

Arabic Amphibious Characters

phonetics, phonology, orthography, calligraphy and typography

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I. Summary

Contemporary Qur'ānic Orthography (CQO), introduced with the 1924 Cairo recension of the Qur'ān¹, differs from Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Ottoman Qur'ānic orthography in two respects:

1. Letters, that are missing from the basic text skeleton, are inserted in miniature form, independent of existing letter groups.
2. In combination with long vowels after glottal stop (*hamz*), a spelling principle is used that, unlike MSA or Ottoman Qur'ān orthography, does not reflect the sound shift that had originally eliminated glottal stop from Arabic.

These differences led to the addition of graphemes *between* traditional letters or letter blocks, resulting in:

- a. spellings that cannot be attested in manuscripts in the pre-typographic *naskh* script style;
- b. script structures that are not covered by computer typography, forcing improvised solutions and tweaking of the Unicode² data format when reproducing the “Cairo orthography”.

Additional graphemes, that involve horizontal sequences of diacritical attachments, are identified as *amphibious letters*, because their category as letters is between skeleton letters and diacritic letters, while their position in text is between skeleton letters and not above or below them. In scholarship this category is unknown and there is no support for them in the information technology industry: there exists no unambiguous encoding norm in UNICODE. This affects text critical Qur'ānic studies and the correct typesetting of Qur'ān text.

1 This essay focuses on the 1924 spelling of the Qur'ān recension, also known as *The King Fu'ād Qur'ān*. Its spelling prevails all over the Arabic world; it is referred to here as Contemporary Qur'ānic Orthography.

2 *The Unicode Standard 5.0*, The Unicode Consortium 2007.

II. Corrective vs. supplementary diacritics

a. Basic principles of Arabic orthography

Arabic orthography is essentially morpho-phonologic. The phonologic aspect means that each phoneme is adequately rendered, without covering phonetic detail. For instance, in the phonemic opposition /ʃūrā : sūrā/, which phonetically involves more, collateral sound changes [ʃōṛā : sūra], the operative contrast is that of /ʃ:s/. This linguistic structure is precisely rendered in Arabic orthography, irrespective of redundant additional changes.

fig 1. Phonological spelling: only significant sounds are rendered.

pharyngealization	phonemic contrast	example	orthography	operative grapheme
+	/ʃ/	ʃūrā	صورة	ص
-	/s/	sūrā	سورة	س

The morphologic aspect of this morpho-phonologic principle is the strategy to retain a stable spelling for certain morphemes, i.e., grammatical particles, *irrespective* of their pronunciation. For instance, the spelling of the definite article remains 'alif-lām, even in cases where lām is absorbed into the following consonant, whose resulting gemination then expresses the article. This morphologic structure is overruled when full vowelism is in place: *al-šams* becomes phonologic š-šams الشمس.

fig 2. Morphologic spelling: not the sound, but the morpheme is rendered.

assimilation	morpheme	example	orthography	operative graphemes
+	{l-}	š-šams	الشمس	ال
-	{l-}	l-qamar	القمر	ال

In most cases orthography applies the phonologic principle also on morphemes. That means that it reflects the assimilations if they produce another standard phoneme. E.g., the inserted morpheme {-t-} in the participle of measure VIII muC¹{-t-}aC²aC³ of the verb:

fig 3. Phonologic spelling: not the morpheme, but the sound is rendered.

assimilation	morpheme	allomorph	orthography	operative grapheme
+	{-t-}	t: <i>muṣṭafà</i>	مصطفى	ط
-	{-t-}	t: <i>murtaḏà</i>	مرضى	ت

The 1924 Cairo recension presents exhaustive phonetic detail not known from Ottoman Qur’āns, based on North African manuscript practice. The resulting orthography, fully vowelled and can be considered phonetic.

fig 4. Phonetic spelling: semantically redundant sound detail is rendered.

assimilation	morpheme	example	orthography	operative grapheme(s)
-	{-n}	Q34:23 <i>hudà-n ’aw</i>	هُدَىٰ أَوْ	ّ
+	{-n}	Q2:97 <i>hudà- wa</i>	وَهُدَىٰ وَ	ّ
+	{-n}	Q2:38 <i>hudà- fa man</i>	هُدَىٰ فَمَنْ	ّ
+	{-n}	Q2:2 <i>hudà-l li l-muttaqīna</i>	هُدَىٰ لِّلْمُتَّقِينَ	ّّ
+	{-n}	Q22:67 <i>hudà-m mustaqīmi-n</i>	هُدَىٰ مُّسْتَقِيمٍ	ّّ

b. Corrective diacritics

Arabic orthography is very consistent, but in the transmission of the Qur’ān a few cases of allophonic spelling have slipped in. Their numbers are limited, but the way they are corrected show the principle of superimposed *corrective diacritics* in Arabic grapheme structure. Corrective diacritics are placed above or below the erroneous letter without affecting the skeleton.

fig 5. Allophonic spelling, corrected by superscripted miniature:

assimilation	allophone	example	orthography	operative diacritic
+	[ʃ]	<i>baṣṭā</i> Q7:69	بَصَّطَة	س̣
-	[s]	<i>baṣṭā</i> Q2:247	بَسَّطَة	س

fig 6. Syllabic assimilation, corrected by subscripted miniature:

assimilation	allophone	example	orthography	operative diacritic
+	[ʃ]	<i>l-muṣayṭirūna</i> Q52:37	المُصَيِّطِرُونَ	س̣
-	[s]	<i>l-muṣayṭirūna</i> MSA	المُصَيِّطِرُونَ	س

This last misspelling, a single case, candidly confirms that RICHARD S. HARRELL's *phonetic analysis of Egyptian Radio Arabic*³, where he observes that though the minimum unit of pharyngealisation is a single syllable but that adjacent syllables are also affected, must have been valid for a much earlier stage of Arabic.

c. Supplementary diacritics

In a limited number of cases letters were really lost in transmission. These are discretely supplemented by means of an inline miniature of the missing letter. The *supplementary diacritic* occurs in two distinct graphic environments, the *continuous* and the *discontinuous* one. In the discontinuous case the inserted character can simply be placed between interrupted letters. In the continuous case, the supplementary diacritic, being a missing letter, needs to be accommodated between skeleton letters, sometimes even carrying its own diacritic. In either situation, these corrections are illustrations of *amphibious letters*.

