Abstract: This article aims to apply the logical method of axiomatization to elementary Arabic syntax hoping to emulate the clarity, brevity, and interconnectedness of the classical treatise, i.e., Al-Ājrūmiyyah by al-Ṣinhājī (d. 723 h./1323 C.E.). This article presents the theory behind this method and the class experiment that utilized it. The axiomatization program is presented in two steps. The first step presents the basis of Arabic syntax in a detailed essay and then summarizes all in a theoretical framework. This includes the following syntactic subjects: 1. parts of speech, 2. three case endings, 3. five types of nouns and their three case endings, 4. two types of Arabic sentences, 5. nominal sentence, 6. predicate as a phrase, 7. prepositions and prepositional phrase, 8. followers, e.g., adjectives and conjoined nouns, 9. idāfa construction, 10. verbal sentence and its doer, 11. object, 12. idāfa construction in verbal sentences, 13. adverb, 14. semi-adverb, 15. uninflected nouns, 16. definite status, 17. pronouns, 18. tanwīn, 19. abrogators, e.g., kāna and inna and their sisters, 20. further expansion, 21. absolute object, 22. object of purpose, and 23. the general protocol for syntactic analysis.

Keywords: Arabic, Logical Analysis, Arabic Syntax, Foreign Language Teaching, and al-Ājrūmiyyah.

Introduction to the Idea of Axiomatization:

“Axiomatization” is a method known in logical and scientific circles since Euclid’s Elements in 300 BCE. In the twentieth century, Analytic Philosophy advanced this method as a research program in the humanities, social sciences, and linguistics. The “axiomatization” method attempts to describe any phenomenon by:

1 I am grateful to Professors Raji Rammuny of the University of Michigan-Ann Arbor, Darlene May of Wake Forest University, Yousef Rababa of Philadelphia University, Yousef Hamdan of the University of Jordan, Ahmed ‘Abd al-Mun‘im ‘Atiyyah of Alexandria University, Dania Khuaj of Qasid Arabic Institute, and the meticulous Ahmed Hassan Khorshid for kindly reading earlier drafts of this paper. Their wide knowledge, deep insights, and sharp corrections were extremely valuable. I am also thankful for the proofreading Anna Ellis kindly did.
1- The minimum number of rules that are
2- Clearly defined and distinguished from each other and
3- Logically related to the axioms.

In other words, axiomatization is the process that reduces a linguistic phenomenon to a coherent structure of principles (Itkonen, 1976, p. 189). The pedagogical benefits of this method are primarily cognitive and therefore pedagogical in that it seeks to avoid:
1- Unnecessarily lengthy and expansive educational material with rules that are sometimes:
2- Not clearly defined and distinguished from each other; and
3- Not logically related to each other.

It is important to acknowledge that the task of presenting Arabic grammar to native or foreign learners is a theoretical task at its core. For this reason, any theoretical grammar work presumes a methodological protocol for its presentation (Rescher, 2011, p. 16). In several cases, the scope of theorizing determines the method of presentation. For example, the work of al-Kitāb by Sībawayh (Sībawayh, 1988, pp. 334, Vol. 1.) varies from Ibn al-Anbārī’s medieval work Asrār al-'Arabiyyah (Anbārī, 1957, pp. 3–4), and both works differ from the contemporary achievement of the Moroccan linguist Ahmad al-Mutawakkil in his Qadāyā al-‘Arabiyyah fī al-Lisāniyyāt al-Ważfiyyah (Al-Mutawakkil, 2013, p. 33). If this is so, the question becomes: is there an approach where one can unify these diverse methods in a way that is brief and accessible to elementary students?

I think this question was eloquently posed and efficiently responded to by medieval grammar pedagogy authors such as Ibn Mālik in his famous Alfiyyah (Ibn Hishām, 1973) and Muḥammad al-Ṣinhājī with his shorter and more concise theorizing in Al-ʻAbrūmiyyah fī Qawā'id Iln al-'Arabiyyah (Al-Malḥdharī, 2004). This paper finds Al-ʻAbrūmiyyah to be one of the briefest methods of theorizing Arabic grammar mainly for its logico-mathematical properties compatible with axiomatization. The cognitive beauty of the axiomatization method is found in the metaphor of a blossoming flower. The flower’s bud contains all of the bases for growing a much larger, very creative, and more complex mature flower. Yet, the bud contains the future of the flower in a smaller, denser, and more concise profile. The axiomatization approach in grammar works in a similar manner to the flower’s blossoming mode. Grammatically speaking, the bud of axioms contains all the necessary principles, mechanisms, and elements that then can be further expanded into most of the possibilities of sound natural speech. What is lacking in the bud is further nutrition, sun, and air that the speaker of the language gains through education and different life situations and their corresponding vocabulary, semantics, and styles. The functional merit for the axiomatization approach is seen in the capacity to present the basics of Arabic grammar in a short essay and then in nearly a thousand words, equivalent to a standard single page. Cognitively, a first look at the world map, followed by a closer look at a map of the United States, and then followed by an even closer look at a map of the city of Winston-Salem can make good sense to the foreign tourist visiting such terra incognita since the relation between the whole and its detailed components are conceived at once in these zooming steps. Analogously, the undertaking here is to present the total map of the unknown land of Arabic syntax in the second section that was already expanded into a full-length essay with complete examples, in Arabic, in the first section.

Undoubtedly, unnecessarily lengthy educational material that is convoluted in its definitions and dispersed in its parts through hundreds of pages of a textbook will not lead students either to understand or to master the linguistic material in the same amount of time as the approach taken here. By utilizing the method of axiomatization in Arabic syntax teaching, one can achieve brevity, clarity, and interconnectedness, and thus greater student understanding. Although
intimidating and difficult to master for foreign language learners in the first month of second-semester Arabic classes, teaching a comprehensive and logically operative syntactic model in elementary Arabic classes is a pedagogical necessity.

