause

לו היו לסבתא שלי גלגלים
 הייתה אוטובוס.
 לו
 היו לסבתא שלי גלגלים
 היא הייתה אוטובוס.

, in which the main
 additional clause were
 'no, not':

לולא המציא גוטנברג את
 הדפוס, העולם היה נראה
 אחרת לגמרי.

אלמלא, can also state a
 clause:

אלמלא גוטנברג ומכונת
 העולם היה נראה היום
 לגמרי.

ordinators

t of their meaning the

- Subordinator
- אם
 - לו
 - אלו
 - לולא
 - אלמלא

is used more often in

המשפט המשולב

t types of clauses and
 h add sentences and
 ach other.

It is hard to assume that anybody would
 discontinue medical treatment because
 s/he has read a newspaper report.

קשה להניח שמישהו יפסיק
 טיפול רפואי משום שקרא
 כתבה בעיתון.

This sentence has one main clause and two clauses - an object
 complement clause and a reason clause:

<u>Main clause</u>	It is difficult to assume (that)	קשה להניח (ש)
<u>Object Complement Clause</u>	[Someone] will stop medical treatment [for a certain reason].	[מישהו] יפסיק טיפול רפואי [מסיבה מסוימת].
<u>Reason Clause</u>	because he read a newspaper report.	משום שהוא קרא כתבה בעיתון.

Chapter 15

Language in context

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Sentence or utterance?
- 15.3 Topic and comment
- 15.4 Focus and topic
- 15.5 Deixis – reference to person, time and place
- 15.6 Reported speech – direct and indirect
- 15.7 Language registers
- 15.8 Genres of text
- 15.9 Cohesion and coherence of text
- 15.10 Language in context: sample texts

15.1 Introduction

Many grammars consider the sentence as the maximal linguistic unit for discussion. Thus sentences are often discussed and described as separate, independent entities ('context free'), rather than parts of larger units of text. Language in context has to be considered beyond the domain of the individual sentence. It is usually a sequence of sentences (or utterances), which combine into a coherent unit, organized around a particular topic of discussion.

Language in context has its own rules. Ordinary word order and fully and well-constructed sentences give way to different language arrangements, dependent on a host of pragmatic considerations. Language utterances get their meaning not only from their formal structures, but also from the various communicative situations and contexts in which they are used, as well as from cultural conventions unique to each language. Communicative acts are conveyed in a variety of language registers by agreed upon language codes, prescribed by different communities of speakers in an array of communicative and social situations. It is important to view meaning not only through dictionary values and morphological or syntactic structures, but also as integral parts of larger texts and contexts.

The terms 'text' refer to language closely associated with naturally occurring interaction, the a. Similarly, the a as either discou shall refer to all

This chapter co communication structure, in a transformations indirect speech)

15.2 Sentence

A sentence, in t that is part of a utterance is a speech or writi cover both sente

The sentence m ways:

1. as an item of
He does not und

2. as a question
Doesn't he unde

3. as an expressi
He (really) does

4. as an expressi
Doesn't he unde
stated it clearly e
understand?)

The terms 'text' and 'discourse' *שיח* are often used interchangeably to refer to language beyond individual sentences. Although 'text' is more closely associated in our minds with written materials, and 'discourse' with naturally occurring language, emphasizing conversation and social interaction, the distinction is generally no longer drawn today. Similarly, the analysis of larger-than-sentence units may be referred to as either discourse or text analysis. In the context of this chapter we shall refer to all sequences of language by the general term 'text'.

This chapter contains a discussion of some of the uses of Hebrew for communication purposes, both within and beyond the sentence structure, in a variety of communicative situations, and with various transformations affecting the shape of the message (such as direct and indirect speech).

15.2 Sentence or utterance?

A sentence, in the more technical sense of the word, is a syntactic unit that is part of a text, but one that can also be discussed in isolation. An utterance is a unit of discourse, which is an actual performance of speech or writing. We will be using the general term 'sentence' to cover both sentences and utterances.

The sentence *הוא לא מבין עברית* can be understood in the following ways:

- 1. as an item of information:
 He does not understand Hebrew. הוא לא מבין עברית.
- 2. as a question
 Doesn't he understand Hebrew? הוא לא מבין עברית?
- 3. as an expression of surprise or disbelief
 He (really) does not understand Hebrew? הוא לא מבין עברית?
- 4. as an expression of annoyance:
 Doesn't he understand Hebrew? (meaning: I stated it clearly enough; how come he doesn't understand?) הוא לא מבין עברית?

5. with emphasis on a particular component of the sentence, which will give it a focus (see section 15.4), such as:

Focusing on הוא:

He does not understand Hebrew
(but I do).

הוא לא מבין עברית.

Focusing on מבין:

He does not understand Hebrew
(but he likes the sound of it).

הוא לא מבין עברית.

Focusing on עברית:

He does not understand Hebrew
(but he does understand Arabic).

הוא לא מבין עברית.

Some sentences consist of one-word exclamations:

Really!?

באמת??

So what now??

אז מה עכשיו??

We'll see!

נראה!

15.3 Topic and comment

A topic is the component of the sentence that states what the sentence is about. The rest of the sentence is considered to be the comment on that topic. The topic and comment are concerned with the content of the sentence, its meaning and not necessarily its structure. It is another way of looking at the sentence, other than its syntactic structure.

Syntactic considerations: Subject

The subject is the noun phrase which the predicate comments on or tells something new about, but its identity is established by a formal syntactic criterion: agreement with the predicate, regardless of whether it is a verb, a noun, or an adjective. Here are some illustrations of grammatical subjects that determine the gender and number features of the predicate.

The City built two new schools.

העירייה בנתה שני בתי ספר חדשים.

The mayor is a businessman.

ראש העיר הוא איש עסקים.

Many mayors today are very

הרבה ראשי ערים היום צעירים

young.

מאוד.

For agreement rules, see pp. 253-256.

Content (semantic)

Consider a sentence regarding an event in context:

This movie has been liked by many Israelis who have already seen it.

The topic of the sentence is what is being talked about. The speaker wants to draw attention to what has been seen the movie. The subject is a grammatical subject in the passive voice construction moved to the front of the sentence. Such use of the passive is acceptable in Hebrew.

The underlying subject

Normally, the topic of the sentence and is identified by the subject. Many Israelis saw the movie.

One way to draw attention to the front of the sentence is to use the passive. We have already seen the movie.

Another way, is to move the topic to the front of the sentence. This movie, we have already seen. The topic is in the subject clause. The topic is the subject of the sentence.

A sentence in which the topic is identified by the term 'ייחוד'. The term is used to identify which a pronoun is referring to.

Content (semantic) considerations: Topic

Consider a sentence where the speaker supplies new information regarding an entity whose identity has already been established by the context:

This movie has already been seen by many Israelis./ Many Israelis have already seen this movie.
את הסרט הזה כבר ראו הרבה ישראלים.

The topic of the sentence is 'this movie', since this is what is being talked about and its identity is already known. The speaker wants to convey the new information that many have already seen the movie and that is what is regarded as the comment. While the **grammatical subject** is 'many Israelis', the **topic** is 'this movie', and 'have already seen' is the **comment** on the topic. In English the passive voice conveys this message best, and thus 'this movie' is moved to the front of the sentence and serves as both topic and subject. Such use of the passive for the purpose of topicalization is not acceptable in Hebrew.

The underlying topic-comment structure

Normally, the topic of the sentence is present at the beginning of a sentence and is identical to its subject.

Many Israelis saw this movie. הרבה ישראלים ראו את הסרט הזה.

One way to draw attention to the object of the sentence is to move it to the front of the sentence, and change the word order.

We have already seen this movie. את הסרט הזה כבר ראינו.

Another way, involving stronger emphasis, is not only to move the topic to the front, but also leave a 'trace' of it (a pronoun) in the comment, so that on its own, the comment constitutes a full whole clause. The topic is then separated from its comment by a comma:

This movie, we've already seen it. הסרט הזה, כבר ראינו אותו.

A sentence in which a constituent has been topicalized is called **משפט ייחוד**. The term is usually used to refer to cases of topicalization in which a pronoun trace is left in the comment component.

e sentence, which will

הוא לא מבין עברית.

הוא לא מבין עברית.

הוא לא מבין עברית.

באמת!!

אז מה עכשיו??

נראה!

s what the sentence is

the comment on that

ch the content of the

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structure.

ate comments on or

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some illustrations of

d number features of

העירייה בנתה שני בתי

ראש העיר הוא איש עסי

הרבה ראשי ערים היוכ

מאוד.

Note

1. A topic that has been fronted, particularly when separated by a comma, may be paraphrased in English by 'as for', as in: 'As for this movie, we have already seen it'. A comma is most likely to occur when a pronominal trace is left behind in the comment.

2. When a definite direct object is fronted, the accusative marker **את** is moved along with it:

We have already heard your story. (lit. את הסיפור שלך כבר שמענו.)
 Your story, we have already heard it before.)

The same is true when a preposition is present:

We have a good experience with this company. (lit. עם החברה הזאת היה לנו ניסיון טוב בעבר.)
 With this company, we have had good experience in the past.)

Categories other than nouns can be topicalized. Thus, an adverb can be a topic. In the second sentence of the following example, the adverb is topicalized:

Not a single tourist remained here by this time. אף תייר כבר לא נשאר פה עכשיו.

A fronting of the adverbial expression:

By this time not a single tourist remained here. עכשיו כבר לא נשאר פה אף תייר.

Once עכשיו is fronted, it is clearly marked as the topic, and the rest of the sentence is the new information, the comment.

An infinitive (functioning here as a gerund) can serve as a topic as well:

Working is not exactly fun. לעבוד זה לא בדיוק כיף.

Consider another illustration:

This man, who is he? האיש הזה, מי הוא?

A sentence such as האיש הזה, 'This man, who is he?' can be conceived as being uttered in the context of attending a large social gathering, pointing to a particular person, and asking for new

information: 'who is he?'
 topic, מי הוא, 'who is he?'
 topic role.

15.4 Focus and Contrast

Moving an element to the beginning of a sentence to contrast it. A section 15.2 about contrast. Another in the same section from possible of usual stress. As contrastively focus the beginning of mere fronting (i.e. to contrast.

Here are some illustrations:
To Italy we are visiting this summer, but not the summer, but...

I spoke to him, not to her.
 The focus may be 'even':
Only with the sun was he willing to speak.

Even at his best, he does not feel at home.

15.5 Deixis and Reference

Another manner of reference that of deixis (i.e. situation). It is the sentence to specify text and clarify 'here' and 'now' being referred to own references.

information: 'who is he?' In other words, האיש הזה 'this man' is the topic, מי הוא 'who is he' is the comment. Fronting האיש הזה clarifies its topic role.

15.4 Focus and topic

Moving an element to the front of the sentence to clearly mark it as a topic is one kind of focusing, but its purpose is to identify the topic, not to contrast it. A more general type of focusing, discussed earlier in section 15.2 above, refers to the emphasis placed on one constituent or another in the sentence, usually for the purpose of distinguishing it from possible others. It is also typically characterized by stronger-than-usual stress. As shown above, any component of the sentence can be contrastively focused. One should remember that it can also be found at the beginning of the sentence, in which case it is identified not only by mere fronting (i.e., topicalization), but also by emphatic stress, intended to contrast.

Here are some illustrations:

To Italy we are willing to go in the summer, but not to India. לאיטליה אנחנו מוכנים לנסוע בקיץ, אבל לא להודו.

I spoke to him, not to you. אליו דיברתי, לא אליך.

The focus may also be signaled by words such as רק 'only', 'even':

Only with the supervisor am I willing to speak. רק עם האחראי אני מוכן לדבר.

Even at his best friends' place he does not feel at home. אפילו אצל החברים הכי טובים שלו הוא לא מרגיש בבית.

15.5 Deixis: reference to person, time and location

Another manner of viewing the text from a particular vantage point is that of deixis (i.e. reference by means of an expression relative to the situation). It is the function of a deictic word or expression within the sentence to specify its reference to a given situation. It helps anchor the text and clarify it in terms of the vantage point. Deictic words such as 'here' and 'now' are interpreted in relationship to the situation that is being referred to. A speaker is typically the deictic center of his or her own references.

Illustration of the use of deictic words in a conversation:

The situation: someone knocking at the door. Speaker A tries to establish the references and speaker B adds information.

Person	Who is <u>this</u> ?	א : מי זה?
	It's I.	ב : אני!
Location	What are you doing <u>here</u> ?	א : מה אתה עושה כאן?
	I came to visit.	ב : באתי לבקר.
Time	<u>Now</u> ?	א : עכשיו?
	If not now, then <u>when</u> ?	ב : אם לא עכשיו, אימתו?

The conversation rendition assumes the present tense of the speakers (but not of the reader of this text).

When the context being established is not in a conversational setting but in a text being heard or read, the references are not always as clear. Here is an excerpt from a short story, where the vantage point is a little girl who is lost and the deictic references are both to the space around her at this point in the story and also to her regular space: her home.

story space	The little girl looked <u>around her</u> with desperation.	הילדה הקטנה הסתכלה <u>סביבה</u> בנאוש.
home location	"If you tell me where you live, I can help you go <u>home</u> ". "I live at <u>Dad and Mom's home</u> ". "And do you know the name of <u>your street</u> ?"	"אם תגיד לי איפה את גרה אני יכולה לעזור לך לחזור <u>הביתה</u> ". "אני גרה <u>בבית של אבא ואמא</u> ". "ואת יודעת מה שם <u>הרחוב שלך</u> ?"

The segments from the story assume that the events happened in the past, as the story's expository segments are told in the past, but it also builds a conversation between two speakers that takes place in that situation and uses a rendition of a present tense in the story. The discussion centers on the attempts to locate the girl's home, in contrast to her being lost in another location.

15.5.1 The per

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Speaker 2 I

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15.5.2 Time de

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Temporal adver

- now / then

"Mother! You do

happened! I thou

then this fairy fo

Conversation:

r. Speaker A tries to
information.

א: מי זה?

ב: אני!

א: מה אתה עושה כאן?

ב: באתי לבקר.

א: עכשיו?

ב: אם לא עכשיו, אימתי?

tense of the speakers

conversational setting

are not always as clear.

vantage point is a little

with to the space around

her space: her home.

הילדה הקטנה הסתכלה

בְּאוֹשׁ.

"אם תגיד לי איפה את

יכולה לעזור לך לחזור הב

"אני גרה בבית של אבא ו

"יאת יודעת מה שם הרח

שלך?"

events happened in the

in the past, but it also

at takes place in that

ase in the story. The

girl's home, in contrast

15.5.1 The person deixis

1. The person deixis is a reference to the participant's role as a referent. Person deixis is commonly expressed by pronouns.

In the conversation above, the first and second persons are both present, so the reference is clear.

Speaker 1 If you tell me where you live, I can help you go back home. אם תגיד לי איפה את גרה אני יכולה לעזור לך לחזור הביתה.

Speaker 2 I live at my Dad and Mom's home. אני גרה בבית של אבא ואמא.

The third person is assumed not to be present, and therefore the pronoun has to have a reference either in the text itself, or has to be known to others from another context.

Third person The little girl looked around her in desperation. For many hours she had been standing in the street. הילדה הקטנה הסתכלה סביבה בְּאוֹשׁ. כבר המון המון שעות היא עמדה ברחוב.

Pronouns do not have to be subject pronouns; they can be attached to other words and function in other capacities (e.g., possessive).

2nd person And do you know the name of your street? "יאת יודעת מה שם הרחוב שלך?"

15.5.2 Time deixis

Time deixis is reference to time relative to a temporal reference point. Typically, this point is the moment of utterance, or it can be a point of time to which the speaker refers (usually a time adverbial expression).

Temporal adverbs:• **now / then**

"Mother! You don't know what happened! I thought I got lost and then this fairy found me and ..."

"אמא! את לא יודעת מה קרה! חשבתי שהלכתי לאיבוד ואז הפינה הזאת מצאה אותי ו..."

I was with my Mom but then she met a friend of hers and started talking to her and I was terribly bored.

הייתי עם אמא שלי אבל אז היא פגשה חברה שלה והתחילה לדבר איתה והיה לי נורא נורא משעמם.

• **yesterday / today / tomorrow/other time adverbs**

The audacious robbers emptied the safes' room last weekend in the 'Diamond Center' in the heart of the diamond dealers' quarter.

הפורצים הנועזים רוקנו בסוף השבוע את חדר הכספות של "מרכז היהלומים" בלב רובע היהלומנים.

Change of tense (is not fully reflected in the English translation)

You don't know how long I have been looking for you! I have been looking for you for half an hour in every store on this street!

את לא יודעת כמה חיפשתי אותך! כבר חצי שעה אני מחפשת אותך בכל חנות וחנות ברחוב!

15.5.3 Place deixis

The place reference localizes both the speech participants and narrated participants in space. It is a reference to a location relative to the position of a participant in the speech event, typically the speaker.

• **here /there** in relation to the participant

Ya'eli's mother turned to the chair where the woman had been sitting, but the woman was no longer there.

אמא של יעלי הסתובבה אל הפיסא שעליו ישבה האישה, אבל האישה כבר לא הייתה שם.

• **to the right/left** of the participant

To my left sat a man who did not seem familiar to me.

משמאלי ישב אדם אחד שלא נראה לי מוכר.

• **above/below** the participant

From up above the voices of the celebrators were heard.

מלמעלה נשמעו הקולות של החוגגים.

• **from there/to here**, i.e. to the participants

The letter reached us only yesterday.

המכתב הגיע אלינו רק אתמול.

15.6 Direct and indirect speech

15.6.1 Direct and indirect speech

Hebrew, like English, uses direct speech. Direct speech is very common in Hebrew, and is often quoted, and are usually introduced by the words 'he said' or 'she said'.

The manager said to the reporter: 'I will report this evening on the results of the survey.'

Lisa replied, 'No, I will not.'

However, in literary Hebrew, direct speech is often enclosed in quote marks, and often separates the speaker from the text.

The director opened the door and said with a smile, 'Good morning, Malka, how are you?'

She mumbled in a low voice, 'We are going so slowly.'

She mumbled in a low voice, 'We are going so slowly.'

She mumbled in a low voice, 'We are going so slowly.'

Verbs which report speech

say, אמר

tell, סיפר

add, הוסיף

announce, הודיע

declare, הכריז

answer, ענה

reply, ענה

claim, טען

proceed, המשיך

Verbs which continue speech

rebut, הוסיף

scold, הוסיף

encourage, הוסיף

Verbs of manner

show, הוסיף

whisper, הוסיף

mention, הוסיף

הייתי עם אמא שלי אבל
חברה שלה והתחילה לדבר
לי נורא נורא משעמם.

Verbs

הפורצים הנועזים רוקנו
את חדר הכספות של "מר
היהלומים" בלב רובע היר

(English translation)

את לא יודעת כמה חיפשת
חצי שעה אני מחפשת אותך
(וחנות ברחוב!)

Participants and narrated
location relative to the
narrator, usually the speaker.

אמא של יעלי הסתובבה א
שעליו יושבה האישה, אבל
לא הייתה שם.

משמאלי ישב אדם אחד ש
מוכר.

מלמעלה נשמעו הקולות ש

המכתב הגיע אלינו רק את

15.6 Direct and indirect speech דיבור ישיר ודיבור עקיף

15.6.1 Direct speech

Hebrew, like English, can convey quotes directly or indirectly. Direct speech is very simple: the exact words of the original speaker are quoted, and are usually delimited with double quotes, as in:

The manager said, "I need the report this evening" המנהל אמר: "אני צריך את הדו"ח עוד הערב".

Lisa replied, "No problem!" עליזה ענתה: "אין בעיה!"

However, in literary texts, direct speech is often conveyed without any quote marks, and is understood as such from the context. A comma often separates the quote from the rest of the text.

The director opened the door for me and said with a smile, Good morning, Malka, come in. הבמאי פתח לי את הדלת ואמר בחיוך, בוקר טוב מלכה, היכנסי.

She mumbled in her sleep, why are we going so slowly? היא מלמלת מתוך שינה, למה נוסעים כל כך לאט?

Verbs which report/declare speech

say, speak, utter	אמר ל
tell, relate, recount	סיפר
add, supplement (saying)	הוסיף
announce, make known	הודיע
declare, state publicly	הכריז
answer, rejoin	ענה
reply, respond	השיב
claim, assert, proclaim	טען
proclaim, state	הצהיר

Verbs which convey attitude to speech

rebuke, reproach	גער
scold, admonish	נזף ב
encourage	עודד

Verbs of manner of speech

shout, yell	צעק
whisper	לחש
mumble	מלמל

Here is an illustration of the use of such verbs in a joke:

Dan came to class half an hour after the bell. The teacher scolded him:

"Why were you so late"?

Dan answered her: "You yourself said to us that it is never too late to study".

בדיחה עם פעלי אמירה:

דן הגיע לשיעור חצי שעה אחרי הצלצול.

המורה נזפה בו: "מדוע איחרת כל כך?"

ענה לה דן: "את בעצמך אמרת לנו שלעולם לא מאוחר ללמוד".

15.6.2 Indirect speech

Indirect speech is reported speech that is presented with some grammatical modifications, and not as it was uttered by the original speaker. When we turn direct speech into indirect speech, we link the two clauses by *-ש*, or in more formal speech, particularly in writing, by the particle *כי*. Like 'that' in English, this subordinating conjunction introduces reported speech. The first and second person pronouns are replaced by third person pronouns and the discourse is removed from the immediate proximity to a more distant one. Hebrew differs from English in that in Hebrew there are no changes in the tenses of the speech being reported and no special forms for 'future-in-the-past' (such as *will* into *would*). In most cases the reporting verb is in the past tense, introducing what someone has already said.

Examples of no change in tenses (compare with the English rendition):

Indirect speech

← רוני אמר שהוא אוהב שוקולד.

Roni said that he loves chocolate.

← רוני אמר שהוא היה הולך לראות סרטים כל שבוע.

Roni said that he used to go to see movies every week.

← רוני אמר שהוא כבר ראה את הסרט.

Roni said thathe had already seen the movie.

Direct Speech

רוני אמר: "אני אוהב שוקולד".

רוני אמר: "הייתי הולך לראות סרטים כל שבוע".

רוני אמר: "כבר ראיתי את הסרט הזה".

יש שלא ישנו את
איתקבלו עובדות

The Knesset men
long as no new fa

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זכיר.

שהוא יכול ללכת

15.6.3 Indirect

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דן אם הוא רוצה
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חברי הכנסת: "לא נשנה את הצבעתנו כל עוד לא יתקבלו עובדות חדשות."
 ← חברי הכנסת אמרו שלא ישנו את הצבעתם כל עוד לא יתקבלו עובדות חדשות.

The Knesset members said that they would not change their vote as long as no new facts were submitted.

Examples of change in person (same as in English):

Indirect speech	←	Direct Speech
רונית אמרה שהיא אוהבת את כל המחזות של שקספיר.	←	רונית אמרה: <u>אני</u> אוהבת את כל המחזות של שקספיר.
רונית אמרה לדן שהיא יכולה ללכת איתם לתיאטרון.	←	רונית אמרה לדן: " <u>אתה</u> יכול ללכת איתנו לתיאטרון."

15.6.3 Indirect speech: interrogatives

There are two types of questions: one is about the entire proposition of the sentence, and the other is about a particular component in the sentence. A question can also be part of reported speech, either direct or indirect. It is usually introduced by the verb 'שאל (את)' 'asked', as in the following sentence: רונית שאלה את דן אם הוא רוצה לבוא איתם לתיאטרון.