3 Harvard University Press 1960.

fig 7. Inserting an amphibious letter between interrupted letters:

transcription	MSA	defective CQO	supplement
<i>ilāfihim</i> Q106:2	إِلَافِهِمْ	إِءِلَفِهِمْ	ے

fig 8. Inserting an amphibious letter between uninterrupted letters:

transcription	MSA	defective CQO	supplement
<i>li yasu'û</i> Q17:7	لِيسُوا	لِيسُوا	و

fig 9. Inserting an amphibious letter in final position:

transcription	MSA	defective CQO	supplement
<i>yastahyī</i> Q2:26	يَسْتَحِي	يَسْتَحِي	ے



A unique example is the missing *nūn* in *sūrā al-anbiyā'*. In an apparent inconsistency, the meticulous Cairo recension omits *sukūn* on top of the corrective miniature:  corresponding with  as can be found in Ottoman codices. The omission is, however, perfectly in line with the Cairo recension because it uses *ḥarakāt*, vowel diacritics, to express *tağwīd*, phonetical detail. Omitting *sukūn* is a device to represent the phonetic, and therefore semantically neutral, assimilation between the phoneme /n/ and following dental consonants.

fig 10. Inserting an amphibious letter between uninterrupted letters:

transcription	MSA	defective CQO	supplement
<i>nunġī</i> Q21:88	نُنْجِي	نُنْجِي	ن

III. Glottal stop: amphibious *hamzā* replaces archaic *alef*

Regarding the spelling of the glottal stop in Arabic, W. WRIGHT, in his seminal *Grammar of the Arabic Language*⁴, describes the *hamzā* rule that to this day is taught everywhere as...

“...a convenient formula [that] cannot well be improved upon without reference to the history of the Arabic language and writing, a consideration that may lay quite beyond the scope of the native systematic grammarians, to whose methods of exposition this work, for good practical reasons, is closely conformed. But from a historical point of view when we consider the cases where hēmza is expressed by ؤ, ئ, or by ء alone without a *kursī*, or supporting letter, we must distinguish between two pronunciations—that indicated by the consonants alone, which in the oldest times were written without any supplementary signs, and that indicated by the later points, such as ء. It is known that the people of the Ḥiǧāz in the time of Mohammed gave up the original guttural sound of hēmza in very many cases where the other Arabs still preserved it. Now the rules of Arabic orthography were mainly fixed by the Ḳorʿān, which was originally written down in the Ḥiǧāz in accordance with the local pronunciation. This pronunciation did not ultimately prevail over the Arabic area, but the old orthography could not lightly be tampered with, having the character of a sacred tradition. The first scribes wrote جاك, جيت, بوس⁵ because they said *bawusa*, *ǧīta*, *ǧāka* (or nearly so). The pronunciation, however, that prevailed was *baʿusa*, *ǧiʿta*, *ǧāʿaka* and this was expressed, without touching the old consonants, by writing بُوُس, جِئْت, بَءَاك. Rules for writing hēmza as ؤ, ئ, or ء are therefore really rules for preserving the old guttural ʾ, in cases where it was already lost or transformed by the first scribes of the Ḳorʿān.” (note to §134)

This quote, which is still representative of linguistic thinking among the majority of Arabists, explains that *A Grammar of the Arabic Language* is consciously unhistoric, in order to follow traditional grammarians as closely as possible. What then follows is a brief sketch where two consecutive phases in the development of Arabic pronunciation are presented as synchronous

4 First edition 1859, an expanded English translation of C.P. CASPARI’s *Grammatik der arabischen Sprache für akademische Vorlesungen*, 1844-48.

5 Sic! Typographic limitations may have precluded the use of letters “without any supplementary signs”: جاك, حب, بوس.

instead of diachronous. The scenario, where later scribes corrected—and thus changed—what would have been the Prophet’s very own Arabic, is so contradictory to the claim of uninterrupted, unchanged oral transmission of the Qur’ān, that it needs to be treated with scepticism.

An important part of this account is that “the old orthography could not lightly be tampered with, having the character of a sacred tradition”. It implies that, though *could* be tampered with, it was mainly sacred. Today, Islamic calligraphy represents that sacred tradition in writing, focusing on the perfect image of the word, whereas Contemporary Qur’ānic Orthography continues the oral tradition, focusing on phonetic detail of the pronunciation.

In the evolution of Arabic orthography, the letter (diacritic) *hamzā* was a late addition. It only appeared after the introduction of vowels (which in turn appear later than the consonant disambiguation points). This is why *hamzā* and the letters that are composed with it are not counted in the traditional presentation of the Arabic alphabet as 28 letters.

In non-classical Arabic, the glottal stop, which in Semitic alphabets was always written with *’alif*, has disappeared except in word-initial position. The glottal stop had been subjected to a sound-shift according to the following pattern⁶:

fig 11. The sound shift that removes Arabic glottal stop in non-initial position

sound shift of glottal stop	example	reconstructed → Qur’ānic
a’ → ā	<i>ra’s</i> → <i>rās</i>	* راس → راس
i’ → ī	<i>bi’r</i> → <i>bīr</i>	* بار → بر
u’ → ū	<i>bu’s</i> → <i>būs</i>	* باس → بوس
u’ū → ū	<i>ru’ūs</i> → <i>rūs</i>	* راوس → روس

6 adapted from W. FISCHER, *Grammatik des klassischen Arabisch*, §14

sound shift of glottal stop	example	reconstructed → Qur'ānic
a'a → ā	sa'al → sāl	* سال → سال
u'ā → uwā	su'āl → suwāl	* سوال → سوال
ā'i → āyi	qā'im → qāyim	* قام → قام
ī' → iyy	ḥaṭī'ā → ḥaṭiyyā	* حطه → حطاه
C' → C (final)	bad' → bad	* دد → ددا
C' → C (non-final)	mas'alā → masalā	* مساله → مساله
w' → ww	saw'ā → sawwā	* سواه → سواه
ā' → ā	samā' → samā	* سما → سما
y' → yy	barī' → bariyy	* رری → رری
ū' → ū	sū' → sū	* سوا → سوا

In the postulated Arabic spelling of the non-classical examples in the table, 'alif is used for glottal stop throughout. On the other hand, the long vowel /ā/ is not spelled with 'alif in the reconstructed forms. The combination of these two deviations accounts for spellings like * قام for qā'im (while qāma is spelled * قو). The asterisk in front indicates that such forms are postulated and not necessarily attested, though DR G.-R. PUN has found such cases in early Qur'ān manuscripts. E.g., a trace of this orthography can be seen in archaic Qur'ān manuscripts where qāla is spelled قل. The sound change ra's → rās caused 'alif to be interpreted as /ā/ instead of /ʾ/: راس. That change introduced a new value for 'alif, that may account for the transition from spellings like قل to spellings like قال for qāla. Such variations suggest that orthography was still in flux when the Qur'ān was put in writing.

