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THE ARABIC ALPHABET
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# THE ARABIC ALPHABET 

How to Read and Write it

## Contents

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A Word to the Reader ..... 9

1. Introduction to Arabic ..... 13
2. The Alphabet and Writing System ..... 21
3. The Letters ..... 37
4. Reference Material ..... 83
Hamza ..... 85
A Verse From the Koran ..... 88
A Note cn Handwriting ..... 91
The Alphabet ..... 93
Map of the Arab World ..... 95

## A WORD TO THE READER

One of the first obstacles facing anyone trying to learn Arabic is the seemingly complicated and convoluted alphabet, usually treated sketchily in the opening pages of daunting grammatical tomes.

Many students beginning to learn Arabic are plunged directly into grammar lessons without having first mastered the alphabet. They then try to pick the alphabet up as they go, finding out, only too late, that the attempt to assimilate both grammar and the alphabet simultaneously is simply too taxing. Genuine mastery of the alphabet ought to be a prerequisite to learning Arabic, yet there is scarcely any material devoted exclusively to it.
But committed students of the language are not the only people interested in the Arabic alphabet. Many others who come into contact with the Arab world would like to be able at least to read a menu or a street sign, to understand labels in a supermarket, or to pay their Arab hosts the simple courtesy of being able to read and write the names of their countries.

This book is meant to suit both the serious student of Arabic and more casual readers: businessmen or tourists visiting the Middle East, employees of British or American companies working for a time in an Arab country, or any of the growing number of people fascinated by the language and culture of a great and increasingly prominent civilization.

The style of the book is light and non-technical: no previous knowledge of grammar or linguistics is assumed. At the same time, we have tried to be meticulous in detail and comprehensive in scope. We have not concealed anything to 'simplify' matters: everything you need to know is here. But neither have we added any unnecessary complications.
The book teaches the alphabet: the letters, sounds, and
writing system of the Arabic language. If you put your mind to it, you will soon find yourself able to recognize and reproduce all the letters, to pronounce them more or less correctly, and to combine them into words. At this point some of you will have reached your goal; others will have taken the first essential step toward mastering Arabic.

## How to Use This Book

The first chapter is a brief introduction to the Arabic language. It is intended to give readers the minimum of information required to set a proper context for the presentation of the alphabet. But - and this may seem paradoxical - it actually says more about the basic structure of Arabic than is found in the opening lessons of most university courses.
There are two reasons for this. To start with, learning Arabic is in many ways quite different from learning a European language. If you embark on a study of French, Italian, German - or even one of the more difficult European languages, like Russian or Greek - you soon find that however different from English it might be, there is a basic correspondence in the way the language works overall. In fact, this underlying similarity is so obvious that it is rarely remarked upon, and the beginner feels no sense of disorientation.
In Arabic this is not the case. It is not just that the alphabet and words are unusual. More profoundly, the whole structure of the language - its logical basis so to speak - is alien to the structure of any European language. Even the simplest things - like the distinction between nouns and adjectives - cannot be taken for granted. It is therefore much better (and in the end it makes things easier) if the person embarking on learning Arabic is informed of these structural differences right from the start. A relatively small amount of information can help to reduce that sense of strangeness which all too often overwhelms the European who wants to learn Arabic.

The second reason is simpler: even if all you want to do is learn the alphabet, your task will be facilitated by knowing something about the language that this alphabet expresses. Why, for
example, is Arabic usually written without vowels? The answer has to do with the underlying logic of the language.
The chapter introducing the Arabic language is followed by a brief but fairly complete presentation of the whole alphabet and writing system. A table of the main shapes of all the letters is given and their pronunciation discussed. All the various diacritical marks are explained. It is a good idea to read through this brief chapter in one sitting. Don't worry if you don't retain all the information right away. Everything in it is repeated later on, in the main part of the book, which presents all the letters one at a time. After you have worked through these descriptions, you will find that points that may have seemed complicated when you first read chapter 2 now seem easy.

So read through the first two chapters relatively quickly. Try to get the general idea of what is being presented in the second chapter (and concentrate on the information about pronunciation); then keep referring back to chapter 2 as you go through the rest of the book.

When you finish the section explaining each letter, you will be able to move on to reading some simple phrases and sentences. We will then take you, line by line, through the opening sura (or chapter) of the Koran, as a famous sample of Arabic prose. The map at the back of the book gives the names of all the countries and capital cities of the Middle East and North Africa in Arabic.
A last word of advice. Although the Arabic script looks complicated and forbidding at first glance, it is actually quite logical and well-adapted to the Arabic language. It is based on the same principles as the Roman alphabet and is therefore within the reach of anyone who wants to make the effort to master it. Most of all it takes practice. Don't be put off by fear of the unknown. It is not as hard as it looks.

## 1 INTRODUCTION TO ARABIC

Arabic is one of the world's major languages. It is widely spoken on two continents, across the entire breadth of North Africa to the Arabian peninsula and the entire Middle East. It is the official language of eighteen countries with a total population of about 120 million,* placing it among the top ten tongues of the planet in number of speakers.
Its unbroken literary tradition goes back about thirteen centuries, it is the language of one of the world's major religions - Islam - and it is the written and spoken means of communication in a region of steadily rising importance in international affairs: the Middle East. The numerical, geographical, political, and cultural status of the language was formally recognized by the United Nations in 1973, when Arabic was made the sixth official language of that body (the others are English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese).

Arabic belongs to the Semitic family of languages, which also includes Hebrew (both classical and modern), Aramaic, Syriac, and several of the languages of Ethiopia (Amharic, Tigrinya, Tigre, and others). Its alphabet, with the occasional modification, is used to write other, non-Semitic languages as well, such as Persian, Urdu, and Kurdish. Until about sixty years ago, Turkish was also written with a modified Arabic alphabet, as were several leading African languages, notably Hausa and Swahili.
*These countries are: Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Sudan, Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, South Yemen, Oman, United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, and Qatar. In addition, of course, Arabic is spoken by the Arab population of Israel and the occupied territories, and there are large numbers of Arabic speakers in southern Iran.

Arabic is considered a difficult language to learn. One of the problems is that the term 'Arabic' is used to describe three different forms of the same language: classical Arabic, which is the language of the Koran, the holy book of Islam; colloquial, or spoken, Arabic, as used in the daily lives of the people of the Arab countries; and modern standard Arabic, sometimes also called modern literary Arabic.
Colloquial Arabic shows great diversity from region to region and among different layers of the population. Moreover, the various dialects differ quite considerably from the written language in vocabulary and grammar, as well as in syntax.
There is a direct link between classical Arabic and modern standard Arabic, which is the written language of the entire Arab world today. Any newspaper published anywhere in the Arab world, for instance, can be read without the slightest problem anywhere else in the Arab world. Newspapers, magazines, official documents, poetry, all works of non-fiction, and the vast majority of prose literature are all written in modern standard Arabic, which shows virtually no regional variation. Most radio and television broadcasts (especially news programmes and political speeches) are given in a spoken version of the written language. In other words, every Arab who is literate reads modern standard Arabic (the colloquial languages are not written, except occasionally as dialogue in plays and novels), and because of the widening influence of radio and television throughout the Arab world, nearly every Arab, even if illiterate, will understand the spoken version of modern standard Arabic to some extent.
In many ways, modern standard Arabic is quite close to classical Arabic. The Koran, which was first written down about twelve centuries ago, has always been a major grammatical and linguistic authority. The existence of a commonly accepted literary standard has been a powerful unifying force in the written language. One of the results has been that today's Arabic as written in, say, a newspaper or a popular novel is much closer to the language of the Koran than modern Greek, for example, is to classical Greek, not to mention modern and medieval English, French, or German. As compared to classical Arabic, modern standard Arabic is simpler in grammar and syntax, but the
greater difference, as you would expect, is in vocabulary.
The alphabet taught in this book is the one used in both classical and modern standard: in Arabic, unlike in English, German, French, or other European languages, there has been no change at all in the alphabet or in spelling in hundreds of years. So learning the alphabet presented in this book is a necessity for learning any kind of written Arabic. Whether you want to read the Koran in its original language, follow the output of modern Arabic literature, or simply read a menu in an Arab restaurant, the first step has to be the same: to learn to read, write, and pronounce the alphabet.