Question about the entire statement

A question about the entire statement demands a yes/no answer, as it is about its truth-value. In Hebrew no question word is necessary to initiate this type of question. What indicates that this is a question rather than a statement is a question mark at the end of the sentence, or raising of the tone at the end of the sentence. The question word האם can be used optionally to indicate the question status of the sentence. Unlike English, there is no auxiliary verb (such as 'do' or 'be') that accompanies the main verb to indicate a question. Notice that in reporting a question there is no change in tense, only in person.

רונית שאלה את דן: "האם אתה רוצה לבוא איתנו?" ← רונית שאלה את דן אם הוא רוצה לבוא איתם לתיאטרון.

Ronit asked Dan if he wanted/would like to come with them to the theater.

Ronit asked Dan: "Do you want to come with us?"

Question about a component in the statement

The second type of question is initiated by a question word and is about one particular component of the sentence. In indirect speech that question word is maintained and changes involve person (as already discussed above).

מתכוננים ללכת לתיאטרון.	←	דן שאל את רונית: "מתי אתם מתכוננים ללכת לתיאטרון?"
החברים שלנו שאלו אותנו למה לא באנו אתמול.	←	החברים שלנו שאל אותנו: "למה לא באתם אתמול?"

15.6.4 Place and time: changes from close to remote references

In addition to changes in persons in indirect speech, references to time and place also change. The changes are in proximity -- from a close to a more remote reference: 'here' often changes to 'there', 'in this place' to 'in that place', 'now' to 'then' and 'today' to 'on that day', etc.

Examples of change in time and place:

רונית רצתה לדעת אם יש שם חנויות טובות.	←	רונית שאלה: "יש כאן חנויות ספרים טובות?"
דן רצה לדעת אם מתחשק לרונית ללכת לשתות קפה באותו רגע.	←	דן שאל את רונית: "מתחשק לך ללכת לשתות קפה עכשיו?"
המנהל אמר שהוא זוכר את האיש ההוא ושהוא היה שם כבר פעמיים.	←	המנהל אמר: "אני זוכר את האיש הזה. הוא היה כאן כבר פעמיים."

There are several reporting verbs that can be used to introduce indirect speech:

Dan <u>said that</u> he does/did not feel well.	דן אמר שהוא לא מרגיש טוב.	אמר
Dan <u>told that</u> he had been to the doctor and had tests.	דן סיפר שהוא היה אצל הרופא ועשו לו בדיקות.	סיפר
He <u>added that</u> the doctor did not know why he did not feel well.	הוא הוסיף שהרופא לא יודע למה הוא לא מרגיש טוב.	הוסיף

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He answered that have something would let everyo

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15.7 Language

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דן שאל את רונית: "מתכוננים ללכת לתיא החברים שלנו שאל א באתם אתמול?"

remote

references to time from a close to a 'in this place' to 'day', etc.

רונית שאלה: "יש טובות?"

דן שאל את רונית: ללכת לשתות קפה

המנהל אמר: "אני הנה. הוא היה באר"

produce indirect

דן אמר

דן סיפר הרופא

הוא הוסיף למה

Dan announced that he was cancelling the party.

הודיע דן הודיע שהוא מבטל את המסיבה שתכנן.

Dan notified his landlord that he was planning to move.

הודיע דן הודיע לבעל הבית שלו שהוא מתכוון לעבור דירה.

He declared that there wouldn't be any changes in the government's economic policy.

הכריז הוא הכריז כי לא יהיו כל שינויים במדיניות הכלכלית של הממשלה.

He responded to the questions of the journalists that he had nothing to add.

השיב לשאלות של העיתונאים הוא השיב כי אין לו מה להוסיף.

He answered that if he would have something new to say, he would let everyone know.

ענה הוא ענה שאם יהיה לו משהו חדש לומר, הוא יודיע לכולם.

He insisted that he would not change his mind.

עמד על כך הוא עמד על כך שלא ישנה את דעתו.

He maintained that there was no reason to go on with the press conference.

טען הוא טען שאין מקום להמשיך במסיבת העיתונאים.

He declared publicly that his decisions were made after a great deal of consideration.

הצהיר הוא הצהיר בפומבי כי החלטותיו נעשו אחרי שיקולים רבים.

15.7 Language registers

משלבים

A particular level of usage is referred to as a register. What characterizes a register is either a community of speakers, or the circumstances in which language is spoken. Each person has more than one language register he/she resorts to. One may use a formal, elevated style of language to deliver a speech, or talk in an informal style to acquaintances and relatives, and speak in a particular colloquial style when getting together with a sports team they belong to.

The normative usage that most Hebrew speakers conceive of as correct is the formal register, used in a variety of formal contexts (lectures, radio news delivery, written texts etc). Here are some examples of choices made in formal and informal registers of Hebrew:

Choice of negative in present tense

	<u>Informal</u>	<u>Formal</u>
He is <u>not</u> thinking of coming.	הוא <u>לא</u> חושב לבוא.	הוא <u>אינו</u> חושב לבוא.

Choice of vocabulary

	<u>Informal</u>	<u>Formal</u>
Tell him to wait.	תגיד לו לחכות.	אמור לו לחכות.

Choice of tense/verb form

	<u>Informal</u>	<u>Formal</u>
Tell him to wait.	תגיד לו לחכות.	הגד לו לחכות.

A sample of a longer text, is a letter to the editor of the newspaper *Maariv* about an incident at work that led to dismissal from work. The writer uses formal language to discuss his situation, as he perceives that both the public platform and the gravity of the situation demand more formality. For comparison, we have rephrased it as it might be spoken in an informal context.

Two possible renditions of a letter to the editor

<u>Informal</u>	<u>Formal</u>
האשימו אותי בזה שגרמתי נזק לרכב של החברה ואמרו לי שאני חייב שיבדקו אותי בפולגורף, ואם לא, יפטרו אותי. הפולגורף מצא שאני לא אמרתי את האמת ופיטרו אותי, למרות שאני לא גרמתי שום נזק. האם זה חוקי?	הואשמתני בגרימת נזק לרכב של החברה וחייבו אותי להיבדק בפולגורף, או שאפוטר. הפולגורף מצא שאיני דובר אמת ופוטרתי, למרות שלא גרמתי כל נזק. האם זה חוקי?

15.7.1 Making choices: the literary register

Until recently, literature tended to use a higher-than-average formal register, but nowadays many authors often incorporate or deliberately

choose to use a language.

Literary register

פרצוף דורש. לפני
אומרת שגנבו אותי
לזה, היא אומרת,

(Opening segment
Etgar Keret)

Literary register

Here is the last s
children's and co

There are several
speakers make
speaking either
strangers. There
speak differently
codes and tend t
they address the
the above and r
style, tone of vo
and formality.

Here are some il

Direct

Polite

Formal polite (bu

insistent)

choose to use a variety of language registers, including less formal language.

Literary register choice: colloquial informal language

חברה שלי חושבת שאני פקיד, שתמיד דופקים אותי, שיש לי פרצוף דורש. לפני חודש, איך שהשתחררנו מהצבא, נסענו לטיול באמריקה והיא אומרת שגנבו אותי בכרטיסים. היא גם חושבת שאני רזה מדי. אבל דווקא בקשר לזה, היא אומרת, אין לה כעסים עלי, כי זה לא בשליטתי.

(Opening segment from "How To Make A Good Script Great" by Etgar Keret)

Literary register choices: mixing registers

Here is the last stanza of a poem written for children, that mixes both children's and colloquial registers as one of its poetic devices:

אני אוהב
אני אוהב את אימא ואת אבא גם
ואת שולה הגננת ואת הדודה מרים
אני אוהב את סבא ואת סבתא אני אוהב את אחותי
אבל הכי הכי הרבה אני אוהב אותי.
(משיר של יהונתן גפן)

There are several colloquial registers. When talking to family members speakers make some different choices than the ones they use when speaking either to neighbors and friends, or to colleagues or to total strangers. There are speech norms at work and at play. Adults may speak differently to children. Teenagers often have their own language codes and tend to address their contemporaries differently from the way they address their parents, teachers or other figures of authority. All of the above and many more situations determine choice of vocabulary, style, tone of voice, choice of language strategy, degree of directness and formality.

Here are some illustrations:

Direct	Sit here!	שבו כאן!
Polite	Please, sit down.	תשבו בבקשה!
Formal polite (but insistent)	Sit down, if you please.	נא לשבת!

perceive of as correct
contexts (lectures,
some examples of
are:

Formal

הוא אינו חושב לבוא.

Formal

אמור לו לחכות.

Formal

הגד לו לחכות.

of the newspaper
al from work. The
he perceives that
ion demand more
might be spoken

Formal

הוא שמתי בגרמת
החברה וחייבו אותי
בפוליגרף, או שאפ
מצא שאיני דובר א
למרות שלא גרמת
זה חוקי?

average formal
e or deliberately

Polite suggestion	You may sit.	אתם יכולים לשבת.
Indirect suggestion	You don't have to stand.	אתם לא צריכים לעמוד.

15.7.2 Register and metaphor

One should not take it for granted that the use of metaphors automatically identifies a text as belonging to the literary register; slang makes extensive use of metaphors as well, and speakers whose speech typically belongs to one register may cross over to the other: when it is done in jest, or to impress with familiarity with the opposite register, or to achieve a special effect.

Here are some metaphor groups that are used to the same semantic end in the two diametrically opposed registers, the literary register and slang.

Meaning of both	Slang metaphor	Literary Metaphor
beat someone up	נתן ליטוף; השכיב; קימט; כיסם; דפק/ניפח לו את הצורה	הנחית מתנת יד; הגביה/הניף ידו (על); הראהו (את) נחת זרועו; הפליא בו את מכותיו
suffer greatly	אכל חצץ; אכל קש	שבע מרורים; שתה את כוס התרעלה עד תומה
be in love (with)	משוגע (על); דלוק/נדלק (על); קרוע/נקרע (על); גנוב/נגנב (על); הרוס (על); נטרף (על); מורעל (על); נעול (על); שפוט	נפשו קשורה בנפשה; נטה לבו אחרי...; דבקה נפשו ב...

Note that slang is not a corruption of language; it is a separate legitimate register within the colloquial range, usually restricted to particular social classes or age groups, making a conscious effort to distinguish themselves from the 'conventional' broader society.

15.7.3 Borrowing of expressions

There are many popular metaphorical expressions and idioms that were borrowed from other languages and have entered the Hebrew vocabulary:

afraid of one's o
tail between the
eat like a horse
the ball is in you
break the ice
cut corners
get on someone
keep a low profi
from the horse's
give me a ring (

15.8 Genres

The variety of c
communication
organization. It
according to the
purpose. Texts
cultural, or inte
structured and
contracts, schola
and others. The
conversations, o

Texts can be cl
communicator.
overall purpose
and influence, a

The following te
overall purposes

Text genre

Narrative

Procedural

אתם יכולים לשבת.
אתם לא צריכים לעמוד.

the use of metaphors
literary register; slang
speakers whose speech
to the other: when it is
the opposite register, or

the same semantic end
the literary register and

Literary Metaphor
; הנחית מתנת יד
; הגביה/הניף ידו (על)
; הראהו (את) נחת זרועו;
הפליא בו את מכותיו

שבע מרורים; שנה את
כוס התרעלה עד תומה

נפשו קשורה בנפשה; נטה
לבו אחרי...; דבקה נפשו
...ב

age; it is a separate
usually restricted to
a conscious effort to
reader society.

and idioms that were
entered the Hebrew

afraid of one's own shadow
tail between the legs
eat like a horse
the ball is in your court
break the ice
cut corners
get on someone's nerves
keep a low profile
from the horse's mouth
give me a ring (call me)

מפחד מהצל של עצמו
עם הזנב בין הרגליים
אוכל כמו סוס
הכדור במגרש שלך
לשבור את הקרח
לעגל פינות
לעלות על העצבים
לשמור על פרופיל נמוך
מפי הסוס
תן לי צלצול

15.8 Genres of text

סוגות של טקסט

The variety of existent texts that are delivered in various channels of communication differ from one another in their structure and organization. It is therefore helpful to attempt to classify them according to their organization, their characteristics and their overall purpose. Texts that are more formal, professional, ceremonial and cultural, or intended for mass consumption, tend to have a more structured and formulated organization. Among such texts are legal contracts, scholarly articles, media news, prayers and blessings, recipes and others. The more individual texts, such as personal letters, informal conversations, op-ed articles, fictional works, are less formulated.

Texts can be classified into genres on the basis of the intent of the communicator. Each of these genres can be described as having an overall purpose of (1) information, (2) entertainment, (3) persuasion and influence, and (4) aesthetics.

The following text genres can be considered in the context of the overall purposes described listed above:

Text genre	Communicator's intent is to
<u>Narrative</u>	Tell about a sequence of events (historical, contemporary, fictional tale, folk tale, drama etc.)
<u>Procedural</u>	Give instructions on how to do something (technical information on how to operate a new gadget, directions on what to do on a test, stage directions etc.)

<u>Expository</u>	Explain something (such as a scholarly article, a science textbook, political address, religious sermon etc.)
<u>Descriptive</u>	List the characteristics of something (description of a medical or scientific procedure, technical description, descriptions of fictional or real characters, descriptions of landscape, poetic descriptions etc.)

The list above is by no means an exhaustive one, or the only way to classify genres of texts, but covers some common categories.

15.9 Cohesion and coherence of text

The texture of any given discourse unit is reflected by a number of external devices as well as internal organization and logic that give the text its cohesion and coherence.

Text coherence (consistency and logic of the text)

The logical and rhetorical relationships between propositions constitute the coherence of a text. There can be two propositions that have no common elements that unite them, except for the fact they appear in sequence. In this case, a temporal relationship may exist between them or a cause and effect relationship. For instance, the following sentences suggest such a way of putting two propositions together:

1. Hurricane Isabel reached the state of North Carolina in the United States in the past hours.	1. סופת ההוריקן "איזבל" הגיעה לחופי מדינת קרוליינה הצפונית בארה"ב בשעות האחרונות.
2. More than 300 thousand people in North Carolina and Virginia left their homes for fear of the damage caused by the hurricane.	2. יותר מ-300 אלף איש בקרוליינה הצפונית ובוירג'יניה פינו את בתיהם מחשש מפגיעת ההוריקן.

We can say that there is both a temporal and a causal relationship between these two sentences. The first states the fact that the hurricane arrived, and the second describes the consequences that occurred once

the storm arrived.
sentences to each

Text cohesion

In addition to the signals in the surface, the cohesion of a text is the notion of coherence, which generally manifests itself in such as 'הוא' 'הוא'
1. The hurricane reached the state of North Carolina in the past hour.

2. However, the damage that will be caused by the flooding brought about is expected to be

Referencing and a system of parts of the larger text unit

Reference may be made to a text proper, but in the context of a discourse. The following sentence: The President has announced.

The reference is to this fact is not new

In most cases, the one occurrence of a pronoun.

Danny will not be very busy.

Danny: "Hello! I'm coming tonight!"

the storm arrived. Coherence, then, is the content connecting these sentences to each other.

Text cohesion (unity and structural organization)

In addition to the coherence of a text content-wise, there are external signals in the superstructure of the text that provide the connectivity or the cohesion of the text. Most of them are grammatical (although the notion of cohesion may also be extended to the lexicon), and are generally manifest in the use of referencing devices and of connectives, such as *ואולם* 'however' below:

1. The hurricane winds are likely to get to the speed of 105 kilometers per hour. *רוחות ההוריקן עשויות להגיע למחירות של 105 קמ"ש.*

2. However, the main worry concerns the damage that will be caused by the flooding brought about by the storm that is expected to create waves, 12 feet high. *ואולם הדאגה העיקרית היא מהנזק שייגרם משיטפונות הסופה, שאמורה ליצור גלים בגובה של 12 רגל.*

Referencing and co-referencing contribute to text cohesion by building a system of participants, places, objects, time, and other features within the larger text unit.

Reference may be to an entity that is not mentioned anywhere in the text proper, but which is understood in the broader context; e.g., in the context of a discussion of a particular company one may find the following sentence:

The President has no idea what is going on. *לנשיא אין מושג מה קורה.*

The reference is clearly to the president of the company, even though this fact is not mentioned overtly.

In most cases, however, the reference is established by co-referencing one occurrence of an entity with another one; often it is in the form of a pronoun.

Danny will not come tonight. He is very busy. *דני לא יבוא הערב. הוא עסוק מאוד.*

Danny: "Hello Ruth. I am not coming tonight". *דני: "הלו רות, אני לא בא הערב."*

Ruth: "but you said that you would come".
 רות: " אבל אתה אמרת שתבוא".

When a reference points back to an occurrence of a referent earlier in the text, the linkage/relationship is called *anaphora*. There are a few cases, particularly in literary texts, when the reference occurs *before* the referent is specifically identified. Such subsequent appearance of the referent is called *cataphora*.

Examples of cataphora

Sentence 1: general reference to 'a suspect'

The Tel Aviv police detained a suspect in the deadly running over of a 17-year-old young woman on the Tel Aviv promenade two weeks ago.
 משטרת תל אביב עצרה חשוד בדריסתה למוות של הצעירה בת ה-17 בטיילת בתל אביב לפני שבועיים.

Sentence 2: specific mention of the suspect's name, age, place, and history

The suspect, Avi Yaakobi, a 33-year-old ex-con from Petah Tikva, is suspected of having driven without a license and trying to hide facts connected to the accident.
 החשוד, אבי יעקובי, אסיר לשעבר בן 33 מפתח-תקווה, חשוד שנהג ללא רשיון וניסה להסתיר ראיות הקשורות לתאונה.

15.10 Language in context: sample texts

Language in use is not organized in the same way as a sequence of independent sentences, all of which are formally correct, but may or may not have any meaningful clear relationship between them. Language in use always has a context, a style and other features which give it the cohesion, coherence and style, demonstrated by its organization and structure, which follow many of the language behavioral rules described earlier in the chapter.

The two main styles of larger units of discourse are the conversation and the narrative, or 'story' type of discourse.

15.10.1 Conversations

One of the most difficult tasks for a learner of Hebrew or any other foreign language, is trying to participate in a conversation, understand the intent of speakers, the rules of taking turns in a conversation

(sometimes total address family a different social s In listening and determine the fol

- How the
- How the
- How pa problem
- How co settings

Sample 1: Ren

(From a simulat home, and the between a mothe "Tikva'ie, come, some vegetable s come and taste". "No, Mom, I don "Come on, just a soup, it's hot". "Mom, I ate at th "OK, OK, but or soup, it's nothing "I don't want to"

Sample 2: from

(From an intervi Yossi Sarid. The Response is direc

"In the Labor Par you are still cons for Prime Ministe "No, I don't belie elected, not in the situation. I don't

רות: " אבל אתה אמרת ש..."

of a referent earlier in
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משטרת תל אביב עצרה חש
בדריסתה למוות של הצעיר
ה-17 בטיילת בתל אביב ל
שבועיים.

me, age, place, and

החשוד, אבי יעקובי, אסי
33 מפתח-תקווה, חשוד ש
רשיון וניסה להסתיר ראיו
הקשורות לתאונה.

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Hebrew or any other
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(sometimes totally ignored), how to address strangers and how to address family and close friends, and what conventions are required by different social situations.

In listening and comprehension, it is important to consider and determine the following factors:

- How the participants take turns
- How they construct their utterances across turns
- How participants identify and repair communication problems
- How conversation works in different conventional settings

Sample 1: Rendition of a conversation

(From a simulation of a conversation in a written text. The setting is home, and the conversation takes place in intimate circumstances, between a mother and a daughter):

"Tikva'le, come, I warmed up some vegetable soup for you, come and taste".	"תקווה'לה, בואי, חיממתי קצת מרק ירקות, בואי תטעמי".
"No, Mom, I don't feel like it".	"לא, אמא, לא בא לי".
"Come on, just a tiny drop of soup, it's hot".	"בואי, בואי, רק טיפה'לה מרק, זה חם".
"Mom, I ate at the university".	"אמא, אכלתי באוניברסיטה".
"OK, OK, but only a little bit of soup, it's nothing, it's all water".	"טוב, טוב, אבל רק קצת מרק, זה כלום, זה הכול מים".
"I don't want to".	"אני לא רוצה".

Sample 2: from a newspaper interview

(From an interview with the then Labor Party Minister of Education, Yossi Sarid. The style is quasi-formal and utterances are full sentences. Response is directed at the question posed.)

"In the Labor Party they say that you are still considering running for Prime Minister".	"במפלגת העבודה אומרים שאתה עדיין חושב על ריצה לראשות הממשלה".
"No, I don't believe that I can be elected, not in the present situation. I don't see such a	"לא, אני לא חושב שאני יכול להיבחר, לא בסיטואציה הנוכחית. אני לא רואה אפשרות כזו. אני מכיר את המבנה של

possibility. I know the structure of Israel, and cannot see how enough opposition support me to be PM".

ישראל, ולא רואה איך מספיק ניגודים תומכים בי כדי שאהיה לראש ממשלה".

15.10.2 Narratives

A narrative discourse is an account of events, usually in the past, that employs verbs of speech, motion, and action to describe a series of events that are contingent one on another, and that typically focuses on one or more performers of actions.

Some of the features of narratives are:

1. Events are organized chronologically.
2. First or third person pronoun forms are used.
3. The text is oriented around a specific agent or agents.

Here are some common categories of narratives:

Folk tales

Stories about real or imagined events, often containing supernatural elements.

Historical events

Stories or accounts about the social and political history of the world and its contacts with the rest of the world.

Mythology

Stories explaining origins, natural phenomena, or social and religious customs, often involving the supernatural.

Personal experience

Accounts of significant events in the life of the narrator or the community.

Sample text 3: Rendition of a folk tale:

האמת

היה פעם אדם שרצה להכיר את האמת. היה אומר לאשתו השכם והערב: "הייתי רוצה פעם אחת לפגוש את האמת, לשוחח איתה, להכיר אותה פנים אל פנים..." "מה אתה מבלבל לי את המוח. אתה רוצה להכיר את האמת? מצדי, לך תחפש אותה, דבר אתה. מה אתה רוצה ממני?"

והוא באמת יצא לדרך. עזב הכל - אישה, ילדים. יצא לחפש את האמת. עלה הרים וירד גבעות, חיפש את האמת לאורך החופים, בנבכי היערות. חיפש אותה בכפרים קטנים, חיפש אותה בערים גדולות, ויום אחד, על ראשו של קר, תאמינו או לא,

כפופת גי, שעה
צלול וזך כמים,
את כל מה שהיה

מר לה: "גבירתי
י. אולי יש משהו
פע גרומה ורועדת
זקנה ובלה. אמור

Partial analysis

This short sim...
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rather than beir...
the choice not...
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and cohesive t...
reading of the t...
larger text take...
its flow. The ch...
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capital letters.

Title of the st

Comments

Conventional be...
tale: verb and a...
subject.
*Once upon a tim...
who wanted to g...
truth/ Truth.*

Subject not repe...
habitual aspect:
*(He) used to say...
morning and nig*

ישראל, ולא רואה איך מספ
תומכים בי כדי שאהיה לרא
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usually in the past, that
to describe a series of
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היה פעם אדם שרצה להפ
רוצה פעם אחת לפגוש א
"מה אתה מבלבל לי את
אותה, דבר אתה. מה את
והוא באמת יצא לדרך. ע
וירד גבעות, חיפש את הא
קטנים, חיפש אותה בער

בתוך מעקה, הוא מצא את האמת. האמת הייתה אישה זקנה, כפופת גו, שעררה
שיבה ועזרה צמוד וצחוב פקלף. אך בשעה שדיברה היה קולך צלול ונד כמים,
והוא ידע שזאת האמת. שנה ויום שקה במחיצתה, ושמע מפיה את כל מה שהיה
בפיה לומר לו.