Another case of possible internal evidence is *bura'a'u* (Q60:4) CQO بُرَاءُ, MSA بُرَاءُ. The underlying structures are بروا [BRW A] and بر [BR A] respectively, from where a shift *bura'a'u* → *burāwu* → *burā'* can be postulated. The /w/, which takes the place of elided /ʔ/ if there is an adjacent rounded vowel /u/ or /ū/, suggests that final vowels were still pronounced at the time of the disappearance of glottal stop: بروا. The later spelling which reintroduces glottal stop with a new, unambiguous diacritic grapheme, is based on an elided terminal vowel, hence there is no longer a *wāw* in the skeleton word: بر.

A sound shift caused by loss of glottal stop is a common linguistic phenomenon. Depending on the phonetic context, the glottal stop either disappears or is replaced by a glide- or geminating an existing glide-between the surrounding adjacent vowels. A close parallel of this mechanism can be seen in spoken Dutch, where glottal stop /ʔ/ is replaced by the glide /w/ with a neighbouring rounded vowel and by the glide /y/ with a neighbouring unrounded vowel:⁷

fig 12. Analogous case: the disappearance of glottal stop in Dutch phonology

roundedness	sound shift	Dutch in orthography	histrionic → colloquial
+	ʔ → w	<i>doet u het</i>	dútü'ət → dütüwət
-	ʔ → y	<i>doet hij het</i>	dúti'ət → dútiyət

Incidentally, the same example also parallels the disappearance of glottal stop after consonant in the sequence t'ü→tü (*dút'ü'ət → dütü'ət) and t'i→ti, (*dút'i'ət → dúti'ət) analogous to C' → C in the Arabic table above. Non-classical and Classical Arabic today still exist side by side like histrionic and colloquial Dutch, in the form of MSA and spoken Arabic. Therefore the archaic deglottalized and the classic reglottalized forms both survive in modern (colloquial vs. standard) Arabic.

Classical Arabic orthography, to which MSA orthography essentially con-

7 Cf. *Fonologie van het Nederlands en het Fries*, A. COHEN, C.L. EBELING, K. FOKKEMA, A.G.F VAN HOLK, 's Gravenhage 1971, Hoofdstuk IV, De distributie der fonemen. In Dutch glottal stop /ʔ/ is marginal and not listed as a phoneme in the quoted study, but on page 86 of this chapter on phoneme distribution an interesting clue is given: /h/ cannot occur before /ə/. Therefore, when the vowel of the unaccented definite neutral article *het* /hət/ is reduced from /ɛ/ → /ə/, then /h/ is dropped—and in initial position automatically replaced with /ʔ/.

forms, is built on top of these evolved forms by means of a corrective diacritic that reinstates the lost glottal stop.

One can surmise that a correction or reversal by reintroducing 'alif as the letter for glottal was no longer feasible, because:

1. 'alif was now wide-spread use to represent /ā/, and
2. 'alif's place inside words had been taken by successors in the form of the glide letters W and Y.

Consequently a new solution was created, not in the form of a letter, but in the form of a diacritic. It is placed above or below the replacement glide letters (corrective diacritic), or inline when the glottal stop disappeared without trace (suppletive diacritics). The resulting hybrid orthography can be illustrated with the same examples as used above:

fig 13. Glottal stop is reintroduced on top of or between letters

example	'alif as glottal stop	glottal stop replaced or lost	superimposed or inserted hamzā
<i>ra's</i> → <i>rās</i>	* راس	راس	رأس
<i>bi'r</i> → <i>bīr</i>	* بار	بر	بئر
<i>bu's</i> → <i>būs</i>	* باس	بوس	بؤس
<i>ru'ūs</i> → <i>rūs</i>	* راوس	روس	رءوس
<i>sa'al</i> → <i>sāl</i>	* سال	سال	سأل
<i>su'al</i> → <i>suwāl</i>	* سال	سوال	سؤال
<i>qā'im</i> → <i>qāyim</i>	* قام	قام	قامم
<i>ḥaṭī'ä</i> → <i>ḥaṭiyä</i>	* حطاه	حطه	خطية

example	'alif as glottal stop	glottal stop replaced or lost	superimposed or inserted <i>hamzä</i>
<i>bad'</i> → <i>bad</i>	* بدا	بد	بدء
<i>mas'alä</i> → <i>masalä</i>	* مساله	مسله	مسئلة
<i>saw'ä</i> → <i>sawwä</i>	* سواه	سوه	سوءة
<i>samä'</i> → <i>samä</i>	* سما	سما	سماء
<i>bari'</i> → <i>bariyy</i>	* ربا	رى	برىء
<i>sū'</i> → <i>sū</i>	* سوا	سو	سوء

Traces of the postulated spelling of glottal stop as shown in the table above are encountered in the corpus of surviving early manuscripts. But even the CQO of the Cairo recension preserves some fascinating examples⁸:

fig 14. Doublets evidence phonological evolution of Arabic

example	'alif as glottal stop	glottal stop replaced or lost	superimposed or inserted <i>hamzä</i>
<i>l-mala'u</i> / <i>l-malawu</i>	المَلَأُ	الملا → الملو*	المَلُؤُ
<i>l-mala'i</i> / <i>l-malāyi</i>	المَلَأِ	الملا → مليه*	مَلَأِيهْ
<i>mala'ahu</i> / <i>malāhu</i>	مَلَأَهُ	ملاه = ملاه	مَلَأَهُ

المَلُؤُ occurs 12 times: Q7:60, Q7:66, Q7:75, Q7:88, Q7:90, Q7:109, Q7:128, Q11:27, Q12:43, Q23:33, Q28:38, Q38:6.

8 The 'alif preceding or following the modern spellings are discussed in DR. GERD-R. PUN, *Vowel Letters and Ortho-epic Writing in the Qur'an in The Qur'an in Its Historical Context 2*, ed. Gabriel S. Reynolds, Routledge 2009, forthcoming.

اللَّامِ occurs 3 times : Q2:248; Q37:8, Q38:69.

مَلَأَهُ occurs once : Q10:88.

اللَّوْأُ occurs 4 times: Q23:24, Q27:29, Q27:32, Q27:28.

مَلَأِيهِ occurs 6 times : Q7:103, Q10:75, Q11:97, Q23:46, Q28:32, Q43:46

This single example already shows that perceiving *hamzā* spellings as traces of diachronic development of the Arabic language opens new perspectives for Qur'an text analysis. The listing of locations reveals that the old, glottalized spellings occur in different *sūrah*'s than the deglottalized spellings with added corrective *hamzā*, which theoretically could lead to different datings.