It is not as complicated as it looks. But when first starting out it does help to know something about the overall structure and shape of the Arabic language, because the alphabet, more than most other alphabets in the world, is closely modelled to the language it was devised to represent.
The most important thing to know right from the start is this: like other Semitic languages, Arabic is based on what is normally called a 'consonantal root system'. What this means is that almost every word in the language is ultimately derived from one or another 'root' (usually a verb) that represents a general, and often quite neutral, concept of an action or state of being. Usually this root consists of three letters. By making changes to these letters, the original root concept is refined and altered. There are many ways to make these changes: letters are added to the beginning of the root or tacked on at the end; the vowels between the consonants of the root are changed; extra consonants are inserted into the middle of the root; syllables are appended to the end. Each of these changes produces a new word-and a new meaning: meanings seem literally to grow out of the root like branches of a tree. But the original, basic idea of the root persists, in one way or another.
It is easier to see this by taking an example. The three consonants, $k, t$, and $b$ - combined in that order: $k-t-b$ connote the idea of writing. The simplest word based on those letters is kataba, which means 'to write'. That is the root. If you go to an Arabic dictionary and look up the root kataba, you will find, among many other entries, the following (the three letters
of the root are printed in bold type so that they stand out).

| kataba | to write |
| :--- | :--- |
| kattaba | to make someone write |
| takaataba | to write to each other, correspond |
| istaktaba | to dictate |
| kitaab | book |
| maktab | office |
| maktaba | library (also bookstore) |
| kaatib | clerk |
| miktaab | typewriter |
| mukaataba | correspondence |
| mukaatib | correspondent, reporter |
| muktatib | subscriber |
| kutubii | bookseller |
| kutayyib | booklet |
| maktuub | written (or letter) |

The connection of all these words with the underlying idea of writing is pretty clear. But often it is a lot less obvious, more akin to an etymology in an English dictionary: once you read it, you see the connection, but you might not have noticed it on your own. For instance: katiiba means 'squadron' or 'military detachment', which seems to have been derived from the time-honoured practice of drawing armies up into battalions on paper before they were actually put into the field.
Now take another look at the list of $\mathbf{k}-\mathbf{t}$-b words. Apart from the fact that the sequence $\mathbf{k}$-t-b appears in every word, you can also notice certain kinds of changes that might easily be seen as patterns that could be repeated with other roots. For example, how do we get maktab out of kataba? Well, first we prefix ma-to the root, and then we delete the first vowel (the $a$ after the $k$ ). Let's take a completely different root and make the same change. Say we have the root d-r-s. Its simplest form is darasa (just like kataba). So let's put in $m a$ - as a prefix, take away the $a$ after the $d$ (and in this case tack on an -a at the end, which happens to be just the feminine ending). We get madrasa. Now, if we tell you that darasa means 'to study', you might not be surprised to find out that madrasa means 'school'. A madrasa is a
place where d-r-s takes place (at least in principle), and a maktab W a place where $\mathbf{k}$ - $\mathbf{t}$-b takes place.
Another example. We can get kaatib (clerk) from kataba (to write) by doubling the first vowel (lengthening it, actually), changing the second vowel from $a$ to $i$, and eliminating the final wowel. Now let's take another root, a little more grisly this time: - $\mathbf{- l - 1}$, or qatala, which means 'to kill' or 'to murder'. If we longthen the first vowel, change the second vowel to $i$, and eliminate the last vowel, we get qaatil, which means 'killer' or 'murderer'. Generalizing from these two instances, we might be tempted to say something like this: if we have a three-consonant root and we lengthen the first vowel, change the second vowel to 1, and eliminate the final vowel, we get a noun that means a person who does the thing that the root word means. A clerk writes and a killer kills. From kataba to kaatib and from qatala to qaatil.
Unfortunately, things are not always that simple. In fact, they almost never are. One of the things you can do to a three-consonant root is double the middle consonant (starting with kataia, for instance, we get kattaba, two $t$ 's instead of one). This gives us a new verb. Sometimes that new verb has the connotation of 'making someone do whatever the root word means', as is the case with $\mathbf{k - t - b}$, where kataba means 'to write' and kattaba means 'to make someone write'. But sometimes it can be just an intensified version of the root word. For example, kasara (k-s-r) means 'to break', while kassara means 'to smash'. Moreover, not every three-consonant root uses all its possibilities. There are plenty of sets of three consonants that just never double the middle consonant. For instance, taraka (t-r-k) means 'to leave', but there is no such word as tarraka. It's just a kind of empty form lying there waiting for a meaning to come along and fill it. Sometimes, on the other hand, things can be the other way around: dallasa ( $\mathbf{d}-1-\mathrm{s}$ ) means 'to swindle', also 'to forge' or 'to counterfeit', but there is no such word as dalasa. Here the root itself has disappeared, if indeed it ever existed.
The ramifications of a meaning-system like this are virtually endless, and its subtleties are such that you can often quite legitimately end up with words that have a common root but are opposite in meaning. On the other hand, the possibilities of
coining new words, of finding an appropriate root and an appropriate 'unfilled form' to correspond to a new idea, are immense. (One example: the modern Arabic word for 'socialism' is ishtirakiya, which comes from the root sharaka, the sh being a single letter, which means 'to share'. Ironically enough, the word for 'corporation', in the sense of 'limited company', is shirka, which comes from exactly the same root.)

It should also be remembered that most native speakers of the language do not think about the system in this kind of clinical way, any more than speakers of Romance languages think about how their tongues are related to Latin or any more than English speakers think about the difference between 'strong' and 'weak' verbs. It is an instinctive process in Arabic, as in any language. But for foreigners learning the language it is important to know, right from the beginning, that when they embark on learning Arabic, they are studying a language the key to which lies in its underlying structure of three-consonant roots. Even at the stage of simply learning the alphabet, it helps matters to be aware that the Arabic language is ultimately based on patterns. There are many different kinds of patterns, and each may have a variety of possible connotations, but the existence of these patterns is the heart of the language. Even something so elementary as the alphabet is tailored to reflect these patterns.

Because of the emphasis on consonants, it is not surprising that the Arabic alphabet consists almost purely of consonants. In fact, of the twenty-nine letters of the alphabet, twenty-six are consonants, and of the other three, two sometimes stand for consonants as well.
But in certain patterns, those three letters can stand for long vowels. Normally, short vowels are not written. (The $e e$ in the English word reed is a long vowel; the corresponding short vowel is the $i$ in the word bit, for example.) Short vowels are not part of the alphabet; when it is considered necessary to write them, they are represented as little hooks and dashes above and below the letters. This means that written Arabic normally looks like a kind of speedwriting: it is as if the words 'modern standard Arabic' were written 'mdrn stndrd rbc'. Now, this is definitely a problem for people learning the language. But the system of patterns
makes it less of a problem than it would be in a European language, which would often be completely unintelligible if written without any vowels. Although the lack of vowels may be an obstacle to the learner in the early days, it will rarely cause an Arab to stumble when reading a written unvowelled text; this is because of the patterns.
Once you get used to the various patterns, the lack of short vowels becomes less of a problem. On the other hand, an advantage of Arabic is that the alphabet and writing system is closely tailored to fit Arabic phonetics: if all the short vowels and other diacritical marks are written (as they are, for instance, in all editions of the Koran), then every word is pronounced exactly as it is written and written exactly as it is pronounced.

Another important thing about the writing system: the script is cursive. That is, almost all letters are joined up to the letters preceding and following them, as in English longhand. There is no distinction between printing and writing of the sort that exists in European languages: one system in which the letters are joined up and one in which they are kept separate. Also, there are no capital and small letters: the very concept is completely foreign to Arabic. A word that starts a sentence is written just exactly as it would be if it was in the middle of a sentence, and the letter that begins a proper name like Muhammad is exactly the same as that letter when it begins a common word like maktab.
But since the letters are almost all joined together (there are just a few that aren't), they take different forms depending on where they appear in a word. For example, when an $m$ starts a word, it has to have a little tail connecting it to the next letter of the word. When it comes in the middle of a word it needs two tails, one connecting it to the letter that comes after it and one connecting it to the letter that comes before it. When it is the last letter of a word it needs a tail connecting it to the letter that came before it, but no tail connecting it to the next letter, since there is no next letter; instead it has a special little ending flourish. Finally, when a letter is written by itself, not connected to anything, it usually has a slightly different shape than it would in a word.

At first glance this can seem incredibly complicated: most of
the letters have four forms each! And most Arabic grammar books start out with a table showing all the various forms laid out in a chart that looks like it was designed to scare off all but the most determined. (We have a table like that too, but at the back of the book, where it belongs - for reference only.) Actually, however, things are not so bad. In general, the basic shape of each letter is given by the way that letter looks when it is standing alone in splendid isolation. All the other forms are really only ways to make that basic shape fit into the various combinations with other letters, and once you learn to look at it that way, it soon becomes second nature to you. The best way to learn the alphabet is not to try to memorize a complicated table, but to take each letter one by one, to learn the basic shape first - how to recognize it and how to write it - and then to see how to connect it to other letters. That is what we will do in the pages that follow.

First there will be a list of all the twenty-nine letters of the alphabet. They will be given in their 'isolated' form. Alongside each letter you will find the Arabic name of the letter, the English letters we are using in this book to transliterate the Arabic letters, and a 'guide to pronunciation', which is a rough indication of the sound of each letter. After the table there are a series of notes and explanations about pronunciation and other things you have to know about the writing system. At this stage, just read through them. Then use the table for reference. Later on we will go through each letter one by one, giving all its various forms and showing how all the letters are combined into words.

One last - but very important - point: Arabic is written from right to left.