קצבור שנה החליט האיש לשוב לביתו. לפני שנפרד ממנה אמר לה: "גבירתי
האמת, את לימדת אותי כל כך הרבה. אני עכשיו חוזר לביתי. אולי יש משהו
שאני יכול לעשות למענך?" האמת חשבה לרגע, הרימה אצבע גרומה ורועדת
ואמרה לו: "כן. כאשר תשוב לשם ותספר עלי, אל תאמר שאני זקנה ובלה. אמור
להם כי אני יפה וצעירה..."

Partial analysis

This short simple tale incorporates various language and discourse devices mentioned in this chapter. They give it the shape of a text, rather than being a sequence of sentences. The choice of vocabulary, the choice not to repeat the subject within the paragraph, as it is obvious, the word order and more, all characterize this as a coherent and cohesive text. Included are a few comments to highlight the reading of the text, and to accentuate the fact that sentences within a larger text take on a different shape to help contour the text and give it its flow. The character Truth is referred to as האמת, as generic abstract nouns use the definite article to get the same effect as English does with capital letters.

Title of the story "Truth"

האמת

Comments

Text

Conventional beginning of a folk tale: verb and adverb precede subject.

Once upon a time there was a man who wanted to get to know the truth/ Truth.

היה פעם אדם שרצה להפיר את האמת.

Subject not repeated and use of habitual aspect:

(He) used to say to his wife morning and night:

היה אומר לאשתו השכם והערב:

Use of direct speech, and modality

– expressions of wish:

"I would love to meet Truth, if only once, and speak with her and get to know her face to face..."

"הייתי רוצה פעם אחת לפגוש את האמת, לשוחח איתה, להכיר אותה פנים אל פנים..."

The addressee is the wife, and there is no need to mention this, as the context is clear. Her response starts with a comment and a question:

"Why are you driving me crazy? You want to get to know Truth?"

"מה אתה מבלבל לי את המוח. אתה רוצה להכיר את האמת?"

It continues with a suggestion and a direction addressing his wish:

"As far as I am concerned, go ahead and look for her, talk to her. What do you want from me?"

מצדי, לך תחפש אותה, דבר אתה. מה אתה רוצה ממני?"

A narrative sequence: the subject is not repeated after the first sentence in this sequence and a verb starts each new sentence.

And indeed he went on his way. Left everything – wife, children. Went out to seek the truth along shores, in the heart of forests. Searched for her in small villages, looked for her in big cities,

והוא באמת יצא לדרך. עזב הכל - אישה, ילדים. יצא לחפש את האמת. עלה הרים וירד גבעות, חיפש את האמת לאורך החופים, בנבכי היערות. חיפש אותה בכפרים קטנים, חיפש אותה בערים גדולות,

A break in the sequence includes addressing the reader:

And one day, at the top of a mountain, believe it or not, inside a cave, he found Truth.

ויום אחד, על ראשו של הר, תאמינו או לא, בתוך מערה, הוא מצא את האמת.

Descriptive passage:

Truth was an old woman, bent, her hair gray and her skin as wrinkled

האמת הייתה אישה זקנה, כפופת גו, שערָה שִׁיבָה ועוֹרָה צְפוּד וצְהוּב

and as yellow as when she spoke and pure like water that she was True

Expository passage and omission of subject: *A year and a day in his company, and he had to say to him*

Time adverb beginning word order change subject: + infinitive *After a year the man went to his home.*

Concluding dialogue (speech). Subject not mentioned, as known from the context. Before he parted with her: *"Lady Truth is much. I am now here. Is there something"*

The second speaker's turn. The choice of high language reflects *Truth thought for a thin and shaking him: "Yes. When I am an old, worn woman that I am beautiful"*

"הייתי רוצה פעם אחת לפגוש
האמת, לשוחח איתה, להכיר
פנים אל פנים..."

"מה אתה מבלבל לי את המ
רוצה להכיר את האמת?"

מצדך, לך תחפש אותה, דבר
מה אתה רוצה ממני?"

והוא באמת יצא לדרך. עזב
אישה, ילדים. יצא לחפש א
עלה הרים וירד גבעות, חיפ
האמת לאורך החופים, בנג
היערות. חיפש אותה בכפר
קטנים, חיפש אותה בעריכ

ויום אחד, על ראשו של ק
או לא, בתוך מערה, הוא מ
האמת.

האמת הייתה אישה זקנה
גו, שערה שייכה ועזרה צפופ

*and as yellow as parchment. But
when she spoke her voice was clear
and pure like water, and he knew
that she was Truth.*

כקלף. אך בשעה שדיברה היה קול
צלול וזך כמים, והוא ידע שזאת
האמת.

Expository passage – focus on time
and omission of subject:

*A year and a day he stayed in her
company, and heard from her what she
had to say to him.*

שנה ויום שקה במחיצתה, ושמע
מפיה את כל מה שהיה בפיה
לומר לו.

Time adverb begins the sentence, and
word order changes to verb in tense +
subject: + infinitive of expanded verb:

*After a year the man decided to return
to his home.*

כעבור שנה החליט האיש לשוב
לביתו.

Concluding dialogue (use of direct
speech). Subject A (the protagonist) is
not mentioned, as his identity, is
known from the earlier part of the text.
Before he parted from her, he said to
her: "*Lady Truth, you taught me so
much. I am now returning to my home.
Is there something I could do for you?*"

לפני שנפרד ממנה אמר לה:
"גבירתי האמת, את לימדת אותי
כל כך הרבה. אני עכשיו חוזר
לביתי. אולי יש משהו שאני יכול
לעשות למענך?"

The second speaker, Truth, takes her
turn. The choice of words is from a
high language register:

*Truth thought for a moment, lifted a
thin and shaking finger and said to
him: "Yes. When you get back there
and tell about me, don't tell them that I
am an old, worn out woman. Tell them
that I am beautiful and young ..."*

האמת חשבה לרגע, הרימה אצבע
גרומה ורועדת ואמרה לו: "כן.
כאשר תשוב לשם ותספר עלי, אל
תאמר שאני זקנה ובלה. אומר
להם כי אני יפה וצעירה..."

Appendix 1: verb tables

Note: In most conjugations other than regular שלמים, only deviations from the שלמים will be listed.

בניין: פָּעַל

בניין: פָּעַל			
גזרה: שלמים, אָפֵעַל			
שורש: ש-מ-ר			
שם פועל: לשמר			
מקור: שמור, שמר			
ענין	עתיד	עבר	בניין: פָּעַל
	אֶשְׁמַר	שָׁמַרְתִּי	אני
	תִּשְׁמַר	שָׁמַרְתָּ	אתה
שמר	תִּשְׁמְרִי	שָׁמַרְתְּ	את
שמרי	יִשְׁמַר	שָׁמַר	הוא
	תִּשְׁמַר	שָׁמְרָה	היא
	נִשְׁמַר	שָׁמְרוּ	אנחנו
שמרו	תִּשְׁמְרוּ	שָׁמַרְתֶּם	אתם
שמרו	תִּשְׁמְרוּ	שָׁמַרְתֶּן	אתן
	יִשְׁמְרוּ	שָׁמְרוּ	הם/ן
(שמרְנָה)	(תשמרְנָה)	(שמרְנָה)	(אתן/הן)

בניין: פָּעַל			
גזרה: שלמים, אָפֵעַל			
שורש: ל-מ-ד			
ענין			
	אֶלְמַד	לָמַדְתִּי	אני
	תִּלְמַד	לָמַדְתָּ	אתה
למד	תִּלְמְדִי	לָמַדְתְּ	את
למדי	יִלְמַד	לָמַד	הוא
	תִּלְמַד	לָמְדָה	היא
	נִלְמַד	לָמְדוּ	אנחנו
למדו	תִּלְמְדוּ	לָמַדְתֶּם	אתם
למדו	תִּלְמְדוּ	לָמַדְתֶּן	אתן
	יִלְמְדוּ	לָמְדוּ	הם/ן
(למדְנָה)	(תלמדְנָה)	(למדְנָה)	(אתן/הן)

בניין: פָּעַל, פִּי גְרוּנִית א'			
שורש: א-ס-פ			
שם פועל: לָאֶסַף			
ענין			
	אֶאֱסַף	אֶסַּפְתִּי	אני
	תִּאֲסַף	אֶסַּפְתָּ	אתה
אספו	תִּאֲסַפִּי	אֶסַּפְתְּ	את
אספי	יֶאֱסַף	אֶסַּף	הוא
	תִּאֲסַף	אֶסַּפְתָּה	היא
	נֶאֱסַף	אֶסַּפוּ	אנחנו
אספו	תִּאֲסַפוּ	אֶסַּפְתֶּם	אתם
אספו	תִּאֲסַפוּ	אֶסַּפְתֶּן	אתן
	יֶאֱסַפוּ	אֶסַּפוּ	הם/ן
(תאספְנָה)	(אתן/הן)	(תאספְנָה)	(אתן/הן)

נָעַבְדְּ	נָעַבְדְּ
תִּעַבְדוּ	תִּעַבְדוּ
תִּעַבְדוּ	תִּעַבְדוּ
יִעַבְדוּ	יִעַבְדוּ
(תעבדְנָה)	(תעבדְנָה)

נָחַבֵּשׁ	נָחַבֵּשׁ
תִּחַבְּשׁוּ	תִּחַבְּשׁוּ
תִּחַבְּשׁוּ	תִּחַבְּשׁוּ
יִחַבְּשׁוּ	יִחַבְּשׁוּ
(תחבשְנָה)	(תחבשְנָה)

נָאָכַל	נָאָכַל
תִּאָכְלוּ	תִּאָכְלוּ
תִּאָכְלוּ	תִּאָכְלוּ
יִאָכְלוּ	יִאָכְלוּ
(תאכלְנָה)	(תאכלְנָה)

שׁוֹאֵלִים	שׁוֹאֵלִים
שׁוֹאֵלוֹת	שׁוֹאֵלוֹת

שׁוֹלַחַת	שׁוֹלַחַת
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ables

only deviations from the

		עתיד		בניין: פעל, פי גרונית חי עי (חי)	
		אני	אָעבד	אנחנו	נְעבד
		אתה	תְעבד	אתם	תְעבדו
		את	תְעבדי	אתן	תְעבדו
		הוא	יְעבד	הסן	יְעבדו
		היא	תְעבד	(אתן/הן)	(תְעבדנה)
				עבר	
				אתם	עֲבַדְתֶּם
				אתן	עֲבַדְתֶּן

		עתיד		בניין: פעל, פי גרונית חי (some)	
		אני	אָחבש	אנחנו	נְחבש
		אתה	תְחבש	אתם	תְחבשו
		את	תְחבשי	אתן	תְחבשו
		הוא	יְחבש	הסן	יְחבשו
		היא	תְחבש	(אתן/הן)	(תְחבשנה)
				עבר	
				אתם	חִבַשְתֶּם
				אתן	חִבַשְתֶּן

		עתיד		בניין: פעל, פי גרונית אי נחה	
		אני	אָכל	אנחנו	נֵאכל
		אתה	תֵאכל	אתם	תֵאכלו
		את	תֵאכלי	אתן	תֵאכלו
		הוא	יֵאכל	הסן	יֵאכלו
		היא	תֵאכל	(אתן/הן)	(תֵאכלנה)
				עבר	
				אתם	אֲכַלְתֶּם
				אתן	אֲכַלְתֶּן

		עתיד		בניין: פעל, עי גרונית	
		את	תִשְאַלי	אנחנו	שִואְלים
		אתם	תִשְאלו	אתם	שִואְלות
		הס/הן	יִשְאלו		
				עבר	
				היא	שִאַלָה
				הס/הן	שִאַלו

		הווה		בניין: פעל, לה"פ גרונית חי	
		יחיד	שולח	יחידה	שולחת
				עבר	
				אתם	אַסַפְתֶּם
				אתן	אַסַפְתֶּן

בניין: פעל	
גזרה: שלמים, אפעל	
שורש: ש-מ-ר	
שם פועל: לשמר	
מקור: שמור, שמר	

הווה	
יחיד	שומר
יחידה	שומרת
רבים	שומרים
רבות	שומרות

בניין: פעל	
גזרה: שלמים, אפעל	
שורש: ל-מ-ד	
ציווי	
אתה	למד
אתם	למדו

בניין: פעל, פי גרונית אי	
שורש: א-ס-פ	
שם פועל: לאסף	
עבר	
אתם	אַסַפְתֶּם
אתן	אַסַפְתֶּן

			בניין: פֿעל, עי גרונית		
			שורש: ג-ב-ה		
			שם פועל: לַגְבַּה		
הווה	עתיד	עבר	ציווי	אתה	הוא
יחיד	אני	אָגַבְתָּ	גַּבְהִי	גַּבְהִי	גָבַהּ
גְבוּהָ	אתה	תִּגְבְּהָ	אתם	גַּבְהוּ	הָיָה
גְבוּהָהָ	הוא	יִגְבֶּהָ			הָיָה
גְבוּהֵימ	היא	תִּגְבְּהָ			הָיָה
גְבוּהוֹת	אנחנו	נִגְבְּהָ			הָיָה

			בניין: פֿעל, חסרי פיי		
			שורש: י-ש-ב		
			שם פועל: לְשַׁבֵּת		
עתיד	אתה	את	אתה	אתם	הוא
אני	אתה	את	את	אתם	הוא
אָשַׁבְתָּ	תִּשְׁבֶּה	תִּשְׁבִּי	שְׁבִי	שְׁבּוּ	יִשְׁבּוּ
אנחנו	אתם	אתן	(שְׁבַנְהוּ)	אתן	הִסְבּוּ
נִשְׁבּוּ	תִּשְׁבְּבוּ	תִּשְׁבְּבִי			(אֲתִנְהוּ/הָ)
תִּשְׁבּוּ	תִּשְׁבּוּ	תִּשְׁבּוּ			(תִּשְׁבְּנָה)

			בניין: פֿעל, נחי פיי		
			שורש: י-ר-ש		
			שם פועל: לְרַשֵּׁת		
עתיד	אתה	את	אתה	אתם	הוא
אני	אתה	את	את	אתם	הוא
אִירֶשׁ	תִּירֶשׁ	תִּירְשִׁי	יִרְשִׁי	יִרְשׁוּ	יִירְשׁוּ
אנחנו	אתם	אתן	(יִרְשְׁנָה)	אתן	הִירְשׁוּ
נִירְשׁוּ	תִּירְשׁוּ	תִּירְשׁוּ			(אֲתִירְשְׁנָה)
תִּירְשׁוּ	תִּירְשׁוּ	תִּירְשׁוּ			

			בניין: פֿעל, חסרי פיי		
			שורש: נ-פ-ל		
			שם פועל: לְפַלֵּל		
עתיד	אתה	את	אתה	אתם	הוא
אני	אתה	את	את	אתם	הוא
אָפַלְתָּ	תִּפְלֶה	תִּפְלִי	נִפְלִי	נִפְלוּ	יִפְלוּ
אנחנו	אתם	אתן	(נִפְלְנָה)	אתן	הִפְלוּ
נִפְלוּ	תִּפְלוּ	תִּפְלוּ			(אֲתִפְלְנָה)
תִּפְלוּ	תִּפְלוּ	תִּפְלוּ			

			בניין: פֿעל		
			גזרה: נחי עיו		
			שורש: ק-ו-מ		
			שם פועל: לְקוֹם		
			מקור: קוֹם, קוֹם		
עתיד	אתה	את	אתה	אתם	הוא
אני	אתה	את	את	אתם	הוא
אָקוּמְתִי	תִּקוּמְתִי	תִּקוּמְתִי	קוּמְתִי	קוּמוּ	יִקוּמוּ
אנחנו	אתם	אתן			הִקוּמוּ
נִקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ			(אֲתִקוּמוּ)
תִּקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ			

קוֹם	קוּמוּ
קוּמוּ	קוּמוּ
קוּמוּ	קוּמוּ
קוּמוּ	קוּמוּ
קוּמוּ	קוּמוּ

עתיד	אתה	את	אתה	אתם	הוא
אני	אתה	את	את	אתם	הוא
אָשִׁימְתִי	תִּשְׁמֶה	תִּשְׁמִי	שְׁמִי	שְׁמוּ	יִשְׁמוּ
אנחנו	אתם	אתן	(שְׁמְנָה)	אתן	הִשְׁמוּ
נִשְׁמוּ	תִּשְׁמְמוּ	תִּשְׁמְמִי			(אֲתִשְׁמְנָה)
תִּשְׁמוּ	תִּשְׁמוּ	תִּשְׁמוּ			

In modern Hebrew and last root consonant there was a separate Hebrew:

עתיד	אתה	את	אתה	אתם	הוא
אני	אתה	את	את	אתם	הוא
אָקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ	קוּמוּ	קוּמוּ	יִקוּמוּ
אנחנו	אתם	אתן			הִקוּמוּ
נִקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ			(אֲתִקוּמוּ)
תִּקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ	תִּקוּמוּ			

בניין: פעל, ע' גרונית
שורש: ג-ב-ה
שם פועל: לַגְבַּחַ

עבר		ציווי
הוא	גָבַחַ	
היא	גָבַחַהּ	אתם

הוה	קם	אנחנו	קמנו	נקום	קומו
יחיד	קמה	אתם	קמתם	תקומו	קומו
יחידה	קמים	אתן	קמתן	תקומו	קומו
רבים	קמות	הסן	קמו	יקומו	
רבות		(אתן/הן)		(תקמנה)	(קמנה)

בניין: פעל, חסרי פ"י
שורש: י-ש-ב
שם פועל: לַשְׁבַּת

עבר		ציווי
הוא	שָׁבַחַ	
היא	שָׁבַחַהּ	אתם

בניין: פעל	אני	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
גזרה: נחי ע"י	אתה	שָׁמַתִּי	אֲשִׁים	
שורש: ש-י-מ	את	שָׁמַתְּ	תִּשְׁמִים	שים
שם פועל: לְשִׁים	הוא	שָׁמַתְּ	תִּשְׁמִי	שימי
מקור: שום, שים	היא	שָׁמַתְּ	תִּשְׁמִי	
הוה	אנחנו	שָׁמַתְּ	נִשְׁמִים	
יחיד	אתם	שָׁמַתְּ	תִּשְׁמִי	שימו
יחידה	אתן	שָׁמַתְּ	תִּשְׁמִי	שימו
רבים	הסן	שָׁמַתְּ	תִּשְׁמִי	
רבות	(אתן/הן)	שָׁמַתְּ	תִּשְׁמִי	(שְׁמַנְה)

בניין: פעל, נחי פ"י
שורש: י-ר-ש
שם פועל: לְרַשַׁת

עבר		ציווי
אתה	רָשַׁחַ	
אתם	רָשַׁחוּ	אתן

In modern Hebrew the so-called 'doubled roots', which have identical second and last root consonants, are conjugated as regular verbs, however, historically there was a separate special conjugation, which has some residues in current Hebrew:

בניין: פעל, חסרי פ"י
שורש: נ-פ-ל
שם פועל: לַפּוֹל

עבר		ציווי
אתה	נָפַלְתְּ	
אתם	נָפַלוּ	אתן

בניין: פעל	אני	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
גזרה: כפולים (ע"י)	אתה	חָפַחְתִּי	אֲחַחֵן	
שורש: ח-נ-נ	את	חָפַחְתְּ	תַּחַחֵן	חן
שם פועל: לְחַן	הוא	חָפַחְתְּ	תַּחַחֵנִי	חני
מקור: חנון, חן	היא	חָפַחְתְּ	תַּחַחֵנִי	
הוה	אנחנו	חָפַחְתְּ	נַחֵן	
יחיד	אתם	חָפַחְתְּ	תַּחַחֵנוּ	חנו
יחידה	אתן	חָפַחְתְּ	תַּחַחֵנוּ	חנו
רבים	הסן	חָפַחְתְּ	נַחֵנוּ	
רבות	(אתן/הן)	חָפַחְתְּ	תַּחַחֵנוּ	(חַנְּה)

בניין: פעל
גזרה: נחי ע"ו
שורש: ק-ו-מ
שם פועל: לְקוּם
מקור: קום, קים

בניין : פֿעל	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
גזרה : נחי ל"א	אני קראתי	אֶקְרָא	
שורש : ק-ר-א	אתה קראת	תִּקְרָא	קרא
שם פועל : לקרא	את קראת	תִּקְרָאֵי	קראי
מקור : קרוא, קרוא	הוא קרא	יִקְרָא	
	היא קראה	תִּקְרָא	
הווה	אנחנו קראנו	נִקְרָא	
יחיד	אתם קראתם	תִּקְרָאוּ	קראו
יחידה	אתן קראתן	תִּקְרָאוּ	קראו
רבים	הסן קראו	יִקְרָאוּ	
רבות	(אתן/הן)	(תקראנה)	(קראנה)

בניין : פֿעל	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
גזרה : נחי ל"י (ל"ה)	אני קניתי	אֶקְנֶה	
שורש : ק-נ-י (ק-נ-ה)	אתה קנית	תִּקְנֶה	קנה
שם פועל : לקנות	את קנית	תִּקְנֵי	קני
מקור : קנה, קנות	הוא קנה	יִקְנֶה	
	היא קנתה	תִּקְנֶה	
הווה	אנחנו קנינו	נִקְנֶה	
יחיד	אתם קניתם	תִּקְנֶוּ	קנו
יחידה	אתן קניתן	תִּקְנֶוּ	קנו
רבים	הסן קנו	יִקְנֶוּ	
רבות	(אתן/הן)	(תקנינה)	(קנינה)

בניין : נִפְעַל

בניין : נִפְעַל	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
גזרה : שלמים	אני נבדקתי	אֶבְדֵּק	
שורש : ב-ד-ק	אתה נבדקת	תִּבְדְּקִי	הבדקי
שם פועל : להבדק	את נבדקת	תִּבְדְּקֵי	הבדקי
מקור : נבדוק, הבדק	הוא נבדק	יִבְדֵּק	
	היא נבדקה	תִּבְדֵּק	
הווה	אנחנו נבדקנו	נִבְדְּקוּ	
יחיד	אתם נבדקתם	תִּבְדְּקוּ	הבדקו
יחידה	אתן נבדקתן	תִּבְדְּקוּ	הבדקו
רבים	הסן נבדקו	יִבְדְּקוּ	
רבות	(אתן/הן)	(תבדקנה)	(הבדקנה)

נכדס	נכדמו	נכדמו	נכדמו	(תכדמנה)
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הקרג	הקרגו	הקרגו	הקרגו	(הקרגנה)
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הסקרו	הסקרו	הסקרו	הסקרו	(ההסקרנה)
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בניין : נפעל	גזרה : נחיל ל"יא
שורש : ק-ר-א	שם פועל : לקרא
מקור : קרוא, קרוא	
הווה	
יחיד	קורא
יחידה	קוראת
רבים	קוראים
רבות	קוראות

בניין : נפעל	גזרה : נחיל ל"י (ל"ה)
שורש : ק-נ-ה	שם פועל : לקנות
מקור : קנה, קנות	
הווה	
יחיד	קונה
יחידה	קונה
רבים	קונים
רבות	קונות

בניין : נפעל	גזרה : שלמים
שורש : ב-ד-ק	שם פועל : להבדק
מקור : נבדוק, הבדק	
הווה	
יחיד	נבדק
יחידה	נבדקת
רבים	נבדקים
רבות	נבדקות

בניין : נפעל שורש : ר-ד-מ שם פועל : להדמם	עתיד אני	אבדס	אנחט	נבדס
ציווי	אתה	תבדס	אתם	תבדמו
אתה	את	תבדמי	אתן	תבדמו
אתם	הוא	יבדס	הסן	יבדמו
	היא	תבדס	(הן)	(תבדמנה)