This paper summarizes the elementary principles of Arabic syntax as they have been successfully taught at the University of Virginia between 2008 and 2015 and then at Wake Forest University from 2015 to 2018 using the axiomatization method. This summary includes the syntactic rules for composing and expanding nominal and verbal sentences. On the experimental pedagogical level, mastery of the syntactic program listed above follows the completion of 15 credit hours at the end of the first half of second-year Arabic according to the Arabic textbook utilized at the time, i.e., *al-Kitaab*, 2nd edition. During the summer of 2013 in an intensive Arabic class of 12 students, I attempted to raise the bar by introducing the axiomatization method as a supplement to the *al-Kitaab* textbook for students who had completed only 5 credit hours; i.e., only the first semester of first-year Arabic. I found that most students mastered this program within the first few days of their second semester of study. This is a notable achievement as it enhanced students’ reading comprehension, writing level, and translation accuracy and saved more time for conversational activities. In the fall of 2013 the other instructor of the second-year Arabic class acknowledged that the members of his group who had finished first-year Arabic in the summer using this method were more advanced than their peers.

The coming section should prove the cognitive educational benefits of axiomatization as a continuation of the clarity, brevity, and interconnectedness of the medieval treatise written by Muḥammad al-Ṣinhājī (d. 1323 C.E.), i.e., Ājrūmiyyah fi Qawā‘id ‘Ilm al-‘Arabiyyah. Historically, this work was a standard text used in elementary medieval Arabic grammar teaching. The proposed axiomatization below is intended as an updated Ājrūmiyyah for foreign learners. The beauty of this updated version is that each rule will:

1- Have a particular number for easy reference (with the Arabic numerals in the number labels being read from right to left);
2- Move from the simplest to the most complex formations;
3- Mention several, if not all, possibilities for the same rule; and
4- State impossible or nonsensical usages.

A significant outcome here is enabling computational linguists to build an Arabic grammar check program provided that a morphological axiomatization program for verbs and nouns is added to the Arabic dictionary database.

**Section One: The Exemplified Axiomatization Program**

1. *Parts of speech* في العربية، الأقسام الاسمية مصنفة إلى ثلاث أنواع من الكلمات: الفعل، الجملة، والحرف. 

1.1 *Verbs* (الفعل) are words involving past, present, and future tenses, each of which can be conjugated for the twelve pronouns in 15.2.1 below. A good way to study verbs is through conjugation charts. Therefore, verbal conjugations are not directly mentioned here. However, verbs will be used as in the examples below, e.g.:

الولد

الولد

دَرَسَ 1.1.1

1. See, for example, comprehensive verbal paradigms in (Ziadeh & Winder, 2003, pp. 177–232). Scheindlin dedicates the whole book to the task of verb paradigms (Scheindlin, 2007).
1.2 Nouns (أسماء) are words that neither involve tenses nor can be conjugated. Yet, they have a factual or conceptual reference to an item or process and can be derived in several ways and are inflected as in the following examples:

```
1.2.1. درَسَ الطَّالِب / درَسَ الوَالِد / درَسَ التَّنَاسِب
```

1.3 Particles (حروف) are words which, unlike verbs and nouns, do not involve tense, conjugation, or derivation. There can be a reference to particles, mostly to relations not entities (al-Juḥfa, 2006, p. 223). A more detailed list will be presented in rule 15.2 below. For example:

```
2. درَسَ الطَّالِب في الِبَيْت
```

2. Nouns take three different syntactic case endings called مَفرِع – مَنْصوب – مَرفِع. These case endings aid in identifying the function of words in phrases and sentences and thus enable accurate understanding, sound expression, and proper composition and translation of sentences.

3. Within the three different case endings above, nouns come in several morphological declensions. Here, we are concerned with five categories of nouns: 1) the singular noun الاسم المفرد and the broken plural جمع التكسير, 2) dual المثنى, 3) masculine sound plural جمع المذكر السالم, 4) feminine sound plural جمع المؤنث السالم, and 5) the five nouns الأسماء الخمسة. The case endings for each category are listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Types of Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ة -ة -ة</td>
<td>-ة -ة -ة</td>
<td>-ة -ة -ة</td>
<td>1.3 Broken Plural and Singular Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ة -ة -ة</td>
<td>-ة -ة -ة</td>
<td>-ة -ة -ة</td>
<td>No tanwīr in definition or first term of idāfa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2.3 Dual</th>
<th>3.3 Masculine Sound Plural</th>
<th>4.3 Feminine Sound Plural</th>
<th>5.3 The five names</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

4 This means that the English grammatical classification is different from the Arabic one presented above. The “adjective” in Arabic grammar is a sub-category of nouns making it a syntactic category, while the “adjective” in English grammar is on par with nouns making it a morphological category.

5 Several Arabic Grammarians translate this syntactic category as “particles.” In particular, Schulz lists them together (Schulz, 2012, p. 110). However, several grammarians present each group based on its stylistic usage as in (Ryding, 2005, p. 422), (Alhawary, 2011, p. 313), and (Sawaie, 2014, pp. 50, 54, and 55).

6 The last category, i.e., the five names, needs to be in an idāfa construction, which will be introduced in section 9, in order to function according to this category. Without being in an idāfa construction, i.e., idāfa to nouns or pronoun suffixes, these five names behave like the first category, i.e., singular nouns.

7 Hassanein offers a shorter version of this table (Hassanein, 2006, p. 9).
The basic formation of Arabic sentences is either nominal or verbal (Ryding, 2005, p. 85 and 64).

A nominal sentence mostly starts with a noun, a pronoun, or a demonstrative and is formulated with both a subject and a predicate. When the subject is a noun, it must be definite; and when the predicate is a noun, it must be indefinite. Note that the subject and the predicate always take the مرفوع case ending, as listed in the first column from the right in rule 3 above.

The predicate in nominal sentences can be a single word, a prepositional phrase, or a verb. In partial violation of rule 5 above, the subject may come without a definite article. In this case, the predicate must be moved forward:

The following are examples of verbs as predicates. In these sentences, although a verb takes the position of a nominal predicate, it does not follow any nominal case ending and still behaves as a verb in its conjugation and ending.

Note that, when following any of the prepositions حروف الجر, a noun is called a prepositional noun and always takes the مجرور case ending, as listed in the third column from the right in rule 3 above.

---

8 If a member of “the five nouns” is not followed by another noun in an idāfa construction or attached to a pronoun suffix, then it is no longer part of “the five nouns” category and behaves like a regular singular noun.