## 2 THE ALPHABET AND WRITING SYSTEM

The following chart lists the names of all the letters of the Arabic alphabet. The transliteration gives a hint about pronunciation. All letters for which there is no English equivalent are discussed below.

| Name of Letter | Arabic Form | Transliteration | Guide to <br> Pronunciation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'alif | 1 | aa | fair |
| baa' | ب | b | big |
| taa' | $\because$ | t | tell |
| thaa' | $\stackrel{ }{*}$ | th | think |
| jiim | т | j | measure |
| Haa' | $\tau$ | H | no equivalent |
| khaa' | $\dot{\tau}$ | kh | Scottish loch |
| daal | $د$ | d | dead |
| dhaal | ذ | dh | then |
| raa' | J | r | rolled $r$ |
| zaay | j | $z$ | $z o 0$ |
| siin | س | s | sew |
| shiin | ش | sh | shall |
| Saad | $ص$ | S | no equivalent |

## The Alphabet and Writing System WWW.UZ-translations.nethe Alphabet and Writing System

| Daad | ض | D | no equivalent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Taa' | b | T | no equivalent |
| DHaa' | ظ | DH | no equivalent |
| ${ }^{\text {ayn }}$ | $\varepsilon$ | c | no equivalent |
| ghayn | $\dot{\varepsilon}$ | gh | no equivalent |
| faa' | ف | f | fool |
| qaaf | ق | q | no equivalent |
| kaaf | ك | k | kitten |
| laam | $\checkmark$ | 1 | love |
| miim | P | m | mask |
| nuun | ن | $n$ | never |
| haa' | - | h | $h$ appy |
| waaw | و | w, uu | weld, food |
| yaa' | ي | y, ii | yell, breeze |
| hamza | s | , | no equivalent |

If the names of the first two letters- 'alif and baa'- sound like alpha-bet it is not just coincidence. The Arabic and Roman (and Greek and Russian) alphabets, no matter how different they may look, all have a common distant ancestor. You can also see a hint of this common descent in the sequence $k, l, m, n$, which occurs in both the Arabic and English alphabets.

Notice also that various groups of letters have similar shapes. Baa', taa', and thaa', for instance, are exactly the same except that $b a a$ ' has one dot under the letter, $t a a^{\prime}$ has two dots above, and thaa' has three dots above. These dots are crucial: they are not extra diacritical marks but are part of the letters themselves.

## Mints on Pronunciation

In Arabic, as in any language, proper pronunciation is best learned by imitating a native speaker. What follows here is meant to give only a general idea of how the letters sound. By carefully following the instructions here, you can arrive at a good enough first approximation to serve until you are able to listen to Arabs. We'll take the consonants first and then say something about vowels and combinations of vowels.

## Consonants

Except for the ones discussed below, the consonants are pronounced pretty much as they are in English. When you see an Arabic letter in the table transcribed by a normal, lower-case English letter (or a combination of two normal, lower-case letters), you can assume that the Arabic letter is pronounced like its English equivalent (like $b, t, d$, sh, and so on). The ones that need some explanation are as follows.

- hamza. Phonetically, the hamza is a 'glottal stop'. It sounds like a little catch in the voice. Although there is no letter representing this sound in English (which is why we represent it in the transliteration by an apostrophe), the sound actually does exist. Say the word 'Noel', not as if it were written 'Nowel', but clearly separating the two syllables: 'No-el'. If you did it properly and forcefully, that little catch in your voice between the two syllables was a perfect hamza. The traditional Cockney way of saying 'bottle' (as bo'le) also has a hamza in it. Another way to try it is to say the syllables 'uh-oh' (as though you're in trouble). You should notice that same little catch in the voice at the beginning of each syllable. In Arabic the glottal stop is a full-fledged consonant and can appear in the strangest places: at
the end of a word for example. The main thing is: be careful not to ignore it.
 'emphatic consonants'. They are represented in the transliteration as capital letters. Although there is no exact equivalent of them in English, they are not all that difficult to pronounce: it just takes a bit of practice. The best way to do it is to start with their 'unemphatic' equivalents. For example, pronounce as $s$, as in English. This is the Arabic letter siin (س). Now try to make the same sound, but as if your mouth was full of cotton wool, so that you have to say $s$ with your tongue drawn back. Make the sound more forcefully and shorter in duration than a normal $s$. The back of your tongue should be raised up toward the soft palate, and the sound produced should have a sort of 'dark' quality. This is the letter Saad (ص). There is a similar relationship between the following pairs: and (daal and Daad), ש ط b and (taa' and Taa'); ذ and (dhaal and DHaa'). If you listen to native speakers of Arabic, one thing you will notice is that these 'emphatic consonants' give a very distinctive sound to the language. To sum up: the four emphatic consonants, with their 'unemphatic' equivalents, are:


While we're on the subject, notice that Arabic has two different letters to represent the two sounds of th (as in think and as in then). The second one ( $t h$ as in then) is represented in the transliteration as $d h$.

The letter $k h a a^{\prime}(\dot{\mathcal{C}})$, represented in transliteration by $k h$, is like the $c h$ in the Scottish loch, or like the ch in the German pronunciation of the composer Bach. But it is slightly more guttural than its Scottish or German cousin. Whatever you do, don't pronounce it as an $h$ or a $k$. It is better to exaggerate rather than underemphasize the guttural aspect.

The letter ghayn ( $\dot{\varepsilon}$ ) is another one that gives English-speaking people trouble. More or less, it is the sound you make when gargling. Everyone can do it, but it's not always easy to get used to it when it appears in words. Another way to approximate it pretty well: it is almost exactly the sound of the very strongly rolled Parisian $r$ in French.

Now we come to the three letters that always give European speakers the most trouble.

Qaaf (ق) , represented by $q$ in the transliteration, sounds a bit like $k$, but is pronounced very far back in the throat. When you say the letter $k$, you touch the roof of your mouth with more or less the middle of your tongue. When you say a qaaf, you touch the very back of your tongue to the soft palate in the back of your mouth. Most Europeans trying to learn Arabic have a lot of trouble doing this, and pronounce qaaf as if it were kaaf. Arabs tend to be fairly tolerant of this mistake, and there are not very many words in which the difference between qaaf and kaaf determines a different meaning. Still, it's worth making the effort.

You probably noticed that one of the letters of the Arabic alphabet $-\varepsilon$-is transliterated by a raised letter ${ }^{c}$. The reason for this peculiarity is that this letter is completely foreign not only to English but also to any other European language, and in fact to just about all the world's languages. It is a peculiarity of the Semitic languages, and one of the most difficult sounds of the Arabic language to make. Unfortunately, it is also one of the most common letters. The only real way to learn it is to listen to Arabs and to practice incessantly. In scientific phonological terms, this letter is a pharyngal voiced fricative. That means that the sound is made by constricting the muscles of the larynx so that the flow of air through the throat is partially choked off. One eminent Arabist once suggested that the best way to pronounce this letter is to gag. Do it, and you'll feel the muscles of your throat constrict the passage of air in just the right way. The sound is voiced, which means that your vocal cords vibrate when

## The Alphabet and Writing System WWW.UZ-translations.neete Alphabet and Writing System

making it. It sounds rather like the bleating of a lamb, but smoother.

Finally, we have Haa' ( $\tau$, , transliterated by a capital H. Haa' sounds much like a very emphatic $h$. Imagine that you've just swallowed a spoonful of the hottest chili imaginable: the 'haaa' sound that results should be a pretty good approximation of $H a a$ '. Strictly speaking, Haa' is an unvoiced version of 'ayn. In other words, it is made just like the 'ayn, except that when you say 'ayn your vocal cords vibrate, but when you say Haa' they don't. (In English, for instance, $t$ and $d$ are exactly the same, except that $t$ is unvoiced and $d$ is voiced: your vocal cords vibrate when you say $d$, but not when you say $t$.)

Don't worry too much if you can't get qaaf, 'ayn, and Haa' right away. Quite a few learned people have struggled for decades with them. As a first approximation, you can pronounce qaaf like kaaf, 'ayn like hamza, and Haa' like haa' (like an English h). But this should be only a temporary measure, more or less equivalent to the Arab who says 'blease' instead of 'please' (as you will have noticed, there is no letter $p$ in Arabic).

One last point: the letter raa'( $\boldsymbol{J})$ is always rolled: exaggerate it rather than lose it.

## Vowels

Written Arabic has only three vowels - $a, u$, and $i$. But they come in pairs: each vowel can be either long or short. The difference between long and short vowels is important in both speech and writing, and the distinction actually affects meaning in many words (faaris, for example, means 'Persia', whereas faras, with a short $a$, means 'horse').

The short vowels $a, u$, and $i$ are not part of the main alphabet. Instead they are written as small 'blips' or strokes above or below the consonants that come before them in pronunciation. The short $a$ is pronounced like the $a$ in the English word pat, the short $u$ is like the $u$ in put, and the short $i$ is like the $i$ in pin. The $a$ is represented as a slanted slash above the consonant; the $u$ is represented by a sort of miniature waaw above the consonant;
the $i$ is represented by a slash just like the $a$ but below the consonant. For example, let's take the letter daal (which, remember, has the sound $d$ ); with the three short vowels it would be written

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { コ. } d a \\
& \text { دُ } d u \\
& \xrightarrow{ } \text { di }
\end{aligned}
$$

The long vowels $a a, u u$, and $i i$ are represented in writing by the three letters 'alif(1),waaw(و), and yaa'(ي) respectively. As we mentioned before, these vowels are actually pronounced longer than their short counterparts: it really does take longer to say them, in fact about twice as long as it does to say the short vowels. The $a a$ comes out sounding more or less like the $a i$ in the English word fair, the $u u$ like the $o o$ in food, and the $i i$ like the $e e$ in breeze. It is important to remember, however, that Arabic vowels are all pure: in other words, the position of tongue and lips must remain stationary while the vowels are pronounced. This is rarely true in English, where, for example, the word food is often pronounced as if it had a half-silent $w$ in it. Finally, you will notice in the alphabet table that besides representing the long vowels, the letters waaw and yaa' also stand for the consonants $w$ and $y$. How can you tell when a waaw stands for $w$ and when it stands for a long $u u$, and when a $y a a$ ' stands for $y$ and when it stands for a long $i i$ ? The answer is that when one of these letters stands for a consonant it will itself be marked with a short vowel; when it stands for a long vowel, it will have no vowel sign at all on it.