IV. Amphibious *hamzä* in information technology

The position of this new *hamzä* in the form of a miniature head of ‘*ayn* is analogous to that of the first generation vowel markers, i.e., the environment where it first emerged. First generation vowel markers shared a single, usually red, round shape positioned above, below or within the main script depending on its meaning /a/, /u/or /i/ (*one* shape, *three* positions, unlike modern vowel diacritics, which have *two* shapes and *two* positions, see Plate 1). Modern *hamzä* still follows this same archaic pattern: it occurs above, below or in line with the main script (see Plate 2). When a grapheme is positioned in line between skeleton elements, it can be called *amphibious*: in-between, to distinguish it from a diacritic that is placed above or below a main letter.

Of the three possible positions of *hamzä* the ones above or below the *rasm* or text skeleton are today encoded as composites consisting of a long vowel letter (‘*alif*, *yā*, ‘*wāw*) with an integrated miniature *hamzä*. This procedure does not acknowledge the historical threefold positioning of *hamzä*, but at least it produces workable results. However, the analogy with first generation vowel positioning means that standalone *hamzä* is, like archaic *ḍammā*, positioned within the script line, irrespective of the connections of the surrounding letters. Moreover, amphibious letters can occur with their own diacritics, e.g., مَسْأَلَةٌ *mas’alä*, which would look unacceptable with superscript *hamzä*: مَسْأَلَةٌ.

fig 15. Erroneous encoding concepts lead to stacking of amphibious characters

transcription	wrong: vertical alignment	correct: horizontal alignment
<i>mas’alä</i>	مَسْأَلَةٌ	مَسْأَلَةٌ

This behaviour is not explicitly covered by grammars of the Arabic language. Unicode, the modern industry standard for text encoding in the context of global computing, inherited this flaw in its definition of contextual character behaviour. All modern software and fonts are based on this standard and consequently do not handle amphibious letters, when they are written between two connected letters. As a result, with the present Unicode specifications for typographic behaviour, Contemporary Qur’ān Orthography can not be rendered on screen or printed without unpredictable non-standard adjustments. The reason is that Unicode defines the contextual behaviour

of 0621 ARABIC LETTER HAMZA as “non-joining”⁹. In practice, this only describes the behaviour of amphibious *hamzā* when it is positioned between two *non-joining* letters. The inline positioning between connected forms is supposed to be handled by a special superscript *hamzā* and the insertion of a supporting elongation bar, the so-called *taṭwīl*. This elongation, however, also known as *keşide* (Persian → Turkish) cannot be used for spelling of words in Arabic script, since it is subject to positioning constraints that vary from style to style and hence from typeface to typeface: a simple font change could literally pull the carpet from a word constructed in this manner.

The following table shows how two words that are grammatically identical and that need to be spelled analogously (*bad'a-n* and *şay'a-n*), cannot be handled correctly when amphibious *hamzā* is positioned between two *joining* letters. They share the same pattern C¹aC²C³ (where C³ is a glottal stop).

fig 16. Non-joining in middle position:

transcription	accidentally correct presentation	correct
<i>bad'a-n</i>	بَدَّءَا	بَدَّءَا

fig 17. Joining in middle position:

transcription	structural misrepresentation	correct
<i>şay'a-n</i> Q2:48	شَيَّءَا	شَيَّءَا

Another very common case is amphibious *hamzā* in word-initial position, whenever a single-consonant word (*li, la, bi, ka*, etc.) is prefixed:

fig 18. Non-joining word-initial position:

transcription	accidentally correct presentation	correct
<i>āyā</i> Q2:106	ءَايَا	ءَايَا

⁹ Though the UNICODE standard assigns code point to ARABIC HAMZA ABOVE (U+0654) and ARABIC HAMZA BELOW (U+0654), these cannot be used unambiguously to encode amphibious *hamzā*.

This spelling with initial amphibious *hamzä* is not known in MSA, but it is a frequent feature of modern Qurʾān orthography. When a single-letter morpheme or the article is prefixed to it, it cannot be reproduced with modern editing or typesetting standards:

fig 19. Joining word-initial position:

transcription	structural misrepresentation	correct
<i>la ʿāyā</i> Q2:248	لْآيَةِ	لَايَةٍ

The explanation is that MSA spelling rules out amphibious *hamzä* in initial position. Instead the *ʿalif-maddä* combination is used. It has been observed that even seasoned Western scholars don't recognize this spelling and consider it a typesetting or spelling error. They read, e.g., Q2:4 الْآخِرِ *al-ʿāḥir* (with long /ā/) as if it were الْأَخِرِ *al-ʿaḥir* (with erroneous short /a/), because they expect this long /ā/ to be spelled with *lām-ʿalif-maddä* as الْآخِرِ.

long /ā/ = الْآخِرِ

short /a/ = الْأَخِرِ

The observed defect in the treatment of *hamzä* can no longer be corrected by generically changing the contextual behaviour of the Unicode 0621 ARABIC LETTER HAMZA, because the Arabic Block in Unicode is shared by all Arabic-scripted languages, some of which depend on non-joining *hamzä*. For instance in Persian there is a secondary, non-Arabic character that is indeed non-joining. Therefore it might even be necessary to introduce a new character ARABIC LETTER AMPHIBIOUS HAMZA in order to safeguard Classical Arabic Orthography and Contemporary Qurʾān Orthography in Unicode. An elegant alternative would be a language-dependent switch to change non-joining *hamzä* in a non-Arabic context and into amphibious *hamzä* in an Arabic context. This switch would not need to distinguish between Qurʾānic and modern Arabic. In Arabic proper, *hamzä* is always amphibious—though in MSA it is no longer used between continuous letters. In fact, the technical constraints introduced by computerized Arabic that are analysed in this essay made the use of prescribed amphibious *hamzä* impossible. As a result the spellings are rounded off to the nearest available characters, e.g., *šayʿa-n šaynā* becomes شَيْئًا. However, for *la ʿāyā* لْآيَةِ there is simply no solution without the category of amphibious letters. As a result, integral treatment of the Qurʾān in CQO in a digital environment remains impossible.

V. Cautionary *maddä*

Modern grammars usually describe *maddä* as an orthographic device to avoid repetition of 'alif when one 'alif represents the glottal stop and one represents the long vowel /ā/, whatever the order. E.g. 'āhir is not written *أأخر but آخر. However, in CQO the function of *maddä* is radically different than in MSA.