בניין : נפעל גזרה : פי גרונית אי הי ע' שורש : ה-ר-ג שם פועל : להקרג	עבר	אקרג	תקרג	הקרג
הווה	אתה	תקרגת	תקרג	תקרג
יחיד	את	תקרגתי	תקרגי	תקרגי
יחידה	הוא	תקרג	תקרג	תקרגי
רבים	היא	תקרגת	תקרג	תקרג
רבות	אנחנו	תקרגנו	תקרג	תקרג
	אתם	תקרגתם	תקרגו	תקרגו
	אתן	תקרגתן	תקרגו	תקרגו
	הסן	תקרגו	תקרגו	תקרגו
	(אתן/הן)	(תקרגנה)	(תקרגנה)	(תקרגנה)

בניין : נפעל (some verbs) גזרה : שלמים, פי גרונית חי' שורש : ח-ק-ר שם פועל : להקשר	עבר	אקשר	תקשר	הקשר
הווה	אתה	תקשרת	תקשר	תקשר
יחיד	את	תקשרתי	תקשרי	תקשרי
יחידה	הוא	תקשר	תקשר	תקשר
רבים	היא	תקשרת	תקשר	תקשר
רבות	אנחנו	תקשרנו	תקשר	תקשרו
	אתם	תקשרתם	תקשרו	תקשרו
	אתן	תקשרתן	תקשרו	תקשרו
	הסן	תקשרו	תקשרו	תקשרו
	(אתן/הן)	(תקשרנה)	(תקשרנה)	(תקשרנה)

בניין : נפעל, עי גרונית
 שורש : ש-א-ר
 שם פועל : להשאיר

עבר	ציווי
היא	את
הס/הן	אתם/ן

בניין : נפעל, לי גרונית
 שורש : פ-ג-ע
 שם פועל : להפגע

עבר	ציווי
אני	אתה
הוא	

בניין : נפעל
 גזרה : פ"י
 שורש : י-ל-ד
 שם פועל : להנלד
 מקור : נולוד, הנלד

הווה	יחיד	רבים	רבות
	נולד	נולדים	נולדות
	נולדת		

בניין : נפעל
 גזרה : חסרי פ"י
 שורש : נ-צ-ל
 שם פועל : להנצל
 מקור : נצול, הנצל

הווה	יחיד	רבים	רבות
	נצל	נצלים	נצלות
	נצלת		

בניין : נפעל גזרה : ע"י שורש : ס-ו-ג שם פועל : להסוג מקור : נסוג, הסוג	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
	נסוגתי	אסוג	אני
	נסוגת	תסוג	אתה
	נסוגת	תסוגי	את
	נסוג	יסוג	הוא
	נסוגה	תסוג	היא
	נסוגנו	נסוג	אנחנו
	נסוגתם	תסוגו	אתם
	נסוגתן	תסוגו	אתן
	נסוגו	יסוגו	הס/ן
		(תסוגנה)	(אתן/הן)
			(הסוגנה)

בניין : נפעל גזרה : נחי ל"א שורש : מ-צ-א שם פועל : להמצא מקור : נמצוא, המצא	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
	נמצאתי	אמצא	אני
	נמצאת	תמצא	אתה
	נמצאת	תמצאי	את
	נמצא	אמצא	הוא
	נמצאה	תמצא	היא
	נמצאנו	נמצא	אנחנו
	נמצאתם	תמצאו	אתם
	נמצאתן	תמצאו	אתן
	נמצאו	ימצאו	הס/ן
		(תמצאנה)	(אתן/הן)
			(המצאנה)

בניין : נפעל נחי ל"י (ל"יה) שורש : ב-נ-י (ב-נ-ה) שם פועל : להבנות מקור : הבנה, הבנות	עבר	עתיד	ציווי
	נבניתי	אבנה	אני
	נבנית	תבנה	אתה
	נבנית	תבני	את
	נבנה	יבנה	הוא
	נבנתה	תבנה	היא
	נבנינו	נבנה	אנחנו
	נבניתם	תבנו	אתם
	נבניתן	תבנו	אתן
	נבנו	יבנו	הס/ן
		(תבנינה)	(אתן/הן)
			(הבנינה)

בניין: פעל

עיווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	בניין: פעל גזרה: שלמים שורש: ד-ב-ר שם פועל: לדבר מקור: דבר
			אתה	
דבר	תדבר	דברתי	את	הוזה
			הוא	
דברי	תדברי	דברתי	היא	יחיד מדבר
			אנחנו	
דברו	תדברו	דברתם	הסן	יחידה מדברת
			אתם	
(דברנה)	(תדברנה)	(דברתן)	אתן/הן	רבים מדברים
			אתן/הן	

עיווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	בניין: פעל גזרה: שלמים שורש: ב-ר-כ שם פועל: לברך מקור: ברך
			אתה	
ברך	תברך	ברכתי	את	הוזה
			הוא	
ברכי	תברכי	ברכתי	היא	יחיד מברך
			אנחנו	
ברכו	תברכו	ברכתם	הסן	יחידה מברכת
			אתם	
(ברכנה)	(תברכנה)	(ברכתן)	אתן/הן	רבים מברכים
			אתן/הן	

עיווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	בניין: פעל גזרה: שלמים, ע' גרונית שורש: נ-ה-ל שם פועל: לנהל
			אתה	
מנהלים	תנהלו	נהלתי	את	הוזה
			הוא	
מנהלות	תנהלו	נהלתם	היא	יחיד מנהלת
			אתם	
(מנהלות)	(תנהלנה)	(נהלתן)	הסן/הן	רבים מנהלות
			אתן/הן	

עיווי	עתיד	עבר
מנצח	תמנץ	מנצחתי
מנצחת	תמנצי	מנצחתי

עיווי	עתיד	עבר
קומם	תקומ	קומתי
קוממי	תקומי	קומתי
קוממו	תקומו	קומתם
קוממו	תקומו	קומתן
(קוממנה)	(תקומנה)	(קוממתן)

עיווי	עתיד	עבר
מלא	תמלא	מלאתי
מלאי	תמלאי	מלאתי
מלאו	תמלאו	מלאתם
מלאו	תמלאו	מלאתן
(מלאנה)	(תמלאנה)	(מלאתן)

בניין : פעל גזרה : שלמים, לי גרונית חי' עי'		עתיד	הווה	שורש : נ-צ-ח שם פועל : לַנְצַח	
אני	אָנַצַח	יחיד	מְנַצַח	אתה	עבר אני נְצַחְתִּי הוא נְצַח
אתה	תְנַצַח	יחידה	מְנַצַחַת	הוא	
הוא	יְנַצַח			היא	ציווי אתה נַצַח
אנחנו	נְנַצַח			אנחנו	

בניין : פעל גזרה : עו"י, כפולים (ע"ע)		עבר	עתיד	ציווי	שורש : ק-ו-מ (=ק-מ-מ) מקור : קוּמַם
אני	קוּמַמְתִּי	קוּמְמִי	אָקוּמַם	קוּמְ	
אתה	קוּמַמְתְּ	קוּמַמְתְּ	תְקוּמַם	קוּמְ	הווה יחיד יחידה רבים רבות
את	קוּמַמְתְּ	קוּמַמְתְּ	תְקוּמַמִּי	קוּמְמִי	
הוא	קוּמַם	קוּמַם	יְקוּמַם	קוּמְ	
היא	קוּמַמָּה	קוּמַמָּה	תְקוּמַם	קוּמְ	
אנחנו	קוּמַמְנוּ	קוּמַמְנוּ	נְקוּמַם	קוּמְמוּ	
אתם	קוּמַמְתֶּם	קוּמַמְתֶּם	תְקוּמַמוּ	קוּמְמוּ	
אתן	קוּמַמְתֶּן	קוּמַמְתֶּן	תְקוּמַמוּ	קוּמְמוּ	
הסן	קוּמַמוּ	קוּמַמוּ	יְקוּמַמוּ	קוּמְמוּ	
(אתן/הן)	(קוּמַמְנָה)	(קוּמַמְנָה)			

בניין : פעל גזרה : נחי ל"א		עבר	עתיד	ציווי	שורש : מ-ל-א שם פועל : לְמַלֵּא מקור : מִלֵּא
אני	מִלַּאתִּי	מִלַּאתִּי	אֶמְלֵא	מִלֵּא	
אתה	מִלַּאתְּ	מִלַּאתְּ	תְמַלֵּא	מִלֵּא	הווה יחיד יחידה רבים רבות
את	מִלַּאתְּ	מִלַּאתְּ	תְמַלֵּאִי	מִלֵּאִי	
הוא	מִלֵּא	מִלֵּא	יְמַלֵּא	מִלֵּא	
היא	מִלַּעַה	מִלַּעַה	תְמַלֵּא	מִלֵּא	
אנחנו	מִלַּאנוּ	מִלַּאנוּ	נְמַלֵּא	מִלֵּאוּ	
אתם	מִלַּאתֶם	מִלַּאתֶם	תְמַלֵּאוּ	מִלֵּאוּ	
אתן	מִלַּאתֶן	מִלַּאתֶן	תְמַלֵּאוּ	מִלֵּאוּ	
הסן	מִלֵּאוּ	מִלֵּאוּ	יְמַלֵּאוּ	מִלֵּאוּ	
(אתן/הן)	(מִלַּאנָה)	(מִלַּאנָה)			

בניין : פעל
גזרה : שלמים
שורש : ד-ב-ר
שם פועל : לְדַבֵּר
מקור : דַּבֵּר

הווה	יחיד	מְדַבֵּר
	יחידה	מְדַבֵּרַת
	רבים	מְדַבְּרִים
	רבות	מְדַבְּרוֹת

בניין : פעל
גזרה : שלמים
שורש : ב-ר-כ
שם פועל : לְכַרֵּךְ
מקור : כָּרַךְ

הווה	יחיד	מְכַרֵּךְ
	יחידה	מְכַרֵּכֶת
	רבים	מְכַרְכְּבִים
	רבות	מְכַרְכְּבוֹת

בניין : פעל גזרה : שלמים, ע"ג
שורש : נ-ה-ל
שם פועל : לְנַחֵל

עבר	יחיד	נִחַלְתִּי	ציווי	את
הוא	יחידה	נִחַלְתְּ	אתה	את
הסן/הן	רבים	נִחַלוּ	אתם/אתן	אתם/אתן

ציווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	בניין: פֿעל גזרה: נחי לויי (ל"יה) שורש: ח-כ-י (ח-כ-ה) שם פועל: לַחֲכֹת מקור: חֲכֹת
			אתה	
חֲכָה	תִּחְכָּה	חֲכַיְתִי	את	הווה
חֲכִי	תִּחְכְּכִי	חֲכַיְתָה	היא	
	תִּחְכְּכִי	חֲכַיְתָה	אנחנו	יחיד
	תִּחְכְּכִי	חֲכַיְתָה	אתם	
חֲכֹו	תִּחְכְּכֹו	חֲכַיְתֶם	אתן	רבים
חֲכֹו	תִּחְכְּכֹו	חֲכַיְתֶן	הסן	
(חֲכִינְה)	(תִּחְכְּכִינְה)	(חֲכַיְתֶן/הן)		מחכה
				מחכה
				מחכים
				מחכות

ציווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	בניין: פֿעל גזרה: מרובעים, שלמים שורש: ג-ל-ג-ל שם פועל: לַגְלֹגֵל מקור: גְּלָגֵל
			אתה	
גְּלָגֵל	תִּגְלָגֵל	גְּלָגַלְתִּי	את	הווה
גְּלָגְלִי	תִּגְלָגְלִי	גְּלָגַלְתָּה	היא	
	תִּגְלָגְלִי	גְּלָגַלְתָּה	אנחנו	יחיד
	תִּגְלָגְלִי	גְּלָגַלְתָּה	אתם	
גְּלָגְלוּ	תִּגְלָגְלוּ	גְּלָגַלְתֶּם	אתן	רבים
גְּלָגְלוּ	תִּגְלָגְלוּ	גְּלָגַלְתֶּן	הסן	
(גְּלָגְלִינְה)	(תִּגְלָגְלִינְה)	(גְּלָגַלְתֶּן/הן)		מגלגל
				מגלגלת
				מגלגלים
				מגלגלות

בניין: פֿעל

עתיד	עבר	אני	בניין: פֿעל גזרה: שלמים שורש: ב-ט-ל מקור: בְּטֹל
אֲבַטֵּל	בִּטַּלְתִּי	את	הווה
אֲבַטֵּל	בִּטַּלְתָּה	היא	
אֲבַטֵּלִי	בִּטַּלְתִּי	אנחנו	יחיד
אֲבַטֵּל	בִּטַּלְתָּה	אתם	
אֲבַטֵּלוּ	בִּטַּלְתֶּם	אתן	רבים
אֲבַטֵּלוּ	בִּטַּלְתֶּן	הסן	
(אֲבַטֵּלִינְה)	(אֲבַטֵּלִינְה)	(אֲבַטֵּלְתֶּן/הן)	מבטל
			מבטלת
			מבטלים
			מבטלות

בניין : פֻּעַל	
גזרה : נחִי לִיִּי (לִיִּיה)	
שורש : ח-כ-י (ח-כ-ה)	
שם פועל : לַחְכוּת	
מקור : תַּחְכוּת	
הווה	
מַחְכֶּכֶה	יחיד
מַחְכֶּכֶה	יחידה
מַחְכִּים	רבים
מַחְכוּת	רבות

בניין : פֻּעַל	
גזרה : מרובעים, שלמים	
שורש : ג-ל-ג-ל	
שם פועל : לְגַלְגֵּל	
מקור : גִּלְגָּל	
הווה	
מְגַלְגֵּל	יחיד
מְגַלְגֵּלִת	יחידה
מְגַלְגִּים	רבים
מְגַלְגֵּלוֹת	רבות

בניין : פֻּעַל	
גזרה : שלמים	
שורש : ב-ט-ל	
מקור : בְּטוּל	
הווה	
מְבַטֵּל	יחיד
מְבַטֵּלִת	יחידה
מְבַטְלִים	רבים
מְבַטְלוֹת	רבות

בניין : פֻּעַל		גזרה : שלמים, עִי גְרוּנִית	
שורש : ת-א-מ			
עתיד	עבר	אני	תִּתְאַמְתִּי
תִּתְאַם	תִּתְאַמְתָּ	אתה	תִּתְאַמְתְּ
תִּתְאַמִּי	תִּתְאַמְתְּ	את	תִּתְאַמְתְּ
יִתְאַם	תִּתְאַם	הוא	תִּתְאַם
תִּתְאַם	תִּתְאַמָּה	היא	תִּתְאַמָּה
נִתְאַם	תִּתְאַמְנוּ	אנחנו	תִּתְאַמְנוּ
תִּתְאַמוּ	תִּתְאַמְתֶּם	אתם	תִּתְאַמְתֶּם
תִּתְאַמוּ	תִּתְאַמְתֶּן	אתן	תִּתְאַמְתֶּן
יִתְאַמוּ	תִּתְאַמוּ	הסן	תִּתְאַמוּ
(תִּתְאַמְנָה)	(אֲתִן/הִן)		
הווה		מִתְאַם	
יחיד		מִתְאַמֶּת	
יחידה		מִתְאַמִּים	
רבים		מִתְאַמוֹת	
רבות			

בניין : פֻּעַל		גזרה : עוֹיִן, כפולים (עוֹיִן)	
שורש : ק-ו-מ (=ק-מ-ו)			
עתיד	עבר	אני	קִוַּמְתִּי
קִוַּמִּים	קִוַּמְתָּ	אתה	קִוַּמְתְּ
תִּקְוַמִּי	קִוַּמְתְּ	את	קִוַּמְתְּ
קִוַּמִּים	קִוַּמִּים	הוא	קִוַּמִּים
תִּקְוַמִּים	קִוַּמְמָה	היא	קִוַּמְמָה
נִקְוַמִּים	קִוַּמְמוּ	אנחנו	קִוַּמְמוּ
תִּקְוַמוּ	קִוַּמְתֶּם	אתם	קִוַּמְתֶּם
תִּקְוַמוּ	קִוַּמְתֶּן	אתן	קִוַּמְתֶּן
יִקְוַמוּ	קִוַּמוּ	הסן	קִוַּמוּ
(תִּקְוַמְנָה)	(אֲתִן/הִן)		
הווה		מְקוֹמִים	
יחיד		מְקוֹמֶת	
יחידה		מְקוֹמִים	
רבים		מְקוֹמוֹת	
רבות			

בניין : פֻּעַל		גזרה : נחִי לִיִּי א	
שורש : ד-כ-א			
עתיד	עבר	אני	דִּכַּאתִּי
דִּכַּא	דִּכַּאתָּ	אתה	דִּכַּאתְּ
תִּדְכְּאִי	דִּכַּאתְּ	את	דִּכַּאתְּ
דִּכַּא	דִּכַּא	הוא	דִּכַּא
תִּדְכְּאִי	דִּכַּאָּה	היא	דִּכַּאָּה
נִדְכְּאוּ	דִּכַּאנוּ	אנחנו	דִּכַּאנוּ
תִּדְכְּאוּ	דִּכַּאתֶּם	אתם	דִּכַּאתֶּם
תִּדְכְּאוּ	דִּכַּאתֶּן	אתן	דִּכַּאתֶּן
יִדְכְּאוּ	דִּכְּאוּ	הסן	דִּכְּאוּ
(תִּדְכְּאָנָה)	(אֲתִן/הִן)		
הווה		מִדְּכָא	
יחיד		מִדְּכַאת	
יחידה		מִדְּכַאים	
רבים		מִדְּכַאוֹת	
רבות			

בניין: פעל		
גזרה: נחיי ליי (לייה) שורש: ז-כ-י (ז-כ-ה)		
עתיד	עבר	אני
אָזְכֶה	זָכִיתִי	אני
תִּזְכַּח	זָכִיתָ	אתה
תִּזְכְּכִי	זָכִיתְךָ	את
יִזְכֶּה	זָכָה	הוא
תִּזְכְּהוּ	זָכַתְהוּ	היא
נִזְכָּה	זָכִינוּ	אנחנו
תִּזְכְּבוּ	זָכִיתֶם	אתם
תִּזְכְּבוּ	זָכִיתֶן	אתן
יִזְכּוּ	זָכוּ	הסן
(תִּזְכְּינָה)	(אֲתִזְכְּיָהוּ)	
הווה	מזכה	
יחיד	מזכה	
רבים	מזכים	
רבות	מזכות	

בניין: פעל		
גזרה: שלמים, מרובעים שורש: פ-ר-ס-מ		
עתיד	עבר	אני
אֶפְרָסֵם	פָּרַסְתִּי	אני
תִּפְרָסֵם	פָּרַסְתָּ	אתה
תִּפְרָסְמִי	פָּרַסְתְּךָ	את
יִפְרָסֵם	פָּרַסָם	הוא
תִּפְרָסֵם	פָּרַסְמָה	היא
נִפְרָסֵם	פָּרַסְמוּ	אנחנו
תִּפְרָסְמוּ	פָּרַסְתֶּם	אתם
תִּפְרָסְמוּ	פָּרַסְתֶּן	אתן
יִפְרָסְמוּ	פָּרַסְמוּ	הסן
(תִּפְרָסְמָנָה)	(אֲתִפְרָסְמָהוּ)	
הווה	מפרסם	
יחיד	מפרסמת	
רבים	מפרסמים	
רבות	מפרסמות	

בניין: התפעל

בניין: התפעל		
גזרה: שלמים שורש: ל-ב-ש שם פועל: להתלבש מקור: התלבש		
עתיד	עבר	אני
אֶתְלַבֵּשׁ	הִתְלַבַּשְׁתִּי	אני
תִּתְלַבֵּשׁ	הִתְלַבַּשְׁתָּ	אתה
תִּתְלַבְּשִׁי	הִתְלַבַּשְׁתְּךָ	את
יִתְלַבֵּשׁ	הִתְלַבֵּשׁ	הוא
תִּתְלַבֵּשׁ	הִתְלַבְּשָהּ	היא
נִתְלַבֵּשׁ	הִתְלַבַּשְׁנוּ	אנחנו
תִּתְלַבְּשׁוּ	הִתְלַבַּשְׁתֶּם	אתם
תִּתְלַבְּשׁוּ	הִתְלַבַּשְׁתֶּן	אתן
יִתְלַבְּשׁוּ	הִתְלַבְּשׁוּ	הסן
(הִתְלַבַּשְׁנָה)	(תִּתְלַבַּשְׁנָה)	(אֲתִתְלַבַּשְׁנָהוּ)
הווה	מתלבש	
יחיד	מתלבשת	
רבים	מתלבשים	
רבות	מתלבשות	

ציווי

הסתלק

הסתלקי

הסתלקו

הסתלקו

הסתלקו

הסתלקו

(הסתלקנה)

ציווי

הצטלם

הצטלמי

הצטלמו

הצטלמו

הצטלמו

(הצטלמנה)

ציווי

הנדסק

הנדסקי

הנדסקו

הנדסקו

הנדסקו

(הנדסקנה)

בניין : פָּעַל גזרה : נחַי לִיַי (לִיָּה) שורש : ז-כ-י (ז-כ-ה)	
הווה	יחיד
מְזַכֵּה	
יחידה	
מְזַכֵּה	
רבים	
מְזַכִּים	
רבות	
מְזַכֵּוֹת	

בניין : פָּעַל גזרה : שלמים, מרובעים שורש : פ-ר-ס-מ	
הווה	יחיד
מְפַרְסֵם	
יחידה	
מְפַרְסְמֵת	
רבים	
מְפַרְסְמִים	
רבות	
מְפַרְסְמוֹת	

בניין : הִתְפַּעֵל גזרה : שלמים שורש : ל-ב-ש שם פועל : לְהִתְלַבֵּשׁ מקור : הִתְלַבֵּשׁ	
הווה	יחיד
מִתְלַבֵּשׂ	
יחידה	
מִתְלַבְּשֵׁת	
רבים	
מִתְלַבְּשִׁים	
רבות	
מִתְלַבְּשׁוֹת	

בניין : הִתְפַּעֵל גזרה : שלמים, פִּי = סִי שִׁי שִׁי שורש : ס-ל-ק שם פועל : לְהִסְתַּלֵּק מקור : הִסְתַּלֵּק			
הווה	יחיד		
מִסְתַּלֵּק			
יחידה			
מִסְתַּלְקֵת			
רבים			
מִסְתַּלְקִים			
רבות			
מִסְתַּלְקוֹת			
עבר	עתיד	ציווי	
אֲנִי	אֶסְתַּלֵּק		
אַתָּה	תִּסְתַּלֵּק	הִסְתַּלֵּק	
אֵת	תִּסְתַּלְּקִי	הִסְתַּלְּקִי	
הוּא	יִסְתַּלֵּק	יִסְתַּלֵּק	
הִיא	תִּסְתַּלֵּק	תִּסְתַּלֵּק	
אֲנַחְנוּ	נִסְתַּלֵּק	נִסְתַּלֵּק	
אַתֶּם	תִּסְתַּלְּקוּ	הִסְתַּלְּקוּ	
אַתָּן	תִּסְתַּלְּקוּ	הִסְתַּלְּקוּ	
הֵם/הֵן	יִסְתַּלְּקוּ	יִסְתַּלְּקוּ	
(אַתָּה/הוּא)	(תִּסְתַּלְּקֶנָּה)	(הִסְתַּלְּקֶנָּה)	