To clarify this, let's take the consonant daal again. If daal is followed by the three long vowels, it is written

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { دُ دِّ } & d a a \\
\text { دِ } & d u u
\end{array}
$$

Notice that in each case the daal is marked with a short vowel as well as the corresponding long vowel after it. On the other hand,

## The Alphabet and Writing SystenWWW.UZ-translations.nẹhe Alphabet and Writing System

if waaw and $y a a$ ' stood for consonants and not long vowels, we would have
dawa

Here waaw and yaa' are themselves marked with short vowels, and therefore must be consonants.

When no vowel follows a consonant, a sign called sukuun is written over that consonant. The sukuun looks like a small zero $\left({ }^{\circ}\right)$, which is a convenient way of thinking about it: it means zero vowel.

Arabic also has two diphthongs. A diphthong is a combination of two vowels written and spoken together. The first diphthong has more or less the sound of the ow in the English word how. It is composed of a short $a$ followed by waaw and is thus transliterated $a w$. The second sounds like the $i$ in bite. It is composed of a short $a$ followed by yaa' and is thus transliterated ay. A sukuun written over a waaw or a yaa' is the main indication of a diphthong. Using the letter daal again:

> دَوْ daw (sounds like English dow) دَي day (sounds like English die).

Summarizing all this, we can draw the following chart, which gives the combinations of all six Arabic vowels (three short and three long) and two diphthongs with the letter daal.

| $d a$ | دَ daa |
| :---: | :---: |
| 」 $d u$ | دُو duu |
| $\xrightarrow{2} \mathrm{di}$ | دي dii |
| دَوْ daw | دَ day |

## Other Signs

## Doubled Letters

Arabic, unlike most European languages, does not bother to write a letter twice in words like bitter or twaddle. Instead there is

- special sign, written above a letter, that means that this letter ahould be read as if it appeared twice. This sign is $\nu$ and is called shadda or tashdiid. This is important in pronunciation, because of the patterns that we talked about before. Remember, for lastance, that if you double the middle consonant of a three-consonant root, you get a new verb that may mean 'to make someone do' whatever the root word means. The word darasa means 'to study', but the word darrasa means 'to make comeone study', or more precisely, 'to teach'. Now, darasa would be written

```
دَرّسن
```

but darrasa would be written

```
دَرُسْ
```

The shadda makes all the difference. Make sure to pronounce darrasa with the two $r$ 's clearly distinct: dar-rasa. The same with any other doubled consonant.

## Hamza

We have already talked a bit about $\operatorname{hamza}(\varepsilon)$, the consonant that is pronounced like a catch in the voice. Although the hamza is a full consonant in Arabic just like any other, it is written in a special way. Only very rarely can a hamza stand on its own. Most often the hamza is written 'riding' on another letter. That letter can be either alif(ı), waaw(و), or $y a a^{\prime}(\mathbf{)}$ ). There is a set of very complicated rules that determine which letter the hamza must 'ride on' in any given word - so complicated, in fact, that most Arabs never learn them all. Later on, we will give a simplified form of those rules and we will see how the hamza is written in almost every context. For the moment, note just this one point: whenever a hamza comes at the beginning of a word, that hamza 'rides' on an 'alif. If the following short vowel is $a$ or $u$, the hamza will sit on top of the 'alif; if the following short vowel is $i$, it will sit underneath the 'alif. Thus:

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When you see one of these combinations at the beginning of a word, remember not to pronounce the 'alif. In this context, the 'alif has no value of its own: its only role is to 'carry' the hamza.

## taa' marbuuTa

Arabic has two genders, masculine and feminine. Many nouns and adjectives are made feminine by adding an ending to the masculine form. The most common feminine ending is the so-called taa' marbuuTa, which means 'tied $t$ '. The taa' marbuuTa is simply the letter haa' (0) with two dots over it: 0 . In other words, it is a kind of combination of $h$ and $t$ (having the shape of $h a a^{\prime}$ with the two dots of $t a a^{\prime}$ ). If a taa' marbuuTa is followed by a vowel, it is pronounced as a $t$; otherwise it is pronounced simply as short $a$ or as $a h$. For example, the word for 'administration' - 'idaara - is written thus
إِدارَة
and, as indicated in the transliteration, the taa' marbuuTa at the end would be pronounced as short $a$. But if the word 'administration' were followed by another word with an intervening vowel, it would be pronounced 'idaarat, with the taa' marbuuTa pronounced as a $t$.

## madda

The madda is a special symbol to represent a particular sound. Suppose a word started with hamza followed by the long vowel $a a$. Since hamza at the beginning of a word always 'rides' on an 'alif and since 'alif also represents the long vowel $a a$, we would have

## 11

This is considered ugly and unwieldy, so a special symbol, the madda, has been invented to stand for the sound 'aa. It looks like this:

$$
i
$$

## Case Endings

Classical Arabic had three cases: nominative, accusative, and genitive. This meant that the ending of a word would change
depending on its role in the sentence. (Remnants of cases exist in English too. That's why you say 'she did it' and 'he gave it to her' but not 'her did it' or 'him gave it to she'.) In Arabic these cases were indicated by modified versions of the short vowels added to the end of the words. In addition, each case had two sets of endings, one used for words that were 'defined' (like 'the book'), another for words that were 'undefined' (like 'book' or ' $a$ book'). That made a total of six possible endings, two each, defined and undefined, for nominative, accusative, and genitive.

Now, in modern Arabic, both spoken and written, these endings have in practice almost disappeared, just as they have in English. Unfortunately, their disappearance is not total. Theoretically, they still exist. Most Arabic courses spend a lot of time on the case endings. The rules for using them are quite complicated, $\boldsymbol{s}$ much so that even among native speakers of Arabic only a small minority have really mastered them. In fact, unless it is your ambition to become a lawyer pleading cases in an Arab court or a Koranic scholar, you are better off spending as little time as possible bothering about Arabic case endings. They are hardly ever written, since with just one exception they are represented by short vowels, and short vowels are hardly ever written. More to the point, they are hardly ever pronounced either.

Then why bother with them at all? Two reasons. First, in a few instances they persist in both the written and spoken languages. Second, if you pick up a fully vowelled text, an edition of the Koran for instance, you will see them written there. So the best procedure is to learn to recognize the case endings, so that you are not thrown off when you come across them. Later on, you will gradually come to learn how to use the ones that are still needed. The sounds of these case endings are:

|  | indefinite | definite |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| nominative | - un | $-u$ |
| accusative | - an | $-a$ |
| genitive | - in | $-i$ |

Take an example. The word for house is daar. If the word is indefinite ('a house' or just 'house'), then the three cases would give us: daarun (nominative), daran (accusative), daarin

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(genitive). If the word were defined (for instance, 'Muhammad's house', which in Arabic has to be 'the house of Muhammad'), it would be, in the three cases: daaru (nominative), daara (accusative), daari (genitive). Now let's see how these endings are written in Arabic.
The word by itself is

|  | دَار |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| And with the endings |  |  |
| دَارُ daarun | دَارُ | daaru |
| دَارًا daaran | ذار | daara |
| دَارِ daarin | دَارِ | daari |

Notice that all the indefinite endings involve a doubling up of the short vowels associated with the ending; this doubling of the vowels is read as if it were short vowel plus $n$. For the definite endings we have simply the appropriate short vowel. But notice something else as well: in the accusative indefinite ending (-an), there is not only the doubled-up short vowel, but also an extra 'alif. This 'alif is written but not pronounced. Now, since none of the short vowels are normally written, the accusative indefinite ending -an is generally speaking the only one you will see written, since the 'alif associated with it is always written (but not pronounced).

## Accent and Stress

Accent is just as important in Arabic as in English. In English, it is usually impossible to tell which syllable of a word should be stressed, and English is especially complicated in this, since the stress can fall on virtually any syllable, whereas in most languages there are restrictions on where accents are allowed to fall. The best way of getting a sense of the stress patterns of any language, of course, is to listen to native speakers and to build up an intuitive sense of rhythm for the language. This is just as true for Arabic as for any other language. But there are some clear guidelines about Arabic stress.

The first thing to note is that Arabic syllables are divided into two kinds: long and short. A short syllable is simply a single consonant followed by a single short vowel. The word katuba for lnstance, is composed of three short syllables: ka-ta-ba. Any ayllable that is not short is considered long. There are various ways a syllable can be long: a consonant plus a long vowel; a consonant plus a diphthong; a consonant followed by a short vowel followed by another consonant. For instance, kitaab ('book') has two syllables, one short (ki-) and one long (-taab). Another example: maktaba ('bookstore' or 'library') has three syllables. The first one is long (mak-), the second short (-ta-), the third short (-ba). Finally, take maktuub ('letter'). It has two long syllables (mak-) and (-tuub).