9 Arabic Grammarians vary on translating this syntactic category. Ryding calls it “object of preposition” in (Ryding, 2005, p. 171) along with (Alhawary, 2011, p. 67) and (Sawaie, 2014, p. 278). The choice above is based on the literal translation of the Arabic term and reserves the term “object” exclusively for the object of the verbal sentence.
Both the subject and the predicate can be followed by the “followers” category. This category includes, but is not limited to, the adjective and the conjoined noun.

8.1 The adjective agrees with the noun it modifies in: 1) gender, 2) number, 3) definiteness, and 4) case. However, the conjoined noun agrees only in case and may of course differ in gender, number, and definiteness. Examples for adjectives describing the subject:

1.1.8 The man is a friend. 
2.1.8 The men are friends. 
3.1.8 The man is a friend. 
4.1.8 The men are friends. 
5.1.8 The man is a friend. 

8.2 As for an adjective describing the predicate:

1.2.8 The man is a friend. 
2.2.8 The men are friends. 
3.2.8 The man is a friend. 
4.2.8 The men are friends. 
5.2.8 The man is a friend. 

8.3 The conjoined noun comes after conjunctions of types وَ، أَوْ، أَمْ، فَ، ث مَّ and follows the noun it relates to only in case. Examples for a conjoined noun related to the subject:

1.3.8 The man and the woman are brothers. 
2.3.8 The men and the women are brothers. 
3.3.8 The man and the men are brothers. 
4.3.8 The man and the women are brothers. 
5.3.8 The man and the men are brothers. 

8.4 Examples for a conjoined noun related to the predicate:

1.4.8 The man is a friend and a monk. 
2.4.8 The men are friends and monks. 
3.4.8 The man is a friend and a monk. 
4.4.8 The men are friends and monks. 
5.4.8 This is a monk or a friend.

Note how the word “أب” behaves like a singular noun when it is not the first term of an idāfa or attached to a pronoun suffix.

The classical grammarians of the Kūfah school hold that there is no adjective describing the predicate and that it should rather be considered as a second predicate. To the contrary, the analysis presented above starts from the premise that a sentence has only one subject and one predicate and that the rest can be omitted unless the predicate has several components. In support of this, a classical grammarian states “إِنْ كَانَتْ هَذَهُ الْخَابِرَاتُ مُتَجَمَّعَةً تُؤْدِي مَا تُؤْدِيهِ الصَّفْهُ الْواحِدَةَ، وَلَا يَجُوزُ حَذَفُ بَعْضِهَا وَإِبْقَاءُ بَعْضِهَاอُحْدَاثَ، وَلَا يَكُنَّ الْأَمْرُ كَذَا كَانَ أَحَدُهَا خَيْرًا عَنِ الْبَقِيَّةِ الوَاحِدَةِ، وَلَا يَكُنَّ الْأَمْرُ كَذَا كَانَ أَحَدُهَا خَيْرًا عَنِ الْبَقِيَّةِ الوَاحِدَةِ” (Ibn al-Anbārī, 2003, p. Vol. 2, 596).
9. The subject and the predicate can be part of the *idāfa* إضافة, i.e., the "of construction." The head noun, i.e., the first term of the *idāfa* المضاف, must be without a defining particle or *tamwīn*, while the second term of the *idāfa* المضاف إليه may be definite or indefinite.\(^\text{12}\) Just like the prepositional noun المجرور in 7 above, the second term of the *idāfa* المضاف إليه always takes the مجرور case ending, as listed in the third column from the right in rule 3 above. The head noun is open to several possibilities and is not affected in case ending by the second term of the *idāfa*.

9.1 Examples of a second term of an *idāfa* added to the subject:\(^\text{13}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule Number</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
<th>Example 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.9</td>
<td>١١١٠٢ رجل الجامعة سعيد / رجل جامعة سعيد</td>
<td>١١٢٩ رجل الجامعة سعيدان/ رجل جامعة سعيدان</td>
<td>١١٣٩ مصريُّ الجامعة سعيدون / مصريُّ جامعة سعيدون</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.9</td>
<td>١١٤٩ بنات الجامعة سعادات / بنات جامعة سعادات</td>
<td>١١٥٩ أبو البنين سعيد / أبو بنين سعيد</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.2 Examples of a second term of an *idāfa* added to the predicate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule Number</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
<th>Example 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.2.9</td>
<td>١١٦٩ الرجل موطَّفُ الجامعة / الرجل موطفت جامعة</td>
<td>١١٧٩ الرجلان موطُّفُ الجامعة / الرجلان موطفت جامعة</td>
<td>١١٨٩ المصريُون موطَّفُ الجامعة / المصريُون موطفت جامعة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.9</td>
<td>١١٩٩ النبات موطَّفُ الجامعة / النبات موطفت جامعة</td>
<td>١١٩٩ الرجلان وبنات موطُّفُ الجامعة / الرجلان وبنات موطفت جامعة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.3 We may also add the *idāfa* construction to the “followers” التوابع in 8 above and to the prepositional nouns in 7 above.

9.3.1 As for a second term of an *idāfa* added to a conjoined noun of the subject:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule Number</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
<th>Example 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.3.9</td>
<td>١١١٠٢ رجل وبناتيَّ الجمعية سعيدان</td>
<td>١١٢٩ رجل وبناتيَّ الجمعية سعيدان</td>
<td>١١٣٩ رجل وبناتيَّ الجمعية سعيدان</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.3.9</td>
<td>١١٤٩ رجل وبناتيَّ الجمعية سعيدان / رجل وبناتيَّ الجمعية سعيدان</td>
<td>١١٥٩ رجل وبناتيَّ الجمعية سعيدان / رجل وبناتيَّ الجمعية سعيدان</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.3.2 As for the second term of an *idāfa* added to an adjective of the subject:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule Number</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
<th>Example 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.2.3.9</td>
<td>١١١٠٢ الرجل طويل الشعر سعيد</td>
<td>١١٢٩ الرجلان طويل الشعر سعيدان</td>
<td>١١٣٩ المصريُون طويل الشعر سعيدون</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3.9</td>
<td>١١٤٩ النبات موطَّفُ الجامعة</td>
<td>١١٥٩ النبات موطفت جامعة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.3.3 Note that the examples in 9.3.2 violate rule 8 above since the adjective is not identical to the subject in regards to definiteness. This is done in order to accommodate rule 9 above, which requires the first term of an *idāfa* المضاف to be indefinite. Conversely, we may violate rule 9 and make the first term of an *idāfa* المضاف definite in order to accommodate rule 8 above, which

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\(^\text{12}\) The translation of this syntactic category varies slightly. Ryding calls it "'iDaafa," (Ryding, 2005, p. 205) along with (Schulz, 2012, p. 128), while Alhawary calls it "'iDaafa phrase," (Alhawary, 2011, p. 70) and Sawaie calls it "IDaafa-construct," (Sawaie, 2014, p. 66).