בניין : הִתְפַּעֵל גזרה : שלמים, פִּי = צ שורש : צ-ל-מ שם פועל : לְהִצְטַלֵּם מקור : הִצְטַלֵּם			
הווה	יחיד		
מִצְטַלֵּם			
יחידה			
מִצְטַלְמֵת			
רבים			
מִצְטַלְמִים			
רבות			
מִצְטַלְמוֹת			
עבר	עתיד	ציווי	
אֲנִי	אֶצְטַלֵּם		
אַתָּה	תִּצְטַלֵּם	הִצְטַלֵּם	
אֵת	תִּצְטַלְּמִי	הִצְטַלְּמִי	
הוּא	יִצְטַלֵּם	יִצְטַלֵּם	
הִיא	תִּצְטַלֵּם	תִּצְטַלֵּם	
אֲנַחְנוּ	נִצְטַלֵּם	נִצְטַלֵּם	
אַתֶּם	תִּצְטַלְּמוּ	הִצְטַלְּמוּ	
אַתָּן	תִּצְטַלְּמוּ	הִצְטַלְּמוּ	
הֵם/הֵן	יִצְטַלְּמוּ	יִצְטַלְּמוּ	
(אַתָּה/הוּא)	(תִּצְטַלְּמֶנָּה)	(הִצְטַלְּמֶנָּה)	

בניין : הִתְפַּעֵל גזרה : שלמים, פִּי = ז שורש : ז-ק-ק שם פועל : לְהִזְדַּקֵּק מקור : הִזְדַּקֵּק			
הווה	יחיד		
מִזְדַּקֵּק			
יחידה			
מִזְדַּקְסֵת			
רבים			
מִזְדַּקְקִים			
רבות			
מִזְדַּקְקוֹת			
עבר	עתיד	ציווי	
אֲנִי	אֶזְדַּקֵּק		
אַתָּה	תִּזְדַּקֵּק	הִזְדַּקֵּק	
אֵת	תִּזְדַּקְּקִי	הִזְדַּקְּקִי	
הוּא	יִזְדַּקֵּק	יִזְדַּקֵּק	
הִיא	תִּזְדַּקֵּק	תִּזְדַּקֵּק	
אֲנַחְנוּ	נִזְדַּקֵּק	נִזְדַּקֵּק	
אַתֶּם	תִּזְדַּקְּקוּ	הִזְדַּקְּקוּ	
אַתָּן	תִּזְדַּקְּקוּ	הִזְדַּקְּקוּ	
הֵם/הֵן	יִזְדַּקְּקוּ	יִזְדַּקְּקוּ	
(אַתָּה/הוּא)	(תִּזְדַּקְּקֶנָּה)	(הִזְדַּקְּקֶנָּה)	

			בניין: התפעל גזרה: שלמים, עי גרונית שורש: נ-ה-ג שם פועל: להתנהג
הווה	עתיד	את	
מתנהגים	תתנהגי	את	
מתנהגות	תתנהגו	אתם	
	תתנהגו?	הם/הן	
		עבר	ציווי
		היא	את
		התנהגה	את
		התנהגו	אתם/ן

			בניין: התפעל גזרה: שלמים, לי גרונית ח' עי שורש: ק-ל-ח שם פועל: להתקלח
הווה	עתיד	אני	
מתקלח	אתקלח	את	
מתקלחת	תתקלח	אתה	
	תתקלח?	הוא	
	תתקלח	היא	
	נתקלח	אנחנו	
		עבר	ציווי
		אני	אתה
		התקלח	אתה
		התקלח	אתן

			בניין: התפעל גזרה: ע"ו, כפולים (ע"ע) שורש: ק-ו-מ (=ק-מ-ו) שם פועל: להתקומם מקור: התקומם
עבר	עתיד	ציווי	
התקוממתי	אתקומם		
התקוממת	תתקומם		
התקוממת	תתקוממי		
התקומם	תתקומם?		
התקוממה	תתקומם		
התקוממנו	נתקומם		
התקוממתם	תתקוממו		
התקוממתן	תתקוממו		
התקוממו	תתקוממו?		
התקוממות	(תתקוממנה)		

			בניין: התפעל גזרה: נחי ל"א שורש: פ-ל-א שם פועל: להתפלא מקור: התפלא
עבר	עתיד	ציווי	
התפלאתי	אתפלא		
התפלאת	תתפלא		
התפלאת	תתפלאי		
התפלא	תתפלא?		
התפלאה	תתפלא		
התפלאנו	נתפלא		
התפלאתם	תתפלאו		
התפלאתן	תתפלאו		
התפלאו	תתפלאו?		
מתפלאות	(תתפלאנה)		

ציווי	
התגלה	
התגלי	
התגלו	
התגלו	
התגלו	
התגלו	
התגלו	

ציווי	
התקלקל	
התקלקלי	
התקלקלו	
התקלקלו	
התקלקלו	
התקלקלו	
התקלקלו	

ציווי	
הקניס	
הקניסי	
הקניסו	
הקניסו	
הקניסו	
הקניסו	
הקניסו	

בניין : התפעל גזרה : שלמים, עי'
שורש : נ-ה-ג
שם פועל : להתנהג

עבר		ציווי	
היא	התנהגה	את	התנהג
הס/הן	התנהגו	אתם/ן	התנהגו

בניין : התפעל גזרה : שלמים, לי'
שורש : ק-ל-ח
שם פועל : להתקלח

עבר		ציווי	
היא	התקלחה	את	התקלחי
הוא	התקלח	אתך	התקלחי

בניין : התפעל גזרה : ע"ו, כפולים (ע"ע)
שורש : ק-ו-מ (=ק-מ-מ)
שם פועל : להתקומם
מקור : התקומם

הווה	
יחיד	מתקומם
יחידה	מתקוממת
רבים	מתקוממים
רבות	מתקוממות

בניין : התפעל גזרה : נחי ל"א
שורש : פ-ל-א
שם פועל : להתפלא
מקור : התפלא

הווה	
יחיד	מתפלא
יחידה	מתפלאה
רבים	מתפלאים
רבות	מתפלאות

בניין : התפעל		עבר		ציווי	
גזרה : נחי ל"י (ל"ה) שורש : ג-ל-י (ג-ל-ה) שם פועל : להתגלגל מקור : התגלגל, התגלגלות		אני	התגלגלתי	אתה	התגלגלת
		את	התגלגלת	הוא	התגלגל
		היא	התגלגלה	הוא	התגלגל
		אנחנו	התגלגלנו	אתם	התגלגלתם
		אתם	התגלגלתם	אתן	התגלגלתן
		הס/ן	התגלגלו	הס/ן	התגלגלו
		(אתן/הן)	(התגלגלנה)	(אתן/הן)	(התגלגלנה)
הווה					
יחיד	מתגלגל				
יחידה	מתגלגלת				
רבים	מתגלגלים				
רבות	מתגלגלות				

בניין : התפעל		עבר		ציווי	
גזרה : שלמים, מרובעים שורש : ק-ל-ק-ל שם פועל : להתקלקל מקור : התקלקל		אני	התקלקלתי	אתה	התקלקלת
		את	התקלקלת	הוא	התקלקל
		היא	התקלקלה	הוא	התקלקל
		אנחנו	התקלקלנו	אתם	התקלקלתם
		אתם	התקלקלתם	אתן	התקלקלתן
		הס/ן	התקלקלו	הס/ן	התקלקלו
		(אתן/הן)	(התקלקלנה)	(אתן/הן)	(התקלקלנה)
הווה					
יחיד	מתקלקל				
יחידה	מתקלקלת				
רבים	מתקלקלים				
רבות	מתקלקלות				

בניין : הפעיל

בניין : הפעיל		עבר		ציווי	
גזרה : שלמים שורש : כ-נ-ס שם פועל : להכניס מקור : הכניס, הכניסה		אני	הכנסתי	אתה	הכנסת
		את	הכנסת	הוא	הכניס
		היא	הכניסה	הוא	הכניס
		אנחנו	הכנסנו	אתם	הכנסתם
		אתם	הכנסתם	אתן	הכנסתן
		הס/ן	הכניסו	הס/ן	הכניסו
		(אתן/הן)	(הכניסנה)	(אתן/הן)	(הכניסנה)
הווה					
יחיד	מכניס				
יחידה	מכניסה				
רבים	מכניסים				
רבות	מכניסות				

עיווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	אתה	את	הוא	היא	אנחנו	אתם	אתן	הסן	(אתן/הן)	(תעסקנה)	(העסקנה)	בניין : הפעיל	גזרה : שלמים, פי גרונית אי' חי' עי' שורש : ע-ס-ק שם פועל : להעסיק מקור : העסק, העסיק
															הווה	
															יחידה	מְעַסֵּקָה
															רבים	מְעַסְּקִים
															רבות	מְעַסְּקוֹת

עיווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	אתה	את	הוא	היא	אנחנו	אתם	אתן	הסן	(אתן/הן)	(תחלטנה)	(החלטנה)	בניין : הפעיל גזרה : שלמים, פי גרונית	שורש : ח-ל-ט שם פועל : להחליט
															הווה	
															יחידה	מְחַלֵּטָה
															רבים	מְחַלֵּטִים
															רבות	מְחַלֵּטוֹת

עיווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	אתה	את	הוא	היא	אנחנו	אתם	אתן	הסן	(אתן/הן)	(תבטיחנה)	(הבטיחנה)	בניין : הפעיל גזרה : שלמים, לי גרונית	שורש : ב-ט-ח שם פועל : להבטיח
															הווה	
															יחידה	מְבַטֵּחָה
															רבים	מְבַטֵּחִים
															רבות	מְבַטֵּחוֹת

עיווי	עתיד	עבר	אני	אתה	את	הוא	היא	אנחנו	אתם	אתן	הסן	(אתן/הן)	(תורידנה)	(הורידנה)	בניין : הפעיל	גזרה : נחי פי"י שורש : י-ר-ד שם פועל : להוריד מקור : הוריד, הוריד
															הווה	
															יחידה	מוֹרִידָה
															רבים	מוֹרִידִים
															רבות	מוֹרִידוֹת

עיווי	
הפל	
הפילו	
הפילו	
הפילו	
הפילו	
(הפלנה)	

עיווי	
הקם	
הקימי	
הקימו	
הקימו	
הקימו	
(הקמנה)	

עיווי	
הקל	
הקלי	
הקלו	
הקלו	
הקלו	
(הקלנה)	

בניין : הפעיל	
גזרה : שלמים, פי גרונית א' ה' ח'	
שורש : ע-ס-ק	
שם פועל : להעסיק	
מקור : העסק, העסיק	
הווה	
יחיד	מעסיק
יחידה	מעסיקה
רבים	מעסיקים
רבות	מעסיקות

בניין : הפעיל גזרה : שלמים, פי	
שורש : ח-ל-ט	
שם פועל : להחליט	
הווה	ציווי
הוא	אתה
היא	אתם

בניין : הפעיל גזרה : שלמים, לי	
שורש : ב-ט-ח	
שם פועל : להבטיח	
עבר	ציווי
אני	אתה
הוא	אתם

בניין : הפעיל	
גזרה : נחי פ"י	
שורש : י-ר-ד	
שם פועל : להוריד	
מקור : הורד, הוריד	
הווה	
יחיד	מוריד
יחידה	מורידה
רבים	מורידים
רבות	מורידות

בניין : הפעיל		גזרה : חסרי פ"י, פ"י צ	
שורש : נ-פ-ל		שם פועל : להפיל	
מקור : הפל, הפיל			
הווה		הווה	
יחיד	מפיל	אני	אני
יחידה	מפילה	אתה	אתה
רבים	מפילים	את	את
רבות	מפילות	הוא	הוא
		היא	היא
		אנחנו	אנחנו
		אתם	אתם
		אתן	אתן
		הסן	הסן
		(אתן/הן)	(אתן/הן)
		(הפילן)	(הפילן)

בניין : הפעיל		גזרה : עו"י	
שורש : ק-ו-מ		שם פועל : להקים	
מקור : הקם, הקים			
הווה		הווה	
יחיד	מקים	אני	אני
יחידה	מקימה	אתה	אתה
רבים	מקימים	את	את
רבות	מקימות	הוא	הוא
		היא	היא
		אנחנו	אנחנו
		אתם	אתם
		אתן	אתן
		הסן	הסן
		(אתן/הן)	(אתן/הן)
		(הקמן)	(הקמן)

בניין : הפעיל		גזרה : כפולים (ע"ע)	
שורש : ק-ל-ל		שם פועל : להקל	
מקור : הקל			
הווה		הווה	
יחיד	מקל	אני	אני
יחידה	מקלה	אתה	אתה
רבים	מקלים	את	את
רבות	מקלות	הוא	הוא
		היא	היא
		אנחנו	אנחנו
		אתם	אתם
		אתן	אתן
		הסן	הסן
		(אתן/הן)	(אתן/הן)
		(הקלן)	(הקלן)

ציווי	עתיד	עבר	בניין: הפעיל	
	אֶמְצִיא	הִמְצַאתִי	אני	גזרה: נחוי ל"א
המציא	תִּמְצִיא	הִמְצַאתָ	אתה	שורש: מ-צ-א
המציאי	תִּמְצִיאֵי	הִמְצַאתְךָ	את	שם פועל: לְהִמְצִיא
	יִמְצִיא	הִמְצִיא	הוא	מקור: הִמְצִיא, הִמְצִיאָה
	תִּמְצִיא	הִמְצִיאָהּ	היא	
	נִמְצִיא	הִמְצַאנוּ	אנחנו	הווה
המציאו	תִּמְצִיאוּ	הִמְצַאתֶם	אתם	יחיד
המציאו	תִּמְצִיאוּ	הִמְצַאתֶם	אתן	יחידה
	יִמְצִאוּ	הִמְצִיאוּ	הסך	רבים
(המציאנה)	(תִּמְצִיאָנָה)	(אִתְּךָ/הָ)		רבות

ציווי	עתיד	עבר	בניין: הפעיל	
	אֶרְשֶׂה	הִרְשִׁיתִי	אני	גזרה: נחוי לויי (ל"ה)
הרשה	תִּרְשֶׂה	הִרְשִׁיתָ	אתה	שורש: ר-ש-ה
הרשי	תִּרְשֵׁי	הִרְשִׁיתְךָ	את	שם פועל: לְהִרְשׁוֹת
	יִרְשֶׂה	הִרְשִׁי	הוא	מקור: הִרְשִׁי, הִרְשִׁיָה
	תִּרְשֶׂה	הִרְשִׁיָהּ	היא	
	נִרְשֶׂה	הִרְשִׁינוּ	אנחנו	הווה
הרשו	תִּרְשׁוּ	הִרְשִׁיתֶם	אתם	יחיד
הרשו	תִּרְשׁוּ	הִרְשִׁיתֶן	אתן	יחידה
	יִרְשׁוּ	הִרְשִׁיאוּ	הסך	רבים
(הרשינה)	(תִּרְשִׁינָה)	(אִתְּךָ/הָ)		רבות

בניין: הפעל

עתיד	עבר	בניין: הפעל	
אֶגְבֵּל	הִגְבַּלְתִּי	אני	גזרה: שלמים
תִּגְבֵּל	הִגְבַּלְתָּ	אתה	שורש: ג-ב-ל
תִּגְבְּלֵי	הִגְבַּלְתְּךָ	את	
יִגְבֵּל	הִגְבֵּל	הוא	מקור: הִגְבֵּל
תִּגְבֵּל	הִגְבֵּלָהּ	היא	
נִגְבֵּל	הִגְבַּלְנוּ	אנחנו	הווה
תִּגְבְּלוּ	הִגְבַּלְתֶּם	אתם	יחיד
תִּגְבְּלוּ	הִגְבַּלְתֶּן	אתן	יחידה
יִגְבְּלוּ	הִגְבְּלוּ	הסך	רבים
(תִּגְבְּלָנָה)	(אִתְּךָ/הָ)		רבות

בניין : הפעיל	הווה
גזרה : נחי ל"א	יחיד
שורש : מ-צ-א	יחידה
שם פועל : להמציא	רבים
מקור : המצא, המציא	רבות
	ממציא
	ממציאה
	ממציאים
	ממציאות

בניין : הפעיל	הווה
גזרה : נחי ל"א (ל"ה)	יחיד
שורש : ר-ש-ה	יחידה
שם פועל : להרשות	רבים
מקור : הרשה, הרשות	רבות
	מרשה
	מרשה
	מרשים
	מרשות

בניין : הפעיל	הווה
גזרה : שלמים	יחיד
שורש : ג-ב-ל	יחידה
מקור : הגבל	רבים
	רבות
	מגבל
	מגבלת
	מגבלים
	מגבלות

בניין : הפעל	עתיד	עבר	אני	העברתי	אעבר	גזרה : שלמים, פי גרונית
			אתה	העברת	תעבר	שורש : ע-ב-ר
			את	העברת	תעברי	מקור : העבר
			הוא	העבר	יעבר	
			היא	העברה	תעברי	
			אנחנו	העברנו	נעבר	הווה
			אתם	העברתם	תעברו	יחיד
			אתן	העברתן	תעברו	יחידה
			הסן	העברו	יעברו	רבים
			(אתן/הן)	(תעברנה)		רבות
						מעבר
						מעברת
						מעברים
						מעברות

בניין : פעל	עתיד	עבר	את	תזקרי	הווה	גזרה : שלמים, ע' גרונית
			אתם	תזקרו	רבים	שורש : ז-ה-ר
			הס/הן	יזקרו	רבות	מקור : הזחר
						עבר
						היא
						הזקנה
						הס/הן
						הזקרו

בניין : הפעל	עתיד	עבר	אני	הפלתי	אפל	גזרה : חסרי פי"נ, פי"צ
			אתה	הפלת	תפל	שורש : נ-פ-ל
			את	הפלת	תפלי	מקור : הפל
			הוא	הפל	יפל	
			היא	הפלה	תפל	
			אנחנו	הפלנו	נפל	הווה
			אתם	הפלתם	תפלו	יחיד
			אתן	הפלתן	תפלו	יחידה
			הסן	הפלו	יפלו	רבים
			(אתן/הן)	(תפלנה)		רבות
						מפל
						מפלת
						מפלים
						מפלות

			בניין : הפעל גזרה : נחי פ"י, עו"י שורש : ק-ו-מ
עתיד	עבר	אני	מקור : הוּקַם
אִוְקַם	הוּקַמְתִּי	אֲתָה	
תוּקַם	הוּקַמְתָּ	אֵת	מקור : הוּקַם
תוּקַמְוּ	הוּקַמְתֶּם	הוּא	
יִוְקַם	הוּקַמָּה	הִיא	מקור : הוּקַם
תוּקַם	הוּקַמְנוּ	אֲנַחְנוּ	
נוּקַם	הוּקַמְתֶּם	אַתֶּם	מקור : הוּקַם
תוּקַמוּ	הוּקַמְתֶּן	אֲתָן	
תוּקַמוּ	הוּקַמוּ	הֵם/הֵן	מקור : הוּקַמוּ
יִוְקַמוּ	(תוּקַמְנָה)	(אֲתָן/הֵן)	

			בניין : הפעל גזרה : כפולים (ע"ע) שורש : ה-ל-ל
עתיד	עבר	אני	מקור : הוּחַל
אִוְחַל	הוּחַלְתִּי	אֲתָה	
תוּחַל	הוּחַלְתָּ	אֵת	מקור : הוּחַל
תוּחַלְוּ	הוּחַלְתֶּם	הוּא	
יִוְחַל	הוּחַלְה	הִיא	מקור : הוּחַל
תוּחַל	הוּחַלְנוּ	אֲנַחְנוּ	
נוּחַל	הוּחַלְתֶּם	אַתֶּם	מקור : הוּחַל
תוּחַלוּ	הוּחַלְתֶּן	אֲתָן	
תוּחַלוּ	הוּחַלוּ	הֵם/הֵן	מקור : הוּחַלוּ
יִוְחַלוּ	(תוּחַלְנָה)	(אֲתָן/הֵן)	

			בניין : הפעל גזרה : נחי ל"א שורש : ק-פ-א
עתיד	עבר	אני	מקור : הוּקַפָּא
אִקְפָּא	הוּקַפַּתִּי	אֲתָה	
תִּקְפָּא	הוּקַפַּתָּ	אֵת	מקור : הוּקַפָּא
תִּקְפָּאוּ	הוּקַפַּתֶּם	הוּא	
יִקְפָּא	הוּקַפָּאָה	הִיא	מקור : הוּקַפָּא
תִּקְפָּא	הוּקַפַּתֶּנוּ	אֲנַחְנוּ	
נִקְפָּא	הוּקַפַּתֶּם	אַתֶּם	מקור : הוּקַפָּא
תִּקְפָּאוּ	הוּקַפַּתֶּן	אֲתָן	
תִּקְפָּאוּ	הוּקַפָּאוּ	הֵם/הֵן	מקור : הוּקַפָּאוּ
יִקְפָּאוּ	(תִּקְפָּאָנָה)	(אֲתָן/הֵן)	

Sum

Abbreviat

Group 1: Irre

A. ע"ב, ל', פ' i.

i. ע"ב, ל', פ' realiz

1. When they a

2. When they f

3. When the pa

בניין : הפעל	גזרה : נחי פ"י, עו"י	שורש : ק-ו-מ	מקור : הוקם
הווה	יחיד	מוקם	
	יחידה	מוקמת	
	רבים	מוקמים	
	רבות	מוקמות	

בניין : הפעל	גזרה : כפולים (ע"ע)	שורש : ח-ל-ל	מקור : הוחל
הווה	יחיד	מוחל	
	יחידה	מוחלה	
	רבים	מוחלים	
	רבות	מוחלות	

בניין : הפעל	גזרה : נחי ל"א	שורש : ק-פ-א	מקור : הקפא
הווה	יחיד	מקפא	
	יחידה	מקפאת	
	רבים	מקפאים	
	רבות	מקפאות	

בניין : הפעל	גזרה : נחי ל"י (ל"ה)	שורש : פ-נ-י (פ-נ-ה)	מקור : הפנה
הווה	יחיד	מפנה	
	יחידה	מפנית	
	רבים	מפנים	
	רבות	מפנות	

עתיד	עבר	אני	הפניתי
אפנה	הפנית	אתה	הפנית
תפנה	הפנית	את	הפנית
יפנה	הפנה	הוא	הפנה
תפנה	הפנתה	היא	הפנתה
נפנה	הפנינו	אנחנו	הפנינו
תפנו	הפניתם	אתם	הפניתם
תפנו	הפניתן	אתן	הפניתן
יפנו	הפנו	הסן	הפנו
(תפנינה)	(אתנהן)		

Summary Tables of Irregularities in Verbs

Abbreviations for root consonants: C₁=פ"פ, C₂=ע"פ, C₃=ל"פ

Group 1: Irregularities within the שלמים.

A. שלמים עם ב', כ', פ'.

i. ב', כ', פ' realized as b/k/p.

1. When they are the first segment in the word:

פועל	עבר, הווה, ציווי	בָּדַק, פוחד, פָּתַח
פועל	עבר, ציווי	בָּקַר, פָּקַד, בָּבַס
פועל	עבר	בָּטַל, פָּתַח, בָּבַס

2. When they follow a zero vowel in the middle of the verb form:

פועל	עתיד	יִשְׁבֵּר, יִשְׁפֹּךְ, יִשְׁכַּב
התפעל	entire conjugation	הִתְבַּקֵּשׁ, מִתְפַּלֵּא, יִתְכַּנֵּס
הפעיל	entire conjugation	הִסְבִּיר, יִשְׁכִּיר, לְהַסְפִּיק
הפעל	entire conjugation	הִסְבֵּר, מִשְׁפַּע, יִשְׁכַּר

3. When the pattern of the verb demands it:

נפעל	פ"פ- עתיד, ציווי, שם פועל	יִבְדֹּק, הִפְרֵד, לְהַכְנִס
פועל	ע"פ - entire conjugation	דַּבֵּר, מְסַפֵּר, יִסְכֹּן
פועל	ע"פ - entire conjugation	שָׁבַח, מְשַׁפֵּר, תִּסְכְּמוּ
התפעל	ע"פ - entire conjugation	הִתְבַּקֵּשׁ, מִתְפַּלֵּא, יִתְכַּנֵּס

ii. 'ב, כ', פ' realized as 'ב, כ', פ' v/kh/f.