Now, the basic rule of Arabis stress is this: the accent falls on the long syllable nearest to the end of the word. If the last syllable is long, then that syllable is stressed: kitaab, accent on the last syllable. If the second-to-last syllable of a word is long and the last is short, then the second-to-last syllable is stressed: 'abuuhu ('his father'), accent on the second-to-last syllable. If there is no long syllable in the word (like kataba), then the accent is on the third-to-last syllable. This will be the case with the great majority of root words, since these usually take the form of three consonants separated by short vowels (kataba, darasa, taraka, and so on - all accented on the first syllable). Last point: the accent is not allowed to fall any further back than the third syllable from the end. So if you have a word of four (or more) short syllables, the stress has to fall on the third syllable from the end. For example: katabahu ('he wrote it') has four short syllables; the stress will therefore fall on the third syllable back: katábahu.

While we're on the subject of accent, we should note one other thing: in Arabic every syllable, long or short, should be clearly and distinctly pronounced, given its due weight. In this Arabic is like Italian, Spanish, or German, and not like English or French. Syllables do not disappear or get slurred just because they are unstressed.

## Punctuation

This is a grey area in Arabic. Here are some of the more commonly used items:

| comma |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| semicolon |  |  |
| colon |  |  |
| full-stop |  |  |
| quotation marks | " | ) |
| question mark | ¢ |  |
| exclamation point | ! |  |
| dash - |  |  |

## Numbers

The numerals in Arabic are written like this

| 0 | 1 | $r$ | $r$ | $\varepsilon$ | 0 | 7 | $v$ | $\wedge$ | 9 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Be careful not to confuse zero and five. The Arabic five looks a lot like our zero, except it is slightly flattened. The dot in the middle of a line is the Arabic zero. Also be careful of two and three, which are very similar in Arabic. And of course, seven and eight. A memory trick to help you remember which is seven and which is eight: 'seven is open to heaven'.
One peculiar thing about Arabic numerals is that even though the language is written from right to left, the numerals are written from left to right, in the same order as European numerals. For instance:

| $Y r$ | $Y 0$ | $1 r v$ | Yrq | $19 \wedge 7$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 23 | 35 | 137 | 239 | 1986 |

Finally, the numbers given here are the ones used in the eastern part of the Arab world. In North Africa (particularly the three former French colonies Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia), European numerals are generally used.

## Ligatures

Arabic was developed as a handwritten script. As a result, combinations of letters were invented to facilitate the flow of
writing. In addition, partly because Islam forbids the representation of the human form, calligraphy has come to play a large part In the Arab visual arts, a process no doubt aided by the intrinsic
erace of the alphabet, which lends itself to considerable artistic claboration.
The special combinations of letters - called ligatures - have glven Arab printers headaches for ages. Modern Arabic typewriters (as well as many printing styles) have done away with nearly all of them. But since you will still encounter them, here - just for reference - is a table of the most common ones. We
will come to some of them later on. It isn't necessary for you to
use them - merely to recognize them when you come across them. After you have gone through the whole book, it might be helpful to come back to this page to compare the various ligatures with the way the same letters would normally be written.

Well, so much for our introductory survey of the Arabic language and its alphabet. Don't worry if you did not retain all the information given. The next step is to go through the letters one by one. Each letter will be explained in detail, and its various forms demonstrated. Along the way, you will learn how to combine the letters into words, and how to string the words together into sentences.

Here are some hints about how to proceed from here on.

1. Pay attention to which letters and which parts of letters go below the line and which go above the line.
2. Try not to take your pen off the page - make your writing look as fluid as possible. Look upon the writing of a word as the writing of a single, extended letter.
3. Put in all the dots and any other accessory part of the word after you have finished writing the whole basic shape of the word. Also, put the dots in from right to left.
4. Remember that all the examples showing you how to write words and letters flow from right to left.
5. After reading any Arabic in this book, copy it out for yourself.
6. Practise the isolated forms of the letters in particular. As we said before, it is the isolated form that determines the basic shape of the letter.
7. It might help to take some tracing paper and lay it over the Arabic words in this book and then trace the words out several times, trying to go faster each time until you get the feel of the flow of each word. Then try to do the word by yourself on a separate piece of paper.

Finally, once you have completed the section on making all the letters, it would probably be helpful to refer to the chart on pages $93-94$, which lists all the various forms of each letter. It is a kind of check-list of the entire alphabet.

## $\pm$

ب (baa') belongs to a group of three letters that have exactly the eme shape. The other two are $\operatorname{taa^{\prime }}(\Xi)$ and Gáa' ( $\triangleq$ ). These three letters are distinguished only by their dots. These dots are part of the letters, and not extra diacritical marks.
ب has one dot below it.
In isolation, it is written like this


Notice that the basic shape is wide and shallow, about three times as long as it is wide. It sits right on the line, and the dot goes just under the line, in the centre of the letter.

ب is one of the letters whose shape changes depending on whether it falls at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end.

The initial form looks like this


The medial form looks like this


The final form looks like this


Notice that the final form is basically the same as the isolated
form, except for the little link joining it to the preceding letter. The initial and medial forms too are basically the same thing: a blip in the line with a dot under it. In effect, the isolated and final forms are just the blip of the initial and medial forms with an extra flourish.

A string of forms of the letter baa' would look like this


Now, remember that the short vowels $(a, i$, and $u)$ are written as small diacritical marks above and below the letters. (Take another look at chapter 2, pp. 26-28, where the short vowels are explained.) We can add these vowels to the letter baa' to produce three different syllables, like this


The Arabic names of the short vowels are: fatHa (a), kasra (i), and damma ( $u$ ).

## $\stackrel{\infty}{\infty}$

ت (taa') is exactly the same as baa' except that it has two dots above the letter instead of one dot below. The two dots are placed close to each other just above the top of the scoop, so that the letter $t a a^{\prime}$, written in isolation, looks like this


A taa' coming at the end of a word would look like this


In the initial or medial position, taa' is, again, just like baa', except for the dots. Notice that the two dots are placed close together, centred over the blip.
© (thaa') is just like baa' and tua', except this time we have three dots placed over the letter. These dots form a kind of equilateral triangle: the two dots of $t a a^{\prime}$, plus one added on top. The forms therefore look like this

## Isolated



Final


Initial


## Medial



## Reminder about pronunciation

The letters baa' and $t a a^{\prime}$ are pronounced almost exactly like the English letters $b$ and $t$. The letter thaa' is pronounced just like the th in the word think.

Remember that on pp. 28-29 we explained the sign called shadda, which is how Arabic indicates that a letter is to be pronounced twice. For instance, suppose we wanted to write the sound tabba. Instead of writing the letter baa twice, we simply write it once and place a shadda $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ above it, like this

With this in mind, and with our three letters $b a a^{\prime}, t a a^{\prime}$, and thaa', we are now in a position to write some Arabic words. We have picked these words not because of what they mean or because of their frequency, but just to show how these first three letters can be combined to make actual words.


## $\dot{u}$

$\dot{\dot{u}}$ nuun is very similar to baa', taa', and thaa' in two of its forms: the initial and the medial. In fact, the only difference between nuun and baa' in these two cases is that the single dot goes above the blip instead of below it. So we have

## Initial



## Medial



In the isolated and final forms, however, there is a difference in the shape of the scoop. The same dot is still there, but the scoop of the letter is fuller and more rounded. Also, the scoop of the letter nuun drops below the line, whereas the scoop of baa', taa', and thaa' sits on the line.

So for nuun we have

## Isolated



Final


A string of the letter nuun would look like this


## Reminder about pronunciation

The letter nuun is pronounced just like the English letter $n$.
In the beginning, you may find yourself confusing nuun, baa', taa', and thaa', especially when they occur in their initial and medial forms, when they are distinguished only by the placement and number of dots. But this is only a matter of practice. In time you will automatically come to associate the sound $b$ with a dot below, the sound $n$ with a dot above, the sound $t$ with two dots above, and the sound $t h$ with three dots above. As an aid to memory, try this device: $b$ below, $t$ two, $t$ three; $n$ you just have to remember.

Here are a few more words combining these letters. Remember from chapter 2 that a little circle over a letter is called sukuun and means that the letter in question is followed by no vowel ('zero vowel').


$\leqslant\left(y a a^{\prime}\right)$ is another letter that has some features in common with the other letters we have considered so far. Its initial and medial forms are the same as all the others, except this time the letter has two dots below. The two dots are written close together, and are centred under the blip of the letter. Like this

Initial


Medial


The shape of $y a a^{\prime}$ in its final and isolated forms, however, is quite different from anything that we have had so far. In fact, since your pen has to change direction several times, this is not an easy shape to make, and it requires quite a lot of practice. Follow the direction of the arrows carefully.

Isolated


Final


Reminder about pronunciation
The letter $y a a$ ' is one of the two letters of the Arabic alphabet
that can stand for a consonant or for a long vowel. It also appears in one of the two diphthongs (vowel combinations).