\(^\text{13}\) Some readers might object to the inclusion of indefinite subjects in the examples of (9.1) on the basis of their not having a clear reference. The basic example in 1.1.9 could be changed to "سيرة شرطي معرفة，“ which is a common sentence. Moreover, the examples above make sense as they do not violate any syntax rule. See the classical work “التذكرة في جوار الإبداع بتكريما” in (Al-Innabī, 1993, p. 413).
necessitates that the relation of definiteness between the subject and its adjective be identical. This formation, which is called “false *idāfa*”, can be seen in the following examples:\(^{14}\)

- الرجل الطويل الشعر سعيد
- المصري والمصرى تكلمت
- أخوك الطويل الشعر

9.3.4 An *idāfa* cannot be added to followers of the predicate because, unless we assume there is an omitted predicate, that would formulate an incomplete sentence.

1.4.3.9

خُبَر مقدَّر / الرجل سعيد ومَوظَف

9.3.5 As for an *idāfa* added to a prepositional noun:

1.5.3.9

جامعة / الرجل مع أ ستاذة

2.5.3.9

جامعة / الرجلان مع أستاذتي

3.5.3.9

جامعة / المصري ون مع سوري

4.5.3.9

جامعة / البنات مع أ ستاذات

5.5.3.9

طالب / أخوك مع أبي

10. In contrast to rule 5 above concerning the formation of a nominal sentence, the second type of Arabic sentence is the verbal sentence, which is a sentence that begins with a *verb* and sometimes an *object*\(^{15}\). Doers and objects can be expressed as nouns or pronouns. Note that a verb without a former reference, as in 6.3 above, is an incomplete sentence.

10.1 Just like the subject of the nominal sentence in 5 above, the *doer* always takes the مرفوع case ending, as shown in the first column in 3 above.

1.1.1.10

نامت البنين / نامت بنين

2.1.1.10

نامت البنينان / نامت بنتين

3.1.1.10

نام المصريين / نام مصريين

4.1.1.10

نامت البنين / نامت بنين

5.1.1.10

نام أخوك / نام أخ

10.2 Unlike an *intransitive* verb, a *transitive* verb must have an object. The object receives the action of the verb. It can be a noun or pronoun. When the object is a noun, it always takes the موصوب case ending, as shown in the middle column in 3 above.

1.2.1.10

تدرس البنين الكتاب / تدرس البنين كتاب

2.2.1.10

تدرس البنين الكتبين / تدرس البنين كتابين

3.2.1.10

تكلمت البنين الكبارين / تكلمت البنين مصريين

4.2.1.10

تدرس البنين الكتب / تدرس البنين كتاب

5.2.1.10

تكلمت البنين أخاك / تكلمت البنين أخا

---

\(^{14}\) Schulz calls it “improper annexation” (Schulz, 2012, p. 131).

\(^{15}\) Contemporary grammarians vary on translating this syntactic category of the “doer.” Ryding calls it “subject,” (Ryding, 2005, p. 64), along with (Schulz, 2012, p. 174), while Sawaie uses the standard Arabic term “فاعل” and “agentive noun,” (Sawaie, 2014, p. 112) and Alhawary chooses “subject/doer,” (Alhawary, 2011, p. 229). The term adopted above is closer to Alhawary’s choice since it is the literal translation. Also, this wording distinguishes the “doer” in the verbal sentence from the “subject,” which is restricted to the nominal sentence.
11. Just like the subject and predicate of the nominal sentences in 5 above, both the doer and the object of verbal sentences can be related to adjectives and conjoined nouns. When adjectives describe doers or objects, they will be identical to the doers or objects in: 1) gender, 2) number, 3) definiteness, and 4) case. However, the conjoined noun agrees only in case and may of course differ in gender, number, and definiteness. 11.1 As for an adjective describing the doer:

- 1.1.11 تَدرسُ البَنتُ الجَميلةُ / تَدرسَ بَنتَ جَميلةٍ
- 2.1.11 تَدرسُ البَنتانِ الجَميلتانِ / تَدرسَ بنتان جَميلتانِ
- 3.1.11 يَدرسُ المَصِيرِيَنَّ الجَميلينَ / يَدرس مَصيرَينَ جَميلينَ
- 4.1.11 تَدرسُ البَنتانِ المَصِيرِيَّنَّ / تَدرسَ بنتَانَ مصيرَينَ
- 5.1.11 يَدرسُ أخَاكَ الجَميل / يَدرس أَخُّ جَميل

11.2 As for an adjective describing the object:

- 1.2.11 تَدرسُ البَنتُ الكَتابُ الكَبير / تَدرسَ بَنتَ كتابٍ كبيرٍ
- 2.2.11 تَدرسُ البَنتانِ الكَتابينَ الكِبيرينَ / تَدرسَ بنتانَ كتابينَ كبيرينَ
- 3.2.11 يَدرسُ المَصِيرِيَنَّ الكُلِماتِ السَّعِيرةَ / يَدرسَ مصيرَينَ كلامَاتٍ سَعيرةً
- 4.2.11 يَدرسُ أخَاكَ الكِبْر / يَدرس أَخُّ كبيراً
- 5.2.11 يَدرسُ أخاكَ أَخاً / يَدرس أَخَّ أَخاً

In the fourth example of 11.2.4 above note that the adjective that qualifies a non-human plural noun, the object in this context, must be feminine and singular. Thus, it declines as a singular noun, not as a feminine sound plural. In other words, non-human plurals are referred to by the third person feminine singular pronoun هي.