1. When they follow a vowel:

סבל, סופר, שכרי	עתיד, הווה, ציווי	פעל
מבקש, נפחד, מכבס	הווה, עתיד	פעל
מבקש, נפתח, מכון	הווה, עתיד	פעל
הבחין, מפסיק, נקתיב	entire conjugation	הפעיל
הברח, מפעל, יכנס	entire conjugation	הפעל

2. When they follow a zero vowel derived from an underlying one (e.g., אָסַפו below), and/or when they are the last consonant in the root:

עָבַד, אָסַפו, יָדַד, עָבַד, לָאָסַף	entire conjugation	פעל
נָעַזְבַח, נָאָסַף, יָדַרְכוּ, לְהַעֲזֹב	entire conjugation	נפעל
עָצַב, מָקַלַף, תִּשְׁדָּכֵי, מְאֲלָפוֹת, לִשְׂכַךְ	entire conjugation	פעל
עָצַב, מָקַלַף, יִשְׁכַּח, יִשְׁבּוּ	entire conjugation	פעל
הִתְעַצַּב, מִתְהַלְכִים, יִתְבַּדַּד, תִּשְׁתַּלְּבֵי	entire conjugation	התפעל
הִעֲלִיב, מְדַלִּיף, יִדְרִיד	entire conjugation	הפעיל
הִרְכַּב, הִרְכַּבָה, מְדַלֵף, יִדְרִכוּ	entire conjugation	הפעל

B. שלמים עם גרוניות - with 'guttural' root consonants.

Insertion of a 'helping' vowel (where a zero vowel is hard to pronounce).

אָמְרָתֶם, הִלַּכְתֶּם, חִשְׁבַתֶּם, עֲבַדְתֶּם	פה"פ	עבר	פעל
שׁוֹאֲלִים, נוֹהֲגוֹת, בּוֹחֲרִים, בּוֹעֲרוֹת	עה"פ	הווה	
אָסַף, אָסַפְנָה	פה"פ א'	ציווי	
הִרְגַּ, הִרְגַּנָה, חִזַּר, חִזַּרְנָה, עִזַּר, עִזַּרְנָה	פה"פ ה' ח' ע'		
שָׁאֵל, נִהְגוּ, גָּעַרְי	עה"פ		
תִּשְׁאַרְי, יִבְחַלוּ, תִּשְׁחַקוּ, יִפְעָרוּ	עה"פ	עתיד	נפעל
הִשְׁאַרְי, הִבְחַלוּ		ציווי	
תִּאָמְרוּ, נִחְלוּ, שִׁחַקוּ, שִׁעֲרָה	עה"פ	עבר	פעל
מִתְאַמְרִים, מִנְחַלּוֹת, מִשְׁחַקִים, מִשְׁעָרוֹת		הווה	
תִּתְאַמְרוּ, תִּנְחַלוּ, יִשְׁחַקוּ, יִשְׁעָרוּ		עתיד	
נִחַלְי, שִׁחַקוּ		ציווי	
תִּאָמְרוּ, נִחְלָה, נִחְמוּ, נִעָרָה	עה"פ	עבר	פעל
תִּתְאַמְרוּ, תִּנְחַלְי, תִּנְחַמוּ, יִנְעָרוּ		עתיד	
הִתְאַרְכָה, הִתְנַהְגוּ, תִּתְנַחְלוּ, הִתְפַּעֲלָה	עה"פ	עבר	התפעל
מִתְאַרְכִים, מִתְנַהְגוֹת, מִתְנַחְלִים, מִתְפַּעֲלוֹת		הווה	

Similar insert

ד, תעבדו	
עלמים	
יקים	
סקות	

Furtive patah

ינצח/ינצחו,	
להתקלח	
יבטיח	

Stem vowel i

--

עמיד, הווה, ציון	פעל
הווה, עמיד	פעל
הווה, עמיד	פעל
e conjugation	הפעיל
e conjugation	הפעל

an underlying one
consonant in the root:

e conjugation	פעל
e conjugation	נפעל
e conjugation	פעל
e conjugation	פעל
e conjugation	התפעל
e conjugation	הפעיל
e conjugation	הפעל

Consonants.

(is hard to pronounce).

פה"פ	עבר	פעל
עה"פ	הווה	
פה"פ א	ציון	
פה"פ ר		
עה"פ		
עה"פ	עמיד	נפעל
עה"פ	ציון	
עה"פ	עבר	פעל
	הווה	
	עמיד	
	ציון	
עה"פ	עבר	פעל
	עמיד	
עה"פ	עבר	התפעל
	הווה	

Similar insertion of a vowel and 'echo' in the prefix (optional for 'ח).

תאסף, תאספי, תחזק, תחזקי	פה"פ א' (ח)	עמיד	פעל
תרג, תהרג, תחזר/תזור, תעבד, תעבדו	פה"פ ה' (ח) ע'		
תחבוש, תחבשי	פה"פ ח'		
נאלץ, נהרס, נחרב/נחרב, נעלמו	פה"פ א' ה' ע'	עבר	נפעל
נחקר, נחקרה	פה"פ ח'		
נאלץ, נהרסת, נחרבת/נחרבת, נעלמים	פה"פ א' ה' ע'	הווה	
נחקר, נחקרת	פה"פ ח'		
האמנת, החריב/החריב, העסקתי	פה"פ פ'	עבר	הפעיל
החליט, החכים	פה"פ ח'		
מאמין, מחרבה/מחרבה, מעסיקים	פה"פ פ'	הווה	
מחליט, מחכים	פה"פ ח'		
נאמינו, נחריב/נחריב, תעסיק	פה"פ פ'	עמיד	
יחליט, יחכים	פה"פ ח'		
האמו, החרב/החרב, העסיקו	פה"פ פ'	ציון	
החלט	פה"פ ח'		
האשם, הקרס/הקרס, העסקה	פה"פ פ'	עבר	הפעל
החלט	פה"פ ח'		
מאשמים, מחרמת/מחרמת, מעסקות	פה"פ פ'	הווה	
מחלט	פה"פ ח'		
נאשם, תחרמי/תחרמי, יעסקו	פה"פ פ'	עמיד	

Furtive patah insertion.

תמת, שולח, יודע	הווה	פעל
נצח/נצח, מנצח, ינצח/ינצח,	entire conjugation	פעל
התקלח/התקלח, להתקלח	entire conjugation	התפעל
הבטיח, מבטיח, יבטיח	entire conjugation	הפעיל

Avoidance of vowel deletion in the environment of gutturals

(alternatively, may also be regarded as insertion of a 'helping' vowel where a zero vowel is hard to pronounce – see above)

נשאלו	עבר	נפעל
תארו, תנהלו, ישערו	עבר, עתיד	פעל
השאלה, ישאלו	עבר, עתיד	הפעל

Stem vowel in future and imperative of pa'al (when C2, C3 is guttural).

תשאל, תנהג	עתיד	פעל
שלח, קרא	ציון	

The feminine singular in the present tense (when C3 is guttural).

נשאלת, נשמעת	נפעל	שולחת, שומעת	פעל
מנצחת, משגעת	פעל	מנצחת, משגעת	פעל
מצלחת, מפרעת	הפעל	מתפתחת, משתגעת	התפעל

'Compensatory lengthening' before gutturals.

תאר, ברר	פעל	תאר, ברר	פעל	יחרג, יחשב	נפעל
----------	-----	----------	-----	------------	------

Group 2: חורים - one of the root consonants is absent

1. חורי פ"י - 'i' is omitted: תצא, תכד, תלך, תשב, פעל

2. חורי פ"נ - 'n' is fully assimilated.

יפל, סע	עתיד, ציווי	פעל
נצל, נצלו	עבר, הווה	נפעל
הפיל, מפיל, יפיל, הפל, להפיל	entire conjugation	הפעיל
הפל, מפל, יפל	entire conjugation	הפעל

3. ח' and 'ת' assimilated to a stem beginning with the same letter

לנו, נשענו, סמנו, שפנו, הזדקנו, הזמנו, הכנו	נ + נ
שבת, אמתי, צותתי, התעשתי, הפחתי, השחתי	ת + ת
הדרדר	ד + ד

4. ג.ג.ג. - two identical root consonants sometimes merge

גונתי, גון, גוננו, מגונן, מגוננות, יגון, יגוננו, גונני, לגון	no merger	פעל
התגונתי, התגונן, מתגונן, מתגוננות, יתגון, התגונני, להתגונן	no merger	התפעל
הגנתי, הגן, הגנה, מגן, מגנה, מגנות, יגן, יגנו, הגן, הגני, להגן		הפעיל
הוגנתי, הוגן, הוגנה, מוגן, מוגנים, תוגן		הפעל

Group 3: נחים - a root consonant is weakened or silent

1. נחי פ"א - stem-initial 'x' muted: תאמר, תאהב, תאכל, פעל

2. נחי ל"א - syllable-final 'x' muted

קרא, קראתי, קורא, קוראת, יקרא, יקרא, לקרוא	פעל
נקרא, נקראתי, יקרא, יקרא, יקרא, להקרא	נפעל
מלא, מלאתי, מלא, מלא, ממלא, ממלא, למלא	פעל
מלא, מלאתי, מלא, מלא, ממלא, ממלא, למלא	פעל
התמלאתי, התמלא, מתמלא, מתמלא, יתמלא, להתמלא	התפעל
המציא, המצאתי, המצאת, מציא, מציא, המציא, להמציא	הפעיל
המצא, המצאתי, המצאת, מצא, מצא, המצא, ימצא	הפעל

3. נחי פ"י - ste

ש, ייקשו
זושיב
שב

4. נחי ל"י - ste

בלות
להתגלות
תפלו

5. נחי ע"ו/ע"י -

קומם
זומם
להקים

When C3 is guttural).

שולחת, שומעת	פעל
מנצחת, משגעת	פעל
מתפתחת, משתגעת	התפעל

יהרג, יחשב	נפעל
------------	------

ants is absent

פעל:

עתיד, ציווי	פעל
עבר, הווה	נפעל
conjugation	הפעיל
conjugation	הפעל

th the same letter

לנו, נש	נ + נ
שבת, ש	ת + ת
הדרדר	ת + ד

es merge ג.ג.ג.

no merger	פעל
no merger	התפעל
	הפעיל
	הפעל

ned or silent

פעל- תא

קרא, קרא	פעל
נקרא, נקרא	נפעל
מלא, מלא	פעל
מלא, מלא	פעל
התמלאתי	התפעל
המציא, המציא	הפעיל
המציא, המציא	הפעל

3. נחי פ"י – stem-initial 'i' weakened to a vowel.

תישן, ישנו, תירש, יירשו	עתיד	פעל
נולדתי, נולד	עבר, הווה	נפעל
הושיב, מושיב, תושיב	entire conjugation	הפעיל
הושב, מושב, תושב	entire conjugation	הפעל

4. נחי ל"י – stem-final 'i' muted

קניתי, קנה, קנתה, קונה, קונים, תקנה, תקני, קנה, לקנות	פעל
נקניתי, נקנתה, נקנה, נקנית, תשנה, תשנו, הקנה, להקנות	נפעל
בליתי, בלה, בלתה, מבלה, מבלה, תבלה, תבלו, בלה, בלי, לבלות	פעל
גליתי, גלה, גלתה, גלו, מגלה, מגלה, תגלה, תגלו	פעל
התגליתי, התגלתה, מתגלה, מתגלה, תתגלה, תתגלו, להתגלות	התפעל
הפליתי, הפלתה, הפלו, מפלה, מפלה, יפלה, תפלו, הפלה, להפלות	הפעיל
הפליתי, הפלה, הפלתה, הפלו, מפלה, מפלה, יפלה, תפלו	הפעל

5. נחי ע"ו/ע"י – medial 'u' and 'i' are deleted or muted.

קמתי, קם, קם, קמה, קמים, יקום, תקומו, קום, קומי, לקום	פעל
נסוגתי, נסוג, נסוגה, נסוגה, יסוג, תסוגו, הסוג, הסוגי, להסוג	נפעל
קוממתי, קומם, קוממה, מקומם, יקומם, יקוממו, קוממי, לקומם	פעל
התקוממתי, התקוממה, מתקומם, יתקומם, יתקוממו, להתקומם	התפעל
הקמתי, הקים, הקימו, מקים, מקימות, תקים, תקימו, הקם, להקים	הפעיל
הוקמתי, הוקם, הוקמה, מוקם, יוקם, יוקמו	הפעל

Appendix 2: noun tables

The nouns in this table are **representative** of many of the patterns of Hebrew nouns. They provide one illustration of each of the patterns represented. They are presented in their singular and plural forms, in their independent and dependent forms, and with pronoun suffixes of the first person singular and second person masculine plural.

There are two sets of pronoun suffixes: one set is attached to singular nouns, and the other set is attached to plural nouns.

Pronoun suffixes attached to singular nouns

Plural ending			Singular ending		
3 rd	2 nd	1 st	3 rd	2 nd	1 st
ם-	םך-	ני-	י-	ך-	י'-
ל-	לך-		ה-	ך-	

Pronoun suffixes attached to plural nouns

Plural ending			Singular ending		
3 rd	2 nd	1 st	3 rd	2 nd	1 st
ם'ם-	ם'ך-	נ'י-	י'י-	ך'י-	י'י'-
ל'ם-	ל'ך-		ה'י-	ך'י-	

Below are full paradigms of the various forms of nouns and nouns with their pronoun suffixes. The asterisked forms represent the four 'default' forms of the construct state: the sing. masc. and fem. pl. forms are unchanged; the fem. sing. ה- becomes ת-, and the pl. masc. ים- becomes יי-. In some of the tables following the paradigms, the construct form may not be represented if it is realized in the default form.

Masculine Paradigm

					דוד (ז)	יחיד
<i>uncle</i>	דוכה	דודו	דונך	דונך	דוני	דוד-*
	דוכו	דונם	דונךו	דונכם	דוננו	
					דונים	רבים
	דוניה	דוניו	דוניתך	דוניתך	דוני	דוני-*
	דוניהו	דוניהם	דוניהו	דוניהם	דוננו	

Feminine Para

<i>aunt</i>	דוכה	
	דוכו	
	דוכיה	דוכיה
	דוכיהו	דוכיהו

A. Noun patte

Vowel reduction
noun in a constr

- (i) Vowels
- (ii) Reduct
- the syll
- (iii) Deletio
- resulted
- explain
- conson

Some illustratio

1. No reduction

Gloss	
<i>sound</i>	קם
<i>song</i>	ם
<i>stamp</i>	ט

2. No reduction
syllables before

Gloss	
<i>fish</i>	
<i>hand</i>	

3. No reduction

Gloss	
<i>fight</i>	יקם
<i>student</i>	יקם
<i>candy</i>	יקם
<i>bride</i>	קם
<i>reason</i>	קם

bles

f the patterns of Hebrew
tterns represented. They
a their independent and
irst person singular and

ched to singular nouns,

ngular ending	
2 nd	1 st
ן-	י-
ן-	י-

ngular ending	
2 nd	1 st
ן-	י-
ן-	י-

s and nouns with their
our 'default' forms of
e unchanged; the fem.

In some of the tables
be represented if it is

יחיד	דוד (ז)
	-דוד*
רבים	דודים
	-דודי

Feminine Paradigm

<i>aunt</i>					דונה (ז)	יחידה
דונתה	דונתו	דונתך	דונתך	דונתי	דונת-	
דונתו	דונתם	דונתכן	דונתכם	דונתנו		
					דודות	רבות
דודתיה	דודתיו	דודתיך	דודתיך	דודתי	-דודות*	
דודתיקו	דודתיקם	דודתיכן	דודתיכם	דודתינו		

A. Noun patterns not subject to vowel reduction

Vowel reduction occurs when stress shifts to an added suffix, or to the second noun in a construct phrase. In general, it does not apply in the following cases:

- (i) Vowels other than *kamats* or *tsere* are not reduced.
- (ii) Reduction of a *kamats* tends to occur only two syllables away from the syllable with the main stressed syllable.
- (iii) Deletion does not occur if a three-consonant cluster would have resulted (a consonant with a *dagesh hazak* counts as two). This also explains why a *patah*, which usually occurs in a syllable closed by a consonant or by a *dagesh hazak*, is not affected, while a *kamats* is).

Some illustrations:

1. No reduction in vowels other than *kamats* or *tsere*:

Gloss	רבים			יחיד		
<i>sound</i>	קולותיכם	קולותי	קולות	קולכם	קולי	קול
<i>song</i>	שיריכם	שירי	שירים	שירכם	שירי	שיר
<i>stamp</i>	בוליכם	בולי	בולים	בולכם	בולי	בול

2. No reduction of *kamats* immediately before the stress, but it does occur two syllables before the stress (דגים etc.):

Gloss	רבים			יחיד		
<i>fish</i>	דגים	דגי	דגים	דגכם	דגי	דג
<i>hand</i>	ידיכם	ידי	ידיים	ידכם	ידי	יד

3. No reduction if a three-consonant cluster would have resulted:

Gloss	רבים			יחיד		
<i>fight</i>	קרבתיכם	קרבתי	קרבות	קרבכם	קרבי	קרב
<i>student</i>	תלמידיכם	תלמידי	תלמידים	תלמידיכם	תלמידי	תלמיד
<i>candy</i>	ממתקיכם	ממתקי	ממתקים	ממתקיכם	ממתקי	ממתק
<i>bride</i>	כלותיכם	כלותי	כלות	כלתכם	כלתי	כלה
<i>reason</i>	סבותיכם	סבותי	סבות	סבתכם	סבתי	סבה

4. Relative immunity to reduction of *kamats* and *tsere* in nouns ending in ו- or ית-, even in open syllables (note that their plural forms replace ו- with ויות and ית- with יות-, respectively):

Gloss	רבות			יחידה		
<i>testimony</i>	עדויותיכם	עדויותי	עדויות	עדויותכם	עדויותי	עדויות
<i>exile</i>	גלויותיכם	גלויותי	גלויות	גלויותכם	גלויותי	גלויות
<i>angle</i>	זוויותיכם	זוויותי	זוויות	זוויותכם	זוויותי	זוויות

B. Noun patterns undergoing changes other than vowel reduction

1. A *patah* sometimes reverts to an underlying *i* when a suffix is appended:

Gloss	רבות			יחידה		
<i>loaf</i>	פתיכם	פתי	פתים	פתתכם	פתי	פת

2. When the noun is derived from a root with identical second and third consonants (e.g., שן < ש.נ.ש), the original *i* from which the *tsere* developed resurfaces:

Gloss	רבות			יחידה		
<i>tooth</i>	שנתיכם	שני	שנים	שנתכם	שני	שן

3. There is a similar relationship between *o* and *u* in forms derived from a root with identical second and third consonants, and a few other items:

Gloss	רבים			יחיד		
<i>drum</i>	תפוחיכם	תפי	תפים	תפוחכם	תפי	תף
<i>ankle</i>	קרסליכם	קרסלי	קרסלים	קרסלכם	קרסלי	קרסל

C. Noun patterns that generally undergo vowel reduction

Generally, only *kamats* and *tsere* are subject to reduction, which occurs when the stress shifts forward (with the addition of suffixes, or with the formation of the construct state). Some illustrations:

1. A *kamats* in the plural of monosyllabic words that do not have that vowel in the singular. The forms with a hyphen are the dependent forms of the noun.

	רבים			יחיד		
<i>day</i>	ימיכם	ימי	ימי-	ימים	יומי	יום

2. A basic *kamats* in some inflected forms of monosyllabic words (cf. Section A.2 above)

	רבים			יחיד		
<i>fish</i>	דגתיכם	דגי	דגי-	דגים	דגתי	דג

3. A *kamats* in wo

clerk

but no reduction o

hammer

thing,

word

but no reduction o

carpenter

year

but no reduction o

map

field

but no reduction o

staff, rod

4. A *kamats* in wo

memory

but *hataf patah* vo

interview

gift

but no reduction w

request

nouns ending in -ת
place -ת with ויות

יחידה	
עדות	עדותי
גלות	גלותי
זנות	זנותי

vowel reduction

ix is appended:

יחידה	
פת	פתי

second and third
ne *tsere* developed

יחידה	
שן	שני

derived from a root
items:

יחיד	
תף	תפי
קרסל	קרסלי

duction

which occurs when
with the formation of

at have that vowel in
forms of the noun.