The first context is, when in CQO a glottal stop follows or precedes a long vowel, the glottal stop is never written with an 'alif, instead it is placed inline as an amphibious letter, unless surrounding vowels require a *hamzä on wāw* or *yā'* to be used. Therefore, unlike in MSA, theoretical sequences with double 'alif involving the glottal stop, i.e., أأ or أأ cannot occur in CQO. As a result, the *maddä* as rotated mini 'alif does not exist in CQO. Instead, *maddä* is given a totally different task, here called *cautionary*, in two distinct contexts.

The first is when a long syllable is followed by a long, i.e., geminated consonant, e.g., ^أأَحْجُونِي *a-tu-ḥāğ-ğün-nī*, with two instances marked: *āğ-ğ* and *ün-n*.

fig 20. Cautionary *maddä* to mark doubly long syllable¹⁰:

transcription	CQO	MSA
<i>a tuḥāğğünnī</i> Q6:70	أَحْجُونِي	أَحْجُونِي

The second context for cautionary *maddä* is when a long vowel, /ā/, /ī/ or /ū/ is followed by a glottal stop. In that case, irrespective of the spelling of the long vowel, and across word and sentence boundaries, a *maddä* is placed over it.

fig 21. Cautionary *maddä* to mark word-internal glottal stop after long vowel:

/ā'u/	<i>hā'ulā'i</i> Q2:31	هَؤُلَاءِ
/ā'i/	<i>qittā'ihā</i> Q2:61	قِتَائِهَا

10 Instead of "cautionary" this use could also be called ortho-epic.

/ā'u/	<i>bura'a'u</i> Q60:4	بُرءَاؤُ
/ī'a/	<i>hanī'a-n</i> Q4:4	هَنِيَا
/ī'a/	<i>marī'a-n</i> Q4:4	مَرِيَا
/ū'u/	<i>sū'u-n</i> Q3:124	سُوءُ

fig 22. Cautionary *maddä* to mark glottal stop across merged word boundaries:

/ā 'a/	<i>yā 'ayyuhā</i> Q2:21	يَايَا
/ā 'u/	<i>yā 'ulī</i> Q2:179	يَاوُلِي
/ā 'i/	<i>yā 'ibrāhīmu</i> Q11:76	يَاإِبْرَاهِيمُ
/ā 'ā/	<i>yā 'ādamu</i> Q7:19	يَاآدَمُ

fig 23. Cautionary *maddä* to mark glottal stop across independent word boundaries:

/ā 'u/	<i>mā 'undirū</i> Q18:56	مَاأَنْذِرُوا
/ā 'a/	'alā 'aktarihīm Q36:7	عَلَىٰ أَكْثَرِهِمْ
/ī 'a/	<i>fī 'amrī</i> Q28:32	فِي أَمْرِي
/ī 'a/	<i>yastahyī 'an</i> Q2:26	يَسْتَحْيِي ۚ أَنْ
/ī 'i/	<i>mawtihī 'illā</i> Q34:14	مَوْتِهِ ۚ إِلَّا
/ū 'a/	<i>fa qālū 'a nu'minu</i> Q23:37	فَقَالُوا أَلَمْ نُؤْمِنُ

/ū 'a/ *rabbuhū 'aslim* Q2:131

رَبُّهُوَ اسْلِمٌ

/ū 'a/ *takūnū 'aqsamtum* Q14:44

تَكُونُوا اَقْسَمْتُمْ

Cairo orthography, or CQO, consequently and consistently uses *maddā* in this cautionary role.¹¹ To avoid confusion with spellings for glottal stop, a different spelling is adopted for the latter throughout.

11 There is one secondary function of *maddā* in CQO, namely to mark the so-called mysterious letters at the beginning of many sūrās.

VI. Glottal stop before long vowels

The Cairo orthography tends to write glottal stop before long vowel without a chair, regardless the underlying sound change. In the case of glottal stop before /ā/, it is amphibious in all positions. Some examples:

fig 24. Amphibious *hamzä* for initial glottal stop before /ā/

example	CQO	MSA	operative sequence
'ābā'uhum Q2:170	ءَابَاؤُهُمْ	آبَاؤُهُمْ	'ā
'ādama Q2:31	ءَادَمَ	آدَمَ	'ā

fig 25. Amphibious *hamzä* before /ā/ across morpheme boundary

example	CQO	MSA	operative sequence
li 'ābā'ihim Q18:5	لِأَبَائِهِمْ	لِآبَائِهِمْ	ā
yā 'ādamu Q7:19	يَاأَدَمَ	يَاآدَمَ	ā
l-'āna Q4:18	أَنَا	آنَا	ā

fig 26. Amphibious *hamzä* for word-internal initial glottal stop before /ā/

example	CQO	MSA	operative sequence
l-qur'ānu Q2:185	الْقُرْآنُ	آلْقُرْآنُ	'ā
z-ẓam'ānu Q24:39	الظَّمَانُ	آلظَّمَانُ	'ā
bura'a'u Q60:4	بُرءَاؤُ	بُرءَاءُ	'ā

In the case of glottal stop before /ū/, it is usually amphibious in non-initial-position. Some examples:

fig 27. Amphibious *hamzä* for word-internal initial glottal stop before /ū/

example	CQO	MSA	operative sequence
<i>ya'ūduhu</i> : Q2:55	يُودُهُ	يُودُهُ	'ū
<i>mas'ūla-n wa</i> Q17:34	مَسْؤُلَاو	مَسْؤُلَاو	'ū
<i>ṣ-ṣābi'ūna</i> Q5:69	الصَّبُونِ	الصَّابُونِ	'ū
<i>li yasū'ū</i> Q17:7	لِيَسُؤُوا	لِيَسُؤُوا	'ū
<i>yastanbi'ūnaka</i> Q53:10	يَسْتَنْبِئُكَ	يَسْتَنْبِئُكَ	'ū
<i>bari'ūna</i> Q10:41	بَرِيُونِ	بَرِيُونِ	'ī

In the case of glottal stop before /ī/, it is usually amphibious in non-initial-position. Some examples:

fig 28. Amphibious *hamzä* for word-internal initial glottal stop before /ī/

example	CQO	MSA	operative sequence
<i>l-lā'ī</i> Q33:4	أَلَّى	أَلَلَّيْ	'ī
<i>muttaki'īna</i> Q38:51	مُتَّكِينِ	مُتَّكِينِ	'ī
<i>la hāṭi'īna</i> Q12:91	لِحَاطِينِ	لِحَاطِينِ	'ī
<i>ṣ-ṣābi'īna</i> Q2:62	الصَّبِينِ	الصَّابِينِ	'ī
<i>hāsi'īna</i> Q2:65	حَسِينِ	حَاسِينِ	'ī

As can be observed in all these examples, the tight traditional letter blocks and the high density of superscript diacritics characteristic for later Qur'āns make amphibious characters very difficult to accommodate in pre-typographic *naskh* script.