As a consonant, yaa' is pronounced just like the $y$ in the English word yes.

As a long vowel, yaa' represents the sound of $e e$ in the word feet.

As a diphthong, yaa' has the sound of $e i$ in the word neighbour.
How can you tell, in any given word, whether the $y a a$ ' is meant to be a consonant $(y)$, a long vowel $(e e)$, or part of a diphthong (ei)? The rule is actually simpler than it may sound. If $y a a^{\prime}$ is itself marked with a vowel, then it is a consonant. If $y a a^{\prime}$ is not marked with a vowel but comes after a consonant that is marked with a short vowel $i$, then it is a long vowel. If $y a a^{\prime}$ is marked with a sukuun ('zero vowel') and the letter that comes before it is marked with a short vowel $a$, then it is a diphthong. Look at the following list of five words, and pay careful attention to the transliteration.


In the first word (reading from right to left, of course), the $y a a^{\prime}$, which begins the word, is marked with a short vowel $a$. It is therefore a consonant, with the sound $y$. In the second word, the $y a a^{\prime}$ in the middle of the word has no vowel, but the taa' that comes before it has a short vowel $i$. The role of the $y a a^{\prime}$ in this word is therefore to lengthen the vowel, and it has the sound ee. In the third and fourth words, the yaa', again coming in the middle of the word, is marked with sukuun, the 'zero vowel'. But
the first letter of the words (baa') has the short vowel $a$. In these words, then, the yaa' is part of a diphthong and has the sound of ci in neighbour. Finally, look at the fifth word. Here we have a $y a a^{\prime}$ at the end of a word, marked with a shadda, which means that the letter is doubled. In effect, the first $y a a^{\prime}$ is lengthening the vowel under the baa' and the second $y a a^{\prime}$, which has no vowel, is a consonant. So the word is pronounced with a long ee and a $y$ at the end.
All this may seem very complex at first, but in time, with practice, it becomes second nature.

Finally, there is one more point we have to make about yaa'. A yaa' written without any dots is sometimes used to represent the sound of the long vowel $a a$. This job is usually done by a different letter, 'alif, which is the next letter we will deal with. But in some cases - and this happens only at the end of a word - a yaa without dots is used instead of 'alif. In Arabic grammar the yaa' without dots at the end of a word is called 'alif maqsuura. Literally, this means 'shortened 'alif', and is so called because the sound $a a$, normally a long vowel, is then pronounced short. Here are a few examples


## 1 ande

I ('alif) is one of the simplest ietters of the alphabet. Its isolated form is simply a vertical stroke, written from top to bottom.


In its final position it is written as the same vertical stroke, but joined at the base to the preceding letter. Because of this connecting line - and this is very important - it is written from bottom to top instead of top to bottom.


Practise these to get the feel of the direction of the stroke.
The letter 'alif is one of a number of non-connecting letters. This means that it is never connected to the letter that comes after it. Non-connecting letters therefore have no initial or medial forms. They can appear in only two ways: isolated or final, meaning connected to the preceding letter.

## Reminder about pronunciation

The letter 'alif represents the long vowel $a a$. Usually, this vowel sounds like a lengthened version of the $a$ in pat. In some positions, however (we will explain this later), it sounds more like the $a$ in father.

One of the most important functions of 'alif is not as an independent sound but as the carrier, or 'bearer', of another letter: hamza (\&).Turn back to p. 29 and re-read what we said about hamza there. Later on we will discuss hamza in more detail. Here we will go through one of the most common uses of
hamza: its combination with 'alif at the beginning of a word.
One of the rules of the Arabic language is that no word can begin with a vowel. Many Arabic words may sound to the beginner as though they start with a vowel, but in fact they begin with a glottal stop: that little catch in the voice that is represented by hamza. When hamza appears at the start of a word, it is always written on 'alif. The 'alif in these cases has no sound of its own: it is simply acting as the carrier of hamza. If the vowel that follows the hamza is a short $a$ or $u$, then the hamza and the vowel are written on top of the 'alif; if the vowel is a short $i$, then both the hamza and the vowel are written below the hamza.

We therefore nave

| $i$ | $\mathfrak{j}$ | $\vdots$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\prime a$ | $\prime u$ | ' |

Finally, there is a special symbol, called madda, which is used to represent the sound of a hamza followed by a long vowel aa (in other words, hamza followed by 'alif). The purpose of the madda is to avoid the ugly juxtaposition of two 'alifs. This has already been explained in chapter 2, but here it is again:

## 1 represents the sound 'aa.

Here are some practice words that illustrate the use of 'alif and hamza.

| أَذْتَ | أَّأ | آب | أب |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { 'anta } \\ \text { you (masculine) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { 'anaa } \\ \text { I } \end{gathered}$ | 'aab August | 'ab father |



و

I (waaw) is another non-connecting letter. Remember that this means that it can be written only standing alone or connected to the preceding letter. It is never connected to the following letter, so there are no initial or medial forms.

Isolated, the loop sits on the line, and the tail extends below the line.


In the final position, it is written the same way, except for the little connecting line.


Reminder about pronunciation
The letter waaw, like yaa', can represent either a consonant or a
long vowel or a diphthong. As a consonant, it has the sound of $w$ in the word wood. As a long vowel, it has the sound of $o o$ in fool. As a diphthong, it has the sound of ow in how. The principle by which you can tell what sound waaw has in any given word is exactly the same as for $y a a^{\prime}$, so it might be a good idea to read that explanation again now.

Examples of the use of waaw:

| أَوْثَان <br> 'awthaan idols | أو <br> 'aw <br> or | 0 <br> wathaba to jump | g <br> wa and |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| نوَويني | آو | c'g | تّوتهِّ |
| nawawiiy nuclear | 'uubraa opera | 'aawa to harbour, shelter | tuut mulberry |

## Recap of what we have learned so far

We have now covered all the vowels of written Arabic, three short

and three long


The Letters
We have also covered the two diphthongs
$\dot{j}$
$a w$$\quad$ and $\quad \underset{a y}{\dot{s}}$

We have gone through seven consonants:

waaw


All the rest of the letters of the alphabet are consonants.

## 1

$د$ (daal) and $\dot{j}$ (dhaal) have exactly the same shape, except that dhaal has a dot over the letter, where daal has none. These letters are both non-connecting, so they have no initial or medial forms.

Isolated


Final


Notice that the isolated and final forms have slightly different shapes. In the isolated form, the downstroke is a bit longer than the base stroke. Both forms sit squarely on the line: try not to let them sink below the line. The dot over the dhaal sits just above the letter.

## Isolated



Final


## Reminder about pronunciation

The daal is pronounced almost exactly as the English letter $d$. The dhaal is like the $t h$ in then. Notice that Arabic has two

## The Letters

different letters to represent the two distinct sound of $t h$ : as in think (thaa') and as in then (dhaal).

Examples:

|  |  | بَكوو <br> baduu bedouins | $\begin{gathered} \text { لُذْـــا } \\ \text { dunyaa } \\ \text { world } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 」 لـين <br> diin religion | dhunuub sins | ذَاتَ <br> dhaaba to melt |  |
|  | nabadha to banish | آذان <br> 'aadhaan ears |  |

## $\vartheta$

Here we have two more non-connecting letters: no initial or medial forms, only isolated and final. The two letters form a pair, being identical except that zaay has a dot above where raa' has none.

Isolated


Final


Isolated


Final


Notice that the basic shape begins just above the line and extends below the line. Also, be careful of the proportions: the top stroke is much shorter than the bottom one. The differences in these proportions and in the positioning on the line help to distinguish raa' and zaay on the one hand from daal and dhaal on the other.


Reminder about pronunciation
The letter raa' is similar to the English $r$, but is made by a flap of the tongue behind the teeth. The sound of zaay is almost exactly like the English $z$.

Examples:

$r a b b$

| duud | bard | lord |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| worms | cold |  |

The Letters

darraba to train

zaytuun olives

radda to give back
زَوَّد
zawwada to supply provide


س (sion) and (skin) are connecting letters. They therefore have four forms each: isolated, initial, medial, and final. The letters are identical except that shiin has three dots, where sion
has none.

Initial


## Medial



## The Letters

The initial and medial versions of sion are very similar, the only difference being the little connector at the front of the medial form. Be careful not to make the peaks too high, and notice that the letters sit right on the line.

The final version has a tail that descends below the line and rises up above the line level with the peaks:


In isolation it looks the same, but without the connector:


The three dots of shiin are arranged in a triangle just like the three dots of thai'. They are written above the little peaks, not above the tail.

## Initial



## Medial



Final


Isolated


## The Letters

## Reminder about pronunciation

The siin stands for the same sound as $s$ in the word sleep. It never has a $z$ sound as the English $s$ sometimes does. The shïn has the same sound as the sh in sheep. Be careful not to confuse them.
Examples:

$\varepsilon$ غ

These two letters are fairly difficult, in both pronunciation and writing. They are both connectors, having four forms each, and differ only in one respect: ghayn has a dot over it, ${ }^{\text {cayn }}$ has none.