יחיד	
יום	יומי

words (cf. Section

יחיד	
דג	דגי

3. A *kamats* in word-initial position in bi-syllabic nouns:

<i>clerk</i>	פקידים	פקידי	פקיד-	פקיד	יחיד
	פקידיכם	פקידי	פקידי-	פקידים	רבים

but no reduction of a *patah* vowel

<i>hammer</i>	פטיש	פטישי	פטיש-	פטיש	יחיד
	פטישיכם	פטישי	פטישי-	פטישים	רבים

<i>thing,</i>	דברים	דברי	דבר-	דבר	יחיד
<i>word</i>	דבריכם	דברי	דברי-	דברים	רבים

but no reduction of a *patah* vowel

<i>carpenter</i>	נגרים	נגרי	נגר-	נגר	יחיד
	נגריכם	נגרי	נגרי-	נגרים	רבים

<i>year</i>	שנים	שנתי	שנת-	שנה	יחידה
	שנתיכם	שנתי	שנת-	שנים	רבות

but no reduction of a *patah* vowel

<i>map</i>	מפות	מפתי	מפת-	מפה	יחידה
	מפותיכם	מפתי	מפות-	מפות	רבות

<i>field</i>	שדות	שדי	שדה-	שדה	יחיד
	שדותיכם	שדתי	שדות-	שדות	רבים

but no reduction of a *patah* vowel

<i>staff, rod</i>	מטות	מטי	מטה-	מטה	יחיד
	מטותיכם	מטתי	מטות-	מטות	רבים

4. A *kamats* in word-medial position:

<i>memory</i>	זכרונות	זכרונתי	זכרון-	זכרון	יחיד
	זכרונותיכם	זכרונתי	זכרונות-	זכרונות	רבים

but *hataf patah* vowel replaces zero *shva* when a guttural is involved:

<i>interview</i>	ראיונות	ראיונתי	ראיון-	ראיון	יחיד
	ראיונותיכם	ראיונתי	ראיונות-	ראיונות	רבים

<i>gift</i>	מתנות	מתנתי	מתנת-	מתנה	יחידה
	מתנותיכם	מתנתי	מתנות-	מתנות	רבות

but no reduction when a *dagesh hazak* closes the syllable:

<i>request</i>	בקשות	בקשתי	בקשת-	בקשה	יחידה
	בקשותיכם	בקשתי	בקשות-	בקשות	רבות

5. A *kamats* in word-final position:

<i>institution</i>	מוֹסְדָּכֶם	מוֹסְדִי	מוֹסְד-	מוֹסֵד	יחיד
	מוֹסְדוֹתֵיכֶם	מוֹסְדוֹתַי	מוֹסְדוֹת-	מוֹסְדוֹת	רבים
<i>sentence/</i>	מִשְׁפָּטֵכֶם	מִשְׁפָּטִי	מִשְׁפָּט-	מִשְׁפָּט	יחיד
<i>trial</i>	מִשְׁפָּטֵיכֶם	מִשְׁפָּטִי	מִשְׁפָּטִי-	מִשְׁפָּטִים	רבים

6. If the consonant **preceding** a deletable *kamats* is רי, ני, מי, לי, or the **following** consonant is a guttural, the *kamats* is not deleted. Instead, it is reduced to *e* (the vowel sign is still a *shva*):

<i>food</i>	מִזוֹנְכֶם	מִזוֹנִי	מִזוֹן-	מִזוֹן	יחיד
	מִזוֹנוֹתֵיכֶם	מִזוֹנוֹתַי	מִזוֹנוֹת-	מִזוֹנוֹת	רבים
<i>river</i>	נְהַרְכֶם	נְהַרִי	נְהַר-	נְהַר	יחיד
	נְהַרוֹתֵיכֶם	נְהַרוֹתַי	נְהַרוֹת-	נְהַרוֹת	רבים
<i>hour</i>	שְׁעָתֵכֶם	שְׁעָתִי	שְׁעָת-	שְׁעָה	יחידה
	שְׁעוֹתֵיכֶם	שְׁעוֹתַי	שְׁעוֹת-	שְׁעוֹת	רבות

7. A *tseré* in monosyllabic words:

<i>name</i>	שְׁמֵכֶם	שְׁמִי	שֵׁם-	שֵׁם	יחיד
	שְׁמוֹתֵיכֶם	שְׁמוֹתַי	שְׁמוֹת-	שְׁמוֹת	רבים

8. A *tseré* in bi-syllabic words or longer; some cases involve both a *kamats* and a *tseré*:

<i>elder</i>	זְקֵנְכֶם	זְקֵנִי	זֵקֵן-	זֵקֵן	יחיד
	זְקֵנֵיכֶם	זְקֵנֵי	זְקֵנִי-	זְקֵנִים	רבים
<i>fence</i>	גְּדָרְכֶם	גְּדָרִי	גְּדָר-	גְּדָר	יחיד
	גְּדָרוֹתֵיכֶם	גְּדָרוֹתַי	גְּדָרוֹת-	גְּדָרוֹת	רבים
<i>yard</i>	חֲצָרְכֶם	חֲצָרִי	חֲצָר-	חֲצָר	יחיד
	חֲצָרוֹתֵיכֶם	חֲצָרוֹתַי	חֲצָרוֹת-	חֲצָרוֹת	רבים
<i>hair</i>	שְׁעָרְכֶם	שְׁעָרִי	שְׁעָר-	שְׁעָר	יחיד
	שְׁעָרוֹתֵיכֶם	שְׁעָרוֹתַי	שְׁעָרוֹת-	שְׁעָרוֹת	רבים
<i>brick</i>	לְבַנְתֶּכֶם	לְבַנְתִּי	לְבַנַּת-	לְבַנָּה	יחידה
	לְבַנְתֵּיכֶם	לְבַנְתִּי	לְבַנְתִּי-	לְבַנְתִּים	רבות

9. A *tseré* is also reduced **immediately before** the stressed vowel, mostly in nouns that are identical to active participles of verbs.

<i>assistant</i>	עוֹזְרְכֶם	עוֹזְרִי	עוֹזֵר-	עוֹזֵר	יחיד
	עוֹזְרֵיכֶם	עוֹזְרֵי	עוֹזְרֵי-	עוֹזְרִים	רבים

hataf patah repl

worker

caretaker

hataf patah repl

manager

volunteer

hataf patah repl

settler

10. Similarly, a consonant has a

stick

11. When a final historical י, that

Gloss	
<i>teacher</i>	□
<i>patient</i>	□
<i>occurrence</i>	□
<i>structure</i>	□

D. Segolate n

(i). Masculine Seg

1. When the base

king

When consonant

slave

מוקד	יחיד
מוקדות	רבים
משפט	יחיד
משפטים	רבים

י, ל, מ, נ, ר, or the
t deleted. Instead, it is

מזון	יחיד
מזונות	רבים
נהר	יחיד
נהרות	רבים
שעה	יחידה
שעות	רבות

שם	יחיד
שמות	רבים

involve both a *kamats*

זקן	יחיד
זקנים	רבים
גדר	יחיד
גדרות	רבים
חצר	יחיד
חצרות	רבים
שער	יחיד
שערות	רבים
לבנה	יחידה
לבנים	רבות

ed vowel, mostly in

עוזר	יחיד
עוזרים	רבים

hataf patah replaces *shva* when the medial consonant is a guttural

<i>worker</i>	פועל־כם	פועלי	פועל-	פועל	יחיד
	פועליכם	פועלי	פועלי-	פועלים	רבים

<i>caretaker</i>	מטפֿל־כם	מטפֿלי	מטפֿל-	מטפֿל	יחיד
	מטפֿליכם	מטפֿלי	מטפֿלי-	מטפֿלים	רבים

hataf patah replaces *shva* when the medial consonant is a guttural

<i>manager</i>	מנהל־כם	מנהלי	מנהל-	מנהל	יחיד
	מנהליכם	מנהלי	מנהלי-	מנהלים	רבים

<i>volunteer</i>	מתנדב־כם	מתנדבי	מתנדב-	מתנדב	יחיד
	מתנדביכם	מתנדבי	מתנדבי-	מתנדבים	רבים

hataf patah replaces *shva* when medial letter is ה', ח', ע', א',

<i>settler</i>	מתנחל־כם	מתנחלי	מתנחל-	מתנחל	יחיד
	מתנחליכם	מתנחלי	מתנחלי-	מתנחלים	רבים

10. Similarly, a *tsere* is reduced in pre-stress position when the second consonant has a *dagesh hazak*:

<i>stick</i>	מקל־כם	מקלי	מקל-	מקל	יחיד
	מקלתיכם	מקלתי	מקלות-	מקלות	רבים

11. When a final ה' originated from a root with final consonant ה' from historical י, that ה' is elided when a suffix is appended.

Gloss	רבים			יחיד		
<i>teacher</i>	מור־כם	מורי	מורים	מור־כם	מורי	מורה-
<i>patient</i>	חול־כם	חולי	חולים	חול־כם	חולי	חולה-
<i>occurrence</i>	מקרי־כם	מקרי	מקרים	מקרי־כם	מקרי	מקרה-
<i>structure</i>	מבני־כם	מבני	מבנים	מבני־כם	מבני	מבנה-

D. Segolate nouns

(i). Masculine *Segolates*:

1. When the base is -על-

<i>king</i>	מלכ־כם	מלכי	מלך-	מלך	יחיד
	מלכיכם	מלכי	מלכי-	מלכים	רבים

When consonant l is a guttural

<i>slave</i>	עבד־כם	עבדי	עבד-	עבד	יחיד
	עבדיכם	עבדי	עבדי-	עבדים	רבים

When consonant 2 is a guttural

<i>gate</i>	שַׁעֲרָכֶם	שַׁעֲרֵי	שַׁעַר-	שַׁעַר	יחיד
	שַׁעֲרֵיכֶם	שַׁעֲרֵי	שַׁעֲרֵי-	שַׁעֲרִים	רבים

When consonant 3 is a guttural

<i>rock</i>	סַלְעֵכֶם	סַלְעֵי	סַלְעַ-	סַלְעַ	יחיד
	סַלְעֵיכֶם	סַלְעֵי	סַלְעֵי-	סַלְעִים	רבים

2. When the base is -פעל

<i>clothing</i>	בְּגָדְכֶם	בְּגָדֵי	בְּגָד-	בְּגָד	יחיד
	בְּגָדֵיכֶם	בְּגָדֵי	בְּגָדֵי-	בְּגָדִים	רבים

When the base is -פעל and the independent form is פעל

<i>book</i>	סַפְרָכֶם	סַפְרֵי	סַפְרַ-	סַפְרַ	יחיד
	סַפְרֵיכֶם	סַפְרֵי	סַפְרֵי-	סַפְרִים	רבים

When the last consonant is a guttural

<i>quarter</i>	רְבַעְכֶם	רְבַעֵי	רְבַעַ-	רְבַעַ	יחיד
	רְבַעֵיכֶם	רְבַעֵי	רְבַעֵי-	רְבַעִים	רבים

3. When the base is -פעל (*kamats katan=ō*) and the independent form is פעל

<i>month</i>	חֲדָשְׁכֶם	חֲדָשֵׁי	חֲדָשַׁ-	חֲדָשַׁ	יחיד
	חֲדָשֵׁיכֶם	חֲדָשֵׁי	חֲדָשֵׁי-	חֲדָשִׁים	רבים

With a guttural as second root consonant

<i>width</i>	רְחִבְכֶם	רְחִבֵי	רְחִבַּ-	רְחִבַּ	יחיד
	רְחִבֵיכֶם	רְחִבֵי	רְחִבֵי-	רְחִבִים	רבים

With a guttural as third root consonant

<i>manner</i>	אַרְחָכֶם	אַרְחֵי	אַרְחַ-	אַרְחַ	יחיד
	אַרְחֵיכֶם	אַרְחֵי	אַרְחֵי-	אַרְחִוֹת	רבים

ii. Feminine *segolates*:

1. When the pattern is פעלה

<i>young girl</i>	יְלֻדְתְּכֶם	יְלֻדְתֵי	יְלֻדַת-	יְלֻדָה	יחידה
	יְלֻדְתֵיכֶם	יְלֻדְתֵי	יְלֻדוֹת-	יְלֻדוֹת	רבות

When the first consonant is a guttural

<i>maiden</i>	עַלְמוֹתְכֶם	עַלְמוֹתֵי	עַלְמוֹתַ-	עַלְמוֹהַ	יחידה
	עַלְמוֹתֵיכֶם	עַלְמוֹתֵי	עַלְמוֹתַ-	עַלְמוֹת	רבות

When the second consonant is a guttural

<i>girl</i>	נַעֲרֹתְכֶם	נַעֲרֹתֵי	נַעֲרֹתַ-	נַעֲרָה	יחידה
	נַעֲרֹתֵיכֶם	נַעֲרֹתֵי	נַעֲרֹתַ-	נַעֲרוֹת	רבות

2. When the patt

<i>dress</i>	סַלְעֵי
--------------	---------

With a guttural a

<i>position</i>	סַלְעֵי
-----------------	---------

3. When the patt

<i>wisdom</i>	סַלְעֵי
---------------	---------

4. When the patt

<i>lady</i>	סַלְעֵי
-------------	---------

5. When the patt

<i>(tree)top</i>	סַלְעֵי
------------------	---------

6. When the patt

<i>assistant/ maid</i>	סַלְעֵי
----------------------------	---------

With a guttural a

<i>worker</i>	סַלְעֵי
---------------	---------

With a guttural a

<i>passenger</i>	סַלְעֵי
------------------	---------

7. When the patt

<i>visitor/ comptroller</i>	סַלְעֵי
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With a guttural a

<i>worker</i>	סַלְעֵי
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With a guttural a

<i>surgeon</i>	סַלְעֵי
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שער	יחיד
שערים	רבים

סלע	יחיד
סלעים	רבים

בגד	יחיד
בגדים	רבים

ספר	יחיד
ספרים	רבים

רבע	יחיד
רבעים	רבים

dependent form is פֻּעַל

חֵדָשׁ	יחיד
חֲדָשִׁים	רבים

רחב	יחיד
רחבים	רבים

ארח	יחיד
ארחות	רבים

ילדה	יחידה
ילדות	רבות

עלמה	יחידה
עלמות	רבות

נערה	יחידה
נערות	רבות

2. When the pattern is פֻּעַלָה

<i>dress</i>	שְׂמֹלֶתְכֶם	שְׂמֹלֶתִי	שְׂמֹלֶת-	שְׂמֹלָה	יחידה
	שְׂמֹלֹתֵיכֶם	שְׂמֹלֹתִי	שְׂמֹלֹת-	שְׂמֹלוֹת	רבות

With a guttural as a first consonant

<i>position</i>	עֲמֻדָתְכֶם	עֲמֻדָתִי	עֲמֻדַת-	עֲמֻדָה	יחידה
	עֲמֻדוֹתֵיכֶם	עֲמֻדוֹתִי	עֲמֻדוֹת-	עֲמֻדוֹת	רבות

3. When the pattern is פֻּעַלָה (kamats katan=o)

<i>wisdom</i>	חֲכֻמַּתְכֶם	חֲכֻמַּתִי	חֲכֻמַת-	חֲכֻמָּה	יחידה
	חֲכֻמוֹתֵיכֶם	חֲכֻמוֹתִי	חֲכֻמוֹת-	חֲכֻמוֹת	רבות

4. When the pattern is פֻּעַלַת

<i>lady</i>	גְּבוּרָתְכֶם	גְּבוּרָתִי	גְּבוּרַת-	גְּבוּרָת	יחידה
	גְּבוּרוֹתֵיכֶם	גְּבוּרוֹתִי	גְּבוּרוֹת-	גְּבוּרוֹת	רבות

5. When the pattern is פֻּעַלַת

<i>(tree)top</i>	צִמְרֹתְכֶם	צִמְרֹתִי	צִמְרַת-	צִמְרַת	יחידה
	צִמְרוֹתֵיכֶם	צִמְרוֹתִי	צִמְרוֹת-	צִמְרוֹת	רבות

6. When the pattern is פֻּעַלַת

<i>assistant/maid</i>	עוֹזְרֹתְכֶם	עוֹזְרֹתִי	עוֹזְרַת-	עוֹזְרַת	יחידה
	עוֹזְרוֹתֵיכֶם	עוֹזְרוֹתִי	עוֹזְרוֹת-	עוֹזְרוֹת	רבות

With a guttural as the second root consonant

<i>worker</i>	פוֹעֲלֹתְכֶם	פוֹעֲלֹתִי	פוֹעֲלַת-	פוֹעֲלַת	יחידה
	פוֹעֲלוֹתֵיכֶם	פוֹעֲלוֹתִי	פוֹעֲלוֹת-	פוֹעֲלוֹת	רבות

With a guttural as the third root consonant

<i>passenger</i>	נוֹסְעֹתְכֶם	נוֹסְעֹתִי	נוֹסְעַת-	נוֹסְעַת	יחידה
	נוֹסְעוֹתֵיכֶם	נוֹסְעוֹתִי	נוֹסְעוֹת-	נוֹסְעוֹת	רבות

7. When the pattern is מְפַעַלַת

<i>visitor/ comptroller</i>	מְבַקְרֹתְכֶם	מְבַקְרֹתִי	מְבַקְרַת-	מְבַקְרַת	יחידה
	מְבַקְרוֹתֵיכֶם	מְבַקְרוֹתִי	מְבַקְרוֹת-	מְבַקְרוֹת	רבות

With a guttural as the second consonant

<i>worker</i>	מְנַהֲלֹתְכֶם	מְנַהֲלֹתִי	מְנַהֲלַת-	מְנַהֲלַת	יחידה
	מְנַהֲלוֹתֵיכֶם	מְנַהֲלוֹתִי	מְנַהֲלוֹת-	מְנַהֲלוֹת	רבות

With a guttural as the third consonant

<i>surgeon</i>	מְנַתְחֹתְכֶם	מְנַתְחֹתִי	מְנַתְחַת-	מְנַתְחַת	יחידה
	מְנַתְחוֹתֵיכֶם	מְנַתְחוֹתִי	מְנַתְחוֹת-	מְנַתְחוֹת	רבות

8. When the pattern is מתפעלת

<i>volunteer</i>	מתנדבתכם	מתנדבתי	מתנדבת-	מתנדבת	יחידה
	מתנדבותיכם	מתנדבותי	מתנדבות-	מתנדבות	רבות

9. When the pattern is פעלת (note: *kamats katan=o*)

<i>address</i>	כתבתכם	כתבתי	כתבת-	כתבת	יחידה
	כתבותיכם	כתבותי	כתבות-	כתובות	רבות

10. When the pattern is תיעלת (note: *kamats katan=o*)

<i>baby girl</i>	תינקתכם	תינקתי	תינקת-	תינקת	יחידה
	תינוקותיכם	תינוקותי	תינוקות-	תינוקות	רבות

11. When the pattern is פעפעת (note: *kamats katan=o*)

<i>skull</i>	גלגלתכם	גלגלתי	גלגלת-	גלגלת	יחידה
	גלגלותיכם	גלגלותי	גלגלות-	גלגלות	רבות

12. When the pattern is מפעלת (note: *kamats katan=o*)

<i>weight</i>	משקלתכם	משקלתי	משקלת-	משקלת	יחידה
	משקולותיכם	משקולתי	משקולות-	משקולות	רבות

13. When the pattern is מפעלת

<i>salary</i>	משכרתכם	משכרתי	משכרת-	משכרת	יחידה
	משכורותיכם	משכורותי	משכורות-	משכורות	רבות

14. When the pattern is פעלת (note: *kamats katan=o*)

<i>criticism</i>	בקרבתכם	בקרתי	בקרבת-	בקרבת	יחידה
	בקורותיכם	בקורותי	בקורות-	בקורות	רבות

iii. *Segolates* derived from ע"ו/ע"י roots or other bi-consonantal bases:

<i>hue,</i>	גונכם	גוני	גון-	גון	יחיד
<i>color</i>	גוניכם	גוני	גוני-	גונים	רבים

<i>house/</i>	ביתכם	ביתי	בית-	בית	יחיד
<i>home</i>	בתיכם	בתי	בתי-	בתים	רבים

<i>tool</i>	כליכם	כליי	כלי-	כלי	יחיד
<i>instrument</i>	כליכם	כלי	כלי-	כלים	רבים

The paradigms
pattern for (pos

1. Following Suffixes

בין
between

ביני
בינת
בינד
בינו
בינה
בינינו
ביניכם/ך
ביניהם/ן

לבד
by self

לבדי
לבדך
לבדך
לבדו
לבדה
לבדנו
לבדכם/ך
לבדם/ן

Appendix 3: particle tables

The paradigms for the particles below follow either the singular or the plural pattern for (possessive) pronoun suffixes (see pp. 168-170, pp. 233-235).

1. Following the Paradigm for Singular (Possessive) Pronoun Suffixes

	בין <i>between</i>	בגלל <i>because of</i>	ב- <i>in/at</i>	את <i>direct object</i>	את-עם <i>with</i>	אצל <i>at someone's</i>
יחידה	ביני	בגללי	בי	אותי	אתי	אצלי
רבות	בינך	בגללך	בך	אותך	אתך	אצלך
	בינך	בגללך	בך	אותך	אתך	אצלך
	בינו	בגללו	בו	אותו	אתו	אצלו
	בינה	בגללה	בה	אותה	אתה	אצלה
	בינינו	בגללנו	בנו	אותנו	אתנו	אצלנו
	ביניכם	בגללכם	בכם	אתכם	אתכם	אצלכם
	ביניהם	בגללם	בהם	אתם	אתם	אצלם

	לבד <i>by self</i>	ל- <i>to/for</i>	כל <i>all of</i>	כמות <i>like</i>	כמו <i>like</i>	בשביל <i>for</i>
יחידה	לבדי	לי	כלי	כמותי	כמוני	בשבילי
רבות	לבדך	לך	כלך	כמותך	כמוך	בשבילך
	לבדך	לך	כלך	כמותך	כמוך	בשבילך
	לבדו	לו	כלו	כמותו	כמותו	בשבילו
	לבדה	לה	כלה	כמותה	כמותה	בשבילה
	לבדנו	לנו	כלנו	כמותנו	כמותנו	בשבילנו
	לבדכם	לכם	כלכם	כמותכם	כמותכם	בשבילכם
	לבדם	להם	כלם	כמותם	כמותם	בשבילם

Consonantal bases:

יחיד	גון
רבים	גונים

יחיד	בית
רבים	בתים

יחיד	כלי
רבים	כלים

יחידה	מתנדבת
רבות	מתנדבות

יחידה	כתבת
רבות	כתובות

יחידה	תינקת
רבות	תינקות

יחידה	גלגלת
רבות	גלגלות

יחידה	משקלת
רבות	משקולות

יחידה	משפכת
רבות	משפורות

יחידה	בקרת
רבות	בקורות

מִן <i>from</i>	מול <i>facing</i>	לקראת <i>toward</i>	לעמית <i>versus</i>	למען <i>for the sake of</i>
מִמֶּנִּי	מולי	לקראתי	לעמיתי	למעני
מִמֶּנְךָ	מולך	לקראתך	לעמיתך	למענך
מִמֶּנּוּ	מולו	לקראתו	לעמיתו	למענו
מִמֶּנָּה	מולה	לקראתה	לעמיתה	למענה
מִמֶּנּוּ/מֵאִתּוֹ*	מולנו	לקראתנו	לעמיתנו	למעננו
מִמֶּכֶּם/	מולכם	לקראתכם	לעמיתכם	למענכם
מִהֶם/	מולם	לקראתם	לעמיתם	למענם

* מֵאִתּוֹ is colloquial.

שֶׁל <i>of</i>	עִם <i>with</i>	על-יד <i>next to</i>	עבור <i>for</i>	סביב <i>around</i>	נגד <i>opposite</i>
שְׁלִי	עִמִּי	על-ידי	עבורי	סביבי	נגדי
שְׁלְךָ	עִמָּךְ	על-ידך	עבורך	סביבך	נגדך
שְׁלּוֹ	עִמּוֹ	על-ידו	עבורו	סביבו	נגדו
שְׁלָהּ	עִמָּה	על-ידה	עבורה	סביבה	נגדה
שְׁלָנוּ	עִמָּנוּ	על-ידנו	עבורנו	סביבנו	נגדנו
שְׁלְכֶם/	עִמָּכֶם/	על-ידכם	עבורכם	סביבכם	נגדכם
שְׁלֵהֶם/	עִמָּהֶם/	על-ידם	עבורם	סביבם	נגדם
	עִמָּם/				

- Note that in the case of בין 'between', the singular forms follow the singular possessive pronoun paradigm, בִּינִי etc., whereas the plural ones follow the plural possessive pronoun paradigm, בִּינֵינוּ etc.
- Note the variant forms of עמהם/עמם.
- Existential particles, such as 'exists' יש, 'does not exist' אין and 'still exists' עוד also take singular type suffixes:

אֵינִי/	אֵינְךָ	אֵינּוּ	אֵינָהּ/אֵינָה	אֵינָנוּ	אֵינְכֶם	אֵינְהֶם/
אֵינִי						
יֵשְׁנִי	יֵשְׁנְךָ	יֵשְׁנּוּ	יֵשְׁנָהּ	יֵשְׁנָנוּ	יֵשְׁנְכֶם	יֵשְׁנְהֶם/
יֵשְׁנִי						
עוֹדֵנִי	עוֹדֵנְךָ	עוֹדֵנּוּ	עוֹדֵנָהּ/עוֹדֵנָה	עוֹדֵנָנוּ	עוֹדֵנְכֶם	עוֹדֵנְהֶם/
עוֹדֵנִי						

*The suffixed forms of יש are used only in the first and third persons.

2. Following Suffixes

על <i>on/about</i>
עָלַי
עָלֶיךָ
עָלָיו
עָלֶיהָ
עָלֵינוּ
עָלֵיכֶם/
עָלֵיהֶם/

מֵאַחֲרָי <i>behind</i>
מֵאַחֲרָי
מֵאַחֲרֶיךָ
מֵאַחֲרָיו
מֵאַחֲרֶיהָ
מֵאַחֲרֵינוּ
מֵאַחֲרֵיכֶם/
מֵאַחֲרֵיהֶם/

Note

The particle לפני and the dependent prepositional phrase are conjugated in the same way as the preposition ל. The same is true for the particle מאחורי where the prepositional phrase is conjugated in the same way as the preposition ל.