VII. Amphibious letters in the calligraphic tradition

The contextual behaviour of amphibious *hamzä* in the calligraphic tradition is regular and straightforward: it is always placed between the preceding and following letter, where necessary over the middle of the connection¹² – even if the line is very short¹³. However, in the orthography expressed by pre-typographic *naskh* script, amphibious *hamzä* was relatively rare. Clashes between spelling rules and script rules are theoretically impossible, as it is claimed that calligraphy is primarily cultivated to preserve the text of the Qurʾān.

The examples below show a number of instances where later Cairo orthography clashes with calligraphic rules in the treatment of final and non-final amphibious *hamzä* between connected letters. When reproducing the computerized graphemic content of the 1924 Cairo edition with computer-synthesized *naskh* script, a small number of unexpected results were encountered. The same spellings, when typeset with the 1924 metal typeface, designed especially for this Qurʾān, appeared not to be problematic. To understand the cause of the unexpected clashes, a comparison with other codices was made.

a. *l-ʾāna*





In verse Q4:18 of the Cairo edition, the word *l-ʾāna* is spelled with a cluster of four superscript graphemic attachments, [sukūn] [amphibious *hamzä*] [fathā] [amphibious *ʾalif*]. This cluster is the result of the spelling rule, characteristic of the Cairo edition, that glottal stop is written with amphibious *hamzä* when it is followed by long vowel.

ألْءَنَّ أَلْءَنَّ أَلْءَنَّ Every grapheme of this word is present in Unicode,

12 This rules out the use of Unicode 0654 ARABIC HAMZA ABOVE because that character is designed to combine with the preceding letter.

13 In the typographic approach, but also sometimes in pre-typographic calligraphy, the connecting line is often lengthened to create more room for the amphibious *hamzä*. However, the lengthening of a connecting line, or *keşide*, is subject to calligraphic constraints that are usually respected by sophisticated typography. Moreover, some calligraphic styles (notably *ruqʿā*) and the typography emulating them do not elongate connecting lines. This fact rules out standardizing the use of Unicode 0654 ARABIC HAMZA ABOVE over the connecting element 0640 ARABIC TATWEEEL. In other words, elongation of letters is not graphemic and therefore not available for orthographic purposes.

but the industry does not design Arabic fonts to handle such character sequences.




The rules of *naskh*, the style of choice for rendering Ottoman Qurʾān, do not allow elongation of *lām*¹⁴, with the exception of a small number of well-defined cases. As a result computer-generated *naskh* built on this analysis produces a correctly shaped text skeleton, but with an ugly stack of attachments. Where the typographical writing of the 1924 Cairo edition uses a spacious skeleton base , the calligraphic constraints of *naskh* allow only a very tight connection  that cannot accommodate the total of six superscript attachments of the second *letter block*¹⁵. Unlike the Cairo typography, in *naskh* calligraphy no elongation between initial *lām* and final *nūn* can be attested¹⁶. It must therefore be ruled out.

Ottoman codices, use a different spelling for the word *l-ʾāna*, that does not conflict with calligraphic patterns¹⁷.

14 In building this computer synthesis of traditional *naskh*, care was taken only to implement script-grammatical rules that were attested in manuscripts from a selected corpus of *naskh* calligraphy in the style of the Ottoman school.

15 Letter block: in calligraphy, this is the smallest unit of writing. It consists of a single letter or an uninterrupted group of connecting letters. Script grammar of the specific calligraphy style determines the appropriate shape of a syntagm. The letter block is also the minimum unit of Arabic typography.

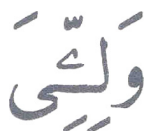
16 Only in one instance (Q10:51), Ruṣḍi Efendi makes an exception to this apparent rule, to accommodate for the same spelling (with in miniature the instruction *bi maddi-n*

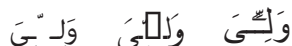
wa tashīli-n (بمد وتشهيل: , corresponding to Egyptian . The common elements are [A LN] , the remainder of the graphemes, including *hamzā*, are superimposed on the basis of annotation systems that are not synchronised with the rules of the chosen script style.



17 *al-Qurʾān al-Karīm*, handwritten by the calligrapher AL-HĀĠĠ ĤĀFIZ MUḤAMMAD AMĪN RUṢDĪ AFANDI (for Turkish: Efendi), 1218/1803, reprint 1370/1951, Baghdad. This was one of the Ottoman codices of the corpus studied to develop the DecoType *naskh* simulator that led to the analysis presented in this essay.

b. *walīyiya*

The supplement of the 1924 edition contains a section about the use of miniature letters: they are inserted where “essential letters were missing in the ‘*Uṭmānī* codices”¹⁸. It gives a number of examples, one of which happened to show irregular results when printed with computer-generated, regular *naskh*:

 The word *walīyiya* “my protector” (Q7:196) consists of the elements *walīy* “protector” and the suffix *-ī(iya)*¹⁹ “my”. The skeleton consists of three letters: [WLY]. In miniature, a missing amphibious *yā'* is added including its own reduplication mark, *šaddā*, and its own subscript vowel *i*, *kasrā*: *walīy-iya*.

 Every grapheme of this word is present in Unicode, there is even a code for elongation. Most font designers do not include the exclusively letters, like amphibious *yā'*. The unicode character is present in the data, but absent in the font, and by default printed as .

From such same text code, computer-synthesized, rule-based *naskh* – which is programmed to suppress illegal elongation²⁰ – generates a letter block  [LY] that is too tight to accommodate the total of one amphibious, two superscript and two subscript attachments. By contrast, the 1924 Cairo edition is mechanically produced with a stretched skeleton base  that breaks traditional script rules. But in this manner provides the necessary room to accommodate the big payload of graphemic attachments.

When comparing the same passage in other codices, variant spellings of such problematic words are encountered. These illustrate the different ways that calligraphers have solved the same problem.

18 *al-Muṣḥaf aš-Šarīf*, Būlāq 1342/1924, page *yā'*. The name Osman or ‘*Uṭmān* refers to the third caliph, who reportedly suppressed the proliferation of variant Qur’āns.

19 The possessive pronominal suffix, 1st person singular *ī*, followed by a binding vowel *a*, c.f. *Grammatik des klassischen Arabisch*, WOLFDIETRICH FISCHER, Wiesbaden 1972, §268, Anmerkung 2.

20 Incompatible elongation in fonts that emulate traditional styles is normalized or ignored by DecoType ACE’s Trashide® technology that drives this *naskh* model.