Isolated


Notice that the first part of ${ }^{c}$ ayn looks very much like a hamza, only larger. It sits more or less on the line, while the bottom part of the letter sweeps below the line. The letter has to be made in two separate strokes, and be careful about the proportions.

The initial version of ${ }^{c} a y n$ consists basically of the top part of the letter, the broad tail replaced by a connecting line to the following letter:


The medial version is a kind of altered form of the initial version. It is a flattened loop, resting just on the line. It has to be made in three strokes, with two changes of direction of the pen:


The final version begins just like the medial version, but then has a sweeping tail very much like the isolated version:


59

## The Letters

Making this letter in its various forms takes practice. It is the change of direction of the pen that makes it difficult, and it is essential to maintain the graceful proportions of the shape. Here are the various versions of ghayn:

Isolated


Initial


Medial


Final


Look carefully at the following two sets as a further guide


## Reminder about pronunciation

Look back at the section of chapter 2 explaining the pronunciation of these letters. Unfortunately, there is no way to make them any easier. It is simply a matter of practice and more practice.

Examples:
$n a w^{c}$
kind, type

P (miim) is another connector, with four forms. Basically, it consists of a flattened circle, with a descending tail that appears only in the final position. In some handwriting styles, and even in some typefaces, the circle is filled in, and looks like a large dot. The forms are:

## Initial



Medial


Final


61

Isolated


To see the variation in forms, look at the following string of maim
shapes: shapes:


If you look back at the table of ligatures on p. 35, you will see that there are various versions of integrating nim with other letters. The position of the basic shape is really quite flexible.

## Reminder about pronunciation

The letter miim has the same sound as the English letter m.
Examples:


The Letters
$J$ (liam) is another connecting letter, with four forms.
Isolated


Notice that the stroke begins well above the line, descends below it, and then curls back up to meet the line. Be careful of the proportions: this letter is much taller than it is wide.

The final form is like the isolated form, but with a connector attaching it to the previous letter:


Be careful not to make too thick a line as you double it by going first up and then down.

In an initial position, lam simply loses its tail


In the medial position, it is the same as the initial version, but with two connectors


Be careful not to confuse the initial or medial lam with 'alif. Remember that lam is connected to the following letter,
whereas'alif is not. Here is a string showing all the forms of laam connected to one another


## Reminder about pronunciation

The letter laam is pronounced like the English $l$, except that it is almost always a very pure, liquid sound, not muffled as the English $l$ sometimes is. It sounds like the $l$ in light, not like the $l$ in fool or feel.

One special symbol that it is important to recognize is the combination of laam and 'alif. When the sound laa occurs - an $l$ followed by the long vowel $a a$ - the laam and 'alif are written together.

Isolated


Final


In the isolated form, laam-'alif gives the sound laa, which in Arabic is the word for ' $n o$ '.

Examples:

lammaa when

lawlaa were it not for

## Definite article

The definite article in Arabic - in other words, the word 'the' is
أَّــ ... أْلـ

It is written attached to the word following it, which is why, in most transliterations, it is represented as al-. Here are some examples of words with and without the definite article:

| الَلْوَمْ al-yawm the day | يَوْم <br> yawm <br> day | al-baab the door | بـات <br> baab <br> door |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| اَلْوَلَد <br> al-walad the boy | وَلَ <br> walad boy | اَلْعَرَب <br> al- ${ }^{\text {c arab }}$ the Arabs | عَرَب <br> 'arab <br> Arabs |
|  |  |  |  |

When attaching the definite article to the word that follows it, we have to take account of the fact that the letters of the Arabic alphabet are divided into two categories, 'sun letters' and 'moon letters'. There are fourteen sun letters (named after the word shams, 'sun'). They are:

ت
As you will notice, most of them are either 'dentals' (made by touching the tongue to the teeth) or 'sibilants' (hissing sounds), which in Arabic are considered not to combine well with the sound $l$. The moon letters (named after the word qamar, 'moon') are all the other letters of the alphabet.

Now, when the definite article is connected to a word that begins with a sun letter, two things happen: the sukuun ('zero vowel') on the letter laam disappears, and a shadda (the doubling sign) is written above the sun letter. In pronunciation, the laam disappears and the sun letter is pronounced doubled. In effect, the laam is assimilated to the first letter of the word. Here are some examples:

 messenger

ash-shams the sun



The hamza in the definite article is a hamza of a special type, called hamzatu-l-waSl, which means 'connecting hamza'. Strictly speaking, at the beginning of a sentence it should be written above the 'alif like a normal hamza. In practice, however, it is usually not written, though it is pronounced in the normal way (as a glottal stop).

But if it comes in the middle of a phrase, the hamzatu-l-waSl is written above 'alif as a kind of small loop above the 'alif, but is not pronounced at all. It is elided, which simply means that it drops out. For example

baabu-l-bayt the door of the house


'al-walad wa-r-rajul the boy and the man

(kaaf) is a connecting letter, with four forms.
Isolated


Notice that the letter rests on the line, and be careful not to make the curl at the end too big. The wiggle in the lap of the letter looks very much like a hamza, but is simply an integral part of kaaf, like the dot over an $i$ or $j$ in English.


The final form is essentially the same as the isolated, but with a connecting line.

Initial


Always do the top stroke after the first stroke of the body of the
letter.

## Medial



This form is like the initial form, but with a connector. Also, notice that the isolated and final forms are upright, while the initial and medial forms slope to the left.

Examples

ions.net


These three letters have exactly the same shape, except that jiim has a dot below, Hae' has no dot at all, and $k h a a$ ' has a dot above. They are connectors, with four forms.

Isolated


The top section of the letter stands above the line, while the tail extends well below.

Final


This is basically the same shape, but with a connector from the preceding letter.

The initial and medial forms essentially consist of the top of the letter, with the tail eliminated.

## Initial



Medial


## The Letters

Note the position of the dot.
Hab' is exactly the same as jim, but with no dot.
Finally, khan' is the same, but with the dot above the letter. Note the position of the dot in the various forms.


## Reminder about pronunciation

Of these three letters, jim is the easiest to pronounce. It is like the $s$ in pleasure (the same as $j$ in French). The letter Hab' is, strictly speaking, an unvoiced version of ${ }^{c}$ ayn (see pp. 25-26 again for an explanation of this), and sounds like a very emphatic $h$. Finally, khan' is the ch in the Scottish loch. Try to be careful not to make it too guttural, though it does come from the back of the mouth.

## Examples



shuyuukh sheikhs


shaykh sheikh

بَّهِّ
bakhiil greedy

muHammad Muhammad

- (haj') is unusual in that there is hardly any resemblance between the various forms.

Isolated


Notice that the shape is not quite round - it is more like an egg with a flattened bottom and slightly pointed top.

Initial


Although it looks very different, this form is actually similar to the isolated form, the middle stroke being a connector to the following letter.

## The Letters

Medial - here there are two types

or


Both of these forms may be used in printed text in a book or newspaper. In handwriting, the second one is far more common. Be able to recognize both, but practice making the second one.

Final


Notice that the rounded part of this form stands slightly above the line, unlike the isolated form, which sits on the line.

## Reminder about pronunciation

The letter haa' represents the same sound as the English letter $h$. There is therefore no difficulty pronouncing it, but notice that, unlike the English $h$, it can (and does) appear at the end of words. Make sure to pronounce it when this happens.

This is a good place to recall the letter taa' marbuuTa, which we mentioned earlier (see chapter 2). The taa' marbuuTa is basically just a letter haa' with two dots added over it (just like the two dots of the letter $t a a^{\prime}$ ). In general, the taa' marbuuTa is a sign that a word is grammatically feminine. It can occur only at the end of a word. When a word with taa' marbuuTa is pronounced in isolation, there is no $t$ sound, and it is as if the word ended with a simple haa'. But when a word with taa' marbuuTa is immediately followed by another word (as in the last example below), it is pronounced as if it were a simple taa'. (Note carefully the transliteration below.) In other words, taa' marbuuTa is a kind of

combination of $t a a^{\prime}$ and $h a a^{\prime}$, and has the sound of the one or the other depending on the context.

## Examples

## The Letters

- 

| nahr <br> river | hiya <br> she | huwa <br> he |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ne | intibaah |  |
| attention |  |  |

Isolated


Initial


Medial


Final


Reminder about pronunciation
The letter Saad is the emphatic version of the letter siin. The letter Daad is the emphatic version of the letter daal. Look back at p. 24 for an explanation of the pronunciation. Another point to note: when 'alif comes after a Saad or Daad, or after the other emphatic consonants (Taa' and DHaa': see pp. 76-78), it has the sound of $a$ as in father. Try to remember the pairings:
د ـ ض

## Examples




## ط ط

b (Tai') and (DOa') are relatively easy letters to write, because they have the same form in all positions, the only difference being the connecting strokes in the appropriate places. The only difference between the two letters themselves is that SHa' is written with a dot above, where Tai' has none.
Isolated


Initial


Medial


## The Letters

Final


Notice that in all cases the loop is made first, then the downstroke is put on last. In writing words, it is usually easier to put on the downstroke after you have finished the entire word. Notice that the dot on DHaa' seems to nestle in the nook formed by the downstroke.