11.3 As for a conjoined noun after (وَ، أَوُّ، أَمُّ، فَ، ثُمَّ) related to the doer:

- 1.3.11 تَدرسُ البَنتُ وَالوْلَد / تَدرسَ بَنتَ وَلَدَ
- 2.3.11 تَدرسُ البَنتانِ وَالوْلَدانِ / تَدرسَ بنتانَ وَلَدانِ
- 3.3.11 يَدرسُ المَصِيرِيَنَّ وَسَورُيَّنَ / يَدرس مَصيرَينَ وسوريَّنَ
- 4.3.11 يَدرسُ البَنتانِ وَالأَستاذاتِ / يَدرسَ بنتَانَ وَأَستاذاتٍ
- 5.3.11 يَدرسُ أخاكَ وأبائكَ / يَدرس أَخَّ أَباً

11.4 As for a conjoined noun after (وَ، أَوُّ، أَمُّ، فَ، ثُمَّ) related to the object:

- 1.4.11 يَدرسُ البَنتانِ الكِتابينَ والمَعَالِ / يَدرسَ بنتَانَ كتابَينَ ومَعاليَنَ
- 2.4.11 يَدرسُ البَنتانِ الكِتابينَ والمَعَاليَنِ / يَدرسَ بنتَانَ كتابَينَ ومَعاليَنَ
- 3.4.11 يَدرسُ البَنتانِ السُّورِيَّينَ والمَصيرِيَّينَ / يَدرسَ بنتَانَ سورَيَّينَ ومصيرَينَ
- 4.4.11 يَدرسُ البَنتانِ الكِتابينَ والمَكَالَاتِ / يَدرسَ بنتَانَ كتابَينَ ومكالَاتِ
- 5.4.11 يَدرسُ أخاكَ أَبائكَ / يَدرس أَخَّ أُباً

12. An idāfa can be added to both the doer and the object of verbal sentences, provided that neither one of them has a definite article or a possessive suffix.

12.1 Examples for an idāfa added to the doer:

- 1.1.12 يَتَسِيَّرُ سِياَرَةُ اَلْشَرْطِ / يَتَسِيرُ سِياَراً شَرِطيًّا
- 2.1.12 يَتَسِيرُ سِياَرَةَا الشَرْطِ / يَتَسِيرُ سِياَراً شَرِطِينَ
- 3.1.12 يَتَسِيرُ سِياَرَةً الشَرْطِ / يَتَسِيرُ سِياَراً شَرِطِيًّا
- 4.1.12 يَتَسَمِّرُ مَوظَفَةَ الجَامِعةِ / يَتَسَمِّرُ مَوظَفَةَ جَامِعَةٍ
- 5.1.12 يَتَسِيرُ أَخُوُّ الأَسْتاذِ / يَتَسِيرُ أَخَّ أَسْتاذً
12.2 Examples for an *idāfa* added to the object:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>تُدرِسُ البَنْتَ حَزِينًا / تُدرِسُ البَنْتَ حَزِينَةً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَ مَنْتَا حُزُيِّنَةً</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَخَاكَ حَزِينًا / تُدرِسُ الْأَخَاكَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. The adverb *حال* is an indefinite noun that strictly describes the condition of the definite “doer” or “object” of the action. The adverb should agree with the “doer” or “object” in: 1) gender and 2) number only. The adverb always takes the مَنْصُوب case ending, as shown in the middle column in 3 above. Note that the adverb is not vocalized as an adjective. This is why when describing the doer it does not follow the nominative case ending of the doer.

13.1 As for an *adverb* describing the doer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>تُدرِسُ البنَّاتِ حَزِينَةَ / تُدرِسُ البنَّاتِ حَزِينًا</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَخَاكَ حَزِينًا / تُدرِسُ الْأَخَاكَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.2 As for an *adverb* describing the object:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>تُدرِسُ الْبَنَّاتِ حَزِينَةَ / تُدرِسُ الْبَنَّاتِ حَزِينًا</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.2.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَ مَنْتَا حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَمَّ الْمُبَتَّنَينَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.13</td>
<td>تُدرِسُ الْأَخَاكَ حَزِينًا / تُدرِسُ الْأَخَاكَ حُزُيِّنَةَ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. Unlike the adverb *حال*, which describes the condition of the “doer” of the action, what might be called a “semi-adverb” or *نائب عن المفعول المطلق* is an indefinite noun that describes the quality

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17 Contemporary Arabic grammarians vary on translating this syntactic category of “حال”. Ryding calls it “circumstantial construction” (Ryding, 2005, p. 283) along with Sawaie, who uses the Arabic term “حال” when discussing the “circumstantial clause” (Sawaie, 2014, p. 399). Alhawary goes for “adverb of manner” (Alhawary, 2011, p. 154), while Schulz chooses “حال accusative” (Schulz, 2012, p. 154). The choice adopted above is close to Alhawary’s wording.

18 Note that the shaded sentences are not syntactically acceptable in general because the “doer” is indefinite.

19 Note that the shaded sentences are syntactically acceptable because what is modifying the “object” is an adjective not an adverb.