The 19th century masterpiece of Ottoman Calligraphy by ELHAÇ HAFIZ MEHMED EMİN RÜŞDİ EFENDİ²¹ adds a second letter *yā'* to the main letter group: [WLYY]. In *naskh*, the curve preceding final *yā'* is a distinct letter: here it represents the penultimate form of medial *yā'*.

A recent Turkish Qur'ān in the Ottoman tradition²² adds the correction to [WLY] in an unusual and subtle manner by placing a double point under the – swashed – final *yā'*. This is remarkable, because in Ottoman writing *yā'* never gets dots in final position. Therefore the dots are a clear hint at the missing *yā'* in middle position). Moreover, there are vowels for four consonants, while the skeleton contains only three : [WLY].

An Indian Qur'ān²³ solves this calligraphic conundrum elegantly within the calligraphic constraints. It should be noted that it adds the missing *yā'* in superscript final position instead of in the middle of the letter group.

A recent North African edition²⁴ also writes the missing *yā'* into the main text skeleton: [WLYY]. The resulting spelling does not conflict with calligraphic rules. Typical for North African writing, the extra inverted curve preceding final *yā'* is part of the same final *yā'*.

What makes this case interesting is that in terms of Arabic morpho-phonology, there is no letter missing. The elements *walīy* “protector” and the suffix *-ī(iya)/-ya* “my” contract into *walīya*, eliding one *yā'*²⁵. The result is the text skeleton [WLY] that is seen in practically all quoted words. The annotational marks that superimpose the form *walīy-i-ya* with an extra syllable [WLYY]

21 *al-Qur'ān al-Karīm*, 1218/1803 reprint 1370/1951, Baghdad

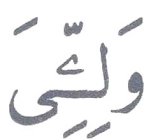
22 *Kur'ān-ı Kerīm*, by the calligrapher HAMĪD EL-ĀMĪDĪ, Istanbul 1973.

23 *The Holy Qur'ān, text, translation and commentary*, by ABDALLAH YUSUF ALI, Lahore 1934.

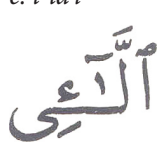

24 *al-Qur'ān al-Karīm, printed in the 'Uṭmānī skeleton text, following the reading of Imam Warš in the Moroccan-Tunisian-Algerian-African unified calligraphic style*, Dar al-Qur'ān wa l-Ḥadīṭ, Baghdad 1985

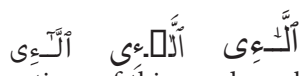
25 Since the word *walīy* ends in *y*, the suffix allomorph would be *-ya* not *-ī(iya)* according to W. WRIGHT, *A Grammar of the Arabic Language*, Cambridge-Leiden 1896, paragraph 317.


cause problems with the computer-generated *naskh*. This in turn led to the discovery of variant spellings in other recensions.

 The 1924 Cairo edition is clearly based on a comparison with older manuscripts, possibly to correct spelling deviations seen in Ottoman Turkish codices. In this case the editors decided to return to the base form [WLY]. Without annotation marks, this *rasm* can be interpreted as a grammatically correct Arabic word meaning “my protector”. It is intriguing why the editors inserted a complex correction (amphibious *yā*’, *šaddä*, *kasrā*), superimposing a grammatical form not recorded in standard grammars that is incompatible with the constraints of Persian and Ottoman calligraphy. One possible answer is that the skeleton text [WLY] reflects a version of the word, possibly *waliya*, that differs from the oral tradition which apparently has it as *waliyya*.

c. *l-lā’i*

 The word *l-lā’i* (Q33:4) also contains a letter block [LY]  that is even longer than the previous one. The long *ā* is not part of the *rasm*, instead it is written by a *fathā* on the *lām* followed by an amphibious *’alif* – which in turn is marked with a cautionary *maddā* preceding the *hamzā*. Since this *hamzā* is followed by a long vowel, in the Cairo spelling it must remain without a chair, i.e., amphibious, producing a sequence of two amphibious letters between two letters that calligraphy cannot stretched to accommodate them.

 Again, all graphemes and supporting elongations of this word can be stored in the Unicode format, but no font can render them coherently.

 As before, *naskh* script grammar rules out stretched *lām* before final *yā*’, as it has not been attested in the inspected calligraphic corpus. As a result, the *naskh* computer synthesis again generates an ugly stack of attachments, because the industry erroneously defines all the characters as non-spacing, superscript diacritics.

RÜŞDİ EFENDİ, whose work belongs to the corpus used for this *naskh computer* model, typically uses a different spelling for long *ā*: a superscript miniature 'alif followed by an 'alif in the *rasm*. Simply put, the observed complication does not occur in manuscripts, because orthography and calligraphy used to be synchronized and fine-tuned to match.

The recent Turkish codex in the Ottoman tradition by HAMÎD EL-ÂMIDÎ has the same letter block as the Cairo edition, but without breaking calligraphic integrity. Graphemes are: a single superscript miniature 'alif for *ā* and, characteristic for Ottoman orthography, subscript 'alif for long *ī*. Note the inverted order of miniature 'alif – cautionary *maddā*. In Ottoman orthography often no *waṣlā* is written on the initial 'alif. Leaving it unmarked provides the same information as *waṣlā* in modern orthography.

The Indian edition uses essentially the same spelling as HAMÎD EL-ÂMIDÎ. Note that a *sukūn* is written over the consonantal element of the final long *ī*.

d. *sta'jarta*

The word *sta'jarta* (Q28:26) contains a glottal stop, written with amphibious *hamzā*, typeset over an extra connection line.

اَسْتَعْجَرَتْ اَسْتَعْجَرَتْ اَسْتَعْجَرَتْ All graphemes and the extra connection line of this word can be stored in Unicode format, but no font can render them coherently.

Naskh rules preclude the extra connection line. Elongated letters before letters of the *ḡim* class are never seen in Ottoman *naskh*. In pre-typographic scripts they are only seen in the most archaic variants, that had long died out in Ottoman times. The only exception to the rule of cascading connection exists in *thulth*-like styles. As a result, the amphibious *hamzā* with its own *sukūn* creates an unmanageable cluster of superscript marks in computer-generated *naskh*.

Again, RÜŞDÎ EFENDÎ follows a different spelling that circumnavigates the problem of the clustering superscript marks: he writes the glottal stop with an *'alif* (as pointed out above, historically the original function of *'alif*, before *hamzä* was introduced); the *sukün* is rounded.

HAMÎD EL-ÂMÎDÎ uses the exact same spelling as Rüşdi Efendi, but *waşlâ* is omitted.

The Indian edition uses the same spelling as Hamîd el-Âmidî. Note that the *sukün* has approximately the same shape as in the Cairo edition.