Isolated


Initial


Medial


Final


## Reminder about pronunciation

The letter Tai' is the emphatic version of the letter tai' (see p. 24 again). Strictly speaking, the letter $\mathrm{DHaa}^{\prime}$ is the emphatic version of the letter dhaal. Many Arabs, however, pronounce DHaa' as an emphatic version of ray, in which case it would be $Z a a^{\prime}$ instead of $D H a a^{\prime}$. Either pronunciation is legitimate, so you can use whichever you find easier. Remember the pairings:
ت The Letters

## Examples

nafT
oil

## The Letters

( $f a a^{\prime}$ ) and aaf) have shapes that are similar in certain respects. Both are basically loops with tails, but the contours of the loops and their positioning are different. In addition, $f a a^{\prime}$ has one dot, whereas qaaf has two. Let's take faa' first.

Isolated


Notice that the loop sits on the line and that the tail is long and flat: it, too, sits on the line. The tip of the tail does not rise higher than the body of the letter.

Final


This is the same as the isolated form, but with a connector from the preceding letter.

The initial and medial forms simply drop the tail.
Initial


Medial


## The Letters

In the letter qaaf the loop is wider and, in the initial and isolated form, sits slightly above the line, while the tail in the isolated and final forms drops below the line (unlike $f a a^{\prime}$ ).

Initial


Medial


Final


Isolated


The tail of qaaf is shorter and rounder than the tail of $f a a^{\prime}$, and remember that $f a a^{\prime}$ never goes below the line.

## Reminder about pronunciation

The letter $f a a^{\prime}$ is pronounced just like the English $f$. The qaaf is similar to the English $q$, but is made much further back in the throat (see chapter 2).

Examples


## فَقّرِ <br> faqiir <br> poor


mouth

lafDH pronunciation

The Letters



Sadiiq friend

'ifriiqiyaa Africa

That completes our survey of the letters of the Arabic alphabet. We have now covered all the letters and symbols: everything you need to know to be able to read anything in Arabic. In the next section, we will give some examples of actual sentences from the Koran. Try to read them directly, using the transliteration only as a guide if you are stuck. All the required information has now been given. From here on, it is just a question of practice.

4 REFERENCE MATERIAL

## HAMZA

In chapters 2 and 3 we explained that when the letter hamza occurs at the beginning of a word, it always 'rides' on an 'alif. But we also mentioned that the glottal stop in Arabic, represented by hamza, is a full-fledged consonant that can occur anywhere in a word. When it appears in the middle or at the end of a word, hamza can 'ride' on any one of three letters: 'alif(1), waaw (g), or $y a a$ ', which is written without the two dots when it 'carries' hamza ( $\checkmark$ ). Or, it can sit on the line independently.

Here are some examples of how hamza looks in the middle of a word.


Here are some examples of how it looks at the end of a word


Now, how can you determine which of the three letters - 'alif, waaw, yaa' - will act as the 'carrier' of hamza in any given instance? As we mentioned before, the rules determining this are pretty complicated, and if the truth be told most foreigners learning Arabic (and indeed not a few Arabs) never really master them. The most important thing is to recognize hamza when you see it, and to build up an intuitive sense of which letter should 'carry' it.

## Reference Material

For reference, however, here is a list of regulations that cover virtually every instance of the occurrence of hamza.

## Initial position

When hamza appears at the start of a word, it is always written on 'alif. If the vowel following hamza is $\mathrm{fatHa}(a)$ or damma (u), then hamza sits above 'alif. If the vowel is kasra (i), then hamza is written below 'alif. For example:
آنْتَ إسْنَامَ

## Medial Position

When it appears in the middle of a word, hamza is written over:
A. 'alif
a.) when the vowel of hamza is fatHa (a):
سَآلَ
b.) when the vowel of hamza is sukuun and the vowel preceding it is fatHa (a):
ثَأر
B. waaw
a.) when the vowel of hamza is damma ( $u$ ):
بَؤُس
b.) when the vowel of hamza is sukuun or fatHa (a) and the vowel preceding it is damma ( $u$ ):
C. $y a a^{\prime}$ (without the two dots)
a.) when the vowel of hamza is kasra (i):


## Reference Material

b.) when the vowel preceding hamza is kasra (i):
بِّرُ
c.) when hamza is preceded by the long vowel $i i\left(y a a^{\prime}\right)$, or is followed by the diphthong ay as in
D. without a carrier, sitting on the line
when the vowel of hamza is fatHa (a) and the preceding vowel is a long $a a$ ('alif) or a long uu (waaw), as in
مُرُوَة
قِرَاءَة

## Final position

In the final position of word, hamza is written over
A. 'alif
when the vowel preceding hamza is $\mathrm{fatHa}(a)$ :
$\square$
B. waaw
when the vowel preceding hamza is damma (u):
دنُؤ
C. $y a a^{\prime}$ (without the two dots)
when the vowel preceding hamza is kasra ( $i$ ):

D. without a carrier, sitting on the line
a.) when hamza is preceded by sukuun:

b.) when hamza is preceded by a long vowel $a a$ ('alif), $u u$ (waaw), or ii (yaa'):

وُزَزَاء وُضُوء
وُزَّاء

## A VERSE FROM THEKORAN

Finally, here is a sort of test, or more accurately, a challenge: a sample of classical Arabic prose. In fact, it is one of the most famous of all passages of classical Arabic: the Fatiha, or 'opening' (sometimes called the Exordium) of the Koran, the holy book of Islam. The Fatiha is one of the most commonly recited prayers of Islam, and may be regarded as a Muslim equivalent to the Lord's Prayer in Christianity. First we will give it to you in Arabic, fully vowelled. See if you can decipher it. After that, there is a line-by-line transliteration, followed by a line-by-line translation. It is worth going over it many times, as nearly all the letters of the alphabet appear in it. If you practise it enough, and find yourself able to read it, then you can be confident that you have truly mastered the Arabic alphabet.
سُورَةُ آلْفَاتِحَهِ

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بِسْرِ اللنهِ الرَّخْمَانِ الرُرُجِم } \\
& \text { أَلْحَدُدُ لِلَهِ رَبِّ آلْعَالَبِين } \\
& \text { آلرَّمْمَانِ الرُّحِيم } \\
& \text { مَالِِ يَوْمُ الكِّين }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 5
\end{aligned}
$$

مِرَاطَا الَذِينَ آَنْعَنَتَ عَلَيْهِمْ ..... 78

Transliteration suuratu-l-faatiHah

1. bismi-l-laahi-r-raHmaani-r-raHiim.
2. al-Hamdu-lillahi rabbi-l-caalamiin.
3. ar-raHmaani-r-raHiim.
4. maaliki yawmi-d-diin.
5. 'iyyaaka na ${ }^{c}$ budu wa 'iyyaaka nasta ${ }^{c}$ iinu.
6. 'ihdinaa-S-SiraaTa-l-mustaquima.
7. SiraaTa-lladhiina 'an ${ }^{c}$ amta ${ }^{\text {c alayhim. }}$
8. ghayri-l-maghDuubi ${ }^{\text {calayhim walaa-D-Daalliin. }}$

## Translation

The Exordium

1. In the name of God (Allah), the compassionate, the merciful.
2. Praise be to God, Lord of the Worlds.
3. The compassionate, the merciful.
4. Master of Judgement Day.
5. You alone we worship, and to You alone we pray for help.
6. Guide us to the straight path.
7. The path of those whom You have favoured.
8. Not of those who have incurred Your wrath, nor of those who have gone astray.
(Adapted from the translation by N.J. Dawood: The Koran, Penguin Books, first published 1956, fourth revised edition 1976.)

## A NOTE ON HANDWRITING

Although Arabic does not have the vast differences between printing and handwriting that English does, there are some variations in some of the letters when they are handwritten. Here are the most important ones.

The two dots of the letters tai', qaaf, and $y a a^{\prime}$ are usually written as a dash.
ياقورت ياقوت يقتل

The three dots of the letters thai' and skin are usually written as a sort of inverted $v$, resembling a circumflex accent in French.


The blips of the letters sion and chin are usually written as a flat line.





## Reference Material

When the letter yam' is connected to a final mun, it is usually written like this


The letter kaif in the initial position may be written like this
كان كان كل كل

In the final and isolated positions, the letters mun, hin, Bad, and qaaf sometimes take on variant forms, as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { أين أيم إِ إنـــان إنــا }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { v } \ddot{\sim} \\
& \text { عرض عرص } \\
& \text { رضف رمصه }
\end{aligned}
$$

Table Showing All Forms


Reference Material WWW.UZ-translations.net

| Dhaa' | ظ | ط. | b- | b |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{\text {c ayn }}$ | $\varepsilon$ | $\varepsilon$ | 2 | ط |
| ghayn | غ | ع | $\cdots$ | - |
| faa' | ف | ¢ | 2 | غ |
| qaaf | ق | e | + | فـ |
| kaaf | , | $v$ | + | قـ |
| laam | ك | ك | < | $\checkmark$ |
|  | J | ل | $\perp$ | - |
| miim | P | - |  | - |
| nuun | - |  | - | م |
| haa' | - | - | - | - |
| waaw | - | 4 | - | - |
|  | 9 | 9 |  |  |
| yaa' | ي | - | 1 |  |