20 Ryding calls this syntactic category “adverbial accusatives” (Ryding, 2005, p. 27), while Schulz discusses this item under both “quantitative adverbs” (Schulz, 2012, p. 89) and “qualitative adverbs” (Schulz, 2012, p. 90).

of the verb. It is never marked for 1) gender and 2) number. The semi-adverb always takes the case ending, as shown in the middle column in 3 above. Below are some examples:

1.14 تدرس البنان فعلاً / جدًا / أيضًا / غالبًا / كثيرًا =
1.2.14 تدرس البنان =
1.3.14 تدرس البيتان =
1.4.14 تدرس البنان =
1.5.14 يدرس آخوك

15. Note that all of the above syntactic and vocalization rules are applicable to vocalizable nouns, i.e., nouns subject to inflection. However, verbs have their own vocalization based on their tense and conjugation. Uninflected nouns and particles have unchanging inflections. These include:

15.2.1 Subject Pronouns أقما/نلت/أنثى/أتيت/أتمنى/أنت/أنتى/نتى/نت ما/نت م/نت نّ/ه وَ/هِيَ/ه مَا/ه مْ/ه نَّ
15.2.2 Demonstrative Pronouns الاضمائر المنفصلة (أنا/أنثى/أتيت/أتيت/أتمنى/أنت/أنتى/نتى/نت ما/نت م/نت نّ/ه وَ/هِيَ/ه مَا/ه مْ/ه نَّ)
15.2.3 Relative Pronouns الاسماء الموصولة (الذي/التي/الذين/التيى، الذين/الواتى) الاسماء المصورة
15.2.4 Interrogatives أين، أي، ما، من، كيف، لما، ماذا، ما، هل (اسماء الاستفهام وحروف الجر)
15.2.5 Prepositions ومن، إلى، عن، على، بـ، في، مع، كـ
15.2.6 Most “adverbs of place and time” ظروف المكان والزمان are inflected nouns. Yet, they always have fixed ending in this usage:

اقرأ، قبل، بعد، تحت، فوق، الساعة، اليوم، الأسبوع، الشهر، السنة

Nouns added to “adverbs of place and time” become the second term of an idāfa.

16. Also note that a singular noun is definite when it:
16.1 Has a definite article (الـ، e.g., 
16.2 Has a possessive suffix (ـيـ، ـهـ، ـهاـ، ـهمـ، ـكـ، ـكمـ، ـكـمـ، ـهمـ، ـكـمـ، 
16.3 Is the first term of an idāfa, e.g. كتب، الرجل
If none of these conditions apply, the noun is either an indefinite singular noun, a broken plural, or a feminine sound plural, then the noun takes tanwīn.

17. Although the following pronouns are not inflected, they are considered definite in status and function when serving as subjects of nominal sentences:
17.1 Subject Pronouns أقما/نلت/أتيت/أتيت/أتمنى/أنت/أنتى/نتى/نت ما/نت م/نت نّ/ه وَ/هِيَ/ه مَا/ه مْ/ه نَّ
17.2 Demonstrative Pronouns الاضمائر المنفصلة (أنا/أنثى/أتيت/أتيت/أتمنى/أنت/أنتى/نتى/نت ما/نت م/نت نّ/ه وَ/هِيَ/ه مَا/ه مْ/ه نَّ)

18. The nouns in 16 above and the pronouns in 17 above are all definite and thus do not take tanwīn. In addition, the pronouns are uninflected and thus—with the exception of the two dual subject pronouns—do not take case endings.

22 The shaded pronouns in the dual behave like dual nouns; thus, they are inflected.
23 The shaded pronouns in the dual behave like dual nouns; thus, they are inflected.
24 In the case of an idāfa to an indefinite noun, e.g., كتب، الرجل، the effect remains the same. The first noun can be seen as semidefinite by virtue of the idāfa.
25 There is an exception here. The diptote of the منصوب من الصرف is a group of patterns of nouns, mostly broken plural nouns or, for example, the patterns أفعل، فعلان، فعلاً، فعلاً، which have an irregular case ending. When a noun belonging to this group is a group of patterns of nouns, mostly broken plural nouns or, for example, the patterns أفعل، فعلان، فعلاً، فعلاً, which have an irregular case ending. When a noun belonging to this group is a group of patterns of nouns, mostly broken plural nouns or, for example, the patterns أفعل، فعلان، فعلاً, which have an irregular case ending. When a noun belonging to this group is a group of patterns of nouns, mostly broken plural nouns or, for example, the patterns أفعل، فعلان، فعلاً...
19. A nominal sentence, as in 5 above, can be preceded by the nominatives, which might be translated as "abrogators". 20 ) kāna and its sisters and 2) inna and its sisters.

19.1 In the first case, kāna and its sisters, e.g., (كان لَنُّ، قال، لَعَلَّ ما زَالَ، إن، أنَّ، لأَنَّ، لَعَلَّ خَبَر كان منصوب case ending. Note that, when the predicate is a verbal or a prepositional phrase, as shown in parentheses below, this rule does not apply.

19.2 Contrary to kāna and its sisters above, inna and its sisters, e.g., (إنَّ، لأنَّ، لأنَّ، لَعَلَّ، خَبَر كان منصوب case ending. Name إنَّ, which takes the 

20. Both the subject and the predicate of inna and its sisters and kāna and its sisters can be followed by "the followers": an adjective and a conjoined noun. In addition, an idāfa can be added to the subject and the predicate of both inna and its sisters and kāna and its sisters.

21. The absolute object should be distinguished from the adverb in 13 above. The absolute object is an indefinite noun that describes the quality of the action of the utilized verb, and it always takes the case ending, as shown in the middle column in 3 above. The semantic function of this syntactic category aims at responding to the question "how?" or "to what degree?" by indicating that the doer did the action of the verb in its ideal form or caused it to reach its final range rather than doing the action partially or less than ideally. This noun should strictly be formulated in the naṣdar form, i.e., the verbal noun of the same verb utilized in the sentence. This necessitates that the verbal noun be derived from the same root and form of the verb in the sentence. The doer’s gender, number, definiteness, and case ending as well as the verb's tense are all irrelevant here.

26 Abrogation is a common translation of the Qur'anic legal concept "naskh" (Hallaq, 1997, pp. 68–70). Ryding calls abrogators "converters to accusative" (Ryding, 2005, p. 176) as well as "words that cause a shift to the accusative case" (Ryding, 2005, p. 422).

27 Contemporary Arabic grammarians vary on translating this syntactic category. Ryding calls it "cognate accusative" (Ryding, 2005, p. 83) along with Alhawary, 2011, p. 169) and Schulz, 2012, p. 151) while Sawaie calls it "cognate object" (Sawaie, 2014, p. 323). The choice adopted above opts for the literal translation as it is easier for students to memorize.
The object of purpose should be distinguished from both the concept of the adverb in 13 above and that of the absolute object in 21 above. Just like the absolute object, the object of purpose is an indefinite noun that describes the quality of the action of the verb utilized, and it always takes the case ending, as shown in the middle column in 3 above. However, the semantic function of this syntactic category aims at responding to the question “why” by indicating the rationale of the action either for causal or teleological reasons. This noun should strictly be formulated in the masdar form, i.e., the verbal noun. Unlike the absolute object in 21, the verbal noun here must not be derived from the same root or the same form of the utilized verb. The doer’s gender, number, definiteness, and case ending are all irrelevant here. The verb tense is also irrelevant.