The North African edition spells this word almost like the Cairo edition, but without breaking the rule of cascading *ġīm* connection. Surprisingly, this recension writes the glottal stop as an amphibious *'alif*: this use of *'alif* – amphibious or superscript – is not known from Ottoman practice. *Sukün* is omitted from this miniature *'alif*.

VIII. Conclusion

Ottoman calligraphy and Cairo orthography were developed from different perspectives as precision mechanisms to preserve the text of the Qur'ān with respect and integrity. Each of these systems consists of a subtle internal balance of rules, executed with total dedication and consistency.

Calligraphy and orthography are thus two distinct disciplines that create additional layers of precision on a meta-text level. But the underlying base text remains unaffected, while as such it stems from a different era and has its own structures. On top this *Urtext*, the Cairo orthographic mechanism meticulously fixes details that are not known from the earliest manuscripts, while the Ottoman calligraphic rule system is very different from that of the earliest used styles.

By creating a computer model of Ottoman *naskh* calligraphy and by applying it to render the Qur'ān in Cairo orthography, the author of this article discovered that these two meta-systems occasionally collide. In such cases orthographic precision takes precedence over calligraphic integrity.

It is suggested that the famous Ottoman calligrapher Aziz Efendi²⁶ was involved in typographic design work for the Cairo Qur'ān. The Cairo typeface clearly follows Ottoman *naskh* shapes and structures as much as possible. But it is also obvious that in last instance orthography and not calligraphy was the decisive criteria. One can only guess what it must have meant for the greatest Ottoman calligrapher of his time to be overruled by orthographic and typographic *Systemzwang*.

Note: All CQO examples were located with the Archigraphemic Koran Concordance, all MSA examples were computer-generated with Basis Technology's Arabic Editor—a reversible transcription system, the Ottoman *naskh* examples were computer-generated by ACE (De-coType's Arabic Calligraphic Engine), and the typesetting was done in WinSoft Tasmeeem, a special version of Adobe InDesign that incorporates ACE and provides a sophisticated user interface. The author played a key role in the development of all these technologies.

26 AZIZ EFENDI: 1872-1934. His live and works are described in *Hattat Aziz Efendi*, PROF. DR. MUHITTIN SERIN, Istanbul 1999. This well-produced monography has a large number of beautiful reproductions which give a clear impression of his art. Nothing of Aziz Efendi's superb *naskh* ductus, the zenith of five centuries of Ottoman expertise, is reflected in the Fu'ād typography. What AZIZ EFENDI'S role was in preparing the Cairo recension is not clear.



مَعَ الشَّهِيدِينَ ﴿٨٣﴾ وَمَا لَنَا لَا نُؤْمِنُ بِاللَّهِ وَمَا جَاءَنَا مِنَ
 الْحَقِّ وَنَطْمَعُ أَنْ يُدْخِلَنَا رَبُّنَا مَعَ الْقَوْمِ الصَّالِحِينَ ﴿٨٤﴾
 فَأَثْبَهُمُ اللَّهُ بِمَا قَالُوا جَنَّتِ تَجْرِي مِنْ تَحْتِهَا الْأَنْهَارُ

Plate 1. Eighth to tenth century Qur'an folio without *hamzā*, *šaddā*, or *sukūn*. Both the script, with characteristic "sloping twins" (cf. Milo 2008 in *Schlaglichter*) and the shapes of the vowels are archaic. Only one vowel sign is used, a red dot. This single shape depending on its position above, below or inline indicates the vowel /a/, /i/ and /u/ respectively. Reduplication in any of these positions indicates the suffixed indefinite article {-n}. This is the precursor of modern *tanwīn*. This positioning pattern of a single shape with three positions survives in the later *hamzā*. Text in archigraphemic transliteration: ME A LSHD BN W MA LBA LA BW MN BA LLH W MA GA BA MN A LGQ W BTME A N BD GLBA R BBA ME A LFW M A LCLGBN FA BBHM A LH BMA FLW A GBB BGR Y MN BGBHA A LA BHR. [see MILO 1989, in: PETER FÜHRING, *Design into Art, Drawings for Architecture and Ornament*, THE LODEWIJK HOUTHAKKER COLLECTION, Volume II, plate 1073, Q5:83-85].

فَلِكُمْ وَ مِنْ أَلَدِ بَر
 أَسْوَدًا أَدْعَى
 كَلَامًا وَ يَأْتِيهِمْ
 وَ تَقْوَى فَالْزَالِمَ
 مِنْ حَوْلِهِ أَلَا مَوْدِعٌ
 وَ يَأْتِيهِمْ أَلَا مَوْدِعٌ
 مَسْأَلَةً يَأْتِيهِمْ
 أَلَا مَوْدِعٌ لَلنَّاسِ
 وَ لَا يَكْفُرُ بِهِ فَعَدْوُهُ
 وَ لَا يَكْفُرُ بِهِ فَعَدْوُهُ
 وَ لَا يَكْفُرُ بِهِ فَعَدْوُهُ

أَوْتُوا الْكِتَابَ مِنْ قَبْلِكُمْ وَمِنَ الَّذِينَ أَشْرَكُوا أَذَى كَثِيرًا
 وَإِنْ تَصْبِرُوا وَتَتَّقُوا فَإِنَّ ذَلِكَ مِنْ عَزْمِ الْأُمُورِ ﴿١٨٦﴾
 وَإِذَا أَخَذَ اللَّهُ مِيثَاقَ الَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْكِتَابَ لُبِّيئْتُهُ
 لِلنَّاسِ وَلَا تَكْتُمُونَهُ، فَبَيَضُوهُ وَمِرَّاءَ طُهُورِهِمْ وَأَشْرَوْا
 بِهِ ۚ ثُمَّ قَلِيلًا فَيَسَّ مَا يَشْتَرُونَ ﴿١٨٧﴾ لَا تَحْسَبَنَّ الَّذِينَ

Plate 2. Tenth century Qur'an folio with *hamzā* shaped as truncated 'ayn, together with *šaddā*, but there is no *sukūn*. The shapes of the vowels are modern, the script is still archaic, with characteristic "sloping twins" (cf. MILO 2008 in *Schlaglichter*). Text in archigraphemes: FBLKM W MN A LD BN A SR KW A A D Y KBBR A W A N BCBR W A W BBFW A FA N D LK MN ER M A LA MW R W A D A GD A LLH MBBQ A LD BN A W BW A A LKBB LBBBBBH LLBS W LA BKBMW BH FBBD W H W R A THW R HM W A SBR W A BH BMBA [Bernard Quaritch Catalogue 1213, plate 15, Q3:186-187. With kind permission of Quaritch].