2. Following the Paradigm for Plural (Possessive) Pronoun Suffixes

לְעַמְּי for the sake of	לְמַעַן for the sake of
לְעַמְּתֵי	לְמַעַנִי
לְעַמְּתַנְךָ	לְמַעַנְךָ
לְעַמְּתֵיךָ	לְמַעַנְךָ
לְעַמְּתוֹ	לְמַעַנּוֹ
לְעַמְּתֵיהֶם	לְמַעַנֵיהֶם
לְעַמְּתֵיכֶם	לְמַעַנֵיכֶם

סָבִיב around	נֶגֶד opposite
סָבִיבִי	נֶגְדִי
סָבִיבְךָ	נֶגְדְךָ
סָבִיבָה	נֶגְדָהּ
סָבִיבוֹ	נֶגְדּוֹ
סָבִיבֵינוּ	נֶגְדֵנוּ
סָבִיבְכֶם	נֶגְדְכֶם
סָבִיבְהֶם	נֶגְדָהֶם

עַל on/about	אֹדוֹת about	בְּלֶעְדֵי without	אֶל to/toward	אַחֲרַי after
עָלַי	אֹדוֹתַי	בְּלֶעְדַי	אֵלַי	אַחֲרַי
עָלֶיךָ	אֹדוֹתֶיךָ	בְּלֶעְדֶיךָ	אֵלֶיךָ	אַחֲרֶיךָ
עָלָיו	אֹדוֹתָיו	בְּלֶעְדָיו	אֵלָיו	אַחֲרָיו
עָלֶיהָ	אֹדוֹתֶיהָ	בְּלֶעְדֶיהָ	אֵלֶיהָ	אַחֲרֶיהָ
עָלֵינוּ	אֹדוֹתֵינוּ	בְּלֶעְדֵינוּ	אֵלֵינוּ	אַחֲרֵינוּ
עָלֶיכֶם	אֹדוֹתֵיכֶם	בְּלֶעְדֵיכֶם	אֵלֵיכֶם	אַחֲרֵיכֶם
עָלֵיהֶם	אֹדוֹתֵיהֶם	בְּלֶעְדֵיהֶם	אֵלֵיהֶם	אַחֲרֵיהֶם

מֵאַחֲרַי behind	לִפְנֵי in front	עַל-יְדֵי by	מֵעַל above	תַּחַת below
מֵאַחֲרַי	לִפְנֵי	עַל-יְדֵי	מֵעַלִי	תַּחַתִּי
מֵאַחֲרֶיךָ	לִפְנֶיךָ	עַל-יְדֶיךָ	מֵעַלֶיךָ	תַּחַתֶיךָ
מֵאַחֲרָיו	לִפְנֵיו	עַל-יְדָיו	מֵעַלָיו	תַּחַתָיו
מֵאַחֲרֶיהָ	לִפְנֶיהָ	עַל-יְדֶיהָ	מֵעַלֶיהָ	תַּחַתֶיהָ
מֵאַחֲרֵינוּ	לִפְנֵינוּ	עַל-יְדֵינוּ	מֵעַלֵינוּ	תַּחַתֵינוּ
מֵאַחֲרֵיכֶם	לִפְנֵיכֶם	עַל-יְדֵיכֶם	מֵעַלֵיכֶם	תַּחַתֵיכֶם
מֵאַחֲרֵיהֶם	לִפְנֵיהֶם	עַל-יְדֵיהֶם	מֵעַלֵיהֶם	תַּחַתֵיהֶם

Note

The particle לפני means 'before (ahead of me)' and consists of the preposition ל- and the dependent noun form of פנים. It has two variations, where the prepositional prefixes are altered to give it another meaning: לפני in front of me (facing me) and מפני 'from me, because of me'. These two particles are conjugated in the same manner as לפני in the above table. The same is true for the particle מאחורי, which means 'behind'. It has an alternate לאחורי where the preposition מ- is replaced by ל-, changing the direction. Instead of positional 'behind', מאחורי means 'to/toward the back'. It is conjugated in the same manner as מאחורי.

angular forms

gm, ביני etc.,

sive pronoun

not exist' אין

es:

אֵינִי	אֵינְךָ	אֵינָהּ
אֵינִי	אֵינְךָ	אֵינָהּ
אֵינֵנוּ	אֵינְכֶם	אֵינָהֶם
אֵינֵנוּ	אֵינְכֶם	אֵינָהֶם

ird persons.

Appendix 4: Punctuation rules

Most punctuation marks are used in a manner similar to their use in English. The rules listed below follow those set by the Hebrew Language Academy (in abbreviated and simplified form).

1. Period

נקודה

A period is used at the end of a sentence that makes a statement. There is no space between the last letter and the period.

הלימודים התחילו מיד אחרי החגים.

A period is also used at the end of an indirect question.

ההורים רצו לדעת אם תהיה שביתת מורים.

2. Comma

פסיק

The comma indicates a pause in the sentence, and this is why it is often placed in the sentence where a change in structure has occurred. It is the most commonly used punctuation mark and has several functions.

1. With a list of items (coordinated)

A comma separates the coordinated parts when there is no conjunction.

משה שמיר, יגאל מוסנזון, נתן שחם ואהרון מגד היו מבין הסופרים הראשונים של המדינה.

2. Parenthetical expressions

ביטויים מוסגרים

A qualified expression is separated from the main sentence by commas, one that comes before it and one that concludes it.

We can say, without any reservation, that the proposal is a daring one. אנחנו יכולים לומר, ללא כל הסתייגות, שההצעה היא הצעה נועזת.

In very short parenthetical expressions it is possible to omit the comma.

My Dad for instance always thinks about the future. אבא שלי למשל תמיד חושב על העתיד.

3. Apposition

Commas separate appositions. Dr. Michael S. ... of the Reform ... make a speech. However, when ... The philosopher ... the grandfather ... Mendelssohn.

4. Topic and

In topicalized sentences, the topic is separated from the rest of the sentence. The next election ... serious struggle ... parties.

It is not common ... conventional ... Such a mother ...

5. Clauses of

In a coordinate sentence, the clauses are separated by commas. The rains will ... gradually less ... temperatures v ...

If the two sentences are coordinated, they are separated by a comma. Rain fell and the ...

6. The coordi

In a sentence with two parts, a comma is used. He did not want ... rather to the th ... However, when ... אין...אלא ... There is nothing ...

n rules

similar to their use in
set by the Hebrew
(form).

נקודה

es a statement. There

הלימודים התחילו מיד
tion.

ההורים רצו לדעת אם ה

פסיק

this is why it is often
e has occurred. It is
several functions.

re is no conjunction.

משה שמיר, יגאל מוסנ
של המדינה.

ביטויים מוסגרים

entence by commas,

אנחנו יכולים לומר, לל
שההצעה היא הצעה נו

to omit the comma.

אבא שלי למשל תמיד

3. Apposition

תמורה

Commas separate items in apposition:

Dr. Michael Schwartz, the leader of the Reform movement, will make a speech in the session. מנהיג התנועה הרפורמית, ינאם בישיבה.

However, when apposition is very short, it can come without commas:

The philosopher Mendelssohn was the grandfather of the composer Mendelssohn. הפילוסוף היה סבו של מנדלסון המלחין.

4. Topic and comment

משפטי ייחוד

In topicalized sentences it is possible, but not obligatory, to separate the topic from the comment by a comma:

The next elections, there will be serious struggles there among the parties. הבחירות הבאות, יהיו שם מאבקים רציניים בין המפלגות.

It is not common to insert commas into shorter expressions or fixed conventional expressions:

Such a mother, there is only one. אמא כזאת יש רק אחת.

5. Clauses of coordinate sentence

בין איברים של משפטי ייחוד

In a coordinate sentence, a comma separates the individual sentences.

The rains will stop, the winds will gradually lessen, and the temperatures will be higher. הגשמים ייפסקו, הרוחות ייחלשו בהדרגה, והטמפרטורות יהיו גבוהות יותר.

If the two sentences are short, there is no need for a comma.

Rain fell and the wind was blowing. ירד גשם והרוח נשבה.

6. The coordinator

In a sentence where the conjunction **אלא** separates and contrasts the two parts, a comma is often inserted before the conjunction.

He did not want go to the movies, but rather to the theater. הוא לא רצה ללכת לקולנוע, אלא לתיאטרון.

However, when it is used for emphasis, in an expression such as 'nothing ...but', no comma is inserted.

There is nothing here but trivial things. אין כאן אלא דברים בטלים.

7. After a subordinate clause

A comma is inserted after a subordinate clause, provided that it is long.
 After all the guests arrived and sat themselves in the seats reserved for them, the show began.

אחרי שכל האורחים הגיעו והתיישבו במקומות שהוקצו להם, התחילה ההצגה.

8. Separating non-restrictive relative clauses

A non-restrictive relative clause is usually separated from the main sentence by commas. (A restrictive relative clause does **not** have a comma).

Non-restrictive clause

Those rumors, that the tabloids published, were not true.

השמועות הללו, שהתפרסמו בעיתונות הצהובה, לא היו נכונות.

Restrictive clause

I don't trust rumors that are spread by tabloids.

אני לא מאמין בשמועות שמתפרסמות בעיתונות הצהובה (צהובונים).

3. Dash**קו מפריד (-)**

A dash is a line that separates parts of a sentence. It replaces a comma, serving as a 'super-comma', especially when a comma is perceived to be not quite strong enough. It is a line that has a space before and after the part that is being separated from the rest of the sentence. It is used more frequently in Hebrew than in English. Sometimes two hyphens are used instead of a dash.

1. It can be used after a topic, before a part of the sentence that includes a special comment, especially if several items are listed in it that themselves are separated by commas:

All of their children – Danny, Ro'ic, Yossi and Dina – all of them have good careers.

כל הילדים שלהם – דני, רועי, יוסי ודינה – כולם הצליחו בעבודה.

All of his manuscripts and the many letters sent to him – were all lost.

כל כתבי היד שלו והמכתבים הרבים שנשלחו אליו – כולם הלכו לאיבוד.

2. When ellipsis has occurred in the sentence:

One man wants learning, and the other – goods.

פלוני רוצה תורה, ואלמוני – סחורה.

3. Before words
The train is very
miles per hour.

4. It sometimes
sentence that ha
The party's can
inexperienced i

5. A parentheti
by dashes instea
Many years ago
young and stro
during the day

6. To separate
sentence.

All the holy thi
Israel, Jerusale
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4. Parenthes
The following

1. When a pe
segment, it is p
Slang changes
(especially in I

2. When a con
is bounded by
Driver: I am a
responsibility
passengers saf
is heard from c

3. Before words or phrases detailing an explanation that preceded them.
 The train is very fast – about 100 miles per hour. כמאה מייל – מהירה מאוד
 לשעה.

4. It sometimes separates a subject and a predicate in a verbless sentence that has no copula, especially in newspaper headlines.
 The party's candidate for mayor – inexperienced in politics. מועמד המפלגה לראשות העירייה – חסר ניסיון בפוליטיקה.

5. A parenthetical expression can be separated from the main sentence by dashes instead of commas, before and at the end of the sequence.
 Many years ago -- I was then a young and strong lad -- I studied during the day and worked at night. לפני הרבה שנים – אז הייתי בחור צעיר וחזק – למדתי ביום ועבדתי בלילה.

6. To separate lengthy apposition phrases from the main part of the sentence.
 All the holy things – the Land of Israel, Jerusalem, Temple Mount, the Tablets -- they have no holiness of themselves and only became sanctified by the doing of good deeds. כל הקדושות – ארץ ישראל, ירושלים, הר הבית, המקדש, הלוחות – אין בהן קדושה בעצמן ולא נתקדשו אלא במעשה המצוות.

4. Parentheses

סוגריים ()

The following rules govern material within parentheses:

1. When a period or comma comes at the end of a parenthetical segment, it is placed outside of the parentheses.

Slang changes very rapidly (especially in Israeli Hebrew). הסלנג משתנה במהירות עצומה (במיוחד בעברית ישראלית).

2. When a complete sentence is followed by a loosely related one that is bounded by parentheses, a period follows the last segment in each.

Driver: I am a driver. It is my responsibility to deliver the passengers safely. (A dreadful shout is heard from outside.) נהג: אני נהג, התפקיד שלי להביא את הנוסעים בשלום. (נשמעת זעקה איומה מבחוץ.)

3. When a question mark, an exclamation mark or three dots is part of the sentence in parentheses, it stays within the parentheses. A period still follows (outside of the parentheses).

And you know what else? It is not just that the principal did not react to what I told him; he even refused to listen (who ever heard such a thing?).
 ואת יודעת מה? זה לא רק שהמנהל לא הגיב למה שאמרתי לו; הוא אפילו סרב להקשיב (איפה נשמע דבר כזה?).

5. Hyphen

מקף (-)

It is important to distinguish between מקף 'hyphen', which is inserted to join items, and the קו מפריד 'dash' inserted to separate items.

1. A hyphen can be used to join two nouns that are closely bound, sometimes constituting a fixed expression and considered to be a single semantic unit.

attorney	עורך-דין	landlord	בעל-בית
human being	בן-אדם	school	בית-ספר
courtroom	בית-משפט	backpack	תרמיל-גב

2. Hyphens can be used to join nouns or adjectives into compound structures.

French-Canadian	צרפתי-קנדי	Ashkenazi-Jew	יהודי-אשכנזי
ethno-religious	אתני-דתי	socio-economic	חברתי-כלכלי

3. They can be used (not obligatory) in noun phrases where the noun repeats itself to create an adverbial phrase, which in English can be translated in the following way:

one by one	איש-איש	step by step	שלבים-שלבים
one by one	אחד-אחד	day by day	יום-יום
		on a daily basis	

4. They can be used with prefix words.

unambiguous	חד-משמעי	international	בין-לאומי
no confidence	אי-אמון	bi-lingual	דו-לשוני

6. Quotation

Quotation marks are used to indicate spoken language (although not in direct speech (although not in direct quote), and to indicate the source of the quoted text. There are two main ways to quote a sentence. One way, for example, is to use punctuation marks

Another way, for example, is to use punctuation marks to indicate the source of the quoted text.

When the quotation marks are used to indicate the source of the quoted text, the punctuation marks are placed inside the quotation marks.

However if the quotation marks are used to indicate the source of the quoted text, the three dots at the end of the sentence are present in the original text, separating the quoted text from the rest of the sentence.

Quotation marks are normally used to indicate the source of the quoted text in articles.

The interactive exhibition was staged in Akko.

Quotation marks are used to indicate the source of the quoted text. She is a physician who works at the hospital in Akko.

6. Quotation marks

מירכאות

Quotation marks are used to set off material that represents quoted or spoken language. A colon usually marks the beginning of quoted speech (although in newspaper articles a comma can introduce a direct quote), and quotation marks are present in the beginning and at the end of the quoted speech.

There are two ways of inserting a punctuation mark at the end of the quoted sentence:

One way, following the American system of punctuation, puts the punctuation marks of the quoted speech within the quotation marks.

אורן: "הלו רות, אני לא בא הערב."

רות: "אבל אתה אמרת שתבוא."

Another way, following the European system of punctuation and used in most media publications, is to put the quotation mark before the final punctuation mark of the sentence (the following is from *Maariv*).

בלשכת ראש הממשלה הביעו זעם: "אם יש ביקורת, היא צריכה להיאמר ישירות לראש הממשלה."

When the quote precedes the rest of the sentence, a comma follows the quotation mark.

"מסכן אבא", אמרה לי בצאתנו משער החצר.

However if the quote has a question mark, an exclamation mark or three dots at the end of the quote, the appropriate punctuation mark will be present inside the quotation mark, and there will be no comma separating the two.

"למה אפשר לצפות?" שאל.

Quotation marks can also set off the titles of things that do not normally stand by themselves: short stories, movies, poems, and articles.

The interactive show, 'Medea X', was staged in Akko. המופע האינטראקטיווי, "מדיאה" הוצג בתיאטרון עכו.

Quotation marks are also used to set off the titles of institutions:

She is a physician in the 'Ha'emek' hospital in Afula. היא רופאה בבית החולים "העמק" בעפולה.

Quotation marks can also be put around concepts that the writer wants to highlight:

Are there real possibilities for choice?	האם קיימות אפשרויות אמיתיות
Will 'Sacrifice' always follow 'Love'?	של בחירה? האם "הקרבה"?
These are the question that the audience is being asked.	תמיד תבוא אחרי "אהבה"? אלו השאלות שנשאל הצופה.

Note

In English single quotation marks are used in the above cases, rather than double quotations marks, which are used in Hebrew.

7. Exclamation mark

סימן קריאה (!)

An exclamation mark is used at the end of an emphatic declaration, interjection, or command.

Do it, now!

עשו את זה, עכשיו!

An exclamation mark may be used to close questions that are meant to convey extreme emotion, as in:

In God's name, what are you doing! אלוהים אדירים, מה אתם עושים!

8. Question mark

סימן שאלה (?)

The question mark is used at the end of a direction question.

What do you plan on doing?

מה אתם מתכוננים לעשות?

A tag question is a device used to turn a statement into a question. It nearly always consists of a pronoun, a helping verb, and sometimes the word *not*. A question mark is used at the end of such a sentence.

You are coming tomorrow, right?

אתם באים מחר, נכון?

9. Semicolon

נקודה פסיק (;)

The rules for the use of a semicolon are not always clear. It is used to separate large lists or long clauses, without ending the sentence.

1. A semicolon can help out sort a very large list:

There were many participants in the conference: representatives from the Galilee; teachers from Beer Sheva; social workers from Haifa; and journalists from all parts of the country.

היו הרבה משתתפים בכינוס: נציגים מהגליל; מורים מבאר-שבע; עובדים סוציאליים מחיפה; ועיתונאים מכל קצוות הארץ.

2. A semicol
And you kno
that the princ
told him; he e

The semicol
without actual

10. Colon

A colon is u
clause that ca
The following
the committed
the mayor
the deputy
representa

A colon is us
the clause int
Ofir continue
understood ab
laughter actual

11. Inverted

The single in
words. It is in
no. (number)
Mr. (mister)

The double in
1. In acronym
Bible

2. In spelling
Double invert
name.

2. A semicolon is used to separate closely related independent clauses:
 And you know what else? It is not just that the principal did not react to what I told him; he even refused to listen.

The semicolon allows the writer to imply a relationship between ideas without actually stating that relationship.

10. Colon

נקודתיים (:)

A colon is used before a list or an explanation that is preceded by a clause that can stand by itself.

The following people were elected to the committee:

the mayor	ראש העיר
the deputy mayor	סגן ראש העיר
representatives of the firemen	נציגי ארגון הכבאים

A colon is used to separate an independent clause from a quotation that the clause introduces:

Ofir continued speaking: "The nurse understood all of a sudden how much laughter actually helps health."

11. Inverted commas/apostrophe

גרש (') וגרשיים (")

The single inverted comma, or apostrophe, is used in abbreviation of words. It is inserted after the last letter of the abbreviated word.

no. (number)	מסי (= מספר)	etc. (etcetera)	וגו' (= וגומר)
Mr. (mister)	האי' (= האדון)	pg. (page)	עמי (= עמוד)

The double inverted commas are used in the following:

1. In acronyms:

Bible	תנ"ך	silverware	סכו"ם
	תורה, נביאים, כתובים		סכין, כף ומזלג

2. In spelling out names of letters of the alphabet:

Double inverted commas are inserted between the last two letters of the name.

אלי"ף, בי"ת, וי"ו, כ"ף, צד"י, תי"ו

Appendix 5: *plene* writing כתיב מלא

Plene writing rules (according to the Hebrew Language Academy, simplified and abbreviated)

1. Any vowel represented by an *mater lectionis* אס קריאה in *nikud haser* maintains its אס קריאה: ראש, שנה, יבוא, תקום, כתיבה
2. Any *u* vowel is represented by ו, or by וּ if the symbol וּ is not available: שולחן, תמונה, שום, סודר
3. The vowel *o* is generally represented by ו, or by וּ if the symbol וּ is not available. It is always inserted when the *o* is a *holam haser* in *ktiv haser*: בוקר, כוח, יכתוב, למצוא

When it is a *kamats katan* or *hataf kamats* in *ktiv haser*, no וּ is inserted if the *kamats katan* or *hataf kamats* is found in all realizations of the word (the assumption being that it is easy to reconstruct this way): אמנם, חכמה, תכנית; צהריים, למחרת, אנייה

When the *kamats katan* or *hataf kamats* alternates with *holam haser* in some of its realizations, וּ is inserted: שורשי (שורש), חומרי (חומר), ציפורים, ציפורניים, חודשים

4. The vowel *i* is represented by י in an open syllable, or in words whose base has an open syllable: דיבר, סיבה, זיכרון, ביקורת, מגילה; תיזהר, נטייה, שנייה; דיברו, לימדה, פיקחים, כיסאות

It is not inserted in:

- * a closed syllable that is closed in all realizations (again, the assumption being that it is easy to reconstruct this way): חסביר, התלבש, שמלה, מכתב, דמיון, ארגון
- * some words whose base is not *i*: לב, עזים
- * *hif'il* forms where an initial י was assimilated: הפיל, הפלתי
- * before יו or יוּ: דיון, קיום, נטיות, טריות
- * after the prefix מ- מחוץ
- * in frequent (and thus easy to recognize) function words: אם, עם, מן

5. Generally, *tsere*, and * the *tsere* תיאבון, * when the קיבה

The vowel heCeC: תר

6. The consonant of the word

In the middle word: קווה

No more תוון

7. The consonant of the word: כיום

In the middle provided the בני, עלי, בני But: ודאי

8. *Ktiv male* יד מרדכי

In foreign זריה, מיליון

כתיב מל

language Academy,

ionis יי, הי, ה, רי, יי in
ראש, שנה, יבוא

e symbol ו is not

if the symbol י is
a *holam haser* in

ktiv haser, no י is
is found in all
that it is easy to
אמנם, חכמה

with *holam haser*
שורשי (שורש), חונ

ble, or in words
דיבר, סיבה, זיכר

ions (again, the
is way): הסביר,

הפיל, ה

ords: עם, מן

5. Generally, the vowel *e* is represented by יי when it comes from a *tsere*, and provided that the following conditions are met:

- * the *tsere* replaces a basic *i* before a guttural: בירך, תיאכל, תיעשה, גירושים, שירות, חירש, חירשים, תיאבון
- * when the *tsere* is maintained in all realizations of the word: תיבה, לידה, קיבה

The vowel *e* from *segol* is represented by יי only in one pattern, *heCeC*: הישג, היתר

6. The consonant *v* from ו is represented by just one ו at the beginning of the word and at its end: ועד, ועידה, ותיק; קו, צו, עכשיו

In the middle of the word it is represented by וו, even after a prefix word: הוועד, בוודאי, שווה, תקווה

No more than two ו symbols can come in sequence: מקוות, מצוות, כוון

7. The consonant *y* from יי is represented by just one יי at the beginning of the word, regardless of whether or not it is preceded by a prefix word: ילד, יפה, ישב; הילד, כיום

In the middle of the word and at its end it is represented by יי, provided that it is not adjacent to an *am qri'ah*: בניין, עניין, הייתה; התיישבות, רגליים; צייר, עליי, בניי

But: קיום, איום, חיה, היה, יהיה, מצוין, מסוים, שינוי, גוי, ודאי

8. *Ktiv male* rules do not apply to native proper nouns: משה, אפרים, בעז; הלל, נח, ירושלים, כנרת, יקנעם, זכרון יעקב, יד מרדכי

In foreign words, any *u*, *o* or *i* is represented with *am qri'ah*: מונסון, אופטיקה, היסטוריה, מיליון

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