A final note on this axiomatization program relates to the metaphor of “reverse engineering.” This is an intellectually sophisticated skill by which a person aims to figure out the architecture or design of a man-made product that is completely unknown to him or her. In this case, the analyzer or disassembler, often seeking to gain a commercial or military advantage, attempts to intuitively and methodically figure out the original design of the product so it can be demystified, replicated, or further advanced. Using this approach of reverse engineering, the teaching of Arabic to native speakers has traditionally insisted on mastering the skill of syntactical analysis. Syntactical analysis is, in essence, a skill of reverse engineering wherein the student attempts to pin down the inner composition of a sentence uttered or written by someone else by identifying the parts of speech and then analyzing the syntactic category and case ending of each word. Fortunately, with the treatment of verbs based on their conjugation charts, syntactical analysis has become much more simplified for foreign language students by concentrating on nouns and phrases without having to worry about how to formulate a verb. Thus, giving a full syntactical analysis is based on spelling out the following quadruple: 1- the grammatical category, e.g., predicate, 2- the case ending, which indicates the grammatical classification necessitated by the grammatical category, e.g., predicate requires the nominative, and 3- the type of noun, which determines the morphological case ending suitable for its grammatical category and case, i.e., whether it is a singular, a broken plural, a dual, a masculine sound plural, a feminine sound plural, or one of the five nouns, and 4- the definiteness of the noun, i.e., definite or indefinite. In 23.1 below is found a moderately complex example of an Arabic sentence. The syntactic analysis is provided for each word in this sentence based on the quadruple requirements mentioned above.

22. The object of purpose should be distinguished from both the concept of the adverb in 13 above and that of the absolute object in 21 above. Just like the absolute object, the object of purpose is an indefinite noun that describes the quality of the action of the verb utilized, and it always takes the case ending, as shown in the middle column in 3 above. However, the semantic function of this syntactic category aims at responding to the question “why” by indicating the rationale of the action either for causal or teleological reasons. This noun should strictly be formulated in the masdar form, i.e., the verbal noun. Unlike the absolute object in 21, the verbal noun here must not be derived from the same root or the same form of the utilized verb. The doer’s gender, number, definiteness, and case ending are all irrelevant here. The verb tense is also irrelevant.

23. A final note on this axiomatization program relates to the metaphor of “reverse engineering.” This is an intellectually sophisticated skill by which a person aims to figure out the architecture or design of a man-made product that is completely unknown to him or her. In this case, the analyzer or disassembler, often seeking to gain a commercial or military advantage, attempts to intuitively and methodically figure out the original design of the product so it can be demystified, replicated, or further advanced. Using this approach of reverse engineering, the teaching of Arabic to native speakers has traditionally insisted on mastering the skill of syntactical analysis. Syntactical analysis is, in essence, a skill of reverse engineering wherein the student attempts to pin down the inner composition of a sentence uttered or written by someone else by identifying the parts of speech and then analyzing the syntactic category and case ending of each word. Fortunately, with the treatment of verbs based on their conjugation charts, syntactical analysis has become much more simplified for foreign language students by concentrating on nouns and phrases without having to worry about how to formulate a verb. Thus, giving a full syntactical analysis is based on spelling out the following quadruple: 1- the grammatical category, e.g., predicate, 2- the case ending, which indicates the grammatical classification necessitated by the grammatical category, e.g., predicate requires the nominative, and 3- the type of noun, which determines the morphological case ending suitable for its grammatical category and case, i.e., whether it is a singular, a broken plural, a dual, a masculine sound plural, a feminine sound plural, or one of the five nouns, and 4- the definiteness of the noun, i.e., definite or indefinite. In 23.1 below is found a moderately complex example of an Arabic sentence. The syntactic analysis is provided for each word in this sentence based on the quadruple requirements mentioned above.

28 Recent Arabic grammarians have not reached a consensus on translating this syntactic category. Ryding calls it “adverbial accusative of cause or reason” (Ryding, 2005, p. 296). Alhawary calls it “adverb of cause” (Alhawary, 2011, p. 165), Schulz calls it “adverbial qualification of purpose” (Schulz, 2012, p. 153), and Sawaie chooses the literal translation “object of purpose” (Sawaie, 2014, p. 327).

29 “I studied because of a scholarship” is an example of causal reasoning since the scholarship happened before the act of studying, i.e., it caused studying. Yet, “I obtained a B.A. in order to seek a Ph.D.” is an example of teleological reasoning since the goal of a Ph.D. presumably exists after the act of obtaining a B.A. Here, the object of purpose is not precise in explaining which type of reasoning is meant since the example 22.1 can equally be translated as “She studies because of being assiduous” or “She studies in order to be assiduous.” This now becomes a semantic, not a syntactic, problem.
Following is a translation that retains the Arabic word order: “Perhaps there are in the warehouses of the two showrooms and on their lot many cars.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1- Category</th>
<th>2- Case-ending</th>
<th>3- Type of Noun</th>
<th>4- Definiteness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A particle and sister of <em>inna</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional noun</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Broken plural</td>
<td>Definite by <em>iḍāfa</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in مَخْازِنِ المَعْرِ</td>
<td></td>
<td>(في تخازن)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prepositional phrase functioning as a forwarded predicate of <em>la'alla</em></td>
<td>المعرضين:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second term of <em>iḍāfa</em></td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Dual</td>
<td>Definite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjoined noun to the <em>iḍāfa</em></td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Definite by <em>iḍāfa</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(بما)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive pronoun functioning as a second term of <em>iḍāfa</em></td>
<td>سيارات:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Back-worded subject of <em>la'alla</em></td>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>Feminine plural</td>
<td>Indefinite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Indefinite</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section Two: An Abstract Summary of Elementary Arabic Syntax

The Arabic sentence is the basic unit of propositional meaning in syntax (Al-Sāmirrāʾī, 2007, p. 13). It comes in two forms: nominal and verbal. The nominal begins with a noun, a pronoun, a demonstrative, or a prepositional phrase while the verbal begins with a verb. In complex forms, a nominal sentence may include one or more verbal sentences and vice versa. Here, we are concerned with syntactic scenarios that are simpler than those found in most complex varieties. The basic units that constitute almost all Arabic sentences are called parts of speech. These units are particles, nouns, and verbs. Verbs are characterized by tense and conjugation, nouns are derivable and without a tense, and particles lack all of these properties. Verbs are taken for granted here and will not be studied in detail since conjugation charts have a complete presentation of their varieties. The behavior of nouns and some particles, however, will be studied in further detail. Nouns come in five basic forms: 1- singular and broken plural, 2- dual, 3- masculine plural, 4- feminine plural, and 5- the five nouns. Each of the five nouns has its own tripartite identity as regards the case endings for the three cases: nominative, accusative, and genitive. The purpose of the three case endings is to identify the syntactic function of the noun in each sentence.

The minimum structure of a nominal sentence requires two pillars, i.e., a subject and a predicate, both of which take the nominative case ending. The subject is predominantly definite, and the predicate is mostly indefinite except in a few cases. Only the predicate can be formulated in a verbal or a prepositional phrase form. In a verbal situation, the verb always follows the verbal...
conjugation charts. As for a prepositional phrase, it is composed of a preposition, and the following noun takes the genitive case ending. As regards a verbal sentence, its minimum formation consists of a verb added to its explicit doer. The doer can be expressed as a subject-marker within the conjugated verb itself or as an independent noun with a nominative case ending. For transitive verbs, a second noun, i.e., the object, can be added with an accusative case ending.

Thus, the general sentential pattern in Arabic is founded on one set of two pillars for the nominal sentence and a different set of two for the verbal sentence. Based on this minimum syntactic composition, additional components can be added to the pillars of both nominal and verbal sentences in line with a particular protocol. These additional components are mostly nouns from the “followers” category and *idāfa* constructions. “Followers” include conjoined nouns, adjectives, *tawkīd*, and *badal*; and they exactly match the case ending of the word to which they relate. The *idāfa* construction is formulated by adding a noun to another noun or pronoun. When the *idāfa* follows any noun, that noun takes on a status of semi-definiteness, whereby it loses its indefinite marker, *tanwīn*, while the new added noun takes the genitive case. The formula below demonstrates one of the addition possibilities of these new categories to the pillars of the verbal as well as the nominal varieties. Note that the symbols show syntactic location within the addition process with the caveat that the additional components be added separately, that is, one at a time and not all at once. If the conjoined noun is symbolized as “c” and the adjective as “a” and the *idāfa* as “id,” then we have the following two syntactic formations for nominal and verbal sentences:

1- Subject (*c, a, or id*) – Predicate (*c, a, or id*).  
2- Verb – Doer (*c, a, or id*) – Object (*c, a, or id*).

In longer and more complex sentences, the nouns already added to the two pillars of either the nominal or the verbal sentences above can have new nouns added to them. The formula below demonstrates this second-order complexity of further additions to nominal and verbal sentences. The symbols show the syntactic location of the additions, which—if represented as enclosed in parentheses—can be added to the sentence only one at a time and not all together.

3- Subject (*a*) + (*c or id*) – Predicate (*a*) + (*c or id*).  
4- Verb – Doer (*a*) + (*c or id*) – Object (*a*) + (*c or id*).

The second-order complexity in examples 3 and 4 is not the only possibility, however, for it can be further advanced to a third-order complexity of addition whereby—as seen in examples 3 and 4—an *idāfa* is added to the conjoined noun that has already been added to the adjectives belonging to either pillar of nominal or verbal sentences.

5- Subject (*a*) + (*c*) + (*id*) – Predicate (*a*) + (*c*) + (*id*).  
6- Verb – Doer (*a*) + (*c*) + (*id*) – Object (*a*) + (*c*) + (*id*).

Furthermore, only nominal sentences can be preceded by *kāna* and *inna* and their sisters. *Kāna* and its sisters make the predicate accusative. Conversely, *inna* and its sisters make the subject accusative. When this happens, the addition of the “followers” above to the two pillars of their nominal sentences will be affected accordingly. Yet, when the predicate is either a verbal or a prepositional phrase, it is not subject to any change caused by *kāna* or *inna* or one of their sisters.

7- *Kāna* – Subject (*c, a, or id*) – Accusative Predicate (*c, a, or id*).  
8- *Inna* – Accusative Subject (*c, a, or id*) – Predicate (*c, a, or id*).

Sentences preceded by *kāna* or *inna* or one of their sisters can go to second- and third-order complexities similar to those in examples 3 and 5 above. Verbal sentences, on the other hand, may contain several syntactic phenomena that are peculiar to them and never seen in nominal sentences. These include the introduction of new syntactic entities all of which take the indefinite accusative
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case ending. These new entities are added one at a time, not all together, and are symbolized in the following way: Adverb as “v,” Semi-adverb as “s,” Absolute Object as “o,” and Object of Purpose as “p.”

9- Verb – Doer – Object (v, s, o, or p).

The following table presents a summary of case-ending categories and their possibilities for inflected nouns:30

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional Noun</td>
<td>Object</td>
<td>Subject and Predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second term of 'idāfa</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Doer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predicate of kānā</td>
<td>Subject of kānā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subject of inna</td>
<td>Predicate of inna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absolute Object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Object of Purpose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Followers</th>
<th>Followers</th>
<th>Followers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conjoined Noun</td>
<td>Conjoined Noun</td>
<td>Conjoined Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badal</td>
<td>Badal</td>
<td>Badal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tawkid</td>
<td>Tawkid</td>
<td>Tawkid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Case-ending Categories and Their Possibilities for Inflected Nouns

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References


30 For similar charts, see (Hassanein, 2006, p. 10) and (Ryding, 2005, pp. 184–192).
al-Fikr.